

1 **The role of environmental calcium in the extreme acid tolerance of northern banjo frog**
2 **(*Limnodynastes terraereginae*) larvae**

3

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7 **Running title:** Calcium and acid tolerance in aquatic larvae

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9 **Keywords:** amphibian, tadpole, low pH, wallum, epithelia, calcium transport

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11 **Summary statement**

12 Tolerance of naturally acidic, dilute, and soft waters by larvae of the frog *Limnodynastes*
13 *terraereginae* involves adaptations to the branchial calcium transport pathway which protects
14 intercellular junctions against damage.

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26 ABSTRACT

27 Many aquatically respiring animals inhabiting low pH waters can suffer acute inhibition of ion
28 uptake and loss of branchial (gill) epithelial integrity, culminating in a fatal, rapid loss of body Na^+ .
29 Environmental calcium levels ($[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$) are pivotal in maintaining branchial junction integrity, with
30 supplemental Ca^{2+} reversing the negative effects of low pH in some animals. Tolerance of some
31 naturally acidic environments by aquatic animals is further complicated by low $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$, yet many of
32 these environments are surprisingly biodiverse. How these animals overcome the combined
33 damaging actions of low pH and low environmental Ca^{2+} remains unknown. Here, we examined
34 the effects of $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ on the response to low pH in larvae of the highly acid tolerant frog
35 *Limnodynastes terraereginae*. Acute exposure to low pH water in the presence of low $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$
36 increased net Na^+ efflux. Provision of additional $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ reduced net Na^+ efflux, but the effect was
37 saturable. Acclimation to both low and high $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ improved the resistance of larvae to Na^+ efflux
38 at low pH. Inhibition of apical Ca^{2+} uptake by ruthenium red resulted in an abrupt loss of tolerance
39 to low pH in larvae acclimated to low pH water. Acclimation to acidic water increased branchial
40 gene expression of the intracellular Ca^{2+} transport protein calbindin, consistent with a role for
41 increased transcellular Ca^{2+} trafficking in the tolerance of acidic water. This study confirmed the
42 physiological challenge of low $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ on branchial integrity in acidic waters and highlighted a
43 potential role for maintenance of transcellular Ca^{2+} uptake in the acid tolerance of *L.*
44 *terraereginae*.

45

46 INTRODUCTION

47 Life in freshwater environments is complicated by the fact that animals are hyper-ionic
48 with respect to the environment and ions tend to move out of the animal along their diffusion
49 gradients. In order to offset ion losses, freshwater animals actively take up ions from the
50 environment via specialised cells in the gills, integument (in larvae and embryos) and across the
51 gut (Edwards and Marshall, 2012; Evans et al., 1999). The physiological challenges of living in
52 freshwater environments can be further compounded by low pH. Most aquatically respiring
53 animals are intolerant of water pH less than 5 (low pH). In many animals low pH water
54 substantially impairs both ion uptake capacity and epithelial integrity, leading to a rapid loss of
55 homeostasis that can be fatal (Freda and Dunson, 1984; McDonald et al., 1984; Meyer et al., 2010;
56 Meyer et al., 2020; Robinson, 1993).

57 The effect of low pH water on branchial epithelial integrity drives its toxicity in many
58 species. In acid-sensitive animals, exposure to low pH water reduces transepithelial resistance
59 through the disruption of paracellular tight junctions (Daye and Garside, 1976; Meyer et al., 2010;
60 Rosseland and Staurnes, 1994). Tight junctions (TJ) are composed of a complex of transmembrane
61 and associated proteins which function in cell-cell adhesion and control epithelial permeability by
62 acting as a selective barrier to ions and small molecules (Schneeberger and Lynch, 2004). In doing
63 so, TJs regulate and maintain key transcellular ion gradients necessary to facilitate transepithelial
64 ion uptake. Low extracellular pH has been shown to reduce the resistance of the paracellular
65 pathway by changing the conformation of TJ proteins which alters their gating properties
66 (Schneeberger and Lynch, 1992; Schneeberger and Lynch, 2004).

67 Environmental $[Ca^{2+}]_e$ is essential to maintaining the integrity of the epithelial TJ
68 (Schneeberger and Lynch, 1992). Increased $[Ca^{2+}]_e$ has been shown to ameliorate the effects of
69 low pH on epithelial integrity in some fish and amphibian species (Dalziel et al., 1986; Matsuo and
70 Val, 2002; McDonald et al., 1983; Meyer et al., 2020). This may be because low $[Ca^{2+}]_e$ causes
71 dissociation of the paracellular junctions, increasing epithelial permeability (Bhat et al., 1993; Ma
72 et al., 2000; O'Keefe et al., 1987). In some fishes and larval amphibians acutely exposed to low pH,
73 elevated and reduced environmental Ca^{2+} levels substantially reduced and increased rates of
74 passive net Na^+ loss, respectively (Cummins, 1988; Freda et al., 1991; Gascon et al., 1987; Gonzalez
75 and Dunson, 1989; Kumai et al., 2011; McDonald and Rogano, 1986; McDonald et al., 1983). Ca^{2+}
76 may act on the TJ directly, but also indirectly through Ca^{2+} -dependent proteins in adherens
77 junctions (AJ) which sit basally to the TJ (Brown and Davis, 2002). Removal of Ca^{2+} from the
78 extracellular space has been shown to reduce cytosolic $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ (Gonzalez-Mariscal et al., 1990),
79 cause the detachment and internalisation of extracellular AJ and TJ proteins (Volberg et al., 1986),
80 and reduce transepithelial resistance (Gonzalez-Mariscal et al., 1990). Adherens junctions function
81 primarily in cell-cell adhesion, but also the regulation of the actin cytoskeleton and as
82 transcriptional regulators (Hartsock and Nelson, 2008). Extracellular Ca^{2+} can regulate paracellular
83 permeability by interacting directly with calcium-dependent junctional proteins on the cell surface
84 and/or through active transcellular Ca^{2+} uptake and cytosolic Ca^{2+} signalling pathways (Stuart et
85 al., 1996). Although extracellular $[Ca^{2+}]_e$ is important in determining the effects of low pH exposure
86 in fish and amphibians, the specific mechanism through which this occurs remains unknown.

87 Transcellular uptake of Ca^{2+} from the surrounding water via the gills constitutes the major
88 route by which Ca^{2+} is taken up in fish (Baldwin and Bentley, 1980; Chasiotis et al., 2012; Flik and

89 Verboost, 1995). Active branchial Ca^{2+} uptake occurs at ionocytes in the branchial epithelium (Fig.
90 1). Extracellular Ca^{2+} enters ionocytes through non-voltage gated epithelial Ca^{2+} channels (ECaC) in
91 the apical membrane (Edwards and Marshall, 2012; Flik and Verboost, 1995) and is then shuttled to
92 the basolateral membrane by Ca^{2+} binding proteins such as calbindin for extrusion via Na^+ - Ca^{2+}
93 exchangers (NCX) and plasma membrane Ca^{2+} ATPase transporters (PMCA). Once in the
94 basolateral extracellular space, Ca^{2+} can directly interact with the extracellular Ca^{2+} binding
95 domain of E-cadherin in AJs to influence its properties and those of the overlying TJ (Pokutta et al.,
96 1994; Zhang et al., 2009). Branchial Ca^{2+} absorption is tightly controlled through the regulation of
97 ECaC activity and changes in the abundance of intracellular Ca^{2+} transport proteins (Cai et al.,
98 1993; Kelly and Wood, 2008; Khanal and Nemere, 2008; Shahsavarani and Perry, 2006; Verboost et
99 al., 1993; Wongdee and Charoenphandhu, 2013). This, in turn, may reduce the transcellular
100 movement of Ca^{2+} to the basolateral extracellular space, which could limit its availability to E-
101 cadherin in the AJ and compromise the permeability of the overlying TJ. Factors that compromise
102 the maintenance of transcellular Ca^{2+} transport pathways could influence the Ca^{2+} -sensitive
103 aspects of junctional stability.

104 Given that highly acidic water is toxic to most aquatic animals, naturally acidic freshwater
105 bodies are surprisingly biodiverse. Among the most acidic freshwater ecosystems in the world is
106 the Wallum along the eastern coast of southern Queensland and northern New South Wales in
107 Australia. Wallum ecosystems are characterised by highly acidic waters, ranging from pH 2.8 – 5.5
108 (Hines and Meyer, 2011). Compounding the difficulties of living at low pH, Wallum waters are also
109 dilute (low in salts) and soft (low in Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} ; Bayly, 1964). Despite these challenges, larvae of
110 some Wallum frog species can tolerate exceptionally acidic waters (Hines and Meyer, 2011;
111 Meyer, 2004; Meyer et al., 2020). One such species is the northern banjo frog, *Limnodynastes*
112 *terraereginae*, populations of which can be found throughout eastern Australia inhabiting aquatic
113 environments which range in pH from circum-neutral to pH 3.0, making it one of the most highly
114 acid tolerant vertebrate species known. Given that $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ is limited in Wallum environments and
115 that Ca^{2+} uptake is typically inhibited by low pH, understanding how amphibian larvae manage
116 Ca^{2+} transport in low pH water is likely central to understanding the mechanistic basis of their
117 tolerance to these extreme environments.

118 To determine the importance of $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ on Na^+ homeostasis at low pH, we examined whole
119 animal Na^+ and Ca^{2+} fluxes following both acute and chronic exposure to low pH and different
120 $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ in *L. terraereginae* larvae. To understand the role of transcellular Ca^{2+} uptake for the

121 maintenance of epithelial integrity at low pH, *L. terraereginae* larvae reared at low pH were
122 exposed to the calcium channel antagonist, ruthenium red (RR). We also measured gene
123 expression patterns of four key Ca^{2+} transport proteins (ECaC, calbindin, NCX, and PMCA) and E-
124 cadherin in the gill epithelia. We hypothesised that acute exposure to low pH would result in
125 increased net Na^+ efflux under low $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$, but that chronic exposure (acclimation) to low $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$
126 would reduce net Na^+ efflux with low pH exposure and increase Ca^{2+} influx. In addition, we
127 hypothesised that the acute impairment of apical Ca^{2+} uptake via ECaC (with RR) would increase
128 net efflux of Na^+ at low pH consistent with a role for transcellular Ca^{2+} transport in the
129 maintenance of intercellular junction integrity. Finally, acclimation to both low pH and low $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$
130 was hypothesised to correspond to an increase in the expression of the four key Ca^{2+} transporters
131 (ECaC, calbindin, NCX, and PMCA) and E-cadherin consistent with an increased rate of transcellular
132 Ca^{2+} uptake and reinforcement of Ca^{2+} -dependent AJs to protect junctional integrity in acid-
133 acclimated larvae.

134

135 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

136 *Experimental animals and general methods*

137 All animals were collected under the Queensland Department of Environment and Heritage
138 Protection Scientific Purposes Permit (WITK15563515), and all procedures were approved by The
139 University of Queensland's Animal Ethics Welfare Unit (SBS/484/17). *Limnodynastes terraereginae*
140 egg masses were collected in January 2018 from Bribie Island National Park, Queensland. Eggs
141 were allocated to circumneutral (pH 6.5) or low (pH 3.5) pH artificial soft water (ASW; Freda 1984);
142 distilled water plus (in $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) 40 $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 40 $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 120 NaCl, 50 NaOH, 20 KCl; pH
143 was adjusted with 0.1 M H_2SO_4). Hatched tadpoles were housed in 5 L plastic tanks connected to
144 two 200 L filtered recirculating aquarium systems (15 tanks per system). Each system was
145 connected to a canister filter for biological, mechanical, and chemical filtration (Fluval G6, City,
146 Country). System pH was monitored daily (LAQUA P-22, Horiba Instruments, Singapore) and
147 regulated as necessary through the addition of 0.1 M H_2SO_4 . Water $[\text{Na}^+]_e$ and $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ was
148 measured weekly using flame photometry (BWB Technologies, Berkshire, UK). Tadpoles were fed
149 every second day with thawed frozen spinach, and each system underwent a 20% water change
150 weekly. Room temperature was maintained at $22 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ with fluorescent overhead lighting

151 programmed to a 12L:12D photoperiod (6:00 – 18:00). The following experiments were replicated
152 once within the laboratory.

153 *Whole animal Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ fluxes*

154 The Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ concentration ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) in water samples was measured using a flame
155 photometer (BWB Technologies, Berkshire, UK). Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ detection ranges were calibrated
156 using (in $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) 5, 50, 500, and 1000 standards. To buffer potential spectral interference of
157 sulphites and phosphates on Ca²⁺ readings, 50 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ [Ca²⁺]_e samples were diluted to 50% and
158 250 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ [Ca²⁺]_e samples were diluted to 25% (Thiers and Hviid, 1962; Welch et al., 1990).
159 Water samples containing 5 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ [Ca²⁺]_e were under the limit of detectability for our flame
160 photometer and Ca²⁺ fluxes were unable to be reliably measured in this treatment; Na⁺
161 concentrations remained within the limits of detectability for all [Ca²⁺]_e exposures and were
162 recorded for all treatments. All net Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ flux measures (in $\text{nmol L}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) were calculated by
163 comparing changes in water [Na⁺] and [Ca²⁺] over the exposure period as follows:

$$164 \quad \text{Net ion flux} = \left(\frac{\text{Initial [ion]} - \text{Final [ion]}}{t} \right), \text{ Eqn 3}$$

165 where t (in h^{-1}) is the time of the exposure period in hours (6).

166

167 *Effects of acute exposure to high or low Ca²⁺ levels on whole animal net Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ fluxes at low* 168 *pH (experiment 1).*

169 To assess the effect of acute exposure to high or low [Ca²⁺]_e on acid-induced net Na⁺ and
170 Ca²⁺ fluxes, *L. terraereginae* larvae (n = 36; Gosner stages 26-38; Gosner, 1960) were randomly
171 allocated to three 5 L tanks (n ≤ 12 per tank to obtain adequate statistical power, based off
172 previous ion flux work with the species in Meyer et al. 2004) containing 50 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ [Ca²⁺]_e ASW
173 (Table 1). Water pH was maintained at pH 6.5 and larvae were acclimated to these conditions for 4
174 weeks. Water pH was monitored daily and regulated as necessary via addition of 0.1 M H₂SO₄.
175 Tadpoles were fed every second day with thawed frozen spinach, and each system underwent a
176 100% water change weekly. Ammonia levels were monitored using an API® Ammonia Test Kit
177 (Mars Fishcare, Chalfont, PA). Larvae were then placed into individual 200 ml glass beakers
178 containing 50 ml of either 5 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ [Ca²⁺]_e, 50 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ [Ca²⁺]_e or 250 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ [Ca²⁺]_e ASW (n = 12
179 per treatment) 30 minutes prior to testing. Water pH in half of the beakers in each treatment (n =
180 6) was acutely lowered to pH 3.5 through the addition of dilute H₂SO₄ (0.1M) . A 5 ml water

181 sample was collected from all beakers 1- and 7-hours following pH adjustment for the
182 measurement of Na^+ and Ca^{2+} concentrations. Net ion fluxes were determined by subtracting the
183 ion concentrations at the start of the exposure (1 h sample) from those at the end (7 h sample).
184 Following experimentation, all larvae were lightly blotted dry, weighed and returned to their
185 holding tanks.

186

187 *Effects of chronic exposure to high or low Ca^{2+} levels on whole animal Na^+ and Ca^{2+} fluxes at low pH*
188 *(experiment 2).*

189 To assess the effect of chronic exposure (acclimation) to high or low $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ on whole
190 animal net Na^+ and Ca^{2+} fluxes following acute exposure to low pH, *L. terraereginae* larvae (n = 24;
191 Gosner stages 26-38) were transferred to tanks containing either 5 or 250 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ ASW
192 four weeks prior to sampling. Control larvae were maintained in 50 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ASW. Thirty minutes
193 prior to testing, larvae were placed into individual 200 ml glass beakers containing 50 ml of ASW
194 containing the same $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ as their holding tanks (n = 12 per treatment). Water pH in the beakers
195 in each treatment was then acutely lowered to pH 3.5 through the addition of 0.1M H_2SO_4 . Water
196 samples were then collected from all beakers at 1 h and 7 h and analysed as detailed above for
197 Na^+ and Ca^{2+} concentrations.

198

199 *Effects of Ca^{2+} uptake inhibition on whole animal Na^+ and Ca^{2+} fluxes acclimated to low pH*
200 *(experiment 3).*

201 Ruthenium red was used to inhibit apical Ca^{2+} transport since it does not penetrate TJs and
202 is commonly used as a histochemical marker of the barrier formed by epithelial TJs (González-
203 Mariscal et al., 1989; West et al., 2002). *L. terraereginae* larvae (n = 12; Gosner stages 26-38) were
204 randomly allocated to an isolated 5 L tank containing 50 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ ASW at pH 3.5 and
205 maintained for four weeks as detailed in experiment 1. Thirty minutes prior to testing, larvae (n =
206 12) were placed into individual 200 ml glass beakers containing 50 ml of 50 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ ASW at
207 pH 3.5. Ruthenium red was added to half of the beakers to a concentration proven to induce an
208 approximately half-maximal response in ECaC activity *in vitro* (10 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; Hoenderop et al.,
209 2001). Water samples were collected at 1 and 7 h post exposure and analysed as described above.
210 Larvae were then removed from beakers, blotted dry and weighed.

211

212 *Gene expression of Ca²⁺ transport and adherens junction proteins*

213 To assess whether [Ca²⁺]_e exposure and low pH influences the expression of branchial Ca²⁺
214 transport proteins and E-cadherin, *L. terraereginae* larvae (n = 36; Gosner stages 26-38) were
215 randomly allocated to six isolated 5 L tanks (n = 6 per tank) containing 5, 50, and 250 μmol L⁻¹
216 [Ca²⁺]_e ASW. Water pH was maintained at pH 6.5 (n = 18) or reduced to pH 3.5 (n = 18). Larvae
217 were maintained under these conditions for four weeks. *L. terraereginae* larvae were then
218 euthanised by immersion in 0.25 mg L⁻¹ buffered MS222 (Ramlochansingh et al., 2014), and
219 pithing. Both branchial baskets were dissected free and stored in RNAlater (Ambion Inc.) at 4°C for
220 24 hours, before being moved into a -20°C freezer. Total RNA was extracted from *L. terraereginae*
221 gills using a RNeasy Mini Kit following the manufacturer's instructions (Qiagen, Valencia, CA). Total
222 RNA was eluted from the silicon spin column in ultrapure water and its concentration quantified
223 using a Qubit fluorometer (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, USA). Any residual genomic DNA
224 contamination was removed, and RNA was reverse transcribed using an iScript gDNA Clear cDNA
225 Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) following the manufacturers guidelines. Appropriate no
226 reverse transcriptase controls were generated by replacing reverse transcriptase with water.

227 The transcripts for target genes (ECaC, Calb1, PMCA, NCX, E-Cadherin) and house-keeping
228 genes (β-actin, GAPDH, RPS, TUB) were identified using an in-house *L. terraereginae* transcriptome
229 using homologous sequences from other amphibians as the reference query. Reference sequences
230 were compared against the *L. terraereginae* transcriptome using the 'blastn' tool in Galaxy
231 Australia (Jalili et al., 2020). Putative *L. terraereginae* gene sequences were then compared against
232 the National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) database using the 'blastn' tools default
233 parameters to confirm their identity. PrimerQuest (Integrated DNA Technologies, Caraville, IA) was
234 used to design specific qPCR primers (Table S1). All primer pairs were evaluated for specificity and
235 to ensure that they produced only a single band of the appropriate length using MyTaq DNA
236 Polymerase (Bioline, Alexandria, NSW, Australia) and agarose gel electrophoresis.

237 Quantitative PCR assays were conducted using iTaq™ Universal SYBR® Green Supermix
238 (Bio-rad, Hercules, CA) in a Mini Opticon detection system (MJ Mini Cycler; Bio-rad Laboratories
239 Inc., Hercules, CA). Samples were analysed in triplicate and each plate included appropriate no
240 template controls. No reverse transcriptase controls were assessed independently for each
241 biological sample to confirm the absence of genomic DNA contamination. Cycling parameters

242 were as follows: 95°C for 1 min followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 sec and 60°C for 30 sec. Melt
243 (dissociation) curves (65-90°C) were conducted after each run. Reaction efficiencies were
244 calculated using a serially diluted pooled cDNA standard. All PCR efficiencies were greater than
245 90% with an R² of over 0.99. All assays produced unique and single peak dissociation curves. Data
246 were exported to MS Excel using Bio-Rad CFX Manager (version 3.1, Bio-Rad). The stability of the
247 candidate house-keeping genes was calculated using the geNorm algorithm via the *NormqPCR*
248 package (Perkins et al., 2012). All four genes were found to be highly stable across the six
249 treatment groups and met the criteria for designation as appropriate housekeeping genes. A
250 combination of housekeeping genes was used as a pseudo-housekeeper (Rocha-Martins et al.,
251 2012; Vandesompele et al., 2002). The geNorm algorithm revealed the two most stable
252 housekeeping genes (GAPDH and RPS) combined were an effective housekeeping control. To
253 combine the housekeeping genes, the geometric mean of the raw amplification threshold (Ct)
254 values and the reaction efficiencies for GAPDH and RPS were calculated for use in analyses. The
255 following calculations for target gene expression were conducted following Pfaffl (2001). To
256 account for differing reaction efficiencies between primers, adjusted Ct values for the pseudo-
257 housekeeper and the genes of interest were calculated using the following formula:

$$Ct_{adjusted} = \log_2(E^{Ct}), \text{Eqn 2}$$

258 where E is the reaction efficiency for the gene and Ct is the raw Ct value of the sample. Delta (Δ) Ct
259 was calculated for each sample for statistical analyses:

$$\Delta Ct_{sample} = Ct_{adjusted}(GOI) - Ct_{adjusted}(HKG), \text{Eqn 3}$$

260 where $Ct_{adjusted}(GOI)$ are the adjusted Ct values for the gene of interest, and $Ct_{adjusted}(HKG)$ are the
261 adjusted Ct values for the combined housekeeping genes. ΔCt in each target gene was quantified
262 as fold-change relative to the expression of a reference group (the 50 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ at pH 6.5
263 group).

264

265 *Statistical analyses*

266 All analyses were conducted in the R statistical environment (R Computing Team, 2021). α
267 was set at 0.05 for all statistical tests. Models were two-tailed and assumed a Gaussian error
268 structure and data satisfied assumptions of hypothesis tests. The effects of body size on rates of
269 ion flux were accounted for by considering wet body mass as a covariate in statistical models.

270 Differences in net Na^+ and Ca^{2+} flux between treatment groups were tested by fitting
271 analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) models using the *car* package (Fox and Weisberg, 2018). For
272 experiment 1, a two-way ANCOVA was fitted using exposure $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ and test pH as independent
273 variables. To determine whether acclimation to low or high Ca^{2+} affected Na^+ and Ca^{2+} fluxes at
274 low pH in experiment 2, larvae reared at $50 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ and exposed to low pH at 5 and 250
275 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1} [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ from experiment 1 were compared with larvae reared at 5 or 250 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1} [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$
276 and exposed to low pH at 5 and 250 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1} [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$. A two-way ANCOVA was fitted modelling test
277 $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ and rearing $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ (equimolar to test $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ versus 50 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1} [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ control) as
278 independent variables. For experiment 3, a one-way ANCOVA was fitted with RR treatment as the
279 independent variable. For all experiments, one-sample Student's t-tests were used to test if Na^+
280 and Ca^{2+} fluxes in control groups were significantly different from zero suggesting a departure
281 from homeostasis. Net Na^+ and Ca^{2+} fluxes were assessed in separate models. *Post hoc* analyses
282 for all ion flux experiments were conducted with the *emmeans* package (Lenth, 2022) using the
283 Tukey method of *p* value adjustment for multiple comparisons. All data reported are estimated
284 marginal means adjusted for the effect of the covariate.

285 Differences in target gene expression between treatment groups was analysed by
286 comparing ΔCt values in analysis of variance models using the *car* package (Fox and Weisberg,
287 2018). A two-way analysis of variance model was fitted using acclimation $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ and pH as
288 independent variables. This model was fitted for all genes of interest. *Post hoc* analyses were
289 conducted using Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference test for multiple comparisons.

290

291 RESULTS

292 *Effect of acute $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ exposure on Na^+ and Ca^{2+} fluxes at low pH*

293 Baseline net Na^+ and Ca^{2+} fluxes in control larvae (pH 6.5, $50 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ acclimated) at
294 pH 6.5 were close to zero, although there was a small but significant net loss of Na^+ ($T_5 = -5.21$, $p <$
295 0.01 ; Fig. 2). Net Ca^{2+} fluxes in control larvae were not significantly different from zero. There was
296 a significant interaction between pH and $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ on net Na^+ efflux in *L. terraereginae* larvae ($F_{29,2} =$
297 6.18 , $p < 0.01$). Irrespective of $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$, all larvae exposed acutely to pH 3.5 water experienced a
298 substantial net loss of Na^+ indicating that Na^+ efflux rates were considerably higher than Na^+
299 uptake rates. The magnitude of the effect of acute low pH exposure on Na^+ flux was greatest in
300 larvae exposed to $5 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$. There was less effect of low pH on Na^+ efflux in larvae

301 exposed to $50 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ ($t_{29} = 3.2$, $p < 0.01$) and $250 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ ($t_{29} = 2.56$, $p = 0.041$). There
302 was no effect of pH or $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ on net Ca^{2+} fluxes.

303

304 *Effect chronic $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ exposure on Na^+ and Ca^{2+} fluxes at low pH*

305 Relative to larvae simultaneously exposed to low pH and acute alterations to $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$, 4-
306 weeks of acclimation to both low and high calcium levels reduced the impact of acute low pH
307 exposure on net Na^+ fluxes ($F_{19,1} = 9.59$, $p < 0.01$; Fig. 3). Similarly, there was a significant effect of
308 acclimation to $250 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ on net Ca^{2+} fluxes, with larvae acclimated to high $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$
309 experiencing a significant net Ca^{2+} influx (compared with larvae in $50 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$) ($F_{19,1} =$
310 12.56 , $p < 0.01$).

311

312 *Effect of the inhibition of apical Ca^{2+} uptake on Na^+ and Ca^{2+} fluxes in larvae acclimated to low pH*

313 In *L. terraereginae* larvae reared from hatching at pH 3.5 and with $50 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ ASW,
314 baseline net Na^+ efflux was small but significantly lower than zero ($T_5 = -4.1833$, $p < 0.01$; Fig. 4).
315 Larvae had a baseline net Ca^{2+} influx that was slightly but significantly higher than zero ($T_5 =$
316 2.7916 , $p = 0.038$). Acute exposure of *L. terraereginae* larvae to ruthenium red resulted in a
317 substantial increase in both net Na^+ efflux ($F_{9,1} = 71.174$, $p < 0.001$) and net Ca^{2+} efflux ($F_{9,1} =$
318 38.14 , $p < 0.001$) over the 6 h exposure period.

319

320 *Gene expression*

321 The expression of key Ca^{2+} transport proteins and E-cadherin in the gills of *L. terraereginae*
322 was compared across larvae reared at pH both 6.5 and pH 3.5 in low, moderate or high $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$.
323 There was no significant effect of acclimation pH or $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ on the gene expression of branchial
324 ECaC, PMCA, or NCX channels (Fig. 5). However, branchial calbindin expression was significantly
325 higher in larvae reared at pH 3.5 than in pH 6.5-reared larvae ($F_{1,24} = 5.640$, $p = 0.026$) but was not
326 influenced by $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$. Branchial E-cadherin mRNA expression was significantly higher in larvae
327 reared under high $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ levels ($F_{2,24} = 5.177$, $p = 0.0135$) but was unaffected by acclimation pH.

328

329

330 DISCUSSION

331 Highly acidic waters pose a major threat to transcellular Ca^{2+} uptake pathways, which may
332 play a role in the acute and potentially fatal branchial Na^+ loss experienced by acid-sensitive
333 aquatic animals exposed to low pH. Conversely, acid tolerant animals may employ a suite of
334 mechanisms that enable them to protect Ca^{2+} uptake capacity which in turn allows them to resist
335 the negative effects of low pH on junctional integrity. Consistent with our hypothesis, acute
336 exposure to low pH water in the presence of low $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ increased net Na^+ efflux, but not net Ca^{2+}
337 fluxes in acid-tolerance *L. terraereginae* larvae. Provision of additional $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ reduced net Na^+
338 efflux rates, but this effect was saturable. Acclimation to both low and high $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ improved the
339 resistance of larvae to Na^+ efflux at low pH and resulted in an increased net Ca^{2+} influx. Inhibition
340 of apical epithelial calcium uptake by ruthenium red resulted in the complete loss of tolerance to
341 low pH in larvae acclimated to low pH water consistent with our hypothesis that acclimation to
342 low pH involves the protection of Ca^{2+} uptake capacity. Acclimation to low pH water increased
343 branchial gene expression of the intracellular Ca^{2+} transport protein calbindin, consistent with a
344 role for increased transcellular Ca^{2+} trafficking in the tolerance of low pH water. These results
345 establish a significant role for the security of Ca^{2+} uptake capacity in the tolerance of *L.*
346 *terraereginae* larvae living in highly acidic waters.

347 Acid-naive *L. terraereginae* larvae reared at circumneutral pH and acutely exposed to low
348 pH had a greater rate of net Na^+ efflux than larvae reared and tested at pH 6.5, consistent with an
349 acute negative effect of low pH on intercellular junction integrity. The high rate of net Na^+ efflux
350 was substantially reduced in animals acclimated to low pH consistent with an acid-tolerant
351 phenotype. In acid-naïve *L. terraereginae*, the high rate of net Na^+ efflux was exacerbated in the
352 presence of low $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$, indicating a protective effect of $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ on epithelial junction integrity. This
353 is consistent with previous studies showing that $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ plays a significant role in determining Na^+
354 efflux rates with low pH exposure in a range of fish and amphibian larvae (Cummins, 1988; Freda
355 and Dunson, 1984; Freda et al., 1991; Gascon et al., 1987; Gonzalez and Dunson, 1989; Gonzalez et
356 al., 1998; Kullberg et al., 1993; Kumai et al., 2011; McDonald and Rogano, 1986; McDonald et al.,
357 1983; Meyer et al., 2010; Riesch et al., 2015). However, environmental Ca^{2+} was only beneficial for
358 controlling Na^+ efflux up to a point: exposure of larvae to $250 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ did not further
359 reduce net Na^+ fluxes beyond that of larvae exposed to control ($50 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) levels. This may
360 indicate the influence of elevated Ca^{2+} on Na^+ efflux is saturable, and $50 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$
361 completely saturates the gill epithelium. This is consistent with Meyer (2004) who demonstrated

362 that $80 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ reduced Na^+ efflux during low pH exposure in *L. terraereginae* larvae,
363 however raising $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ to $400 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ had no further effects.

364 The protective effect of $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ on branchial junction permeability has been attributed to
365 extracellular Ca^{2+} bound to the gill epithelium, specifically to the TJ (Freda and McDonald, 1988;
366 Gonzalez and Dunson, 1989; McDonald, 1983; McWilliams, 1983; Reid et al., 1991; Yu et al., 2010).
367 However, these studies did not account for the possibility that low pH affects junctional stability
368 by impairing transcellular Ca^{2+} uptake pathways. Exposure of *L. terraereginae* larvae to water
369 containing $10 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ of ruthenium red, a potent ECaC channel inhibitor (Nilius et al., 2001),
370 resulted in a large ($7500 - 17500 \text{ nmol h}^{-1}$) increase in net Na^+ efflux. This suggests that the
371 inhibition of the transcellular Ca^{2+} uptake pathway has an immediate and severe effect on
372 junctional stability leading to increased junctional permeability to Na^+ . Similar findings have been
373 observed in studies of goldfish and tetras exposed to La^{3+} , a Ca^{2+} analogue that, unlike ruthenium
374 red, also has the capacity to penetrate TJs and interact with AJs directly (Eddy and Bath, 1979;
375 Gonzalez et al., 1997; Lacaz-Vieira and Marques, 2004). The inhibition of transcellular Ca^{2+} uptake
376 using ruthenium red has not been performed previously on whole animals but does show that
377 inhibition of Ca^{2+} uptake can have catastrophic impacts on homeostasis consistent with the loss of
378 junctional stability. We posit that the inhibition of apical Ca^{2+} uptake disrupts AJ stability with
379 consequences for the maintenance of TJ stability. Since ECaC activity is inhibited by low pH
380 (Vennekens et al., 2001), we propose that a loss of Ca^{2+} uptake capacity following acute exposure
381 to low pH may underpin the loss of junctional stability and resulting Na^+ efflux in acid sensitive
382 organisms. Conversely, adaptations which counter ECaC inhibition at low pH may protect Ca^{2+}
383 uptake capacity in acidophilic species. While the effects of ruthenium red on Na^+ efflux in acid-
384 acclimated larvae were rapid and extreme, an investigation of its effects on junctional morphology
385 would be needed to demonstrate that high Na^+ losses were the result of junctional disruption and
386 not the inhibition of other Na^+ and Ca^{2+} transport pathways. While ruthenium red is a potent
387 inhibitor of ECaC, it can also affect other Ca^{2+} transport proteins which may affect the
388 maintenance of ion balance (Hajnóczky et al., 2006; Vincent and Duncton, 2011).

389 Unlike Na^+ fluxes, acute exposure to low pH water did not affect net Ca^{2+} fluxes when
390 larvae were acutely exposed to high or control $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$. In both circumneutral and low pH water,
391 Ca^{2+} fluxes were not significantly different from zero suggesting that rates of influx and efflux were
392 balanced. This was unexpected as low pH has been shown to inhibit Ca^{2+} uptake (ECaC activity) in
393 multiple cell lines (Bindels et al., 1994; Hoenderop et al., 1999; Vennekens et al., 2001). If low pH

394 also inhibited ECaC activity in *L. terraereginae*, it should have manifested as a net increase in the
395 rate of Ca^{2+} loss. In fact, *L. terraereginae* larvae reared in high $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ and acutely exposed to low
396 pH experienced a net Ca^{2+} influx (approx. 250 nmol h^{-1}) compared to animals reared at control
397 $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ levels. In low pH reared larvae, there was an apparent net increase in Ca^{2+} uptake. These
398 influxes strongly suggests that ECaC in the branchial epithelium of *L. terraereginae* larvae is not
399 substantially inhibited by protonation, and that transcellular environmental Ca^{2+} uptake is
400 maintained at low pH and may play a role in facilitating acid tolerance in *L. terraereginae*. This may
401 highlight an adaptation for the prevention of Ca^{2+} uptake inhibition at low pH and could be linked
402 to the expression of a less pH sensitive ECaC isoform. Consistent with this hypothesis, inhibition of
403 apical Ca^{2+} uptake by ruthenium red did result in a large increase in net Ca^{2+} efflux in larvae.
404 Clearly, the disturbance of transcellular Ca^{2+} uptake has serious implications for the maintenance
405 of transepithelial resistance via the loss of junction stability at low pH.

406 The maintenance of transcellular Ca^{2+} transport is potentially important in promoting acid
407 tolerance of acidophilic animals. Ca^{2+} might influence tolerance of low pH via association with the
408 Ca^{2+} -dependent AJ, which is directly responsible for the stability of the TJ and thus epithelial
409 permeability, a major factor in preventing Na^+ at low pH in acidophilic species (Gumbiner et al.,
410 1988; Kwong et al., 2014; Watabe-Uchida et al., 1998). Lowering intracellular $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ in MDCK cells
411 has been shown to interfere with the formation of TJs (Stuart et al., 1996). Ca^{2+} also employs many
412 signalling functions such as hormone regulation (Clapham, 2007; D'Souza-Li, 2006), which may
413 potentially alter the expression of genes involved in maintaining junctional integrity at low pH.
414 Calbindin and other intracellular Ca^{2+} -binding proteins function to buffer intracellular Ca^{2+}
415 concentrations by facilitating the basolateral extrusion of Ca^{2+} taken up across the apical
416 membrane (Christakos et al., 1989). The finding that calbindin mRNA was upregulated in pH 3.5
417 reared *L. terraereginae* larvae is suggestive of increased transcellular Ca^{2+} movements in the gill
418 epithelium of *L. terraereginae* larvae acclimated to low pH. Interestingly, cytosolic Ca^{2+} is critical in
419 regulating ECaC activity (Hoenderop et al., 1999). This finding is consistent with the idea that
420 transcellular Ca^{2+} transport is involved in acid tolerance to some degree and that Ca^{2+} uptake is not
421 inhibited by low pH in *L. terraereginae* larvae.

422 In contrast to our hypotheses, mRNA expression of key transcellular Ca^{2+} transport proteins
423 ECaC, NCX and PMCA were not influenced by environmental pH or $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ in *L. terraereginae*
424 larvae despite the observation that acclimation to low pH was accompanied by an apparent net
425 increase in Ca^{2+} uptake. If this effect was indeed the result of an increase in Ca^{2+} uptake and not a

426 reduction in efflux, then it is possible that it was facilitated by an increase in the activity of the
427 existing channels as opposed to the de novo production of more channels. Likewise, the lack of
428 increase in E-cadherin mRNA expression with chronic low pH exposure suggests that E-cadherin
429 function was unaffected by low pH. E-cadherins bind Ca^{2+} from the extracellular environment; our
430 data suggest that maintenance of the transcellular Ca^{2+} transport pathway allows for the
431 maintenance of favourable Ca^{2+} concentrations in the extracellular space to prevent E-cadherin
432 disfunction. Consistent with this idea, increased expression of calbindin mRNA in acid-acclimated
433 larvae provides some evidence that increased transcellular Ca^{2+} transport plays a role in promoting
434 extreme acid tolerance. Increased Ca^{2+} uptake at the apical membrane may be evidenced by
435 increased intracellular Ca^{2+} shuttling rates (and an associated increased abundance of calbindin
436 proteins) to maintain Ca^{2+} -dependent junction dynamics in low pH environments. The finding that
437 low pH acclimated larvae upregulated calbindin mRNA and had a net Ca^{2+} influx supports a role for
438 increased transcellular $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ movement in facilitating acid tolerance in *L. terraereginae* larvae.
439 However, mRNA expression levels do not always correlate well with actual levels of protein
440 expression, so care must be taken when interpreting mRNA expression patterns in the absence of
441 corresponding protein expression levels. Differential post-translational processing of mRNA and
442 other factors can be responsible for the low correlation between an organism's transcriptome and
443 its proteome (Ghazalpour et al., 2011; Marguerat et al., 2012). Although we cannot rule out a
444 paracellular route for the uptake of Ca^{2+} into the extracellular space, studies in fish suggests that
445 more than 97% of branchial (gills) Ca^{2+} uptake is active (transcellular) (Flik et al., 1995). The
446 hormonal control of Ca^{2+} transport protein function and abundance is a potentially overlooked
447 factor in understanding how branchial Ca^{2+} transport is influenced by extracellular pH and $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$
448 in *L. terraereginae*.

449 This study showed that environmental Ca^{2+} has a protective effect on the control of Na^+
450 efflux at low pH in *L. terraereginae* larvae. Furthermore, it demonstrated that larvae have a
451 capacity for acclimation to low pH via changes in Na^+ and Ca^{2+} fluxes, which appear to involve the
452 transcellular pathway (i.e. increased calbindin mRNA upregulation). Given that *L. terraereginae*
453 larvae can maintain or increase Ca^{2+} uptake at low pH suggests that protonation of the branchial
454 epithelium likely does not outwardly inhibit Ca^{2+} uptake. However, we only examined net Na^+ and
455 Ca^{2+} fluxes which do not reveal details about the discrete behaviour of uptake and efflux
456 pathways. The use of radioactive isotopes or fluorescent ion analogues could be used to better
457 resolve changes in influx and efflux pathways and how they contribute to net ion fluxes. Inhibition

458 of apical Ca^{2+} uptake by ruthenium red strongly supports a role for the maintenance of
459 transcellular Ca^{2+} uptake in the control of branchial junction stability at low pH in *L. terraereginae*
460 but does not reveal the specific site of action for Ca^{2+} in preventing Na^+ loss at low pH. Using
461 intracellular Ca^{2+} markers to track Ca^{2+} movement during acclimation to low pH may help to
462 elucidate this mechanism. As *L. terraereginae* larvae are exceptionally acid tolerant, their ability to
463 maintain Ca^{2+} uptake in very soft and acidic waters may be a unique adaptation. Comparing
464 transcellular Ca^{2+} transport capabilities with other acid-sensitive species might reveal the
465 mechanistic adaptations employed by *L. terraereginae* in the maintenance of epithelial stability at
466 low pH. The current study highlights a role for transcellular Ca^{2+} transport and the prevention of
467 Ca^{2+} uptake inhibition by low pH in the extreme acid tolerance of *L. terraereginae* larvae.

468

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474

475 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

476 CEF is the Editor-in-Chief for JEB.

477

478 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

479 The complete datasets and R scripts used for analysing the data is publicly available at UQ eSpace
480 (<https://doi.org/10.14264/18c7301>)

481

482 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

483 Conceptualisation: RLC, CH, CEF; Methodology: CH, RLC, CEF; Validation: CH; Formal analysis: CH;
484 Investigation: CH; Resources: CEF; Data curation: CH; Writing – original draft: CH; Writing – review

485 & editing: CH, RLC, CEF; Visualisation: CH; Supervision: RLC, CEF; Project administration: RLC, CEF;

486 Funding acquisition: RLC, CEF.

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701 **TABLES**

702 **Table 1. Ion concentrations (in $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) in three $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ ASW treatments used for acclimation**
703 **and exposure.** Distilled water plus:

704 $5 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e = (\text{in } \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}) 5 \text{ CaCl}_2 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}, 40 \text{ MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}, 490 \text{ NaCl}, 23 \text{ NaOH}, 20 \text{ KCl};$

705 $50 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e = (\text{in } \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}) 50 \text{ CaCl}_2 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}, 40 \text{ MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}, 400 \text{ NaCl}, 113 \text{ NaOH}, 20 \text{ KCl};$ and

706 $250 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e = (\text{in } \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}) 250 \text{ CaCl}_2 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}, 40 \text{ MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}, 513 \text{ NaOH}, 20 \text{ KCl}.$

$[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$	$[\text{Na}^+]$	$[\text{Cl}^-]$	$[\text{Mg}^{2+}]$	$[\text{K}^+]$
5	513	520	40	20
50	513	520	40	20
250	513	520	40	20

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709 **FIGURES**

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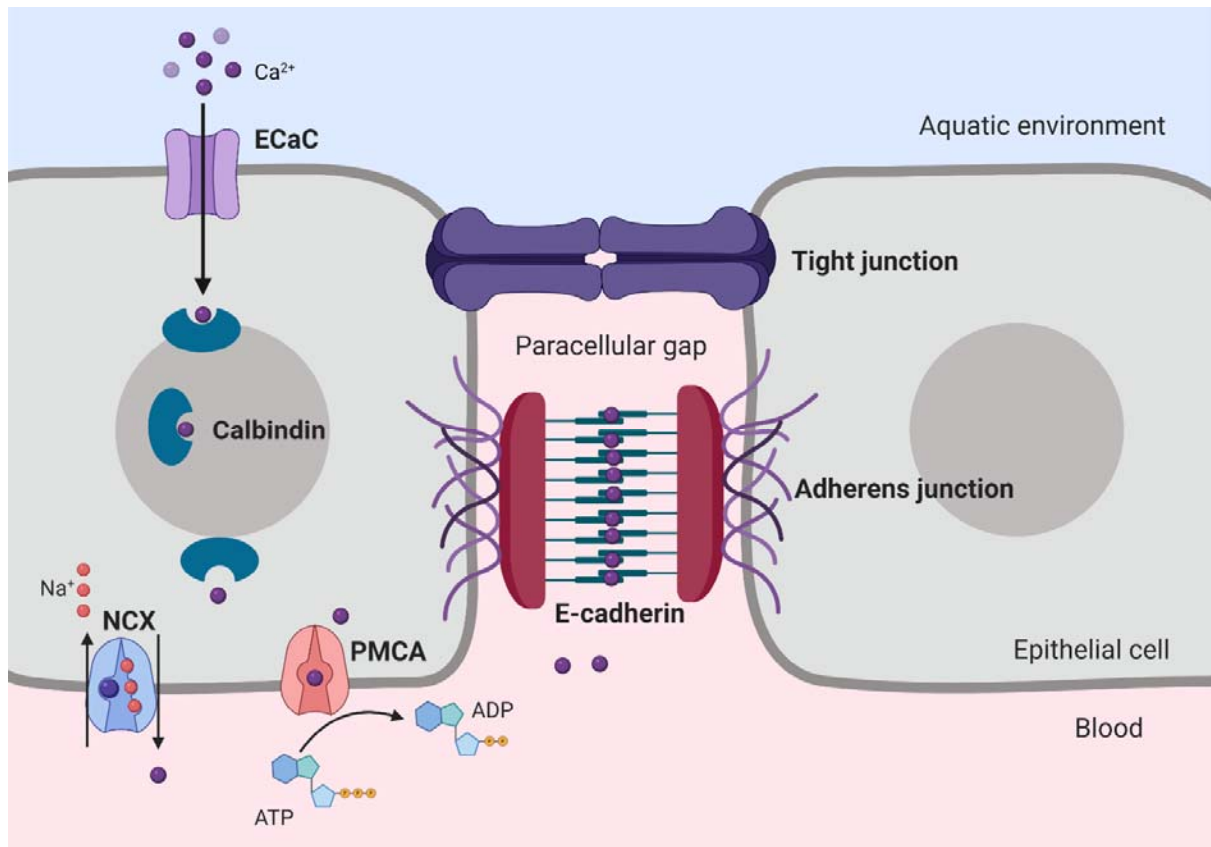
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721 **Fig. 1 Proposed model of epithelial Ca^{2+} uptake and cell-cell adhesion in freshwater amphibian**

722 **larvae ionocytes.** Ca^{2+} is absorbed through the apical Ca^{2+} channel (ECaC) and extrusion through

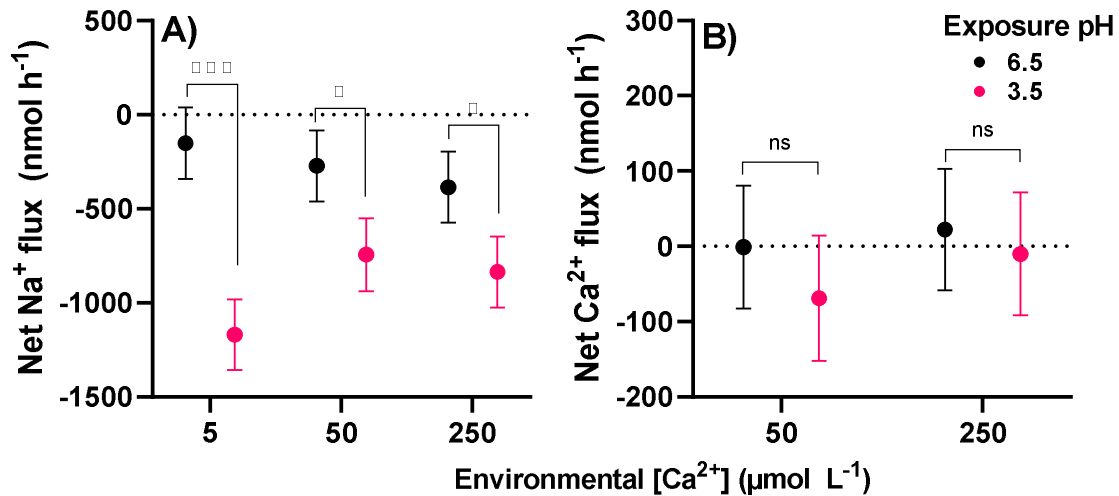
723 basolateral Ca^{2+} transporters (NCX and PMCA) is facilitated and buffered by intracellular Ca^{2+}

724 binding proteins (such as calbindin). Epithelial ionocytes are bound by the junctional complex

725 consisting of tight junctions, and more basal adherens junctions which are Ca^{2+} -dependent and

726 regulate tight junction structure and function.

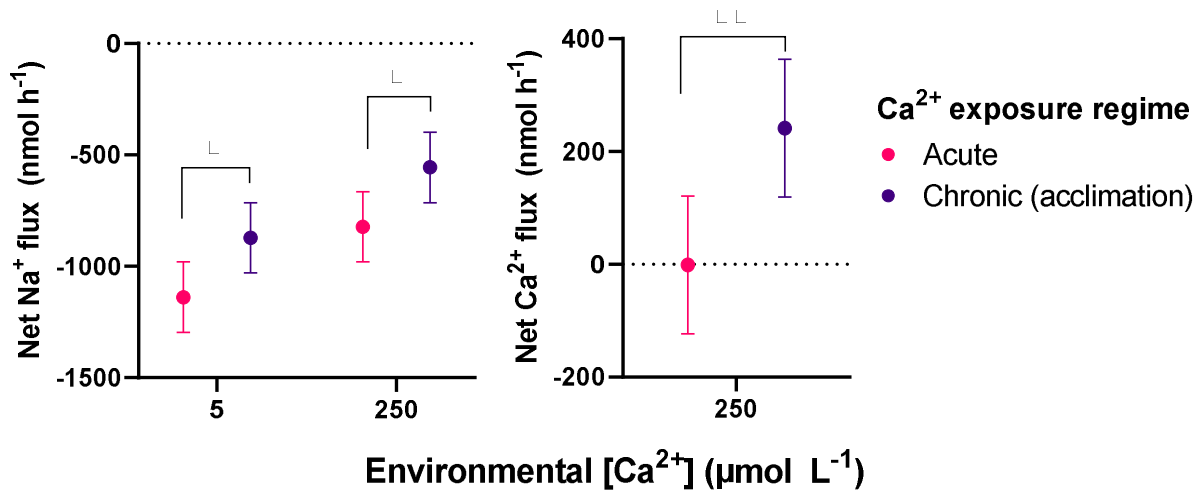
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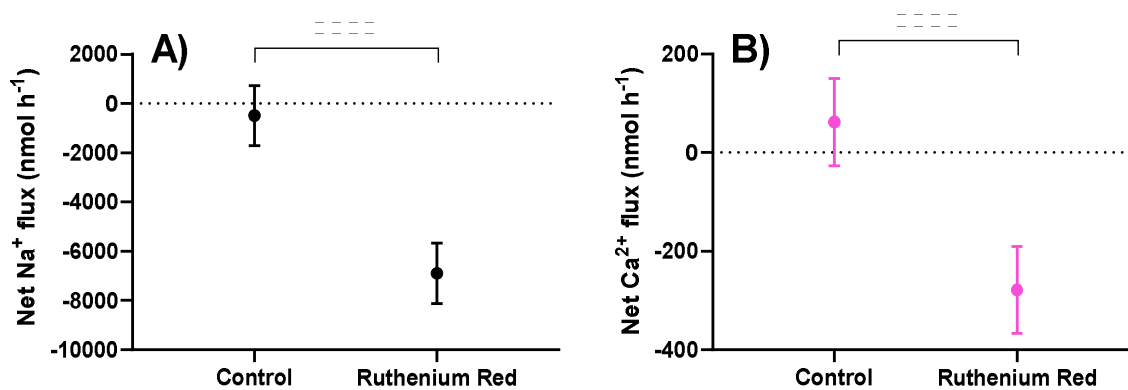
730 **Fig. 2 Net Na⁺ (A) and Ca²⁺ (B) fluxes in response to low pH following acute (experiment 1)**
731 **exposure to varying environmental Ca²⁺ concentrations ([Ca²⁺]_e) in *L. terraereginae* larvae.** N =
732 12 larvae within each treatment group in experiment 1 were reared in 50 µmol L⁻¹ [Ca²⁺]_e and
733 acutely exposed to low pH at either 5, 50, and 250 µmol L⁻¹ [Ca²⁺]_e. Points indicate the estimated
734 marginal means adjusted for body mass, and error bars represent 95% confidence intervals for the
735 fitted models. Positive net flux indicates a net ionic influx, whereas negative net flux indicates a
736 net ionic efflux.

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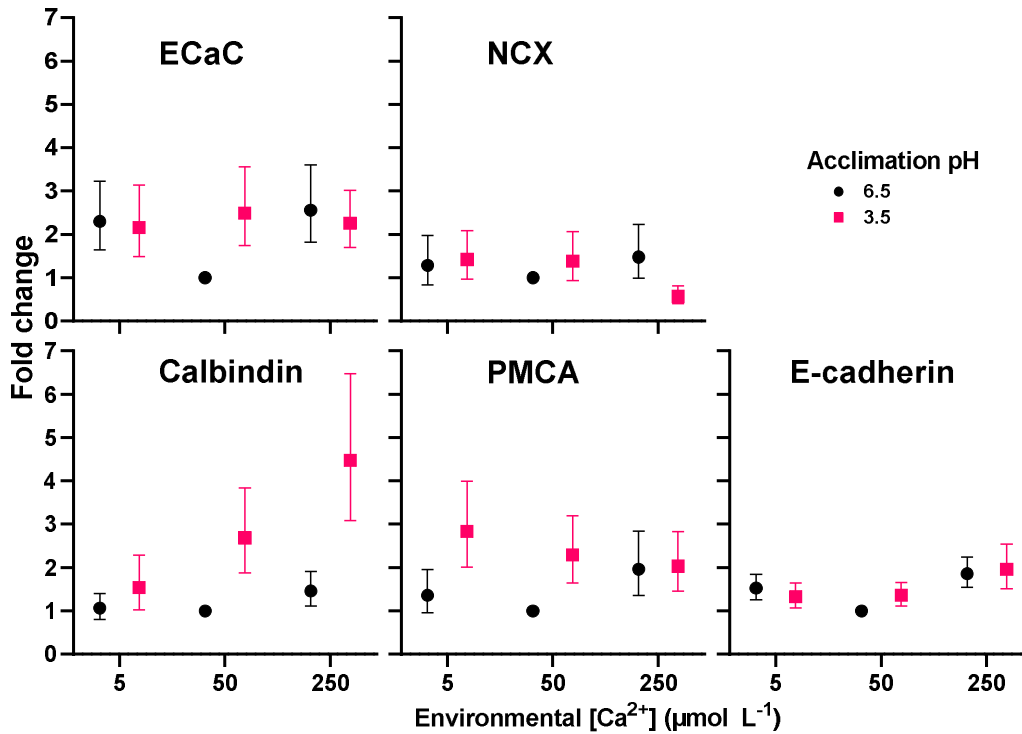
740 **Fig. 3 The effect of acute or chronic exposure to low and high environmental Ca²⁺ concentrations**
741 **([Ca²⁺]_e) on whole animal Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ fluxes following acute exposure to low pH.** N = 12 larvae
742 within each treatment group in experiment 1 reared in 50 µmol L⁻¹ [Ca²⁺]_e and acutely exposed to
743 low pH at either 5 or 250 µmol L⁻¹ [Ca²⁺]_e were compared to n = 12 larvae within each treatment
744 group in experiment 2 reared in 5 or 250 µmol L⁻¹ [Ca²⁺]_e and acutely exposed to low pH at
745 equimolar [Ca²⁺]_e. Points indicate the estimated marginal means adjusted for body mass, and error
746 bars represent 95% confidence intervals for the fitted models. Positive net flux indicates a net
747 ionic influx, whereas negative net flux indicates a net ionic efflux.



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749 **Fig. 4 Net Na⁺ (A) and Ca²⁺ (B) fluxes in N = 12 *L. terraereginae* larvae within each group reared**
750 **at pH 3.5 with 50 μmol L⁻¹ environmental Ca²⁺ concentration ([Ca²⁺]_e), acutely exposed 10 μmol**
751 **L⁻¹ RR at pH 3.5.** Points indicate the estimated marginal means adjusted for mass, and error bars
752 represent 95% confidence intervals for the fitted model. Net Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ fluxes were significantly
753 higher in *L. terraereginae* acutely exposed to 10 μmol L⁻¹ ruthenium red for 6 h.

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755

756 **Fig 5 Expression of five key Ca^{2+} transport genes in N = 6 *L. terraereginae* larvae per group reared**
757 **in circumneutral and low pH ASW containing 5, 50, and 250 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ environmental Ca^{2+}**
758 **concentration ($[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$).** Change in expression is represented as fold change made relative to the
759 pH 6.5, 50 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_e$ control treatment group. Points indicate mean fold change and error
760 bars indicate standard error using a Taylor series (Weng et al., 2006).