Associate Editor Decision: Publish subject to minor revisions (Editor review) (14 Oct 2016) by Dr. Jean-Pierre Gattuso Comments to the Author: Dear Author,

Thank you for submitting a revised version of your manuscript submitted to Biogeosciences, which can be accepted for publication after minor revision. When submitting the revised version, please let me know which of the changes were not implemented, if any, and why. This will speed up final acceptance.

I look forward to seeing this paper published and thank you for considering Biogeosciences to publish these very interesting results.

Best regards, Jean-Pierre Gattuso BG editor

Dear Dr. Gattuso,

Thank you for your assistance moving our manuscript closer to publication. Below are attached your recommendations, our changes and/or an explanation of why the change was not implemented.

All the best, ~Amy Maas

- The referees asked to report the size range. In your reply, you say that the size range is already reported, as mass. Mass is not size! I appreciate that some sizes are not available but you could provide the measurements you have (length or diameter, depending on the shape of the species considered).

Unfortunately, measurements of size were not made at the time of the respiration experiments, in the interest of minimizing any effect of handling of animals. Following the experiments, the specimens were immediately frozen for later molecular work; some of these individuals have already been used for analyses of gene expression, and we are highly reluctant to thaw any of those that remain as this would make them unusable for future molecular work. Thus, this change was not implemented.

- I wonder how the percent saturation was calculated. For example, in the abstract you mention 130 μ mol/kg is 10%. Using the standard equation of Garcia & Gordon (1992, L&O), the O2 saturation at S=35, T=5, depth=200 m, is 307.892 μ mol/kg. Hence, 130 μ mol/kg would correspond to 42% of the saturation value.

We had an internal discussion about this percent saturation attribution as well. As you know, water that is fully saturated with oxygen only has 21%, the rest being made up of nitrogen. To order gas of the concentration that is appropriate for the Pacific we thus ordered 10% oxygen. This is ~48% of what would be oxygen saturation (similar to your calculation, minus the fact that we did not take into

account the 200 m depth, just the salinity and temperature as the experiments were run at sea level). As this appears to be confusing, for clarity, we have gone back through and re-expressed the % as relative to oxygen saturation rather than total gas composition for both 21% (100% saturated) and 10% (48% saturated).

- Mention in section 2.2 that pH was measured on the total scale

The information of pH in total scale has already been provided on line 200 in section 2.2. We have added the abbreviation to draw attention to the scale.

- 224 and elsewhere: always use the subscript "T" when an absolute pH value is given, including in the heading of Table 2. The heading of that table should also provide the unit for temperature.

The changes have been made.

- aAbreviate "hours by "h"

The change has been made

- 272: ranged between 15 and 50 ml ... and 8 to 20 ml (similar changes needed line 323)

The changes have been made (as well as in line 273).

- 337-338: the symbol for mole is "mol", not "M". But in this sentence mole could be spelled out.

The "M"s have been changed to moles.

- 337: indicate for which species Mayzaud reported this respiratory quotient of 0.8.

The information has been added

- Please list citations chronologically throughout the manuscript.

The change has been made

- References need to be formatted as described in the instructions to authors.

The references have been carefully checked to meet the formatting requirements of Biogeosciences.

- Biogeosciences strongly promotes the full availability of the data sets reported in the papers that it publishes in order to facilitate future data comparison and compilation as well as meta-analysis. This can be achieved by uploading the data sets in an existing database and providing the link(s) in the paper. Alternatively, the data sets can be published, for free, alongside the paper as supplementary

information. The ascii (or text) format is preferred for data and any format can be handled for movies, animations etc...

The respiration data is available online via the DOI provided in the text. The carbonate chemistry measurements and calculations associated with the experiments have now been included as supplementary data. The environmental chemistry measurements for the Pacific are available in BCO-DMO (Chu et al 2016) and the Atlantic data is in preparation for paper submission and will be available in BCO-DMO after paper acceptance.

1	The metabolic response of thecosome pteropods from the North
2	Atlantic and North Pacific Oceans to high CO2 and low O2
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32	Abstract. As anthropogenic activities directly and indirectly increase carbon dioxide (CO ₂) and
33	decrease oxygen (O ₂) concentrations in the ocean system, it becomes important to understand
34	how different populations of marine animals will respond. Water that is naturally low in pH, with
35	a high concentration of carbon dioxide (hypercapnia) and a low concentration of oxygen, occurs
36	at shallow depths (200-500 m) in the North Pacific Ocean, whereas similar conditions are absent
37	throughout the upper water column in the North Atlantic. This contrasting hydrography provides
38	a natural experiment to explore whether differences in environment cause populations of
39	cosmopolitan pelagic calcifiers, specifically the aragonitic-shelled pteropods, to have a different
40	physiological response when exposed to hypercapnia and low O2. Using closed-chamber end-
41	point respiration experiments, eight species of pteropods from the two ocean basins were
42	exposed to high CO ₂ (~800 μ atm) while six species were also exposed to moderately low O ₂
43	$(1048 \text$
44	the species tested showed a change in metabolic rate in response to high CO ₂ alone. Of those
45	species tested for an effect of O2, only Limacina retroversa from the Atlantic showed a response
46	to the combined treatment, resulting in a reduction in metabolic rate. Our results suggest that
47	pteropods have mechanisms for coping with short-term CO ₂ exposure and that there can be
48	interactive effects between stressors on the physiology of these open ocean organisms that
49	correlate with natural exposure to low O ₂ and high CO ₂ ; these are considerations that should be
50	taken into account in projections of organismal sensitivity to future ocean conditions.
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59	Key Words: ocean acidification, zooplankton, respiration
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61 **1. Introduction**

62 Ocean acidification, a result of the dissolution of anthropogenically-produced carbon dioxide 63 (CO₂) into sea water, is increasingly considered to be one of the most pervasive human changes to the marine system (Halpern et al., 2008; Doney et al., 2009; Gruber, 2011). The pH of the 64 65 ocean surface has already dropped by ~ 0.1 units relative to preindustrial levels and is predicted 66 to drop another 0.3-0.4 pH units in the next one hundred years (Haugan and Drange, 1996; Bopp 67 et al., 2013; IPCC, 2013). As CO₂ dissolves in the ocean, it causes changes in seawater carbonate 68 chemistry, notably increasing hydrogen ion concentration and decreasing the concentration of 69 carbonate ions. As a consequence of the changing equilibria, there is a reduction in pH and in the 70 saturation state of calcium carbonate ($CaCO_3$), including the biogenic forms of calcite and 71 aragonite. In some regions, as ocean acidification continues, the water becomes undersaturated 72 and corrosive, meaning that, in the absence of compensating biological action, conditions will 73 favor the dissolution of the $CaCO_3$ found in the shells and skeletons of calcifying organisms, 74 with aragonite being more sensitive than calcite (Millero, 2007).

75 Ocean acidification, therefore, impacts calcifying species on multiple fronts. Changes in 76 environmental pH can modify the acid-base balance of intra- and extracellular fluids of marine 77 organisms, which may result in reduced fitness or outright mortality (Seibel and Walsh, 2001; 78 Seibel and Fabry, 2003; Widdicombe and Spicer, 2008). Perturbations of seawater carbonate 79 chemistry can also affect the ability of some calcifying animals to create and maintain calcium 80 carbonate structures with implications for energetics, survival, competition and biogeochemical 81 export (Riebesell et al., 2000; Fabry et al., 2008; Ries et al., 2009). Understanding the long-term 82 effects of this increase in ocean acidity on both organisms and ecosystems has, therefore, become 83 of great concern. Important and outstanding research goals are to understand how changing CO_2 84 impacts current populations and to predict whether these populations will be able to adapt to the 85 rate and severity of the rising anthropogenic CO₂ inputs (e.g. Sunday et al., 2011; Dam, 2013; 86 Kelly and Hofmann, 2013).

87 One approach to understanding the response of marine animals to acidification is to 88 examine places where animals already experience conditions of elevated CO₂ (hypercapnia). By 89 comparing individuals that inhabit regions of high CO₂ with those that never experience high 90 levels naturally, insight can be gained into the potential for adaptation of species to high CO₂ 91 over evolutionary timescales. The ocean chemistry of the northwest Atlantic and the northeast Pacific Oceans provides such a natural experiment. High CO₂ concentrations are generally
absent from the upper water column in the Atlantic (Wanninkhof et al., 2010). In contrast there
currently are hypercapnic conditions, where the water is undersaturated with respect to aragonite,
in the upper water column in parts of the Pacific.

96 The source of hypercapnia in the Pacific Ocean is a combined result of ocean circulation 97 coupled with the biological processes, leading the old deep waters of the Pacific to be some of 98 the most CO₂ rich in the ocean (Broecker et al., 1982). On top of this natural process, ocean 99 acidification also plays a role: the pH of the upper water column in the North Pacific is 100 decreasing by ~0.002 pH units per year (Byrne et al., 2010; Chu et al., 2016), similar to the 101 global average of 0.0022 pH units per year (Williams et al., 2015). Such a change corresponds to 102 a total CO₂, or dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), increase of 1–2 µmol kg⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Peng et al., 103 2003; Sabine et al., 2008; Sabine and Tanhua, 2010; Chu et al., 2016). Although the surface 104 waters in these regions are typically well oxygenated and with a pH > 8, animals that live at or 105 migrate to depth experience increasingly low oxygen (O₂), pH, under-saturation with respect to 106 calcium carbonate, and elevated CO_2 (Seibel, 2011). Historically these regions, which occur in 107 many ocean basins, were in fact known more for their low O₂ than for their high CO₂ and were 108 termed oxygen minimum zones (OMZs). These carbon maximum/oxygen minimum zones are 109 extensive in the North Pacific Ocean, whereas similar conditions are rare in much of the Atlantic 110 (Paulmier et al., 2011). Closely related taxa and cosmopolitan species in these two regions therefore experience very different pH levels as well as CO₂ and O₂ concentrations in their 111 112 normal distribution. Independent from high CO_2 , the reduced O_2 at depth in these OMZs has a 113 profound impact on zooplankton distribution (i.e.: Wishner et al., 2008; Escribano et al., 2009; 114 Maas et al., 2014) and can have important implications for the physiology of zooplankton 115 (Childress and Seibel, 1998; Rosa and Seibel, 2008; Seibel, 2011). 116 The cosome pteropods are an interesting group for investigating planktonic exposure and 117 response to hypercapnia and low O_2 . Broadly distributed throughout the open ocean, species of 118 the cosomes found in shallow waters of temperate and polar seas can become a numerically

- dominant member of the zooplankton community (van der Spoel, 1967; Hunt et al., 2008;
- 120 Bednaršek et al., 2012a). As such, they can be an important part of the food chain (Armstrong et
- 121 al., 2005; Hunt et al., 2008; Karnovsky et al., 2008), and contribute substantially to carbon flux
- 122 (Fabry and Deuser, 1991; Noji et al., 1997; Bauerfeind et al., 2009; Manno et al., 2010). Bearing

123 thin shells of aragonite, one of the less stable forms of biogenic calcium carbonate, the

124 calcification of the cosomes has been shown to be impacted by exposure to conditions replicating

125 the projected changes in surface water pH and saturation state of the future ocean in the next 100

126 years (Comeau et al., 2009; Lischka et al., 2011; Manno et al., 2012). Furthermore, recent

127 assessments have shown that their shells are degraded in upwelling and polar regions

128 characterized by under-saturated conditions with respect to aragonite (Bednaršek et al., 2012b;

129 Bednaršek et al., 2014; Bednarsek and Ohman, 2015). Studies of metabolism and behavior,

130 however, reveal a complex sensitivity to pH, dependent upon natural pre-exposure and the

131 presence of interactive stressors (Comeau et al., 2010; Maas et al., 2012b; Manno et al., 2012;

132 Seibel et al., 2012).

133 Previous work has shown that some tropical and sub-tropical thecosome species undergo 134 diel vertical migrations into persistent and pronounced regions of low O_2 and hypercapnia in the 135 Eastern tropical North Pacific. These species showed no change in metabolic rate (O_2 136 consumption) when exposed to high CO_2 (1000 µatm), revealing the ability of some groups of 137 the cosome to maintain aerobic metabolism in acidified waters for short periods of time. The one 138 species in the region that does not migrate, however, responded with a suppression of 139 metabolism when exposed to high CO₂ (Maas et al., 2012b). This work in the Eastern tropical 140 North Pacific provides evidence that there may be the potential for environmental adaptation of 141 the cosomes to high CO₂, but provides no insight into the combined effects of CO₂ with low O₂. 142 Although research into this topic is underway for other calcifying organisms in coastal habitats 143 (Melzner et al., 2013; Gobler et al., 2014), in the open ocean our understanding remains limited.

144 The objective of this study, therefore, was to compare the effect of high CO_2 and low O_2 145 on the cosome pteropods from the northwest Atlantic and the northeast Pacific Oceans. One of 146 the benefits of this comparison is that there are a number of species of thecosomes that have 147 cosmopolitan distributions occupying both basins and that are known to be diel vertical 148 migrators (Table 1; van der Spoel, 1967; Bé and Gilmer, 1977). Thus populations in the Pacific 149 would naturally experience hypercapnia and low O_2 in their daytime deep habitat in the Pacific, 150 while in contrast, those from the Atlantic would rarely experience the same environmental 151 stressors. The taxonomy of the cosomes has recently begun to be revisited using molecular and 152 paleontological tools (i.e. Hunt et al., 2010; Jennings et al., 2010; Janssen, 2012; Maas et al., 153 2013) and there is growing evidence of cryptic speciation for some pteropod groups (Gasca and

154 Janssen, 2014; Burridge et al., 2015). It thus should be noted that the inter-basin comparisons

155 performed here may be of cryptic congeners rather than conspecific populations. Using these

156 organisms, which are presumably adapted to their local conditions, we can test whether species

157 or congeners exhibit a population-specific physiological response to these environmental

- 158 conditions indicative of different sensitivities.
- 159

160 **2. Methods**

161 The cosome pteropods caught during cruises to the northwest Atlantic and northeast Pacific were 162 exposed aboard ship to manipulated conditions of moderately high CO_2 and/or low O_2 for short 163 durations (< 18 h). After this exposure their metabolic rates were measured and then compared to 164 determine whether there were species- or region-specific responses to the treatments.

165

2.1 Sampling

Animals were collected on two cruises, the first on August 7th – September 1st 2011 in the 166 167 northwest Atlantic aboard the R/V Oceanus, and the second in the northeast Pacific from August 9th – September 18th 2012 aboard the R/V New Horizon. The majority of the sampling in the 168 169 Atlantic took place along a three-part 'z'-shaped transect running between 35°N 52°W and 50°N 170 42°W, as well as at sites during transit to and from port (Fig. 1). The first portion of this cruise 171 track corresponded to a segment of the World Ocean Circulation Experiment / Climate and 172 Ocean: Variability, Predictability and Change project (WOCE/CLIVAR) line A20. In the North 173 Pacific the main sampling took place along a two-part transect running between 50°N 150°W 174 and 33.5°N 135°W, corresponding to a portion of WOCE/CLIVAR line P17N, as well as at sites 175 during transit to and from port (Fig. 1).

176 Sampling was part of a larger interdisciplinary project employing a suite of tools to 177 explore the natural distribution and hydrographic environment of the thecosomes. The sampling 178 design included underway measurements of hydrography, carbonate chemistry and multi-179 frequency acoustic backscattering. Comprehensive sampling of the water column was conducted at pre-determined stations using a depth-stratified 1-m² Multiple Opening/Closing Net and 180 181 Environmental Sensing System with 150 µm mesh nets (MOCNESS; Wiebe et al., 1985), a 182 towed broadband echosounder, video plankton recorder casts, and profiles with a 24-place 10-L 183 Niskin bottle rosette and associated conductivity, temperature and depth (CTD) package. This 184 CTD was equipped with dual temperature and conductivity sensors, a Digiquartz pressure sensor, a SBE43 dissolved oxygen sensor, a biospherical underwater photosynthetically active radiation
(PAR) sensor with surface reference, a Wet Labs C-Star transmissometer (660 nm wavelength),
and a Wet Labs ECO-AFL fluorometer.

Hydrographic profiles associated with this study were collected of temperature, O₂ and salinity using the CTD-Rosette-Niskin bottle package at stations along the main survey transects (Fig. 1). Where CTD casts were unavailable, at stations conducted during the transits to and from port, an expendable bathythermograph (XBT) was deployed to determine the temperature of the water column. Bottle samples of carbonate parameters, nutrients, and other parameters were collected at selected water depths using the CTD-Rosette package.

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2.2 Environmental Carbonate Chemistry

195 Discrete pH samples were directly collected from the 10-L Niskin bottles into 10 cm cylindrical 196 optical cells and measured within 4 h of collection (Clayton and Byrne, 1993; Dickson et al., 197 2007). These pH samples were analyzed spectrophotometrically on an Agilent 8453 198 spectrophotometer at a control temperature $(25.0 \pm 0.1^{\circ}C)$ following the method detailed in 199 Dickson (2007) and Clayton and Byrne (1993) using m-cresol purple as the indicator. The pH 200 results in total scale (pH_T) have been corrected for indicator impurity (Liu et al., 2011) and 201 indicator perturbation to seawater samples. The pH measurements have a precision better than 202 0.001 and an accuracy of ~ 0.002 .

Nutrient samples (nitrate/nitrite, phosphate, silicate, and ammonia) were collected in 20
mL plastic bottles after filtration through a 0.22um Pall capsule filter and kept frozen until
analysis. Nutrient samples were analyzed either at the WHOI Nutrient Analytical Facility or the
University of California, Santa Barbara, using a Lachat Instruments QuickChem 8000 fourchannel continuous flow injection system, following standard colorimetric methods approved by
U.S. Environmental Protection Agency.

Discrete samples were also taken for dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and total
alkalinity (TA). These were collected in 250 mL Pyrex borosilicate glass bottles after being
filtered with a 0.45 µm in-line capsule filter and poisoned with saturated mercuric chloride
(Dickson et al., 2007). DIC samples were analyzed on a DIC auto-analyzer (AS-C3, Apollo
SciTech, Bogart, USA) via sample acidification, followed by non-dispersive infrared CO₂
detection (LiCOR 7000: Wang and Cai, 2004; Wang et al., 2013). The instrument was calibrated
with certified reference material (CRM) from Dr. A.G. Dickson at the Scripps Institution of

Oceanography. The DIC measurements have a precision and accuracy of $\pm 2.0 \ \mu mol \ kg^{-1}$. TA 216

- 217 measurements were made with an Apollo SciTech alkalinity auto-titrator, a Ross combination
- 218 pH electrode, and a pH meter (ORION 3 Star) based on a modified Gran titration method with a
- precision and accuracy of $\pm 2.0 \ \mu mol \ kg^{-1}$ (Wang and Cai, 2004). 219
- 220 The remaining water column carbonate system parameters, including aragonite saturation 221 state and pCO_2 were calculated from DIC-pH_T pairs at in situ nutrient, temperature, salinity and 222 pressure using the software CO2Sys (Pierrot et al., 2006) and the dissociation constants of 223 Mehrbach et al. (1973), refitted by Dickson and Millero (1987), and the KHSO₄ dissociation 224 constant from Dickson (1990). Depths for pH_T=7.7, pCO₂=800 µatm and aragonite saturation 225 state of 1 were then linearly interpolated using the closest available measurements.
- 226 Surface water pCO₂ was continuously measured throughout both cruises using an 227 automated underway system (Model 8050, General Oceanics Inc., USA) based on headspace air-228 seawater equilibration followed by infrared detection (LiCOR 7000). This system was calibrated 229 every 1-2 hours with three CO₂ gas standards traceable to World Meteorological Organization 230 CO_2 Mole Fraction Scale. These underway p CO_2 measurements have a precision and accuracy of $\sim \pm 1$ µatm. Measurements made by the underway system provide insight into the surface 231 232 carbonate chemistry parameters at stations made in transit where bottle samples were not 233 collected.
- 234

2.3 Specimen Capture

235 The cosome species were chosen for physiological study opportunistically as they appeared in net 236 samples at successive stations. Species were targeted specifically for their abundance and the 237 likelihood of their presence in both ocean basins and only adult individuals were used. Most 238 individuals were collected with a 1-m diameter, 150-µm mesh Reeve net with a ~25 L cod-end in 239 the Atlantic and a similar 1-m diameter, Reeve net equipped with 330-µm mesh in the Pacific. 240 Use of the Reeve net with its large and heavy cod-end in combination with slow haul rates 241 (typically 5-10 m min⁻¹) allowed for gentle collection of the delicate thecosomes, consistently 242 supplying animals in good condition with undamaged shells and external mantle appendages. 243 Net tows were made at night when animals were expected to congregate at shallow depths, were 244 \sim 1 h in duration in an effort to minimize the handling time of the organisms, and reached a 245 maximal depth between 100–150 m. Depths were targeted that had a high chlorophyll *a* peak 246 during CTD casts, high acoustic backscattering on the echosounder, and/or where the cosomes

had been abundantly sampled at the same station using the MOCNESS. Occasionally,

- 248 individuals of less abundant species were collected from the nets of the MOCNESS for
- 249 physiological study, but only if their shells were undamaged and they were swimming normally.
- 250 Post-capture, individuals were transferred to filtered water in densities of < 15 ind. L⁻¹ 251 and kept for at least 8 h in temperature controlled waterbaths to allow for gut clearance. 252 Temperatures for experimentation (20, 15 or 10° C) were chosen to be generally representative of 253 the waters from which the animals were sampled, based on the vertical distributions and 254 hydrographic conditions documented with the stratified MOCNESS sampling. Chosen 255 temperatures were typically the average of the water temperature between 25-100 m, although in 256 the middle section of the Atlantic cruise experimental temperatures were reflective of the 25–50 257 m average due to the particularly shallow vertical distribution of the dominant species (Limacina 258 *retroversa*) sampled in this region. This was to ensure that experiments were occurring at 259 physiologically relevant and, presumably, natural temperatures for each species. After gut 260 clearance, individuals that were in good condition (i.e., swimming and with shell intact) were 261 used for oxygen consumption experiments.
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2.4 Experimental Exposures and Oxygen Consumption Rate

263 Post-gut clearance, healthy animals were put into separate glass syringe respiration chambers, one individual per chamber, with a known volume of 0.2 μ m filtered seawater and 25 mg L⁻¹ 264 265 each of streptomycin and ampicillin. This minimized the microbial respiration effects on the 266 measurements of carbonate chemistry and O₂ consumption rates by pteropods during the 267 experiments. The inclusion of antibiotics, a method which has previously been used with 268 the cosomes to prevent bacterial growth in respiration experiments (Maas et al., 2012a), was 269 shown during the Pacific cruise to have no effect on the O₂ consumption of at least *Limacina* 270 helicina, for the exposure durations associated with these experiments (Howes et al., 2014). The 271 volume of water in the treatments was chosen to complement the size of the organism and 272 temperature of the experiment and ranged between 15- and 50 mL in 2011 and 8- and 20 mL in 273 2012. For every 3- to 5 treatment chambers, a "control" respiration chamber (experimental 274 seawater with antibiotics and without pteropods) was set up to monitor microbial activity and to 275 provide water for characterization of the starting conditions.

Filtered seawater for experimental exposures was collected during both cruises in batches at approximately weekly intervals from the surface; experimental water thus began with 278 chemical properties (notably including TA, DIC, pH, as well as salinity) reflective of the local 279 environment and was then manipulated to modify CO_2 and/or O_2 concentrations. Manipulations 280 were achieved by bubbling 1 L batches of collected seawater with gas mixes (certified accurate 281 to $\pm 2\%$) for 45–60 min with one of two oxygen (21-100% and 1048% of O₂ saturation) levels 282 crossed with two CO₂ (nominally 380 µatm and 800 µatm) levels. At the time of the experiment, 283 surface air pCO₂ conditions were on average ca. 380 ppm, dictating our ambient (i.e., low 284 carbon, LC) conditions. In 2011 the ambient condition (~21100% of O₂ saturation and 380 µatm CO_2) was achieved by bubbling with an ambient clean air line, while in 2012 it was achieved by 285 286 a certified 380 ppm gas mix.

287 The experimentally modified concentrations mimic the CO_2 and O_2 levels that would be 288 experienced by the cosomes within the top 400 m of the Pacific Ocean, and reflect the average 289 projected atmospheric CO_2 level for the open ocean in the year 2100 (A2 emissions scenario, 290 IPCC, 2007). This resulted in four total treatments: low (i.e., ambient) CO₂, high oxygen 291 (LC/HO) representative of current ambient surface ocean conditions; high carbon, high oxygen 292 (HC/HO), replicating what we expect the average future surface ocean to resemble; low CO₂, 293 low oxygen (LC/LO); and high carbon, low oxygen (HC/LO), which is similar to what 294 organisms in the Pacific would experience during a diel vertical migration into the local oxygen 295 minimum zone. The goal of this design was to allow us to compare directly the Atlantic and 296 Pacific thecosomes to see whether exposure to 800 µatm pCO₂ and/or 1048% of O₂ saturation 297 resulted in different outcomes. The level of low O₂ chosen for this study was well above the threshold that has been designated as stressful for non-specialized metazoan life (< 2 mg $O_2 L^{-1}$ 298 or 60 µmol O₂ kg⁻¹; Vaquer-Sunyer and Duarte, 2008), in order to test the non-lethal effect of 299 300 moderately low O₂ on individuals from the two ocean basins. Calculations based on the salinity 301 and temperature of the water indicated that bubbling with 1048% of O₂ saturation achieved 302 conditions of $\frac{1048}{1362}$ % of O₂ saturation by the start of experiments. Subsequent analyses (see 303 below) also confirmed that intended CO₂ concentrations were achieved for all treatments within 304 reasonable ranges, with the exception of the LC/LO Atlantic treatment. In this case, the gas 305 cylinder was evidently improperly mixed by the manufacturer and analyses suggested a ca. 100 306 ppm CO_2 concentration. The results for this treatment are still presented but should be 307 interpreted as a distinct treatment.

308 Oxygen consumption was measured following similar techniques as described in Marsh 309 and Manahan (1999). Briefly, at the conclusion of the experiment water was withdrawn from 310 treatment or control chambers using an airtight 500 µL Hamilton syringe and injected past a 311 Clarke-type microcathode (part #1302, Strathkelvin Instruments, North Lanarkshire, United 312 Kingdom) attached to an O₂ meter (part #782) in a water-jacketed injection port (part #MC100). 313 This was done three times, allowing the reading to stabilize for at least 30 seconds before a 314 measurement was taken. Generally, the change in oxygen consumption was between 3–25% of 315 the control value. In high oxygen experiments, if the oxygen level fell below 70% of air 316 saturation they were excluded from the analysis.

317 Following exposure, animals were removed from the chamber, blotted dry and frozen in 318 liquid nitrogen. These individuals were later weighed using a microbalance (± 0.0001 g) and the resulting mass specific O₂ consumption rates are reported in µmoles (g wet weight)⁻¹ h⁻¹. Wet 319 320 weights are here used as they are more relevant for physiological understanding of animal 321 function (Childress et al., 2008) but dry weights can be estimated from these using the wet 322 weight to dry weight relationships developed previously for pteropods (Ikeda, 2014). To 323 replicate the duration of exposure that would be experienced by most thecosomes in the Pacific 324 undergoing a daily migration to depth, the experiments were targeted to last 6- to 12 h. In 325 practice, experiments ranged from 6- to 18 h for normoxic and 3- to 10 h for low O₂ trials. This 326 variation in duration resulted from balancing the need to elicit a measureable change in O_2 327 concentration with preventing extreme O_2 depletion of the chambers (< 6% oxygen saturation) 328 and accounting for multiple species of variable size and metabolic rate.

329

2.5 Experimental Carbonate Chemistry

330 Carbonate chemistry of the treatments was characterized in most cases via measurements of DIC 331 and TA of experimental seawater, unless indicated otherwise. The process of measuring the O₂ in 332 the treatments used up a large portion of the water and then the chamber was unsealed and 333 disturbed to remove the animal, rendering it impractical to measure the carbonate chemistry 334 directly from the respiration chambers. DIC measurements were thus taken from the control 335 syringes within 18 h of the end of each experiment and used to represent the starting point of the 336 carbonate chemistry conditions the animals experienced. Water samples were allowed to come to 337 room temperature (> 6 h) before analysis. DIC was measured using the same system as that used 338 for the hydrographic characterization (see above). Estimates of the effect of CO₂ production via

respiration in treatment chambers on DIC were made using a respiratory quotient of 0.8 <u>M-mole</u> of CO₂ per 1 <u>M-mole</u> of O₂ consumed (caluculated using *Sagitta elegans*; Mayzaud, 1976) to characterize the ending conditions of the experiments.

342 Due to the small volumes of water in the experimental chambers, it was not possible to 343 measure both DIC and TA from the control syringes. Instead, TA samples intended to be 344 representative of the starting experimental conditions were collected via siphoning from each 345 batch of collected surface water. These samples were subsequently measured based on the 346 analytical method described above (Wang and Cai 2004). TA of experimental water was 347 assumed to have been constant over the course of each experiment as water was filtered (0.2 μ m) 348 and antibiotic treated (thus microbial activities were kept at minimum). Although pteropod 349 aerobic respiration, excretion, and calcification within a respiration chamber could influence TA, 350 these are presumed to have not had a significant influence over the time scales in question.

351 In some instances, however, measured TA from the batches of experimental water was 352 substantially dissimilar to that of the surface measurements made from nearby in situ surface bottle samples collected with the CTD (> 20 μ mol kg⁻¹; see section 3.3). Calculated pCO₂ values 353 354 in these cases were also significantly different from batches of experimental water collected from 355 other locations, but bubbled with the same CO₂ gas tank. These differences are more than 10 356 times the measurement precision/accuracy and 5 times the uncertainty of duplicate sampling and 357 measurements during the cruises. They are also beyond the likely level of TA variation due to 358 differences in sampling location (geographic and in depth) between the in situ bottle samples and 359 experimental water batches and rather are likely a consequence of the difficulties associated with 360 cleanly siphoning the experimental water batches (i.e., contamination during sampling). For 361 completeness, the carbonate chemistry system parameters for the experimental water, including 362 aragonite saturation state and pCO₂, are reported based on calculations using DIC-TA pairs using 363 both the experimental TA and the in situ measurements from the CTD bottle samples; in those cases where the TA measurements diverged substantially (> 20 μ mol kg⁻¹), however, we base 364 365 our interpretations on the in-situ measured TA at nearby CTD stations instead of the values of 366 experimental water. In those circumstances where batch water was taken from test stations 367 during transit to/from the main study regions and CTD bottle data were unavailable, the 368 experimental TA was checked using calculated TA values using DIC from the LC/HO treatments 369 and pCO_2 from the underway measurements.

2.6 Statistics

371 Oxygen consumption rates were tested for significant differences between groups using SPSS.

372 Univariate General Linear Models (GLM) were conducted to determine the effect of CO₂ level,

373 O₂ level, and their interactive effect using the log transformed oxygen consumption with log

transformed wet mass as a covariate separately for each species (2 factor design; " $CO_2 \times O_2$ "). In

the Atlantic this full factorial design was confounded by the incorrect gas mixture so each

treatment was tested independently (1 factor design; "treatment"). Species that were collected

during both years/basins, and experiments conducted on species at multiple temperatures, were

analyzed separately so that the effect of variations in mass between seasons and the changes in

379 metabolic rate at different temperatures would not confound the analysis. The datasets were

380 tested for normality and homoscedasticity and, in cases where significance was found in the

381 GLM they were explored with Bonferroni pairwise post-hoc comparisons.

For some species the temperature of experimentation was different among stations within a basin. For analyses with these species when comparing species between ocean basins, we applied a standard temperature coefficient (Q_{10}) to compare across temperatures. The adjusted rates (R_f) were calculated at 15°C using a Q_{10} of 2 according to the equation:

386
$$R_f = R_i * \left(Q_{10}^{\left(\frac{15-T_i}{10}\right)} \right)$$

where R_i is the original metabolic rate measured at the original temperature (T_i). Although previous work with the cosomes has shown that Q_{10} is species-specific (Seibel et al., 2007; Maas et al., 2011; Maas et al., 2012a), for many of the species used in this study there are no published estimates of Q_{10} . Thus, this coefficient value was chosen as it is mid-range for the published Q_{10} of non-polar the cosome species as recently compiled by Ikeda (2014; 1.3-2.7) and is consistent with estimates of average Q_{10} for marine ectotherms, which typically fall between 2-3 (Hochachka and Somero, 2002; Seibel and Drazen, 2007).

394 **3. Results**

395 3.1 Specimen Capture

Following currently accepted morphology-based taxonomy, adult individuals from a total of
eight species of pteropods were collected over the course of the two cruises for physiological
studies. Only relatively large adult specimens were used in respiration trials, in part to avoid any
confounding effects of ontogeny and in part to ensure a measurable change in oxygen levels. We

400 collected two species of the cosome pteropods exclusively from the Atlantic, *Limacina retroversa* 401 (Fleming, 1823), a subpolar species, which is absent from the North Pacific, and *Diacria* 402 trispinosa (Blainville, 1821), which can be found in temperate and tropical regions of the 403 Atlantic, Pacific and Indian Oceans. Although present in both the North Atlantic and Pacific, the 404 polar to sub-polar species Limacina helicina (Phipps, 1774), was only sampled in the Pacific 405 transect. Collections of this species consisted of intermixed formae, the high spiraled *Limacina* 406 helicina helicina acuta (van der Spoel, 1967), the lower spiraled Limacina helicina helicina 407 *pacifica* (van der Spoel, 1967), and a forma that bore resemblance to both in a mixed 408 morphology. Since both the assemblage and morphology of these formae were mixed they were 409 tested as one population/species. In both ocean basins we collected *Styliola subula* (Quoy and 410 Gaimard, 1827), Cavolinia inflexa (Lesueur, 1813) and Clio pyramidata (Linnaeus, 1767). 411 There is some morphological and molecular evidence that *Cuvierina columnella* (Rang, 1827) is 412 actually multiple distinct species, now including *Cuvierina atlantica* and *Cuvierina pacifica* 413 (Janssen, 2005; Burridge et al., 2015), and we tested individuals of these species from their 414 respective ocean basins.

415 **3.2 Hydrography**

416 Two hydrographic regimes were evident along the North Pacific study transect (Table 2; Fig. 2). 417 The northern-most stations (50°N 150°W to 47 °N 144.6°W; stations T2-T7, 3-7; Fig. 1) were coldest, with temperatures between 25-100 m ranging from 5-10°C. At these stations O₂ fell 418 419 below 1048% saturated (~130 μ mol kg⁻¹) at depths less than ~250 m, pH fell below 7.7 at depths 420 less than 130 m, and pCO₂ had already reached 800 μ atm by ~200 m. Individuals in this area 421 experienced an $\Omega_{Ar} = 1$ between 160-185 m, well within the typical diel vertically migratory 422 range of both of the species found in the region (C. pyramidata and L. helicina). At stations from 423 more southern latitudes (47 °N 144.6°W to 33.5°N 135°W; stations 15-34, T9-T10; Fig. 1), 424 temperatures at depths between 25-100 m were higher, ranging between 10-17°C, representative 425 of the transition zone into the North Pacific Gyre. Along this portion of the transect O_2 426 concentration consistently fell below 1048% saturated by depths of 340 and 400 m. The depth at 427 which pH_T fell below 7.7 increased gradually from ~150 to 230 m as latitude decreased. 428 Correspondingly, the depth at which pCO_2 in this area reached 800 µatm was 330 to 440 m, and 429 the aragonite saturation horizon 330 m to 430 m depth. The depth at which species would 430 experience a pH_T below 7.7 was within the inhabited depth range known from the literature for

431 all of the species tested in this portion of the study region, but only the species *Clio pyramidata*, 432 with a typical vertical range of 0-500 m (Table 2), would be likely to experience 1048% of O₂ 433 saturation, 800 µatm pCO₂ and aragonite under-saturation in its typical distribution (Table 1).

434 In contrast to the Pacific, along the entire Atlantic transect O₂ concentration was above 435 ~200 μ mol kg⁻¹ (~1572% saturation) in the top 500 m, while pCO₂ never reached 800 μ atm and aragonite under-saturation never occurred throughout the top 1000 m. There were three dominant 436 437 hydrographic regimes in the Atlantic (Table 2; Fig. 2). In the northeastern part of the sampling region (50°N 42°W to 44.9 °N 42°W; stations 21-31; Fig. 1), where the Gulf Stream meets the 438 439 Labrador Current, average temperatures at 25-100 m were near 15°C and pH_T only fell below 7.7 440 at depths exceeding 400 m. Similarly, in the southwest part of the sampling region (from 42°N 441 52°W to 36°N 52°W; stations 3-13; Fig. 1), corresponding to the Sargasso Sea and through the 442 Gulf Stream, pH_T only fell below 7.7 at depths exceeding 450 m, although the upper water 443 column was warmer, with average temperatures of 20°C. There was a third water mass type, 444 typical of colder fresher shelf waters, at station 32 and in an intrusion off the Grand Banks at 445 stations 17 and 19. Stations conducted in this water were typified by a temperature and salinity 446 anomaly with temperatures below 5°C from 25-100 m and a salinity signature < 33, contrasting 447 significantly with the surface salinities of the northern portion (\sim 34) and southern portion (\sim 36) 448 of the Atlantic transect. As a consequence, these stations contained water of the lowest pH, with 449 surface waters reaching 7.7 at depths shallower than 200 m.

450

3.3 Carbonate Chemistry of Experiments

451 Bubbling with CO₂ levels of ~380 and ~800 ppm resulted in a distinct separation of carbonate 452 chemistry between treatments during the experiments in both oceans (Table 3). Due to pre-453 existing differences in the carbonate chemistry of the seawater collected in each ocean, TA 454 differed between the two basin treatments. In the Atlantic the DIC of the ambient CO₂ treatments ranged from 2030-2090 µmol kg⁻¹ and the high CO₂ treatments from 2140-2220 µmol kg⁻¹, with 455 an average difference between treatments of similar temperature and salinity of 132 µmol kg⁻¹. 456 Surface TA in the region decreased from $\sim 2370 \text{ }\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ in the southern part of the transect to 457 2300 µmol kg⁻¹ in the northern latitudes. In the Pacific the DIC of the ambient CO₂ treatment 458 ranged from 1930-2020 µmol kg⁻¹ and the high CO₂ treatment from 2030-2110 µmol kg⁻¹, with 459 an average difference of 90.7 µmol kg⁻¹ between the treatments. Surface TA in this basin was 460

461 2150 μmol kg⁻¹ in the most northern collection and had increased to 2200 μmol kg⁻¹ by the
462 transect mid-point.

463 Calculations of pCO₂ based on these measurements of DIC and TA suggested that target 464 pCO_2 levels were generally attained and were consistent between the two cruises, with the 465 exception of the LC/LO treatment in the Atlantic. In this case, there was a substantial deviation 466 from the intended pCO₂, suggesting values ranging from 99-139 µatm in contrast to a range of 467 311-391 µatm for the LC/HO in the Atlantic and 283-409 µatm for LC/HO and 295-397 µatm in 468 the LC/LO in the Pacific. Evidently, this indicates improper mixing of the gas concentration in 469 the Atlantic LC/LO gas cylinder by the manufacturer. The calculations for the high CO_2 470 treatments were more consistent between cruises, with pCO_2 for the HC/HO being 585-868 µatm 471 and the HC/LO being 755-783 in the Atlantic, while in the Pacific the HC/HO treatment was 472 between 520-740 μ atm and the HC/LO 546-766 μ atm. The variability in calculated pCO₂ values 473 likely represents variations in bubbling time, temperature, and the degree to which the water 474 reached saturation relative to the gas mixtures.

475 As a consequence of the natural differences in seawater carbonate chemistry, in particular 476 the TA differences between two ocean basins, there were inherent differences in the aragonite 477 saturation state between the Pacific and Atlantic treatments (Table 3). In the Atlantic, Ω_{Ar} of the ambient CO₂ treatment ranged from 2.4-3.5, except for the LC/LO treatment (Ω_{Ar} 4.0-5.5), which 478 479 was bubbled with an incorrect gas mixture as discussed above. In comparison, in the Pacific the 480 ambient CO₂ condition had a lower range of Ω_{Ar} (2.2-2.4) for both the LC/HO and the LC/LO 481 treatments. The experimental conditions of the high CO₂ treatments reached their lowest value in 482 the middle part of the transect ($\Omega_{Ar} = 1.2$ at mid-latitudes; Table 3), where cold northern waters 483 of low salinity were encountered. Experimental Ω_{Ar} had a range of 1.5-2.0 for the rest of the 484 transect in the Atlantic. The values of experimental Ω_{Ar} were lower overall in the Pacific, 485 although the high CO₂ treatments also never reached under-saturation (Ω_{Ar} 1.3-1.8). In general, 486 the manipulation of carbonate chemistry in this study successfully created two distinct ranges for 487 both pCO₂ and aragonite saturation state (Ω_{Ar}).

It is important to acknowledge that the production of CO_2 via respiration of the organisms within the chambers would modify the carbonate chemistry of the treatments over the duration of the experiments. Based on the average respiration rate, we estimate an average DIC production of ~18.0 µmol kg⁻¹ by the end of an experiment. Applying such a change to the experimental 492 conditions in the northeast Pacific, where seawater is more sensitive to changes in DIC due to a 493 lower buffering capacity compared to the Atlantic (i.e., a worst case scenario), Ω_{Ar} would only 494 change by <0.1 in both the LC and HC experimental chambers over the course of the respiration 495 experiments. Although this is an appreciable effect, we nonetheless retain a wide separation 496 between the ambient and high CO₂ treatments and in no cases would the treatments reach under-497 saturation as a consequence of this biological activity. As such, for simplicity the results reported 498 in Table 3 do not include this correction for respiration.

499

3.4 Oxygen Consumption Rate

500

3.4.1 Effect of CO₂

501 Varying availability and abundances of the different the cosome pteropod species in the net 502 samples precluded all species being exposed to the full factorial design but individuals of all 503 species were tested under the low CO_2 , high oxygen (LC/HO) and high carbon, high oxygen 504 (HC/HO) treatments (Fig. 3, Table 4). To explore differences in metabolism attributable to a 505 response to CO₂, the log transformed wet mass was used in a GLM as a covariate comparing the 506 log transformed oxygen consumption (response variable) under low and high CO₂ conditions; 507 each population within a species that was sampled in both basins or run at multiple experimental 508 temperatures, was examined separately. There was no significant effect of CO₂ for any species in 509 either basin.

510

3.4.2 Effect of basin

511 Following this assessment, we were interested in determining whether there were 512 between basin differences in metabolic rate. As such we ran a GLM using log transformed 513 metabolic rates for the three species that were found in both basins, normalized to 15 °C to 514 account for differences in experimental temperature by applying a standard temperature 515 coefficient. With the log-transformed wet mass as a covariate, we tested for an effect of basin, 516 CO₂ and an interactive term. *Clio pyramidata* had a similar metabolic rate between basins. In 517 contrast, *Cavolinia inflexa* ($F_{1,20}$ =10.358, p=0.004) and *Styliola subula* ($F_{1,23}$ =11.817, p=0.002) 518 both had a significantly lower metabolic rate in the Pacific, although no interactive effect of CO₂. 519 3.4.2 Effect of O₂

520 For the species where enough individuals were collected to provide experimental 521 replicates to explore the interactive effects of CO₂ and O₂ we also ran a species and basin 522 specific GLM exploring the effect of treatment (Fig. 3, Table 5). *Clio pyramidata*, the only 523 species we were able to test in both basins showed no significant effect of high CO_2 , low O_2 or 524 the interactive treatment in either basin. In the Pacific, L. helicina and C. inflexa similarly 525 showed no significant change in metabolic rate as a consequence of any of the treatments. In 526 contrast, in the Atlantic, there was a significant effect of treatment for L. retroversa and a 527 Bonferroni post-hoc analysis comparing the treatments found that the high CO₂, low O₂ (HC/LO) 528 treatment was significantly lower than all other treatments (Fig. 4; F_{3.38}=17.836, p<0.001; a 529 ~60% reduction in the average mass specific metabolic rate in comparison with the LC/HO 530 treatment; Table 4). Cuvierina atlantica was tested at both 15 and 20 °C in the Atlantic, so to 531 make comparisons among these experiments a temperature coefficient was applied and rates 532 were normalized to 15 °C, after which no significant effect of any treatment was found for this 533 species.

534

535 **4. Discussion**

This study reveals that short term exposure to low O_2 and high CO_2 , similar to what would be experienced by individuals in the Pacific during diel vertical migration, does not influence the oxygen consumption of adult individuals of most of the thecosome pteropod species examined from either the Atlantic or Pacific. The only species that had a significant change in respiration in response to any of the treatments was *Limacina retroversa* from the Atlantic, which responded to the combined effect of low O_2 and high CO_2 with a reduction in oxygen consumption rate.

542

4.1 Experimental Design

543 A factor that should be considered when interpreting our results is the dynamic hydrographic 544 conditions that the animals experience naturally between and within the ocean basins.

The cosomes of multiple species were found at a range of temperatures, salinities and carbonate chemistries, meaning that they experienced a range of pH and aragonite saturation states in their natural habitat. When comparing animals from multiple locations, we chose to use local water in order to replicate these natural conditions and to manipulate exclusively the CO₂ concentration, as this is the factor that is changing due to anthropogenic activity. This approach, however, does

550 not control for the other parameters of the carbonate chemistry system, which will vary between

regions. Despite this fact, there was a clean distinction between treatments, notably in terms of

- aragonite saturation state as well as CO₂ concentration, which provides insight into the effect of
- 553 moderate short duration exposure to CO₂.

It is also important to note that the individuals of L. helicina from the Pacific experiments 554 555 did occasionally have very high mortality during the period prior to experimentation (>80% at 556 transit station T2 and T5, decreasing substantially to the northwest and along the main Pacific 557 transect). These individuals, which are polar/sub-polar organisms and are typically found 558 between -2 to 10 °C (Lalli and Gilmer, 1989), were collected from water that was likely near the 559 upper limit of their optimal temperatures although alternate possibilities are that these were a 560 population reaching senescence, or that they were collected in a hydrographic regime with low 561 food availability. Animals collected from these sites that were used in subsequent respiration 562 experiments may therefore have been taken from an already stressed population and should be 563 recognized as such.

564

4.2 Carbon Dioxide Effect

565 Hydrographic profiles collected in the Pacific coincident to sampling of the cosomes indicate that organisms in the northern portion of the study region would experience conditions 566 567 of high CO_2 and low O_2 in the upper ~450 m of their distribution (Chu et al., 2016). Based on 568 previous knowledge of the vertical distributions of the thecosomes used in this study, only the 569 species *Clio pyramidata* would ever experience a pH_T below 7.7 and none of the thecosomes 570 studied would experience 800 µatm pCO₂ or under-saturation within their vertical range in the 571 Atlantic study region and (Table 1). Despite these environmental differences, we found no 572 significant effect of increasing CO₂ alone on the respiration rates of any of the species from 573 either ocean basin. These results increase the published evidence that short term (6-18 h) 574 exposure to enhanced CO₂ without synergistic stressors has no significant effect on the metabolic 575 rate of many species of the osome pteropods. Thus far, there are only two species that have been 576 documented to show a change in metabolism based on exposure to manipulated CO_2 alone: 577 Limacina antarctica (789-1000 µatm, 24 h: Seibel et al., 2012) and Diacria quadridentata (1000 578 µatm, 6-18 h: Maas et al., 2012b). The metabolic rates of all other species yet studied, including 579 Hyalocylis striata, Clio pyramidata, Diacavolinia longirostris, Creseis virgula (6-18 h: Maas et 580 al., 2012b), and Limacina helicina (24 h: Comeau et al., 2010), were not significantly affected by 581 short term exposure to high CO₂, although the latter species showed an increase in metabolic rate 582 when high CO_2 was combined with high temperatures. Our results, which increase the 583 geographic coverage for L. helicina and C. pyramidata and provide the first data about the

species *C. pacifica, C. atlantica, L.retroversa, D. trispinosa, C.inflexa* and *S. subula,* corrobrate
these earlier findings.

586 One interpretation of these results is that physiological responses may have occurred, but 587 involved the reallocation of resources to different tissues or metabolic pathways; this 588 redistribution could serve to maintain the thecosome total energy budget, and subsequently 589 would not significantly change the metabolic rate of the individuals. A transcriptomic study done 590 with individuals of *Clio pyramidata* as a companion project to the present work in fact suggested 591 that expression of some genes was influenced by CO_2 exposure even though metabolic rate was 592 not (Maas et al., 2015), perhaps suggesting some re-allocation among energetic demands. If this 593 is the case it indicates that, to some degree, the short-term exposure to high CO_2 concentration is 594 within the physiological tolerance of the tested species. Alternative hypotheses are that the 595 duration of exposure was too short or the severity of the CO₂ treatment too minimal to elicit a 596 measurable response. It is possible, for example, that some processes, like biomineralization, 597 may be influenced by high CO_2 , but only after a longer exposure duration. Finally, it may be that 598 changes in respiration rate were subtle, requiring a much greater sample size to identify in light 599 of biological variability, but exploration of this hypothesis would require a dedicated experiment 600 to collect more individuals and likely a smaller number of species.

601 This possible tolerance to short term CO₂ exposure may be due to the fact that within 602 their distribution or diel migrational range there are conditions, or perhaps seasons, where the 603 natural hydrography causes many species of the cosome to experience conditions of high 604 CO_2 /low pH, and the species are therefore adapted to this range of exposure. The Arctic species 605 L. helicina and subarctic species L. retroversa, for instance, are thought to inhabit waters which 606 have been shown to reach a concentration of $>950 \mu atm CO_2$ and to be undersaturated with 607 respect to aragonite during the winter season in Kongsfjord, Svalbard (Lischka and Riebesell, 608 2012). These conditions are pervasive throughout the upper water column, meaning that L. 609 helicina and L. retroversa, which are not strong diel migrators, would experience seasonal under-610 saturation in these polar regions. The more temperate and tropical open ocean theorem, 611 including C. pyramidata, C. inflexa and S. subula are all currently believed to be circumglobal 612 and most, to varying degrees, diel migratory (Table 1; van der Spoel, 1967; Bé and Gilmer, 613 1977). Populations are therefore likely to encounter high CO₂ in sub-surface waters in regions 614 associated with OMZs, including much of the North Pacific and off the coast of Northern Africa.

The ability to cope with high CO_2 for short durations may have been selected for over time as a natural consequence of the types of unavoidable environmental variability experienced by these planktonic populations.

618

4.3 Low O₂ and Combined Effects

619 In the Pacific Ocean, none of the species for which we had enough individuals to perform the 620 low O₂ study (L. helicina, C. pyramidata, and C. inflexa) had a significant change in metabolic 621 rate under low (1048% saturated) O₂, even when combined with enhanced CO₂. These results 622 indicate that the O_2 levels were above the concentration below which these species can no longer 623 sustain their routine metabolic activity (Pcrit; Hochachka and Somero, 2002) and that any 624 changes in physiology associated with the treatments required no increased energetic expenditure 625 or metabolic reduction. As subsurface waters throughout the cruise were frequently below 1048% of O₂ saturation ($< \sim 130 \mu mol kg^{-1}$), this indicates that these species may be naturally 626 627 adapted to coping with low O₂ conditions.

628 In the Atlantic, examination of the effects of low O_2 is confounded by an unfortunate and 629 accidentally low level of CO_2 (~130 µatm) in the LC/HO treatment (Table 3). Tests of the effect 630 of high CO₂ (HC/HO) and the interactive (HC/LO) treatments nonetheless remain valid, and for 631 L. retroversa, exposure to HC/LO caused a large and significant reduction in metabolic rate. 632 Suppression in metabolic rate is a common tactic for surviving unfavorable conditions (Guppy 633 and Withers, 1999; Seibel, 2011). Although metabolic depression is generally survivable in the 634 short term, over longer time scales there are often implications for growth, reproduction and 635 survival (reviewed in: Pörtner, 2010; Seibel, 2011). In the Atlantic, our measured in situ O_2 levels were never below 15% (\sim 200 µmol kg⁻¹). In contrast with the other species studied, which 636 637 in at least some portions of their geographic range are occasionally found in association with 638 subsurface low O₂ combined with hypercapnia, L. retroversa lives exclusively in the sub-polar 639 North Atlantic Ocean and the Southern Circumpolar Current. As such this is the only species in 640 this study in which no population is likely to experience conditions of low O_2 and high CO_2 641 together naturally anywhere in its distribution. Its inability to maintain metabolic rate during this 642 interactive exposure may be a short-term metabolic response to environmental conditions that are 643 unsustainable over longer time periods. As a consequence of the very low CO₂ in the LC/LO 644 treatment, it is impossible to determine whether the metabolic suppression for L. retroversa in 645 the HC/LO was in response to reduced O_2 availability alone or to the interactive effect of low O_2

with high CO₂. In the LC/LO treatment any change in respiration due to low O₂ could have been masked by a change in the energy budget as a response to the low (equivalent to pre-industrial atmospheric conditions) levels of CO₂. The results suggest that further work in the Atlantic is warranted to disentangle these stressors and to determine whether the observed change in metabolic rate was solely a consequence of O₂ availability or truly a synergistic effect.

651 Interestingly, although the temperature coefficients were not species-specific and may 652 not, therefore, perfectly normalize the dataset, one trend revealed by their use was a significant 653 difference in the normalized metabolic rates between individuals of the species S. subula and C. 654 *inflexa* from the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. The comparatively lower metabolic rates from the 655 Pacific may be a real response to the lower availability of O_2 for aerobic metabolism. Having a 656 slower routine rate of O₂ consumption may be the result of a more efficient respiratory 657 mechanism or an adaptation for coping with occasional exposures to the relatively high CO_2 and 658 low O₂ conditions found in the northeast Pacific Ocean.

659 660

5. Conclusions

661 Thecosomes pteropods are thought to be some of the most sensitive of the oceanic zooplankton 662 species to acidification. The responses we documented in the face of short-term CO₂ exposure 663 and low O_2 reveal interesting patterns about basin scale differences in sensitivity, possibly 664 associated with adaptation to local environmental conditions. Importantly, our results indicate 665 that short-term exposure to high CO₂ does not have an effect on the respiration rate of multiple 666 species of temperate and sub-polar thecosome species from both the North Atlantic and Pacific 667 Oceans, irrespective of recent likely environmental exposure. The lack of effect of CO₂ as a 668 single-stressor on metabolic rate in adult organisms of various species has been seen in a number 669 of studies (reviewed in: Dupont et al., 2010; Kroeker et al., 2013), although there are many other 670 metrics that have been shown to be more consistently affected. As such, the cosomes may have 671 physiological coping mechanisms that allow them to maintain their energy budget for short 672 periods of time in the face of high CO_2 via the re-allocation of their energetic resources. Over 673 longer time periods, however, this could reduce their scope for growth and reproduction, 674 negatively impacting the fitness of the population as has been demonstrated with other marine 675 calcifiers (i.e.: Stumpp et al., 2011; Dupont et al., 2013; Melzner et al., 2013). Testing these 676 hypotheses remains difficult as the cosomes are hard to maintain in captivity and there are no

677 published studies of individuals kept fed and exposed to CO_2 in laboratory conditions for long 678 durations (reviewed in: Howes et al., 2014; Thabet et al., 2015). Keeping individuals well fed is 679 a critical factor since high food availability has been suggested to modulate the effect of high 680 CO₂ exposure in both thecosomes (Seibel et al., 2012) and other calcifying species (Thomsen et 681 al., 2013). Comparative short-term studies of wild caught animals such as the present 682 experiments, therefore, currently give us the best insight into the sensitivity of these open-ocean 683 populations, and the ability to predict how they will respond to the expected changes in the ocean 684 environment.

Furthermore, although adult individuals may show no change in metabolic rate, there is evidence that juvenile stages of many calcifying species are typically more sensitive to CO_2 exposure (i.e. Connell et al., 2013; Waldbusser et al., 2015) and emerging evidence supports the idea that eggs, veligers and juveniles of *L. retroversa* and *L. helicina* are more vulnerable to acidification than adults (Lischka et al., 2011; Thabet et al., 2015; Manno et al., 2016). Thus, although adults may be capable of surviving short-term exposure, as acidity in surface waters increases there may be population level stress due to ontogenetic sensitivity.

692 These findings also draw attention to the consequences of the high degree of vertical 693 variability in the open ocean environment, with animals in the Pacific found migrating between 694 deep waters, undersaturated with respect to aragonite, and the surface (Lawson, unpublished 695 data; Maas et al., 2012b; Chu et al., 2016). Recent studies in the California Current system 696 indicate that the cosome shells show signs of in situ dissolution when associated with waters that 697 are undersaturated with respect to aragonite (Bednaršek et al., 2014; Bednarsek and Ohman, 698 2015). Although our short duration experiments do not directly address the effect of longer-term 699 exposure to high CO_2 , it does remind us that as open ocean environments respond to 700 anthropogenic change there may be vertical refugia from ocean acidification stress as well as 701 regions where animals may already experience high CO₂. As surface waters acidify, the ability to 702 endure short-duration exposure and to migrate in both the Atlantic and Pacific populations may 703 provide mechanisms for mitigating detrimental effects of acidification exposure. The potential 704 compression of vertical habitat associated with the shoaling of the aragonite compensation depth, 705 however, may have implications for predator/prey interactions, carbon pumping and other 706 ecosystem functions (Seibel, 2011; Bednarsek and Ohman, 2015). Furthermore, it is clear that 707 the cosome shells are highly sensitive to dissolution (Comeau et al., 2012; Lischka and Riebesell,

2012; Manno et al., 2012) and there could be fitness and ecological consequences of dissolution
in regions with vertical variation in carbonate chemistry.

Finally, as concerns about increasing CO₂ drive further explorations of comparative

711 organismal physiology in the marine system, it is important to recognize that often the exposure

of animals to increased CO_2 will occur in concert with expanding regions of low O_2 . This has

been explored in the coastal environment where the interaction of acidification with

eutrophication and associated low O₂ is comparatively well studied (Cai et al., 2011; Melzner et

al., 2013) and in theoretical frameworks (Pörtner, 2010; Gruber, 2011; Sokolova, 2013).

716 Experiments in the open ocean environment, however, are only beginning to be conducted and

their implications explored. This study suggests that to make accurate predictions about how

718 populations will respond to climate change and adequately understand the factors affecting

719 organismal response, further investigations of the interactive effects of low O₂ and hypercapnia

should consider natural environmental variability, population biogeography and phylogenetic

721 sensitivity.

722 Data availability

- 723 Cruise data for the project is available via the National Science Foundation's Biological and
- 724 Chemical Oceanography Data Management Office (BCO-DMO) under the project "Horizontal
- and Vertical Distribution of Thecosome Pteropods in Relation to Carbonate Chemistry in the
- 726 Northwest Atlantic and Northeast Pacific" (http://www.bco-dmo.org/project/2154). The raw data
- for the respiration experiments are included in this deposition (DOI: 10.1575/1912/6421). <u>The</u>
- 728 raw data for the carbonate chemistry of the manipulations are included as supplementary data.
- 729

730 Author contributions

A. Maas and G. Lawson designed the experiments. All co-authors participated in oceanographic
cruises and collection of samples. A. Maas conducted all of the experiments and statistical
analyses. Z.A. Wang advised on the manipulation of carbonate chemistry and provided the
measurements of both the hydrographic and experimental conditions. A. Maas prepared the
manuscript with contributions from both co-authors.

736

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Table 1: Environmental preferences and diel vertical migratory patterns for the species used in
this study based on previously published data (Bé and Gilmer, 1977; Lalli and Gilmer, 1989).
Data includes published full ranges at which organisms have been found, as well as previous
authors' estimates of the prefered (optimal) ranges of each species, when available. Note that
these are based on relatively sparse observations of broadly distributed speceis, many of which
may be cryptic congeners, and thus should be treated as estimates.

Species	(optimal) temp (°C)	(optimal), depth (m)	migrator?
Cuvierina atlantica	18 to 26	100-250	possible
Cuvierina pacifica	Only recently established assumed to be similar to	l as a separate species, the the Atlantic congener.	habits are
Cavolinia inflexa	16 to 28	0-250	no
Clio pyramidata	7 to 27	(0-500), <1500	yes
Limacina helicina	(-2 to 10)	(50-100), <300	possible
Limacina retroversa	(7 to 12)	(20-30), < 150	possible
Styliola subula	(18 to 22)	50-300	yes
Diacria trispinosa	9 to 28	30-200	no

1012

1013 Table 2: The hydrography and location for each station where animals for experiments were 1014 collected. Each basin was characterized by multiple hydrographic regimes (see text and Fig 2); 1015 transitions between regimes are denoted by dashed horizontal lines. At stations along the main transect the depth (m) at which O_2 decreased below 130 µmol O_2 kg⁻¹ (~1048% saturated), the 1016 1017 average temperature from 25-100 m (°C) and the average salinity from 25-100 m were derived 1018 from CTD casts. At a few stations (denoted via ^a) in the Atlantic there was warm water at the 1019 surface and cold fresher water below. The only species in this region, Limacina retroversa, has 1020 an optimum temperature between 7-12 °C (Bigelow, 1924) and was generally found above 50 m 1021 (Lawson, unpublished data). At these sites the average temperature and salinity is reported first 1022 for between 25-100 m and then also for 25-50 m to reflect the conditions likely experienced by 1023 the pteropods. pCO₂ and Ω_{Ar} were calculated from measured pH_T and DIC bottle samples. We 1024 interpolated linearly the depths (m) at which the pH_T decreased below 7.7, pCO₂ reached 800 1025 μ atm, and aragonite saturation (Ω_{Ar}) reached 1 from the discrete measurements at adjacent 1026 depths. At stations conducted while in transit to the main study transects (denoted by prefix T) 1027 the average temperature from 25-100 m (°C) was documented from XBT casts. At these transit 1028 stations no O_2 or carbonate chemistry data were available (noted with a dash). The species 1029 caught at each station and used in this study are demarcated with a star (*).

1030

Year	Station	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°W)	average temp (C°) 25-100 m	average salinity 25-100 m	depth of 130 µmol O ₂ kg ⁻¹	depth of pH <u>1</u> 7.7	depth of 800 µatm	$ \substack{ depth \ of \\ \Omega_{Ar} = 1 } $	C. atlantica	C. pacifica	C. inflexa	C. pyramidata	L. helicina	L. retroversa	S. subula	D. trispinosa
2011	32	49.1	-44.3	5.3, 9.0	34.4, 34.0	NA	74.1	NA	NA						*		
Atlantic	31	50.0	-42.0	14	35.8	NA	385.4	NA	NA								*
	30	49.6	-41.9	14.1	35.8	NA	452.8	NA	NA	*							*
	26	47.5	-42.0	13.3	35.2	NA	644.9	NA	NA	*			*				
	24	46.5	-42.0	14.5	35.5	NA	453.9	NA	NA	*			*				
	21	44.9	-42.0	16.5	36.2	NA	501.1	NA	NA				*				*
	19	44.0	-44.9	4.9, 11.2	33.4, 32.9	NA	181.0	NA	NA						*		
	17	43.0	-47.8	1.8, 8.1	33.2, 32.8	NA	143.1	NA	NA						*		
	13	40.9	-52.0	20.7	36.5	NA	756.7	NA	NA	*		*				*	
	10	47.5	-52.0	19.4	35.9	NA	466.9	NA	NA	*		*				*	
	8	38.5	-52.0	22.8	36.5	NA	805.7	NA	NA	*		*				*	
	3	36.0	-52.0	21.4	36.6	NA	937.7	NA	NA	*							
2012	T2	45.6	-128.5		-	-	-	-	-				*	*			
Pacific	T3	46.6	-133.5	-	-	-	-	-	-					*			
	T4	47.7	-138.5	6.4	-	-	-	-	-				*				
	T5	45.7	-129.8	10.0	-	-	-	-	-					*			
	T6	46.6	-134.9	9.5	-	-	-	-	-					*			
	T7	47.6	-140.2	8.6	-	-	-	-	-				*				
	3	49.0	-148.2	6.2	32.7	209	128.9	193.7	168.5								
	6	47.5	-145.6	7.1	32.7	235	108.3	199.2	159.1				*	*			
	7	47.0	-144.6	7.8	32.7	256	131.0	214.0	185.1				*				
	15	43.1	-138.1	10.9	32.9	363	199.5	368.2	334.8				*				
	18	41.5	-135.8	13.7	33.0	340	147.3	331.7	380.6				*				
	21	39.9	-135.0	12.7	33.1	348	162.0	332.2	302.8		*						
	24	38.6	-135.0	14.7	33.3	402	222.8	411.8	372.7		*		*				
	30	35.6	-135.0	16.2	33.3	349	200.7	437.8	425.1		*	*	*				
	32	34.4	-135.1	16.5	33.3	348	202.9	439.2	432.0		*	*	*				
	34	33.6	-135.0	17.4	34.0	368	233.3	370.1	352.4			*	*			*	
	T9	33.7	-133.6	17.0	-	-	-	-	-		*	*	*				
	T10	33.8	-133.2	15.9	-	-	-	-	-	l	*	*	*				

Table 3: Carbonate chemistry during manipulation experiments. The manipulation experiments were conducted at multiple temperatures (T.) and salinities (S.) based on the conditions the organisms were caught in. As described in more detail in the text, DIC measurements were made of water drawn from the control chambers while TA was measured for batches of experimental water (denoted as xpt. TA). In situ TA (i.s. TA), based on nearby CTD bottle sampling at the surface, is also shown. At test stations conducted while in transit to/from the main study regions, where bottle samples of in situ TA were unavailable, underway pCO₂ values and the LC/HO DIC were used to calculate in situ TA (denoted with *). In some instances, measurements of experimental TA differed by >20 μ mol kg⁻¹ from nearby in situ measurements of surface TA. This difference greatly exceeds expected variability based on measurement uncertainty and spatial (geographic and vertical) offsets in the locations of experimental water collection relative to the nearest CTD cast; in these circumstances, the experimental TA was likely erroneous due to sampling issues (e.g., contamination). For completeness, and to aid in identification of erroneous experimental TA values, calculations of carbonate chemisty parameters, including aragonite saturation state (Ω_{Ar}) and pCO₂ were made based on DIC and both experimental TA and in situ TA. In further data analysis and interpretation, calculations based on experimental TA are given preference except those few instances where experimental TA differed from in situ by >20 μ mol kg⁻¹ (bold denotes preferred calculations). Calculated saturation state and pCO₂ are reported as the average and standard deviation per batch of water. Note that the LC/LO gas tank in 2011 (in italics) appears to have been improperly mixed by the manufacturer as calculations suggested it contained a much lower CO₂ level than the intended 380 µatm; it should consequently be considered an entirely separate treatment from the 2011 LC/HO (where CO₂ levels were based on bubbling with an ambient air line).

	Treatment	Т. °С	S.	i.s. TA (µmol kg ⁻¹)	xpt. TA (µmol kg ⁻¹)	DIC (µmol kg ⁻¹)	i.s. ΩAr	i.s. pCO ₂ (µatm)	xpt. ΩAr	xpt. pCO ₂ (µatm)
2011	380 µatm CO₂∕	10	33	2300.3	2307.3	2094.4	2.3 ± 0.2	336.2 ± 37.7	$\textbf{2.4} \pm \textbf{0.2}$	324.8 ± 35.8
Atlantic	21% O<u>2</u> LC/HO	15	33	2300.3	2307.3	2066.5	2.6 ± 0.7	404.5 ± 172.7	$\textbf{2.7} \pm \textbf{0.7}$	390.8 ± 164.5
		15	35	2296.4	2354.5	2066.4	$\textbf{2.5} \pm \textbf{0.1}$	$\textbf{382.3} \pm \textbf{20.4}$	3.1 ± 0.1	297.7 ± 14.3
		20	34	2353.4*	2345.8	2028.6	3.6 ± 0.2	302.8 ± 31.6	$\textbf{3.5} \pm \textbf{0.2}$	311.6 ± 32.9
		20	34	2366.0	2367.2	2077.5	3.3 ± 0.1	363.1 ± 23.2	$\textbf{3.3} \pm \textbf{0.1}$	$\textbf{361.4} \pm \textbf{23.1}$
	<u>380 µatm CO</u> ₂∕	10	33	2300.3	2307.3	1919.7	4.0	139.0	4.1	135.5
	10% 0 2 LC/LO	15	33	2300.3	2307.3	1774.8	5.5 ± 0.6	101.2 ± 23.9	5.6 ± 0.6	99.0 ± 23.3
		15	35	2296.4	2354.5	1852.7	4.6	139.2	5.3	116.1
	800 μatm CO₂∕	10	33	2300.3	2307.3	2219.7	1.2 ± 0.2	779.9 ± 114.0	1.2 ± 0.2	$\textbf{742.4} \pm \textbf{106.8}$
	21% O₂ HC/HO	15	33	2300.3	2307.3	2208.0	1.3	908.7	1.4	867.8
		15	35	2296.4	2354.5	2139.5	1.9	585.2	2.4	434.4
		20	34	2353.4*	2345.8	2176.9	2.1 ± 0.1	651.8 ± 23.4	$\textbf{2.1} \pm \textbf{0.1}$	678.2 ± 24.8
		20	34	2366.0	2367.2	2212.7	1.9 ± 0.4	786.0± 196.0	$\textbf{1.9} \pm \textbf{0.4}$	$\textbf{780.9} \pm \textbf{194.2}$
	800 μatm CO₂∕	15	33	2300.3	2307.3	2186.2	1.5 ± 0.2	788.7 ± 157.6	1.5 ± 0.2	$\textbf{754.9} \pm \textbf{148.3}$
	10% O₂ HC/LO	15	35	2296.4	2354.5	2179.6	1.5 ± 0.3	782.9 ± 164.6	2.0 ± 0.3	558.2 ± 103.9
2012	380-µatm-CO₂∕	10	32.1	2151.9*	2142.8	1934.8	2.2 ± 0.1	285.2 ± 21.4	2.3 ± 0.1	283.0 ± 21.2
Pacific	21% O2 LC/HO	10	33.5	2208.0	2222.7	2001.9	2.4 ± 0.6	302.2 ± 100.9	2.4 ± 0.6	303.3 ± 101.4
		15	32.5	2182.6*	2095.7	1983.4	2.2 ± 0.0	388.1 ± 5.5	1.4 ± 0.0	646.7 ± 11.5
		15	33.5	2208.0	2222.7	2020.8	2.3 ± 0.2	407.7 ± 52.1	2.3 ± 0.2	409.1 ± 52.4
	380 µatm CO₂∕	10	32.5	2182.6*	2095.7	1973.9	2.3 ± 0.1	295.5 ± 20.0	1.4 ± 0.1	489.2 ± 41.2
	10% O2 LC/LO	15	33.5	2208.0	2222.7	2017.5	2.3	3956.0	2.3	397.4
	800-µatm CO₂∕	10	32.1	2151.9*	2142.8	2026.3	1.4 ± 0.1	525.0 ± 35.0	1.4 ± 0.1	519.7 ± 34.5
	21% O₂ HC/HO	10	33.5	2208.0	2222.7	2120.6	1.3	628.2	1.3	631.2
		15	32.5	2182.6*	2095.7	2031.7	1.8 ± 0.1	527.6 ± 50.9	1.0 ± 0.1	952.4 ± 115.1
		15	33.5	2208.0	2222.7	2112.2	1.4 ± 0.2	736.0 ± 96.0	1.4 ± 0.2	739.4 ± 96.6
	800-µatm CO₂∕	10	32.5	2182.6*	2095.7	2066.5	1.4 ± 0.1	545.5 ± 65.1	0.8 ± 0.1	1056.0 ± 151.6
	10% O₂ HC/LO	15	33.5	2208.0	2222.7	2118.3	1.4	762.4	1.4	766.0

Table 4: The average wet mass (mass; g) and mass-specific oxygen consumption rate (MO ₂ ;
$\mu mol~O_2~g^{\text{-1}}~h^{\text{-1}}) \pm$ the standard error (SE) for each treatment (Treat.) and species. The numbers
of replicates (N) per treatment are reported and the species are arranged by temperature (Temp;
°C) as well as the year and basin of collection.

Year '	Temp.	Species	Treat.	Ν	mass	±SE	MO_2	±SE
2011	10	Limacina retroversa	LC/HO	12	.00281	0.00037	10.33	1.17
Atlantic	;		HC/HO	13	.00284	0.00031	10.10	0.56
			LC/LO	9	.00274	0.00026	8.12	0.66
			HC/LO	9	.00377	0.00053	4.21	0.55
	15	Clio pyramidata	LC/HO	10	.01944	0.00408	7.81	0.71
			HC/HO	8	.01410	0.00435	8.55	1.48
			LC/LO	9	.02363	0.00867	6.63	1.21
			HC/LO	8	.03945	0.00467	6.99	0.45
		Cuvierina atlantica	LC/HO	8	.04493	0.00264	5.05	0.63
			LC/LO	10	.04636	0.00252	3.25	0.28
			HC/LO	10	.05040	0.00219	4.29	0.37
		Diacria trispinosa	LC/HO	8	.03718	0.00316	4.44	0.56
			HC/HO	10	.03589	0.0027	4.09	0.51
	20	Cuvierina atlantica	LC/HO	9	.01876	0.00396	4.31	0.85
			HC/HO	9	.01683	0.00284	4.53	1.13
		Cavolinia inflexa	LC/HO	8	.00626	0.00104	14.30	1.48
			HC/HO	4	.00508	0.00049	13.81	1.39
		Styliola subula	LC/HO	10	.00400	0.00038	13.96	1.80
			HC/HO	8	.00289	0.00035	15.95	0.87
2012	10	Limacina helicina	LC/HO	7	.00140	0.00026	5.26	1.17
Pacific			HC/HO	8	.00149	0.00021	5.51	0.69
			LC/LO	6	.00300	0.00058	4.91	0.69
			HC/LO	10	.00296	0.00038	7.18	1.45
		Clio pyramidata	LC/HO	9	.02646	0.00258	5.43	0.45
			HC/HO	8	.02355	0.00369	4.39	0.60
			LC/LO	14	.01459	0.00185	5.58	0.81
			HC/LO	12	.01250	0.00245	5.72	1.14
	15	Cuvierina pacifica	LC/HO	4	.01829	0.00563	3.41	0.56
			HC/HO	7	.02130	0.00636	3.53	0.57
		Cavolinia inflexa	LC/HO	5	.01330	0.00062	3.53	0.44
			HC/HO	8	.01556	0.00149	3.34	0.41
			LC/LO	4	.01405	0.00185	2.41	0.33
			HC/LO	2	.01855		3.98	
		Styliola subula	LC/HO	6	.00360	0.00044	5.30	1.20
			HC/HO	4	.00220	0.00029	7.73	2.14
		Clio pyramidata	LC/HO	4	.03020	0.0037	3.82	0.66
			HC/HO	5	.02904	0.00329	3.21	0.27

Table 5: Statistical results of the univariate general linear models (GLM) for each species were analyzed separately by year and are listed relative to the temperature of the experiment (Temp.; °C). For species studied at multiple temperatures (denoted by *), the metabolic rates were adjusted to 15° C using a $Q_{10} = 2$ to allow for direct comparison. The effect of the independent factors of CO₂ level (CO₂), O₂ level (O₂), their interactive effect (Int.) and the covariate of mass were analyzed in regards to the metabolic rate and reported as *p*-values for the Pacific (mean mass specific metabolic rate values found in Table 4). For the Atlantic, each treatment was tested as independent (Treat.) due to the accidentally low CO₂ condition in the LC/LO gas mixture. We report whether the data met the assumption of normality of the residuals with Shapiro-Wilk (norm.; for p under 0.05 the assumption is not met) and heterogeneity of variance (var.; for p under 0.05 the assumptions. Note that for the sole case where the treatment or CO₂ effect was significant (*L. retroversa*) all assumptions were met.

			Effect on metabolic rate							
Year	Temp.	Species	CO_2	O_2	Int.	Treat.	Mass	norm.	var.	
2011	10	Limacina retroversa				< 0.001	< 0.001	0.542	0.522	
Atlantic	15	Clio pyramidata				0.295	< 0.001	0.079	0.263	
		Cuvierina atlantica*				0.174	< 0.001	0.972	< 0.001	
		Diacria trispinosa	.731				< 0.001	0.802	0.885	
		Cavolinia inflexa	.677				.008	0.498	0.876	
		Styliola subula	.791				.040	.922	0.014	
2012	10	Limacina helicina	.464	.323	.914		.007	0.045	0.026	
Pacific	15	Clio pyramidata*	.255	.156	.726		.018	<0.001	0.068	
		Cuvierina pacifica	.709				< 0.001	0.639	0.357	
		Cavolinia inflexa	.309	.717	.219		.113	0.581	0.28	
		Styliola subula	.763				.668	0.353	0.325	

Figure legends

Figure 1: Cruise tracks and animal sampling. Thecosomes were collected during the night at stations along the main survey transect (solid line) and at stations during transit (dashed line) during cruises to the northwest Atlantic in 2011 and northeast Pacific in 2012. The shapes correspond to the species caught at each station and used in this study. Blue (10 °C), grey (15 °C) and red (20 °C) boxes around the station numbers (#) correspond to the temperature that was representative of 25-100 m at each station (Table 2) and used in the experiments with animals from that station.

Figure 2: Hydrography of sampling regions. Hydrographic profiles of stations representative of the specific water mass types from the northern (P-T5, P-6, A-26), middle (P-18, A-19) and southern (P-32, A-8) portions of the Pacific (P) and Atlantic (A) study transects (station locations: Fig. 1). At station P-T5, the temperature profile (grey) was from an XBT cast because no CTDs were conducted during transits. For all stations along the main transects, left-hand plots show temperature (grey), salinity (black) and oxygen (black dotted) measured via sensors on the CTD and binned to 1 m depth intervals. Middle plots show TA (black) and DIC (grey) from discrete bottle samples (dots show depths of bottle samples). Right-hand plots show pCO₂ (black) and aragonite saturation state (Ω_{Ar} ; grey) calculated based on TA and DIC measurements.

Figure 3: Thecosome respirometry. Mean metabolic rate and standard error (μ mol O₂ g⁻¹ h⁻¹) of thecosomes exposed to low (i.e., ambient) CO₂ and normal levels of O₂ (light blue; LC/HO), high CO₂ and normal O₂ levels (dark blue; HC/HO), low CO₂ and low O₂ (light red; LC/LO), or high CO₂ and low O₂ (dark red; HC/LO). The species and temperature of the experiment are reported below the x-axis. Significance is reported based on a basin, species, and temperature specific GLM which tested for the effect of treatment on O₂ consumption with a Bonferroni posthoc analysis (Table 5). In the Atlantic analysis each treatment was tested independently, while in the Pacific CO₂ and O₂ were treated as factors. For each species and temperature, treatments are reported as non-significant (N.S.) or, in the case of significance, by letters that indicate which treatments are statistically similar (same letter) or different (different letter) at a p-value < 0.05.

Note that for *C. atlantica* the metabolic rates of individuals respired at 20° C were converted to 15° C using a temperature coefficient of 2 (see methods) for this GLM analysis.

Figure 4: Log transformed metabolic rates (μ mol O₂ h⁻¹) for *L. retroversa* at 10 °C, not normalized to mass, plotted against the log transformed wet mass (mg) of individuals exposed to low CO₂ and normal levels of O₂ (black circles; LC/HO), high CO₂ and normal O₂ levels (dark grey diamonds; HC/HO), low CO₂ and low O₂ (white circles; LC/LO), or high CO₂ and low O₂ (light grey diamonds; HC/LO).