

Periwinkle climbing response to predator chemical cues depends on home-marsh geography

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The salt marsh periwinkle, *Littorina irrorata*, exhibits a spatial refuge from predation by climbing the stems of *Spartina alterniflora* in order to avoid benthic predators. Salt marsh periwinkles have a broad geographic distribution, and for many species, responses to predators also varies with biogeography. This study sought to determine if the geographical location of the home marsh influenced the response of periwinkles (climbing height) to blue crab predator cues both via air and water. Snails from Louisiana (LA) climbed higher in general than those from North Carolina (NC), regardless of chemical cue. However, LA snails climbed 11cm higher in the presence of waterborne predators than control snails with no cue, while NC snails only climbed 5cm higher in the same comparisons. Airborne chemical cue tended to have snails climbing at intermediate heights. These responses were significantly enhanced when both populations of snails were housed together. Periwinkle response to predator cues was stronger in LA than NC, and so it is possible that the behavioral response of these snails to predators varies with biogeography of the home marsh. Also interestingly, the results of this study also suggest that cue delivery is probably occurring via mechanisms other than water, and potentially via airborne cues. Therefore, salt marsh periwinkles likely respond to numerous cues that initiate behavioral responses, including airborne cues, and these responses may vary by home-marsh geography.

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15 **ABSTRACT** - The salt marsh periwinkle, *Littorina irrorata*, exhibits a spatial refuge from
16 predation by climbing the stems of *Spartina alterniflora* in order to avoid benthic predators.
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18 predators also varies with biogeography. This study sought to determine if the geographical
19 location of the home marsh influenced the response of periwinkles (climbing height) to blue crab
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25 populations of snails were housed together. Periwinkle response to predator cues was stronger in
26 LA than NC, and so it is possible that the behavioral response of these snails to predators varies
27 with biogeography of the home marsh. Also interestingly, the results of this study also suggest
28 that cue delivery is probably occurring via mechanisms other than water, and potentially via
29 airborne cues. Therefore, salt marsh periwinkles likely respond to numerous cues that initiate
30 behavioral responses, including airborne cues, and these responses may vary by home-marsh
31 geography.

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34 INTRODUCTION

35 Predation is one of the most important interactions affecting marine populations (Connell
36 1975, Behrens Yamada, Navarrete & Needham 1998). Predators can directly affect the
37 distribution, abundance, size structure and genetic make-up of prey populations (Menge 1983,
38 Yoshida et al., 2003). As a result of intense predation pressure, prey have evolved various means
39 to reduce predation risk that vary on ecological and evolutionary timescales (Vermeij 1982,
40 Trussell and Smith 2000). For example, natural selection is thought to drive changes in prey
41 morphology over evolutionary timescales, with prey growing thicker, more ornate exoskeletons
42 in response to high or increasing predation pressure (Vermeij 1982, 1983, 1987). However, prey
43 can respond to predators at ecological (within lifetime) timescales (Lima and Dill 1990). In
44 particular, predators have increasingly been demonstrated to rapidly induce prey defenses, which
45 act to reduce prey vulnerability (Trussell and Smith 2000). These inducible defenses occur
46 across diverse taxa and include fast growth, chemical defenses, skeleton thickening, changes in
47 behavior, and using refugia (Harvell 1990, Berenbaun and Zangerl 1999).

48 A number of gastropods have demonstrated inducible defenses as a result of predation
49 pressure in experimental settings (Behrens Yamada, Navarrete & Needham 1998, Brandwood
50 1985, Duncan and Szelistowski 1998, Large and Smee 2010, 2013). A common defense is
51 changing behavior, including predator avoidance and/or fleeing (Legault and Himmelman 1993).
52 However, these defenses typically vary across broad geographic scales. Both predator diversity
53 and predation pressure vary inversely with latitude, so prey organisms have responded by
54 increasing defenses with decreasing latitude (Laurila, Lindgren & Laugen 2008, Freestone et al.
55 2011), which includes latitudinal differences in behavioral responses (Aschaffenburg 2008,
56 Donahue et al. 2009, Duval, Calzetta & Rittschof 1994, Large and Smee 2013). Induced

57 defenses are affected at broad biogeographic scales by differences in environmental conditions
58 and stimuli (Trussell and Smith 2000). Further, there are costs associated with induced defenses
59 (Trussell and Nicklin 2002), so geographic patterns in prey response likely reflect the greater
60 predictability of predation risk at certain locations (Trussell and Smith 2000).

61 For intertidal snails, predator avoidance includes using spatial refugia to avoid capture
62 which has been demonstrated in both rocky-intertidal (Menge and Lubchenco 1981) and salt
63 marsh habitats (Warren 1985). The salt marsh periwinkle, *Littorina irrorata* Say, is an important
64 resident of tidal marshes along the US Atlantic and Gulf coasts, which exhibit spatially variable
65 distribution dependent upon the tidal stage (Hovel, Bartholomew & Lipcius 2001). Historically,
66 the distribution of periwinkles in the salt marsh was initially considered to be the result of
67 environmental variables (Bingham 1972). However, considerable evidence suggests this vertical
68 distribution is to avoid predators when the tide returns, such as the blue crab, *Callinectes sapidus*
69 Rathbun, and the crown conch, *Melongena corona* Gmelin (Hamilton 1976, Warren 1985), and
70 periwinkles tend to migrate higher and/or faster in the presence of predators (Dix and Hamilton
71 1993, Duval, Calzetta & Rittschof 1994, Kimbro 2012, Wollerman, Duva & Ferrier 2003).
72 Thus, periwinkles exhibit a spatial refuge from predation by climbing the stems of salt marsh
73 cordgrass, *Spartina alterniflora* Loisel, in order to avoid benthic predators (Dix and Hamilton
74 1993, Vaughn and Fisher 1988).

75 *L. irrorata* has an extensive geographic range (Bingham 1972) and climbing behavior has
76 been noted at the local scale in Virginia (Stanhope, Banta & Temkin 1982), North Carolina
77 (Duval, Calzetta & Rittschof 1994, Lewis and Eby 2002), Georgia (Silliman and Bertness 2002),
78 Florida (Hamilton 1976, Warren 1985), Alabama (Henry, McBride & Williams 1993), Louisiana
79 (*pers. obs.*) and Texas (Vaughn and Fisher 1988). Since predator diversity and predation

80 pressure vary with latitude (Bertness, Garrity & Levings 1981, Freestone et al. 2011), and salt
81 marsh periwinkles exhibit this broad geographic range, they are useful model organisms to
82 explore biogeographic variation in behavioral responses. However, regional comparisons in
83 climbing height and response to predators in marsh periwinkles have not been made previously.
84 A number of other similar species have exhibited differential responses to predators across
85 geographic ranges (Fawcett 1984, Large & Smee 2013). Therefore, periwinkles might exhibit
86 similar differences in induced avoidance responses according to home-marsh geography.

87 The mechanism thought to be driving climbing behavior is response to waterborne
88 chemical cues from either predators or injured conspecifics (Duval, Calzetta & Rittschof 1994,
89 Jacobsen and Stabell 1999), although periwinkles often migrate in advance of the tide. For other
90 intertidal snails, such as *Cerithidea decollata*, it has been suggested that there is an internal clock
91 that might drive migrations (Lazzeri et al. 2014), however *L. irrorata* has been demonstrated to
92 rapidly respond to out of phase tidal cycles in the lab (Hovel, Bartholomew & Lipcius 2001). It
93 is possible that some cues might become aerosolized prior to the arrival of the incoming tide,
94 forewarning snails and cueing them to start climbing (Lazzeri 2017). A number of terrestrial
95 gastropods respond to airborne cues for homing (Chelazzi, Le Vovi & Parpagnoli 1988), feeding
96 (Davis 2004), mating (Ng et al. 2013), and avoiding predators (Bursztyka et al. 2013).
97 Interestingly, it has been suggested that at least two species of intertidal snails may respond to
98 airborne cues from either food (Fratini, Cannicci & Vannini 2001) or the environment (Lazzeri
99 2017). Given the responses to other airborne chemical cues, it is possible that intertidal marine
100 gastropods would also react to airborne cues from predators, particularly snails such as *L.*
101 *irrorata*, which spend much of their time emersed. Yet, responses to potential airborne chemical
102 cues from predators has not been investigated in Littorinids.

103 Relatively little is known about how species might respond to different chemical cues
104 across geographical locations. Since the marsh periwinkle has a broad range and spends much of
105 its time out of the water, it is a useful model organism to explore whether geographic location
106 and the presence of airborne cues affects anti-predator behavioral responses. Further, since
107 climate change could lead to increasing interactions between populations of the same species,
108 periwinkles could also be a useful model organism to see whether behavioral responses change
109 in the presence of individuals from different populations. Field observations in Louisiana
110 demonstrated that periwinkles responded to crabs by climbing up *Spartina alterniflora*, however,
111 similar field observations in North Carolina suggested a lesser response. Thus, we designed a
112 controlled lab experiment to investigate the difference in behavioral response (climbing) of two
113 periwinkle populations to cues from a common predator, the blue crab *Callinectes sapidus*.
114 Specifically, we tested whether the presence of both waterborne and airborne blue crab cues
115 would cause snails to migrate up *Spartina* mimics, and whether the two populations would climb
116 to different heights. Since behavioral responses to predation are likely to vary at different
117 geographic locations and predation pressure increases with decreasing latitude, we hypothesized
118 the Louisiana population of periwinkles would show a greater response to the predator than the
119 North Carolina population by migrating higher on the mimics. Additionally, since intertidal salt
120 marsh periwinkles spend the majority of their time out of the water, we hypothesized that
121 airborne cues would elicit an intermediate behavioral response.

122 **METHODS AND MATERIALS**

123 Louisiana snails were collected from *Spartina alterniflora* marsh adjacent to the
124 Louisiana Universities Marine Consortium (29°15'20.65"N, 90°39'42.93"W) and transported to
125 North Carolina. North Carolina snails were collected from the salt marsh adjacent to the Center

126 for Marine Sciences (34°08'26.26"N, 077°51'47.81"W). These locations were chosen because
127 they are within the range of *L. irrorata* and they share an abundant common predator, blue crabs.
128 However, snails were held in the lab for 2 days prior to the start of the experiment since the
129 snails have been shown to rapidly (~1 d) respond to changes in tidal conditions in the lab (Hovel,
130 Bartholomew & Lipcius 2001). Blue crabs were purchased from a local supplier. All animals
131 were kept in flowing filtered seawater holding tanks. Crabs were fed crushed snails *ad libitum*
132 for 48 hours prior to use in experiments.

133 Lab assays were conducted to investigate regional differences in climbing and to test for
134 chemical cue responses. The experimental unit was a box-in-box mesocosm set-up (Figure 1A).
135 Briefly, we placed a small plastic tub (27 x 41 x 18.5cm), used to house the periwinkles during
136 the experiment, within a larger plastic tub (39 x 54 x 16cm). *Spartina*-mimics were used to
137 simulate marsh grass in lab assays (Hovel, Bartholomew & Lipcius 2001). Eight 75cm tall x
138 1.5cm wide PVC pipes were used in each replicate. The PVC mimics were preferable to natural
139 grass because they are inert (Sueiro, Bortlous & Schwindt 2012), can be easily washed between
140 trials, and are not likely to give off chemical cues like wooden dowel rods or *Spartina* stems. In
141 crab water cue treatments, the small, inner plastic tubs were drilled with small holes to allow
142 water to mix between the inner and outer tubs when filled (Figure 1A). For airborne cues and no
143 cue treatments, the inner boxes were not drilled in order to isolate the water in the small tub.
144 Plastic mesh was used to cover the space between the small and large tubs to prevent movement
145 of animals between the tubs (Figure 1B). We used six box-in-box set-ups per trial for the
146 experiments. Air stones, modified to reduce splashing, were placed in the outer tub for all
147 treatments. Each experimental unit was surrounded on four sides by a 45 x 64 x 90cm open top
148 cage constructed of PVC pipe and a thick black plastic curtain to isolate the replicates from each

149 other, preventing potential transfer of airborne cues between units and reducing the visual
150 disturbance on both snails and crabs. Fluorescent work lights were provided directly above each
151 experimental unit. Temperature was maintained at 28° C in holding tanks and experimental
152 units.

153 Three different treatments were established – a no crab control, a crab present with
154 chemical cues mixing via water exchange between tubs, and a crab present with no water
155 exchange. For the no crab control, ~26 L of clean, filtered and sterilized seawater was placed
156 into the two tubs, for a water depth of 12.5cm. For the crab present treatments, crabs were
157 placed in the large outer tub and allowed to move freely throughout the space between the tubs.
158 For the waterborne cue, the small, inner tubs drilled to allow water exchange were used,
159 circulating the water between tubs and allowing snails to contact water exposed to the blue crab.
160 For the non-waterborne cue, tubs that were not drilled were used, restricting both the crab and
161 crab-cue water to the outer tub, and thus the snails could not directly sample water with crab
162 cues. These tubs were covered with a mesh top which allowed airborne cues to escape. Our
163 mesocosms were undisturbed during the experiment to minimize stimulation of test subjects. We
164 did not notice surface splashing by crabs, they were either stationary or remained submerged for
165 the duration of the trials. Thus any response in these treatments is indicative of an airborne cue.

166 Two sets of experiments were conducted. The first set used either LA or NC snails alone,
167 and two trials were used for each of the NC and LA snails. Sets of 30 snails were placed directly
168 on the PVC approximately 5cm above the water line (~17 cm above the bottom of the tubs) in
169 each mesocosm set-up (n = 180 per trial) and exposed to the different treatments for 6 hours.
170 Observations of snails demonstrated that many initially approached the water at the start of the
171 experiment.

172 Since rafted marsh macrodetritus and debris is common and can travel for tens to
173 hundreds of kilometers and disperse fauna (Dame 1982, Thiel & Gutow 2005, Thiel and Fraser
174 2016) and climate change related distribution shifts (Zacherl, Gaines & Lonhart 2003,
175 Mieszkowska et al. 2007, Poloczanska et al. 2013) might lead to populations of snails with
176 different predator responses to interact with each other, we conducted a second experiment
177 where we combined snails from the two populations. For the second experiment, we also used 2
178 trials, although to keep density per mesocosm the same, we only used 15 snails per home marsh.
179 At the end of each trial, the height of each individual snail was measured.

180 For the single population experiments, North Carolina and Louisiana trials were analyzed
181 separately. Generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) were used to determine the effect of cue
182 treatment on average climbing height of snails. Cue treatment (no cue, airborne cue, waterborne
183 cue) was modeled as a fixed effect. Since 30 snails were placed into each tub for the experiment,
184 snails within each tubs could not be considered independent of each other (Supplement 1). To
185 account for potential effects of snails located within the same tub, a tub identifier was included
186 as a random effect in the model. GLMMs were also used to determine the effect of home marsh
187 and cue type in the mixed population experiment, with treatment (no cue, airborne cue,
188 waterborne cue) and location (NC and LA) as fixed effects, and tub modeled as a random effect.
189 Models were fit with the function ‘glmer’ and a gamma distribution using the ‘lme4’ package
190 (Bates et al. 2015) in R (R Core Team 2015). When significant effects were found, post-hoc
191 general linear hypothesis comparisons were performed using ‘ghlt’ function ‘multcomp’ package
192 in R (Hothorn, Bretz & Westfall. 2008).

193 RESULTS

194 Snails actively moved up and down the PVC mimics during the experimental period.
195 Within each population, snail height depended on crab presence. The LA snails in the waterborne
196 cue treatment tended to climb the highest, while those with no cue tended to climb the least, and
197 those with airborne cues had an intermediate median height (Figure 2A). LA snails climbed
198 >11cm higher when exposed to a waterborne cue vs. no cue, although there was high variability
199 within each treatment, and these trends were not significant ($p = 0.134$). For NC snails, those
200 exposed to waterbone crab cues tended to climb >5cm higher than those with no cue present
201 (Figure 2B), although like in the LA snail population, there was considerable variability among
202 individuals. These differences were also not significant ($p = 0.062$).

203 When snail populations were placed together, there were significant treatment and
204 location effects ($p < 0.001$ for both), but no significant interaction ($p = 0.585$; Table 1). LA snails
205 climbed significantly higher (41.4 ± 1.2 cm, mean \pm SE) than NC snails (22.8 ± 1.2 , $p < 0.001$)
206 across all treatments (Figure 3A). In addition, across both sites, snails in the airborne (38.3 ± 1.6
207 cm) and waterborne (36.7 ± 1.8 cm) cues climbed significantly higher than those in no cue
208 treatments (21.8 ± 1.3 ; $p < 0.001$ for both), which were not different from each other ($p = 0.648$;
209 Figure 3B). Within each population in the mixed treatment, LA snails in the presence of crab
210 cues climbed between 19 and 24cm higher on *Spartina* mimics than those not exposed to crab
211 cues, whereas NC snails climbed between 9 and 10cm higher when crab cues were present
212 versus absent.

213 **DISCUSSION**

214 Marsh periwinkles have an inducible defense that they exhibit over their broad
215 geographic range, making them an ideal model species of examining geographic variation in
216 predator avoidance behavior. In this study, salt marsh periwinkles from both populations

217 responded to the presence of blue crabs by migrating higher up *Spartina* mimics than those in
218 control treatments, a result consistent with earlier findings (Warren 1985). However, it was
219 previously unknown whether the behavioral response, in this case migration distance, might be
220 greater in the lower latitudes. Snails from Louisiana demonstrated a stronger response by
221 migrating farther up the mimics when kept in both the single population and mixed assemblages
222 than their North Carolina counterparts. This mimicked our field observations at both LA and NC,
223 where LA periwinkles consistently and reliably climbed up *Spartina alterniflora* stems in
224 response to crab odors, including airborne cues, while those in NC were less consistent in their
225 response. It is therefore possible that the behavioral response of *L. irrorata* to crab presence
226 varies geographically.

227 Environmental factors might influence marsh periwinkle vertical migration (Bingham
228 1972, Henry, McBride & Williams 1993), including tidal regime (Kimbrow 2012). Louisiana
229 snails in our experiment consistently climbed higher than North Carolina snails, even in the
230 absence of predator cues. The snails should have become entrained with their new conditions in
231 the lab, since periwinkles have been demonstrated to rapidly respond to changing tidal cycles
232 and constant water depth (Hovel, Bartholomew & Lipcius 2001). Further, the tidal amplitude in
233 NC (2m) is greater than in LA (<0.5m; Wang, Lu & Sikora 1993), so we might expect snails
234 from NC to climb higher if amplitude was engrained in their behavioral response. Thus, our
235 observations of snail climbing was opposite the home marsh tidal amplitudes. The different
236 heights between populations in the no predator treatments is unclear. Perhaps the smaller, diurnal
237 tidal range which results in more prolonged periods of marsh flooding experienced in Gulf Coast
238 marshes like LA (Eleuterius & Eleuterius 1979) entrains local snail populations to remain higher
239 when there is water present, since their ecological history suggests some predictability in

240 predation risk. This would suggest some localized adaptation in the induced behavioral response
241 (Trussell & Smith 2000), and further support that different climbing heights is representative of a
242 predator response, even if it is only a site-effect.

243 There are a number of mechanisms that might influence prey response to predators,
244 including both physical and biotic, and unfortunately, these are difficult to elucidate without
245 further experimentation and more sample sites along the geographic range of periwinkle snails.
246 However, in our controlled setting, snails from LA consistently climbed higher than the NC
247 snails. Biotic history and predator differences between the home marshes is a possible
248 explanation for the differential behavioral responses. Although we did not measure crab
249 abundance at the two collection sites, it is possible that there are differences between sites due to
250 geographic locality (Figure 4). Predation pressure varies biogeographically, with predation
251 increasing as latitude decreases (Bertness, Garrity & Levings 1981, Peterson et al. 2001), and
252 numerous prey have responded by increasing defenses along this predation pressure gradient
253 (Bertness, Garrity & Levings 1981, Freestone et al. 2011, Vermeij 1982). Further, predator
254 identity and species composition, which can vary biogeographically, also lead to differential
255 responses in prey species (Large and Smee 2013). Similarly, multiple gastropods exhibited
256 different avoidance behaviors across a broad temperate to tropical latitudinal gradient as a result
257 of increased predator diversity (Bertness, Garrity & Levings 1981). It is therefore possible that
258 the observed differences in climbing height between the Louisiana and North Carolina
259 populations of *L. irrorata* in our experiment might reflect differences in predation pressure
260 experienced by the snails at their home marshes.

261 Unfortunately, it is difficult to make broad conclusions about geographic differences
262 using only two study sites. Other factors could lead to site differences in predation pressure

263 independent of geographic location. For example, parasite load could reduce snail behavioral
264 responses to predators (Belgrad & Smith 2014), and it is unclear whether snails from either site
265 had a higher parasite load which was beyond the scope of this experiment. Additionally, there
266 could be other factors beyond predation pressure that could result in different climbing
267 responses. While our periwinkles were offered food prior to the experiment, biotic history and
268 tissue condition could play a role in response, as hungrier individuals may be more risky
269 (Gilliam & Fraser 1987), and other metrics of condition can alter activity (Pardo & Johnson
270 2004). Additionally, size and shell morphology (i.e., thickness, aperture size, spire length, etc.)
271 might vary across locations for snails (Sepulveda & Ibanez 2012, Ramajo et al. 2013, Kosloski,
272 Dietl & Handley 2016), and could alter their escape responses to predators. Although we sought
273 to use similarly-sized periwinkles from both locations, we did not measure other morphometric
274 variables. Finally, it is possible that even though blue crabs are common at both locations, we
275 only used blue crabs collected locally in NC for our experiments, potentially leading to LA snails
276 that were more alarmed by water- and airborne cues from a less familiar population of blue
277 crabs, resulting in an exaggerated response. Regardless of the mechanism driving the differential
278 responses, the snails collected in LA snails exhibited stronger responses to predators in our study
279 system.

280 The results of this study also provide a novel observation for an intertidal, marine snail –
281 they are likely responding to airborne predator cues. When the crab was present but water was
282 not allowed to exchange, there appeared to be an intermediate response in single population
283 assemblages with LA snails, resulting in snails climbing ~5cm higher than the no cue treatment
284 snails. While this was not a statistically significant difference, it is the same size of the response
285 in the NC snails with the waterborne cue. It is possible that a volatile compound given off by the

286 crab can become aerosolized and perceived by the periwinkles. This has not been previously
287 documented for marine organisms, however, chemosensory cues are common in terrestrial fauna,
288 including gastropods (Chase et al., 1978, Croll 1983), and a variety of aqueous compounds can
289 be transported via the air, including HAB toxins (Fleming, Backer & Baden 2005), as well as
290 pyrazines, trimethylamine and dimethyl sulfide DMS (Nevitt 2000). Terrestrial gastropods use
291 airborne cues for homing, mating, and finding food (Croll 1983, Chelazzi, Le Voci & Parpagnoli
292 1988), as well as to avoid predators (Bursztyka et al., 2013, Lefcort, Ben-Ami & Heller 2006).
293 The response to airborne cues from predators has not been identified for other marine, intertidal
294 snails, although, there is some indication that intertidal snails respond to airborne food (Fratini,
295 Cannicci & Vannini 2001) and habitat cues (Lazzeri 2017). Since marsh periwinkles spend
296 much of their time out of the water, it is possible they could also be sensitive to airborne cues, and
297 our experimental design was such that all of the snails could have been responding to airborne
298 cues. It is beyond the scope of this experiment to determine which compound is becoming
299 aerosolized and stimulating a response in periwinkles, but that such a chemical might exist
300 warrants further attention.

301 We also note that snails in mixed assemblages, regardless of origin, also climbed at least
302 twice as high as snails in single population assemblages in response to predator presence. This
303 result is particularly interesting, because it suggests that some alteration in behavior might occur
304 if distinct populations of the same species come into contact. While the probability of LA snails
305 encountering NC snails in the field is low, rafted plant material can transport and disperse fauna
306 great distances (Theil & Fraser 2016). Combined with distribution shifts due to climate change
307 (Barry et al. 1995), it is increasingly likely that distinct populations with different predator
308 responses can come into contact with each other. In the predator cue treatments, it is possible

309 that there was some avoidance between the populations, although the pattern of higher climbing
310 was not observed in the mixed assemblage no cue control treatments. More likely, mixing the
311 two populations together may have led to amplified alarm cues and signaling to other snails.
312 Alarm cues are common, and while typically emitted from injured conspecifics (Jacobsen and
313 Stabell 1999), they could also come from disturbed, but undamaged, conspecifics (Jacobsen and
314 Stabell 2004). Alternatively, the periwinkles could have been responding to mucus trails of the
315 other populations. Conspecific mucus trails have been shown to aid in navigation, homing,
316 aggregation, and mating (Ng et al. 2013), and trails may also be a source of nutrition (Davies and
317 Beckwith 1999). Further, periwinkles may respond to both predator and alarm cues in mucus
318 trails (Duval, Calzetta & Rittschof 1994, Ng et al. 2013). The mechanism for the heightened
319 response in mixed assemblages is unclear, and this experiment was unfortunately not designed to
320 examine this. However, why this response might change in single population vs. mixed
321 assemblages should be pursued in the future.

322 **CONCLUSIONS**

323 This study demonstrates that geographic origin might influence the behavioral response
324 to a common predator for periwinkles. It is possible that the differential response to the common
325 predator might be due to different abundance/distribution of blue crabs at the Louisiana/North
326 Carolina home marshes, or just general trends of higher predator density/diversity with
327 decreasing latitude. While further studies are required across more sites to ensure our
328 observations are not just a site effect, these results are promising. In addition, this study is the
329 first to demonstrate that these intertidal snails may also respond to airborne cues from predators.
330 Although the chemical is unknown, that some volatile compound might become aerosolized and
331 illicit a behavioral response in littorinid snails should be explored further. The broad geographic

332 range and behavioral responses of *Littorina irrorata* make it a useful model organism to explore
333 responses to waterborne, airborne, and even mucus-bound predator and alarm cues. Future work
334 should investigate responses of snails from multiple locations along their biogeographic
335 distribution, across multiple predator species which might also vary in abundance throughout the
336 periwinkles' range, and identify compounds from predators and injured conspecifics that might
337 become aerosolized.

338 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

339 We would like to thank T. Bleier of the University of North Carolina Wilmington and
340 other members of the Marine Biofluidynamics and Ecology Lab (MARBEL) for help
341 conducting lab experiments. We would also like to acknowledge Dr. Laura Treible of UNCW
342 for assistance in statistical analysis.

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519

520

Figure 1

Conceptual diagram and photograph of experimental box-within-a-box design

Conceptual diagram (A) of the box-within-a-box experimental design. Snails and *Spartina* mimics were placed in the inner plastic box, and when a crab was present, it was placed in the outer box. Inner boxes were either perforated to allow water exchange (as shown in A) or kept solid to prevent water exchange. Photo (B) of the experimental set-up showing the mesh screen to prevent the crab from entering snail tubs and the PVC frames and black plastic curtains that surround each experimental unit to minimize mixing of cues. Symbols courtesy of the Integration and Application Network, University of Maryland Center for Environmental Science (ian.umces.edu/symbols/)

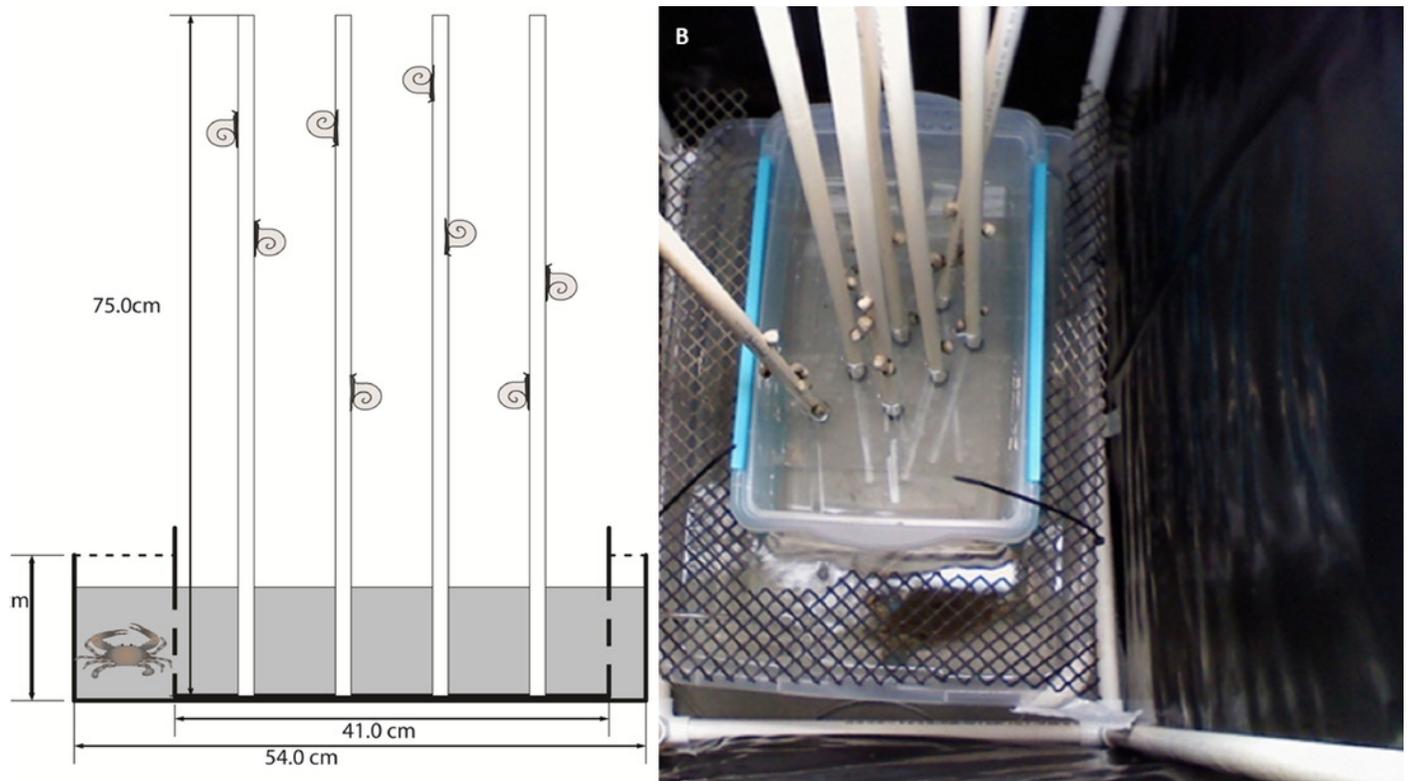


Figure 2

Climbing height of different snail populations across different cue treatments.

Climbing height in single population assemblages for Louisiana (A) and North Carolina snails (B) in the presence of no cue, an airborne cue, and a waterborne cue. The boundaries of the box represent the 25th and 75th percentiles, the solid line represents the median, the whiskers are the 10th and 90th percentiles, and the dots represent outliers.

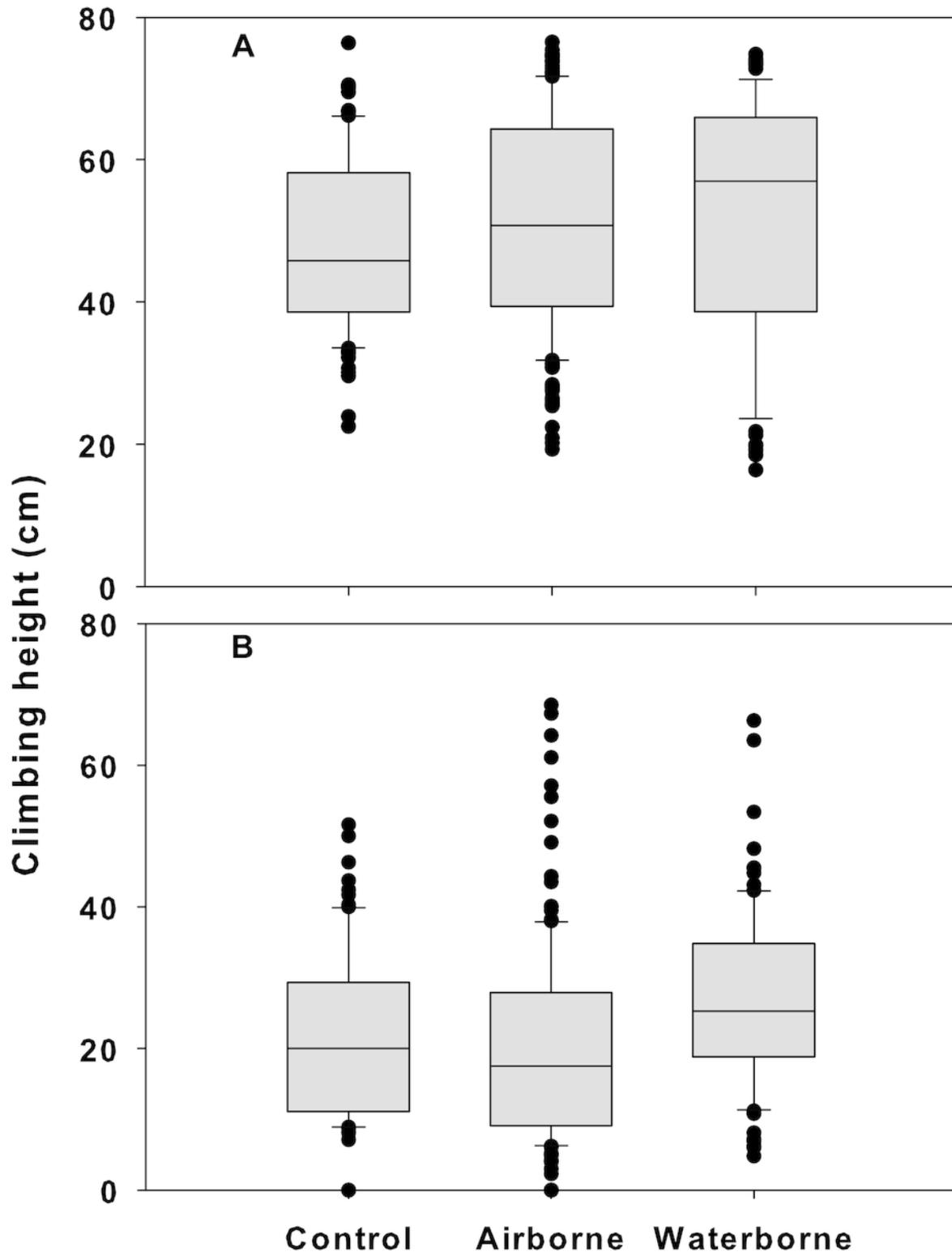


Figure 3

Climbing height for each population and cue treatment in the mixed-population assemblages

Differences in climbing height between the two populations (A) and across all three cue treatments (B) in the mixed-population assemblage experiment. The boundaries of the box represent the 25th and 75th percentiles, the solid line represents the median, the whiskers are the 10th and 90th percentiles, and the dots represent outliers.

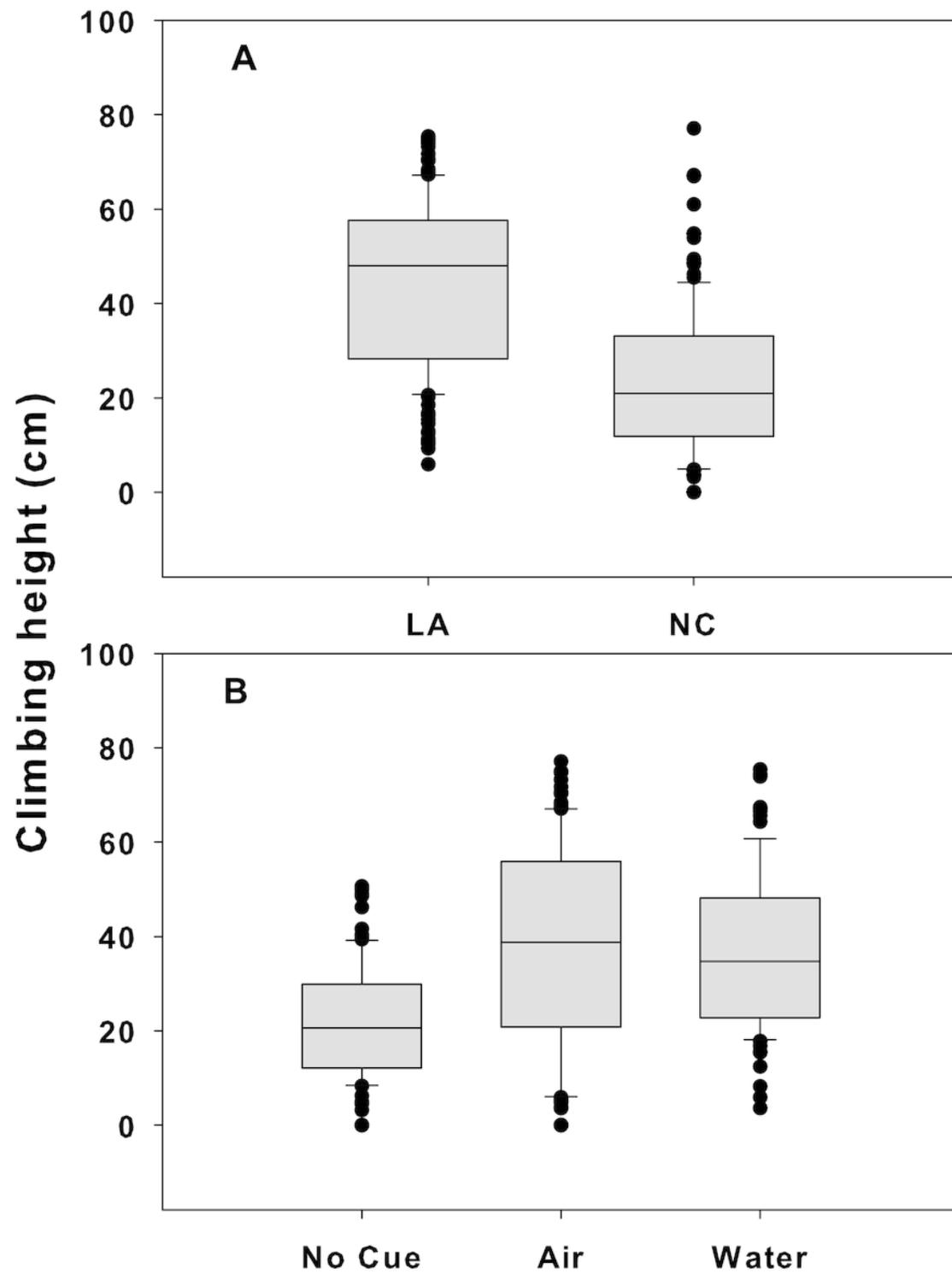


Figure 4

Landings of blue crabs in Louisiana and North Carolina

Blue crab landings from NOAA landings data for blue crabs in LA (solid line) and NC (dotted line) from 1950-2016.

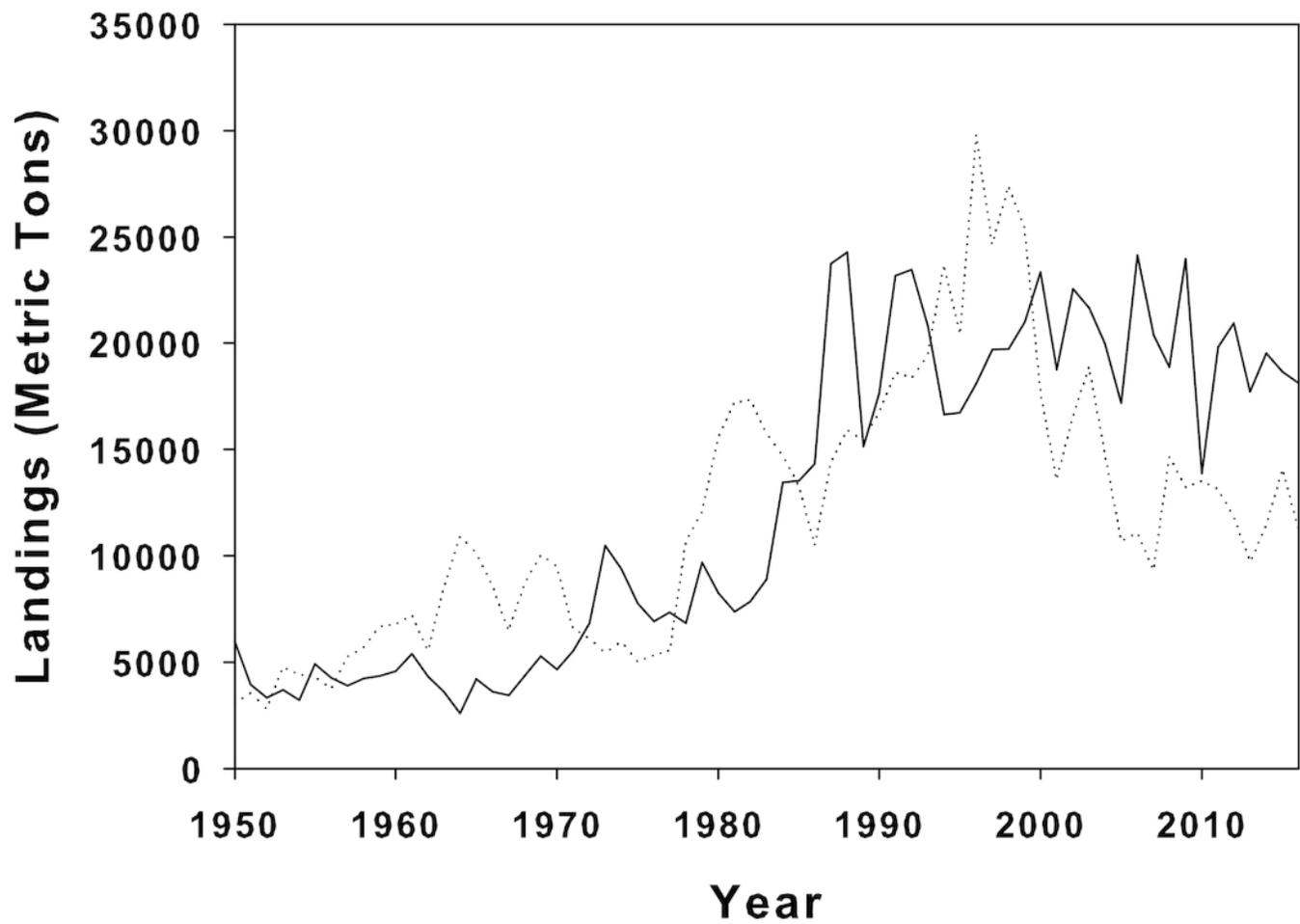


Table 1 (on next page)

Analysis of deviance table for mixed population experiments

Analysis of deviance table for differences in climbing height by site (LA and NC) and cue treatment (no cue, airborne cue, waterborne cue) in the mixed population assemblage using GLMM with site and cue treatment as the fixed factors and tub as the random effect.

1 Response: Climbing Height

	χ^2	Df	p
<i>Treatment</i>	30.9221	2	1.929e-07 ***
<i>Site</i>	63.6062	1	1.520e-15 ***
<i>Treatment x Site</i>	1.0741	2	0.5845

2