- 2 CLIMATE CHANGE CONDITIONS
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9 Abstract

10 Climate change is threating species' persistence worldwide. To predict species responses to climate 11 change we need information not just on their environmental tolerance but also on its adaptive potential. 12 We tested how the foundation species of rocky littoral habitats, *Fucus vesiculosus*, responds to 13 combined hyposalinity and warming projected to the Baltic Sea by 2070-2099. We quantified responses of replicated populations originating from the entrance, central, and marginal Baltic regions. Using 14 15 replicated individuals, we tested for the presence of within-population tolerance variation. Future 16 conditions hampered growth and survival of the central and marginal populations whereas the entrance 17 populations fared well. Further, both the among- and within-population variation in responses to climate 18 change indicated existence of genetic variation in tolerance. Such standing genetic variation provides the 19 raw material necessary for adaptation to a changing environment, which may eventually ensure the 20 persistence of the species in the inner Baltic Sea.

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Keywords: climate change, tolerance, salinity, warming, marine macroalga, distribution, genetic
variation, Baltic Sea, adaptation.

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26 Climate change is significantly impacting biodiversity and ecosystem functioning 27 worldwide, and by the end of the twenty-first century it may become the most important driver of 28 biodiversity loss and species range shift (Bellard et al. 2012; Poloczanska et al. 2013; Lenoir et al. 29 2015; Gruner et al. 2016). In the light of the predicted environmental changes, some species may 30 persist by adapting evolutionarily to new conditions but many will shift their distribution with the 31 changing environmental regimes while some may be lost to extinction (Parmesan and Yohe 2003; 32 Perry et al. 2005; Harley et al. 2012; Poore et al. 2016). The challenge for predicting species 33 responses to climate change is to know their environmental tolerances and, in particular, to 34 understand the adaptive potential of tolerance which may rescue populations from local extinction.

35 Tolerance to a certain range of environmental conditions determines species' geographical 36 distribution (Levins 1968; Banta et al. 2012). Although species are often treated as if they 37 responded uniformly to environmental stress (Banta et al. 2012) populations of broadly distributed 38 species experience distinct gradients of abiotic and biotic factors and typically show phenotypic 39 and/or genotypic differences (Sanford and Kelly 2011, Valladares et al. 2014). The species may 40 adjust its phenotype to the new environmental conditions through phenotypic plasticity (Chevin et 41 al. 2010; Lande 2014; Valladares et al. 2014). Alternatively, populations may differ in traits 42 related to tolerance, and when such variation exists, some of them may be more prone to 43 extinction in the face of widespread environmental alterations such as climate change (Pearson et 44 al. 2000; Hämmerli and Reusch 2002; Kelly et al. 2011; Lamichhaney et al. 2012; Stockwell et al. 45 2003; Berteaux et al. 2004; Reusch et al. 2005). Our understanding of how tolerance, genetic 46 variation of tolerance and phenotypic plasticity may vary among populations and how it affects 47 species responses to changing environment is still in its infancy.

48 Here we study variation in tolerance to climate change of a broadly distributed brown alga 49 Fucus vesiculosus along the environmental gradient in the Baltic Sea. The Baltic Sea is an 50 ecologically marginal habitat for marine species due to its brackish water nature. The inflow of 51 freshwater from many rivers, together with a poor exchange of seawater with the Atlantic, causes 52 a strong salinity gradient, which decreases from approximately 20 PSU (Practical Salinity Unit) in 53 the southwest, in the Kattegat, to 1 PSU in the north (Rönnberg and Bonsdorff 2004). In addition, 54 the sea surface temperature of the Baltic Sea shows large geographic and seasonal variation. 55 During summer, the temperature exceeds 20°C, while during winter it might drop below zero 56 (Swedish Environmental Protection Agency, 2001). Climate change is predicted to bring changes 57 in surface seawater temperature, salinity, turbidity, and ice coverage and duration (Meier and 58 Eilola 2011; Meier et al. 2012). In particular, a rise in seawater temperature and a remarkable drop 59 in salinity are projected for the years 2070-2099 (Meier et al. 2011), with the biggest absolute 60 change in salinity occurring in the entrance region.

61 *Fucus vesiculosus* (hereafter *Fucus*) is the major perennial macrophyte and foundation species 62 in the Baltic Sea littoral (Wikström and Kautsky 2007), where it inhabits the shallow hard-bottom 63 areas (Snoeijs, 1999). It plays a key ecological role by forming a highly structured habitat for 64 many epibionts and other associated organisms (Korpinen et al. 2007), thus providing food and 65 shelter to the benthic community (Lotze et al. 2001). The increased surface seawater temperature 66 and decreased salinity expected for the next century may affect *Fucus* populations in the Baltic 67 Sea both directly and indirectly, possibly causing distributional shifts (Leidenberger et al. 2015, 68 reviewed in Takolander et al. 2017a). Warming has been found to impair survival (Wilson et al. 69 2015) as well as to speed reproductive maturation with decreasing germination success 70 (Maczassek et al. 2014; Kraufvelin et al. 2012). Warming may also have positive effects on

71 growth of germlings (Steen and Rueness 2004) or adults, and it may benefit *Fucus* indirectly by 72 reducing grazers (Werner et al. 2015; 2016). On the other hand, some indirect effects of warming 73 such as increased consumption rate of herbivorous isopods (Leidenberger, Harding and Jonsson 74 2012; Gutow et al. 2016; Rothäusler et al. 2017), changes in quality of the thallus as food 75 (Weinberger et al. 2011), or increase of light-absorbing phytoplankton (Alexandridis et al. 2012) 76 may be harmful for *Fucus*. So far, much less is known about the effects of declining salinity on 77 Fucus. Bäck et al. (1992a) showed that Baltic Fucus evolved higher tolerance to low salinity than 78 its Atlantic counterpart. Laboratory experiments found that salinities lower than 4 PSU are a physiological boundary for reproductive efficiency of F. vesiculosus, and this would therefore 79 80 limit the distribution of this species (Serrão et al. 1999; Serrão et al. 1996a, b). However, Fucus 81 individuals have been found in salinity down to 2 PSU in the Bothnian Sea, Gulf of Finland, and 82 the White Sea. This is possibly due to periodic salinity fluctuations during their reproductive 83 period or a localised higher salinity (Ruuskanen and Bäck, 2002, Ardehead et al. 2016). A 84 decrease in salinity between 6 and 3 PSU in the Gulf of Finland was associated with a decrease in 85 thallus size Baltic of *F. vesiculosus* (Ruuskanen et al. 1999).

86 Even though F. vesiculosus experiences different gradients of salinity and temperature across 87 the Baltic Sea, experimental studies seldom account for this interactive effect, and typically only a 88 single environmental factor has been manipulated (Wernberg et al. 2012; Forsman et al. 2016). In 89 the present study, we exposed Baltic *Fucus* to a long-term climate change experiment (140 days) 90 to test if it has the potential to tolerate and adapt to the projected simultaneous summer-time future 91 temperature and salinity conditions expected for the years 2070-2099 in the Baltic Sea (Meier et 92 al. 2011). Based on these climate projections, we tested the following hypotheses: (i) Populations 93 originating from the entrance, central and marginal regions of the Baltic Sea are differently

94 affected by the predicted future conditions of their region: the expected future shift in salinity and 95 temperature for the entrance region can be within the tolerance range but for the populations in the 96 central and marginal regions it may be challenging to tolerate the predicted combination of 97 warming and low salinities. (ii) Populations within regions may vary in their responses to future 98 conditions due to their local differentiation. Such among-population variation represents either 99 geographic genetic variation or phenotypic plasticity in tolerance, both of which may enhance 100 persistence through dispersal from the more tolerant populations. (iii) Populations may harbor 101 within-population variation in tolerance. Also such variation can be based on standing genetic 102 variation or individual variation in phenotypic plasticity. Within population variation indicates 103 potential for adaptive responses to climate change. Given the important role of Baltic *Fucus*, this 104 information is essential in evaluating the consequences of global climate change on rocky littoral 105 communities within this basin.

106 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

107 2.1 Sampling of Fucus

108 We collected *Fucus vesiculosus* from three different regions – entrance, central, and marginal – of 109 the Baltic Sea (Fig. 1, Table 2) in summer 2014. Within each of these region, we randomly sampled 110 three populations, and from each population we collected 25 individuals. Herein, one individual is 111 defined as all the apical tips of a thallus growing from a single stem attached to a holdfast. We detached 112 the individual in at least 5 m distance between each other to ensure the uniqueness of samples (see 113 Supporting Information for more details). We only genotyped two populations from the marginal region 114 where clonality has been previously recorded to ensure that they were different genotypes (for the 115 analyses see Tables S1, S2 and S3). For the rest of the populations (from the entrance and central 116 regions), the distance between samples collected and the fact that we were detaching only one stem from

one holdfast ensured the uniqueness of the genotypes. Individuals were collected by snorkeling and atall sites they were detached in the range between 0.5 to 2m depth.

From 27th to 28th June 2014, we collected the marginal populations, while the central populations were gathered between the 2nd and 3rd of July. On the 3rd and 4th of July, we collected the entrance populations. All individuals were kept in coolers between wet paper tissues to avoid dehydration and transported to the Archipelago Research Institute (University of Turku) at Seili (60° 14' N, 21° 58' E), where they were carefully rinsed with freshwater to remove associated grazers and epiphytes. Then, we stored the algal individuals in their native salinities until the experiment started.

125 2.2 Fucus preparation for the experiment

126 Once our sampling was complete we split each algal individual (N = 25 per population and 127 region) into eight similar sized branches (we hereafter refer to one branch as a ramet - initial length. 128 mean \pm SE: 7.1 \pm 0.05 cm; initial # of apical meristems: 8.7 \pm 0.16; initial wet weight (WW): 0.99 \pm 129 0.02 g). Four of the branches were distributed randomly among the aquaria in the current conditions, 130 and the other four among the aquaria in the future conditions, so that each aquarium contained a mix of 131 25 ramets (Fig. 2a). Epiphytes were rinsed from experimental algae when necessary to avoid 132 competition for nutrient availability and light. Micro-environmental effects were accounted for by 133 randomly relocating the algae within each aquarium each week. In order to avoid flotation of the ramets, 134 a small ceramic weight was attached individually with a cable tie to each ramet. To prevent any damage, 135 we fixed a piece of a plastic mat between the cable tie and the ramet. We first started to prepare the marginal populations (11th and 12th of July), then the central populations (12th and 13th July) and finally 136 137 the entrance populations (15th and 16th of July).

At the starting point all aquaria were set up with current conditions. After all the ramets have been introduced in their respective aquaria racks, we simultaneously shifted the temperature and salinity of all

future aquaria within one day. The experiment started for all populations on the 23rd of July and ended
on 10th of December.

142 2.3 Experimental setup

We examined the effects of different temperature and salinity conditions on the performance of *Fucus* in an indoor aquarium experiment. Because climate change typically involves simultaneous shifts in several abiotic factors (IPCC Climate Change, 2007), we focused on the combined effects of hyposalinity and increased temperature. These are the main environmental factors that determine the structural and functional characteristics of aquatic biota, and they covary regionally, both currently and in the future projections.

149 We used six aquarium racks (each consisted of 12 aquaria) to expose, separately, the algal 150 material from each region to two different climate conditions, the current and predicted future (Table 1, 151 Fig. 2b). We used summer conditions because during this period *Fucus*' growth rate is up to three times 152 faster than in the winter (Lehvo et al. 2001). We extended the duration of the experiment further than the 153 natural duration of the Baltic summer to detect the long-term influence of the future conditions. The 154 long term exposure to hyposalinity/warming may evidence patterns of among- and /or within population 155 variation in performance that may not be evidenced by short term experiments. In order to apply a 156 realistic setup, the current conditions within each region were based on the average summertime salinity 157 and temperature conditions of the sampling sites within the three regions (Table 2). The data on future 158 (2070-2099) changes in summer salinity and temperature for Baltic coastal areas come from the model 159 RCAO-ECHAM-A2-REF from Meier et al. (2011). The data on current surface seawater temperature 160 and surface salinity have been averaged from the mean values for June to August for each region 161 (http://www.balticnest.org/).

162	Each aquarium rack consisted of a bottom tank (~ 300L) and 12 aquaria (24 L each), which were
163	connected to each other via recirculating water system. Seawater was pumped from the bottom tank
164	individually to each aquarium, from where it flowed back into the bottom tank. Before it was pumped
165	up, the seawater was cleaned first by an acrylic filtration unit (SCHURAN Jetskim 120) equipped with a
166	mechanical and biological filter, then by a protein skimmer, and finally by UV radiation. To regulate the
167	desired water temperature, each bottom tank was equipped with a chiller/heater. We obtained the region-
168	specific water salinities for both climate conditions (current and future) by adding artificial sea salt to
169	seawater or by dilution with distilled water. To ensure ample nutrient availability, we added 3 g of
170	Osmocote ® controlled-release fertilizer (NPK 15-9-12+2MgO+trace elements, 2 months) to each rack
171	at the start of the experiment and every second month.

Each shelf contained four aquaria, which received artificial light from two LED lamps (Radion TM XR30w Pro lamp). We used a 17:7 h light:dark rhythm, which was similar to the average summer light conditions in the Baltic Sea. The light level slowly increased in the mornings, reached a maximum intensity (1200 μ mol m⁻² S⁻¹) at the aquarium water surface between 11:00 and 14:00, and then slowly decreased in the evenings to darkness.

During the experiment, we kept the water level and salinity in the aquarium system constant by adding ion-exchanged water. We monitored temperature (daily) and salinity (weekly) to ensure that conditions remained at the desired levels (Table 1). We also measured pH weekly to ensure it stayed within the natural range of the Baltic Sea (mean \pm SE: 8.31 \pm 0.07).

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182 2.4 Measuring responses

We measured the growth rate and survival of *Fucus* as a proxy for sensitivity to environmental changes, since they are dependent on the ratio between respiration and photosynthetic activity and they give an overall estimate of the algal performance (Karsten, 2008). Growth rate was measured as a

186 change in wet biomass (g WW), in length along the major axis (cm), and in the number of apical 187 meristems during the 140 d experiment. Therefore, each ramet was measured at the beginning and at the 188 end of the experiment. For the growth rate in terms of biomass, we gently dried the ramets between 189 paper tissues before determining their initial and final weight. As there was mortality during the 190 experiment, the growth measures refer to growth of the survivors after 140 days. Therefore, we 191 measured the growth rate of the most tolerant individuals. As the different growth rate measures lead to 192 similar conclusions, we present here only the biomass gain rate (expressed as g WW / 140 d), but give 193 the summary data and analyses for the length and meristem gain rate in supplementary material (Figure 194 S1, S2 and S3, Tables S4-S5).

195 We recorded survival throughout the experiment and at the end. We checked the ramets weekly 196 and defined as dead those with > 90% of the thallus area showing necrosis. When an individual started 197 to degenerate, >90 % necrosis typically proceeded relatively quickly, between the weekly observations. 198 Survivors didn't show dead thallus parts. Survival was expressed as the probability of being alive at the 199 end of the experiment. Growth rate and the survival probability of each individual was calculated as the 200 average of N = 4 ramets in the future and N = 4 ramets in the current conditions. These means were 201 calculated using the Glimmix procedure as the 'best linear unbiased predictors' (BLUPs), which are 202 considered the best estimates for random factors (Robinson, 2008).

203 2.5 Statistical analysis

We analyzed the variation in growth rate (length, number of apical meristems, and biomass) using a general linear mixed model within populations separately for each region. A normal distribution was used for the error variance, and the analyses were implemented using the procedure GLIMMIX in SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute Inc. 2013). The fixed factor in the model was climate change (future and current conditions). Random factors were population, individual within

209 population, aquarium, and all the possible interactions between these factors and climate change. 210 The aquarium was included as a random factor to capture possible variations in growing 211 conditions among aquaria within a rack (e.g. lighting, position effect, water through-flow). In the 212 analyses of growth rate, we used the initial size as a covariate and tested all of its interactions with 213 the fixed factor. We then simplified the model by removing non-significant effects, starting from 214 the higher-order interactions, with the aid of the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). The 215 significance of fixed effects was tested using F-statistics, with the denominator degrees of freedom 216 estimated by the use of the Kenward-Roger approximation (Kenward and Roger 1997). The 217 significance of the random effects and the random-by-fixed effect interactions was tested by X²-218 tests of the differences in the 2×log likelihood value of that factor included versus excluded from 219 the model (likelihood ratio test, Littell et al., 2006).

The survival probability (after 140 days) was analyzed using a generalized linear mixed model, with survival as a binary response variable (alive, dead). This model was similar to that described above for the growth rate analyses.

223 3. RESULTS

224 *3.1 Growth performance among regions under climate change conditions*

Populations originating from different regions varied in their biomass gain in the current conditions of their respective region: entrance populations grew the most, followed by the central and marginal populations (Fig.2). The entrance populations tolerated the future conditions well: there was no overall difference in biomass gain between current and future conditions (Fig. 3, Table 3). In contrast, future conditions were harsh for the central region populations that grew less compared to their

230	counterparts in the current conditions (Fig. 3, Table 3). Similarly, biomass gain of the populations from
231	the marginal region was strongly hampered by the future conditions (Fig. 3, Table 3).

232 *3.2 Variation among populations and individuals in growth responses to climate change*

233 Within the entrance region, the biomass response to climate change varied among 234 populations (Fig. 3, Table 3). Algae from the population G tolerated the future conditions the best, 235 gaining similar amounts of biomass in both climate conditions, while for the populations B and S. 236 the difference between climate conditions was more pronounced (25% and 16% respectively; Fig. 237 3). In the central region, we found no differences among populations in their biomass response to 238 climate change, but, in the marginal region, we found such variation (Fig. 3, Table 3): The 239 population R was the least tolerant to climate change and grew 98% less when exposed to future 240 conditions, while the decrease in growth in future conditions was 80% for the population P and 241 70% for the population H.

We found pronounced among-individual variation in biomass gain in entrance and marginal populations as indicated by the significant among-individual variance component (Table 3). Most interestingly, individuals in the central populations varied in their growth response to climate change (Fig. 4, Table 3) indicating that different individuals expressed varying tolerance to future conditions. It is worth to note that the despite the among-individual variation in tolerance remained also the after strong mortality selection during the experiment (similar amongindividual variance in both the climate change conditions in Fig. 4).

250 3.3 Effects of future climate change conditions on survival of Fucus across the Baltic Sea regions

Fucus originating from the entrance region survived well in both the current and future conditions indicating high tolerance to future conditions (Fig. 5, Table 4). Instead, survival of *Fucus* originating from the central region and even more that from the marginal region was hampered by their future conditions (Fig. 5, Table 4). Only 34% of *Fucus* ramets from the central region and 23% from the marginal region survived until the end of the experiment in the future conditions.

Marginal populations varied in their survival responses to climate change (Fig. 5, population-by-climate change interaction in Table 4). Furthermore, within the marginal populations individuals responded differently to climate change (individual-by-climate change interaction in Table 4). Individuals within entrance and central regions varied in their survival but not in their survival response to climate change (Table 4).

262 4. DISCUSSION

263 *4.1 Climate change effects on algal growth and survival*

Our results show that the tolerance of *Fucus* populations to their projected future conditions varies along the Baltic Sea. Populations from the entrance region tolerated future conditions well, maintaining their growth and survival unchanged between current and future conditions. This suggests that their future hyposalinity and warming is within the current range of tolerance of the populations at the Baltic Sea entrance. Instead, future climate conditions had a pronounced negative effect on survival of populations from the central region and an even a more severe impact on those from the marginal region. Moreover, the growth reduced to about fifth of that in the current conditions in populations from the central region, and almost completely ceased in the marginal ones. We suggest that while the populations at the Baltic Sea entrance are likely to tolerate well the future conditions, those from the central and marginal regions of the Baltic Sea are faced with serious challenges and are unlikely to persist in the current distributional range unless their tolerance cannot adapt evolutionarily with the environmental change.

276 The negative effects of low salinity on seaweed performance have been attributed to the inability 277 to maintain osmotic balance (cell turgor pressure) and to keep a positive ratio between photosynthesis 278 and respiration (Hellebust 1976). Low salinity (≤ 2 PSU) is known, for instance, to damage the cellular 279 structures responsible for protein synthesis and energy metabolism (Tropin et al. 2003). Low mannitol 280 contents have been found in response to low salinity and combination of high temperature and 281 hyposalinity in F. vesiculosus (Munda and Kremer, 1977; Takolander et al. 2017b), as this compound is 282 also used for osmoregulation (Groisillier et al. 2014; Munda and Kremer, 1977). Negative effects of 283 hyposalinity on *Fucus* growth have been found in experimental studies. For instance, Bäck et al. 284 (1992b) showed that Baltic Fucus from the marginal region in the Gulf of Finland could grow and 285 survive in salinities from 6 to 12 PSU, but that salinity extremes (1.5, 34, and 45 PSU) reduced both 286 growth and survival. Fucus from the marginal region has also been reported to tolerate short-term (26 h) 287 exposure to hyposalinity (2.5 PSU) without any signs of photoinhibition or damage to the 288 photosynthetic machinery (Rothäusler et al. 2016). Moreover, there is also evidence on local adaptation 289 to local salinity (Johansson et al. 2017): a reciprocal transplant experiment indicated that F. vesiculosus 290 from the Atlantic and Baltic Sea grows better in their local than in foreign salinity (respectively 24 and 4 291 PSU). However, Serrão et al. (1996b) showed that sperm motility and fertilization success of F. 292 vesiculosus decreases sharply in salinity below 5PSU, suggesting that early life stages might be most 293 important for the persistence of the species at extremely low salinity.

294 Temperature plays an important role in algal physiology because it controls the photosynthetic 295 rate (Raven and Geider 1988), which affects the rate of carbon fixation by RuBisCO (Sukenik, Bennett 296 and Falkowski 1987). Warming temperatures become stressful for plants when they affect the balance 297 between protein denaturation and the action of heat-shock proteins and the higher production of proteins 298 (Csikász-Nagy and Soyer 2008). Moderately warm temperatures enhanced growth in Ascophyllum 299 nodosum (Keser et al. 2005) and F. vesiculosus from the western Baltic Sea where it grew and survived 300 well in temperatures ranging from 5 to 26°C, with a damaging effect on the photosynthetic system only 301 at temperatures $>26^{\circ}C$ (Graiff et al. 2015). A similar result was reported for eastern Atlantic populations 302 of *F. vesiculosus* (Russell 1987), in which high water temperature affected the sensitivity of the 303 photosynthetic machinery. However, Al-Janabi et al. (2016) found that the effects of temperature 304 changes on Baltic *Fucus* germlings depend on the season: a 5 °C increase in natural temperature 305 enhanced the growth in early summer, but it caused a severe mortality in late summer. Warming may 306 also be responsible for temporal changes in receptacle maturation such as shown for *F. vesiculosus*, 307 under experimental conditions (Graiff et al. 2017) but also in situ (Kraufvelin et al. 2012). Indeed, if 308 warming will increase the duration of the reproductive period of *Fucus*, it is possible that enhanced 309 window for recruitment may help buffering the losses caused by hyposalinity/warming, at least in the 310 regions where low salinity is not limiting fertilization.

Because climate change modifies several abiotic factors simultaneously, we designed our experiment to detect only the combined effect of the predicted future temperature and salinity combinations in the Baltic Sea, not to separate the single factor effects. The combined effect of future seawater salinity and temperature may be simply additive, or it may involve antagonistic or synergistic interactive effects. A meta-analysis of multi-stressor studies by Wahl et al. (2011) found that for *Fucus* spp. the combined effects were on average additive. For instance, a short term (8 days) manipulative experiment conducted with *F. vesiculosus* showed that low salinity slowed down the recovery of growth

and photosynthetic performances after an exposure to high water temperature (Takolander et al. 2017b).
Interactive effects may occur and are of course important, but, if present, they are included in our
combined effect. Further, while our experiment was designed to measure the tolerance of *F. vesiculosus*to the averaged expected changes in seawater conditions, climate change effects will also enhance
climate variability (e.g. frequency and intensity of heat and cold waves, Vasseur et al. 2014). For
instance, Graiff et al. (2015) showed that *Fucus* is able to acclimate to higher temperature only if there
is enough acclimation time.

325 *4.2 Potential of* Fucus *to adapt to future conditions*

The potential for adaptive responses to the predicted future salinity/temperature conditions 326 327 was indicated by among-individual variation in performance, and, especially by the differential 328 responses of individuals to climate change. The among-individual variation might have different 329 explanations. That we cloned and reared replicated ramets of each individual in common garden 330 conditions entails that the differences we found among clones do represent genetic differences in 331 plasticity. However, a possibility remains that differences among clones include some carry-over 332 effects from the original environment of the sampled individuals, the clonal mothers. It is difficult 333 to judge the relevance of such carry-over effects but even if they contributed to variation detected 334 among individuals (i.e. affect the main effect of individual) we find highly unlikely that they 335 would do differently so in current and future conditions (i.e. affect the individual-by-climate 336 change interaction). Thus, we consider the among-individual variation in responses to climate 337 change to represent genetic variation in reaction norms, i.e. variation in phenotypic plasticity of 338 traits responsible for tolerance. A high degree of such within-population variation in quantitative 339 traits that are closely related to fitness is considered to be the core component of adaptive

evolution, allowing the species persistence in a changing environment (Pigliucci 2005; Wrange etal. 2014).

342 The observed among-population variation in growth and survival within regions likely 343 indicates variation in tolerance to climate change at a regional spatial scale, within both the 344 entrance and marginal regions of the Baltic Sea. Within the entrance region, all populations 345 survived equally well in current and future salinity/temperature conditions, but Fucus from the G 346 population were the most tolerant to future conditions, with the least decrease in growth. The 347 populations from the marginal region differed in their responses to climate change, both in 348 survival and growth. Given the strong spatial genetic structuring (Tatarenkov et al. 2007; Pereyra 349 et al. 2013; Ardehed et al., 2016) and reduced dispersal capacity of Baltic Fucus (Serrão et al. 350 1996b), we consider it likely that such among-population variation within region might represent 351 genetic differentiation in plasticity. Intra-specific geographic variation in tolerance to climate 352 change, such as found here and also in the Atlantic F. serratus and F. vesiculosus (Pearson et al. 353 2009; Jueterbock et al. 2014; Saada et al. 2016), means that some populations are more vulnerable 354 than others to climate change. The tolerant populations may provide local persistence assurance 355 through acting as sources for floating thalli that may disperse and generate gene flow over long 356 distances (Rothäusler et al. 2015).

Further, the significant individual-by-climate change interaction in growth of entrance and central populations and in survival of marginal populations suggests the existence of genetic variation in phenotypic plasticity. Also other studies have found individual-by-environment interactions in quantitative traits of *Fucus* indicating genetic variation in plasticity to different environmental conditions, such as growth responses to light or nutrient regimes (Jormalainen and Honkanen 2004) or phlorotannin responses to herbivory and depth distribution (Jormalainen and Ramsay 2009). In our study, those individuals from the entrance and central regions that survived in future conditions until the end of the experiment also showed genetic variation in plasticity of growth (individual-by-climate change -interactions), with the variation in growth remaining also in future conditions after mortality. Upon this variation in plasticity, natural selection can alter the reaction norms of growth.

368 5. Conclusion

369 Our results imply that the projected increase in temperature and decrease in salinity will be 370 challenging for *Fucus* populations, particularly in the central and marginal regions of the Baltic 371 Sea. There, the abundance of *Fucus* is likely to decline unless populations cannot respond by 372 adaptive evolution of tolerance. Our experiment with almost instant exposure to future conditions 373 represents an extreme scenario. The future conditions we used are a projection for the end of this 374 century (2070-2099) so Fucus will be confronted with a gradual change taking place over several 375 generations. We found indications of phenotypic plasticity and genetic variation in tolerance of 376 *Fucus* to the projected future conditions, both within and among the Baltic Sea populations, 377 suggesting potential for adaptive responses exists. Thus, adaptive increase of tolerance may 378 provide persistence in the face of climate change. However, our data just documents the potential 379 for adaptation but does not allow estimations whether the speed of adaptation can match the rate 380 of change. Furthermore, the fate of *Fucus* populations in the Baltic Sea will strongly depend on 381 how the biotic interactions within the entire associated community, such as with the competing 382 macro-and microalgae and grazers, will respond to climate change. Further research on such 383 community responses is needed.

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389 *Authors' Contributions*

390 VJ, LR and E.R. conceived and designed the experiment. All authors performed the experiment.

391 LR analyzed the data. LR led the writing of the manuscript; all authors contributed to the text.

392 *Acknowledgments*

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Table 1. Average summer sea surface temperature (SST) and salinity (SSS) for current and future conditions within the three regions. Current conditions were calculated by averaging the monthly means from June to August obtained from the Baltic Nest Institute (http://www.balticnest.org). The future expected conditions were set according to the model of Meier et al. (2012).

Region	Curr	rent	Future			
	SSS (PSU)	SST (C°)	SSS (PSU)	SST (C°)		
Entrance	22	18	17	21		
Central	7	16	4	20		
Marginal	5	14	2.5	16		

Table 2. Seawater surface salinity (SSS, Feistel et al. 2010) and seawater surface temperature (SST,

640 Siegel et al. 2008) (mean \pm SD) for the summer period (June to August). Salinity and temperature means

641 for each site were averaged for observations from open water and coastal areas for the regions targeted

- by our sampling. The number of individuals sampled for each population is corrected after the
- 643 genotyping.

Region	Population	Coordinates (N, E)	SSS	SST	# Individuals
			(PSU)	(°C)	
Entrance	В	56°31', 10°38'	23±11	17±3	25
Entrance	G	57°07', 12°12'	24±7	17±3	25
Entrance	S	56°19', 12°45'	24±7	17±3	25
Central	0	56°11', 16°23'	7.3±2.5	16±4	25
Central	V	57°41', 16°43'	6.8±1.5	17±4	25
Central	K	55°41', 14°13'	7.7±2.5	16±3	25
Marginal	Н	61°41', 17°31'	5±3	13±3	21
Marginal	R	61°08, 21°18'	5.5±3	13±3	23
Marginal	Р	60°08', 22°17'	6.3±3.5	15±2	25

- Table 3. Results from general linear mixed models that tested the fixed effects of climate change and the random effects of population,
- 645 individual, and aquarium on biomass gain for each region. Initial size was used as a covariate in the analyses.

Source of variation	Entrance			Central			Marginal 647		
	ndf, ddf	F	Р	ndf, ddf	F	Р	ndf, ddf	F	P 047
Fixed Factors	·								
Cl. change	1, 2.82	3.1	0.18	1, 43	42.8	< 0.001	1, 4.4	15.2	< 0.05
In. size	1, 472	113	< 0.001	1, 311	0.19	0.67	1, 321	12.9	< 0.001
In. size × Cl. Change									
		χ^2	Р		χ^2	Р		χ^2	Р
Random Factors									
Population		0.52	0.24		0.86	0.35		-	1
Individual		18.8	< 0.001		0.01	0.91		40.6	< 0.001
Population × Cl. Change		5.12	< 0.05		-	1		18.9	< 0.001
Individual × Cl. Change		0.47	0.25		8.24	< 0.01		-	1
Aquarium		7.71	< 0.05		-	1		0.5	0.48

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61	6
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Source of variation	Entrance			Central			Marginal		
	ndf, ddf	F	Р	ndf, ddf	F	Р	ndf, ddf	F	Р
Fixed Factors									
Cl. change	1, 2	0.14	0.74	1, 2	62.4	< 0.05	1, 2	90.7	< 0.05
		χ^2	Р		χ^2	Р		χ^2	Р
Random Factors									
Population		1.31	0.25		1.85	0.16		0.55	0.46
Individual		4.83	< 0.05		60.7	< 0.001		0.74	0.4
Population × Cl. Change		-	1		1.18	0.27		3.40	< 0.01
Individual × Cl. Change		-	1		-	1		31.9	< 0.001
Aquarium		-	1		-	1		-	1
•									

Figure 1. Location of *Fucus* sampling sites in the marginal (black dots: H, R, and P), central (grey dots: V, O, and K) and entrance (white dots: S, B, and G) regions. Summertime (average values from June to August) sea surface salinities and temperatures for each Baltic region are indicated as average values for years 1990-2008, obtained from Siegel et al. (2008). Different letters denote the different populations sampled within a region.

Figure 2. Schematic illustration of the experimental design. Fig. 2a. Schematic of the experimental design, detail about pseudo-replication of each genotype in multiple ramets. Fig. 2b shows how we distributed each population in the aquarium racks.

Figure 3. Growth rate (g WW / 140 d, mean \pm SE, adjusted for the average initial size of algae) for *Fucus* populations in current and future conditions displayed by region. The biomass gain of each population is based on the individual estimate of each survivor. The number of individuals was N=25 for every population except for H (N=21) and R (N=23) The identity of each population is indicated on the x-axis. Asterisks above denote the degree of significance indicated by the general linear model (*p <0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001)

Figure 4. Individual estimates for growth rate (g WW/ 140d) in current and future conditions for the central populations. Lines connect the average of each individual (N=35) in the two conditions. The individual average was calculated averaging 1 to 4 ramets for each condition.

Figure 5. Survival estimates (mean \pm SE) for *Fucus* populations after 140 days in current and future conditions, separately by region. The survival of each population is based on the individual estimate, obtained from the average of N = 4 ramets for each condition. The number of individuals was N= 25 for every population except for H (N=21) and R (N=23).



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Entrance




