

1 BRINGING DISCIPLINES AND PEOPLE TOGETHER TO CHARACTERIZE THE PLASTIC AND  
2 GENETIC RESPONSES OF MOLLUSCS TO ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGE

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11 RUNNING HEAD: MOLLUSCS AND ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGE

12

13 ABSTRACT

14 Mollusks are remarkably diverse and are found across nearly all ecosystems, meaning that members of  
15 this ancient animal phylum provide a powerful means to study genomic-phenotype connections in a  
16 climate change framework. Recent advances in genomic sequencing technologies and genome assembly  
17 approaches finally allow the relatively cheap and tractable assembly of high-quality mollusk genome  
18 resources. After a brief review of these issues and advances, we use a case-study approach to provide  
19 some concrete examples of phenotypic plasticity and genomic adaptation in mollusks in response to  
20 environmental factors expected to be influenced by climate change. Our goal is to use mollusks as a  
21 “common currency” to demonstrate how organismal and evolutionary biologists can use natural systems  
22 to make phenotype-genotype connections in the context of changing environments. In parallel, we  
23 emphasize the critical need to collaborate and integrate findings across taxa and disciplines in order to use  
24 new data and information to advance our understanding of mollusk biology in the context of global  
25 environmental change. We end with a brief synthetic summary of the papers inspired by the 2021 SICB

26 Symposium “Genomic Perspectives in Comparative Physiology of Molluscs: Integration across  
27 Disciplines”.

28

## 29 INTRODUCTION

30 Mollusca is the second largest Metazoa phylum, representing over 90,000 extant taxa (Rosenberg 2014).

31 Mollusks are found in nearly all aquatic, marine, and terrestrial habitats and harbor remarkable diversity,

32 from octopi, snails, and oysters to the superficially wormlike Aplacophora and Polyplacophora.

33 Originating over 500 million years ago in the Cambrian, mollusks play important ecological, economic,

34 and medical roles across the globe (Rosenberg 2014; Fortunato 2015). Mollusks act as ecosystem

35 engineers by introducing complexity and heterogeneity into their environments, cycling and storing

36 carbon and nutrients, acting as biological filters in estuaries, and stabilizing the shoreline (Coen and

37 Grizzle 2007; Commito 2008). Mollusks also process and sequester calcium in their shells, bringing about

38 habitat transformation by affecting population-, community- and ecosystem-level processes. The bodies

39 and shells of mollusks provide habitat structure and food resources and modify abiotic conditions (Coen

40 and Grizzle 2007; Commito 2008). Mollusk shells can also persist centuries or more after the mollusk

41 itself has died, producing long lasting eco-historical legacies (Schöne and Surge 2005; Fortunato 2015).

42 Throughout human history, mollusks have served as a food source and were used across cultures

43 and socio-economic contexts for tools, decoration, the souvenir industry, and currency exchange (Maurer

44 2006; Çakırlar 2011). Many mollusk species are cultivated and harvested, constituting up to 58.8% of the

45 combined production of aquaculture and ca. 7% of capture fisheries worldwide (Darrigran et al. 2020;

46 Dölle and Kurzmann 2020). Some mollusks (e.g., sea hare, *Aplysia*) are used in biomedical research,

47 while others are important agricultural pests (e.g., giant African snail, *Achatina fulica*), invasive species

48 (e.g., zebra mussel, *Dreissena polymorpha*), or intermediate vectors of deadly human parasites (e.g.,

49 bloodfluke planorb, *Biomphalaria glabrata*) (Bridger et al. 2018; Guo et al. 2019; Dölle and Kurzmann

50 2020).

51 Mollusks have gained recent attention as model species for climate change research. Global  
52 climate change is proceeding at an unprecedented rate, with major consequences for all ecosystems. A  
53 critical question in this setting whether and how natural populations will respond to global climate change  
54 and if these responses will be rapid and adequate enough for species persistence. In general, populations  
55 respond to environmental change by one or a combination of four strategies (1) shifting their range, (2)  
56 phenotypic plasticity, (3) genetic adaptation via evolution by natural selection to new conditions, and (4)  
57 persisting in the original habitat but experiencing demographic decline or extinction (Waldvogel et al.  
58 2020).

59 Their high diversity and abundance along with presence across wide latitudinal clines and  
60 preservation in the fossil record means that mollusks can serve as a powerful indicator of environmental  
61 changes in all ecosystems (Fortunato 2015). Mollusks as recorders of environmental proxies are already  
62 providing valuable information about global change in aquatic ecosystems that is facilitating conservation  
63 strategies. For example, the ‘Mussel Watch Program’, created by NOAA’s National Centers for Coastal  
64 Ocean Science (NCCOS) in response to concerns over environmental quality of the coastal and estuarine  
65 ecosystems, is one of the most successful continuous chemical contaminant biomonitoring program in the  
66 U.S. (Kimbrough et al. 2008).

67 In the following sections, we will use a case-study approach to provide some concrete examples  
68 of phenotypic plasticity and genetic adaptation in mollusks in response to global change (Fig. 1). Our  
69 survey is by no means exhaustive. Instead, our is goal is to introduce organismal and evolutionary  
70 biologists to questions of processes and patterns of organismal change, using mollusks as a “common  
71 currency”. We also discuss the need to collaborate and integrate findings across multiple disciplines in  
72 order to leverage the recent availability of new DNA sequencing technologies and big genomic datasets to  
73 advance our understanding of mollusk biology in the context of global environmental change. We  
74 conclude by providing a synthesis of discussions held during the 2021 SICB Symposium “Genomic  
75 Perspectives in Comparative Physiology of Mollusks: Integration across Disciplines” alongside a  
76 summary of invited papers in this special issue.

77

78 MOLLUSCAN RESPONSES TO ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGE:

79 As is all too common in mollusks, we know comparatively little about phenotypic plasticity and genetic  
80 variation and its association - or lack thereof - with phenotypes associated with environmental stress.

81 Most of what we do know has come from a handful of taxa that receive relatively focused attention as  
82 model organisms. We here highlight a diverse set of Molluscan taxa that provide illustrative examples of  
83 response to various environmental stresses. It is important to note that we were unable to find a  
84 substantial body of directly relevant data (i.e., evidence for intraspecific genetic variation and/or  
85 phenotypic plasticity corresponding to differential phenotypic responses to environmental stresses) from  
86 the Molluscan classes Scaphopoda, Monoplacophora, Aplacophora, or Polyplacophora (also see Yang et  
87 al. 2020; Davison and Neiman 2021), highlighting that there is still a great deal of work left to do.  
88 Nevertheless, we believe that this overview will provide a useful starting point with respect to assessing  
89 the potential for adaptive change in mollusks in a rapidly changing world.

90

91 1) Phenotypic Plasticity:

92 Phenotypic plasticity is defined as a situation when a genotype produces different phenotypes in response  
93 to different environmental conditions. Phenotypic plasticity is ubiquitous, and most traits are plastic  
94 (reviewed in Ghalambor et al. 2007). Ghalambor et al. (2007)'s review also described a wide range of  
95 consequences of plasticity with regard to organismal fitness, which in turn is a function of the particular  
96 environmental changes and the physiological limits of the organisms involved.

97         The specific way in which a particular genotype responds to different environments is described  
98 as a reaction norm, which can be represented by continuous or discrete character states depending on the  
99 type of trait involved (Woltereck 1909; Falconer 1990, Ghalambor et al. 2007). With respect to global  
100 change, reaction norms provide information on extant levels of phenotypic plasticity and the potential  
101 sensitivity of organisms to future global change scenarios including shifts in ecological niche breadth and  
102 resource management strategies (Ghalambor et al. 2007, 2015). Studies on phenotypic plasticity in

103 mollusks can provide useful and actionable information regarding climate change by integrating -omic  
104 approaches. For examples, genomics-enabled studies of phenotypic plasticity can provide information  
105 about relevant genetic loci as well as transcripts that are regulated with high sensitivity for determination  
106 of physiological state (e.g., energetics, stress) and plasticity in response to environmental factors affected  
107 by climate change (e.g., pH, temperature, hypoxia) (Stillman and Armstrong 2015).

108 *a) Case study 1:*

109 *Gastropods. Nudibranchs: indicator species for tolerance–plasticity trade-off hypothesis of thermal*  
110 *tolerance?*

111 Nudibranchs are soft-bodied intertidal eurythermal marine gastropods that have neither an external shell  
112 nor a water-impermeable cuticle. The absence of a shell/cuticle – in contrast to most other mollusks – and  
113 their limited mobility makes nudibranchs especially sensitive to their environment. Nudibranchs are thus  
114 particularly useful “indicator species” to study traits like thermal plasticity (Goddard et al. 2011; Nimbs et  
115 al. 2016; Sanford et al. 2019). A good example is provided by Armstrong et al. (2020), who investigated  
116 thermal plasticity including heat tolerance limits ( $CT_{max}$ ) and plasticity, temperature sensitivity of  
117 metabolism, and metabolic cost of heat shock in nine species of nudibranchs collected across a thermal  
118 gradient along the northeastern Pacific coast of California. The authors reported that adaptation to  
119 relatively warm water temperatures in intertidal nudibranchs constrains plasticity to acute thermal  
120 challenge and that southern (warm adapted) species are likely most vulnerable to future warming.

121 Climate-related range expansions were reported during relatively warm periods (between 2014 and 2017)  
122 in more than 52 eastern Pacific nudibranch species (Goddard et al. 2018). In the southern hemisphere, an  
123 inverse southward expansion (from tropical to subtropical waters) has been reported in four tropical  
124 species of nudibranch along the Australian coast (Nimbs et al. 2015, 2016). These studies show that heat  
125 tolerance plasticity is strongly and negatively correlated with inherent heat tolerance in nudibranch  
126 mollusks. These findings are broadly in accordance with the trade-off hypothesis of thermal adaptation  
127 (Stillman 2003), which posits that organisms already adapted to high temperatures have limited scope to  
128 further increase their heat tolerance via phenotypic plasticity.

129 *b) Case study 2:*

130 *Bivalves. Oysters: strong cellular homeostasis system is a unique adaptive characteristic*

131 The oyster is a major aquaculture species worldwide, with the highest annual production of any marine  
132 organism (<http://www.fao.org>). Oysters are champions of survival in the face of harsh and dynamically  
133 changing environments in estuarine and coastal zones. These habitats experience wide temporal and  
134 spatial fluctuations of temperature and salinity, and desiccation presents a serious challenge during daily  
135 and seasonal cycles. As reviewed in Zhang et al. (2016), oysters are eurythermal (range from below 0°C  
136 to 49°C), euryhaline (salinity tolerance below 10 parts per thousand and in excess of 35 parts per  
137 thousand), and have substantial tolerance to hypoxia and anoxia. Oysters also withstand high levels of  
138 pollutants, can concentrate metals to levels  $10^3$ - to  $10^6$ -fold higher than those of the surrounding water,  
139 and are regarded as the most useful model for studying chemical pollution in aquatic environments  
140 (reviewed in Zhang et al. 2016). Oysters have evolved remarkable phenotypic plasticity in the face of this  
141 environmental stochasticity, making these bivalves a uniquely powerful model for the study of  
142 physiological mechanisms of stress tolerance and adaptation.

143 Oysters have developed a wide range of sophisticated response mechanisms to maintain cellular  
144 homeostasis under stress, revealed through physiological studies (e.g., Zhang et al. 2016) and functional  
145 genomic and molecular approaches (e.g., Zhang et al. 2012). A robust homeostasis system that includes  
146 chaperone-dominated protein folding systems (HSPs and three UPR signaling pathways), xenobiotic  
147 biotransformation systems (YP450 and flavin-containing monooxygenase, glutathione S-transferases, and  
148 ATP binding cassette (ABC) transporters), and a complex antioxidant system of enzymes enables oysters  
149 to exhibit remarkable phenotypic plasticity under stress conditions (e.g., Schlenk and Buhler 1989; Boutet  
150 et al 2004; Kingtong et al 2007; Fabbri et al 2008; Limon-Pacheco et al 2009; Zanette et al 2011; Zhang  
151 et al 2012; reviewed in Zhang et al. 2016). The oyster genome and transcriptome have provided a global  
152 view of the complex defense system via analysis of genome structure, gene evolution, and defenses under  
153 different stressors (Zhang et al. 2012). The expansion of key defense gene families and the strong

154 transcriptomic response to stress highlight sophisticated genomic adaptations to sessile life in a highly  
155 stressful environment (Zhang et al. 2015).

156

157 *c) Case Study 3:*

158 *Cephalopods. Squids: champions of hypoxia survival*

159 Cephalopods are one of the most adaptable marine organisms, featuring a wide range of life history  
160 plasticity driven by variation in environmental conditions (Boyle and Rodhouse 2005; Hoving et al.  
161 2013). For example, some squid taxa (e.g., Ommastrephidae) occupy oceanic niches characterized by  
162 relatively low oxygen saturation, display remarkable extremes of phenotypic plasticity, and have evolved  
163 novel physiological strategies to survive in their habitats (Seibel 2016). These species both illuminate the  
164 mechanistic process of biological regulation and forecast possible responses of marine animals to future  
165 climate change. In the last few decades, marine hypoxia has become a major ecological concern (Diaz &  
166 Rosenberg, 2008). Naturally occurring oxygen minimum zones (OMZs) with  $<20 \mu\text{M}$  oxygen ( $<10\%$  of  
167 air saturation) constitute nearly 10% of the global ocean's volume (Paulmier and Ruiz-Pino 2009). The  
168 synergistic impact of climate-related drivers like global warming and ocean acidification further reduces  
169 oxygen availability, thereby shifting, narrowing, and compressing habitable depth and geographical  
170 ranges for many taxa (Seibel 2016).

171         Some squid taxa that were expected to be driven out of hypoxic areas as a consequence of  
172 anatomical and physiological constraints (e.g. *Dosidicus gigas*) instead seem to benefit from expanding  
173 hypoxia (Rosa and Seibel 2010). These squid manage to thrive under such conditions by maximizing  
174 oxygen extraction capabilities for aerobic survival in the upper ocean and by undergoing metabolic  
175 suppression during oxygen limitation at depth during the daytime (Seibel et al. 2014). In *D. gigas*, the  
176 oxygen consumption rate under 1% oxygen ( $\text{P}_{\text{O}_2}$  of  $\sim 1.0 \text{ kPa}$ ) is only  $\sim 20\%$  of the control rate (Rosa and  
177 Seibel 2008, 2010; Seibel et al. 2014) and metabolism (including both aerobic and anaerobic energy  
178 sources) is suppressed by  $\sim 50\%$  relative to controls. The remaining energy that the squid needs to thrive  
179 is generated by the activation of plastic pathways including anaerobic glycolysis and anaerobic

180 mitochondrial metabolism that are only turned on under hypoxic conditions (Seibel 2016). Further  
181 research characterizing the molecular mechanisms facilitating this metabolic flexibility will provide an  
182 important step forward. In addition to global metabolic depression, plasticity at the transcriptional level  
183 turns on a number of hypoxia-inducible microRNAs (Hadj-Moussa et al. 2018). These microRNAs are  
184 potentially involved in cytoprotective mechanisms including neuroprotection, anti-apoptosis, regenerative  
185 mechanisms in the brain, and inhibition of apoptosis and cell proliferation, while conserving energy in the  
186 heart and limiting damage by reactive oxygen species and apoptosis in muscle (Hadj-Moussa et al. 2018).  
187

## 188 2) Genetic Adaptation:

189 Genetically based responses are the most relevant and powerful driver of long-term adaptive responses to  
190 climate change. Genomic data provides direct insight in the genetic underpinnings of these responses and  
191 is thus a central element of deciphering the mechanisms driving evolutionary adaptation to climate change  
192 (Gienapp et al. 2008; Merilä 2012).

193 Investigating genetic adaptation under changing environmental conditions requires knowledge of  
194 the initial (ancestral) genetic state as well as the adapted/evolved state in the new conditions (Waldvogel  
195 et al. 2020). There are two approaches commonly used to characterize the ancestral state: 1) space-for-  
196 time approach (the initial state is correlated to environmental and/or genetic heterogeneity) and 2) time-  
197 for-space approach (initial state is tracked through evolutionary time). Both of these approaches provide  
198 critical information: the former with respect to standing genetic variation, and the latter the likelihood of  
199 the evolutionary change from the known ancestral state (see Waldvogel et al. 2020 for details).

200 Understanding whether and how organismal populations can adapt to changing environmental  
201 conditions requires characterization of intraspecific genetic variation underlying organismal phenotypic  
202 variation in relevant environments because this variation provides the raw material for evolution by  
203 natural selection (Lewontin 1974). To what extent does genetic variation for phenotypic responses to  
204 environmental stressors exist within natural mollusk populations? This question is of critical importance  
205 both with respect to the aquaculture industry (Bernatchez et al. 2017), which plays a central role in



206 meeting current and future food needs (Béné et al. 2016; Food and Agriculture Organization of the United  
207 Nations 2016), and in terms of predicting whether mollusk populations will be able to adapt to  
208 anthropogenic change. Broad statements regarding the genesis of intraspecific adaptive genetic diversity  
209 in mollusks will require comprehensive study of multiple members of all Mollusca classes. While  
210 inferences are limited by the narrow phylogenetic scope of available data, there is a growing body of  
211 evidence suggesting that at least some mollusk taxa feature notably high intraspecific structural variation  
212 that could in turn be adaptive (e.g., Zhang et al. 2012; Gerdol et al. 2020; Rogers et al. 2021; McElroy et  
213 al. in review).

214           It is less clear that nucleotide substitution will typically underlie evolutionary adaptation to  
215 environmental stresses in mollusks. While we again are limited to very cautious statements in light of the  
216 phylogenetically limited scope of relevant data, genomic data from bivalves like scallop (Wang et al.  
217 2017) and mussel (Rogers et al. 2021) hint that structural changes like gene family expansion might  
218 ultimately be a more important source of adaptive change than single-nucleotide polymorphism at least in  
219 some taxa. Future studies should address genotype-phenotype relationships with respect to intraspecific  
220 structural polymorphisms, especially for the expanded gene families that seem to hold particular potential  
221 in contributing to stress-related adaptations in mollusks (e.g., Zhang et al. 2012, 2016; Sun et al. 2017;  
222 reviewed in Yang et al. 2020).

223

224 *d) Case Study 4:*

225 *Gastropods. Potamopyrgus antipodarum - from pristine New Zealand lakes to invasion worldwide.*

226 These tiny New Zealand freshwater snails have risen to prominence as a model system both because of  
227 the unusual coexistence of obligately sexual and obligately asexual individuals within populations (Lively  
228 1987) and because they are global invaders of aquatic ecosystems (Alonso and Castro-Díaz 2012). The  
229 ability to culture genetically distinct asexual lineages in the laboratory makes *P. antipodarum* an  
230 especially powerful model system with respect to identifying genetic variation for various phenotypic

231 traits (e.g., Song et al. 2021), though the next steps of characterizing the genetic basis for this variation is  
232 much more difficult in an asexual setting.

233         To date, evidence for genetic variation for response to environmental stressors in *P. antipodarum*  
234 has come from studies of host-parasite interactions (e.g., Dybdahl and Lively 1995, 1998), salinity  
235 (Jacobsen and Forbes 1997), nutrient limitation (Neiman et al. 2013; Neiman and Krist 2016),  
236 temperature (Dybdahl and Kane 2005; Sharbrough et al. 2017), flow rate (Kistner and Dybdahl 2013),  
237 predation (Levri et al. 2017), and cadmium exposure (Jensen et al. 2001). These data do suggest that *P.*  
238 *antipodarum* can exhibit adaptive evolutionary responses to changing environments, though Verhaegen et  
239 al. (2018) suggested that a fairly minimal contribution of genetic background vs. plasticity to adaption to  
240 flow rate emphasizes plasticity over genetic variation as a potential driver of the widespread invasion of  
241 *P. antipodarum*.

242

243 *e) Case Study 5:*

244 *Bivalves. Mytilus spp.: Can aquacultured organisms survive - and even thrive during - climate change?*

245 These primarily saltwater mussels are found around much of the world and are of wide interest as an  
246 edible and readily aquacultured group. From a biological standpoint, various *Mytilus* taxa have risen to  
247 prominence as models for mitochondrial biology (e.g., Hoeh et al. 1991; Quesada et al. 1998; Ladoukakis  
248 and Zouros 2001; recently reviewed in Zouros and Rodakis 2019), as subject to contagious cancers  
249 (Metzger et al. 2016; Yonemitsu et al. 2019), and for elucidating the mechanisms underlying adaptation to  
250 temperature regime (e.g., Hilbish et al. 1994; Lockwood et al. 2012).

251         As early as 1977, researchers demonstrated that *Mytilus edulis* exhibited genetic variation for  
252 responses to salinity (Innes and Haley 1977). Similar results with respect to salinity were subsequently  
253 reported by, for example, Bulnheim and Gosling (1988). In 2006, Freeman and Byers showed evidence  
254 consistent with a scenario whereby *M. edulis* harbors genetic variation for adaptive anti-predator  
255 responses to an invasive crab. More recent studies involving *M. edulis* have demonstrated standing  
256 adaptive genetic variation with respect to recently reported spring mortality outbreaks of unclear origin

257 (Dégremont et al. 2019) and stresses imposed by ocean acidification (Bitter et al. 2019), and hinted that  
258 pollution might also drive adaptation (Larsson et al. 2016). In the congener *M. galloprovincialis*, Han and  
259 Dong (2020) used whole-genome sequencing data to identify adaptive genetic variation associated with  
260 environmental variables linked to heat stress. Altogether, the picture appears positive with respect to the  
261 future, though it seems imperative that aquaculturists include careful consideration of heritable variation  
262 for adaptive responses to expected environmental stresses when choosing breeding and culture stock.

263

264 *f) Case Study 6:*

265 *Cephalopods: Does ecological opportunism and RNA editing drive recent proliferation?*

266 Cephalopods are of wide economic and scientific interest because this ancient lineage of mollusks are  
267 often keystone species, have independently evolved sophisticated cognitive abilities, and are an important  
268 food source across the globe. Even so, no cephalopod taxon has emerged as a focus of study connecting  
269 genetic variation to phenotypes relevant to climate change. The absence of such a cephalopod model for  
270 evolutionary response to climate change might be linked to widespread challenges associated with  
271 laboratory culture, the difficulty of studying deep-water taxa, their large and often highly repetitive  
272 genomes, and the hundreds of millions of years separating cephalopods from other, better characterized  
273 animal taxa (Xavier et al. 2015; O'Brien et al. 2018; Uriarte et al. 2019).

274         Nevertheless, Xavier et al. (2014) argue that the persistence of coleoid cephalopods through  
275 multiple major extinction events and, more recently, surviving and even thriving despite competition with  
276 fish, has preadapted cephalopods to effectively respond to changing environments. An analogous  
277 argument was posed by Doubleday et al. (2016), who hypothesized that there might be a connection  
278 between the recent striking global increases in the abundance of many cephalopod taxa, and global  
279 climate change. O'Brien et al. (2018) took this hypothesis a step further by suggesting that the remarkably  
280 extensive RNA editing discovered in cephalopods might contribute to this phenomenon. Whether these  
281 hypotheses will be supported will become clear in decades to come as climate change proceeds.

282

283 WHY A SYMPOSIUM ON MOLLUSCS: INTEGRATION ACROSS DISCIPLINES?

284 The revolution in DNA sequencing technologies has translated into the generation of huge bodies of data  
285 along with new genomes assembly approaches. Together, these new technologies and analytical  
286 approaches are finally allowing for the production of high-quality molluscan genome assemblies.  
287 Genome sequence data provide a particularly powerful means of linking genotype and phenotype with  
288 respect to molluscan responses (phenotypic plasticity and/adaptation) to global change. Genomic  
289 approaches can also help dissect mechanistic underpinnings by which adaptation to climate change occurs  
290 (e.g., inherited gene regulation differences by epigenetic mechanisms such as DNA methylation or  
291 histone modification; Bossdorf et al. 2008; Franks and Hoffmann 2012; via fixation of specific alleles  
292 during adaptive shifts; Hohenlohe et al. 2010).

293 A mechanistic understanding of the genetic basis of organismal physiology is a critically  
294 important element of forecasting whether and how organisms will respond to rapidly changing  
295 environments, which represents an urgent challenge for biologists. Our symposium used mollusks as a  
296 common currency to link biologists in otherwise quite disparate fields (e.g., biomedicine, physiology,  
297 ecology) to address genome-to-phenome research.

298 Newly developed genomic technologies and bioinformatic approaches have opened up new  
299 opportunities for biologists to address questions of both processes and patterns of organismal change.  
300 How can we understand the functional context of such “big” data within the intact organism, and how  
301 does genomic variation contribute to phenotype? Our symposium is especially novel from the perspective  
302 of bringing together the organismal biologists, ecophysiolegists, and genomicists/bioinformaticians that  
303 are needed to provide a qualitative step forward in understanding the biology and ecology and predicting  
304 the future of one of the most important animal groups alive today. Presentations, discussions, and  
305 syntheses focused on topics including overviews of the biological and genomic diversity of molluscan  
306 life, technological progress towards highly contiguous molluscan genomes, challenges in assembling  
307 molluscan genomes, and how genome-scale processes underpin organismal physiology and interact with

308 ecological and evolutionary processes over multiple spatiotemporal scales can be found throughout the  
309 special issue that our symposium inspired.

310

### 311 SYNTHESIS OF SYMPOSIUM PAPERS

312 This special issue presents a series of papers addressing mollusk genome-to-phenome responses in the  
313 context of global climate change. Connecting genotypes and genomic variation to functional and  
314 ecological consequences demands tools and concepts from a diverse set of fields including molecular  
315 biology, physiology, quantitative genetics, ecology, and evolutionary biology. This type of integrated  
316 approach will help to identify and decouple genetic vs. plastic underpinnings of ecologically relevant  
317 functional variation and characterize the ecological consequences of that variation. Our goal for the  
318 symposium was to bring together a transdisciplinary set of experts in mollusk biology to provide an  
319 unprecedented opportunity for knowledge exchange, discussion, and catalysis of new partnerships. The  
320 talks in our symposium featured a wide range of ecologically important concepts and traits including but  
321 not limited to immune function and symbiosis to mitochondrial performance and host-parasite  
322 interactions, and are united by their use or application of genomic techniques and resources.

323 Ghiselli et al. provide a comprehensive review of one of most striking features of bivalve  
324 mollusks: their peculiar mitochondrial genome biology. As Ghiselli et al. describe, bivalves have  
325 facultatively anaerobic mitochondria that allow them to survive prolonged periods of anoxia/hypoxia.  
326 Mollusks also exhibit the only known and evolutionarily stable exception to the strictly maternal  
327 inheritance of mitochondria, so-called doubly uniparental inheritance, now described in 100+ molluscan  
328 taxa to date. In this review, the authors highlight recent works studying mitochondrial biology in bivalves  
329 at the genomic and physiological level and stress that an integrated approach and collaborative  
330 relationships are the only possible ways to succeed in connecting mitochondrial genome-to-phenome  
331 relationships in bivalves.

332 Griffiths et al. used a single-generation selection experiment and pooled sequencing of larvae  
333 from the eastern oyster (*Crassostrea virginica*) to identify adaptive genetic variation for tolerance to low

334 salinity in two populations from the Gulf of Mexico. The authors compared allele frequencies at 152  
335 salinity-associated genes for larval families pre- and post-low salinity exposure and used these data to  
336 demonstrate evidence for purging of deleterious alleles at the larval stage in *C. virginica*. This study also  
337 revealed standing genetic variation for salinity tolerance and demonstrated increases in allele frequencies  
338 at multiple loci following selection, indicating a polygenic basis for adaptive responses to low salinity but  
339 also suggesting that some components of tolerance are genotype specific.

340         Tanner et al. measured thermal plasticity in two central California eelgrass sea hare  
341 (*Phyllaplysia taylori*) populations under four temperature-salinity scenarios in a laboratory acclimation  
342 experiment. Acclimation to warmer conditions significantly increased critical thermal minima, while low-  
343 salinity conditions resulted in high mortality. Individuals that survived the low-salinity treatments were  
344 able to respond to temperature and salinity stresses more rapidly than individuals acclimatized to saltier  
345 conditions, though the most rapid response time for the low-salinity acclimatized sea hares was at a  
346 higher temperature than the individuals acclimatized to saltier conditions. Together, these results led the  
347 authors to conclude that acclimation to climate change-induced warming will likely present challenges  
348 with respect to the ability of these sea hares to weather existing and predicted cold extremes and  
349 precipitation events.

350         Furr et al. explored genetic structure and physiological responses to hypoxia and immune stress  
351 challenge (the pathogen *Vibrio vulnificus*) across four populations of *Crassostrea virginica* along the  
352 North Carolina and Virginia coast. The authors observed significant genetic structure with respect to the  
353 distribution of mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase subunit I (COI) haplotypes between locations. The  
354 expression of stress-response genes including toll-like receptors, mannose receptor, defensin, and the  
355 complement gene Cq3 was specific to locations as well as to the stressors involved. Altogether, these data  
356 hint at a complex relationship between genotypes, phenotypes, and stress responses, with indirect  
357 evidence for both plasticity and genetic variation for stress responses.

358         Heath-Heckman and Nishiguchi used newly generated genomic sequence data from four bobtail  
359 squid taxa (*Euprymna hyllebergi*, *Euprymna albatrossae*, *Rondeletiola minor*, *Sepietta neglecta*), to

360 identify regions of the genome in bobtail squids that are under selection in squid lineages that maintain  
361 symbioses with bioluminescent bacteria (all but *S. neglecta*), setting the stage to identify genes  
362 instrumental in the evolution of these mutualistic associations. This study also provided new genomic  
363 resources that will be useful for comparative work in cephalopods and beyond.

364

#### 365 SUMMARY & CONCLUSIONS

366 Our symposium and symposium papers illuminate the power and utility of mollusks as model organisms  
367 in a variety of contexts and how organismal and evolutionary biologists can leverage these fascinating  
368 organisms to generate new insights into phenotype-genotype connections. These connections are  
369 especially relevant and important in the context of anthropogenic change. We believe that we have made  
370 a strong case that mollusks can be applied to characterize the potential of and limits to plastic and  
371 evolutionary change in response to these planetary consequences of human activities. We also have  
372 emphasized the central role that cross-disciplinary collaboration and integration will play in the  
373 achievement of these goals.

374

#### 375 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.

376 We gratefully acknowledge funding support from The Company of Biologists (EA333), the National  
377 Science Foundation (2024684), the American Genetic Association (2020 Special Event Awards), and  
378 SICB divisions DCPB, DEE, DEDB, DIZ, and DPCB. We are also grateful to the many scientists who  
379 came together to participate in our symposium and the SICB staff who provided logistic and technical  
380 support.

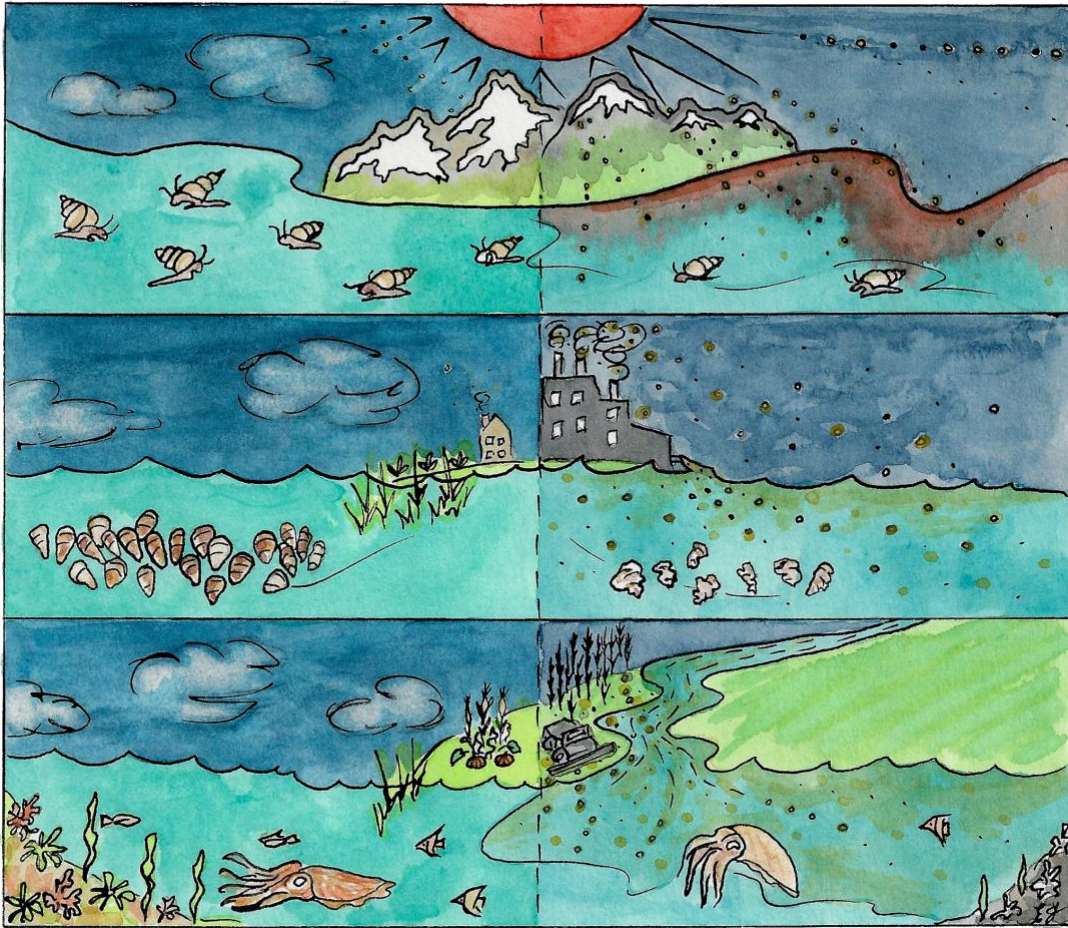
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388 FIGURE LEGEND.

389 Figure 1. Three examples of stressors that mollusks experience as consequence of anthropogenic changes:

390 rising temperatures (top panel), ocean acidification (middle panel), and hypoxic zones (bottom panel). Art

391 by Emily Jalinsky.

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