

1 VARIATIONS IN TOLERANCE TO CLIMATE CHANGE IN A KEY LITTORAL HERBIVORE

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23 IM and JS performed the experiment. LR and IM analysed the data. LR led the writing of the

24 manuscript; all authors contributed to the text.

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26 Abstract

27 Changes in global climate patterns are affecting marine ecosystems, challenging
28 species' environmental tolerances, and driving shifts in their distributions. In the Baltic Sea, a
29 brackish water body with low biodiversity, the isopod *Idotea balthica* is a key herbivore
30 species that has a strong top-down effect on habitat-forming macrophytes. Our aim is to
31 understand how the predicted future combination of hyposalinity and warming will affect the
32 survival of this mesograzer throughout the Baltic Sea. By conducting a manipulative
33 aquarium experiment, we simulated future conditions and measured the survival, at different
34 spatial scales, of replicated populations from the entrance, central, and marginal Baltic Sea
35 regions. Overall, the survival rate was strongly affected by the predicted future combination
36 of hyposalinity and warming, but the intensity of the impact varied both among and within
37 regions. Populations from the marginal Baltic Sea responded negatively to climate change.
38 Populations within the entrance varied in their survival responses, with the geographic
39 variation suggesting the existence of spatially distributed genetic variation in tolerance to
40 climate change. In summary, the future combination of hyposalinity and warming is likely to
41 induce a southward shift in the distribution of *I. balthica* in the northeast marginal region of
42 the Baltic Sea. However, the geographic variation in tolerance shown by the entrance
43 populations indicates that, for this Baltic region, the species may contain the potential for
44 future adaptive responses in tolerance to climate change.

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48 Keywords: Global warming, tolerance, Isopoda, desalination, *Fucus*, mesograzer.

49 INTRODUCTION

50 Climate change is rapidly modifying marine ecosystems, with impacts already
51 indisputable all over the planet (Dunn et al. 2005, Harley et al. 2006, Hoegh-Guldberg et al.
52 2007, Poloczanska et al. 2007, Przeslawski et al. 2008, Brierley & Kingsford 2009, Vergés et
53 al. 2014). Changes in many coastal marine areas are projected to include rising surface water
54 temperature and decreasing salinity due to increased precipitation and freshwater run-off
55 (Antonov 2002, Boyer et al. 2005, Meier & Eilola 2011). Ocean warming is already affecting
56 marine ecosystems by provoking the decreased abundance or local extinction of a high
57 number of marine species worldwide (Coma et al. 2009, Harvell et al. 1999, 2004, Knight et
58 al. 2017) as well as shifts in the geographical distribution of species (Hoffman et al. 2011).
59 Two of the primary drivers of these shifts are the reduction in benthic oxygen content in the
60 coastal zones (Altieri and Gedan, 2015) and the modification of species interactions
61 (Helmuth et al. 2006, Harvey et al. 2014, Lenoir and Svenning 2015, Werner et al. 2015 and
62 literature therein). In addition to temperature, seawater salinity is one of the main abiotic
63 factors influencing the survival, growth rate, and reproduction of marine organisms (Qiu and
64 Qian 1999, Normant and Lamprecht 2006, Łapucki and Normant 2008, Torres et al. 2011,
65 Wrange et al. 2014). Due to the all-encompassing nature of climate change, seawater
66 temperature and salinity will change in concert, and synergistic or antagonistic interactions
67 may arise. Because of this, it is important to focus on the combined effects of these stressors
68 (Crain et al. 2008), which have thus far been largely ignored in marine climate change studies
69 (Wernberg et al. 2012).

70 Climate-driven environmental changes are likely to induce shifts in species'
71 distributional ranges and act as selective pressures for organismal traits. A species facing an
72 environmental change may either tolerate it and persist or go extinct locally (Hoffmann et al.
73 2011). The short-term persistence of a species during environmental change is therefore

74 determined by its tolerance: the population persists if the experienced environmental change
75 is within its tolerance range. Long-term persistence can be attained through natural selection
76 for increased tolerance, and adaptive evolution occurs if the species contains enough genetic
77 variation in a trait responsible for tolerance (Pauls et al. 2013, Bell and Gonzalez 2009).
78 Hence, to predict the future persistence and distribution of a species under climate change
79 conditions, information about both the species' tolerance and its underlying genetic variation
80 is necessary.

81 Within their distributional range, species typically show a population structure in
82 which the local populations are isolated from each other to a varying degree. Thus, tolerance
83 and its genetic variation may differ among local populations, which further complicates
84 predictions of the species' response to environmental change (Valladares et al. 2014, Saada et
85 al. 2016). Two different scenarios of population variations in the local environment can be
86 envisioned. First, selective pressures may vary locally among populations (Kawecki & Ebert
87 2004), and with the passing of time, this process results in populations that are locally
88 adapted and unique in their tolerance traits (Sanford and Kelly 2011, Lamichhaney et al.
89 2012, Wrangé et al. 2014, Defaveri 2014, D'Angelo et al. 2015, Muir et al. 2016). Second,
90 instead of genetic differentiation due to local adaptation, phenotypic plasticity of the
91 tolerance traits may evolve, leading to wide ranges in tolerance to the varying environmental
92 factors. In this case, different local populations are expected to show similarly broad
93 tolerances (Crispo, 2008).

94 The Baltic Sea provides an excellent model with which to study the combined effects
95 of climate-change-related stressors on populations along an environmental gradient.
96 Biodiversity in the Baltic Sea is strongly shaped by the young age of the sea and pronounced
97 gradients of decreasing salinity and temperature from the North Sea entrance towards the
98 northern and eastern margins (Lass et al. 2008). As climate change progresses in the Baltic

99 Sea catchment, warming and desalination are predicted to proceed in concert (Meier et al.
100 2012). While the genetic diversity of Baltic Sea organisms is generally lower than that of
101 their counterparts in the Atlantic, the genetic composition of populations does change along
102 the gradient (Johannesson & Andre 2006), which is expected to reinforce isolation and
103 population differentiation as well as promote local adaptations (Johannesson et al. 2011). As
104 the ability to cope with thermal and osmotic conditions limits the distributions of marine
105 communities (Bonsdorff et al. 2015), Baltic Sea biodiversity is generally very low and
106 ecosystem functions can be dependent on only a few key species (Leidenberger et al. 2012).

107 One such key species is the isopod *Idotea balthica* (Pallas, 1772), which is one of the
108 predominant herbivores in Baltic Sea littoral ecosystems. Its distribution covers the whole
109 Baltic Sea, and extends to the northern and eastern margins where the low salinity (2.7 PSU)
110 sets the distributional range of this species (Leidenberger et al. 2012). This mesograzer has
111 strong top-down effects, both negative and positive, on populations of habitat-forming
112 macrophytes such as the bladder wrack *Fucus vesiculosus* (Nilsson et al. 2004). Herbivory by
113 this isopod may sometimes remove 60-70% of *F. vesiculosus* biomass (Jormalainen and
114 Ramsay 2009, Haavisto & Jormalainen 2014), and in particular, this herbivory was proposed
115 to be responsible for the decline in *F. vesiculosus* populations off the Finnish coast in the
116 1970s (Kangas et al. 1982, Haahtela 1984). Furthermore, it has been suggested that herbivory
117 by *I. balthica* limits the southern distributional range of the endemic bladder wrack species *F.*
118 *radicans* (Gunnarsson & Berglund 2012). On the other hand, *I. balthica* also feeds on
119 filamentous algae (Ravanko 1969, Goecker and Kåll 2003, Orav-Kotta and Kotta 2004), and
120 this may facilitate the growth of *F. vesiculosus* by limiting competition and epibiotism. This
121 isopod species is, thus, a key littoral herbivore capable of affecting the community
122 composition of primary producers and also represents an important link for the transfer of
123 energy and matter in the littoral food web.

124 Even though the lifespan of *I. balthica* is over one year (Salemaa, 1979) and it
125 experiences the whole seasonality of the Baltic Sea, our knowledge concerning the biology of
126 *I. balthica* in the winter time and its possible vertical migration is still poor (Wood et al.
127 2014). Temperature plays an important role for the biology of this species, since no moulting
128 occurs during winter, and growth is delayed until spring, when the animals start to grow fast
129 before the breeding season (Salemaa 1979). Climate models from Meier et al (2012) indicate
130 that summer averaged surface seawater temperature will increase by 3-4°C in the Baltic Sea
131 by the 2069-2099. Whether the future summer temperature be within the tolerance range of *I.*
132 *balthica* is of primary importance for the persistence of this species.

133 In the present study, we tested for the first time the combined effect of expected
134 future desalination and warming throughout the Baltic Sea on the survival of the herbivore *I.*
135 *balthica*. Further, this research is focused on the among population variation in tolerance
136 throughout the species' distributional range along the salinity gradient of the Baltic Sea. As a
137 proxy for tolerance to future conditions, we used the difference in survival between current
138 and future conditions. Because the natural salinity and temperature gradients are strong, and
139 the effects of climate change are predicted to vary among different regions of the Baltic Sea,
140 (Meier et al. 2012), we used current and predicted summer averaged conditions that were
141 specific to each region. By testing the tolerance of several populations of this key herbivore
142 to future conditions, we aim to understand if and how the tolerance to climate change vary
143 along the species' distributional range. If such tolerance variation among population is found,
144 this is likely an indication of standing genetic variation that could provide the raw material
145 necessary for adaptation to future conditions.

146

147 MATERIALS AND METHODS

148 *Sampling*

149 We sampled a total of eight populations of *I. balthica* between the 6th of May and 25th
150 of June 2015 from the three regions of the Baltic Sea: entrance, central, and marginal (Fig. 1,
151 Table 1). We sampled three populations from the central and marginal regions, while for
152 logistic reasons we were able to sample only two populations from the entrance region. From
153 each population, we collected 60 females and 30 males. Sampling sites of populations were
154 randomly chosen within each region to represent the distributional range of the species along
155 the Baltic Sea salinity gradient. We kept at least 50-km distance between sampling sites in
156 order to include sufficient geographic variability. The isopods were collected from *Fucus*
157 *vesiculosus* at a depth of 1-3 metres by snorkelling. We placed the samples in polystyrene
158 cooling boxes with seawater and several *F. vesiculosus* thalli as food and habitat, and
159 transported them to the Archipelago Research Institute (University of Turku, Finland) at Seili
160 (60° 14' N, 21° 58' E). The isopods from the marginal region were sampled on 6th-8th of May
161 and were introduced into the aquarium racks on the 20th of May. Isopods from the central
162 populations were sampled on 8th-12th of June and were introduced into the wracks on the 15th
163 June. Entrance populations were sampled on 25th of June and went to the aquaria after two
164 days. From the date of collection to the starting of the acclimation in the aquaria, we stored
165 the isopods in their original seawater from the sampling sites in a cold room (15°C).

166

167 *Experimental setup*

168

169 The Baltic Sea has a strong salinity gradient, going from 25 PSU near its entrance to
170 the Atlantic Sea to 7.5 PSU in the central region (the Baltic proper), to nearly freshwater in
171 the northern and eastern margins (Feistel et al. 2010). In order to represent this variability, we
172 exposed *I. balthica* to different climate conditions (current and future) using six independent
173 aquarium racks; each rack represented either the current or predicted future conditions of a

174 region (entrance, central, or marginal). The current conditions are calculated by averaging the
175 mean conditions (temperature and salinity) for June, obtained from the Baltic Nest Institute
176 <http://www.balticnest.org/>). The future expected a conditions are set according to the model
177 by Meier and Eilola 2011, by averaging the June conditions for the years 2069-2099 (Table
178 2). We used multiple climate drivers simultaneously to better reflect the change due the
179 climate change where salinity and temperature vary in concert. Each aquarium rack had
180 closed water circulation: the seawater was pumped from one head tank at the bottom of the
181 rack to three 54-litre tanks in which isopods were reared in individual containers. From there,
182 water drained back into the head tank, where it was filtered through mechanical and
183 biological filters and a protein skimmer and sterilised by UV rays. A heater/cooler unit
184 situated on each head tank regulated water temperature. The different water salinities for
185 current and future conditions were obtained by adding artificial sea salt to seawater or by
186 diluting it with distilled water. Two LED lamps (Radion™ XR30w Pro) per tank provided
187 light with a 14:10 h day/night cycle. Peak light intensity was set to $600 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ from
188 11:00 to 14:00, and light intensity slowly increased and decreased, respectively, before and
189 after this period. Each tank was provided with a water pump to create water movement and
190 help water oxygenation in the individual containers.

191 At the start of the experiment, we measured the length of each isopod and placed it
192 individually inside a cylinder-shaped translucent plastic tube (length: 10 cm, diameter: 4 cm).
193 For each population sampled, we exposed half of the isopods to the current conditions, and
194 the other half to the future ones. We observed some cannibalism between the collection and
195 the start of the experiment, therefore, the final number of isopods for some populations was
196 lower (Table 4). Each container was closed at both ends with a mesh-net to allow water
197 exchange. We slowly adjusted the salinity and temperature for the future-conditions
198 treatment over the course of five days to avoid potential hyposalinity and heat shock for the

199 isopods, with no mortality during this acclimation period. We fed isopods with both apical
200 and basal thallus pieces from several individuals of *F. vesiculosus*, changing food in five-day
201 periods. These pieces were randomly distributed *ad libitum* inside each tube as food and
202 substrate. All food algae were freshly collected from a nearby stand (60° 14' 38.0" N, 21° 59'
203 10.2" E). Every two days, isopods were checked to record survival and remove dead
204 individuals. Tanks were cleaned every five days to remove any accumulated faecal pellets.
205 We ended the manipulation experiment after 55 d, at which point about 70% of isopods had
206 died in future conditions.

207

208 *Statistical analysis*

209 Statistical analyses were conducted with the software SAS 9.4 (Allison, 2010). We
210 performed a regression analysis of survival based on the Cox proportional hazards model
211 (Kalbfleisch and Prentice, 1980) using the PHREG procedure (Rosenberg and Sirkus, 2011).
212 This analysis computes the baseline survivor functions by using the Breslow estimate and
213 performs a Wald Test to test the effect of covariates (climate change, region, population, and
214 sex, and all interactions among these factors) on the survival rate. We then simplified the
215 model by removing non-significant effects, starting from the higher-order interactions, with
216 the aid of the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC, Littel et al., 2006). The analysis was
217 adjusted for right-censored data (i.e. when some individuals survive until the end of the
218 study). Finally, we obtained the hazard ratio that relates the instantaneous probability of death
219 in future conditions to that in current conditions for different levels of covariates from the
220 Cox regression model, using the PHREG procedure.

221

222 RESULTS

223 Climate change conditions reduced the survival of *I. balthica* (Fig. 2, Table 3). The
224 mean survival time for isopods in future conditions was about 35% lower (mean \pm SE: $26.4 \pm$
225 2 d) than in the current conditions (40.7 ± 1.9 d). Notably, 96% of the deaths occurred before
226 the midpoint of the experiment (Fig. 2). Survival also varied among regions, populations, and
227 sexes (Table 3). Most interestingly, the responses to climate change varied among isopods
228 that originated from different regions, from different populations within regions, and between
229 sexes, as shown by the significant interactions of climate change with each of these three
230 factors (Table 3).

231 Because the survival response of *I. balthica* to climate change varied among different
232 regions (climate change-by-region interaction, Table 3, Fig. 2), we calculated the hazard
233 ratios (high, > 1 values indicating increased mortality in future conditions) separately for
234 each region. Isopods from the entrance region had a hazard ratio of 2.45, a value higher than
235 in the central region but lower than in the marginal region (Table 4); these individuals
236 survived on average 48 ± 1.5 d in current conditions and 39.1 ± 2.2 d in future conditions
237 (Fig. 2a). Isopods from the central region exhibited the lowest hazard ratio of the three
238 regions. However, this was caused by the poor survival of two out of three sampled
239 populations in both climate conditions. The third population exhibited a relatively high
240 hazard ratio (Fig. 2b, Table 4). The average value may poorly describe the central region due
241 to the among-population variation in hazard ratios and must be considered with caution. We
242 found the strongest impact of future conditions on survival in the marginal region. There, the
243 hazard ratio was the highest of the three regions (Table 4), with the average survival time in
244 future conditions being less than half of that in the current conditions (current: 43.5 ± 1.5 d;
245 future: 19.9 ± 1.6 d; Fig. 2c).

246 At a population level, the climate change treatment significantly affected the survival
247 rate of five of the eight populations (Table 4, Fig. 3). Notably, populations from the entrance
248 and central regions showed varying responses to future conditions. Among the two entrance
249 populations, only one (M) suffered in the future climate conditions, while the survival of the
250 other (He) did not vary significantly between climate treatments (Fig. 3, Table 4). This
251 population also showed the longest mean survival time of all populations in the experiment
252 (49 ± 1.75 d). From the central Baltic region, the survival of two of the three populations (V
253 and T) did not differ among climate conditions. For the third population (K), the hazard ratio
254 was significantly higher than one (Table 4), with 44% lower mean survival time in future
255 conditions (current: 45.1 ± 2.6 d; future: 29.8 ± 3.2 d). Finally, the future climate conditions
256 affected all the marginal populations: the hazard ratios of all populations were significantly
257 higher than one, and were the three highest values found in this experiment among all
258 populations (Table 4). The mean survival of these three populations (H, R, G) was 52, 49,
259 and 62% lower in future than in current conditions, respectively (H: current: 46.6 ± 2.3 d;
260 future: 22.3 ± 2.8 d; R: current: 44.5 ± 2.8 d; future: 22.8 ± 3 d; G: current: 39.7 ± 2.7 d;
261 future: 15.2 ± 2.3 d).

262 Sex was a significant predictor of survival (Table 3; mean survival for females: $30.7 \pm$
263 0.95 d; males: 33.3 ± 1.5 d). Furthermore, the survival response to climate change differed
264 between the sexes (Fig. 4, Tables 3 and 4): males showed higher tolerance to future
265 conditions than females did (Fig. 4). The survival performance of the sexes was consistent
266 among regions and populations (non-significant climate change-by-sex-by-region and climate
267 change-by-sex-by-population interactions were removed from the final model as described in
268 the methods).

269

270 DISCUSSION

271 This is the first study on the response to climate change of a marine mesograzer in
272 which the combined effect of predicted changes in salinity and temperature in the Baltic Sea
273 is measured. Salinity and temperature are expected to change in concert and the combined
274 effect we detected with our experimental conditions incorporates the possible interactive
275 effects of these changes. Our experiment showed that the combination of hyposalinity and
276 warming will impair the survival of *I. balthica*. This suggests that the expected future
277 conditions will negatively affect the abundance and potentially compromise the persistence of
278 the species' populations. If so, this will weaken the littoral herbivory function in the Baltic
279 Sea unless micro-evolutionary processes over generations will enhance its tolerance to
280 decreasing salinity and increasing temperature.

281 A review by Leidenberger et al. (2012) suggested that the tolerance of *I. balthica* to a
282 broad range of temperature and salinity conditions is the key to its successful colonisation
283 and broad distribution in the Baltic Sea. The wide salinity tolerance for this species has been
284 partially confirmed by experimental studies such as that of Wood et al. (2014), who showed
285 how Baltic isopods can tolerate a long-term change in salinity from 5 PSU up to a maximum
286 of 10 PSU and vice versa. Furthermore, Hørlyk et al. (1973) showed how a population
287 originating from the entrance of the Baltic Sea could withstand a short-term decrease in
288 seawater salinity from 25 to 7 PSU. However, the results from Hørlyk et al. (1973) also
289 reported a limit to this herbivore's osmoregulatory capability: the isopods were not able to
290 survive a sudden exposure to salinities below 7 PSU. In order to cope with fluctuations in
291 water salinity, adult isopods can plastically adjust their osmotic regulation by altering the
292 number of sodium-potassium pumps located in the pleopods, the respiratory organs (Postel et
293 al. 2000). However, osmoregulation (i.e. the production of extra sodium-potassium pumps) is
294 energetically expensive (Rivera-Ingraham et al. 2017). It may therefore depend on energy

295 availability and involve reallocating resources away from other functions, potentially
296 affecting the population growth rate through decreases in the somatic growth rate or
297 reproduction. In addition, in order to be effective, the plastic osmoregulatory adjustment has
298 to match the speed of the environmental change.

299 Temperature plays a crucial role in the metabolic activity of aquatic poikilotherms,
300 thereby influencing growth and reproductive rates (Gillooly et al., 2001). For example, the
301 oxygen consumption of *I. balthica* increases with water temperature (Salomon & Buchholz,
302 2000; Gutow et al 2016). However, the species is able to acclimate in a few hours even to
303 relatively large, sudden changes in seawater temperature (from 5°C to 20°C and vice versa)
304 and can adjust its oxygen consumption accordingly in order to reach a steady metabolic rate
305 (Bulnheim, 1974). Furthermore, higher temperature also leads to higher grazing activity
306 (Gutow et al. 2016). By affecting the ratio between ingestion and metabolic rate, higher
307 temperatures may lead to lower somatic growth-rate (Strong & Daborn, 1980). If metabolic
308 requirements due to increased temperature exceed what is gained by increased consumption,
309 herbivore performance could be hampered (Pörtner, 2001). For example, heat waves have
310 been found to weaken the immunocompetence of these isopods by lowering their
311 phagocytosis activity by up to 50% (Roth et al. 2010). In addition, a minor increase of a few
312 degrees in seawater temperature has been found to impair the survival of Baltic idoteids
313 (Werner et al. 2015).

314 Climate related environmental changes are multifactorial by nature, and knowledge
315 on the combined effects that includes all possible interactive effects is therefore needed for
316 predicting organismal responses. Our approach does not allow interpretations of the nature of
317 the combined effect (additive vs. interactive), but the combination is likely to involve
318 synergistic effects, as has often been found in other mesograzers. For instance, in the isopods
319 *Sphaeroma hookeri* and *S. rugicauda*, their otherwise robust ability to tolerate hyposalinity

320 stress was reduced when they were also exposed to the natural temperature extremes usually
321 occurring in their habitat (Jansen 1970). Our study species, *I. balthica*, is well-known for its
322 ability to tolerate a wide range of salinity conditions, and the experimental temperatures we
323 used were well within the natural temperature variation experienced by this isopod. We
324 therefore suggest that the simple effects of hyposalinity or warming alone are not able to
325 explain the decrease in survival that we observed, and that an additive or synergetic effect
326 must be responsible. It is likely that the combined costs of acclimation to simultaneous
327 abiotic stressors - i.e. increased energy expenditure for osmoregulation combined with the
328 increased metabolic demands due to the elevated temperature - compromised the tolerance of
329 *I. balthica* and led to its increased mortality.

330 The effects of climate change on the survival of *I. balthica* varied spatially among
331 populations originating from different regions. The simulated future climate change
332 conditions had a marked negative effect on the survival of one population from the entrance
333 region out of the two sampled, suggesting among-population variation in tolerance for this
334 region. The future conditions had the most severe negative impact on survival of isopods
335 from the marginal region, where all populations responded similarly. In the central region,
336 there was evidence of a negative response to future conditions in one population and of a
337 negative trend in another, though to a smaller extent than in the marginal region. However,
338 two of the central populations survived poorly in both the current and the future conditions.
339 This can be due to the high sensitivity of these two populations towards transportation stress
340 or laboratory conditions (e.g. enclosure into plastic tubes, low water movement, food
341 quality), or alternatively, these populations may already be less tolerant even to the
342 conditions we provided as the current environment. Due to this, the inference about variation
343 in tolerance to future conditions among populations remains uncertain. Based on our results,
344 we hypothesise that the future climate conditions will be particularly harsh for *I. balthica* in

345 the marginal region, where migration from the neighbouring, more saline regions is unlikely
346 to occur, as this would imply a movement of individuals towards a more extreme conditions.
347 Therefore, we expect climate change to result in a southern shift in the northeast range edge
348 of *I. balthica*. The central Baltic Sea populations will be negatively affected as well, but
349 probably less so than the populations from the marginal region. Within the entrance region,
350 some populations may decline as well, but this decline for the less tolerant populations may
351 be compensated by migration from other highly tolerant ones from the same region.

352 The spatial variability found here in tolerance to climate change could have different
353 explanations. One potential explanation is that populations differ geographically in their
354 tolerance range to environmental stressors, i.e. that *I. balthica* populations have differentiated
355 among the regions sampled here. Another possibility is that the tolerance of isopods does not
356 differ along the Baltic Sea salinity gradient, but the fact that we manipulated the water
357 conditions (both current and future) *ad hoc* for each region might explain the among-region
358 differences in isopod performance i.e. the harshness of the expected future environment will
359 differ among the regions. These two hypotheses are not mutually exclusive, but may both
360 apply. An experiment in which multiple populations of isopods from different Baltic Sea
361 regions were exposed reciprocally to a range of seawater conditions would give greater
362 insights into the role of local differentiation and (potential) local adaptations in explaining
363 differences in tolerance. Here, however, we did observe an indication of genetic
364 differentiation in tolerance to climate change, possibly attributable to local adaptations, from
365 the among-population variation in survival in future conditions. The variation in survival to
366 future conditions among populations from the same region suggests that *I. balthica* has
367 within-region genetic variation in tolerance, and it is likely that there is among-region
368 variation in tolerance too. Since populations within the same region were exposed to the same
369 water conditions, the difference in their survival responses is likely to arise from their

370 intrinsic differences, e.g. different genetic backgrounds. Our results indicate that populations
371 in the entrance region vary in their tolerance, with some populations being better able to
372 tolerate the predicted climate change conditions. The low variability in response to future
373 climate conditions exhibited by marginal populations may suggest that these populations
374 have already gone through strong selection for tolerance to low salinity, which has eroded
375 their variation in tolerance, thus homogenising their response.

376 Beyond 30 days of the experiment, none of the remaining isopods died under
377 predicted future conditions. This may indicate that genetic variation for the traits related to
378 tolerance to climate change also exists within populations. Since the water conditions used in
379 this experiment are those expected for the years 2070-2099, and *I. balthica* only has a one-
380 year life span, the Baltic Sea populations will have dozens of generations to evolve tolerance
381 limits to adapt to new environmental conditions. The existing within-population genetic
382 variation in tolerance to future desalination/warming, as indicated by our results, might
383 provide the scaffold for a potential adaptive response to climate change.

384 The combination of desalination and warming decreased the survival of both sexes of
385 *I. balthica*, but with different magnitudes: females were less tolerant of the future climate
386 conditions. Sexes of *I. balthica* differ in habitat choice (Jormalainen & Tuomi 1989a), food
387 consumption (Jormalainen et al. 2001), and assimilation efficiency (Jormalainen et al. 2005).
388 As a general idea, Slatkin (1985) suggested that, owing to different fitness-maximising
389 strategies, resource acquisition for energetic and nutritional demands differs between males
390 and females. For instance, adjusted for their biomass, female *I. balthica* can graze more than
391 twice the amount of algal biomass per day that males can (Salemaa 1987). Our experiment
392 started during the reproductive period, when females invest energy in the development and
393 maturation of ovaries (Jormalainen & Tuomi, 1989b); the differential allocations to
394 reproductive resources by sex have made females more sensitive to stressors than males and

395 led to their higher mortality. It is worth noting that in a species such as *I. balthica*, in which
396 female receptivity to fertilisation is temporally limited and females engage in long incubation
397 of broods, it is female availability that limits the population growth rate. Therefore, the higher
398 sensitivity of females to climate change conditions could be particularly detrimental for
399 populations.

400

401 CONCLUSIONS

402 Our study reveals how the impact of the predicted combination of desalination and
403 warming can increase stress levels over the whole Baltic Sea area, with the result that the
404 tolerance limits of a key littoral herbivore species are exceeded in some populations. The
405 potential decline in herbivore function could then have cascading consequences on ecosystem
406 function, for example through benefitting opportunistic filamentous algae. However, we
407 found variation in tolerance among herbivore populations which may allow the evolution of
408 adaptive responses to climate change and/or recolonization of the sites of extinct populations
409 via migration from more tolerant ones, particularly in the entrance region. Predictive models
410 of future changes in the Baltic Sea ecosystem should, therefore, incorporate among-
411 population variation in tolerance and the potential for adaptive responses. Furthermore,
412 models should take into account the fates of the currently interacting species, as well as
413 potential novel interactions arising with the shifting distribution ranges of other species of the
414 littoral communities.

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Table 1 Sites, codes and coordinates of each of the sampled population of *I. balthica*.

| Region | Site | Population code | Coordinates (N, E) |
|----------|-------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| Entrance | Helsingborg | He | 56°00', 12°43' |
| Entrance | Malmö | M | 61°05', 21°23' |
| Central | Trolleboda | T | 56°09', 15°10' |
| Central | Kivik | K | 56° 40', 16°23' |
| Central | Västervik | V | 57°47', 16°43' |
| Marginal | Hanko | H | 59°49', 22°58' |
| Marginal | Grisslehamn | G | 60°05', 18°49' |
| Marginal | Rauma | R | 61°05', 21°18' |

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664 Table 2. The current and future average summer sea surface temperature (SST) and
 665 salinity conditions (SSS). The current conditions are calculated by averaging the mean
 666 conditions for June, obtained from the Baltic Nest Institute (<http://www.balticnest.org/>). The
 667 future expected a conditions are set according to the model by Meier and Eilola 2011.

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| Region | Current | | Future | |
|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|
| | SSS (PSU) | SST (C°) | SSS (PSU) | SST (C°) |
| Entrance | 12 | 14 | 7 | 17 |
| Central | 7 | 14 | 4 | 18 |
| Marginal | 5 | 11 | 2.5 | 14 |

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677 Table 3. Statistical tests of the effects of Climate change, Sex, Region and Population
 678 on survival in *Idotea balthica*. All the fixed factors and their interactions with the Climate
 679 change are significant predictors of survival.

| Fixed Effect | df | Wald χ^2 | P |
|------------------------------------|----|---------------|--------|
| Climate change | 1 | 9.8 | <0.01 |
| Region | 2 | 12.4 | <0.01 |
| Population | 5 | 46.4 | <0.001 |
| Sex | 1 | 6.2 | <0.05 |
| Climate change \times Region | 2 | 6.9 | <0.05 |
| Climate change \times Population | 5 | 11.2 | <0.05 |
| Climate change \times Sex | 1 | 6.23 | <0.05 |

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Table 4. Hazard ratios from the Cox proportional hazards model showing the effects of the different climate conditions on *I. balthica* within each level of the factors Sex, Region and Population. Numbers in square brackets indicate the starting number of isopods used for each environmental condition in each category.

| Description | Hazard ratios | 95% CI | |
|---|---------------|--------|-------|
| | | lower | upper |
| Climate change: Future vs. Current | 2.49 | 2 | 3.1 |
| Climate change × Region | | | |
| Fut. vs. Cur. for Entrance region [90] | 2.45 | 1.37 | 4.37 |
| Fut. vs. Cur. for Central region [120] | 1.65 | 1.21 | 2.26 |
| Fut. vs. Cur. for Marginal region [129] | 4.64 | 3.22 | 6.67 |
| Climate change × Population | | | |
| Entrance: | | | |
| Fut. vs. Cur. for He [45] | 1.24 | 0.42 | 3.7 |
| Fut. vs. Cur. for M [45] | 3.49 | 1.74 | 7.03 |
| Central: | | | |
| Fut. vs. Cur. for T [34] | 1.03 | 0.65 | 1.61 |
| Fut. vs. Cur. for K [46] | 3.28 | 1.66 | 6.48 |
| Fut. vs. Cur. for V [40] | 1.66 | 0.92 | 2.98 |
| Marginal: | | | |
| Fut. vs. Cur. for H [44] | 5.99 | 3.03 | 11.85 |
| Fut. vs. Cur. for G [40] | 5.21 | 3 | 9.02 |
| Fut. vs. Cur. for R [45] | 3.78 | 1.91 | 7.52 |
| Climate change × Sex | | | |
| Fut. vs. Cur. for males [105] | 1.97 | 1.35 | 2.89 |
| Fut. vs. Cur. for females [234] | 2.78 | 2.13 | 3.62 |

Fig. 1. Location of the sampling sites in the Entrance (white dots: He and M), Central (grey dots: T, K and V) and Marginal (black dots: H, G and R) region.

Fig. 2. Survival curves with 95% of confidence intervals showing the effect of different climate conditions for each region separately (a = Entrance, b = Central, c = Marginal).

Fig. 3. Survival curves showing the difference in survival among climate change conditions displayed by population from Entrance (He, and M), Central (T, K and V) and Marginal (H, G and R) region following the decreasing salinity gradient of the Baltic Sea.

Fig. 4. Survival curves (mean \pm SE) for female (a) and male (b) *I. balthica* in current and future seawater conditions.

Fig. 1

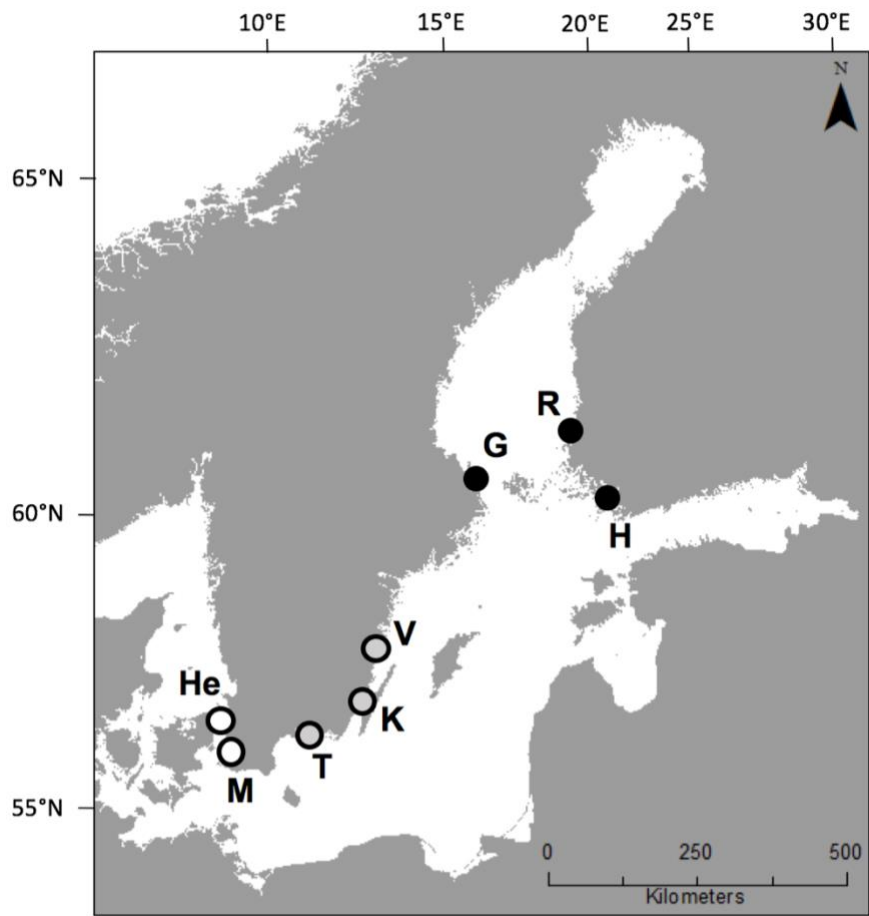


Fig. 2

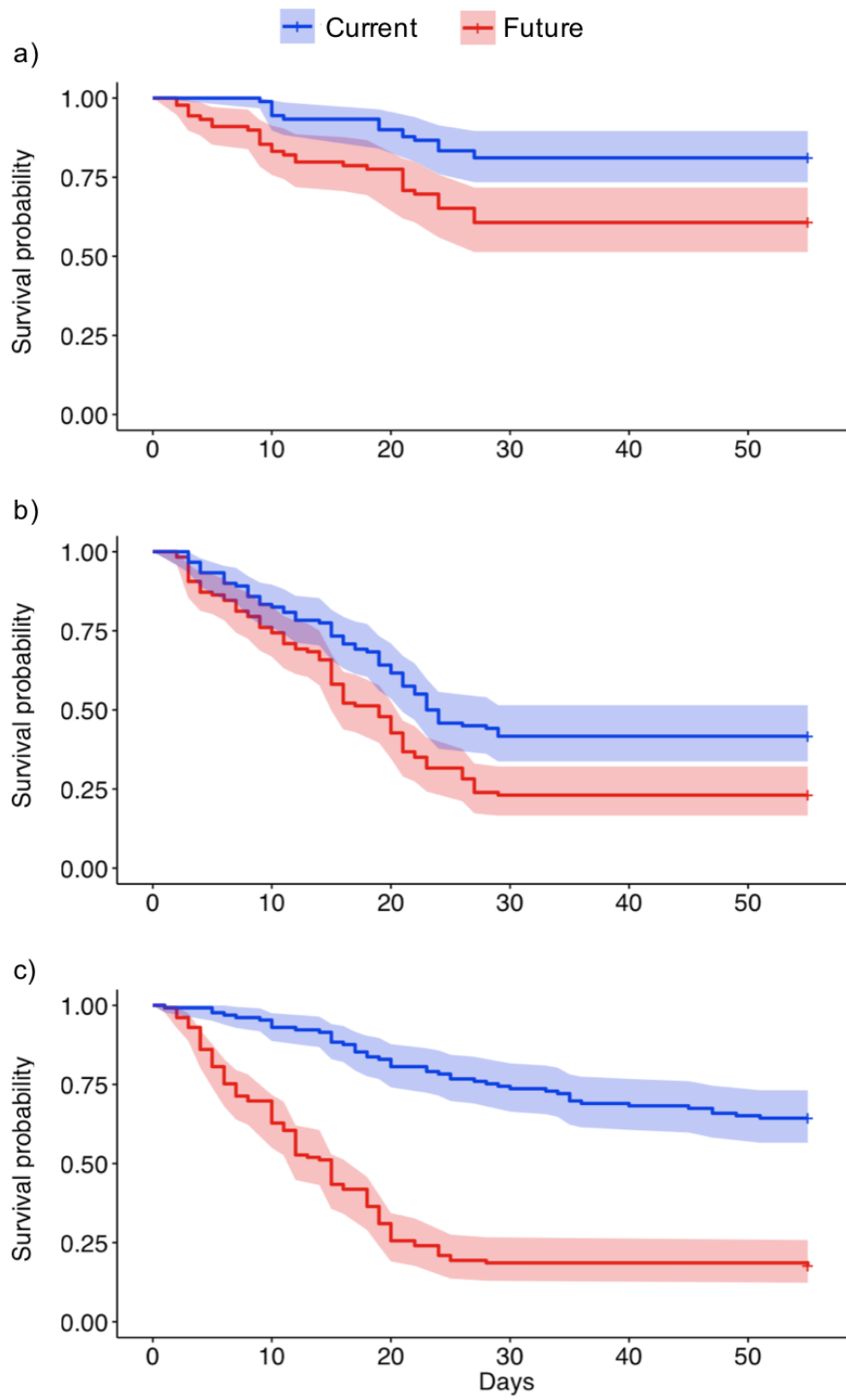


Fig. 3

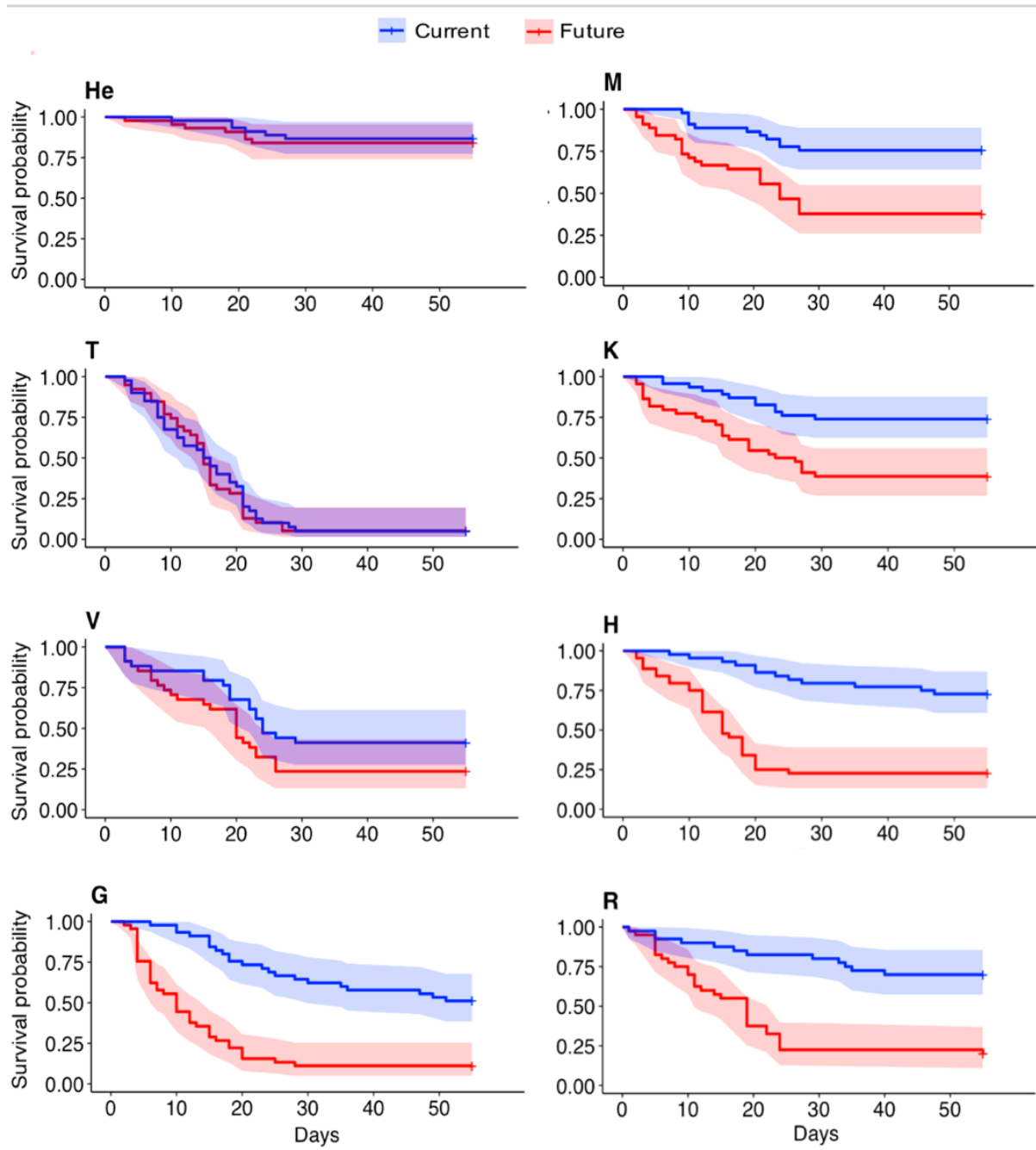


Fig. 4

