J. Plankton Res. (2015) 37(6): 1100-1109. First published online August 27, 2015 doi:10.1093/plankt/fbv071

# HORIZONS

## Thalassorheology, organic matter and plankton: towards a more viscous approach in plankton ecology

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Received December 17, 2014; accepted August 4, 2015

Corresponding editor: John Dolan

Rheology is the study of how materials deform, particularly those materials not conforming to ideal solid or ideal liquid models. This is the case for much ocean water, due largely to the presence of organic exopolymeric substances, including mucilage, derived mostly from phytoplankton and bacterioplankton. This material makes the water more viscous and gives it elasticity. Thalassorheology concerns the rheology of seawater and other natural waters. Ocean scientists and rheologists generally know little of each other's work. The aim of this paper is to show that collaboration would be beneficial to modelling the oceans, and to guide the formation of interdisciplinary teams, and a working has been formed for this purpose.

KEYWORDS: rheology; polymers; exopolymeric substances; harmful algal blooms; phytoplankton; zooplankton; bacterioplankton; climate change; viscosity; biology-physics interaction

#### INTRODUCTION

Nearly 30 years have elapsed since Jenkinson (Jenkinson, 1986) measured viscosity increased up to 400 times in phytoplankton cultures, while Carlson (Carlson, 1987)

and Zhang *et al.* (Zhang *et al.*, 2003) measured increased bulk-phase viscosity in water from, respectively, seasurface slicks and the sea-surface micro-layer. Jenkinson (Jenkinson, 1986) also cited published reports of striking

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bulk(-phase) rheological properties in phytoplankton blooms described as viscous, slimy, ropy or springy, like egg white, and in which phytoplankton mucus clogged and even broke fishing nets, as well as trapping gas bubbles and mineral particles. Jenkinson (Jenkinson, 1993b) and Jenkinson and Biddanda (Jenkinson and Biddanda, 1995) measured viscosity and elasticity in seawater, and found that viscosity was positively related to chlorophyll a levels. Viscosity was measured in P. globosa blooms by Seuront et al. (Seuront et al., 2006, 2007), Seuront and Vincent (Seuront and Vincent, 2008) and Kesaulya et al. (Kesaulya et al., 2008). These authors showed how viscosity and foam formation, as well as zooplankton swimming, is modified by Phaeocystis-derived exopolymeric substances (EPS), as a function of the development phase of Phaeocystis blooms.

Figure 1 shows accumulation of *Phaeocystis* sp.-produced foam. EPS can also form aggregates of gel (thus of much increased viscosity), up 1 m in size. Figure 2 shows a giant organic aggregate of EPS, which can form during "mucus events," for example in the Northern Adriatic (Stachowitsch, 1984). These examples are exceptional events representing only the "tip of the iceberg" in EPS thickening of natural waters. Despite the many published observations of large, exceptional increases in viscosity, few quantitative data on biologically modulated natural-water viscosity are yet available, to allow modelling of their effects.

This paper briefly intends to bridge the gap between organic matter (OM) dynamics and thalassorheology, which is the rheology, particularly the viscosity, of ocean water and other natural waters. We aim to draw attention to this promising and novel area of research and to stimulate further field and experimental work to improve models of different ocean processes at scales from micrometre to millimetre (see next section).

We expressly consider only molecular viscosity, which is defined either as dynamic viscosity  $\eta$  or as kinematic viscosity  $\nu = \eta / \rho$ , where  $\rho$  is fluid density. Turbulent viscosity, which exists only at scales above the length scale of the smallest turbulent structures, at which the Reynolds number = 1 (Kolmogorov, 1962), is outside our scope. The paper will, however, consider the effects of swarming and synchronized swimming on viscosity. We also stress that communities of marine scientists and rheologists are too little aware of each other, and this hampers progress that would result from a trans-disciplinary thalassorheological approach. The aim of this Horizons paper is not to review the field, which was initiated by Jenkinson and Sun (Jenkinson and Sun, 2010), but rather to draw the attention of the ocean and freshwater plankton research community to how thalassorheology in its different aspects, constrains and is manipulated by the plankton, with major effects caused by cascading to scales from



Fig. 1. Foam on the beach at Yamba, north of Sydney, Australia, produced from EPS, believed to be primarily secreted by *Phaeocystis* sp. Remastered from http://cfb.unh.edu/phycokey/Choices/Prymnesiophyceae /PHAEOCYSTIS/Phaeocystis\_Image\_page.html#pic08 (consulted 30 July 2015). (c) Icon Images.



Fig. 2. Marine organic mega-aggregate during a mucus event in the northern Adriatic. Its form reflects deformation by a large turbulent eddy. Remastered from Stachowitsch *et al.* (Stachowitsch *et al.*, 1984).

the subcellular to the global. Symmetrically, other work is needed to draw thalassorheology to the attention of the rheological community.

#### THALASSORHEOLOGY

Molecular (i.e. non-turbulent) viscosity is produced by friction between its molecules of water and salt (scale ~0.1 nm) and of molecules of EPS (scale > ~100 nm) (Conlisk, 2013). To learn more about rheology, readers are referred to textbooks such as Barnes *et al.* (Barnes *et al.*, 1989) or online sources such as Wikipedia (Wikipedia, 2015). Viscosity controls most hydrodynamic processes at the ocean micro-scale, within which most currently studied planktonic processes occur. The present paper thus considers only properties measured and processes occurring at length scales from 1  $\mu$ m to ~1 cm. These include viral, bacterial and parasitic infection, nutrient uptake, aggregate formation, light harvesting, competition, predation and much social behaviour. At scales smaller than  $\sim 1 \,\mu$ m, viscosity grades into microviscosity and surface science, and is treated elsewhere (Jenkinson, 2014; Mohammed, 2015; Jenkinson *et al.*, in press).

Secondary effects can cascade across length scales, for example down to molecule-scale chemistry and up to global-scale biogeochemistry. Examples of cascading to larger scales are given by Ho and Nosseir (Ho and Nosseir, 1981) for small turbulence structures morphing into larger structures, by Calleja *et al.* (Calleja *et al.*, 2009) for OM in the sea-surface layer driving global-scale dynamics of CO<sub>2</sub>, by Prairie *et al.* (Prairie *et al.*, 2012) for up- and down-scale cascading of biophysical interactions in plankton, by Mitchell *et al.* (Mitchell *et al.*, 2008) for cascading from the primary scales of plankton organisms up to those of fisheries and productivity and finally by Falkowski *et al.* (Falkowski *et al.*, 2008) for scale transfer from microbes to Earth-scale biogeochemical cycles.

Seawater viscosity is generally, often just implicitly, considered to be controlled by temperature and salinity (i.e. by water and salt molecules) alone. The role of EPS in modulating seawater viscosity is poorly known despite claims that polymers and mucus may be used by phytoplankton to manage, or engineer, flow fields (Margalef, 1978; Jenkinson, 1986; Wyatt and Ribera d'Alcalà, 2006) and many other aspects of their environment (Reynolds, 2007; Harel *et al.*, 2012).

Under the assumption of spatially and temporally homogeneous viscosity produced by EPS, Jenkinson (Jenkinson, 1986, 1993b) modelled how increased viscosity in the sea would damp isotropic turbulence by increasing the length and time scales of Kolmogorov eddies. The widely observed biological modifications of seawater viscosity (Jenkinson and Sun, 2010) are compatible with a habitat modification that creates more favourable, turbulence-free, conditions critical for the development of plankton such as dinoflagellates (Margalef, 1978; Margalef *et al.*, 1980; Wyatt, 2014) and colony-forming *Phaeocystis*.

A body of literature on measurements and the effects of thalassorheology is growing (Jenkinson, 1986, 1993b, 2014; Seuront *et al.*, 2006, 2007, 2010; Kesaulya *et al.*, 2008; Rhodes, 2008; Seuront and Vincent, 2008; Jenkinson and Sun, 2011). Jenkinson and Sun (Jenkinson and Sun, 2010) reviewed thalassorheology, while Jenkinson (Jenkinson, 2014) and Mohammed (Mohammed, 2015) provide reviews of small-scale and surface effects in relation to plankton.

Despite considerable recent efforts to couple biological and physical measurements (Doubell *et al.*, 2009), there remains a lack of measurements of ocean viscosity at spatial and temporal resolution compatible with that of turbulence and with that of turbulence measurements.

## ORGANIC MATTER IN NATURAL WATERS

OM in natural waters may be classified into dissolved OM (DOM, in the range  $0.1-0.5 \mu$ m), and larger particulate OM (POM) (Chin *et al.*, 1998) that scale up to 5-m-sized aggregates observed in the Northern Adriatic (Fig. 2) (Stachowitsch, 1984; Žutić and Svetličić, 2006). Most DOM and POM in the oceans originate from primary production (Hansell *et al.*, 2009), and a large proportion from EPS (Thornton, 2014). Intermediate between DOM and POM in molecular mass and mechanical (rheological) properties, the class of colloidal OM is sometimes distinguished.

In the oceans, the total amount of DOM is more than 200 times that of the biomass (Hansell *et al.*, 2009), with a mean concentration of ~0.5 g C m<sup>-3</sup>. Most of this DOM is recalcitrant, with a half-life of millennia (Jiao *et al.*, 2010), and is distributed fairly homogeneously. Surfacewater DOM concentrations range upwards from 0.48 g C m<sup>-3</sup>, with typical values around 0.90 g C m<sup>-3</sup> in the tropics and subtropics, but only 0.48, 0.60 g C m<sup>-3</sup> in sub-polar seas and the Southern Ocean. Concentrations of POM are considered by Druffel *et al.* (Druffel *et al.*, 1992) to be 10- to 30-fold less than those of DOM.

In laboratory systems of natural seawater rendered abiotic, some of the DOM spontaneously aggregates into POM; while some POM also dissolves into DOM (Chin et al., 1998). In the natural environment, biological processes also both produce and consume DOM, as well as POM of different size classes. Thornton (Thornton, 2014) further suggested that compounds of unknown function dominate DOM release by phytoplankton, but some biological functions are known. Sharp (Sharp, 1977) famously asked, "Excretion of organic matter by marine phytoplankton: do healthy cells do it?" In the light of abundant later evidence that they do, Bjørnsen (Bjørnsen, 1988) asked "Why?" Wyatt and Ribera d'Alcalà (Wyatt and Ribera d'Alcalà, 2006) answered that phytoplankton cells do it, partly, for "ecosystem engineering" (Jones et al., 1994), also referred to as "environmental management" (Jenkinson and Wyatt, 1995) or "niche-construction" (Odling-Smee et al., 2003). Wyatt and Ribera d'Alcalà (Wyatt and Ribera d'Alcalà, 2006) proposed many examples of ecological engineering, and then asked a third question, "Do healthy cells have external tissues?" Examples of ecosystem engineering include colony production and maintenance, one role of which may be "keeping the family from drifting apart" (Jenkinson and Wyatt, 1992), and facilitation of both quorum sensing (Ragni and Ribera d'Alcalà, 2004) and quorum action (Quesada et al., 2006) by groups, swarms or colonies of cells.

Evidence of "lumpy" or heterogeneous rheology, perhaps contributed at least partly by organic flocs comes from at least four sources:

- Jenkinson (Jenkinson, 1993b) reported variability in EPS viscosity within 1-L seawater samples, and suggested that "centimetre-scale (or smaller) flocculation may have occurred in the samples during storage and transport";
- (ii) micro-scale heterogeneity in phytoplankton concentration within a Niskin bottle (Wolk *et al.*, 2004);
- (iii) spontaneous formation of POM from DOM in seawater by abiological processes (Chin *et al.*, 1998);
- (iv) the aggregation found in phytoplankton fluorescence at sub-centimetre scales (Doubell *et al.*, 2009).

The presence of flocs, or "lumps," is likely to make both mean and variance of EPS viscosity a function of length scale (Jenkinson and Sun, 2011). Further candidate parameters defining this function are size, shape and material properties of the flocs. While the shear rates of rheological measurements had been designed roughly to match those of turbulent eddies at typical ocean shear rates, the length scale of measurements, corresponding to gap between the inner and outer rotating cylinders in a Couette-type rheometer (Barnes *et al.*, 1989; Jenkinson, 1993b), was usually 0.5 mm, zero to two orders of magnitude smaller. Since the 1990s, the science of Rheology is increasingly addressing problems of heterogeneous materials (Coussot, 2005), and thus provides inspiration for modelling and measuring lumpy seawater viscosity.

#### ORGANIC MATTER AND THALASSORHEOLOGY

Miyake and Koizumi (Miyake and Koizumi, 1948) provided measurements of seawater viscosity as a function of temperature and chlorinity, using high shear rate capillary flow. They reported, "The most important source of error might be due to a delicate change in the condition of the inner wall of the capillary." Jenkinson (Jenkinson, 1993b) already suggested this "error" may have been caused by OM. Carlson (Carlson, 1987) observed water from sea-surface slicks to be syrupy, and using a proxy, fluorescence depolarization, measured increased bulkphase viscosity in water from them.

Although thalassorheology has been measured and reviewed over the last three decades, it has, however, still been relatively seldom considered in co-ordinated plankton research projects. Examples of its manifestation include bubbles that were prevented from rising in a red tide of *Karenia mikimotoi* (Jenkinson and Connors, 1980). In phytoplankton cultures (Jenkinson, 1986), viscosity up to 400 times that of the culture medium was measured at a shear rate of  $0.0021 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The elastic modulus of both seawater and phytoplankton cultures is typically  $\sim 10\%$ that of the excess viscous modulus, and total viscosity is that of the aquatic phase (water and dissolved salt) plus that of the OM. The molecular (i.e. non-turbulent) viscosity of the water phase is Newtonian (it depends only on temperature and salinity, and remains constant irrespective of shear rate or length scales down to those of the water-molecule shells,  $\sim 0.2$ , 0.3 nm) (Conlisk, 2013). That of the EPS phase, however, is generally shearthinning (i.e. non-Newtonian): the faster it shears, the less viscous (i.e. "thinner") it becomes. So generally, as shear rate is increased, total viscosity thins asymptotically towards the viscosity of the aqueous phase, while the slower the water shears, the more viscous the whole water becomes. Further, seawater viscosity generally shows a positive relationship with chlorophyll a concentration (e.g. Jenkinson and Biddanda, 1995; Seuront et al., 2006, 2007), confirming its principal origin as phytoplanktonassociated EPS, although marine macroalgae (Boney, 1981) and bacteria (Pedrotti et al., 2010) also secrete polysaccharides, which supports findings of correlation between increased viscosity and bacterial abundance in Antarctic waters (Seuront et al., 2010).

#### PHAEOCYSTIS AND VISCOSITY

Jenkinson and Biddanda (Jenkinson and Biddanda, 1995) found a positive relationship between viscoelastic properties of the water and *Phaeocystis* abundance under bloom conditions. This was further refined with evidence that Phaeocystis globosa blooms increase seawater viscosity up to 4-fold in the eastern English Channel (Seuront et al., 2006, 2007; Kesaulya et al., 2008; Seuront and Vincent, 2008). More specifically, no correlations were observed by these authors between viscosity and chlorophyll a under non-bloom conditions, i.e. typically for concentrations below  $5 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$  (Seuront *et al.*, 2006, 2007; Seuront and Vincent, 2008). In contrast, viscosity was often strongly positively correlated with chlorophyll a concentration during the onset of *P. globosa* blooms, but foam formation led to negative correlation, indicating that at the foam-forming stage of the bloom, there occurred spatial separation between the viscous polymeric materials and the flagellated Phaeocystis cells (Seuront et al., 2006, 2007; Seuront and Vincent, 2008). Seuront et al. (Seuront et al., 2007) furthermore found that viscosity and chlorophyll *a* concentration sampled in a 3D grid of samplers 5 cm apart by a pneumatically operated water sampler (Seuront and Menu, 2006) often varied strongly over this 5-cm length scale. In these studies,

viscosity was measured in a *ViscoLab*400 viscometer consisting of a piston oscillating longitudinally inside a cylinder, the measuring gap between the piston and cylinder being 230  $\mu$ m (Seuront *et al.*, 2007) or in a Contraves Low-shear 30 or Low-shear 40 rheometer using a bob-and-cup measuring system with a 500- $\mu$ m measuring gap.

#### THALASSORHEOLOGY IN THIN LAYERS AND DENSITY DISCONTINUITIES, AND OUTSIDE THEM

Plankton, OM, chlorophyll a and aggregates often concentrate in subsurface thin layers (TLs). TLs are consensually defined as being no more than 3 m thick (Raine, 2014). They can be up to many kilometres in lateral extent, and frequently coincide with, or occur just above or below structures of high-density gradient (Alldredge et al., 2002; Jenkinson and Sun, 2010; Farrell et al., 2014). The OM is sometimes generated by phytoplankton in the TL, or it may have sunk or risen from outside the TL to accumulate in it (Villareal et al., 1996; Alldredge et al., 2002; Hung et al., 2003; McManus et al., 2003; Azetsu-Scott and Passow, 2004; Mari, 2008; Wang and Goodman, 2009; Baltar et al., 2010). To investigate whether the OM in these TLs reinforces the associated density discontinuities, Jenkinson and Sun (Jenkinson and Sun, 2011) modelled stabilization of density discontinuities by hierarchically lumpy viscosity, incorporating a length-scale exponent of rheological properties, d; when d = 0, the medium is homogeneous, and the medium is increasingly lumpy with increasing d. To investigate d empirically, Jenkinson and Sun (Jenkinson and Sun, 2014) then measured the viscosity of cultures of harmful-bloom phytoplankton and a bacterium at a range of length scales in low Reynolds number flowing through capillaries of different radii. Drag increase, ascribed to increased EPS viscosity, was clearly detected, but drag reduction also occurred unexpectedly in some trials, and interfered with the results, preventing determination of d. Hydrophobic surface effects might cause this drag reduction (Jenkinson, 2014; Jenkinson and Sun, 2014), which imply that phytoplankton and bacteria in pycnocline-associated TLs might be sometimes either increasing or decreasing viscosity around their bodies, thus engineering the environment, and possibility also changing the physical stability of pycnoclines (Jenkinson and Sun, 2011). Such engineering is likely to be partly under genetic control, and thus subject to (neo-)Darwinian evolution.

In the bulk of the ocean, outside of TLs and density discontinuities, to what extent does the background DOM change the background viscoelasticity, and is this enough to have ecological or biogeochemical consequences? Wells and Goldberg (Wells and Goldberg, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994) showed the presence of colloidal matter in the oceans, and that it forms spontaneously from DOM, giving submicron-sized aggregates, while sinking organic particles also sequester DOM (Hansell *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore, bacteria (Puddu *et al.*, 2003), appendicularians (Flood *et al.*, 1992) and other organisms take-up DOM. While much of this DOM is respired, some is packaged by grazing, promoting a cascade in length scales from dissolved up to 1 to  $\sim 10^3 \,\mu$ m. Sometimes this OM will be secreted again as EPS.

The rheological properties of this "background" DOM and colloidal matter are little known. Although Jenkinson (Jenkinson, 1993b) measured them and modelled their effects on turbulence, but, as mentioned above, his modelling assumed viscosity to be independent of length scale. More sophisticated rheometry is required over a range of length scales and shear rates (Jenkinson and Sun, 2014) by interdisciplinary teams (Jenkinson and Sun, 2010) to assess whether and how this DOM significantly impacts ecological and biogeochemical processes, and whether it needs to be incorporated into models of ocean change.

#### CLOGGING AND FLOW REDUCTION

Plankton nets (mesh size in the 20-1000 µm range) become clogged under tow, particularly during blooms of phytoplankton or gelatinous zooplankton (Smith et al., 1968). Similarly, filters such as those used for retaining plankton and POM, such as in desalination plants (Villacorte et al., in press; Balzano et al., 2014), become clogged particularly when a large biomass of phytoplankton is present. Some harmful algae cultures at typical bloom concentrations were also found to be so viscous they reduced or stopped flow in fish gills (flow way width  $\sim 30 \,\mu\text{m}$ ) enough to kill the fish (Jenkinson and Arzul, 1998, 2002; Jenkinson et al., 2007b). Similarly, EPS in benthic sediment sometimes reduce flow in the gills of juvenile fish that live in it (Couturier et al., 2007, 2008; Jenkinson et al., 2007a). Blooms of the mucus-secreting dinoflagellate Karenia mikimotoi (formerly known as Gyrodinium aureolum) have been modelled (Jenkinson, 1989) and observed (Robin et al., 2013) to kill fishes when their EPS asphyxiates the fishes either because it makes the water so viscous that the fish use up more oxygen in pumping the water over their gills than they can extract from this water, or when it clogs fish gills (which may often amount to the same thing). In some cases, particulate cell debris may contribute to the clogging (Kim *et al.*, 2001). Differential sticking or slipping of the EPS at the surfaces of nets, membranes or gills is likely to have important effects on clogging and nanometre- to micrometre-scale viscosity (Conlisk, 2013; Jenkinson, 2014).

## SWIMMING, SWARMING AND VISCOSITY CHANGES

Viscosity is primarily modulated by temperature (Miyake and Koizumi, 1948). So early empirical investigations assessed to what extent the effects of temperature change on invertebrate swimming was partitioned between viscosity change and physiological change. This partitioning was investigated for swimming speed and ciliary water movement in *Dendraster excentricus* larvae (Podolsky and Emlet, 1993) and the swimming and sinking velocity in larvae of the serpulid polychaete *Galeolaria caespitosa* (Bolton and Havenhand, 1997). In both cases, the decrease in seawater viscosity with increasing temperature was found to be responsible for part of the positive relationship observed between swimming speed and temperature.

Seuront and Vincent (Seuront and Vincent, 2008) showed that swimming trajectories of *Temora longicornis* were more convoluted in high-viscosity *P globosa* bloom water than in clear water, suggesting that these copepods avoid zones of high EPS viscosity. Specifically, increased viscosity reduced swimming velocity and increased swimming-path complexity. The authors suggested these two effects may have been related to an area-restricted foraging strategy triggered by the patchiness of phytoplankton biomass and EPS, rather than an adaptive response to the increase in viscosity. Work is still needed on the effects of patchy increased viscosity on swimming, not just in microplankton, but also by nano- and pico-plankton.

Swarming, that is co-ordinated movement in aggregates of organisms, is widespread in motile ocean zooplankton (Wilhelmus and Dabiri, 2014), protists (Jiang et al., 2002; Kaartvedt et al., 2005; Persson et al., 2013) and bacteria (McCarter, 1999; Partridge and Harshey, 2013). In swarming by single-celled organisms, both increased and decreased viscosity has been modelled (Gyrya et al., 2011; Thutupalli et al., 2011). Specifically, cells with flagella that push the cell forward (i.e. pushers), such as many bacteria, tend to reduce the viscosity of the medium. In turn, cells with flagella the pull the cell forward (pullers), such as many eukaryotic flagellates, tend to increase the viscosity. Sokolov and Aranson (Sokolov and Aranson, 2009) measured up to 7-fold reduction of viscosity in suspensions of living bacteria Bacillus subtilis compared with the viscosity of medium without bacteria or medium with dead bacteria, while Gachelin et al (Gachelin et al., 2013) measured corresponding but less marked viscosity reductions in *Escherichia coli* at shear rates  $\leq 1$  up to 2 s<sup>-1</sup> and at volume fractions <0.25% up to 1.7%. Rather sensationally, working also with suspensions of living E. coli, López et al. (López et al., 2015) measured that at volume fraction of  $0.4^{\circ}$ % and shear rate of only  $0.04 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , viscosity of the whole suspension (organisms plus suspending liquid) could be reduced so much that total viscosity became negative. They used a Contraves Low-shear 30 rheometer, the same as or similar to that used for measuring the viscoelasticity of cultures and seawater by Jenkinson (Jenkinson, 1986, 1993a,b) and by Jenkinson and Biddanda (Jenkinson and Biddanda, 1995), so that the two sets of measurements can be easily compared. Eukaryote flagellates, in contrast are mostly pullers; Rafaï et al. (Rafaï et al., 2010) measured that suspensions of volume fraction 2-15% of one of them, Chlamydomonas reinhardii increased viscosity by a factor of up to two relative to a corresponding suspension of dead cells, at a shear rate of  $5 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . While increased volume fraction of cells facilitates viscosity change by swarmers, significant effects have been measured at volume fraction <1%.

From the viewpoint of individual microorganisms, rather than swarms, Qin et al. (Qin et al., 2015) review considerable literature on swimming in elastic and viscoelastic fluids. They then report their own observations of swimming by Chlamydomonas, made at relatively low viscosities and shear rates of 1-10 mPa s, and 6 s<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, concluding that they found that "the net swimming speed of the alga is hindered for fluids that are sufficiently elastic," and more generally, that "the emerging viewpoint is that fluid microstructure and swimming kinematics together impact motility in a non-linear manner." More observations, however, are needed at the lower shear rates characteristic of ocean processes (Jenkinson and Sun, 2010) and at the smaller volume fractions characteristic of plankton swarms in situ, including in marine snow, in algal blooms and close to surfaces.

## EFFECTS OF ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGE

The oceans are warming and acidifying (Hallegraeff, 2010). At least in many coastal areas, plankton biomass (Anderson *et al.*, 2012) and mucus (Danovaro *et al.*, 2009) are increasing. Ocean warming reduces aquatic-phase viscosity, but increases in plankton biomass and mucus will increase EPS viscosity. Modelling suggests that high levels of turbulence increase primary and secondary production (Allen *et al.*, 2004). Turbulence intensities characteristic of storm conditions were empirically observed by Beauvais *et al.* (Beauvais *et al.*, 2003) and by Garrison and Tang (Garrison and Tang, 2014) to increase the amount of EPS secreted by phytoplankton. Furthermore, intense turbulence has been

observed to reduce EPS sinking (Pedrotti *et al.*, 2010). Increased acidity may be promoting more buoyancy of marine organic aggregates (Mari, 2008), suggesting that this increasing EPS viscosity might accumulate at and near the sea surface. Surface OM content reduces air-sea  $CO_2$  flux (Calleja *et al.*, 2009), apparently due to its mechanical properties (Goldman *et al.*, 1988). These effects and the consequences of changing the depth-distribution of viscosity and OM, including at the sea-surface micro-layer, need to be better studied and incorporated into models of the effects of climate and pH change.

#### FUTURE DIRECTIONS

In the last 20 years, there has been consensual demand for more study of viscosity and rheology in the oceans, particularly in regard to harmful algal blooms, mucilage secretion and plankton thin layers (ICES/IOC, 1995; GEOHAB, 2008, 2013; Berdalet et al., 2014). Rheology and ocean science are both extremely interdisciplinary. A major problem is that ocean scientists and rheologists generally are not experts in each other's subject. A working group (WG), "Rheology, nano- and micro-Fluidics and bioFouling in the Oceans" (RheFFO) of experts in these different fields now exists, partly to dynamize new approaches to the way rheology of EPS modulates ecological and biogeochemical processes in the oceans as well as gill- and filter-clogging, toxic action fluidics, surface science and biofouling. It is foreseen that the WG will act to guide RheFFO research and capacity building, to help find the required infrastructure and to do interdisciplinary research on RheFFO. A web site is available at http://acro .pagespro-orange.fr/RheFFO/index.htm.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful to three anonymous reviewers for their extremely helpful comments.

#### FUNDING

Project supported by the Natural Basic Research Program of China (No. 2011CB403601, No. 2014CB441504), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 41230963). Supported also under Australian Research Council's Discovery Projects (project numbers DP0664681 and DP0988554) to L.S., and by Australian Professorial Fellowship (project number DP0988554) to L.S. Supported by an Action concertée "Jeunes chercheurs" #3058 from the French Ministry of Research to L.S., the CPER "*Phaeocystis*" (France) to L.S., and French PNEC "Chantier Manche Orientale-Sud Mer du Nord" to L.S. and to I.R.J. This is publication #2 of the RheFFO Working Group.

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