

1 **Behavioral responses of a coastal flatfish to predation-associated cues and**
2 **elevated CO₂**

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22 ABSTRACT

23 The direct and indirect effects of ocean acidification (OA) on marine ecosystems are a
24 growing concern. Studies with marine fishes suggest that elevated CO₂ may affect behavior by
25 interfering with an important brain neurotransmitter. OA effects on fish behavior are
26 comparatively understudied in temperate and boreal species. In laboratory experiments, we first
27 characterized speckled sanddab (*Citharichthys stigmaeus*) behavioral responses to potential
28 predation cues (predator odor, damaged skin cues from injured conspecifics, and sight of a
29 predator) under ambient CO₂ levels (~400 μatm). Sanddab reduced conspicuousness and
30 foraging at the sight of a predator, but increased activity and conspicuousness when exposed to
31 damaged skin cues. We then examined the effects of elevated CO₂ levels (~900 μatm and ~1,500
32 μatm) on posture, activity, and foraging of sanddab, and the behavioral responses to damaged
33 skin cues. Sanddab behavior appeared generally resilient to the effects of elevated CO₂ levels,
34 but there were non-significant trends of fish from the medium CO₂ treatment exhibiting lower
35 posture and activity scores, and reduced feeding activity. The resiliency of speckled sanddab to
36 OA conditions may be related to their distribution in a coastal upwelling region with seasonally
37 elevated CO₂ levels. Alternatively, prolonged acclimation to elevated CO₂ may have mitigated
38 the effects observed in other fishes following shorter-term exposures. Additional studies of
39 ecologically relevant behaviors across diverse species assemblages are necessary to evaluate the
40 impact of ocean acidification on marine food webs.

41

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Ocean acidification (OA) is an anthropogenic process caused by the increased rate of
44 global carbon consumption that has occurred since the Industrial Revolution (Gattuso and
45 Hansson 2011). As atmospheric carbon dioxide increases, it dissolves into the oceans, leading to
46 a decrease in the pH of marine waters. Average oceanic pH has already decreased by 0.1 units
47 over the past 250 years and is expected to decrease another 0.2-0.4 units as atmospheric carbon
48 dioxide levels increase from 400 ppm to 800-1,100 ppm by the end of the century (IPCC 2013).
49 This anthropogenically-driven change in the chemistry of the oceans is occurring faster than
50 previous natural cycles in oceanic and atmospheric CO₂ levels (Gattuso and Hansson 2011).
51 Elevated CO₂ levels have been shown to induce a variety of effects on marine organisms
52 (Kroeker et al. 2013; Wittmann and Pörtner 2013), raising concerns about the cumulative
53 impacts on productivity of marine ecosystems.

54 Marine fishes are generally expected to be more resilient to the effects of OA than
55 invertebrate species with calcified exoskeletons (Melzner et al. 2009). However, empirical
56 evidence has demonstrated considerable variation in the effects of elevated CO₂ levels on
57 different fish species, life stages, and biological traits. For example, the growth and survival of
58 larger-bodied juvenile and adult fishes appear generally robust to projected CO₂ levels (Hurst et
59 al. 2012; Perry et al. 2015). Elevated CO₂ exposure has been shown to reduce growth,
60 development, and survival of larval stages of some fish species (Bauman et al. 2012; Frommel et
61 al. 2011; Hurst et al. 2015), but not others (Munday et al. 2011; Hurst et al. 2013; Bignami et al.
62 2013). However, OA effects in fishes are not limited to larval growth and development.

63 A number of studies have demonstrated OA-induced alterations of behavioral responses
64 to environmental stimuli (Clements and Hunt 2015; Ashur et al. 2017), which are thought to

65 result from an OA-induced impairment of GABA_A neuroreceptors (Nilsson et al. 2012;
66 Tresguerres and Hamilton 2017). For example, exposure to elevated CO₂ has been shown to alter
67 behavioral responses to olfactory foraging cues (i.e., prey scent; Cripps et al. 2011; Dixon et al.
68 2014) and predation cues (i.e., odor from a predator or damaged skin cues from injured
69 conspecifics; Dixon et al. 2010; Munday et al. 2010; Ferrari et al. 2011; Lönnstedt et al. 2013).
70 Failure to recognize and respond to these foraging and predation cues can reduce growth rates
71 and increase predation vulnerability (Munday et al. 2010).

72 Some studies have examined the effects of OA on behaviors with unknown or ambiguous
73 ecological relevance such as behavioral lateralization. Changes in the degree of behavioral
74 lateralization have been observed in fishes following high CO₂ exposure (Domenici et al. 2012;
75 Nilsson et al. 2012). However, hypothesized advantages of behavioral lateralization are highly
76 contextually dependent (Vallortigara and Rogers 2005), thus the ecological implications of
77 altered lateralization are unclear. Similarly, “novel object tests” are typically interpreted as a
78 measure of “boldness” (Carter et al. 2013), but the relevance of such responses could vary
79 markedly across species with different life histories inhabiting structurally complex or uniform
80 habitats. Testing known, ecologically relevant behaviors under elevated CO₂ levels is crucial to
81 understanding the potential for OA to impact species interactions and population dynamics in
82 marine ecosystems.

83 The majority of reports documenting high CO₂-induced behavioral disruptions have come
84 from tropical reef species (Clements and Hunt 2015). Similar effects have been seen in some
85 (Jutfelt et al. 2013; Sundin and Jutfelt 2016) but not all (Jutfelt and Hedgärde 2013; Sundin and
86 Jutfelt 2016; Kwan et al. 2017) studies of temperate species, although the effects of OA on fish
87 behavior remain comparatively understudied in fishes from temperate and high-latitude regions.

88 OA studies on fishes from these regions are especially important as they support many of the
89 world's largest commercial fisheries and some, such as the California Current, are experiencing
90 more rapid than anticipated progression of OA (Hauri et al. 2013; Feely et al. 2016). Flatfishes
91 are an important component of these ecosystems, supporting regionally valuable fisheries and
92 serving as central links within food webs. Experiments have revealed variation in physiological
93 effects of elevated CO₂ on early life stages of flatfish species (Chambers et al. 2014; Gräns et al.
94 2014; Hurst et al. 2015); however, only one study to date has examined the effects of OA on
95 aspects of flatfish behavior (Sampaio et al. 2016).

96 Flatfishes have evolved a unique set of life history traits intricately linking their
97 morphology and behavior. During metamorphosis from pelagic larvae to benthic juveniles,
98 flatfishes undergo eye migration and a shift in body orientation. These traits minimize the
99 profiles of flatfish on the sediment thereby reducing conspicuousness and predator detection.
100 Because the act of foraging involves movement that could attract the attention of a predator (e.g.
101 elevated posture and activity), foraging activity represents a direct contrast to anti-predation
102 behaviors. Laboratory experiments have demonstrated that while several species of North Pacific
103 flatfishes rely on reduced activity and burial in the sediment to avoid predation, there is variation
104 among species within this general anti-predation strategy (Boersma et al. 2008; Lemke and Ryer
105 2006a, b). These experiments primarily relied on visual exposure to a predator; no study to date
106 has examined flatfish behavioral responses to olfactory cues of predation risk.

107 We examined the behavioral patterns and effects of elevated CO₂ in the flatfish species
108 speckled sanddab (*Citharichthys stigmaeus*). The study consisted of two independent laboratory
109 experiments examining speckled sanddab behavior and foraging activity. We first characterized
110 speckled sanddab behavioral responses to potential predation cues under ambient CO₂ levels. We

111 then examined the effects of elevated CO₂ levels on aspects of routine behavior and foraging and
112 the behavioral response to damaged skin cues (Ferrari et al. 2010), a widely applied approach in
113 studies of OA effects on fishes. Results of these studies demonstrate that the effects of high CO₂
114 on marine fishes are likely to be species- and trait-specific and may include non-linear responses
115 to CO₂ concentration. Further, the counter-intuitive response of speckled sanddab to the damaged
116 skin cues demonstrates that interpretation of the potential impacts of OA-induced behavioral
117 disturbances requires careful consideration and improved understanding of basic behavioral
118 ecology of subject species.

119

120 **2. Methods**

121 *2.1 Collection and Maintenance*

122 Age-0 speckled sanddab were collected in Yaquina Bay, Oregon, at depths of 2-15 m
123 using a 2-m otter trawl with a 3-mm mesh codend towed at 1-2 knots. Fish were held at the
124 Hatfield Marine Science Center in flow-through tanks at 7-9°C and exposed to a 12:12 light:dark
125 cycle. Tanks contained a thin layer of a 1:1 mixture of 0.65-mm and 0.35-mm sand. During
126 initial holding, fish were fed a gelatinized mixture of krill, squid, fish, and nutritional
127 supplements to satiation three times per week.

128 Prior to use in behavioral experiments, groups of four fish were transferred to 100-L
129 acclimation tanks. These tanks were used to acclimate fish to treatment CO₂ levels (CO₂
130 experiment, see below) and the remote food delivery method similar to that used in experimental
131 trials. Three times per week, food was delivered throughout the day using belt feeders attached to
132 a transparent vertical tube extending to the middle of the water column. Fish were able to see the
133 food particle as soon as it entered the tube but could not capture it until it fell from the end of the

134 tube. In addition to replicating the delivery system used in behavioral trials, this method
135 delivered food at unpredictable times and removed any association of food introduction with
136 external stimuli (e.g., experimenter presence). During acclimation and experiments, pelletized
137 food (Bio-Oregon BioDiet®) was used to standardize feeding rates and particle presentation.
138 Belt feeders delivered a combination of 2-mm and 3-mm pellets to each tank over the course of
139 4-6 hours for each feeding. Fish were acclimated to the feeding system for at least two weeks
140 prior to use in behavioral trials.

141 *2.2 Experimental Apparatus*

142 The experimental apparatus was modeled after that of Boersma et al. (2008).
143 Experimental tanks were glass 0.5-m cubes, each filled to a volume of 115 L. Each tank was
144 gravity-fed 8°C seawater at 2 L·min⁻¹ and contained a 2-cm layer of sand. One experimental tank
145 was used in the behavioral characterization experiment, while three identical tanks were used in
146 the OA experiment. Opaque barriers were placed on the lateral sides of each tank to minimize
147 the potential for fish disturbance and to facilitate controlled visual exposure to a predator during
148 the behavioral characterization experiment. An opaque blind surrounding the experimental
149 tank(s) minimized fish disturbance from external stimuli. Observations and delivery of food and
150 potential predation cues occurred from behind the barrier.

151 Food delivery occurred at two stations 21 cm apart along the midline of the tank (Fig. 1).
152 Air propelled each pellet through a 7-mm-diameter flexible tube and into a vertical 43-cm-long
153 transparent tube. Pellets fell through the water column and out the end of the tube, becoming
154 available for consumption for 3-5 s before falling through a mesh grate slightly elevated above
155 the sediment surface. The grate prevented food from accumulating on the tank bottom, forcing
156 fish to intercept food pellets from the water column. This experimental design enabled a clear

157 identification of feeding behavior, facilitating a more precise evaluation of sanddab foraging. A
158 video camera was placed 0.6 m away from each experimental tank angled at ~45° to the
159 sediment surface to record activity and evaluate fish posture relative to the sediment.

160 *2.3 Potential Predation Cues*

161 Potential predation cues included 1) predator odor (PO) from Pacific cod (*Gadus*
162 *macrocephalus*), a known predator of juvenile flatfishes throughout the North Pacific, 2)
163 damaged skin (DS) cues from injured conspecifics, and 3) visual exposure to a predator (V).
164 These cue types have been shown to elicit anti-predation responses in a range of other fishes
165 (e.g., McCormick and Manassa 2008; Ferrari et al. 2010).

166 The PO cue was created by holding two sub-adult Pacific cod (30-40 cm) in 10 L of
167 static, chilled seawater for 2-4 h; 120 ml of predator-conditioned seawater was used as the cue in
168 the experiment. Two speckled sanddab of similar size to experimental fish were used to produce
169 a dose of damaged skin extract (DS). Fish were euthanized using tricaine methanesulfonate (MS-
170 222) and rinsed in seawater to remove chemical traces. A series of superficial cuts to the
171 epidermis (~150 mm total) were then made to each side of both fish. After 10 min of soaking in a
172 beaker containing 100 ml of seawater, scored fish were removed and the cue-conditioned
173 seawater was filtered through 350-µm mesh. Cues were made individually for each trial of the
174 behavioral characterization experiment, placed on ice, and used within 30 minutes of
175 preparation. To minimize variation in cue characteristics between trials in the OA experiment,
176 cues were prepared in batches rather than in single doses. Fish were sacrificed, rinsed, scored,
177 and soaked as above. Water from multiple fish was pooled, filtered, divided into 80-ml doses,
178 and frozen at -20 °C until experimental use.

179 The olfactory predation cues were introduced to the tank through flexible tubing from

180 behind the blind. The olfactory delivery tube was laterally attached to the air stone and connected
181 to a three-way port outside of the blind. The air stone and cue-delivery tube were positioned 1
182 cm above the sediment surface to ensure rapid mixing of the cue as validated by testing the
183 dispersal of dye.

184 To standardize visual presentation of a predator (V), a weighted rubber flounder (34.3
185 cm) was maneuvered remotely around an identical water-filled tank adjacent to the experimental
186 tank. An opaque barrier between the two tanks was raised and lowered remotely to control visual
187 exposure to the model predator (Boersma et al. 2008).

188 *2.4 Experimental Procedures*

189 *2.4.1 Behavioral Characterization Experiment*

190 Sanddab were fasted for 48 h prior to testing and were acclimated to experimental tanks
191 overnight before behavioral observations (~16 h). Fish were always tested in pairs to facilitate
192 normal behavior (as per Boersma et al. 2008). To ensure fish were active and responsive to
193 stimuli, fish were presented with food for periods of up to 7 min during a pre-trial testing stage.
194 Up to three 4-mm food pellets were presented to fish at 1-min intervals at alternating feeding
195 stations for each food presentation (similar to Boersma et al. 2008). Trials commenced 1 h after
196 one of the two fish first attempted to capture a pellet.

197 Four cue types were used in this experiment, the three potential predation cues and a
198 “blank” seawater control (SW). Pairs of fish were exposed to each of the four cues in 1-h
199 intervals in a randomized order. Behavioral observation was continuous within each “cue
200 presentation” and was divided into four contiguous observation “periods”: 1) pre-cue, 2) cue, 3)
201 feeding, and 4) post-feeding. The “pre-cue” period consisted of 10 min of observation of routine
202 behavior. For olfactory cues and the SW control, the “cue” period was 2 min; the cue was

203 introduced during the first minute while the second minute allowed the cue to mix throughout the
204 tank. The cue period during the V-cue presentation was 5 min; 30 s to raise the barrier and
205 expose fish to the sight of the model predator, 3 min of model predator manipulation, 30 s to
206 replace the barrier, and 1 min to act as a buffer between cue and food introductions. The cue
207 period was immediately followed by a 5-min “feeding” period, during which single food pellets
208 were introduced to alternating feeding tubes at 1-min intervals. The feeding period was
209 immediately followed by another 10 min of routine behavior observation in the “post-feeding”
210 period (Fig. 3). Fish lengths, recorded for each fish at the end of each of the 17 trials (34 fish),
211 averaged 80.5 ± 7.1 SE mm standard length. Fish were not re-used in behavioral trials.

212 Video recordings of trials were analyzed for behavioral responses to cues, including
213 posture, activity, feeding latency, and number of feeding strikes (Boersma et al. 2008). Posture
214 scores ranged from 0 (flat and buried in the sediment) to 5 (positioned in the water column) and
215 were recorded for each fish at 30-s intervals. Activity level was assessed by counting the
216 cumulative number of line-crosses of a 3-by-3 grid in 30-s intervals. Activity scores of each pair
217 of fish were log-transformed to meet statistical assumptions. Average posture and log-
218 transformed activity level of each fish pair was calculated for each observation period of each
219 cue presentation. To isolate the effect of the cue on the behavior of individual pairs of fish, we
220 calculated the change in posture and log-transformed activity levels between the “pre-cue” and
221 subsequent periods (Δp and Δa). Feeding latency, F_{min} , was quantified as the minute in which a
222 fish first attempted to feed during the feeding period (score of 1-5). If neither fish attempted to
223 feed, the pair was assigned a latency score of 6. The number of feeding strikes on pellets during
224 the feeding period (F_s) was recorded for each pair of fish regardless of whether the strike resulted
225 in consumption.

226 The effects of potential predation cues on behavior (p and a) and changes in behavior (Δp
227 and Δa) were determined using repeated-measures ANOVA with cue and trial treated as main
228 effects and period as the repeated measure. Orthogonal linear comparisons to the behavior
229 observed following SW control were used to determine the effect of potential predation cues on
230 sanddab behavior. Effects of the cues on feeding latency and number of feeding strikes were
231 analyzed using 1-way ANOVA. Average fish size and size discrepancy between fish in the
232 sanddab pair were analyzed as covariates on cue effects of behavior using ANCOVA.

233 *2.4.2 Ocean Acidification Experiment*

234 To determine the effects of elevated CO₂ levels on juvenile sanddab behavior, the
235 previously described experimental design was modified to focus on response to the damaged
236 skin (DS) cues, incorporating three CO₂ levels (one control and two elevated) as experimental
237 treatments. Elevated CO₂ levels were maintained by automated injection of CO₂ into a
238 conditioning tank based on continuous measurement of pH (Honeywell Durafet II®). A second
239 conditioning tank received chilled seawater at ambient CO₂ levels. Water from each conditioning
240 tank was pumped to three header tanks in varying proportions to create three treatments with
241 distinct CO₂ levels. The low (L) CO₂ treatment contained seawater with ambient CO₂ levels
242 (~400 μatm) and served as an experimental control while medium (M) and high (H) treatments
243 were maintained at levels similar to those predicted to occur near the end of the century (900
244 μatm and 1,500 μatm ; Table 1; IPCC 2013). Two water samples were collected from each
245 treatment once per week throughout the experiment, treated with MgCl₂, and sent to the Ocean
246 Acidification Research Center at the University of Alaska at Fairbanks. Total alkalinity (TA) and
247 dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) were quantified using a VINDTA 3C (Versatile INSTRUMENT for
248 the Determination of Total inorganic carbon and titration Alkalinity) and AIRICA (Automated

249 InfraRed Inorganic Carbon Analyzer). The pH (seawater scale), pCO₂, and aragonite saturation
250 state (Ω) were calculated with the program, CO2CALC (Robbins et al. 2010).

251 Speckled sanddab were acclimated to experimental treatment CO₂ levels and automated
252 feeding protocol for 4-6 weeks prior to behavioral trials. All fish were fed in these tanks at least
253 ten times prior to experimentation. Fish were fasted for 48 h prior to testing and were acclimated
254 overnight to experimental tanks containing seawater at their designated CO₂ level. Trials began
255 the following morning. Fish were tested in pairs as described above.

256 Each trial contained three different testing stages occurring at one-hour intervals which
257 are referred to as 1) baseline, 2) DS, and 3) post-DS stages. Each stage was comprised of the
258 same four contiguous observation periods described above (pre-cue, cue, feeding, and post-
259 feeding). Injection of a seawater (SW) blank was used during the cue periods of the baseline and
260 post-DS stages as a procedural control.

261 The baseline stage reflected the effect of CO₂ treatment on overall activity level and
262 willingness to feed. If sanddab did not attempt to feed during the baseline stage, they were
263 retested up to five additional times over the course of two days (i.e. one-hour intervals up to
264 three times per day) until a feeding strike occurred. The number of repeated tests of the baseline
265 stage conducted prior to the first feeding attempt by the fish (F_a) was recorded for each trial
266 (score of 1-6). If neither fish attempted to feed by the sixth repeated test of the baseline stage, the
267 pair received a score of 7 and was not subject to further testing. The responses exhibited during
268 the test of the baseline stage during which a sanddab first attempted to feed were characterized as
269 “first-feeding” behaviors and were treated as a separate stage during analyses. In cases where
270 fish attempted to feed in the first baseline testing, the same data were used to represent both
271 “baseline” and “first-feeding” behavior for that pair. Following the expression of first-feeding

272 responses, sanddab were exposed to DS cues to determine the effects of elevated CO₂ on the
273 previously characterized behavioral responses to this cue. The post-DS response stage reflected
274 whether elevated CO₂ affected longer duration effects of DS exposure on sanddab behavior (Fig.
275 4). We conducted 36 trials at each CO₂ level (total $n = 216$ fish or 108 pairs of fish). Data from
276 all or part of several trials was excluded from analyses due to video recording problems or
277 disruptions in the experimental procedures (each CO₂ treatment final $n \geq 28$ for all variables).
278 Average size of speckled sanddab used in the OA experiment was 90.3 ± 7.7 SE mm and did not
279 vary significantly across CO₂ treatments. Fish were not reused in experimental trials.

280 Sanddab posture, activity, feeding latency, and number of feeding strikes were recorded
281 throughout each trial as described for the behavioral characterization experiment. The effects of
282 CO₂ treatment on behavior were determined within each stage using repeated-measures ANOVA
283 with CO₂ treatment as the main effect and period as the repeated measure and orthogonal linear
284 comparisons of the behavior observed in the low CO₂ treatment to that observed in elevated CO₂
285 treatments. A survival analysis was used to determine the effect of CO₂ treatment on F_d . Effects
286 of CO₂ treatment on feeding latency and feeding strikes were analyzed using 1-way ANOVA.
287 Average fish size and size discrepancy between fish in the sanddab pair were analyzed as
288 covariates on CO₂ effects of behavior using ANCOVA.

289 **3. Results**

290 *3.1 Behavioral Characterization Experiment*

291 *3.1.1 Posture*

292 Because patterns of posture and activity were highly correlated ($r = 0.765$, $p < 0.001$), we
293 focused the analyses here on posture metrics as a reflection of flatfish behavior (consistent with
294 Boersma et al. 2008). Observations with SW controls characterized the basic behavior of

295 speckled sanddab in the experimental conditions. Prior to food introduction, posture scores were
296 generally low, averaging 1.1 across all trials, and posture was unaffected by the introduction of
297 the SW cue control (*a priori* linear comparisons of SW Δp to 0, $p = 0.653$). The introduction of
298 food elicited an increase in speckled sanddab posture ($p = 0.003$; Fig. 4). Posture decreased
299 slightly during the post-feeding period, but remained elevated above pre-cue levels (linear
300 comparisons, $p = 0.017$; RM ANOVA, period effect $p = 0.092$; Table 2).

301 The introduction of potential predation cues had distinct effects on the behavior of
302 speckled sanddab (Table 2; RM ANOVA cue-period interaction $p = 0.092$). Exposure to the
303 visual predation cue suppressed the behavioral response to food availability, i.e. there was no
304 increase in posture during the feeding stage (Fig. 4; *a priori* linear comparisons, $p = 0.047$).
305 Similarly, posture scores during the post-feeding period were lower (but not significantly
306 different) following the V cue than the SW control ($p = 0.191$).

307 Speckled sanddab responded in a counter-intuitive manner to the damaged skin cue.
308 Following DS exposure, Δp during the feeding period was 60.3% higher than following the SW
309 control, although this difference was not significant ($p = 0.176$).

310 Exposure to the PO cue did not affect sanddab behavior; behavioral responses were
311 similar to those observed under SW controls (all comparisons of PO to SW, $p > 0.15$).

312 Fish size had an effect on some aspects of behavior (Table 2). During the cue period,
313 there was a negative effect of size on Δp ($p = 0.006$; Fig. 5). During the feeding period, a
314 marginally significant interaction of size and cue on Δp ($p = 0.050$) was primarily driven by a
315 negative effect of fish size on Δp , but only following V cue presentation (Fig. 5).

316 3.1.2 Foraging

317 There was a significant effect of fish size on feeding behavior in the experiments; larger

318 fish exhibited shorter feeding latencies ($p = 0.002$; Fig. 6) and a greater number of feeding strikes
319 ($p = 0.004$; Fig. 7) than smaller fish. Speckled sanddab fed the most following DS exposure; fish
320 attempted to feed in 82% of DS trials compared to 63%, 59%, and 47% of PO, SW, and V trials,
321 respectively. Furthermore, speckled sanddab tended to exhibit more feeding strikes following DS
322 exposure than following exposure to any other cue ($p = 0.051$; Fig. 7).

323 *3.2 Ocean Acidification Experiment*

324 *3.2.1 Baseline and First-Feeding*

325 There was little effect of CO₂ treatment on speckled sanddab baseline posture (RM
326 ANOVA, CO₂-period interaction $p = 0.40$; CO₂ main effect $p = 0.88$; Table 3; Fig. 8). Pre-cue
327 posture was generally low, averaging 0.2 across treatments. As observed in the behavioral
328 characterization experiment, posture remained low following introduction of the SW blank, but
329 increased during food introduction. Posture then remained elevated during the post-feeding
330 period (RM ANOVA, period effect $p < 0.001$; Fig. 8). There was no effect of mean size of the
331 sanddab pair on posture scores (ANCOVA, all $p > 0.2$), but size discrepancy within the pair
332 affected behavior during the feeding period. Trials with a larger difference in size between fish in
333 the pair had higher Δp scores ($p = 0.022$) and shorter feeding latencies ($p = 0.050$).

334 There was no effect of CO₂ treatment or fish size on the number of feeding strikes in the
335 baseline stage ($p > 0.7$; Fig. 10). However, there was a nonsignificant trend toward fish from the
336 low CO₂ treatment exhibiting shorter feeding latencies than fish from the two elevated CO₂
337 treatments (Fig. 9; survival analysis, $p = 0.45$). The majority of trials from all CO₂ treatments
338 (77%) were characterized by fish feeding during the first or second attempt. CO₂ treatment had
339 no effect on F_a (survival analysis, Chi-square = 1.351, $p = 0.509$), but fish fed within the first
340 two attempts in a higher percentage of trials from the low CO₂ treatment (85%) than from the

341 medium (74%) or high (71%) treatments (Fig. 12).

342 During the first-feeding stage, there was an effect of fish size and CO₂ treatment on
343 feeding latency. Longer feeding latencies were observed in smaller fish ($p = 0.044$) and in fish
344 from the medium CO₂ treatment ($p = 0.048$). There was no effect of CO₂ treatment or fish size
345 on number of feeding strikes (all $p > 0.05$). Similar to baseline behaviors, CO₂ had little effect on
346 speckled sanddab first-feeding posture (RM ANOVA, $p = 0.4$). While there was no significant
347 effect of CO₂ on posture, sanddab from the medium CO₂ treatment tended to display the lowest
348 posture scores throughout the first-feeding stage (*a priori* linear comparisons to L, $p > 0.1$; Fig.
349 8). Fish size had no effect on first-feeding posture (all $p > 0.2$).

350 3.2.2 Damaged Skin Response

351 As observed in the behavioral characterization experiment, DS cue introduction elicited
352 an increase in posture, which increased further when food was introduced. Sanddab behavior
353 during the DS stage did not differ significantly among CO₂ treatments (RM ANOVA, $p = 0.631$).
354 However, as in the first-feeding stage, fish from the medium CO₂ treatment tended to exhibit the
355 lowest posture scores (Fig. 8). There was no effect of CO₂ on feeding latency ($p = 0.393$) or
356 number of strikes following introduction of DS cues ($p = 0.790$).

357 Fish size had an effect on sanddab posture during the pre-cue period. A positive effect of
358 relative fish size on pre-cue posture was seen in fish from the low CO₂ treatment (CO₂-dSL
359 interaction, $p = 0.034$). There was no effect of fish size on feeding latency or number of feeding
360 strikes (all $p > 0.2$).

361 3.2.3 Post-Damaged Skin Response

362 CO₂ level had no effect on sanddab posture in the post-DS stage (RM ANOVA, $p =$
363 0.376). However, again, there was a trend toward fish from the medium CO₂ treatment

364 displaying the lowest posture scores. Although there was no effect of fish size on posture in the
365 Post-DS stage, there was a marginally significant interaction between CO₂ and fish size on
366 feeding latency ($p = 0.050$). In the medium CO₂ treatment, larger fish exhibited shorter feeding
367 latencies than smaller fish whereas in the low CO₂ treatment, larger fish exhibited longer feeding
368 latencies (no effect of size in the high CO₂ treatment). There was no effect of CO₂ treatment,
369 average fish size, or relative fish size on feeding strikes (all $p > 0.15$; Fig. 10).

370

371 **4. Discussion**

372 Experimental studies of the responses of marine fishes to potential feeding and predation
373 cues have been widely used to examine the potential for OA-induced sensory and behavioral
374 disturbances (Leduc et al. 2013; Clements and Hunt 2015). In particular, the reaction to scent of
375 damaged skin from a conspecific has been widely applied. Here, we examined the effect of CO₂
376 on the feeding and behavioral response of a coastal flatfish to these damaged skin cues. As the
377 behavioral response of juvenile flatfishes to olfactory predation cues has not previously been
378 examined, we first characterized the response of speckled sanddab to multiple potential predation
379 cues under ambient CO₂ conditions. Counter to our expectations, and observations made on other
380 species, speckled sanddab exhibited elevated posture and actively foraged following exposure to
381 damaged skin cues. We saw little effect of elevated CO₂ levels on sanddab behavior, suggesting
382 species-specific variation in sensitivity or a potential for acclimation following extended
383 exposure to elevated CO₂ levels. These experiments highlight the importance of understanding
384 the context of fish behavioral responses in evaluating environmental effects on marine
385 communities.

386 *4.1 Behavioral Characterization*

387 Speckled sanddab exhibited patterns of anti-predation behavior typical of those observed
388 in other flatfishes and cryptic demersal fishes. Even in the absence of specific predation cues,
389 activity levels were low and sanddab generally adopted a low posture on (or under) the sediment
390 surface. Posture increased during foraging periods and fish made brief forays away from the
391 sediment surface to capture prey items. As hypothesized, speckled sanddab reduced posture,
392 activity, and foraging behaviors following visual exposure to a model predator. These anti-
393 predation behavioral responses have been observed in other flatfishes (Boersma et al. 2008; Maia
394 et al. 2008). Interestingly, some sanddab exhibited possible predator inspection behavior
395 (Dugatkin et al. 2005). These events were characterized by an orientation and movement towards
396 the model predator with elevated posture and were followed by several minutes of no movement.
397 This behavior was not reported by Boersma et al. (2008) in their study of other Pacific coast
398 species. As this behavior increases conspicuousness and sanddab are cryptic without strong
399 swimming capabilities (compared to species such as Pacific halibut), it is unlikely that juveniles
400 would engage in active predator signaling. Therefore, predator inspection appears the most likely
401 explanation, although additional work would be required for a more complete characterization of
402 this aspect of behavior.

403 Speckled sanddab did not alter behavior (compared to SW controls) when exposed to
404 predator odor. Pacific cod are known predators of juvenile flatfishes and thus it is unlikely that
405 sanddab would not perceive them as a predation threat. It is difficult to determine and
406 experimentally replicate the strength and characteristics of olfactory cues that fish would
407 experience in natural settings. Experimental research has shown that some prey species are more
408 sensitive to olfactory cues when the predator has been fed the same prey species (Dixson et al.
409 2012). Pacific cod consume a diverse diet of fish and invertebrate prey. Although the cod in our

410 experiment were not fed speckled sanddab we believe that in our experimental exposures the PO
411 cue was generally similar to, and at least as strong as the olfactory predator cues that prey fish
412 would experience in nature. Rather, living in turbid estuarine waters may result in a decreased
413 behavioral sensitivity to some predation cues. High turbidity reduces the predation risk of
414 juvenile flatfishes (Lemke and Ryer 2006a) which may result in a more “risk prone” suite of
415 behaviors. Such an explanation was proposed for English sole (*Parophrys vetulus*) which did not
416 increase anti-predation behavior even following visual exposure to a predator (Lemke and Ryer
417 2006a; Boersma et al. 2008). In contrast, the presence of predator odor may be insufficiently
418 specific to indicate an immediate predation risk; the scent of predators may be ubiquitous or at
419 such low concentrations in nature that visual confirmation of a predator is necessary to elicit
420 anti-predation behaviors (Lima and Steury 2005).

421 Speckled sanddab exhibited an unexpected response to damaged skin cues from injured
422 conspecifics. Damaged skin cues are frequently referred to as “alarm cues,” as they have been
423 shown to elicit responses that are believed to minimize predation vulnerability in a wide variety
424 of marine and freshwater species (Ferrari et al. 2010). However, in sanddab, exposure to the
425 scent of injured conspecifics elicited increases in posture and activity, which would presumably
426 make fish more conspicuous and vulnerable to predation. Exposure to DS cues also resulted in
427 shorter feeding latencies. These results suggest that damaged skin cues from injured conspecifics
428 do not function as a predation cue in juvenile speckled sanddab.

429 Studies of larval sturgeon (*Acipenser fulvescens*) also reported a significant increase in
430 activity following DS cue exposure (Wishengrad et al. 2014; Sloychuk et al. 2016). The
431 behavioral responses of larval sturgeon were interpreted by the authors as an escape response and
432 as being distinct from responses to food cues (although foraging responses were not

433 characterized in the study). While DS cue-induced increases in activity may plausibly be
434 interpreted as an escape response for larval sturgeon, we suggest that this is not the case for
435 juvenile speckled sanddab as they actively foraged following exposure to damaged skin cues.
436 Furthermore, studies have shown that behavioral responses to DS cues can be dependent on
437 factors such as a fish's environment, life history stage, and hunger state (Harvey & Brown 2004;
438 McCormick and Larson 2008; Chivers et al. 2014). It is possible that rather than triggering a
439 general suppression of activity, DS cues function as a more general "alert" cue for juvenile
440 speckled sanddab. If so, exposure to DS cue may have facilitated recognition and response to
441 subsequent stimuli, which in these trials was food introduction. Finally, it is possible that DS
442 cues are perceived by speckled sanddab as food cues.

443 Examining fish behavioral responses to the sight of a predator, Boersma et al. (2008)
444 classified three species of flatfish as risk-averse (northern rock sole, *Lepidopsetta polyxystra*),
445 risk-prone (English sole), and risk-sensitive (Pacific halibut). Although our testing procedures
446 differed from those of Boersma et al. (2008), a similar visual exposure to the same model
447 predator was used in both studies. We suggest that speckled sanddab exhibited behaviors most
448 similar to Pacific halibut. Both sanddab and halibut exhibited risk-sensitive behaviors
449 characterized by foraging and elevated posture and activity in the absence of predation threat,
450 while significantly reducing these behaviors during and following exposure to the sight of a
451 predator (Lemke and Ryer 2006a, Boersma et al. 2008).

452 *4.2 Ocean Acidification Effects*

453 Numerous recent studies have demonstrated altered behavior in marine fishes following
454 exposure to elevated CO₂, potentially leading to widespread disruptions of marine ecosystems
455 (Briffa et al. 2012). Many of these studies have focused on the responsiveness of marine fishes to

456 olfactory cues (e.g. Munday et al. 2010; Cripps et al. 2011; Ferrari et al. 2011). However, other
457 studies have documented little or no effect of elevated CO₂ level on responsiveness to olfactory
458 cues or other aspects of behavior (e.g. Maneja et al. 2013; Heinrich et al. 2016; Sundin and
459 Jutfelt 2016). Where they occur, these effects are hypothesized to be due to hypercapnia-induced
460 disruption of GABA_A neuroreceptor function (Nilsson et al. 2012; Tresguerres and Hamilton
461 2017).

462 Although we found no major effects of elevated CO₂ on routine behavior of speckled
463 sanddab or their responses to damaged skin cues from injured conspecifics, fish from the
464 medium CO₂ treatment tended to exhibit lower posture and activity scores compared to fish from
465 other CO₂ treatments. Such a non-linear dose-response pattern could indicate a behavioral
466 compensation that is only induced at a higher degree of CO₂ exposure. Fishes can detect (and
467 respond to) CO₂ concentrations in seawater (Jutfelt and Hedgärde 2013). As a result, the
468 cumulative effects of exposure to a wide range of CO₂ conditions could include both
469 physiological and behavioral components resulting in non-linear organism level response
470 patterns. In fact, one of the earliest studies of the effects of elevated CO₂ on fish behavior
471 (Munday et al. 2009) found qualitatively different effects depending on the degree of
472 acidification. Later studies have similarly found non-linear response patterns to elevated CO₂ on
473 fish foraging behavior (Cripps et al. 2011) and growth (Silva et al. 2016). Unfortunately, because
474 most studies of OA effects on fish behavior have incorporated only a single acidified treatment,
475 it is difficult to know how common such non-linear responses may be. We recommend the
476 incorporation of multiple treatments to better understand the CO₂ range over which behavioral
477 disturbances are induced as well as consideration of potential compensatory responses.

478 Identifying the phylogenetic or life history traits that influence species-specific sensitivity

479 to elevated CO₂ will improve our understanding of the cumulative impacts of ocean acidification
480 to marine communities. In the only other study of OA effects on behavior in a marine flatfish,
481 juvenile Senegalese sole (*Solea senegalensis*) exhibited altered lateralization and habitat
482 preference following exposure to elevated CO₂ levels when combined with exposure to elevated
483 temperature and/or methyl mercury contamination (Sampaio et al. 2016). The general resiliency
484 observed in the behavioral traits of speckled sanddab to elevated CO₂ may be associated with
485 their distribution in coastal waters of the U.S. West Coast. Although no clear patterns have yet
486 emerged to support the prediction, Melzner et al. (2009) suggested that species exposed to
487 naturally high and fluctuating CO₂ conditions may be pre-adapted to cope with increasing global
488 oceanic CO₂ concentrations. The U.S. West Coast is naturally exposed to seasonally elevated
489 CO₂ conditions of up to 1,000 µatm associated with wind-induced upwelling (Feeley et al. 2016)
490 that may confer an advantage to speckled sanddab and other coastal species in the region.
491 However, even among closely related species within this region, experiments have found varying
492 levels of behavioral sensitivity to experimentally elevated CO₂ levels (Hamilton et al. 2014;
493 Hamilton et al. 2017). Clearly more work is needed to understand the geographic and
494 phylogenetic patterns driving this variation in sensitivity.

495 Alternatively, the observed resiliency of speckled sanddab may be related to the
496 experimental approach or the specific set of behaviors examined in this study. The 4-6 week
497 acclimation time to elevated CO₂ conditions used in this study is longer than that applied in
498 many studies that have shown OA-induced behavioral disruptions (Kroeker et al. 2013). In most
499 studies to date, routine (or “baseline”) behavior and activity levels in the absence of specific food
500 or predator stimuli have appeared to be minimally influenced by elevated CO₂ levels (e.g. Jutfelt
501 and Hedgärde 2015, Sundin et al. 2017). Most of the studies showing the clearest effects of

502 sensory-mediated behavioral change at elevated CO₂ levels have examined responses to
503 predatory cues (e.g., Dixson et al. 2010, Welch et al. 2014), whereas sensitivity of foraging
504 responses appears more variable among species (e.g., Cripps et al. 2011, Maneja et al. 2013,
505 Dixson et al. 2014, Heinrich et al. 2016). Our behavioral characterization experiment suggested
506 that the damaged skin cues functioned more like a foraging than predation cue in juvenile
507 speckled sanddab. Hence, additional work should consider the effects of OA on responses to the
508 visual predator cue or other aspects of behavior in juvenile speckled sanddab.

509 *4.3 Conclusions*

510 The elevated CO₂ levels associated with ongoing ocean acidification have been shown to
511 alter aspects of behavior in a variety of marine species, but the effects are far from universal:
512 significant variation in responses has been observed across species, ecological guilds, behavioral
513 traits, and testing conditions. The observed resiliency of baseline activity patterns and foraging
514 responses of speckled sanddab calls for continued examination of a diversity of species in
515 temperate food webs. Speckled sanddab exhibited a counter-intuitive response to the damaged
516 skin cues commonly applied in OA studies, demonstrating the need for caution in the
517 interpretation of behavioral changes in species whose basic behavioral ecology has not been
518 explored. Understanding the potential for OA-induced behavioral disruptions to impact marine
519 ecosystems will require the merging of rigorous experimental protocols and a greater effort to
520 understand the relevancy of impacted behaviors in the life history of the organism.

521

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728 Table 1. Conditions (mean \pm SE) during acclimation and behavioral observations of speckled

729 sanddab (*Citharichthys stigmaeus*) behavioral responses to elevated CO₂ levels.

730

Metric	Low (L) CO₂ Treatment	Medium (M) CO₂ Treatment	High (H) CO₂ Treatment
Temperature (°C)	8.5 \pm 0.1	8.5 \pm 0.1	8.5 \pm 0.1
DIC (mol·kg ⁻¹)	1960.8 \pm 19.2	2061.1 \pm 19.6	2115.3 \pm 18.2
TA (μmol·kg ⁻¹)	2093.2 \pm 20.5	2098.6 \pm 20.7	2100.6 \pm 18.8
pH (seawater scale)	8.01 \pm 0.01	7.69 \pm 0.02	7.50 \pm 0.06
pCO ₂ (μatm)	402 \pm 14	910 \pm 38	1445 \pm 52
Ω _{Aragonite}	1.55 \pm 0.03	0.81 \pm 0.05	0.53 \pm 0.03

731 Table 2. Primary statistics describing behavioral characterization experiment results. RM ANOVA was used to determine overall cue
 732 effects on behaviors for each period. Orthogonal linear comparisons were used to compare responses to potential predation cues to
 733 those of the SW control. Statistically significant (<, >) and non-significant trends (\leq , \geq) within the “result” columns indicate the
 734 direction of the effect. ANCOVA was used to examine the effects of body size (*avgSL*) on behavioral responses within each period.
 735

Overall effect of cue and period: RM ANOVA

Main Effects	RM	p-values		
		<i>cue</i>	<i>period</i>	<i>cue x period</i>
cue + trial	period	0.105	< 0.001	0.092

Cue-specific results: Orthogonal linear comparisons to SW

Cue	Cue Period		Feeding Period		Post-feeding Period	
	<i>Result</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>Result</i>	<i>p-value</i>	<i>Result</i>	<i>p-value</i>
V		0.543	V < SW	0.047	V \leq SW	0.191
DS		0.310	DS \geq SW	0.176		0.572
PO		0.311		0.467		0.485

736 Table 2 Continued.

Size effects on responses: ANCOVA

Period	Metric	p-values		
		<i>Cue</i>	<i>avgSL</i>	<i>cue x avgSL</i>
Cue	Δp	0.657	0.006	0.207
Feeding	Δp	0.008	0.427	0.050
	F_{min}	0.170	0.002	0.909
	F_s	0.051	0.004	0.615
Post-Feeding	Δp	0.290	0.711	0.889

737 Table 3. Primary statistics describing results of the OA experiment. RM ANOVA was used to determine the overall effect of CO₂ on
 738 behaviors for each stage. ANCOVA was used to examine the effects of body size (*avgSL*) on behavioral responses within each period
 739 of each stage. Survival analyses were used to determine the effect of CO₂ treatment on F_a and F_{min} .
 740

Overall effect of CO₂ during each stage: RM ANOVA

Main Effects	RM	Stage	p-values		
			<i>CO</i> ₂	<i>period</i>	<i>CO</i> ₂ x <i>period</i>
CO ₂	period	Baseline	0.882	< 0.001	0.444
		First-Feeding	0.437	< 0.001	0.609
		DS Response	0.631	< 0.001	0.722
		Post-DS Response	0.376	< 0.001	0.209

741 Table 3 Continued.

Size effects on responses: ANCOVA

Stage	Metric	Cue Period p-values			Feeding Period p-values			Post-Feeding Period p-values		
		CO_2	$avgSL$	$CO_2 \times avgSL$	CO_2	$avgSL$	$CO_2 \times avgSL$	CO_2	$avgSL$	$CO_2 \times avgSL$
Baseline	Δp	0.084	0.352	0.881	0.439	0.698	0.653	0.884	0.207	0.149
	F_{min}				0.486	0.672	0.681			
	F_s				0.910	0.711	0.865			
First-Feeding	Δp	0.673	0.895	0.506	0.522	0.745	0.425	0.421	0.284	0.283
	F_{min}				0.048	0.044	0.505			
	F_s				0.694	0.080	0.422			
DS Response	Δp	0.444	0.527	0.845	0.882	0.445	0.648	0.552	0.399	0.719
	F_{min}				0.790	0.709	0.558			
	F_s				0.963	0.234	0.948			
Post-DS Response	Δp	0.842	0.495	0.972	0.270	0.587	0.233	0.271	0.523	0.742
	F_{min}				0.608	0.850	0.050			
	F_s				0.349	0.163	0.663			

Effects of CO_2 on foraging responses: Survival analysis

Metric	Stage	p-values
F_a		0.509
F_{min}	Baseline	0.450
	First-Feeding	0.052
	DS Response	0.393
	Post-DS Response	0.292

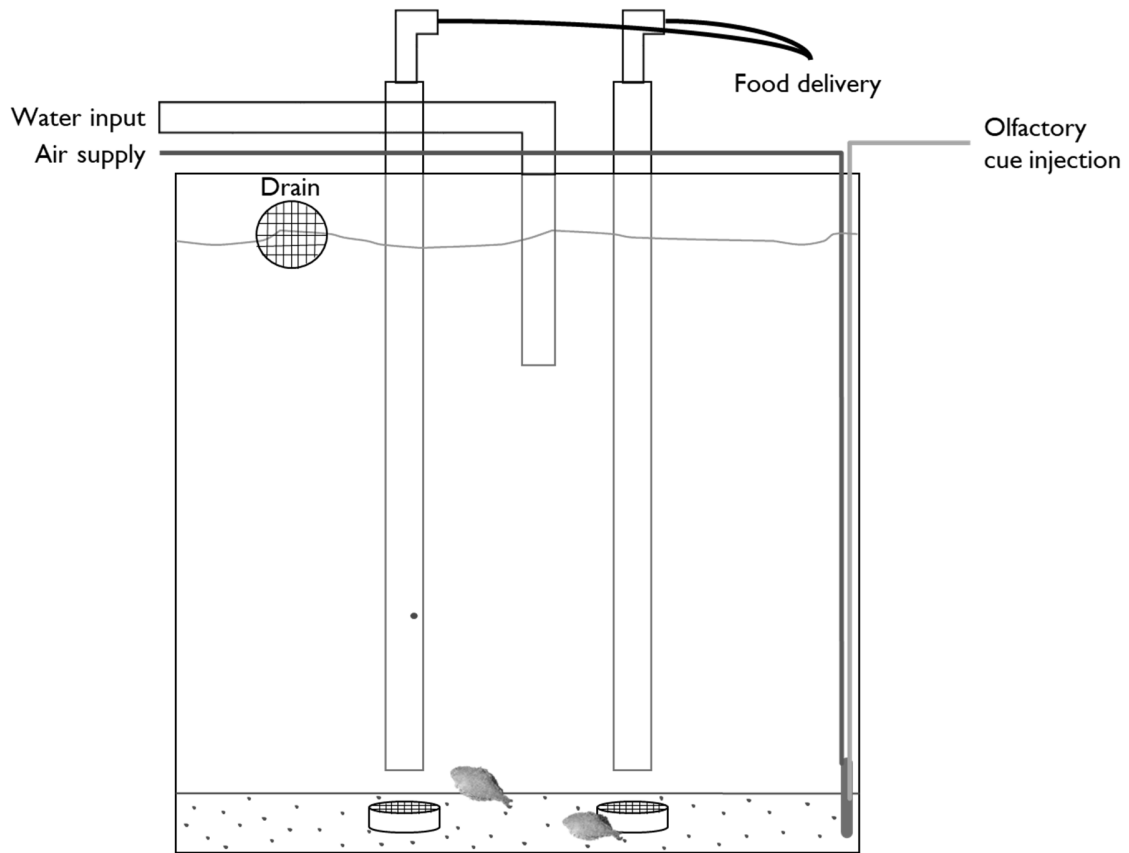


Fig. 1. Schematic of the experimental apparatus. Experiments took place in 125 L cubic flow-through tanks. Food was delivered through transparent, vertical tubes suspended 6 cm above a mesh grate. Flexible tubing delivered olfactory cues near the air stone to ensure adequate mixing of cues throughout the tank.

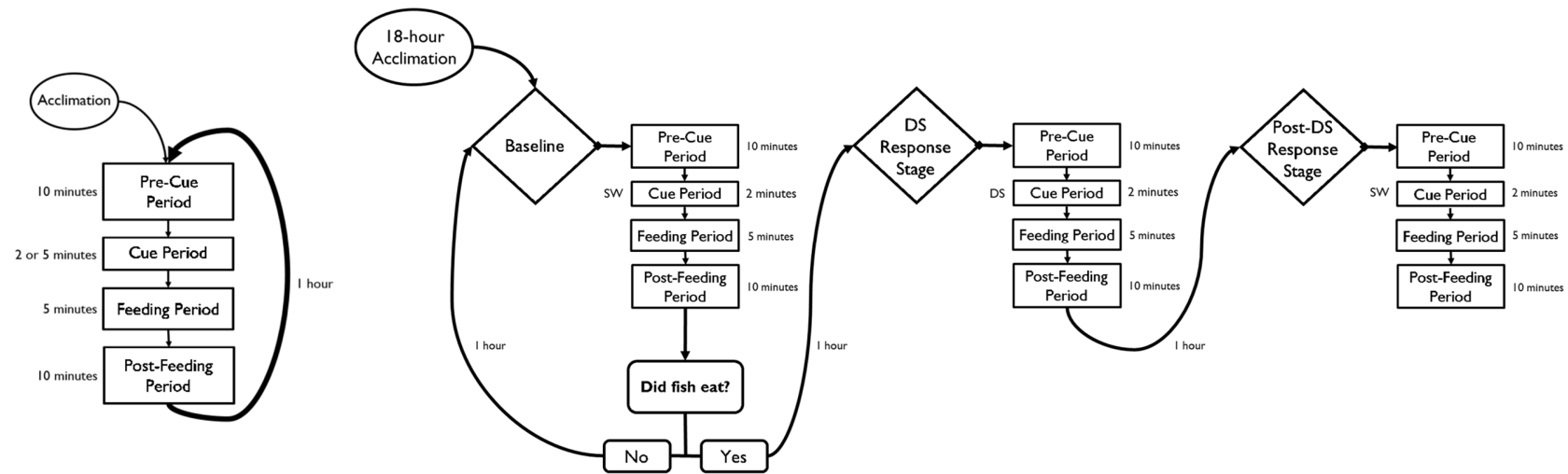


Fig. 2. Flow chart of experimental procedures for behavioral characterization experiment (left) and ocean acidification experiment (right). In the behavioral characterization experiment, potential predation cues were presented at 1-h intervals in a randomized order. In the OA experiment, trials consisted of three stages, each comprised of a cue presentation. Damaged skin cues (DS) were presented during the cue period of the DS response stage, while seawater (SW) functioned as a cue control for all other stages. If a pair of fish did not attempt to feed during the (I) baseline stage, this stage was repeated at 1-h intervals. Once a fish attempted to feed, it was subsequently tested in the following two stages.

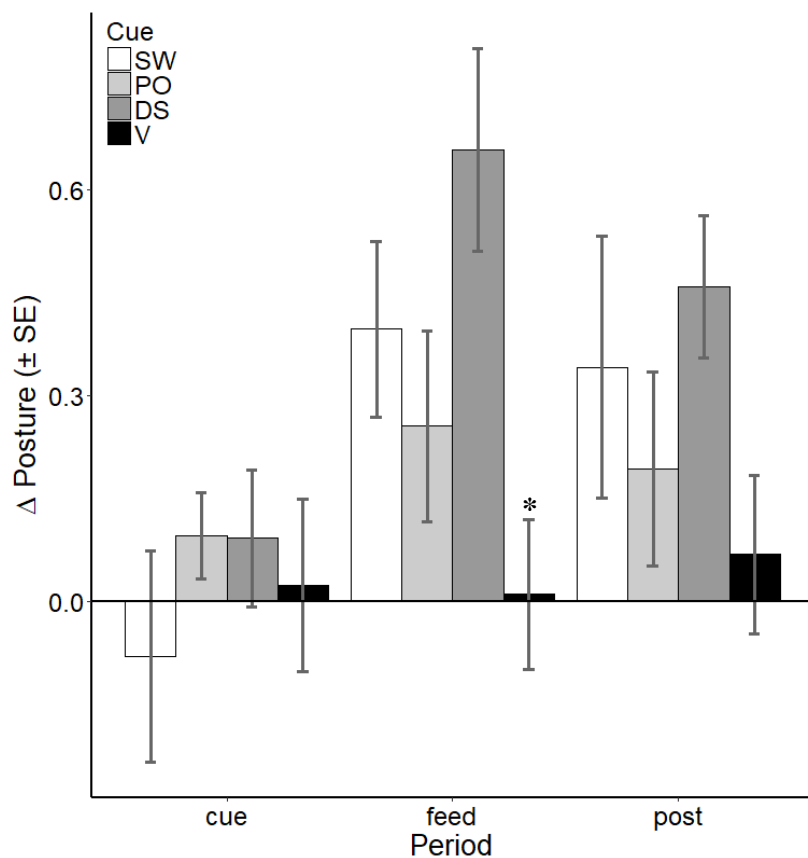


Fig. 3. Changes in speckled sanddab posture (mean \pm SE) from initial pre-cue levels in subsequent (cue, feeding, and post-feeding) periods for each cue. Potential predation cues included predator odor (PO), damaged skin cues from injured conspecifics (DS), and the sight of a predator (V). A seawater (SW) blank was used as a cue control. Asterisks (*) indicate significant differences from response to SW.

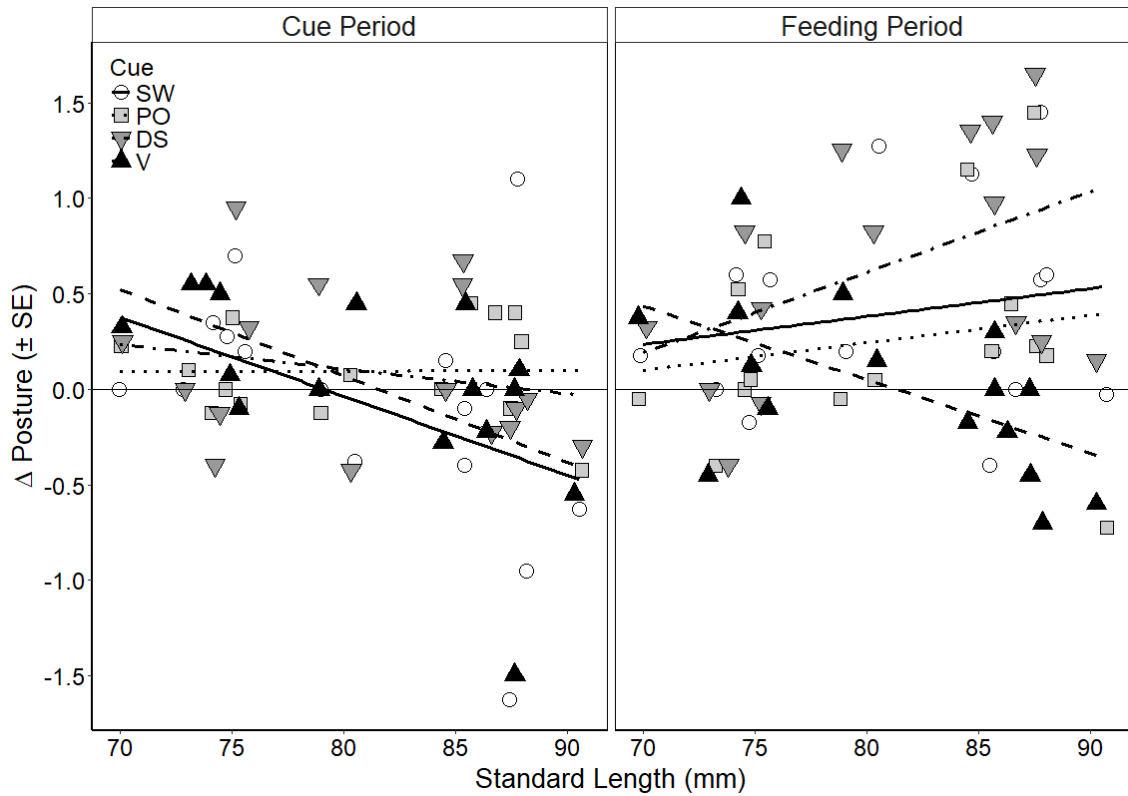


Fig. 4. Effect of fish size (mean size of experimental pair) and cue type on changes in posture from the pre-cue period to the cue period (left) and feeding period (right). Linear regressions between the mean size of each pair of sanddab and their behavioral responses are shown for each cue type of each trial. Note: overlapping points are slightly offset for clarity.

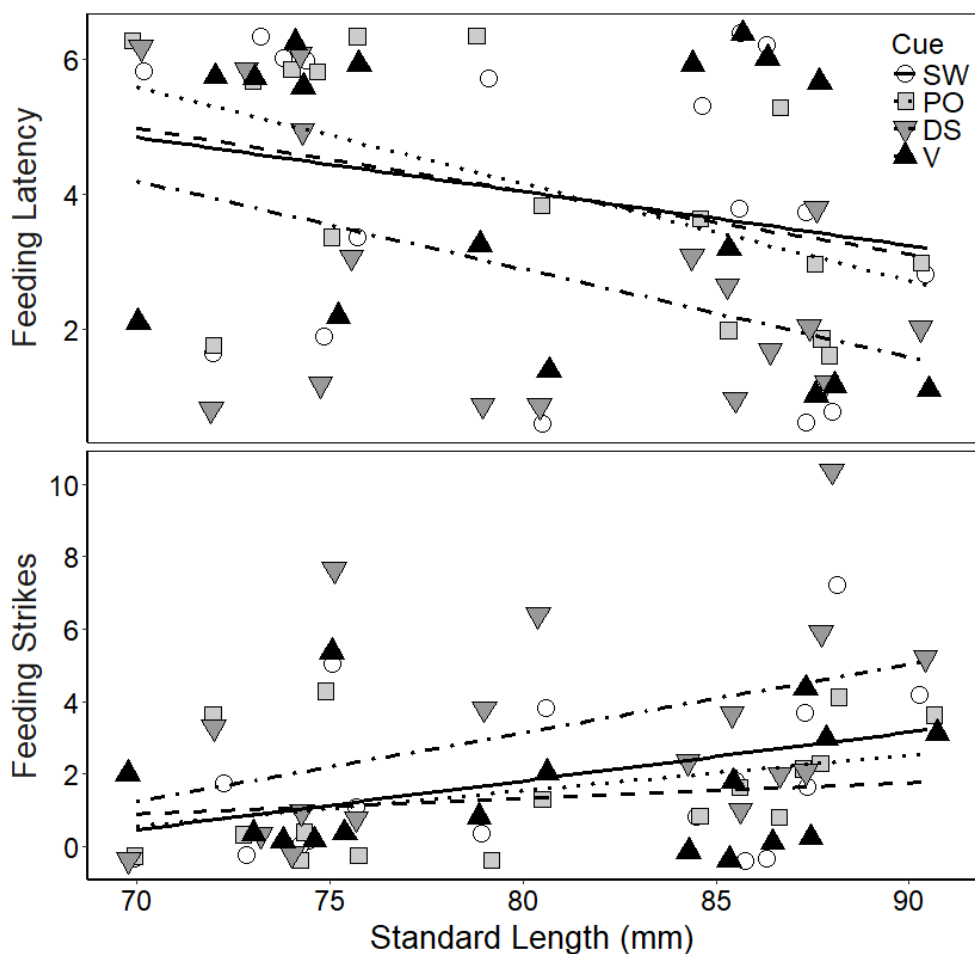


Fig. 5. Effect of fish size (mean size of experimental pair) and cue type on speckled sanddab feeding latency (top) and number of feeding strikes (bottom). Feeding latency was quantified as the minute within the feeding period (score of 1-5) in which one of the two fish first attempted to feed. Pairs that did not attempt to feed were assigned a score of 6. Note: overlapping points are slightly offset for clarity.

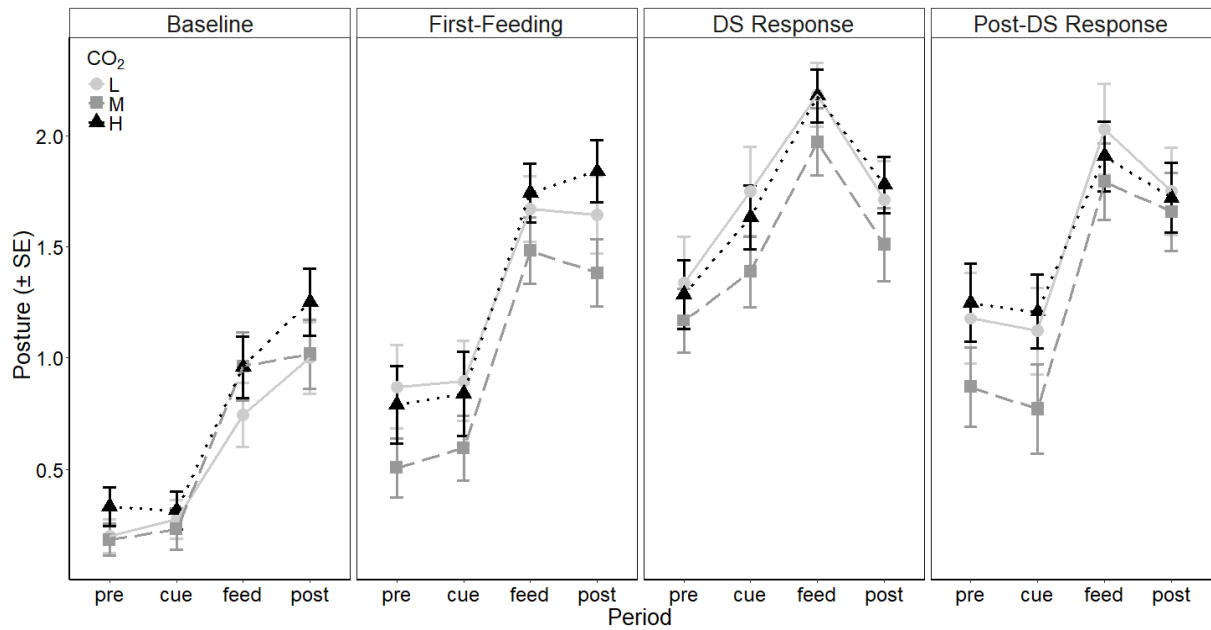


Fig. 6. Speckled sanddab posture (mean \pm SE) during each period of the baseline, first-feeding, DS response, and post-DS response stages for each CO₂ treatment. Damaged skin (DS) cues were introduced during the cue period of the DS response stage. Seawater (SW) was introduced as a cue control during the cue periods of all other stages.

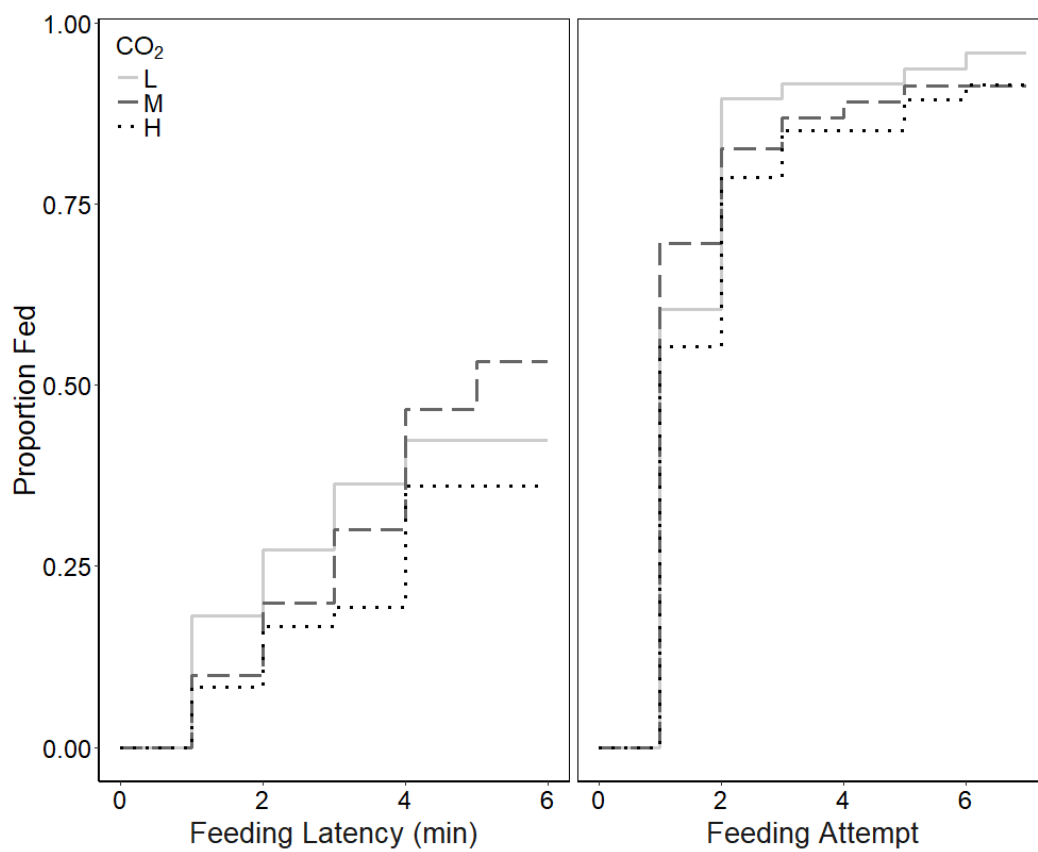
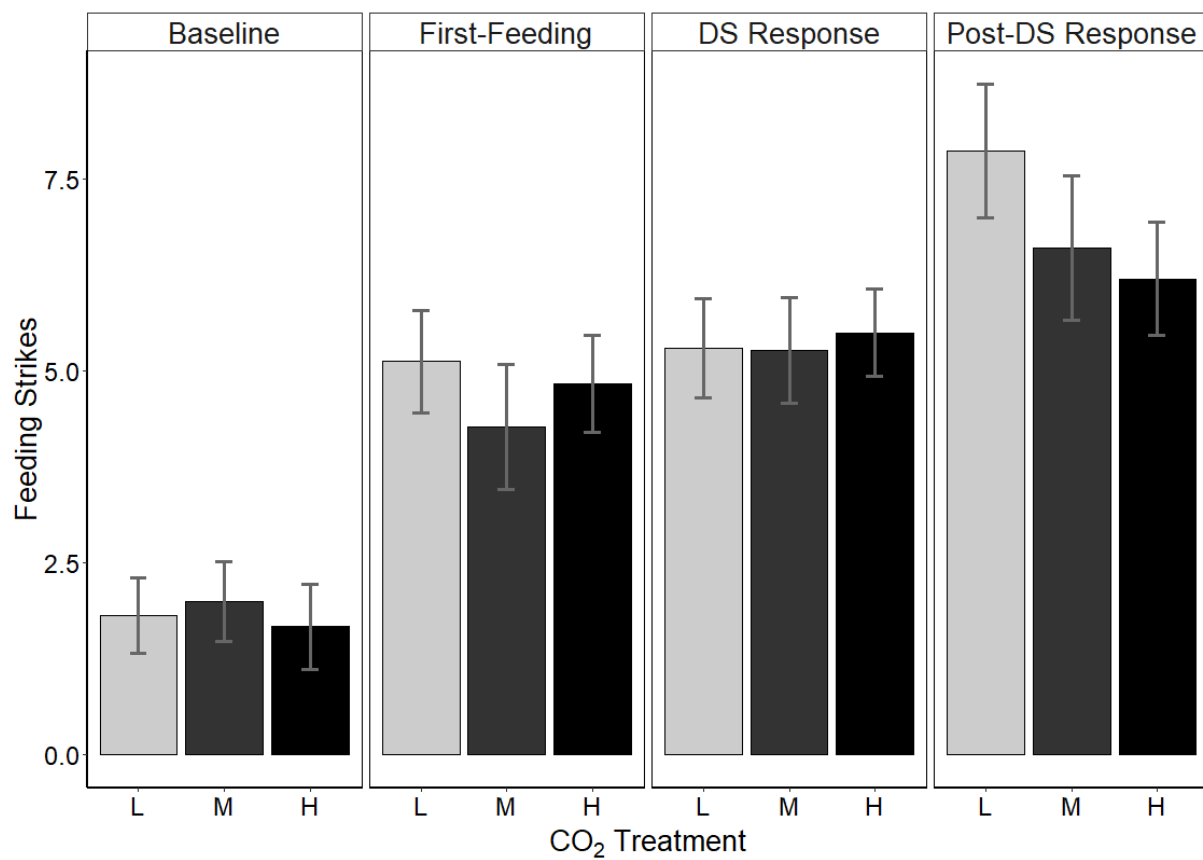


Fig. 7. Effect of CO₂ treatments on speckled sanddab willingness to feed; cumulative proportion of sanddab pairs feeding over time during the baseline stage (left) and during repeated testing of the baseline stage (right).



1

2 **Fig. 8.** Number of feeding strikes (mean \pm SE) within each stage and CO₂ treatment.

3