1	A comparison	of life-history	traits in	calcifying	Spirorbinae	polychaetes	living along
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2 natural pH gradients

3 Running head: Identifying traits tolerant to low pH

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19 Abstract

20 Low pH vent systems are ideal natural laboratories to study the consequences of 21 long-term low pH exposure on marine species, and thus identify life-history traits 22 associated with low pH tolerance. This knowledge can help to inform predictions on 23 which types of species may be less vulnerable in future ocean acidification (OA) 24 scenarios. Accordingly, we investigated how traits of calcifying polychaete species 25 (Serpulidae, Spirorbinae) varied with pH using a functional trait analysis at two natural 26 pH gradients around Castello Islet in Ischia, Italy. We first observed the distribution and 27 abundance patterns of all calcifying polychaete epiphytes in the canopy of *Posidonia* 28 *oceanica* seagrass across these gradients. We then used laboratory trials to compare 29 fecundity, settlement success, and juvenile survival in the dominant species from a 30 control (*Pileolaria militaris* Claparède, 1870) and a low pH site (*Simplaria* sp., 31 (Serpulidae, Spirorbinae). We found significantly higher reproductive output, juvenile 32 settlement rates, and juvenile survival in *Simplaria* sp. individuals from the low pH site, 33 compared to *P. militaris* individuals from control pH sites, when observed in their 34 respective *in situ* pH conditions. Our results suggest that tolerance to low pH may result, 35 in part, from traits associated with successful reproduction and rapid settlement under 36 low pH conditions. This finding implies that other species with similar life history traits 37 may cope better in future OA scenarios, and should be targeted for future OA tolerance 38 research.

Keywords: Ocean Acidification, Calcifiers, Settlement Success, Fecundity, Early-life
Survival, Serpulidae, Population Resilience

41 **1 Introduction**

42 Anthropogenically-driven global changes may reduce or alter marine biodiversity 43 (Raven et al. 2005, Widdicombe & Spicer 2008). One such change, ocean acidification 44 (OA), occurs when surface seawater absorbs increasing atmospheric carbon dioxide 45 (CO₂), resulting in lowered pH and reduced availability of the carbonate ions many 46 marine organisms require to build skeletal structures (IPCC, 2014). Despite confidence in 47 forecasts of the chemical impacts from this process into the next century (Bopp et al. 48 2013, IPCC 2014), uncertainty surrounds the corresponding biological and ecological 49 impacts (Harley 2011, Gaylord et al. 2014). Determining sensitivities and tolerances to 50 future OA conditions represents a necessary first step in improved understanding of how 51 marine biodiversity will change in the next decades (Stockwell et al. 2003, van Oppen et 52 al. 2015).

53 Functional trait analyses (FTA) can help determine sensitivity or tolerance of 54 different species to low pH conditions. These analyses link environmental gradient 55 survey data (e.g. species abundance patterns), to specific phenotypic trait changes in two 56 or more species along the same gradients (e.g. body size, reproductive habit, fecundity) 57 (McGill et al. 2006). The assumption is that by comparing a specific trait among 58 phylogenetically similar species (i.e. sister species, or species derived from a common 59 ancestral node), differences can be attributed to specific environmental effects. In the 60 context of future OA, application of specific functional trait analyses along natural pH 61 gradients provides a relatively straightforward tool to evaluate which types of species will 62 play pivotal roles in reorganizing the biodiversity landscape (McGill et al. 2006).

63 Abundance surveys performed in volcanic vent systems, which emit CO_2 , have 64 recently proven useful in identifying traits associated with invertebrate species 65 sensitivities and tolerances to future OA change (Lucey et al. 2015, Gambi et al. 2016). 66 For example, marine invertebrates without a pelagic life stage (i.e. brooders or direct 67 developers) are more abundant in low pH sections of CO₂ vent gradients (Lucey et al. 68 2015). Identification of a specific brooding oyster species with increased survivability in 69 a low pH upwelling environment (Waldbusser et al. 2016) reinforced this pattern 70 Unfortunately, natural system assessments generally lack trait data regarding fecundity, 71 larval survival, settlement and recruitment (however, see Padilla-Gamino et al. (2016) for 72 coralline algae assessment). This gap partly exists because field observations cannot 73 provide detailed data involving a temporal element (e.g. settlement rates), or observations 74 requiring thorough quantification of small-scale processes (e.g. egg production, 75 fecundity). Collecting and observing such traits in a laboratory setting that mimics the 76 individuals' *in situ* conditions can help to fill this gap. Combining such laboratory trials 77 with natural system-based assessments may offer one mechanism to strengthen analyses 78 of some functional traits.

The sensitivity of early developmental stages underscores the need to understand marine invertebrate life histories within future OA scenarios (Kurihara 2008, Albright 2011, Byrne 2011, Crook et al. 2016). As such, our study aims to identify fecundity and early life history traits associated with low pH tolerance in marine invertebrates using calcifying serpulid polychaetes (Spirorbidae, Annelida) along two natural pH gradients. These gradients border the Castello Aragonese Islet off the coast of Ischia (Naples, Italy), and are a formed when volcanically derived CO₂ gas bubbling up through the seafloor

86	mixes with seawater, decreasing the pH from an ambient value of ~8.17 to as low as 6.57
87	(Tedesco 1996, Hall-Spencer et al. 2008, Kroeker et al. 2011, Garrard et al. 2014), well
88	representing business-as-usual IPCC pH projections for 2100 (IPCC, 2014) .
89	We selected calcareous polychaetes of the sub-family Spirorbinae (Annelida,
90	Serpulidae), which inhabit Posidonia oceanic seagrass leaves as epiphytes along the
91	Castello pH gradients, as our study focus. Generally, Spirorbinae polychaetes encompass
92	a diverse suite of life history traits that can vary among closely related species
93	(Macdonald 2003). Their dual life stages, with both free-swimming larval phases and
94	sessile adult stages (Kupriyanova et al. 2001, 2006), offer another beneficial attribute.
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95 96 97 98	First, we assess the distribution and abundance patterns of the calcifying polychaeter assemblage on <i>Posidonia oceanica</i> leaves across two natural pH gradients bordering the Castello Islet: – one along the north (mean pH range 7.39 - 8.03), and one along the south (mean pH range 6.99 - 8.03). Second, we use laboratory trials comparing two closely
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- **2 Materials & Methods**
- 105 2.1 Field survey

106	The pH gradients used in this study occur along the north and south sides of the
107	Castello Aragonese islet on Ischia, an island off the coast of Naples, Italy (Tyrrhenian
108	Sea) (Fig. 1). To represent three pH levels, six sampling sites were chosen within
109	Posidonia oceanica seagrass meadows, at depths of approximately 3 ± 0.5 m. Sites are
110	referred to as N3, N2, NC and S3, S2, SC, where "3" represents the extreme-low pH, "2"
111	the low pH conditions, and "C" the control pH. The "N" and "S" represent north and
112	south gradients (Fig. 1). Sites were chosen to be were comparable in depth and Posidonia
113	cover (Donnarumma et al. 2014). The site names are listed with their corresponding
114	carbonate seawater parameters in Table 1. Seawater parameters represent a synthesis of
115	all available data in the last six years to convey the most comprehensive and realistic
116	time-series data for these study sites (Ricevuto et al. 2014). For additional water
117	parameters and GPS coordinates, see Supplementary Material: Site Details.
118	To determine which calcifying polychaete species settle on Posidonia leaves in
119	low pH environments, and how their abundance and distribution varies along the pH
120	gradients, sampling by SCUBA diving was performed on September 29th - 30th, 2014.
121	Four quadrats (replicates) of 40 x 40 cm were haphazardly placed at least 2 m apart on
122	the seagrass canopy in each pH site. Within each quadrat, leaves of ten Posidonia shoots
123	were randomly cut at the base of the rhizome and put in separate plastic bags. In the two
124	extreme low pH sites (N3 and S3), initial visual inspection showed a highly reduced
125	number of worms on leaves. Consequently, the number of sampled shoots was increased
126	by cutting only the external leaf (oldest leaf) of 30 shoots within each of the four quadrats
127	in both N3 and S3. This provided a more reliable estimate of worm abundance and helped
128	preserve the seagrass from impact due to sampling. Samples were transferred in bags

129	containing seawater to the Villa Dohrn-Benthic Ecology Center of Ischia (Stazione
130	Zoologica Anton Dohrn) within 1 h of sampling, and preserved in 4 % neutralized
131	formalin for 24 h. They were then rinsed with fresh water and transferred into 70 $\%$
132	EtOH for long-term preservation.
133	The number of calcifying polychaetes on the Posidonia leaves of each shoot was
134	determined by viewing each leaf from each replicate/quadrat under a dissecting
135	microscope (AZ100, Nikon, Milan, Italy; magnification 1- 50x). Species were identified
136	from their tube orientation, operculum and chaetae morphology. Due to the loss of some
137	opercula, some specimens remained unidentified. These were included in the counts by
138	determining the ratio between the number of specimens identified for a given species and
139	the total number of specimens found at each site. This ratio was used to calculate the total
140	number of each species for each site replicate (Supplementary Materials: Table S.1).
141	The average number of polychaetes at each site accounting for differences in the
142	available settlement area was calculated by multiplying the shoot density to the
143	settlement area (percentage of Posidonia shoots colonized by spirorbids * average
144	number of spirorbids per shoot), with shoot density data from Donnarumma et al. (2014).
145	Only leaves longer than 5 cm were considered. In the extreme low pH sites (S3 and N3),
146	where sampling included only external leaves, the estimation followed the same
147	procedure.

148 2.2 Laboratory trials

149 One day after the field survey, live individuals were collected for the laboratory150 trial by SCUBA diving. This entailed cutting *Posidonia* leaves with visibly attached

polychaete tubes from the S2 (low pH) and NC (control pH) sites. Leaves were placed in
fabric bags, keeping the individuals from both sites separated and in their original
seawater conditions.

All material was transported to the ENEA Laboratory in La Spezia, Italy where specimens were sorted, identified and prepared for the trial (Supplementary Material: *Transport Details*). Specimens were held at the pH conditions from their respective field sites (control or low pH) during the sorting process (2 - 4 d). For the trial, we identified 18 *Pileolaria militaris* adults from the control pH site (NC), and 12 *Simplaria* sp. adults from the low pH site (S2).

160 These sites were chosen because they have the greatest average pH difference 161 (Table 1), and specific species were chosen because the low pH site's sample was 162 dominated by Simplaria sp. and the control pH site's sample was dominated by P. militaris. Additionally, the lack of Simplaria sp. individuals found in the control pH sites, 163 164 and of *Pileolaria militaris* individuals found in the low pH sites, precluded a reciprocal 165 laboratory transplant experiment. This in itself demonstrates that different species have 166 different levels of sensitivity to low pH conditions, and thus the comparison in life 167 history traits between the two selected species represents the best avenue to identify traits 168 that help defining species' successful colonization in low pH. As in most classical 169 functional trait analyses, this between-species comparison is able to capture valuable 170 information.

At the start of the trial, each adult was placed in a separate Petri dish
preconditioned with a biofilm from a 2 d non-filtered seawater soak and filled with 3 mL

173	of pH-conditioned filtered seawater (1 adult per Petri dish). The pH in the dishes was set
174	at 7.61 for Simplaria sp. adults, representing the average value found in the S2 field site
175	considering time-series data (Table 1). Similarly, dishes with P. militaris adults were
176	maintained at the control pH value, 8.1. All other seawater parameters matched the field
177	values for both species (Table 2). In this setup, eight covered aquaria were filled with 20
178	mL of seawater. This water served as a bath for the uncovered Petri dishes (6-8 dishes
179	per aquaria). Half of the aquaria were maintained at the lowered pH level by bubbling
180	enriched (elevated pCO_2 air) into the seawater, while the other half was maintained at the
181	control pH level by bubbling normal air into the seawater. The pH inside each Petri dish
182	was attained through surface CO ₂ diffusion within the covered aquaria (Gattuso 2011).
183	The pCO_2 going to these aquaria was measured continuously throughout the exposure
184	period using a CO ₂ gas analyzer (Li-820, Li-Cor Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA). All
185	aquaria were held in a thermal water bath that maintained stable thermal conditions. Petri
186	dishes were randomly moved between the aquaria every two days.
187	Seawater pH, temperature, and salinity were measured in each Petri dish daily
188	with an integrated pH and temperature meter (SG2, Italy), and refractomer (V2, TMC,
189	São Julião do Tojal, Portugal). The pH meter was calibrated daily with pH buffer
190	standards (4.01, 7.0, 9.21; Mettler-Toledo, Leicester, UK). Seawater samples (250 mL)
191	were taken at the beginning and end of the trial from the stock seawater prepared for each
192	treatment. Samples were fixed with HgCl ₂ (0.02 %) to eliminate microbial activity, stored
193	in borosilicate flasks (250 mL), and maintained in dark, dry conditions until total
194	alkalinity (A _T) was determined using gran titration method (Dickson et al. 2007).
195	Carbonate-system parameters of pCO_2 (µatm), total carbon dioxide (TCO ₂ , mol kg ⁻¹),

bicarbonate concentration (HCO₃⁻ mol kg⁻¹), calcite saturation (Ω_{ca}), and aragonite saturation (Ω_{ara}) were calculated from A_T, pH_T (total scale), temperature and salinity using the package SeaCarb v.2.4.8 in software R (Lavigne & Gattuso 2013). Waterchemistry parameters for each dish during the 14 d experimental phase, as well as discreet field data from each pH site are presented in Table 2.

201 Seawater in each Petri dish was changed every other day by removing water with 202 a syringe and replacing it with new seawater. This water was collected from La Spezia 203 bay (La Spezia, Italy), and cleaned with a 0.1µm filter and UV sterilization system 204 (V2ecton 600, TMC, São Julião do Tojal, Portugal) for 5 d before being transferred to 205 sterile 2 L flasks. One flask was prepared for each treatment and placed in the 206 temperature bath described above with bubbling elevated pCO_2 air, or normal air, 207 depending on the treatment. Additionally, a diet of rotifers, Artemia sp. and microalgae 208 was added to seawater before each water change at 3 mL feed per 300 L seawater 209 (Gamma Nutraplus Reef Feed, TMC, São Julião do Tojal, Portugal). Petri dishes were 210 mixed three times *per* day by gently tilting aquaria to promote feeding. The density of 211 worms in each Petri dish was purposefully low to avoid potential indirect effects caused by animal respiration (approx. $< 0.092 \text{ mg}^{-1}$). 212

Under these laboratory conditions, all adults were monitored once a day with a light microscope (AZ100, Nikon; magnification ranges of 25x up to 50x) for the presence of embryos in the opercular brooding chamber. After adults released their first brood, both adults and offspring were monitored daily for the following 14 d. The number of offspring from each parent (brood size) was counted after the first day of brood release. The number of settled larvae was counted daily, along with any deaths or additional broods. The parent tubes were photographed with a digital camera (Nikon Sight DS-U1, Nikon, Milan, Italy) mounted on a light microscope (AZ100, Nikon), and tested as a trait covariate to account for any bias between parental size and offspring traits (i.e. brood size, mortality, brood survival). Photographs were analyzed with ImageJ software (Rasband WS, US National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA) to obtain tube area (mm²) (Abràmoff et al. 2004). 2.3 Data analysis 2.3.1 Field survey data Two data sets generated from the field survey were analyzed: (a) the abundance of all calcifying polychaete species along the north and south pH gradients (distribution);

230 (b) the abundance of the two dominant species, *Simplaria* sp. and *P. militaris* adults

along the pH gradients. Initial data exploration using Cleveland dot- and boxplots

revealed no outliers in either dataset. Conditional boxplots revealed heteroscedasticity of

the variances among the pH sites for both datasets, and histograms indicated violation of

normality (Züur et al. 2010a). Non-linear patterns within the species-level dataset also

235 existed (Züur et al. 2010a). As a consequence, a Welch's ANOVA with a Games -

Howell post-hoc test was used for both datasets to assess how the number of calcifying

237 polychaetes varied along pH gradient, with 'gradient side' (north/south) and 'pH site' as

fixed factors. This test is robust to non-parametric distribution of count data and

239 heteroscedasticity of the variances.

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240	Additionally, dataset (b) was analyzed by employing generalized additive models
241	(GAMs) (Wood, 2006, 2011, 2014; Züur, 2010b) to describe the abundance of each
242	species with respect to nominal 'pH' and to compare the abundance of each species along
243	both gradient 'sides', GAMs accounted for the non-linear patterns in both the Simplaria
244	sp. and P. militaris datasets, and were built using the mgcv (Wood, 2011) and nlme
245	(Pinheiro et al. 2015) packages in R. For both species, gradient 'side' (factor: north or
246	south) and 'pH' (fitted as a smoother) were set as the explanatory variables. Nominal
247	mean water pH for each gradient side and site was based on the one-month average of
248	September data from (Kroeker et al. 2011) to accurately represent seasonal pH values
249	during the survey. The appropriate degrees of freedom of the smoothers were selected
250	automatically using cross validation (Wood 2006, 2011). For Simplaria sp. only, the
251	interaction between gradient side and pH was included using the 'by' command in the
252	mgcv package (Wood, 2011). Both models were optimized by initially looking for the
253	optimal random structure, followed by the optimal fixed structure (Züur et al. 2007).
254	Akaike information criteria was used to compare models and residual plots were used to
255	assess the mean-variance relationships; models for both species indicated no violation of
256	the assumption for homogeneity of the variances. Over-dispersion was also calculated for
257	each model (sum of Pearson residuals ² / residual d.f.). High over-dispersion, particularly
258	in Simplaria sp., required the use of negative binomial distribution with a log link
259	(Pinheiro et al. 2015; Züur 2010b; Züur et al. 2007). The optimization function of the
260	models (k parameter) was adjusted for this study's specific dataset at six. All statements
261	about abundance change are based on the significance of the main effect gradient side,
262	and not on the interaction between gradient side and pH.

263 2.3.2 Laboratory trials

264	In order to assess how fecundity and early life history traits differed in response to
265	differing pH conditions, we compared responses of the low pH- originating Simplaria sp.
266	adults (from, and dominant in S2) – under low pH conditions, to the control pH–
267	originating <i>P. militaris</i> adults (from, and dominant in NC) – under control pH conditions
268	with one-way ANOVA tests. Traits analyzed included: brood size of each parent; time of
269	larval release to settlement (d); and percentage brood mortality per parent on d 7 and d 14
270	Data were tested for normality of distribution and homogeneity of variance using
271	Cleveland dot- and boxplots. Boxplots indicated homogeneity of the variances among the
272	pH species groups, and histograms indicated no violation of normality of distribution
273	(Züur et al. 2010a).
274	All statistical analyses were performed by using the statistical software R (v.3.1.3; R
275	Core Team 2015).
276	3 Results
277	3.1 Field survey

278 3.1.1 Species identity

All of the	taxa found belonged	l to the Spirorbinae su	b-family, within the
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- 280 Serpulidae family. The four main species were *Pileolaria militaris* Claparde, 1870,
- 281 Simplaria sp., Janua heterostropha (Montagu, 1803) (= J. (Dexiospira) pagenstecheri),
- and Neodexiospira pseudocorrugata (Bush, 1905). A total of forty-eight undetermined
- 283 Serpulinae were also encountered.

The taxonomy of the *Simplaria* sp. did not exactly match known records, but our primary prediction is that it is a putatively novel morphotype of *Simplaria pseudomilitaris* (Thiriot-Quievreux, 1965) – having more abundant, longer, and more pronounced distally projecting calcareous spines covering its operculum plate. Without further taxonomic analysis we reservedly designate these individuals as *Simplaria* sp.; and this inconsistency is further discussed in the Supplementary Materials: *Taxonomy Details*.

291 3.1.2 Species abundance and distribution

292 Total polychaete abundances on the *Posidonia* leaves along the pH gradient from 293 the Castello CO₂ vents ranged from 0 to 224 individuals *per Posidonia* shoot. There was 294 a decrease in the mean abundance from the control pH sites (SC and NC) to the extreme 295 low pH sites (S3 and N3) along both the north and the south gradients, with a decline 296 from 341 to 13 individuals in the south (SC to S3), and from 1,183 to 14 individuals in 297 the north (NC to N3) ($F_{5, 92.97} = 75.11$, p < 0.001, Fig. 2A). The means in both the 298 northern and southern extreme-low pH sites (N3 and S3) were comparable (p > 0.05, Fig. 299 2A). However, overall mean abundance was three times lower in the southern gradient 300 compared to the north (p < 0.05, Fig. 2A). Additionally, in the north, there was a strong 301 linear relationship between abundance and pH conditions. This differed from the south 302 gradient, as mean abundance in the low pH site was highest (S2: 144 individuals), 303 compared to the control pH site (SC: 124 individuals; p > 0.05, Fig. 2A). Higher shoot 304 densities in the low pH sites compared to the control pH sites (Donnarumma et al. 2014) 305 did not change the overall abundance patterns observed on both the north and south 306 gradients (Fig. 3). For example, polychaete densities remained very scarce in the extreme low pH sites despite a mean 1,000 shoots *per* m² in S3 compared to the mean 467 shoots *per* m² in SC, and 719 to 380 shoots *per* m² in N3 *vs*. NC.

309	The results also indicate that the two dominant species are Simplaria sp. and P.
310	militaris within all the sites. These two species are also closely related to each other
311	taxonomically, compared to the other species identified. This prompted separate analyses
312	of the distributions of both Simplaria sp. and P. militaris. The results show that the
313	distribution pattern seen along the southern gradient of the total species analysis is due to
314	Simplaria sp. (Fig. 2B). Furthermore, in the species-specific analysis, the total abundance
315	along the pH sites ranged from 0 to 498 individuals in P. militaris and from 48 to 532
316	individuals in Simplaria sp. While the overall number of individuals for both species was
317	comparable, their distribution differed. As in the total species analysis, abundances
318	significantly declined with decreasing pH when considering all sample sites (P. militaris:
319	$F_{4,11} = 9.37, p = 0.006$, Simplaria sp.: $F_{5,78} = 24.27, p < 0.001$ (Fig. 2B & 2C). The
320	mean abundance of <i>P. militaris</i> was highest in the north compared to the south gradient
321	(52 vs. 7, respectively), and decreased from the control pH to extreme low pH in the
322	north (NC to N3), and low to extreme low in the south (S2 to S3). Simplaria sp. mean
323	abundance was higher in the south than in the north gradient. The Simplaria sp.
324	abundance in the low pH south site (S2) was not significantly different to the mean
325	abundance in the south control pH site (SC), but was different in the north between the
326	NC control and N3 extreme low pH site. Additionally, Simplaria sp. was the only
327	spirorbid species found in the site with the lowest mean pH of the Castello vent system
328	(S3 pH: 6.99 ± 0.34) (Hoffmann et al. 2011).

329	Comparisons of the smoothers (non-parametric curves) generated by the additive
330	mixed models for the two gradients of both species confirmed that abundance decreases
331	in both species with decreasing nominal pH across each gradient ($p < 0.001$ for both P.
332	militaris and Simplaria sp., Fig. 4). For P. militaris, there were significant declines in
333	abundance with decreasing pH along both north and south gradients, however the
334	northern gradient had significantly more individuals compared to the southern gradient.
335	In contrast, Simplaria sp. abundances in the north and south were not significantly
336	different when pH values were greater than 7.9 within the gradient (Fig. 4B).
337	3.1.3 Laboratory trials
338	The laboratory trials revealed that life history trait values vary significantly along
339	the pH gradients. The average number of offspring per brood from low pH- originating
340	Simplaria sp. parents was significantly higher than from control pH– originating P.
341	<i>militaris</i> parents: means 8.08 (± 1.54) <i>vs</i> . 3.61 (± 0.44) ($F_{1,28} = 10.80, p = 0.003$, Fig. 5).
342	Also, settlement success was significantly higher in Simplaria sp. compared to P.
343	<i>militaris</i> : 86.5 % (± 6.8) compared to 13.4 % (± 6.3), respectively ($F_{1, 28} = 58.80, p < 10^{-1}$
344	0.001, Fig. 5). Additionally, all offspring from the Simplaria sp. parents metamorphosed
345	and settled within 1 h in low pH seawater, whereas less than 13 % of the offspring from P .
346	militaris parents settled in the first 24 h in control conditions.
347	Juvenile mortality rates 7 d after the first brood release was 4.2 % (\pm 2.9) in
348	<i>Simplaria</i> sp. and 48.8 % (± 8.6) in <i>P. militaris</i> ($F_{1,28} = 16.77, p < 0.001$, Fig. 5). Net
349	survival after 14 d, including additional offspring from subsequent broods, was
350	significantly higher (6.3 times) in Simplaria sp. offspring with respect to P. militaris
351	offspring: means 9.5 (\pm 1.7) vs. 1.5 (\pm 0.4) offspring per parent, respectively ($F_{1, 28} =$

26.90, p < 0.001, Fig. 5). Furthermore, between day 7 and day 14, 10 out of 12 parents released a second brood in the *Simplaria* sp. group, but only 4 out of 18 parents from the *P. militaris* group produced a second brood. No influence of parental tube size was found on brood sizes ($p \ge 0.05$), and no parental mortality occurred during the 14 d trial.

356 4 Discussion

357

358 advantages to tolerating future OA conditions. We identified two primary species along 359 the Castello pH gradients with a close phylogenetic relationship, Pileolaria militaris and 360 Simplaria sp., and found that the higher abundances of Simplaria sp. in low pH (S2) were 361 associated with the ability to produce more viable offspring able to quickly 362 metamorphose and settle in low pH conditions, compared to that of its close relative 363 dominant at a control pH site (NC), P. militaris, observed under control pH conditions. 364 Below we discuss potential physiological and ecological explanations for differences in 365 traits underling species' sensitivity to low pH.

This study aimed to identify specific life history traits that offer species potential

366 *Physiology considerations*

The most noticeable finding was that rapid offspring development accompanied OA tolerance, as demonstrated by the production of larvae that metamorphose in minutes in the low pH– originating *Simplaria* sp. under low pH conditions, compared to the multiple days required for control pH–originating *P. militaris* individuals in control conditions. This is noteworthy because the challenges of calcification associated with metamorphosis and initial juvenile tube growth in many marine invertebrates exposed to OA conditions have been well documented, with demonstrated altered metamorphosis, 374 slowed juvenile growth, weakened juveniles' tubes, and tube dissolution under pH levels 375 comparable to those used here (Dupont et al. 2009, Byrne 2011, Lane et al. 2012). In 376 contrast, our results indicate that the low pH-originating *Simplaria* sp. appears to have 377 overcome these challenges. We hypothesize that this may be, in part, due to specialized 378 larval glands that are able to expedite the secretion of a primary tube, resulting in 379 successful metamorphosis. These specialized larval glands are commonly found in 380 Serpulidae species with lecithotrophic (non-feeding) larvae (Kupriyanova et al. 2001), 381 but while both of the species here have primary larval glands, there were noticeable 382 physiological differences them. The *Simplaria* sp. embryos and larvae had highly defined, 383 large glands compared to *P. militaris* (see Fig. 6; white spots in the *Simplaria* sp. 384 embryos). Moreover, in *Simplaria* spp. the contents of the primary shell gland are 385 extruded *via* the anus and the calcareous secretion is molded by the movements of the 386 larva into a tube capable of housing the entire settled larva in less than 5 min (Knight-387 Jones, 1978) (Nott 1973, Potswald 1978, Beckwitt 1980, Qian 1999). 388 Another interesting finding was the increased adult fecundity of low pH-389 originating Simplaria sp., compared to control pH-originating P. militaris. This was 390 despite no significant difference in opercular brood chamber size between the two species 391 (chamber size is directly proportional to the adult's overall size, and thus the number of 392 offspring produced *per* brood) (Kupriyanova et al. 2001). In general, both species 393 fertilize and incubate their eggs and embryos similarly: in a single chamber that provides 394 aeration and physical protection from the outside environment (Thorp 1975). When ready, 395 competent larvae exit these chambers through a pore at its base (Macdonald 2003). 396 Explaining the fecundity differences may therefore involve testing for improved internal

398

fertilization, and/or accelerated embryo incubation in the low pH-originating *Simplaria* sp., comparatively (Chaparro et al. 2008, Segura et al. 2010).

399 The fecundity differences may also be an outcome of plasticity from multi-400 generational exposure in the low pH-originating Simplaria sp. population (Rodríguez-401 Romero et al. 2015, Chakravarti et al. 2016). The possibility that plasticity may be the 402 coping mechanism for species dealing with rapid changes has recently been revitalized, 403 yet evidence of plasticity's role in promoting persistence is not consistent (Merilä 2015, 404 Calosi et al. 2016). For example, a field-based reciprocal transplant experiment using 405 Simplaria sp. collected from the same low pH site (S2) found that plasticity was not 406 attributed to fecunditiv differences (Lucey et al. 2016). They also presented 407 contradictory evidence that the low-pH originating *Simplaria* sp. were able to reproduce 408 multiple times, in comparison to a population of control pH-originating *Simplaria* sp, yet 409 inadequate sample sizes preventing statistical confirmation (Lucey et al. 2016). This 410 alludes to the possibility that higher fecundity could be the consequence of modulating 411 (i.e. plasticity) the 'number of broods over time.'

412 Rapid metamorphosis and increased fecundity was also coupled with lower 413 offspring mortality during the first two weeks of offspring life in the low pH–originating 414 *Simplaria* sp. group. This suggests that these *Simplaria* sp. will have a higher likelihood 415 of recruitment success and overall population persistence, compared to the control pH– 416 originating *P. militaris* group (Hunt & Scheibling 1997). The field survey supports this 417 idea: *Simplaria* sp. adults with embryos were found at every site along the gradient 418 regardless of pH.

419	The overall decline of <i>Simplaria</i> sp. individuals at extreme low pH alludes to a
420	pH threshold. This in partial agreement with Saderne and Wahl, (2013), where growth
421	rates and recruitment of spirorbid Spirorbis spirorbis individuals at extreme low pH/ high
422	pCO ₂ levels (3150 ± 446 µatm) were significantly reduced, whereas at more realistic pH
423	levels for end of the century projections, individuals did not show any adverse effects
424	(Saderne & Wahl 2013). These pH values closely correspond to the low (S2) and extreme
425	low (S3) pH values in this study and corroborate the idea that each species has specific
426	pH 'tipping' points, as demonstrated in the larval mussels' development, Mytilus edulis
427	(Ventura et al. 2016). This theory that physiological tipping points may limit populations'
428	pH tolerance complements that of Lucey et al. (2016), where abnormally low pH values
429	at the low pH site (S2) may have confounded a potential local adaptation signature.

430 Ecological considerations

431 Predation may also be playing a role in the distribution of spirorbid species 432 around the CO₂ vents, and their pH tolerance traits. Increases in spirorbids predation are 433 likely as there have been documented increases in amphipod and copepod abundance in 434 the low pH sites, known spirorbid predators (Knight-Jones et al. 1975, Kupriyanova et al. 435 2001 p.60). This helps explain the decrease in spirorbids at the extreme low pH sites. 436 Furthermore, it suggests a potential correlation between increased predation and the novel 437 opercular spine morphology observed in the low pH– originating Simplaria sp., where 438 rows of long, slender calcareous spines project from the top of the operculum and guard 439 the tube opening. Further investigation is necessary to prove this theory (e.g. Harris, 1968, 440 Knight-Jones et al. 1974, Bianchi 1981; also see Supplemental Materials: Taxonomy 441 Details). There are also indirect predation threats that may be influencing the spirorbid

442 distributions: the very prominent reduction in overall *Posidonia* canopy height at the low 443 pH sites as a consequence of intense grazing from the fish Sarpa salpa (Deudero et al. 444 2008), compared to lower density long-leaved shoots in the control pH sites 445 (Donnarumma et al. 2014, Scartazza et al. 2017). The increased grazing pressure under 446 highly acidified conditions could explain the decreased spirorbid abundance, as fish 447 grazing removes epiphytic invertebrates (Deudero et al. 2008). Additionally, this 448 variation in the Posidonia canopy may indirectly be related to the observed low pH-449 originating Simplaria sp.'s fast juvenile growth. As Spirorbinae are small filter feeders 450 that spend the majority of their lives inside tubes permanently attached to a substrate 451 (Gee 1964, Potswald 1968, Tanur et al. 2010), the organisms in low pH/intense grazing 452 may be rapidly maturing as a response to host plant phenology, a feature that has been 453 highlighted for other *Posidonia* epiphytes (Piazzi et al. 2015).

454 In addition to predation, it is possible that there are biological interactions 455 between the two species, Simplaria sp. and P. militaris, which are responsible for their 456 distributions. They may be competing with each other for available space or food, or may 457 have different water movement requirements (Beckwitt 1980; Terlizzi et al. 2000). These 458 factors may be contributing to the relative success of *P. militaris* in the north, compared 459 to its limited southern abundance. The northern sites are more exposed to open water and 460 dominant winds (from north and north-west), whereas the southern sites are within a 461 small bay with less water movement (Rodolfo-Metalpa et al. 2010). This could mean that 462 Simplaria sp. populations are better suited to live in more sheltered conditions, or that 463 they are able to fill a niche where conditions are less stable due to pH. A parallel example 464 is provided by the differential occurrence of two non-calcifying polychaete sister species,

465 *Platynereis dumerilii* and *Platynereis massiliensis*, around the Ischia CO₂ vents, where
466 the ecological exclusion of *P. dumerilii* in the high CO₂ areas appears to be explained by
467 differences in physiological and life history traits (Lucey et al. 2015). For the spirorbids,
468 a more complete trait analysis able to encompass the full relevant trait space (i.e. testing
469 population samples of each species from all sites and a broader array of traits) would be
470 useful to elucidate which factors are most relevant to explain OA resistance phenotypes
471 (Laughlin & Messier, 2015).

472 **5** Conclusions

473 This study aimed to identify if and how fecundity, settlement, and juvenile 474 survival were associated with low pH in order to better understand which life-history 475 traits may have an advantage in future marine environments. We found that traits 476 associated with low pH tolerance included increased reproductive output, rapid larval 477 settlement, and high juvenile survival rates. By association, we infer that species with 478 similar life history traits may be better suited to live in future OA inflicted environments, 479 potentially driving future biodiversity patterns. Overall, this study shows how it is 480 possible to guide future research and better our predictive ability of future marine life 481 under increasing ocean acidification by incorporating aspects of community ecology with 482 trait biology.

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706 7 Figure Captions

Figure 1- Map of sampling sites (black dots) along the two pH gradients of the Castello

Aragonese on Ischia Island (Naples, Italy), with southern and northern sites depicted by

- 'S' and 'N', respectively, and with 'C' indicating control pH, '2' low pH and '3' extreme
- 710 low pH. Corresponding seawater carbonate data for each site is in Table 1 and all sites
- 711 are in 3 m *Posidonia* seagrass meadows.

712

Figure 2 - Mean abundance of spirorbids sampled from south sites (SC, S2, S3) and north

sites (NC, N1, N2), colored in red and gray respectively, and with 'C' indicating control

715 pH, '2' low pH and '3' extreme low pH: (A) Total spirorbid abundance (all species

716 combined) (B) Simplaria sp. abundance and (C) P. militaris abundance, with non-

717 matching lowercase letters indicating significant differences among sites and S.E. as error

718 bars.

Figure 3 – Total abundance of all spirorbids as they are related to *Posidonia* shoot

density: mean number of spirorbids calculated as total species sampled *per* replicate plot

area, multiplied by shoot density (m^2) , with S.D. as error bars.

Figure 4 - Trends in spirorbid species mean abundance (A) P. militaris and (B) Simplaria

sp. Black dots: mean number of individuals found in each replicate along the northern

724 gradient. Red dots: mean number of individuals found in each replicate along the

southern gradient. Black lines are the smoothers for each gradient side; red and gray

bands along smoother lines are 95 % CIs.

727 Figure 5- Fecundity traits and offspring survival from Simplaria sp. and P. militaris 728 parents cultured in low and control pH conditions respectively, to match their field-729 originating pH values (7.6 and 8.1); purple and blue bars respectively. (A) Brood size is 730 expressed as the mean number of offspring in the first brood release, (B) mortality as a 731 percent of the beginning brood dead 7 d after initial brood release, and (C) settlement 732 success as the percent of metamorphosed living offspring from each brood 1 day after 733 brood release, (D) total survival as the mean number of offspring living 14 d after the 734 initial brood release, plus any additional offspring released during the 14 d of exposure. 735 Error bars show S.E.; each trait had significantly different means (p < 0.05) between 736 species groups. 737 Figure 6 - (A) Simplaria sp. operculum containing embryos: embryonic calcified glands

are indicated by white arrows (scale 0.5 mm), (B) a competent trochophore larvae from a

739 *Simplaria* sp. mother (scale 0.1 mm)









746 Figure 2





749 Figure 3







5 Figure 5



757 Figure 6

9 Tables

Table 1 Seawater physico-chemical parameters from each pH site (mean \pm SD); averaged from a published compilation of six time-series datasets between 2008-2015 in Ricevuto et al. (2014).

Station	mean pH	<i>p</i> CO ₂ (µatm)	Ω aragonite	Ω calcite	A _T (equival kg ⁻¹)
Extreme low, S3	6.99 ± 0.34	8830.87 ± 1942.55	0.75 ± 0.50	0.99 ± 0.65	2499.83 ± 23.99
Low, S2	7.61 ± 0.26	$\begin{array}{c} 2031.19 \pm \\ 1,411.65 \end{array}$	1.49 ± 0.61	2.52 ± 0.95	2523.68 ± 9.66
Control, SC	8.03 ± 0.08	455.61 ± 94.01	3.36 ± 0.34	5.17 ± 0.47	2499.35 ± 6.94
Extreme low, N3	7.39 ± 0.25	$\begin{array}{r} 4302.71 \pm \\ 5769.22 \end{array}$	1.41 ± 0.71	1.94 ± 0.96	2549.45 ± 25.26
Low, N2	7.65 ± 0.29	2639.82 ± 7993 29	2.07 ± 0.70	2.91 ± 1.23	2514.49 ± 7.76
Control, NC	8.03 ± 0.05	468.21 ± 63.85	3.41 ± 0.20	5.20 ± 0.28	2499.67 ± 4.68

Table 2. Seawater physico-chemical parameters (a) at the field collection sites, and (b)

corresponding laboratory trial pH treatments (mean + SD), measured (in bold) or

calculated using the SeaCarb program* over the total trial period for each habitat, either

	Control pH (SC)	Low pH (S2)
(a) Field site data		
рНт	8.04 ± 0.09	7.84 ± 0.24
Temperature (°C)	23.4 ± 0.7	23.8 ± 0.7
Salinity	37.9 ± 0.3	37.9 ± 0.3
$A_T (\mu mol kg^{-1})$	2563 ± 3	2560 ± 7
pCO_2 (µatm)	567 ± 100	1075 ± 943
C _T (mol kg ⁻¹)	$0.002 \pm 1.02 \text{E-}04$	$0.002 \pm 1.72 \text{E-}04$
Ω calcite	4.75 ± 0.53	3.52 ± 1.11
Ω aragonite	3.13 ± 0.35	2.32 ± 0.73
(b) Laboratory		
$pH_{T}^{(days)}$	8.08 ± 0.47	7.54 ± 0.53
Temperature (°C) ^(d)	22.31 ± 0.57	22.17 ± 0.83
Salinity (d)	36.38 ± 2.11	36.67 ± 2.87
$A_T (\mu mol kg^{-1})^{(m)}$	2350.71 ± 53.70	2291.53 ± 122.55
[CO ₂] (mol kg ⁻¹)	$9.65E-06 \pm 3.10E-06$	2.11E-05 ± 6.62E- 06
pCO_2 (µatm)	327.88 ± 108.21	721.73 ± 228.33
$[HCO_3^-]$ (mol kg ⁻¹)	$0.002 \pm 8.38 \text{E-}05$	$0.002 \pm 1.57E-04$
$[CO_3^{2-}] \pmod{kg^{-1}}$	$2.49\text{E-}04 \pm 4.75\text{E-}05$	1.42E-04 ± 2.55E- 05
C _T (mol kg ⁻¹)	$0.002 \pm 4.601 \text{E-}05$	$0.002 \pm 1.47 \text{E-}04$
Ω calcite	5.82 ± 1.07	3.33 ± 0.60
Ω aragonite	3.82 ± 0.70	2.19 ± 0.39

daily (d) or monthly (m). pH is reported using the total scale.

Note: Lavigne & Gattuso 2013.

773 10 Supplementary materials

Site Details:

775	The north is relatively exposed to the dominant northwestern winds, and the south
776	is a bay-protected area. The venting area in the south is approximately 3000 m^2 and gases
777	are emitted at a rate of 1.4 x 10^6 L d ⁻¹ . In the north, the area is only 2000 m ² and the
778	venting rate is slightly decreased at 0.7 x 10^6 L d ⁻¹ (Hall-Spencer et al. 2008). Specific
779	quantities of the emitted gases are comprised of the following: 90-95 % CO ₂ , 3-6 % N ₂ ,
780	0.6-0.8 % O ₂ , 0.2 - 0.08 % CH ₄ , and 0.08-0.1 % Ar. No sulfur is present. Although
781	neither seasonal, tidal nor diurnal variation in gas flows have been recorded, the pH does
782	not stay static due to variable bubbling intensity, and shows quite variable values in
783	relatively short, hourly time frames (Kroeker et al. 2011).

Site name and description:	Site GPS Coordinates:
SC: South Control	40.729467, 13.964260
S2: South Low pH	40.730075, 13.963651
S3: South Extreme Low pH	40.731148, 13.963211
NC: North Control	40.732777, 13.965218
N2: North Low pH	40.732316, 13.964464
N3: North Extreme Low pH	40.732000, 13.963716

786	Samples were transported from field sites by boat to the Villa Dohrn-Benthic
787	Ecology Center and maintained inside 10 L coolers with fresh seawater from each of the
788	collection sites. Samples were kept in seawater matching the pH level of their respective
789	field origin; leaves were inspected to select for living spirobids, and cut in smaller
790	portions to facilitate transport to the ENEA Laboratory in La Spezia, Italy. Transport
791	containers were prepared with spirorbids and unfiltered seawater (volume = 1300 mL; T
792	$= 21.96 \pm 1.29$ °C; pH: control = 8.03 ± 0.08 , low = 7.61 ± 0.26 ; S = 36; density = approx.
793	100 individuals per container) and kept in styrofoam coolers packed with ice to maintain
794	a consistent water temperature. During the 8 h transport to ENEA, temperature and pH
795	were recorded twice using a pH meter with integrated thermometer (SG2, Mettler-Toledo
796	Analytical, Milan, Italy). The mean pH in the containers remained at 8.03 (control
797	samples), or increased from 7.61 to 8.01 (low pH samples). The temperature decreased
798	from 21.96 to 19.00 °C for 1 h in all containers. On arrival at the ENEA laboratory,
799	containers were immediately placed in pre-conditioned temperature baths (T = 22.00 $^{\circ}$ C,
800	S = 36). Temperature was controlled <i>via</i> two thermal baths connected to a temperature
801	conditioner (TR 15, TECO, Naples, Italy) with heaters (V2-Them 300, São Julião do
802	Tojal, Portugal). To enhance a homogeneous mixing of the water, and thus thermal
803	stability of the system, submersible circulation pumps (Aquapump HJ-311, Mondial
804	fauna, Milan, Italy) were also used. Containers were aerated with either ambient (control)
805	air ($pCO_2 \sim 380 \mu atm$, for pH = 8.22), or CO ₂ -enriched air ($pCO_2 \sim 1000 \mu atm$, for pH =
806	7.70). CO_2 gas was slowly released into a Buchner flask to enable mixing using a CO_2
807	regulator (6000 CO ₂ , BOC, La Spezia, Italy).

809	The tubes and operculum of both the adults and juveniles of the Simplaria sp.
810	specimens found in this study closely resemble that of Simplaria pseudomilitaris
811	(Thiriot-Quiévreux, 1965), a taxon first described in Villefrance sur Mer, France, and
812	later identified in the Gulf of Naples by Harris (1968), although reported as Spirorbis
813	berkeleyana (Rioja, 1942) (Knight-Jones et al. 1974), and in the fouling inside Port of
814	Ischia, Italy (Terlizzi et al. 2000). Morphological similarities of the two are their sinistral
815	coiled (clockwise) tube orientation, similar tube diameter (between 1.5-2 mm), latitudinal
816	tube ridges, and 2-3 indistinct longitudinal tube ridges. The operculum also has a single
817	opercular plate with ornamentation (protuberances, or spines, projecting from top of
818	operculum). The operculum has been described having an elliptical cap with a partially
819	encircling distal papillated rim that is absent on the substratum side (see also Bianchi
820	1981), yet this feature is not in agreement with this study's specimens, where the rim
821	completely surrounds the distal papillated rim. This feature is, however, in better
822	agreement with a description of S. pseudomilitaris from the west coast of the USA made
823	by Beckwitt (1981), who further noted the high variation in operculum morphology in the
824	species. The primary trait that is found in the Simplaria sp. specimens of this study that is
825	not in agreement with the S. pseudomilitaris descriptions from the literature is the extent
826	of 'ornamentation' on the operculum plate (e.g. Bianchi 1981; Fig. 6).
827	The morphology of the Simplaria sp. here also closely matches Pileolaria
828	quasimilitaris with respect to larval and operculum morphology, a taxon first described in

- 829 the Caribbean Sea (Bailey 1970). In particular, *P. quasimilitaris* has distally projecting
- 830 calcareous spines on the operculum that form a complete crown. However, it still does

not completely agree as there are up to three indeterminate rows of long, slender spines
observed in the operculum crown center in this study's specimens *versus* the two rows of
spines originally described for *P. quasimilitaris*. Two other difference between these two
species are in the tubes and chaetae: this study's specimens have latitudinal ridges and 23 indistinct longitudinal ridges, and no sickle chaetae on the third thoracic fascicles, *versus* the many longitudinal ridges and knobs of *P. quasimilitaris* and presence of these
sickle chaetae.

838 The key taxonomic feature for the genus *Pileolaria* is the presence of sickle 839 chaetae on the third thoracic fascicles (Knight-Jones et al. 1974). In the sister genus 840 Simplaria erected by Knight-Jones (1984), all of the characters of the genus Pileolaria 841 are found, except the sickle chaetae in the third thoracic fascicles. After examining over 842 40 Simplaria sp. specimens from this study, no sickle chaetae were found. In the original 843 description of *P. quasimilitaris* by Bailey (1970) the chaetae of the third thoracic fascicle 844 are defined as "hooked" chaetae. The morphology of sickle chaetae, is, however, quite 845 variable (Knight-Jones & Fordy 1979) and "hooked" chaetae, sensu Bailey (1970) can be 846 considered as sickle chaetae. Regardless, the specimens of this study also lacked hooked 847 chaetae in the third thoracic fascicles. Therefore this relevant character, sickle chaetae 848 absence, leads us to exclude the attribution to our specimens to any other *Pileolaria* 849 species with spines on the operculum (e.g., as *P. semimilitaris*, Vine et al. 1972), and 850 consider our taxon as a member of the *Simplaria* genus, and be considered or a 851 morphotype/ecotype of S. pseudomilitaris having more abundant, longer, pronounced 852 distally projecting calcareous spines covering the operculum plate, or a new species from 853 the genus of *Simplaria*. The opercular morphology is a character quite variable in this

- 854 species, which has lead also to confusion of S. pseudomilitaris with other species (e.g.
- 855 Spirorbis regalis in Bailey and Harris (1968)). Analysis of additional Simplaria
- 856 pseudomilitaris material from both type locality and other areas could help to account for
- 857 the possible variability in opercular morphology, however only a genetic analysis would
- help to determine the correct species status. Yet this is beyond the scope of this study. 858
- 859 Therefore, the specimens of this study are designated as *Simplaria* sp.

860 Supplementary Tables

Table S.1 Number of spirorbids identified in each site replicate, and the ratio of 861

specimens identified (ID'ed) at the species level to the total number of specimens found. 862

These ratios were used to calculate the number of Simplaria and P. militaris in each 863 864

replicate, as complete identification of each specimen was not possible due to lost

865 taxonomic features.

Site	Repli- cate	Total spp.	P. militaris	<i>Simplaria</i> sp.	Other spp.	ID'ed	Ratio ID'ed	<i>Simplaria</i> sp. %
NC	Α	146	62	48	13	123	0.84	39%
	В	178	68	54	12	134	0.75	40%
	С	161	26	32	12	59	0.37	54%
	D	243	78	29	5	112	0.46	26%
N2	A	50	12	16	0	28	0.56	57%
	В	80	19	33	2	54	0.68	61%
	С	54	25	35	1	61	1.13	57%
	D	94	20	54	1	75	0.8	72%
N3	A-D	46	5	5	0	10	0.22	50%
SC	A	113	4	28	3	35	0.31	80%
	В	71	1	25	0	25	0.35	100%
	С	132	0	57	2	59	0.45	97%
	D	180	5	78	5	83	0.46	94%
S2	Α	75	2	39	1	42	0.56	93%
	В	106	9	42	3	54	0.51	78%
	С	234	1	99	3	103	0.44	96%
	D	158	0	41	1	42	0.27	98%
S 3	A-D	47	0	13	0	13	0.28	100%