

1 **Eelgrass-associated fishes show large interspecific differences in thermal  
2 acclimation to marine heatwaves**

3 Elena Tamarit<sup>1\*</sup>, Felix Steinbrecher<sup>2</sup>, Leon Pfeifer<sup>3</sup>, Emily R. Lechner<sup>3</sup>, Hannah Sauer<sup>2</sup>,  
4 Leon Green<sup>3,4</sup>, Diana Perry<sup>5</sup>, Hans W. Linderholm<sup>1</sup>, Martin Gullström<sup>6</sup>, Fredrik Jutfelt<sup>3</sup>

5 <sup>1</sup> Department of Earth Sciences, University of Gothenburg, Medicinaregatan 7B, 41262 Gothenburg, Sweden

6 <sup>2</sup> Department of Marine Sciences, University of Gothenburg, Medicinaregatan 7B, 41262 Gothenburg, Sweden

7 <sup>3</sup> Department of Biological and Environmental Sciences, University of Gothenburg, Medicinaregatan 7B, 41262 Gothenburg,  
8 Sweden

9 <sup>4</sup> The Maritime Museum & Aquarium, Karl-Johansgatan 1-3, 41459 Gothenburg, Sweden

10 <sup>5</sup> Department of Aquatic Resources, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Turistgatan 5, 453 30 Lysekil, Sweden

11 <sup>6</sup> School of Natural Sciences, Technology and Environmental Studies, Södertörn University, S-141 89 Huddinge, Sweden

12 \* Corresponding author: [elena.tamarit@gu.se](mailto:elena.tamarit@gu.se)

13

14 **Abstract**

15 Global warming is increasingly exposing shallow coastal habitats to thermal extremes, with  
16 important consequences for the fish species they support. Eelgrass (*Zostera marina*), the  
17 most widespread seagrass in the Northern Hemisphere, provides nursery habitats and  
18 foraging opportunities for a high diversity of temperate fishes. However, light limitation is  
19 compressing eelgrass depth distribution to shallower waters, increasing exposure of these  
20 habitats and their associated fish assemblages to thermal stress during intensifying marine  
21 heatwaves. Persistence in warming eelgrass habitats may therefore depend on species-  
22 specific differences in thermal tolerance and the capacity for rapid thermal acclimation  
23 among fishes. However, interspecific variation in acclimation capacity within shared habitats  
24 remains poorly understood. To address this gap, we experimentally exposed twelve wild-  
25 caught eelgrass-associated fish species to ambient (19 °C) and heated (23 °C)  
26 temperatures, representative of current summer conditions of the Swedish west coast  
27 (Skagerrak, North Sea). We quantified critical thermal maxima (CT<sub>max</sub>) as a proxy for upper  
28 thermal tolerance and assessed species' short-term acclimation capacity following five days  
29 of exposure to a simulated marine heatwave in the laboratory. Most species increased

30 CT<sub>max</sub>, but both baseline thermal tolerance and acclimation capacity varied markedly among  
31 taxa. Juvenile Atlantic cod, whiting and plaice showed the lowest thermal tolerance and  
32 weakest acclimation responses, suggesting limited capacity to physiologically buffer acute  
33 warming and a greater reliance on behavioural avoidance. In contrast, sedentary species  
34 such as gobies and pipefishes exhibited high thermal tolerance with moderate plasticity,  
35 while wrasses showed moderate tolerance but the strongest short-term acclimation capacity.  
36 Temperature records from regional eelgrass meadows revealed summer conditions  
37 approaching or exceeding the upper thermal limits of several species examined. Together,  
38 these results demonstrate pronounced interspecific variation in thermal tolerance and  
39 acclimation capacity among eelgrass-associated fishes. This indicates that ongoing warming  
40 and marine heatwaves are likely to reshape eelgrass fish assemblages with implications for  
41 coastal food-web structure and functioning.

42

### 43 **Keywords**

44 Global warming, marine heatwaves, critical thermal maximum, thermal acclimation, seagrass  
45 ecosystems, thermal extremes

46

### 47 **Introduction**

48 Coastal vegetated habitats, such as seagrass meadows, rank among the most productive  
49 ecosystems on Earth, providing essential nursery grounds, foraging habitats and refuge for  
50 juvenile fishes while supporting global biodiversity (Beck et al., 2001; Heck Hay et al., 2003;  
51 Lefcheck et al., 2019; McDevitt-Irwin et al., 2016; Orth et al., 2006). However, anthropogenic  
52 climate change is increasingly exposing shallow coastal habitats to warming and extreme  
53 thermal events that threaten ecological functions (Oliver et al., 2018; D. A. Smale et al.,  
54 2019). Marine heatwaves are discrete periods ( $\geq 5$  days) of anomalously high seawater  
55 temperature relative to a local historical baseline (Hobday et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2023),  
56 that have increased in frequency, intensity and duration over recent decades, posing a

57 pervasive threat to marine biodiversity globally (Calvin et al., 2023; Cheng et al., 2025;  
58 Wernberg et al., 2025).  
59 The North Sea is among the fastest-warming regions worldwide, recently experiencing  
60 record-breaking sea surface temperatures associated with the longest and most intense  
61 heatwave reaching +4°C (Mohamed et al., 2025). Such events cause widespread impacts on  
62 foundation species, including seagrasses, kelp and corals, as well as on fauna with strong  
63 habitat specificity, including fish, crustaceans and birds (Brijs et al., 2025; Garrabou et al.,  
64 2009; Olsen et al., 2022; Smith et al., 2024; Strydom et al., 2020). Marine heatwaves shape  
65 population persistence of species occupying the warm edges of their thermal distributions  
66 (Sunday et al., 2019). Understanding species' capacity for physiological acclimation is  
67 therefore essential for predicting vulnerability to marine heatwaves and anticipating potential  
68 shifts in species distributions and community composition under ongoing climate change  
69 (Gómez-Gras et al., 2025).  
70 Fishes can buffer short-term warming through behavioural thermoregulation, such as  
71 relocating to cooler waters, or via acclimation, a reversible form of phenotypic plasticity  
72 within individuals that can partially offset thermal impacts on metabolism and performance  
73 (Brett, 1952; Jr, 2009; Seebacher et al., 2015). Broadly, phenotypic plasticity is the capacity  
74 of organisms to alter aspects of their phenotype in response to environmental variation  
75 (Morash, 2024). However, when warming exceeds upper thermal limits and outpace their  
76 acclimation capacity, individuals lose motor control and can no longer escape heat (Fry,  
77 1947; Jutfelt et al., 2024; McKenzie et al., 2021). This threshold is commonly quantified as  
78 the Critical Thermal maximum ( $CT_{max}$ ), defined as the temperature-inducing loss of  
79 equilibrium (Becker & Genoway, 1979). Despite limited mechanistic insights,  $CT_{max}$  remains  
80 widely used to assess acute thermal tolerance and acclimation capacity across fishes under  
81 climate change scenarios (De Bonville et al., 2025; Desforges et al., 2023; Lefevre et al.,  
82 2021; Madeira et al., 2012; Messmer et al., 2017; Moyano et al., 2017; Raby et al., 2025;  
83 Vinagre et al., 2016). Derived metrics such as acclimation response ratio (ARR) and thermal

84 tolerance gain (TTgain) further quantify the magnitude of thermal acclimation following  
85 exposure to elevated temperatures (L.Claussen, 1977; Morley et al., 2019).  
86 Predicting which species are vulnerable to thermal extremes and how fish assemblages will  
87 change under climate warming is challenging because thermal tolerance and acclimation  
88 capacity vary widely among species (Burton & Einum, 2025; Jutfelt et al., 2024). While  
89 acclimation capacity has been examined in subtropical, temperate and Antarctic fishes (Bilyk  
90 & DeVries, 2011; De Bonville et al., 2025; Drost et al., 2016; Mottola et al., 2022; Peck et al.,  
91 2014), few studies have compared multiple species co-occurring within the same habitat,  
92 and to our knowledge, none have focused on seagrass-associated fish assemblages.  
93 Eelgrass (*Zostera marina*) is the most widespread seagrass in the Northern Hemisphere,  
94 occurring in Pacific and Atlantic oceans from temperate to Arctic environments (Short, 2003;  
95 Yu et al., 2023). Eelgrass meadows host highly diverse fish assemblages including shallow-  
96 water generalists (e.g., wrasses, gobies, sticklebacks), stationary specialists (e.g., pipefishes  
97 and some gobies), and juvenile migrants such as gadids (codfishes) and flatfishes (Perry et  
98 al., 2018; Pihl & Wennhage, 2002). However, eelgrass depth distribution has steeply  
99 declined in Europe due to eutrophication and habitat destruction, with complex recovery  
100 trajectories and an increasingly constrained distribution to the first meters of the shoreline  
101 (Boström et al., 2014; de los Santos et al., 2019; Krause-Jensen et al., 2021; Lefcheck et al.,  
102 2017). Eelgrass habitats are also becoming shallower due to deterioration of water quality,  
103 which further exposes them to thermal extremes that threaten the provision of their  
104 ecosystem services (Krause-Jensen et al., 2021; Nguyen et al., 2021; Saha et al., 2020).  
105 Moreover, while eelgrass meadows exhibit strong temperature microclimates driven by  
106 depth, hydrodynamics and exposure (Hattich et al., 2025), there is a lack of long-term, high-  
107 resolution temperature records from eelgrass meadows (Nordlund et al., 2024). Recent  
108 syntheses highlight that the ecological impacts of marine heatwaves depend strongly on  
109 local environmental conditions and fine-scale habitat heterogeneity, which can amplify or  
110 buffer thermal exposure relative to regional averages (Starko et al., 2024). Consequently,

111 the responses of eelgrass fish assemblages to marine heatwaves remain poorly understood  
112 (Robinson et al., 2022; Thalmann et al., 2024).  
113 Here, we experimentally quantified  $CT_{max}$  and short-term acclimation capacity in 12 fish  
114 species associated with eelgrass habitats on the Swedish Skagerrak coast. Wild-caught  
115 individuals were exposed to ecologically relevant ambient (19°C) and elevated (23°C)  
116 temperatures for five days, followed by measuring  $CT_{max}$  through the behavioural response  
117 temperature at loss of equilibrium. We then quantified acclimation capacity for all species  
118 and further examined relationships between  $CT_{max}$  and species' thermal distribution ranges.  
119 We also evaluated local thermal regimes using in situ logger records and historical  
120 temperature data to detect marine heatwaves. We predicted that generalist species with  
121 warmer thermal niches would exhibit higher  $CT_{max}$  and greater acclimation capacity, whereas  
122 migratory species with narrower or cold ranges would show lower tolerance and limited  
123 plasticity, indicating potential vulnerability to future marine heatwaves occurring in eelgrass  
124 habitats.

125

## 126 **Materials and methods**

### 127 **Animal research permit**

128 The Swedish Board of Agriculture's ethical committee and the University of Gothenburg  
129 approved this experiment (Ethics Permit Dnr 5.2.18-01447/2022). It followed the regulations  
130 set by the Animal Welfare Body at the University of Gothenburg and the ARRIVE guidelines  
131 (Animal Research: Reporting of *In Vivo* Experiments (Sert et al., 2020).

### 132 **Study area and fish husbandry**

133 The study was conducted between 15<sup>th</sup> of July and 23<sup>rd</sup> of September, 2024, at the  
134 Kristineberg Marine Research Station, in the Gullmar Fjord on the Swedish Skagerrak coast  
135 (58.24983° N, 11.44587° E). The fjord is connected to the North Sea and supports  
136 productive eelgrass meadows in shallow, semi-sheltered areas.

137 Wild fish belonging to twelve different common temperate fish species associated with  
 138 eelgrass were collected within two kilometres from Kristineberg at one to four meters depth.  
 139 Species represented six families (Gadidae, Pleuronectidae, Labridae, Gasterosteidae,  
 140 Gobiidae and Syngnathidae; Table 1) and included shallow water generalists, sedentary  
 141 habitat specialists and juvenile migratory species. Fish were captured using beach seines,  
 142 baited traps, fyke nets and hand nets while snorkelling, and immediately transported to the  
 143 research station.

Study Species and Experimental Design							
Species	Family	Common name	N / treat	N / tank	Morphometrics		
					TL (mm)	Mass (g)	Life stage
<i>Gadus morhua</i>	Gadidae	Atlantic cod	9	1-2	103 ± 20	10.6 ± 6.0	J
<i>Merlangius merlangus</i>	Gadidae	Whiting	12	2-3	121 ± 9	13.4 ± 3.3	J
<i>Gasterosteus aculeatus</i>	Gasterosteidae	Three-spined stickleback	75	15	48 ± 4	1.0 ± 0.1	A
<i>Gobius niger</i>	Gobiidae	Black goby	35	7	82 ± 6	6.9 ± 0.5	J
<i>Pomatoschistus flavescent</i>	Gobiidae	Two-spotted goby	105	21	39 ± 7	0.4 ± 1.9	A
<i>Pomatoschistus minutus</i>	Gobiidae	Sand goby	30	6	64 ± 58	1.8 ± 0.4	A
<i>Ctenolabrus rupestris</i>	Labridae	Goldsinny wrasse	20	4	95 ± 11	11.2 ± 6.5	A
<i>Syphodus melops</i>	Labridae	Corkwing wrasse	30	6	122 ± 8	24.5 ± 0.5	A
<i>Pleuronectes platessa</i>	Pleuronectidae	Plaice	35	7	52 ± 10	1.6 ± 3.7	J
<i>Nerophis ophidion</i>	Syngnathidae	Straightnose pipefish	15	3	208 ± 52	0.7 ± 9.1	A / J
<i>Syngnathus acus</i>	Syngnathidae	Greater pipefish	3	1	376 ± 35	24.2 ± 0.8	A
<i>Syngnathus typhle</i>	Syngnathidae	Broadnosed pipefish	15	3	144 ± 9	1.2 ± 0.9	A / J

144  
 145 **TABLE 1. Metadata for study species and experimental design.** N/treat = number of individuals per  
 146 treatment; N/tank = number of fish per tank; TL (mm) = total length in millimeter, mean ± S.D.; Mass (g) = mass in  
 147 grams, mean ± S.D. For life stage J = Juvenile; A = Adult.  
 148 At the lab, fish were housed in a holding tank (1350 L, 275 × 79 × 62 cm, [L × W × H])  
 149 supplied with flow-through filtered seawater pumped from seven meters depth and  
 150 acclimated to captivity for one week under ambient fjord temperatures (18.6 ± 1.5°C, mean ±  
 151 S.D.) and a 12:12 hour light:dark photoperiod. They were fed once daily to satiation with

152 thawed northern shrimp (*Pandalus borealis*) and brine shrimp (*Artemia* sp.), and tanks were  
153 cleaned daily to maintain water quality.

154 **Experimental design**

155 Separate experiments were conducted for each species, exposing the fish to two  
156 temperature treatments for five days to trigger a short-term acclimation response. Each  
157 experiment consisted of five replicated tanks with seawater at 19°C (“Ambient”) and five at  
158 23°C (“Heated”). These temperatures reflected ecologically realistic summer conditions on  
159 the Swedish Skagerrak coast based on high resolution *in situ* temperature records at one  
160 meter depth at Kristineberg (<https://www.weather.loven.gu.se/kristineberg/en/>). “Ambient”  
161 approximated the mean daily maximum sea temperature from 1<sup>st</sup> of June to 30<sup>th</sup> of  
162 September for 2020-2023 (18.6 ± 1.9°C, mean ± S.D.), while “Heated” simulated a +4°C  
163 marine heatwave anomaly.

164 Experiments were conducted in a temperature-controlled room with centralized air and sea  
165 water heating. Tanks received flow-through seawater adjusted to target temperatures, which  
166 were monitored daily (18.8°C ± 0.3 and 22.8 ± 0.2, mean ± S.D.; Thermometer Testo-112,  
167 Testo, Lenzkirch, Germany). Fish were randomly assigned to treatments, and tank size was  
168 adjusted according to species: small glass tanks (45 L): 35 x 37x 35 cm [L × W × H]; big  
169 glass tanks (80 L): 38 x 60 x 35 cm. Tanks were dispersed throughout the room to minimize  
170 location effects, and contained 2cm of sand substrate and plastic seaweed, mussel shells,  
171 and PVC pipes for shelter. The feeding regime and photoperiod matched the holding period.

172 **Testing of acute warming tolerance (CT<sub>max</sub>) on fish**

173 After the five-day exposure, one CT<sub>max</sub> trial was conducted per experimental tank (five per  
174 treatment), testing all fish from a tank simultaneously. Fish were fasted 24 hours before trials  
175 (Raby et al., 2025). CT<sub>max</sub> was measured using a standardized test with temperature at loss  
176 of equilibrium (LOE) as the response variable for each fish (Beitinger et al., 2000; Morgan et  
177 al., 2018). LOE was a behavioural response defined as the fish’s inability to maintain an  
178 upright position for three seconds.

179 Trials were conducted in a custom arena filled with water from the corresponding  
180 experimental tank. The  $CT_{max}$  arena was a plastic box (34 x 25 x 17 cm; ~14 liters) divided  
181 into one small (a third of the box size) and one big compartment (two thirds) by a mesh. The  
182 smaller compartment contained the heating elements (a coil heater and a heating chamber),  
183 a submersible water pump for mixing and an air stone for aeration, while the larger  
184 compartment housed the fish. A 300 W coil heater was placed inside a custom-made  
185 cylindrical steel heating chamber, which was connected to the water pump (Eheim  
186 compactON 1000 aquarium pump) for even heat distribution. The water pump was set to a  
187 minimum level, so fish did not have to swim actively. A larger box (41 x 30 x 25 cm; ~23  
188 liters) and a 500 W heater (Aqua Medic TH-500) were used for species with body sizes over  
189 100 mm. The number of fish per trial ranged between three and 20 depending on species  
190 (Table S1).

191 To start the test, all fish from one tank were placed into the arena and allowed to habituate  
192 for ten minutes at the experimental temperature. Thereafter, the trial was started by plugging  
193 the heater and the water temperature gradually increased at a rate of  $0.3^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$  (thermal  
194 ramping curves and rates shown in Fig. S2 and Table S2). To avoid observer bias, one  
195 person observed the fish and identified LOE blinded from the thermometer (Holman et al.,  
196 2015), while another person recorded the time, temperature, and ramping rate (Testo-112  
197 Digital Thermometer, Lenzkirch, Germany) (Raby et al., 2025). The  $CT_{max}$  arena was drained  
198 and refilled between trials. Pilot trials were run to define species LOE and performed by the  
199 same observer for all trials of a given species.

200 At LOE, the  $CT_{max}$  was recorded, and each fish was immediately transferred to a labelled jar  
201 with water at the original experiment temperature for recovery. After monitoring survival for  
202 30 minutes, fish were lightly anaesthetized (using 0.25 g/l Tricaine mesylate, MS222) to  
203 measure total length (mm), mass (g), and, when possible, life-stage, and sex. The order of  
204  $CT_{max}$  trials was randomized across treatments and performed during daytime.

205 **Data analysis**

206 All data analyses were conducted in R (v 4.4.2, R Core Team, 2024). Linear mixed-effect  
207 models were fitted using the *lme4* package (Bates et al., 2015); The packages *dplyr* and  
208 *ggplot2* (Wickham, 2016) were used for data wrangling and visualization, and *emmeans* was  
209 used to obtain estimated marginal means and pairwise contrasts.

## 210 **Comparing upper thermal tolerance across species**

211 We analysed  $CT_{max}$  using a linear mixed-effects model with species, treatment group  
212 (Ambient vs. Heated), and their interaction as fixed effects, and  $CT_{max}$  trial as a random  
213 intercept: `lmer(ctmax ~ species * group + (1 | trial))`.  
214 This model tested: (i) differences in Ambient  $CT_{max}$  among species (species effect), (ii) the  
215 overall effect of acclimation to elevated temperature (group effect), and (iii) species-specific  
216 differences in acclimation capacity (species x group interaction). Fish from the same tank  
217 were tested together within a  $CT_{max}$  trial and therefore, the trial represented the experimental  
218 unit. Due to complete mortality of *Gadus morhua* in the Heated treatment,  $CT_{max}$  was only  
219 measured for Ambient conditions for this species, and it was excluded from within-species  
220 acclimation contrasts. Estimated marginal means for each species x group combination and  
221 pairwise comparisons were obtained with *emmeans*.

## 222 **Comparing acclimation capacity across species**

223 Acclimation capacity was quantified using thermal tolerance gain (TTgain), the increase in  
224 thermal tolerance following acclimation (Fangue et al., 2014). For each species:

$$225 TTgain_{species} = \text{mean } CT_{max,Heated} - \text{mean } CT_{max, Ambient}$$

226 To compare acclimation capacity among species, we calculated the acclimation response  
227 ratio (ARR), which expresses the change in  $CT_{max}$  per  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  of change in acclimation  
228 temperature (Morley et al., 2019). For each species:

$$229 ARR_{species} = (\text{mean } CT_{max,Heated} - \text{mean } CT_{max, Ambient}) / 4$$

230 where  $\text{mean } CT_{max,Heated}$  and  $\text{mean } CT_{max, Ambient}$  are the estimated marginal means for each  
231 species and treatment obtained from the mixed-effects model and  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$  is the difference  
232 between treatments ( $19 - 23^{\circ}\text{C}$ ).

233 To visualise within-species variation in acclimation responses, we also calculated an  
234 individual-level ARR for fish exposed to the heated treatment as:  
235  $\text{ARR}_{\text{individual}} = (\text{CT}_{\text{max,Heated, individual}} - \text{mean } \text{CT}_{\text{max, Ambient, Species}}) / 4$   
236 where “mean  $\text{CT}_{\text{max, Ambient, Species}}$ ” is the species’ ambient  $\text{CT}_{\text{max}}$  baseline estimated as the  
237 marginal mean from the mixed-effects model. Negative ARR values were set to zero as they  
238 indicate no measurable acclimation capacity.

### 239 **Exploring upper thermal tolerance across fish families**

240 To explore broad taxonomic patterns in upper thermal tolerance, we conducted an additional  
241 family-level analysis using species as the unit of replication. Species-level  $\text{CT}_{\text{max}}$  (estimated  
242 marginal means from the mixed-effects model) for Ambient and Heated treatments were  
243 separately analysed as a function of family using a linear model (`lm(emmean ~ family)`),  
244 followed by Tukey-adjusted pairwise comparisons. Given the number of species per family  
245 was limited (1-3), this analysis was considered exploratory.

### 246 **Eelgrass summer temperatures and fish distribution ranges**

247 To investigate how current thermal regimes of eelgrass habitats compare to fish thermal  
248 distribution ranges, we first selected a reference eelgrass meadow with *in situ* sea  
249 temperature data available publicly. The meadow was located outside the Tjärnö Marine  
250 Laboratory, 72 km northwest from Kristineberg (58.87877 N, 11.13467 E), and hosted a  
251 logger at 1.5 m depth, recording temperature in 5-min intervals  
252 (<https://snd.se/en/catalogue/dataset/2024-45> ; Jahnke et al. (2024)). For 1<sup>st</sup> of June to 30<sup>th</sup> of  
253 September (2020-2023), negative values were filtered and data were aggregated to daily  
254 maximum temperature. Then for each day of year, we calculated a multi-year mean and the  
255 minimum and maximum of daily maxima. We also identified the warmest period in the  
256 season and computed the multi-year mean, minimum and maximum, to obtain the warmest  
257 temperature range of the reference eelgrass meadow. Then for each fish species, we  
258 obtained the thermal limits (preferred and absolute) from AquaMaps’ defined native range  
259 and environmental envelopes via FishBase. AquaMaps derive species-specific temperature  
260 envelopes from occurrence records (GBIF, OBIS) and expert-defined distributional ranges

261 (<https://www.aquamaps.org/>; Kaschner et al., 2019). Finally, the relationship between  
262 species' maximum range temperature and their mean  $CT_{max}$  (after acclimation to 19°C) was  
263 explored using Pearson's correlation and simple linear regression.

264 **Warming trends and marine heatwaves**

265 To investigate longer trends in local summer temperatures, we used *in situ* measurements of  
266 sea temperature from the Kristineberg weather station

267 (<https://www.weather.loven.gu.se/kristineberg/en/>), at 1m depth in 5-min intervals available  
268 for 1996-2024, except 1997 and 2001-2006. Data from the 1<sup>st</sup> of June to the 30<sup>th</sup> of  
269 September (referred to as "summer") were aggregated to daily maxima and used to  
270 calculate decadal averages. Trends in annual summer maxima were calculated with linear  
271 regression.

272 Since a 30-year climatology baseline is required for standard marine heatwave detection  
273 (Smith et al., 2025), we used satellite-derived daily mean SST from the NOAA Optimum  
274 Interpolation Sea Surface Temperature version 2.1 (NOAA OISST; (Huang et al., 2024;  
275 Reynolds et al., 2007)), with 0.25° (27 km) resolution, extending back to 1982, and extracted  
276 for the grid cell nearest Kristineberg (58.125°N, 11.375°E). For the 1<sup>st</sup> of January 1982 to the  
277 31<sup>st</sup> of December 2024 temporal trends modelled with linear regression. Marine heatwave  
278 frequency and cumulative intensity (°C and days) for each year were estimated using the  
279 *heatwaveR* package (W. Schlegel & J. Smit, 2018), following the definition from Hobday et  
280 al. (2016), with a 30-year climatology baseline record (1982-2011). Marine heatwave  
281 frequency was modelled using a Poisson Generalized Linear Model (GLM) with robust (HC1)  
282 confidence intervals. Marine heatwave annual cumulative intensity (the sum of daily sea  
283 temperature anomalies across heatwave days within a year (°C·days) (Oliver et al., 2018)  
284 was modelled using a Gamma GLM with a log link and robust confidence intervals, with a  
285 log-transformed linear model and Newey-West correction when it did not converge. All  
286 trends were expressed per decade.

287 Finally, to assess if the long-term data sets were representative of eelgrass habitats, we  
288 compared *in situ* daily SST means from Kristineberg and satellite SSTs to *in situ* daily means

289 from the reference eelgrass meadow in Tjärnö (described above) for the summers 2020-  
290 2023. Agreement among datasets was evaluated using Pearson correlations, mean bias,  
291 and root-mean-square error (RMSE).

292

293 **Results**

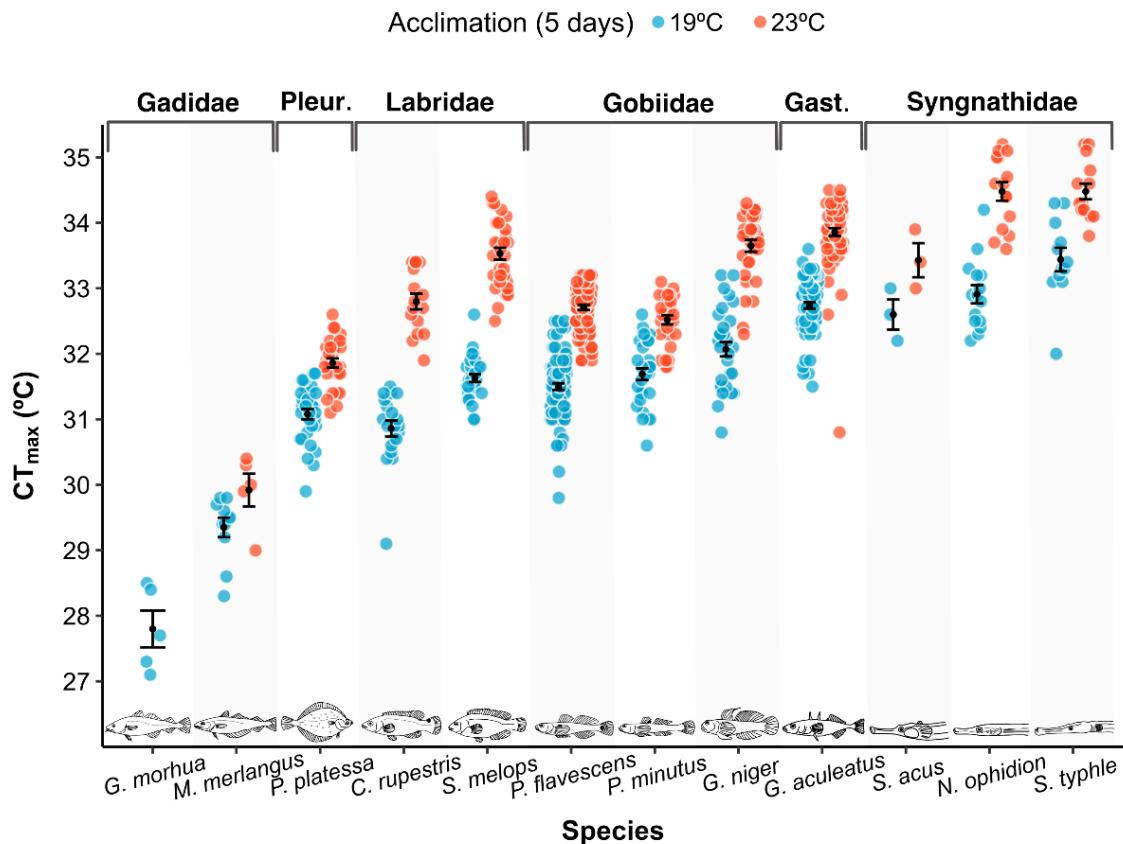
294 **Upper thermal tolerance ( $CT_{max}$ ) across species and families**

295 A linear mixed-effects model revealed strong effects of species ( $F = 123.23, p < 0.001$ ) and  
296 temperature treatment ( $F = 540.91, p < 0.001$ ) on  $CT_{max}$ , as well as significant species x  
297 treatment interaction ( $F = 10.96, p < 0.001$ ), indicating pronounced interspecific differences  
298 in upper thermal tolerance and species-specific responses to short-term warming.

299 Subsequent analyses using estimated marginal means are presented below.

300 **Acclimation to 19°C (Ambient)**

301 Under acclimation to 19°C,  $CT_{max}$  differed significantly among species ( $F = 94.3, p < 0.001$ ;  
302 Fig. 1; Table S4). Estimated marginal mean  $CT_{max}$  ranged from 27.8 in *Gadus morhua* to  
303 33.4°C in *Syngnathus typhle*. Juvenile gadids (Gadidae) exhibited the lowest thermal  
304 tolerance, followed by juvenile plaice and wrasses, whereas gobies, sticklebacks and  
305 pipefishes showed higher  $CT_{max}$  values, with pipefishes (Syngnathidae) representing the  
306 most heat tolerant family.



307

308 **FIGURE 1.** Upper thermal tolerance ( $CT_{max}$ ) of twelve eelgrass-associated fish species following five days of  
 309 acclimation to 19°C (Ambient; blue) or 23°C (Heated; orange). Coloured points represent individual  $CT_{max}$   
 310 measurements and are jittered horizontally for clarity. Black points and error bars indicate species means  $\pm$  S.E.  
 311 Y-axis values show temperature in °C; X-axis values are shortened species names (left to right): *Gadus morhua*;  
 312 *Merlangius merlangus*; *Pleuronectes platessa*; *Ctenolabrus rupestris*; *Syphodus melops*; *Pomatoschistus*  
 313 *flavescens*; *Pomatoschistus minutus*; *Gobius niger*; *Gasterosteus aculeatus*; *Syngnathus acus*; *Nerophis*  
 314 *ophidion*; *Syngnathus typhle*. Among families, Pleur. = *Pleuronectidae*; Gast. = *Gasterosteidae*.

### 315 **Acclimation to 23°C (Heated)**

316 Following exposure to 23°C,  $CT_{max}$  also differed significantly among species ( $F = 71.51$ ,  $p <$   
 317 0.001; Fig. 1; Table S3). All juvenile *G. morhua* and 58.3% of the juvenile whiting (*M.*  
 318 *merlangus*) died during the exposure period (Table S4). Among surviving fish, whiting  
 319 exhibited the lowest  $CT_{max}$  (29.9°C) whereas pipefishes reached values up to 34.5°C. The  
 320 relative ranking of species under 23°C broadly mirrored that observed at 19°C, although the  
 321 gobies *P. flavescens* and *P. minutus* displayed slightly lower  $CT_{max}$  than the wrasses *C.*  
 322 *rupestris* and *S. melops*.

323 **Family-level patterns**

324 An exploratory family-level analysis indicated differences in  $CT_{max}$  under both Ambient (linear  
325 model,  $F = 15.11$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ; Table S5) and Heated conditions (linear model,  $F = 8.80$ ,  $p <$   
326 0.05; Table S6). Gadidae showed substantially lower  $CT_{max}$  ( $28.6 \pm 0.4^\circ\text{C}$ , mean  $\pm$  S.E.) than  
327 all other families, whereas Gasterosteidae and Syngnathidae were the most heat tolerant  
328 ( $\approx 33^\circ\text{C}$ ). Pleuronectidae, Labridae and Gobiidae showed intermediate mean  $CT_{max}$  levels,  
329 with comparatively small and non-significant differences among these families.

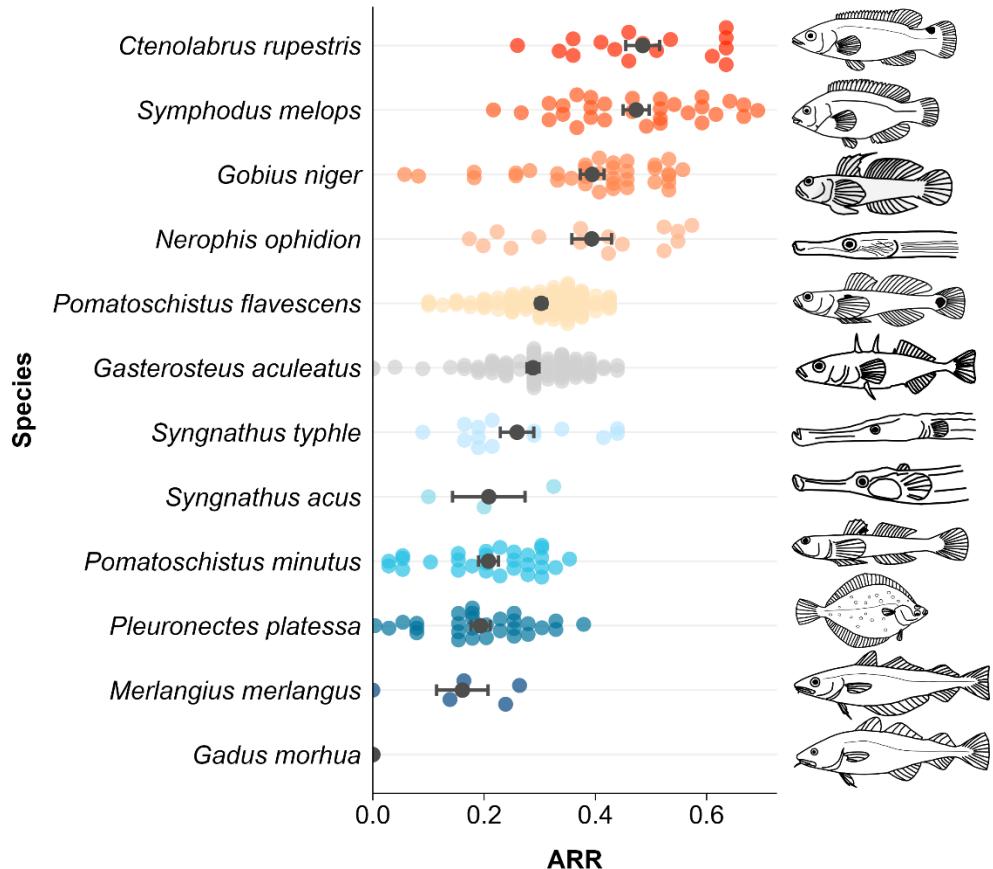
330 **Acclimation capacity**

331 ***Thermal tolerance gain (TT<sub>gain</sub>)***

332 Species-specific contrasts revealed significant increases in  $CT_{max}$  following the short-term  
333 warming for all species with measurements in both treatments (all  $p < 0.02$ ; Table S7).  
334 TT<sub>gain</sub> varied nearly threefold among species, ranging from  $0.62^\circ\text{C}$  to  $1.94^\circ\text{C}$  (Table S8).  
335 The largest gains were observed in *C. rupestris* ( $1.94^\circ\text{C}$ ), *S. melops* ( $1.89^\circ\text{C}$ ), *N. ophidion*  
336 ( $1.58^\circ\text{C}$ ), and *G. niger* ( $1.58^\circ\text{C}$ ), whereas juvenile gadids and plaice exhibited comparatively  
337 weak responses. No TT<sub>gain</sub> could be estimated for *G. morhua* due to complete mortality in  
338 the heated treatment.

339 ***Acclimation response ratio (ARR)***

340 Full thermal acclimation (ARR = 1), equivalent to a  $4^\circ\text{C}$  increase in  $CT_{max}$ , was not achieved  
341 in any species after five days at  $23^\circ\text{C}$ . Species-level ARR values derived from estimated  
342 marginal means ranged from 0.13 to 0.48, showing partial but variable acclimation capacity  
343 among species (Fig. 2; Table S8). Species exhibiting the highest ARR were primarily  
344 wrasses and sedentary taxa, whereas juvenile gadids and flatfish had the lowest values.  
345 Individual-level ARR values showed substantial within-species variation (Fig. 2). Most  
346 individuals displayed positive acclimation responses, although some exhibited ARR values  
347 near zero, indicating no measurable increase in  $CT_{max}$ . No ARR could be reported for *G.*  
348 *morhua*.

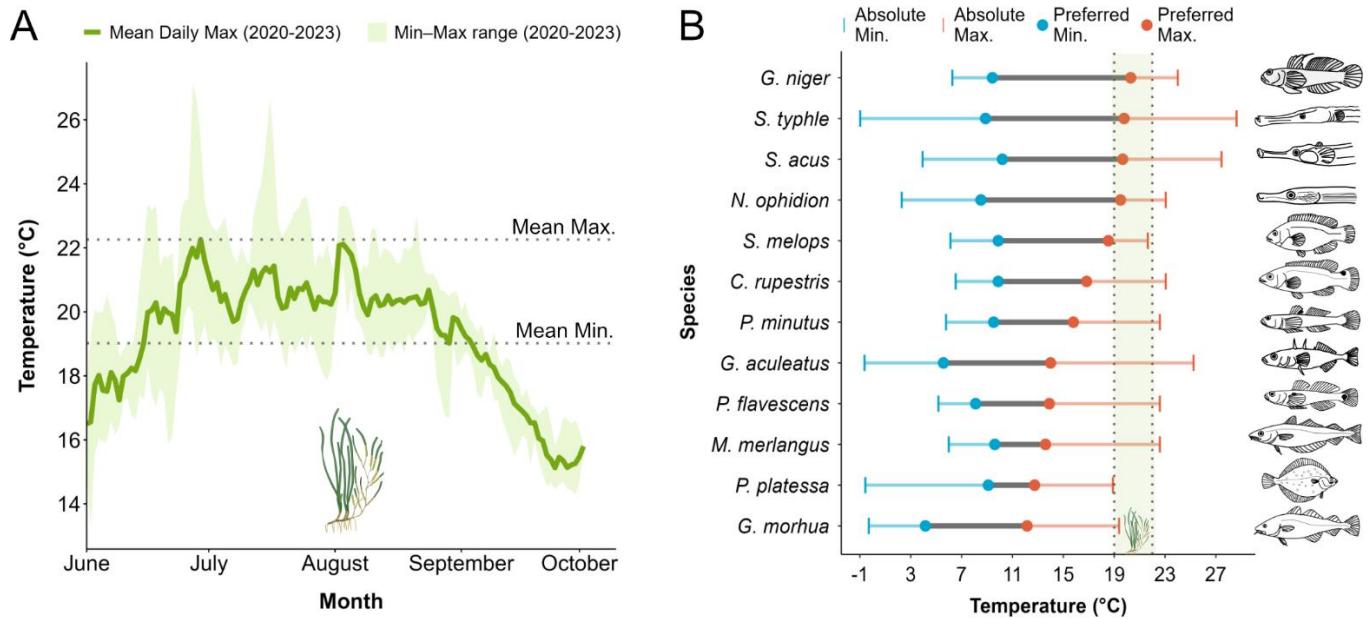


349

350 **FIGURE 2.** Acclimation response ratio (ARR) following five days of exposure to 23°C for twelve eelgrass-  
 351 associated fish species. Coloured points represent individual-level ARR values calculated for fish exposed to  
 352 23°C. Black points and error bars show species-level ARR mean  $\pm$  S.E. An ARR of 1.0 represents a complete  
 353 thermal compensation. *Gadus morhua* did not survive the heated treatment and is therefore shown without ARR  
 354 values.

### 355 **Eelgrass summer temperatures and fish distribution ranges**

356 Temperature records from the reference eelgrass meadow revealed that the warmest  
 357 seawater conditions occurred from the 15<sup>th</sup> of June to the 1<sup>st</sup> of September, when daily  
 358 maximum temperatures averaged 20.5°C, ranged between 19.0 and 22.3°C, and frequently  
 359 approached or exceeded 23°C (Fig. 3A). Over the full summer period (1<sup>st</sup> of June to the 30<sup>th</sup>  
 360 of September), daily maximum temperatures followed a clear seasonal pattern, averaging  
 361 19.3°C and ranging from 15.1 to 22.3°C (Fig. 3A).



362

363 **FIGURE 3. Summer sea temperatures in a temperate eelgrass (*Zostera marina*) meadow and fish species**  
 364 **thermal distribution ranges.** A) Daily maximum seawater temperature in an eelgrass meadow at 1.5 m depth  
 365 during the summer (the 1<sup>st</sup> of June to the 30<sup>th</sup> of September, 2020-2023). Green line: mean daily maximum  
 366 across the four years; Shaded green ribbon: range between minimum and maximum daily maxima across years;  
 367 Grey dotted horizontal lines: minimum and maximum of the daily mean during the warmest period (the 15<sup>th</sup> of  
 368 June to the 1<sup>st</sup> of September). B) Thermal distribution ranges of the species ordered by maximum preferred  
 369 temperatures. Red and blue dots indicate preferred maximum and minimum temperatures, respectively, while the  
 370 grey segment indicates preferred temperature ranges. Red and blue ticks indicate absolute maximum and  
 371 minimum temperatures, respectively. Vertical grey dotted lines at 19°C and 22°C highlight the current  
 372 temperatures in eelgrass relating to panel A.

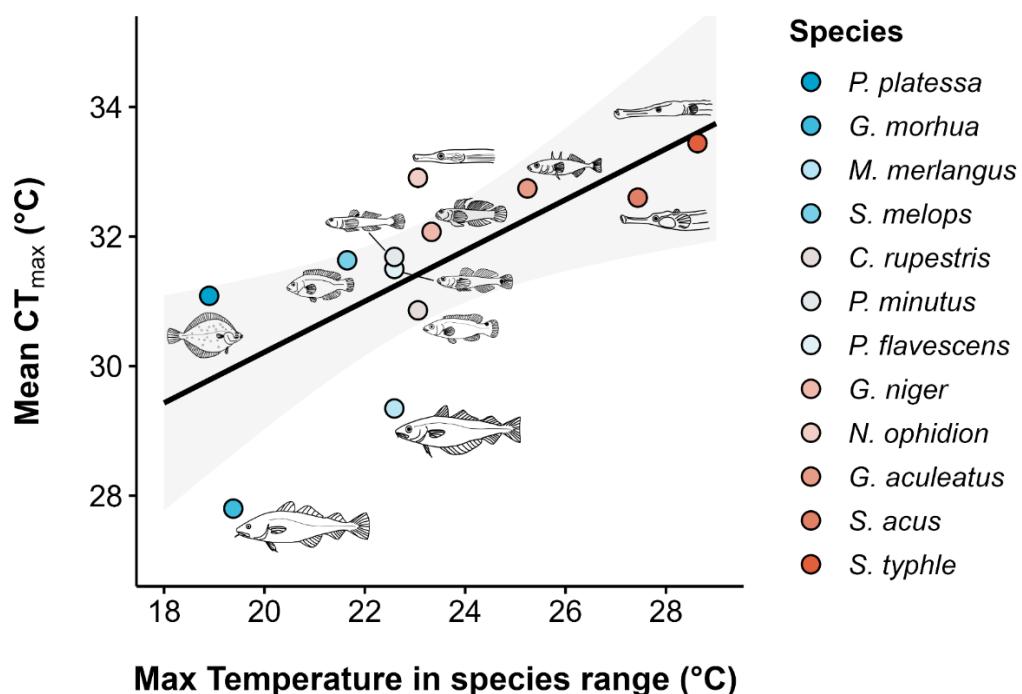
373 Thermal niches varied substantially among species (Fig. 3B). Most occupied broad thermal  
 374 ranges spanning approximately 5-23°C, while some taxa, including the three-spined  
 375 stickleback and broadnosed pipefish, exhibited wider distributions extending to 25-28°C. In  
 376 contrast, cod and plaice were restricted to cooler thermal environments, with upper  
 377 distribution limits around 19°C (Fig. 3B).

378 For several species, preferred temperature maxima were below present summer  
 379 temperatures measured in eelgrass habitats. Juvenile cod, whiting, plaice, two-spotted goby,  
 380 three-spined stickleback, sand goby, and goldsinny wrasse, showed preferred temperatures  
 381 in the range of ≈ 12–18°C, despite absolute maxima indicating persistence at higher

382 temperatures. In contrast, corkwing wrasse, pipefishes, and black goby exhibited preferred  
383 temperatures within or above the summer range of regional eelgrass ( $\approx 19\text{--}21^\circ\text{C}$ ), with some  
384 species occupying waters exceeding  $24^\circ\text{C}$  (Fig. 3B).

### 385 **Upper thermal tolerance and thermal ranges**

386 Mean  $\text{CT}_{\text{max}}$  increased with the absolute maximum temperatures experienced across  
387 species' geographic distributions ( $R^2 = 0.489$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ; Fig. 4). Hence, species from warmer  
388 environments exhibited higher upper thermal limits, with  $\text{CT}_{\text{max}}$  broadly tracking the upper  
389 bounds of their thermal ranges.

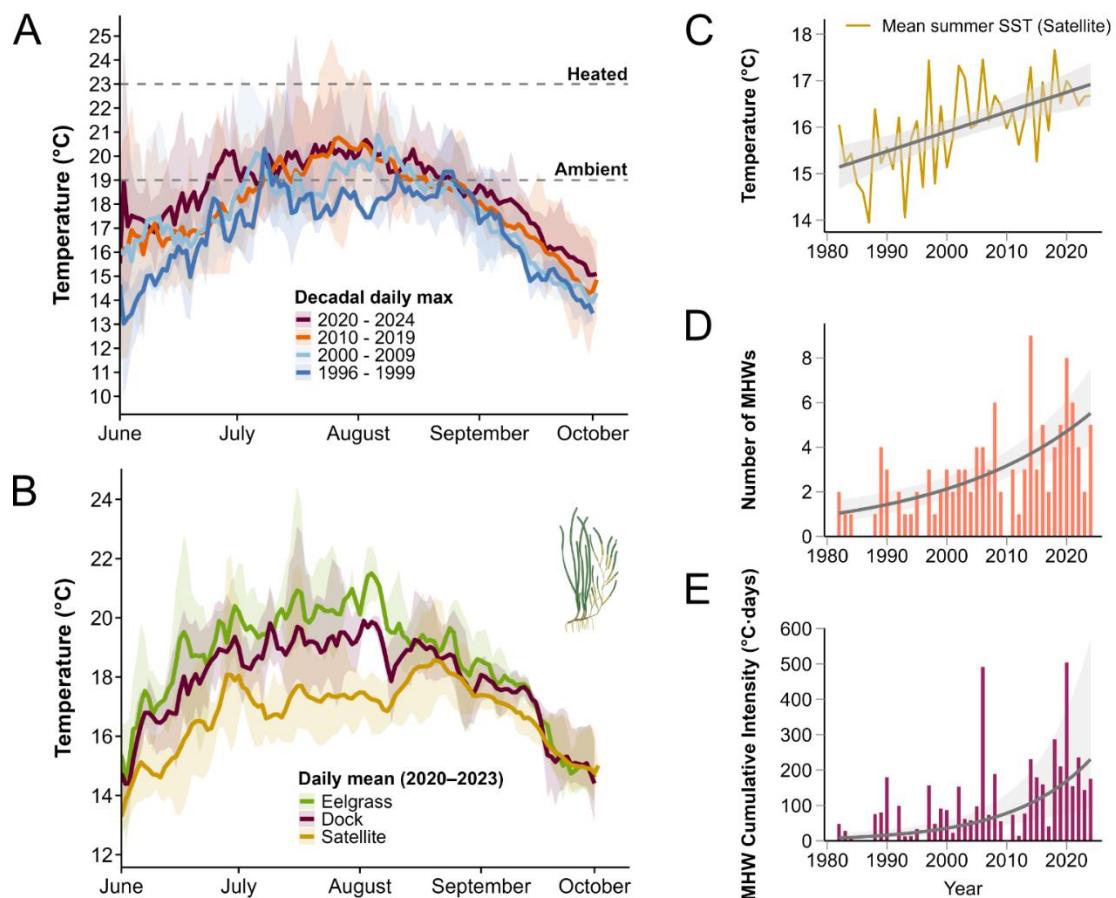


390  
391 **FIGURE 4.** Relationship between species' mean  $\text{CT}_{\text{max}}$  (at  $19^\circ\text{C}$ ) and maximum temperatures of its predicted  
392 distribution range (AquaMaps, Froese et al., 2019). Each point represents the mean Critical Thermal maximum  
393 ( $\text{CT}_{\text{max}}$ ) for a species under ambient conditions, with colors distinguishing species. The black line shows the fitted  
394 linear regression ( $\pm 95\%$  confidence interval in gray), indicating a positive association between  $\text{CT}_{\text{max}}$  and range  
395 maximum temperature.

### 396 **Thermal variability, warming trends and marine heatwaves**

397 Long-term *in situ* measurements at Kristineberg indicated substantial warming of summer  
398 seawater temperatures between 1996 and 2024, with annual daily maximum temperatures  
399 increasing by  $2.6^\circ\text{C}$ , equivalent to  $0.92^\circ\text{C}$  per decade ( $0.092^\circ\text{C yr}^{-1}$ ; 95% CI:  $0.014\text{--}0.170^\circ\text{C}$

400  $\text{yr}^{-1}$ ;  $R^2 = 0.23, p < 0.05$ ; Fig. 5A). Seasonal patterns showed progressive warming from  
 401 early June to late July or early August, followed by cooling through September. Decadal  
 402 comparisons revealed that the most recent period (2020–2024) experienced the highest  
 403 daily maxima, frequently exceeding 20°C and occasionally surpassing 23°C.



404  
 405 **FIGURE 5. Long-term summer sea surface temperature (SST) and marine heatwaves at Kristineberg (1982**  
 406 **- 2024). A)** Daily maximum SST at 1m depth (1st of June to 30th of September), grouped by decade: 1996 - 1999  
 407 (dark blue), 2000 - 2009 (light blue), 2010 - 2019 (orange), and 2020 - 2024 (purple-red). Thin lines represent  
 408 individual years; thick lines represent decadal means, and shaded ribbons show the interannual minimum-  
 409 maximum range. Dashed horizontal lines indicate experimental temperature treatments ("Ambient" and  
 410 "Heated"). **B)** Daily mean SST (2020-2023) measured *in situ* within an eelgrass meadow at 1.5m depth (Tjärnö;  
 411 green), at the dock at 1m depth at Kristineberg (purple-red), and from satellite SST (yellow). Shaded ribbons  
 412 indicate the interannual minimum-maximum range. **C)** Mean summer SST by year derived from satellite data,  
 413 with a linear trend and 95% CI; warming rate =  $0.42^\circ\text{C}\cdot\text{decade}^{-1}$  (95% CI 0.29-0.56). **D)** Annual frequency of  
 414 marine heatwaves (MHWS) with a fitted temporal trend and 95% CI; change =  $49\%\cdot\text{decade}^{-1}$  (95% CI 28-73); **E)**

415 Annual cumulative MHW intensity with fitted temporal trend and 95% CI; change = 116%·decade<sup>-1</sup> (95% CI 49-  
416 212).

417 Daily mean eelgrass temperatures were consistently higher than those measured at the  
418 dock or estimated from satellite data during summer (2020-2023; Fig. 5B). Eelgrass  
419 temperatures exceeded dock measurements by an average of 0.67°C, and satellite-derived  
420 SST by 1.76°C, with both offsets being statistically significant (one-sample t-tests on paired  
421 daily differences:  $p < 0.001$  in both cases). Satellite SST showed a systematic cool bias  
422 relative to both in situ measurements (dock: -1.09°C, RMSE = 1.45°C; eelgrass: -1.76°C,  
423 RMSE = 2.25°C), although temporal variability was captured reasonably well (Pearson  $r =$   
424 0.86 for satellite vs dock;  $r = 0.75$  for satellite vs eelgrass). Differences between eelgrass  
425 and satellite temperatures frequently exceeded 4°C and reached a maximum of 5.82°C,  
426 indicating that satellite SST substantially underestimates thermal extremes in shallow  
427 eelgrass meadows.

428 Satellite-derived SST further revealed a significant long-term warming in the summers and  
429 increasing marine heatwaves at Kristineberg between 1982-2024. Mean summer SST  
430 increased by 0.42°C per decade (95% CI 0.29-0.56;  $p < 0.001$ ; Fig 5C). Marine heatwave  
431 frequency increased by 49% per decade (95% CI 28-73;  $p < 0.001$ ; Fig. 5D), corresponding  
432 to an additional 1.02 events per decade (95% CI 0.65-1.39;  $p < 0.001$ ). Annual cumulative  
433 marine heatwave intensity increased by 116% per decade (95% CI 49–212;  $p < 0.001$ ; Fig.  
434 5E), equivalent to 48.6°C·days per decade (95% CI 26.6–70.7;  $p < 0.001$ ; Fig. 5E), indicating  
435 a marked rise in total thermal exposure associated with marine heatwaves.

436

## 437 **Discussion**

438 This study provides the first comparative assessment of upper thermal tolerance and short-  
439 term acclimation capacity across multiple eelgrass-associated fish species, linking  
440 experimental physiology with long-term habitat warming and regional trends in marine  
441 heatwaves. We reveal pronounced interspecific variation in upper thermal tolerance ( $CT_{max}$ )  
442 and rapid acclimation capacity. Although most species increased their  $CT_{max}$  following short-

443 term warming, the magnitude of acclimation differed markedly among species. Cold-water  
444 juvenile migrants using eelgrass and nearby sandy habitats as nurseries (e.g., Atlantic cod,  
445 whiting, and plaice) exhibited weak acclimation capacity and high mortality, whereas warm-  
446 tolerant generalists and stationary species (e.g. three-spined stickleback, black goby,  
447 goldsinny wrasse and corkwing wrasse) showed higher tolerance and greater plasticity.  
448 Importantly, these physiological differences occur in shallow eelgrass-associated fish  
449 communities that already experience temperatures near or exceeding the upper thermal  
450 limits of several associated species. Together, our results indicate that ongoing warming and  
451 intensifying marine heatwaves are likely to restructure eelgrass fish assemblages through  
452 differential physiological vulnerability.

#### 453 **Warming eelgrass habitats**

454 During summer (2020-2023) daily mean and maximum temperatures in the reference  
455 eelgrass meadow (1.5m depth) frequently reached 22-23°C, approaching or exceeding the  
456 preferred thermal ranges of several associated fishes. Eelgrass temperatures were  
457 consistently warmer than those recorded at the research station dock and were  
458 underestimated from satellite-derived SST by approximately 1–3°C on average and up to 4–  
459 5°C during thermal extremes. This pattern is consistent with previous work showing that  
460 satellite SST products capture broad temporal variability reasonably well, but systematically  
461 underestimate thermal extremes in shallow, vegetated habitats with restricted water  
462 exchange (Pearce et al., 2006; Phinn et al., 2018; D. Smale & Wernberg, 2009).  
463 Sheltered eelgrass meadows also experience greater thermal variability and more frequent  
464 extremes than wave-exposed habitats (Hattich et al., 2025). Such variability can have  
465 disproportionate effects on organismal performance compared to changes in mean  
466 temperature (Vasseur et al., 2014), particularly when extremes push individuals to their  
467 physiological limits. Microhabitat differences therefore modulate the temperatures organisms  
468 experience, creating opportunities for behavioural thermoregulation and refugia from  
469 extremes (Sunday et al., 2019). Broadly, the ecological impacts of marine heatwaves  
470 depend strongly on local environmental conditions and fine-scale habitat heterogeneity,

471 which can amplify or buffer thermal exposure relative to regional averages (Starko et al.,  
472 2024).  
473 Furthermore, our findings show that shallow eelgrass habitats warm faster than the regional  
474 warming trends. Although global oceans have warmed by  $\sim 0.13^{\circ}\text{C}$  per decade since 1982  
475 (Calvin et al., 2023; Von Schuckmann et al., 2024), the North Sea has warmed nearly four  
476 times faster, at  $\sim 0.38^{\circ}\text{C}$  per decade (Mohamed et al., 2025). We detected a comparable  
477 warming rate on the Swedish west coast ( $\sim 0.42^{\circ}\text{C}$  per decade) together with an increase in  
478 marine heatwave frequency. However, the cumulative intensity change was  $48.6^{\circ}\text{C}\cdot\text{days}$  per  
479 decade, which is about ten times stronger than in the full basin at  $4.23^{\circ}\text{C}\cdot\text{days}$  per decade  
480 (Mohamed et al., 2025). Therefore, our findings suggest that shallow eelgrass meadows  
481 may already be experiencing more severe and biologically relevant heatwaves than what is  
482 inferred from regional satellite time series, and future summer temperatures are likely to  
483 outpace the acclimation capacity of less plastic species.

#### 484 **Species-specific vulnerability to marine heatwaves**

485 Species living close to their upper thermal limits showed the weakest acclimation capacity  
486 and the highest vulnerability to the simulated heatwave. Juvenile Atlantic cod suffered  
487 complete mortality at  $23^{\circ}\text{C}$ , while juvenile whiting showed high mortality and negligible  
488 acclimation despite higher survival. These results indicate that gadids occupying warm  
489 nursery habitats have little scope for thermal acclimation under acute warming (Ern et al.,  
490 2023; Jutfelt et al., 2024). Cod and whiting are cold-temperate demersal fishes whose  
491 juveniles rely on shallow coastal nursery habitats, including eelgrass meadows (Heck Hay et  
492 al., 2003). Juvenile cod prefers temperatures below  $16^{\circ}\text{C}$  and actively avoids warmer  
493 conditions by diurnal vertical migration, and migrating between eelgrass meadows  
494 (Bjornsson, 2001; Claireaux et al., 1995; Freitas et al., 2016; Staveley et al., 2017). Growth  
495 also declines sharply above  $16^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Rogers et al., 2011). Juvenile whiting similarly prefers  
496 temperatures around  $15^{\circ}\text{C}$ , despite occupying a warmer distribution than cod (Asciutto et al.,  
497 2024; Calì et al., 2023). Our sea temperature analysis shows that eelgrass habitats routinely  
498 exceed these preferred temperatures during summer (Hattich et al., 2025), suggesting that

499 juvenile gadids with strong behavioural thermoregulation are already excluded from these  
500 shallow habitats during warm periods. With continued warming, such exclusion is likely to  
501 intensify, compromising the ability of young gadids to access nursery habitats that provide  
502 shelter and foraging opportunities, likely with negative consequences for population  
503 persistence (Freitas et al., 2016).

504 Another juvenile migrant, plaice, showed higher thermal tolerance than gadids but low  
505 acclimation capacity, indicating limited physiological buffering against thermal extremes. This  
506 pattern aligns with previous work on juvenile flatfish (De Bonville et al., 2025) and suggests  
507 reliance on behavioural thermoregulation, such as habitat shifting or substrate burial (Ziegler  
508 & Frisk, 2019). While the juvenile migrants studied showed low acclimation capacity, the  
509 shallow-water habitat generalists proved more tolerant to thermal stress. Gobies and  
510 sticklebacks displayed comparatively high thermal tolerance and moderate acclimation  
511 capacity, consistent with their broad habitat use. These generalist species are among the  
512 most abundant fishes in eelgrass habitats and play key roles as mesopredators and prey for  
513 fishes at higher trophic levels (Perry et al., 2018; Staveley et al., 2017). The black goby was  
514 both the most heat-tolerant and most plastic goby, with  $CT_{max}$  and ARR exceeding most  
515 other species, in line with previous estimates (Cowan et al., 2023).

516 Sticklebacks exhibited high thermal tolerance and a moderate acclimation capacity,  
517 consistent with previous work (Cowan et al., 2023; De Bonville et al., 2025; Mottola et al.,  
518 2022). Their ability to tolerate temperatures up to 25°C, combined with rapid generation time  
519 and increasing abundance under warming and eutrophication, suggests they may increase  
520 in dominance in warming eelgrass habitats (Olin et al., 2022). While sticklebacks are highly  
521 robust species, the wrasses outperformed them in terms of acclimation capacity.

522 Wrasses exhibited the strongest short-term acclimation capacity of all species tested,  
523 despite intermediate  $CT_{max}$  values under ambient conditions. Their high ARR values  
524 matched earlier work on goldsinny wrasse (De Bonville et al., 2025) and suggests  
525 substantial phenotypic plasticity, consistent with their broad thermal niches and generalist  
526 habitat use across rocky reefs and seagrass meadows. Previous studies have documented

527 high aerobic performance and plasticity in wrasses at temperatures exceeding those  
528 currently experienced in northern regions (Palma et al., 2025; Yuen et al., 2019), supporting  
529 the idea that these species are better equipped to tolerate future warming than others.  
530 However, wrasses have also shown significant physiological stress and mortality with  
531 exposure to multiple ocean stressors (Perry, Tamarit, Morgenroth, et al., 2024). The high  
532 acclimation capacity exhibited by wrasses is well suited to their habitat generalist strategy as  
533 they move regularly between different environmental conditions.  
534 In contrast, stationary species may be less able to avoid longer-term temperature extremes.  
535 For example, the stationary pipefishes tested in our study displayed the highest thermal  
536 tolerance among all taxa but showed moderate acclimation capacity. As they are strongly  
537 associated with eelgrass meadows, pipefishes may benefit from high thermal tolerance in  
538 warming habitats, although limited plasticity could constrain their ability to cope with extreme  
539 temperatures. The three tested pipefishes all had preferred thermal maxima well above the  
540 simulated heatwave (Fig. 3B). Among pipefishes, the straightnose pipefish showed relatively  
541 high ARR, suggesting it might be better equipped to withstand increasingly frequent marine  
542 heatwaves in their northern distribution ranges (Monteiro et al., 2023).  
543 A partial explanation for the observed interspecific differences in  $CT_{max}$  and ARR is the  
544 declining gain in thermal tolerance as species approach their upper thermal limits (Brett,  
545 1952; Doudoroff, 1942; Fangue et al., 2014; Sandblom et al., 2016). Theoretically, cold-  
546 water species living above their optimal temperature have limited scope for further warm  
547 acclimation, whereas warm-tolerant species living below their optimum retain greater  
548 capacity for plasticity (Ern et al., 2023). This likely explains the weak acclimation observed in  
549 gadids and flatfishes, but it does not fully account for all patterns observed in the current  
550 study. Notably, pipefishes exhibited high  $CT_{max}$  but modest acclimation capacity, whereas  
551 wrasses showed strong plasticity despite intermediate tolerance. These differences likely  
552 reflect evolutionary and phylogenetic constraints of the tested groups (Comte & Olden,  
553 2017). In our study, we measured  $CT_{max}$  using a standardized rapid ramping protocol to  
554 facilitate interspecific comparison, but such approaches may overestimate tolerance relative

555 to natural warming rates and should be interpreted as comparative indices rather than direct  
556 predictors of survival under heatwaves (Ern et al., 2023; Jutfelt et al., 2019; Lefevre et al.,  
557 2021). Also, we designed the five-day exposure to reflect the minimum duration of a marine  
558 heatwave, but longer-term acclimation, long-term heat injury, developmental plasticity, or  
559 transgenerational effects could further modify responses. Population-level variation and local  
560 adaptation may also contribute to interspecific differences, as phenotypic and genotypic  
561 divergence has been documented in gobies, wrasses, and sympatric cod ecotypes in the  
562 Skagerrak (Faust et al., 2021; Green et al., 2023; Henriksson et al., 2023; Leder et al., 2021;  
563 Perry, Tamarit, Sundell, et al., 2024).

#### 564 **Community and ecosystem implications**

565 Differential thermal tolerance and acclimation capacity among eelgrass-associated fishes  
566 are likely to have cascading consequences for assemblage structure and ecosystem  
567 functioning. Such cascading effects are increasingly recognized as a hallmark of marine  
568 heatwave impacts in coastal ecosystems (Wernberg et al., 2025). Seagrass ecosystems  
569 experiencing warming have already shown increased dominance of warm-water species and  
570 declines of cold-water species, accompanied by poleward or depth distribution shifts in  
571 coastal regions globally (Burrows et al., 2019; Cheung et al., 2013; Fodrie et al., 2010). Such  
572 temperature-driven changes in community composition can modify predator–prey  
573 interactions and grazing pressure, triggering cascading effects through food webs and  
574 altering ecosystem functioning (Baden et al., 2012; Casini et al., 2009; Frank et al., 2005;  
575 Olin et al., 2022). Experimental and field studies have shown that increased abundance of  
576 mesopredatory fishes, such as gobies and sticklebacks, can intensify predation on  
577 invertebrate grazers, thereby promoting filamentous algal growth and reducing eelgrass  
578 resilience (Moksnes et al., 2008; Östman et al., 2016). If warming disproportionately  
579 excludes cold-affinity predators while favouring thermally tolerant mesopredators,  
580 temperature may act as an additional driver amplifying predator-release cascades in  
581 seagrass ecosystems, with implications for the long-term stability of coastal seascapes.

582 To conclude, our study demonstrates that eelgrass-associated fishes differ markedly in both  
583 upper thermal tolerance and short-term acclimation capacity, with important consequences  
584 for species persistence in warming eelgrass habitats. By analysing fine-scale temperature  
585 data, we show that eelgrass meadows off the Swedish West coast already experience larger  
586 extremes than reported regional warming trends estimated with satellite products, and that  
587 approach the thermal distribution ranges of several associated fishes. As a result, juveniles  
588 of cold-affinity demersal species that rely on behavioural thermoregulation are likely to  
589 become increasingly excluded from this important nursery habitat during warm periods. In  
590 contrast, mesopredatory fishes with generalist life histories and moderate-to-high thermal  
591 tolerance or acclimation capacity may persist or increase in dominance as marine  
592 heatwaves intensify. Together, our findings highlight how species-specific physiological  
593 constraints combined with habitat specific warming can shape future eelgrass fish  
594 assemblages.

595

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602

## 603 **CRediT**

604 Conceptualization: ET, FJ; Methodology: ET, FS, FJ; Investigation: ET, FS, LP, ERL,  
605 HS; Validation: LG, DP, HL, MG, FJ; Visualization: ET; Data Curation: ET; Formal  
606 Analysis: ET; Resources: LG, HL, DP, MG, FJ; Project Administration: ET; Software:  
607 ET; Writing – original draft: ET; Supervision: DP, HL, MG, FJ; Writing-review &  
608 editing: ET, FS, LP, ERM, HS, LG, DP, HL, MG, FJ.

609 **Supporting information**

610 Table S1. Metadata for  $CT_{max}$  trials.

611 Figure S1. Thermal ramping curves of  $CT_{max}$  trials for each species.

612 Table S2. Thermal ramping rates estimated for all  $CT_{max}$  trials.

613 Table S3. Estimated marginal means of  $CT_{max}$  for each species and treatment.

614 Table S4. Percentage mortality of each species at the end of experimental exposure.

615 Table S5. Family-level differences in  $CT_{max}$  (Ambient).

616 Table S6. Family-level differences in  $CT_{max}$  (Heated).

617 Table S7.  $CT_{max}$  statistical contrasts.

618 Table S8. Thermal tolerance gain (TTgain) and acclimation response ratio (ARR) by species.

619

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