

1       Are we underestimating the ecological and evolutionary effects of  
2       warming? Interactions with other environmental drivers increase  
3                                   vulnerability to high temperatures

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5   **Elena Litchman<sup>1</sup>, Mridul K. Thomas<sup>2</sup>**

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7   <sup>1</sup> Michigan State University, USA

8   <sup>2</sup> University of Geneva, Switzerland

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11   corresponding author email: [litchman@msu.edu](mailto:litchman@msu.edu)

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16   environmental change, warming

17 **Abstract**

18 Warming, the most prominent aspect of global environmental change, already affects most  
19 ecosystems on Earth. In recent years, biologists have increasingly integrated the effects of  
20 warming into their models by capturing how temperature shapes their physiology, ecology,  
21 behavior, evolutionary adaptation, and probability of extirpation/extinction. The more  
22 physiologically-grounded approaches to predicting ectotherms' responses use thermal  
23 performance curves (TPCs) obtained by measuring species performance (e.g., growth rate) under  
24 different temperatures while other factors are held constant. These other factors are usually held  
25 at benign levels to 'isolate' the effects of temperature. Here we highlight that this practice may  
26 paint a misleading picture because TPCs are *functions* of other factors, including global change  
27 stressors. We review evidence that resource limitation, pH, oxygen and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, water  
28 availability, as well as parasites, all influence TPC shape and thermal traits such as optimum  
29 temperature for growth. Evidence from a wide variety of organisms – phytoplankton, protists,  
30 plants, insects, and fish – points towards such interactions increasing organisms' susceptibility to  
31 high temperatures. Failing to account for these interactions is likely to lead to erroneous  
32 predictions of performance in nature and possibly an underestimation of the risks of warming.  
33 We discuss the general patterns and possible consequences of such interactions for ecological  
34 communities. But importantly, interactions with TPCs share common features that we can learn  
35 from. Incorporating these interactions into population and community models should lead to  
36 deeper insights and more accurate predictions of species' performance in nature, now and in the  
37 future.

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40 **Introduction**

41           The next 100 years are expected to see temperature increases of at least 2 to 3°C both on  
42 land and in the ocean, and the warming will continue beyond that time frame (IPCC 2021).  
43 Understanding and predicting the consequences of this change has been a major, defining goal of  
44 biological research for nearly a generation – and will continue to be, for years or decades to  
45 come. A multitude of approaches has been used to understand what this and associated  
46 environmental changes mean for organisms, communities and ecosystems: from experiments in  
47 the lab, mesocosm and field, correlative analyses on expression patterns, genes, species,  
48 communities and ecosystems, from local to global scales, theoretical models ranging from the  
49 abstract and simple, to the detailed and specific. To make this problem tractable, a substantial  
50 proportion of this work – especially the experimental and theoretical parts of it – has focused on  
51 isolating the effects of temperature change alone on populations and communities and  
52 maintaining other environmental factors at benign (high nutrient/food levels) or at ambient  
53 levels. We argue that this approach must change. By ignoring how temperature interacts with  
54 other factors to influence populations and communities, we draw conclusions and make  
55 projections that are likely to be heavily biased.

56           Here we briefly describe how temperature shapes the growth of ectotherms, highlight the  
57 available evidence on temperature interactions with other environmental factors in determining  
58 thermal performance curves and discuss major consequences of such interactions for predicting  
59 the effects of rising temperatures on species and communities.

60 **Thermal performance curves (TPCs)**

61           At a fundamental level, temperature affects organisms by changing chemical reaction rates.  
62 Accelerating reaction rates with increasing temperature from a low baseline tends to increase

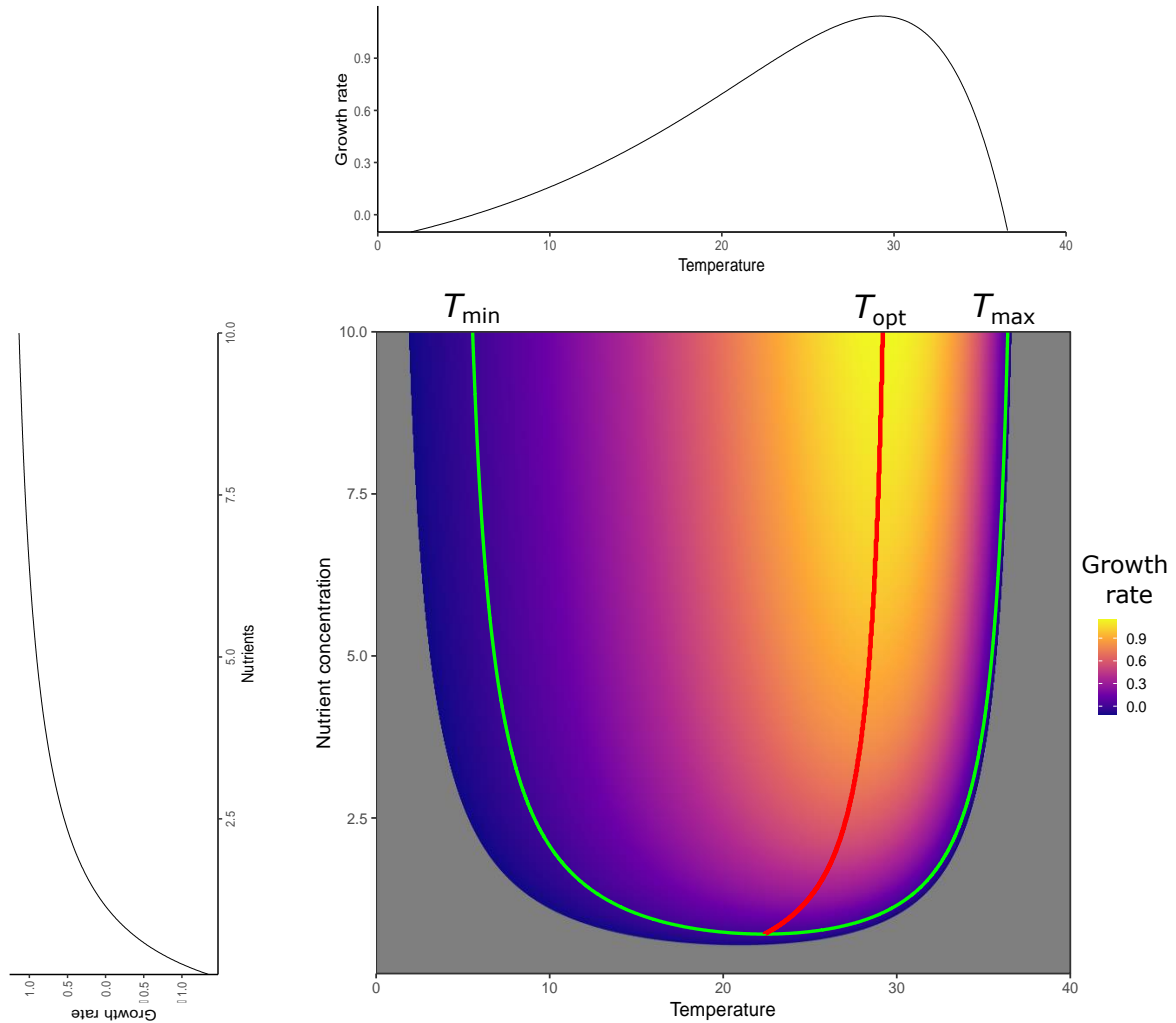
63 organismal performance and vital rates. As summarized in the Metabolic Theory of Ecology,  
64 temperature variation drives variation in rates of growth, death, movement, consumption,  
65 reproduction, mutation and more (Brown et al. 2004). This simple exponential increase with  
66 increasing temperatures drives global variation in a host of traits and life history strategies. For  
67 any particular biochemical reaction, however, the exponential increase in reaction rate with  
68 increasing temperatures does not continue indefinitely: it slows, stops, and reverses rapidly. At a  
69 high enough temperature, enzyme conformations begin to fail and they bind with unintended  
70 target molecules. In all ectotherms, from bacteria to reptiles, this manifests at the organismal and  
71 population level as performance being a left-skewed unimodal function of temperature (Fig. 1A).

72 This unimodal function, called the thermal performance curve (TPC) or thermal reaction  
73 norm has been at the core of attempts to mechanistically link physiology with species ranges,  
74 population dynamics and community composition. While the full TPC can be incorporated into  
75 theoretical models, the parameters describing these TPCs - especially the optimum, maximum  
76 and minimum temperatures ( $T_{opt}$ ,  $T_{max}$  and  $T_{min}$ , respectively) - form convenient species traits that  
77 are often used to assess species' vulnerability to high or low temperatures or define their thermal  
78 niches (Fig. 1A, Deutsch et al. 2008, Addo-Beddiako et al. 2000, Thomas et al. 2012, Sunday et  
79 al. 2011). TPCs and the associated traits capture important patterns in – and constraints on -  
80 growth rates and geographic ranges (Sunday et al. 2012, Payne et al. 2016). Therefore, projecting  
81 how warming will alter species performance and shift their ranges seems readily achievable. At  
82 individual locations, temperature projections through time instead of space are used to generate  
83 expectations of whether species would be able to persist and whether community composition  
84 would remain similar. There are complications that are difficult to address rigorously with this

85 approach at present, such as evolution and biotic interactions that are subject to other species'  
86 TPCs. We focus here on one complication that can and should be addressed.

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90 **Figure 1.** How growth rate depends on temperature and nutrient concentration. Top: Growth  
91 dependence on temperature. Left: Growth dependence on nutrient concentration. C. The growth  
92 rate surface as a function of temperature and nutrients, showing how the major temperature traits,  
93 optimum temperature for growth,  $T_{opt}$ , the minimum,  $T_{min}$  and maximum temperature for growth,  
94  $T_{max}$  all vary with nutrients.

95

96 **The dependence of thermal performance curves on environmental factors**

97       The work characterizing the dependence of growth and other eco-physiological  
98 characteristics on temperature is conceptually rigorous but suffers from a considerable weakness.  
99 Even without considering evolution and intraspecific variation, **the TPC is not a stable**  
100 **property of species, populations or even individuals.** Temperature interacts with a number of  
101 other environmental factors to determine performance; or stated differently, the TPC is itself a  
102 function of other factors. Food/nutrient availability, pH, light (for photosynthetic organisms),  
103 water availability, oxygen concentration, as well as biotic interactions such as parasitism, all can  
104 alter the shape of the TPC (Ern et al. 2016, Thomas et al. 2017, Aldea-Sánchez et al. 2021,  
105 Hector et al. 2021). While ubiquitous, these interactions of temperature with other abiotic and  
106 biotic factors have been mostly neglected when assessing how temperature affects population  
107 and community dynamics. Partly to reduce experimental complexity, it is common to ‘isolate’  
108 the effects of temperature in experiments by setting other factors at their most benign level (e.g.,  
109 optimal light, moisture or nutrient conditions for primary producers, high food supply levels for  
110 consumers). This practice is understandable - we have done the same in our own work - but  
111 comes at the obvious cost of making TPCs less representative of temperature-dependent  
112 performance in nature.

113       The available evidence suggests that TPC dependence on other environmental factors is  
114 widespread. The pattern that emerges across taxa and environmental factors is that thermal traits  
115 such as  $T_{opt}$  and  $T_{max}$  decline in stressful conditions such as resource limitation (Fig. 1). In other  
116 words, organisms are more sensitive to high temperatures when deprived of resources or  
117 subjected to extremes in other environmental dimensions. In phytoplankton, major oceanic  
118 primary producers, resource (nutrient) limitation has been shown to not only decrease their

119 maximum population growth rates but also lower their  $T_{\text{opt}}$  by 3 - 15°C (Boyd 2019, Thomas et  
120 al. 2017, Bestion et al. 2018). Light limitation also decreases  $T_{\text{opt}}$  in phytoplankton by about 4°C  
121 on average (Edwards et al. 2016) and increases high temperature sensitivity in seagrasses  
122 (Kendrick et al. 2019). This food dependence is not limited to photoautotrophs.  $T_{\text{opt}}$  and  $T_{\text{max}}$   
123 decreasing by approximately 3-7°C in the freshwater ciliate *Urotricha farcta* (Weisse et al. 2002)  
124 and the marine flagellate *Oxyrrhis marina* (Kimmance et al. 2006). This occurs in fish as well.  
125  $T_{\text{opt}}$  for somatic growth declines by approximately 10°C in salmon (Brett 1971) and several  
126 degrees in coral reef damselfish larvae, although a narrow experimental temperature range meant  
127 that precise values could not be quantified in the latter case (McLeod et al. 2013). The salmon  
128 study also showed a decrease in the upper temperature limit,  $T_{\text{max}}$ , also of approximately 10°C.  
129 Mosquitoes also show decreases in their  $T_{\text{opt}}$  of about 6°C (though this is poorly constrained) and  
130 their  $T_{\text{max}}$  as well (Huxley et al. 2021).

131       Theoretical investigation of these interactions has also been limited, but at least two  
132 models that approach the question of how temperature-resource (nutrient/food) interactions  
133 influence populations, or equivalently, how resources alter TPCs (Thomas et al. 2017, Huey and  
134 Kingsolver 2019). Thomas et al. (2017) developed a simple model of temperature-resource  
135 interactions that separates the effects of the two factors on birth and death processes (loosely  
136 defined). Huey & Kingsolver (2019) formulated a bioenergetic model that focusses on the  
137 thermal sensitivities of energy gain and metabolism. Despite their structural differences, both  
138 models come to a similar conclusion:  $T_{\text{opt}}$  and  $T_{\text{max}}$  are saturating functions of resource  
139 concentration, consistent with the findings described earlier. Both models also predict that  $T_{\text{min}}$  is  
140 altered as well, with low resources reducing cold tolerance in a similar manner. Consistent with  
141 this prediction, high N availability may increase cold tolerance in plants (Taulavuori et al. 2014,

142 Toca et al. 2017). That these patterns can be modelled in a relatively straightforward way to yield  
143 important insights about how organisms will respond to environmental change indicates that  
144 there is still low-hanging fruit to be plucked: the implications of these interactions deserve urgent  
145 theoretical attention.

## 146 **Consequences of interactions of temperature with other environmental factors**

147 Using TPCs obtained in otherwise benign conditions, with no resource limitation or other  
148 environmental stress, to predict species survival and shifts in their geographic ranges is likely to  
149 underestimate the negative effects of warming. This is because in most habitats, environmental  
150 factors are at stressful levels at least part of the time. The observed dependence of thermal traits  
151 on other environmental factors has many consequences that need to be accounted for when  
152 predicting the effects of rising temperature on organisms, populations and communities. Here we  
153 outline several such consequences that should be investigated.

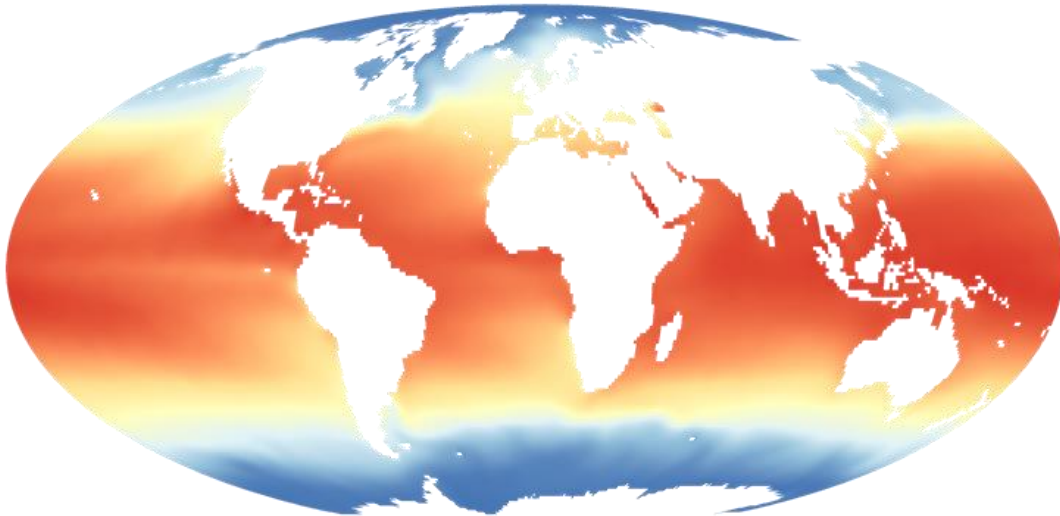
- 154 1. Aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems with pronounced resource limitation may be more  
155 adversely affected by warming than ecosystems that are not resource-limited. Nutrient  
156 (nitrogen, phosphorus or iron) limitation is widespread in the oceans and is predicted to  
157 become even more prevalent in the future (Sarmiento et al. 2004, Hayashida et al. 2020).  
158 On land, vast regions are also limited by P, N or co-limited by more than one nutrient  
159 (Du et al. 2020, Hou et al. 2021). Aridification of the land surface is also increasing,  
160 especially in the subtropics, thus increasing areas with water limitation (Shi et al. 2021).  
161 Because resource limitation decreases  $T_{opt}$  and  $T_{max}$  (Thomas et al. 2017, Huey and  
162 Kingsolver 2019), a simultaneous reduction in resource availability alongside increasing  
163 temperatures is likely to be substantially worse for many species than warming alone.  
164 And because regions experiencing resource limitation are widespread both on land and in



165 the ocean, temperature-resource interactions are likely to be important in determining  
166 species growth across broad swathes of the globe. Identifying areas that are undergoing  
167 rapid warming and simultaneously experience changes in the type and degree of resource  
168 limitation (Hayashida et al. 2020) could help pinpoint communities that may be  
169 especially vulnerable to climate change. Fig. 2 shows global ocean nitrate concentration,  
170 temperature, and the regions where the lowest nitrate concentration and highest  
171 temperatures overlap. Such areas appear predominantly in the tropics, and if we take into  
172 account that tropical phytoplankton's  $T_{opt}$  values match the current ambient temperatures  
173 (Thomas et al. 2012), the  $T_{opt}$  decline due to nutrient limitation is likely to be especially  
174 detrimental. Importantly, high levels of some resources may still result in resource  
175 limitation by other resources due to stoichiometric imbalances (Sterner and Elser 2002).

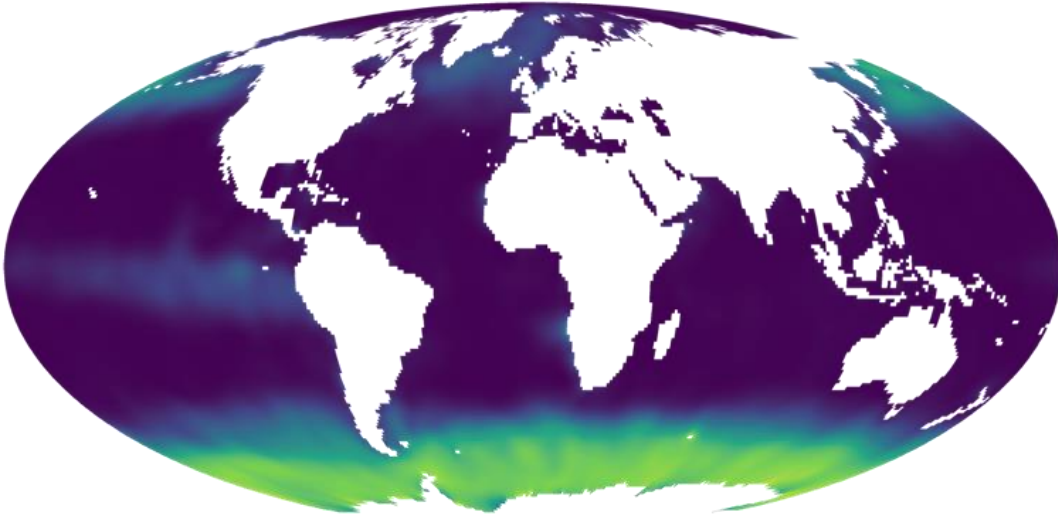
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Temperature

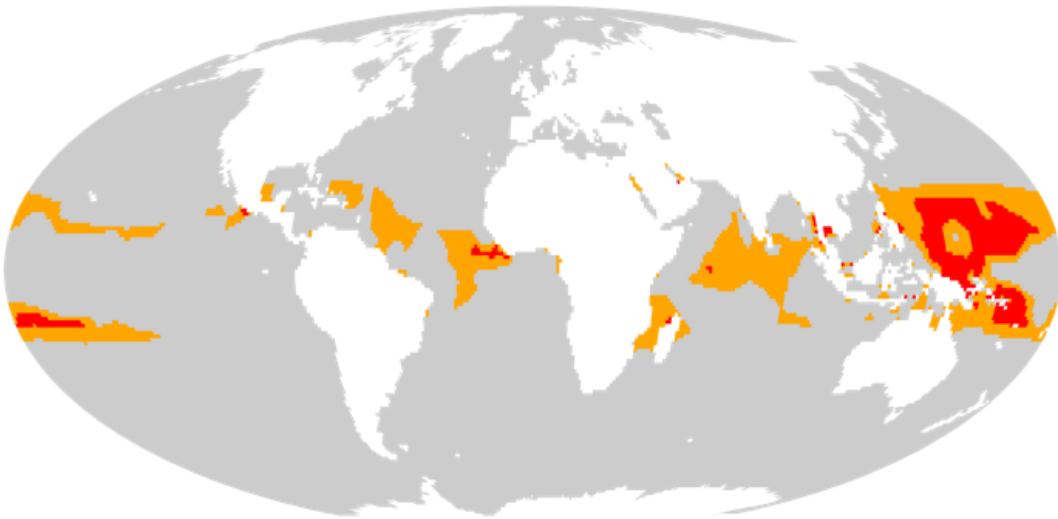


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Nitrate



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180 **Figure 2.** Oceanic regions where temperature-nutrient interactions are most likely to limit  
181 phytoplankton growth, and possibly shape ecosystem dynamics. The top and middle maps show  
182 global distributions of sea surface temperature and nitrate. The bottom map highlights locations  
183 where temperatures are near their maximum and nitrate concentrations near their minimum. Red  
184 indicates marine regions where temperature is in the top 10% and nitrate in the bottom 10%.  
185 Orange uses a 20% threshold for both instead. For both variables, we use annual mean values  
186 and ignore other factors that also shape growth. Data source: World Ocean Atlas 2018 (Garcia et  
187 al. 2018, Locarnini et al. 2019).

- 188 2. Because species differ in their resource requirements, same resource levels could be  
189 limiting to some species and not to others, and these differences will affect the possible  
190 changes in thermal traits and, thus, may increase differences in thermal sensitivity. For  
191 example, good nutrient competitors may have their TPCs relatively unchanged by  
192 decreases in resources. In contrast, poor nutrient competitors may experience severe  
193 nutrient limitation and have their TPCs altered; the associated decrease in  $T_{opt}$  and  $T_{max}$   
194 would make these poor nutrient competitors more sensitive to warming.
- 195 3. Within species, populations located in low-resource regions - such as the oceanic gyres or  
196 drylands - may be a valuable source of genetic diversity. As a consequence of adaptation  
197 to resource limitation, they may be better able to tolerate high temperatures in higher  
198 resource conditions, forming a reservoir of (relative) heat tolerance. Heat waves in  
199 adjacent high-resource regions may provide opportunities for migrants from these  
200 environments by removing competitors adapted to high-resource conditions. These  
201 preadapted genotypes can either disperse into novel environments on their own or be  
202 transplanted deliberately to rescue declining populations (Bay et al. 2017).
- 203 4. Just as species are expected to migrate towards cooler regions, species from hot  
204 environments that also experience other stresses at present (low resource availability or  
205 low pH, for example) may survive by migrating towards high-resource or moderate pH  
206 environments, thereby decreasing their sensitivity to warming. These may favour the  
207 survival of otherwise vulnerable taxa. This complicates predictions of extirpation and  
208 extinction based solely on thermal limits, and can lead to more complex patterns of  
209 community reorganization than presently envisioned. A species that persists by migrating  
210 towards high-resource or moderate pH environments necessarily competes with resident

211 taxa, possibly causing extirpations. This complex outcome of environmental warming  
212 will be hard to predict or model, but properly accounting for interactions is a necessary  
213 step towards attempting this.

214 5. The interacting effects of temperature and resources also cascade through food webs. If  
215 prey species decline due to warming, this triggers a similar temperature-food interaction  
216 problem in the predators. This may amplify the negative effects of warming.

217 6. Phenological shifts can also change resource availability for different trophic levels.  
218 Flowering plants in peak summer may be an especially important resource for local  
219 pollinator communities and their predators. Changes in fruiting times may also have  
220 important effects on consumer species' heat tolerances. For example, shifts in flowering  
221 time may create new periods of resource limitation for pollinators and therefore increase  
222 pollinator temperature vulnerability at critical times.

223 7. Selection on temperature tolerance is likely much stronger in nature than anticipated from  
224 lab studies, because of the increased heat stress associated with periods of low food and  
225 other stresses.

226 8. Evolutionary adaptation to temperature may be impaired by suboptimal levels of other  
227 environmental factors, such as nutrient or other resource limitation (Aranguren-Gassis et  
228 al. 2019).

229 9. Fertilization practices in agriculture are likely to be especially important to consider as  
230 the climate warms. Although excess fertilization is a major environmental concern  
231 because of the consequent greenhouse gas emissions (Tian et al. 2020), reducing nutrient  
232 limitation in plants could provide some protection against heat waves.

233 **Conclusion**

234 Our review shows that across different organisms and ecosystems, various abiotic and  
235 biotic factors may significantly modify organismal responses to high temperature. When these  
236 environmental drivers inhibit growth, they at the same time increase the sensitivity to high  
237 temperatures. Because these effects appear so widespread, we need to explicitly consider how  
238 temperature interacts with other environmental factors, including global change stressors, to  
239 develop better predictions of how warming will affect species and communities. A focused  
240 research agenda to investigate systematically the effects of multiple interacting stressors on  
241 species' TPCs from a wide range of habitats in oceanic, freshwater and terrestrial ecosystems  
242 would be in line with the ongoing efforts to implement the multistressor framework in global  
243 change research (Boyd et al. 2019, Wake 2019). Among the key questions to address are how  
244 universal the negative effects of other stressors on the high temperature tolerances are, the  
245 magnitudes and the mechanisms of the effects and whether adding more than one or two  
246 stressors would exacerbate thermal sensitivity even further. The new research would help to  
247 better assess the effects of global warming on species growth, future geographic ranges,  
248 productivity and biodiversity. Moreover, it is essential for developing predictive models for  
249 conservation, agriculture, fisheries and climate change mitigation.

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