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2 **Title: The sugar kelp *Saccharina latissima* I: recent advances in a changing climate**

3

4 Running title: *Saccharina latissima*

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1 **Abstract**

2 • Background

3 The sugar kelp *Saccharina latissima* is a Laminariales species widely distributed in the
4 Northern Hemisphere. Its physiology and ecology have been studied since the 1960s,
5 given its ecological relevance in western temperate coasts. However, research interest has
6 recently been rising, driven mainly by reports of negative impacts of anthropogenically
7 induced environmental change and by the increased commercial interest in cultivating the
8 species with several industrial applications for the resulting biomass.

9 • Scope

10 We reviewed peer-review research articles, reports, doctoral theses, and book chapters
11 that targeted *Saccharina latissima* published from 2009 to May 2023. We include earlier
12 publications only in the few cases where some key knowledge has not been recently
13 supported or contested.

14 • Conclusions

15 The comprehensive view of the ecology, physiology, biochemical and molecular biology
16 of *S. latissima* given here can fuel our understanding of its survival in nature and fine-
17 tuning of cultivation methods for several specific applications, promoting a sustainable
18 resource. Recent developments in genomics, transcriptomics and epigenomics have
19 contributed significantly to improving the understanding of genetic diversity and
20 molecular mechanisms underlying plasticity and local adaptation. Due to its wide
21 distribution, *S. latissima* has to cope with a large variability of different environmental
22 conditions and possible interactions between drivers. Therefore, *S. latissima* has
23 developed a variety of physiological and biochemical mechanisms to adjust to
24 environmental changes. Survival, growth, photosynthetic performance, metabolism, and

1 enzymatic activity are strongly affected by abiotic conditions, such as temperature,
2 salinity, nutrient conditions or ocean acidification. Massive alterations regarding
3 abundance, depth distribution and seasonal growth patterns of *S. latissima* have been
4 reported recently throughout its distribution range, likely in response to climate change.
5 These biogeographic changes are expected to continue, and although much effort has been
6 dedicated to studying *S. latissima* responses to environmental drivers, there are still large
7 knowledge gaps.

8

9 **keywords:** acclimation - biogeography - climate change - local adaptation - macroalgae
10 - marine ecology - metabolites - molecular biology - omics - physiology - seaweed -
11 warming

1 **Introduction**

2 Kelps – in the strict sense only including representatives of the order Laminariales – are
3 brown macroalgae (Phaeophyceae) growing on shallow rocky shores along the Atlantic,
4 Pacific and Indian Oceans (Wernberg and Filbee-dexter 2019). In the Northern
5 Hemisphere, kelps are mainly represented by the genera *Alaria*, *Laminaria* and
6 *Saccharina* (Bolton 2010; Wernberg and Filbee-dexter 2019). The kelp *Saccharina*
7 *latissima* (Linnaeus) C.E. Lane, C. Mayes, Druehl & G.W. Saunders (Lane *et al.* 2006)
8 is a boreal-temperate kelp widely distributed across the Northern Hemisphere, from polar
9 to temperate regions (Fig. 1). The species grows on rocky shores in the upper subtidal to
10 depths of 15–30 m, attached to hard rock using a branched claw-like holdfast as well as
11 boulders and cobbles (Pehlke and Bartsch 2008; Bekkby and Moy 2011; Bischof *et al.*
12 2019). *S. latissima* gets its common name ‘sugar kelp’ from the sweet white powder
13 (mannitol) that remains on the surface as the seaweed dries. Controversially, a sensory
14 study indicated that consumers rated *S. latissima* as the saltiest, sourest, and bitterest of
15 the three species studied, including *Laminaria digitata* and *Alaria esculenta* (Chapman *et*
16 *al.* 2015). The sporophyte of *S. latissima* changes greatly in morphology depending on
17 exposure and environmental factors (Fig. 2) (Lüning 1990a; Van den Hoek *et al.* 1995).
18 This morphological plasticity has led to misidentification and taxonomic confusion. For
19 example, *S. angustissima* has only recently been elevated to species level, being until then
20 considered a morphotype of *S. latissima* (Augyte *et al.* 2018), while both *S. longicuris*
21 and *S. groenlandica* were synonymized with *S. latissima* (McDevit and Saunders 2010;
22 Longtin and Saunders 2015). Continued taxonomic reorganisation is expected since
23 genetic data constantly provides new insights (for more see *Life cycle and phenology*).
24 Indeed, several novel -omics techniques have been applied to *S. latissima* recently,
25 although we still have some major constraints (more on *Advances in ‘-omics’*).

1 How *S. latissima* adjusts to its environment has been extensively studied, although
2 unbalanced among drivers and geographical regions (see *Responses to environmental*
3 *drivers*). In seaweeds, biochemical compounds, including pigments, carbohydrates,
4 antioxidants, lipids, fatty acids and proteins, vary in composition and concentration
5 depending on environmental conditions (summarized in Amsler 2008; Wiencke and
6 Bischof 2012; Hurd *et al.* 2014; Zhang and Thomsen 2019). Furthermore, biological
7 interactions with other taxa have the potential to profoundly change *S. latissima* growth
8 and survival and are summarized in *Biotic interactions*. In addition to seasonal effects or
9 differences on larger global scales, many environmental parameters are driven by climate
10 change at local scales, including ocean warming, melting of snow and sea ice, or increased
11 terrestrial run-off over land (Masson-Delmotte *et al.* 2021). Genetic divergence,
12 phenotypic plasticity, and differential acclimation capacities of distinct populations can
13 have major implications on the responses of *S. latissima* to climate change. Throughout
14 the entire Northern Hemisphere, populations of *S. latissima* have undergone extensive
15 changes in abundance and depth, including both expansions and declines (e.g. Moy and
16 Christie 2012; Filbee-Dexter *et al.* 2016; Casado-Amezúa *et al.* 2019) (see *Biogeographic*
17 *patterns*). Hence, efforts to protect and reforest kelp ecosystems are increasing, including
18 populations of *S. latissima*. Still, there are only a few specific conservation measures for
19 kelps, and *S. latissima* in particular (see *Conservation and restoration*).

20 This review (part I) focuses on knowledge generated over the past ~15 years, particularly
21 recent developments that provide new insights into the physiology and ecology of *S.*
22 *latissima*. For a review of previous work, we refer the reader to Bartsch *et al.* (2008). The
23 second part of the review (part II) focuses on the latest applied research, farming, and
24 applications for *S. latissima*.

25

1 **Life cycle and Phenology**

2 *Saccharina latissima*, as all Laminariales, is characterised by a haplo-diplontic (haploid-
3 diploid) heteromorphic life cycle (Fig. 3, Coelho *et al.* 2019). Sessile macroscopic
4 sporophytes (2n) usually grow up to 4 metres (White and Marshall 2007) and strongly
5 vary in their morphological appearance (Fig. 2, Diehl *et al.* 2023). Bigger specimens can
6 be found in Arctic regions (~seven metres, June 2023; pers. comm. T. Vonnahme/S.
7 Niedzwiedz). In general, the phylloid is elongate, undivided, and without a midrib but
8 may have bullations (wrinkled surface) and wavy rims (Fig. 2, White and Marshall 2007)
9 (White and Marshall 2007). Under moderate wave exposure, it develops narrow fronds
10 and solid cauloids (Lüning 1990a; Van den Hoek *et al.* 1995). In addition, sporophytes
11 tend to develop longer and heavier stipes at greater depths to enhance light capture
12 (Ronowicz *et al.* 2022). The adult sporophyte exhibits basal meristematic growth.
13 Sporophytes normally have a lifespan of three years, reaching their maximum size in the
14 second growing season. However, specimens in the intertidal zone are annuals (Lee
15 1989).

16 When mature, sporophytes of *S. latissima* sporangia accumulate into easily recognizable
17 sori and produce microscopic spores (n) (Fig.3, Forbord *et al.* 2012). As free-living
18 stages, spores and gametes are the phases that allow for dispersal, although limited to
19 usually a few metres in kelps. Therefore, spores tend to settle near parent sporophytes
20 (Schiel and Foster 2006). Sex is expressed at the haploid stage, and gametes and
21 gametophytes present sexually dimorphic traits. Female gametophyte cells and nuclei are
22 larger and rounder, while male gametophytes cells are smaller and tend to form filaments
23 with more cells (Lüning and Neushul 1978; Goecke *et al.* 2022) which allows for
24 identification and separation of sexes in the laboratory.

1 After the seminal work in the 1970s and 80s by Lüning in Europe and Lee and Brinkhuis
2 in North America (e.g. Lüning 1980; Bolton and Lüning 1982; Lee and Brinkhuis 1988),
3 research targeting the sexual reproductive stages of *S. latissima* has stalled. Recently, the
4 research interest has risen again, driven by the need to manipulate the sexual life cycle in
5 aquaculture. Hence, the onset of the reproductive period can be artificially controlled in
6 the laboratory at several stages, allowing for scientific experimentation and improving
7 the economic sustainability of seaweed aquaculture (Charrier *et al.* 2017). Also,
8 methodological advances have allowed examining better the development of embryos to
9 study cellular interactions in the embryo (Clerc *et al.* 2022), quantify DNA content in
10 different cell types (Goecke *et al.* 2022) as well as improved protocols for studying
11 embryogenesis (Theodorou *et al.* 2021).

12 At the spore stage, sporogenesis (production of spores) in the wild typically peaks during
13 winter, being negligible in summer; however, the extent of the sorus formation period is
14 dependent on the geographical region (Bartsch *et al.* 2008; Andersen *et al.* 2011;
15 Boderskov *et al.* 2021). In the laboratory, sporogenesis is commonly induced by applying
16 short-day light treatments and removing the meristem's basal blade, ensuring year-round
17 spore availability for farmers and researchers (Forbord *et al.* 2012). In turn, a recent study
18 reported higher and faster induction of sporulation in tissues under complete darkness
19 than in short-day treatments (Boderskov *et al.* 2021). At the gametophyte stage,
20 gametogenesis (maturation) can be induced or prevented by manipulating both biotic and
21 abiotic conditions (see below). When gametogenesis is prevented, gametophytes remain
22 vegetative and continue to grow, remaining viable for several years [at least one year
23 reported in *S. latissima* (Ebbing, Pierik, *et al.* 2021); up to 30 years in several *Laminaria*
24 sp. (Druehl *et al.* 2005; Martins *et al.* 2019)], also referred to as delayed gametophytes.
25 Cultures of delayed gametophytes can function as genetic diversity reservoirs if

1 conserved by cryopreservation successfully applied to the gametophytes of *S. latissima*
2 (Visch *et al.* 2019). In parallel, vegetative growth of gametophyte cultures can be boosted
3 to produce enough biomass for cultivation facilities. In the wild, delayed gametophytes
4 might represent a marine analogous of terrestrial seed banks, preserving the algae in a
5 resting stage during harsh environmental conditions and allowing for a quick recovery
6 once the conditions improve (Schiel and Foster 2006). However, the high levels of gene
7 expression reported in vegetative gametophytes rather indicate that these gametophytes
8 are metabolically active, calling for more research on the topic (Monteiro, Heinrich, *et al.*
9 2019). Recent methodological advances, such as using flow cytometry to isolate
10 gametophytes of *S. latissima*, will allow for a more cost-effective gametophyte control at
11 a larger scale (Augyte *et al.* 2020). For more information on aquacultural approaches, see
12 Review II.

13 Female gametophytes' maturation depends on the interaction of temperature, light quality
14 and intensity, nutrients and biotic factors. Blue light is required for female gametophytes
15 to mature, and as temperature rises, more blue light is required until an inhibitory species-
16 specific threshold: 20°C in *S. latissima* (Lüning and Dring 1972; Lee and Brinkhuis
17 1988). Therefore, under laboratory conditions, if only exposed to red light, gametophytes
18 will tend to grow vegetatively, as growth is unaffected by light quality (Lüning and Dring
19 1975). Recently, a study revealed that light quality was only significant at lower
20 intensities; at higher intensities, both red and blue light induced maturation (Ebbing,
21 Pierik, *et al.* 2021). Concerning nutrients, it has been shown that iron is necessary for
22 oogenesis in kelps; hence, iron is typically excluded from nutrient solutions given to stock
23 culture meant to grow vegetatively (Motomura and Sakai 1981; Lewis *et al.* 2013). Also,
24 nutrient enrichment favours gametophyte growth, however, caution must be taken with
25 the proliferation of diatoms, growth which is inhibited by adding Germanium dioxide

1 (GeO₂) (Kerrison *et al.* 2016; Nielsen, Kumar, *et al.* 2016). Concerning biotic factors, an
2 essential role of the initial gametophyte density in maturation at all temperatures and light
3 intensities has been recently reported, with concentrations above an optimum inhibiting
4 fertilisation (Ebbing *et al.* 2020). The authors ruled reduced nutrients or light intensity as
5 the cause of inhibition of fertilisation at high concentrations, hence, the underlying
6 mechanism remains unknown. Another relevant biotic factor was the sex-ratio of cultures,
7 with a higher proportion of female gametophytes decreasing the reproductive yield, most
8 relevant at high culture densities (Ebbing, Fivash, *et al.* 2021).

9 Concerning phenology, in the wild, the maturation process of *S. latissima* typically peaks
10 in winter, with sporophytes growing at the highest rate over spring, after which they
11 senesce over summer due to high temperatures. However, in some sites, the species is
12 annual (Boderskov *et al.* 2021). While reproduction can occur over several months,
13 reproductive success and sporophyte growth depend on the month sporogenesis occurs.
14 In Denmark (temperate Atlantic), the percentage of fertile sporophytes (with visible sorus
15 formation) varied markedly over the year, peaking in November and December and
16 reaching null values in July and September. The number of viable spores released also
17 varied monthly, decreasing steadily from a maximum in November to February, with a
18 surge in March and April (Boderskov *et al.* 2021). Meiospores of *S. latissima* (from
19 Alaska, USA; Arctic Pacific) released in July resulted in larger gametophytes but smaller
20 sporophytes when compared with spores released in August (Raymond and Stekoll 2021)
21 while spores originated from *S. latissima* collected in April (from Ireland, temperate
22 Atlantic), growth rates of gametophytes were five to ten times higher than from spores
23 originated in February (Nielsen, Kumar, *et al.* 2016). Concerning sporophyte growth,
24 seasonal variation in growth rates is notable along the coast of Norway, with sporophytes
25 from northern Norway reaching their maximum frond length and biomass around two

1 months earlier than sporophytes occurring in the south of the country (Forbord *et al.*
2 2020).

3 The fact that recent studies (Ebbing *et al.* 2020; Boderskov *et al.* 2021) sometimes
4 contradict previous findings and/or show a more complex control of life cycle transitions
5 highlights the need for further research on this topic, testing for more single and
6 interacting drivers and accounting for possible site-specific responses.

7

8 **Advances in ‘-omics’**

9 *Genomics*

10 The decrease in sequencing costs has led to an increase in genomic resources for non-
11 model species, such as brown algae, until recently severely understudied. Nuclear
12 genomes are now available for some Phaeophyta species, e.g., *Ectocarpus sp.* (Cock *et*
13 *al.* 2010), *Saccharina japonica* (Ye *et al.* 2015; Liu *et al.* 2019), *Undaria pinnatifida*
14 (Shan *et al.* 2020; Graf *et al.* 2021) and plastid and mitochondria genomes are also
15 mounting (e.g., Oudot-Le Secq *et al.* 2006; Chen *et al.* 2019; Rana *et al.* 2021). For
16 *Saccharina latissima*, a mitochondrial genome is available (Wang *et al.* 2016) but not a
17 nuclear genome, though efforts are underway (pers. comm. M. Cock;
18 <https://phaeoexplorer.sb-roscoff.fr/home/>). Based on genetic data, a taxonomic
19 reorganisation was proposed in 2006 that reassigned the previously *Laminaria saccharina*
20 to *Saccharina latissima*, the currently accepted species name (Lane *et al.* 2006). Since
21 then, other species have been synonymized with *S. latissima* (Neiva *et al.* 2018)
22 highlighting the need for more extensive sampling across described and possible sites
23 where *S. latissima* occurs to assess the intraspecific diversity better. The availability of
24 validated DNA barcodes for the species – mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase gene
25 (COI) and ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase large subunit (rbcL)

1 (Ratnasingham and Hebert 2007) is very important to confirm the identity of *S. latissima*
2 samples. Moreover, it allows for the species to be detected in environmental DNA
3 (eDNA) surveys, a method that allows for identification and quantification of several
4 species from a unique sample using metabarcoding techniques (Deiner *et al.* 2017).
5 ‘-Omics’ data can help describe underlying *S. latissima*’s mechanistic response to stress
6 and hopefully help us predict adaptive potential to environmental change. Population
7 structure, connectivity and genetic diversity in *S. latissima* have been studied using
8 microsatellites at several regional scales (e.g., Guzinski *et al.* 2016; Luttkhuizen *et al.*
9 2018; Mooney *et al.* 2018). COI and microsatellites were applied to explore the amphi-
10 polar distribution of the species (Neiva *et al.* 2018). More recently, microsatellites and
11 double digest restriction site-associated DNA sequencing (ddRAD-seq) were used to
12 quantify variation in single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNPs). To identify putative loci
13 under selection in populations in the North-East Atlantic, SNPs and environmental
14 variables (temperature, salinity, and others) were correlated in an exercise of seascape
15 genomics (Guzinski *et al.* 2020). Also, novel is the application of genome-wide markers
16 in parallel with phenotypic analysis to identify SNPs associated with traits of interest
17 (e.g., higher growth rate) applied in NW Atlantic populations (Mao *et al.* 2020) an
18 approach termed genome-wide association study (GWAS). Using a genomic selection
19 approach, breeding values of *S. latissima*’s gametophytes were estimated and correlated
20 with sporophytes’ phenotypic traits, especially wet and dry weight per metre; however,
21 low genetic correlations among different years are concerning and need to be further
22 explored (Huang *et al.* 2023). These approaches inform current attempts to establish
23 breeding programs and, in the future, domesticate *S. latissima* (Yarish *et al.* 2017;
24 Umanzor *et al.* 2021).

1 *Transcriptomics*

2 Responses of organisms to stress are often measured by physiological parameters such as
3 survival, reproductive success, or growth, which are extremely relevant since they
4 underlie species' success. However, the underlying molecular mechanism often remains
5 unknown even when significant physiological responses are found following exposure to
6 a stressor (Bischof *et al.* 2019). Transcriptomics approaches focus on the expression of
7 mRNA following a stimulus. Given the nature of mRNA, this approach measures a
8 transient response that can be encoded at the DNA level or via epigenetic mechanisms
9 (Stark *et al.* 2019). The application of this approach to non-model organisms has been
10 rising in recent years, and methods have improved considerably in a short period. In the
11 last decade, gene expression studies have developed from using microarray technology
12 to RNA-sequencing, the latter providing more information at a lower cost and without
13 relying on existing genomic knowledge as the former (Wang *et al.* 2009). Still, the use of
14 transcriptomics in brown algae is lagging and has only been applied to a few species (e.g.,
15 *Laminaria digitata* (Liesner *et al.* 2022); *Undaria pinnatifida* (Graf *et al.* 2022) and
16 mostly on the brown algal model *Ectocarpus* (e.g., Ahmed *et al.* 2014; Mignerot *et al.*
17 2019), and the commercially important *Saccharina japonica* (e.g., Liu *et al.* 2014; Zhang
18 *et al.* 2021). While access to transcriptomic data in brown algae has been made easier by
19 advances in (higher) model plants, namely *Arabidopsis thaliana* (e.g., Zhang *et al.* 2017),
20 the evolutionary distance between Phaeophyceae and plants and other algae creates
21 challenges. Namely, there is still a very low annotation rate of expressed genes in brown
22 algae because functional studies are still not sufficiently conducted in this group as
23 approaches such as reverse genetics are unavailable (Kroth 2013; Bringloe *et al.* 2020).
24 However, promising advances have been made recently, and the use of CRISPR/Cas9

1 technology might enable a better understanding of the function of each gene in the
2 metabolism of this group (Badis *et al.* 2021).

3 Gene expression patterns in *S. latissima* were first investigated using microarrays
4 (Heinrich, Frickenhaus, *et al.* 2012; Heinrich, Valentin, *et al.* 2012; Heinrich *et al.* 2015,
5 2016) but more recently, RNA-sequencing was applied (Monteiro, Heinrich, *et al.* 2019;
6 Monteiro, Li, *et al.* 2019; Pearson *et al.* 2019; Li, Monteiro, *et al.* 2020; Li, Scheschonk,
7 *et al.* 2020) and reference genes for real-time-quantitative PCR (RT q-PCR) were
8 developed (Xing *et al.* 2021). These studies explored interactive effects of temperature
9 and irradiance (Heinrich, Valentin, *et al.* 2012), temperature and UV levels (Heinrich *et*
10 *al.* 2015), interactive effects of temperature and salinity and its modulation by
11 geographical variation in sporophytes (Monteiro, Li, *et al.* 2019; Li, Monteiro, *et al.*
12 2020); the response to darkness in sporophytes (Li, Scheschonk, *et al.* 2020), the
13 interaction of temperature and sex of gametophytes (Monteiro, Heinrich, *et al.* 2019) as
14 well as gene expression profiles during gametogenesis (Pearson *et al.* 2019) and a
15 comparison between field and lab-cultivated sporophytes (Heinrich *et al.* 2016). Direct
16 comparisons between the former studies are challenging since technologies and levels of
17 experimental temperature applied differ. Nevertheless, these studies have revealed an
18 intricate metabolic-wide programming of gene expression in the species in response to
19 environmental drivers, discussed in *Responses to environmental drivers*.

20 *Epigenomics*

21 Epigenomics have been shown to play a crucial role in defining a phenotype (Moore *et*
22 *al.* 2013; Anastasiadi *et al.* 2021). Given its sessile lifestyle, often low dispersal distances,
23 and tendency to self-fertilise, *S. latissima* will likely rely on epigenetic mechanisms and
24 variation. Epigenetic mechanisms play an essential role in a population's adaptation and
25 an individual's coping mechanism in reaction to local conditions, ecotype differentiation

1 (eco-phenotype), and rapid changes in local conditions (= local acclimation). For the
2 aqua-/mariculture industry, knowledge regarding epigenetic mechanisms and
3 implications of the findings already published are of value in terms of the importance of
4 origin in spore sourcing and possibilities of priming. Priming is the exposure of preferably
5 early life cycle stages (zygote or very young sporophytes) to a potentially lethal factor to
6 harden the grown sporophytes for future encounters (Jueterbock *et al.* 2021).

7 The known, non-exclusive epigenetic mechanisms encompass non-coding RNA
8 (ncRNA), histone modification, and DNA cytosine methylation (Boquete *et al.* 2021).
9 They have been shown to play a role in establishing, maintenance and control of gene
10 expression without changes to the DNA sequence (Anastasiadi *et al.* 2021), hence play a
11 key role in the eco-evolutionary dynamics of a species (Calosi *et al.* 2016; Anastasiadi *et*
12 *al.* 2021). Epigenetic modulation is tissue-specific and induced in reaction to local,
13 abiotic, and biotic factors (Bossdorf *et al.* 2008; Richards *et al.* 2010; Lämke and Bäumle
14 2017). While all mechanisms become effective within a single generation, they can be
15 stable across generations. In plants and hence, likely algae, very few epigenetic markers
16 have been found that do not get transmitted to at least F1 and F2 generations (Anastasiadi
17 *et al.* 2021). Research on epigenetic modulation and variation thereof is well-established
18 in plant biology (Richards *et al.* 2017). However, in kelp, the study of epigenetics just
19 gained momentum, with presently just a handful of studies (Phaeophyceae; (Cock *et al.*
20 2010; Liu *et al.* 2019; Fan, Han, *et al.* 2020; Teng *et al.* 2021; Scheschonk *et al.* 2023).
21 Regarding epigenetic mechanisms in the genus *Saccharina*, or the species *S. latissima*,
22 only DNA cytosine methylation has been investigated so far (Liu *et al.* 2019; Fan, Han,
23 *et al.* 2020; Teng *et al.* 2021; Scheschonk *et al.* 2023). ‘DNA methylation’ in plants and
24 algae describes the methylation of a cytosine in the DNA (5'-methylcytosine, 5-mC).
25 DNA Cytosine methylation can occur within and outside genes in the sequence context

1 of CG, CHG or CHH ('H' any base except G; (Bewick *et al.* 2017)). Genes are typically
2 methylated in the CG context in animals (Schmitz *et al.* 2019), and methylation of the
3 CG context in gene bodies of nuclear DNA is between 2 % and 86 % across *Viridiplantae*
4 (Bewick *et al.* 2017). Methylations in the CG, CHG, and CHH contexts were found to act
5 in silencing transposable elements in and outside of genes (Zhou *et al.* 2020) or to act in
6 regulation of transcript expression (Dubin *et al.* 2015; L Zhang *et al.* 2018; Boquete *et al.*
7 2021). With this, they are important to consider as aspects of acclimation and adaptation
8 processes. Moreover, it has been proposed in plants that CG methylation regulates the
9 inheritance of other types of epigenetic information (Mathieu *et al.* 2007).

10 In terrestrial plants, DNA methylation of the chloroplast genome is uncommon in general
11 (Fojtová *et al.* 2001), but in the kelp *S. japonica*, evidence for DNA methylation of the
12 chloroplast genome has recently been published (Teng *et al.* 2021). Due to the putative
13 direct influence on photosynthesis, evidence of methylation in the chloroplast genome is
14 of particular interest regarding adaptation processes to rising temperatures.

15 Within brown algae, there seem to be group-specific occurrences regarding the types of
16 epigenetic mechanisms. Histone modification has been observed in *Ectocarpus*
17 *siliculosus* (Cock *et al.* 2010; Bourdareau *et al.* 2021), while DNA cytosine methylation
18 was found to be negligible, which led to the assumption that DNA methylation is
19 negligible in brown algae (Cock *et al.* 2010). However, in the kelps *S. latissima* and *S.*
20 *japonica*, methylation playing a significant role in gene expression has recently been
21 established, both for the nuclear and chloroplast genome (e.g. Fan *et al.* 2020; Yang *et al.*
22 2021; Scheschonk *et al.* 2023). Hence, the totality of epigenetic modifications of
23 importance in *S. latissima* can likely only be assessed with testing for the respective
24 mechanism in the species, or possibly the congener species (*S. japonica*), but cannot per
25 se be implied by findings from other genera within the group of Phaeophyceae. The

1 studies focusing on *Saccharina* investigated the impact of cytosine methylation on both
2 life cycle stages at transcriptomic level (*S. japonica*; Liu *et al.* 2019; Fan *et al.* 2020; Teng
3 *et al.* 2021) and differences in cytosine methylation due to cultivation and latitudinal
4 location (possibly heritable traits) observable on sporophyte stage (*S. latissima*;
5 Scheschonk *et al.* 2023, Scheschonk unpubl. res.). Cytosine methylation was shown to
6 influence gene expression in both life cycle stages (predominantly the non-heritable
7 methylation variant CHH; ~56%, Yang *et al.* 2021), with higher methylations found in
8 the gametophyte stage for both nuclear and chloroplast genome (Fan, Xie, *et al.* 2020;
9 Teng *et al.* 2021). In both life cycle stages and genomes (nuclear and chloroplast), high
10 levels of cytosine DNA methylation led to the silencing of the respective DNA sequence,
11 acting as an additional control mechanism in gene expression (Fan, Han, *et al.* 2020). On
12 population level, differences in cytosine methylation were observed to differ between
13 latitudes in populations regardless of cultivation status (laboratory and wild; Scheschonk
14 *et al.* 2023, Scheschonk unpubl. res.). This implies hereditary additional control imposed
15 via cytosine methylation. As in other sequences, regions only became methylated during
16 the cultivation process in both origins and DNA cytosine methylations likely are a
17 mechanism of rapid adaptation, as changes in habitat (wild to cultivation) initiated
18 epigenetic changes within a generation.

19

20 **Responses to environmental drivers**

21 *Temperature*

22 The composition and biogeographical distribution patterns of macroalgal communities
23 are largely determined by temperature (Lüning 1984; Adey and Steneck 2001; Wiencke
24 and Bischof 2012). Thus, climate change, particularly warming and marine heatwaves
25 (MHWs), is a major threat to marine forests (e.g., Harley *et al.* 2012; Smale 2020). The

1 use of the term ‘MHW’ differs in different studies. In this review, we refer to the wording
2 of the individual studies.

3 Much is known about the general thermal characteristics of *Saccharina latissima*, mainly
4 in terms of survival, reproduction, photosynthesis and growth (Bartsch *et al.* 2008). Like
5 other kelps, *S. latissima* is a cold-temperate organism (Araújo *et al.* 2016). Sporophytes
6 from Helgoland presented optimum growth between 10 and 15°C (Bolton and Lüning
7 1982), although they tolerated an extensive range of temperature from 0–23°C for shorter
8 periods, with highly increasing mortality rates >20°C (Fortes and Lüning 1980; Lüning
9 1984, 1990b). Gametophytes of *S. latissima* exhibited a broader thermal tolerance
10 surviving temperatures down to -1.5°C and up to 23–25°C (tom Dieck 1993).
11 Furthermore, sporophytes of *S. latissima* from Nova Scotia were found to have decreasing
12 growth rates with increasing temperatures between 11–21°C, high mortality at 18°C and
13 no survival at 21°C already after two weeks (E J Simonson *et al.* 2015). Contrary, *S.*
14 *latissima* sporophytes from Brittany survive up to 25°C for more than a week (Diehl *et*
15 *al.* 2021). Susceptibility to high temperature was shown to vary with environmental
16 thermal history, thus between seasons and years (Niedzwiedz *et al.* 2022). Differences in
17 temperature sensitivity were also found between laboratory cultures and field sporophytes
18 (Heinrich *et al.* 2016) and male and female gametophytes (Monteiro, Heinrich, *et al.*
19 2019). Consequently, generalisations about thermal limits based on a few studies should
20 be handled carefully.

21 Detrimental effects of suboptimal high temperatures on *S. latissima* include often
22 compromised growth (e.g., Bolton and Lüning 1982; E. J. Simonson *et al.* 2015), but it
23 can also lead to weakening the tissue structure (E. J. Simonson *et al.* 2015), increasing
24 blade erosion (Krumhansl *et al.* 2014; E. J. Simonson *et al.* 2015), enhanced biofouling
25 and epiphytism (Andersen *et al.* 2013; Forbord *et al.* 2020), complex modifications in

1 photosynthetic mechanisms, lowered chlorophyll *a* and fucoxanthin concentrations
2 (Andersen *et al.* 2013), strongly increased de-epoxidation state of the xanthophyll cycle
3 (DPS) (Nepper-Davidsen *et al.* 2019; Diehl *et al.* 2021) and reduced kelp carbon
4 decomposition (Filbee-Dexter, Feehan, *et al.* 2022). In fact, exposure to elevated, though
5 not lethal, temperature is harmful in the long term for *S. latissima* (Andersen *et al.* 2013;
6 Nepper-Davidsen *et al.* 2019). Warming in the Arctic, however, might promote kelp
7 populations, with densities higher in warmer areas than at comparable colder sites (Wiktor
8 *et al.* 2022). At the warmer sites, *S. latissima* was also found at slightly greater depths.
9 It is increasingly relevant to look at MHWs impact on seaweeds (Straub *et al.* 2019).
10 Nevertheless, few studies simulating MHW scenarios were conducted on *S. latissima* (see
11 Nepper-Davidsen *et al.* 2019; Diehl *et al.* 2021; Niedzwiedz *et al.* 2022). Strong
12 correlations between MHW events over the last 60 years and loss of *S. latissima* forests
13 in the North and West Atlantic were found (Filbee-Dexter *et al.* 2020). After a simulated
14 three-week MHW event in Danish waters, most samples died within a few days at 24°C,
15 and impairing effects of high but sub-lethal temperatures (18 and 21°C) were observed in
16 a two-week recovery phase (Nepper-Davidsen *et al.* 2019). Thereby, interrelationships
17 were demonstrated between reduced growth, reduced photosynthetic performance,
18 carbon uptake, and pigment composition. At the same temperatures (11, 18, 21°C), no
19 changes in C:N and phlorotannins were detected in specimens from Nova Scotia, USA
20 (E. J. Simonson *et al.* 2015). The impact of local MHWs in summer on five European *S.*
21 *latissima* populations ranging from southern Brittany to Spitsbergen revealed strong
22 physiological and biochemical divergences between the populations. Increased mortality
23 and decreased photosynthetic performance at the higher temperature amplitude
24 treatments were detected exclusively in the rear-edge populations from Helgoland
25 (German Bight) and Brittany, while the Arctic population was unaffected (Diehl *et al.*

1 2021). In Norway, strong differences in the physiological condition of *S. latissima* were
2 observed, showing, e.g. decreased growth and more erosion in a hot year compared to a
3 cooler year (Armitage *et al.* 2017). The impact of MHWs also varies by year and season,
4 as shown for field sporophytes from Helgoland (Niedzwiedz *et al.* 2022). *S. latissima* was
5 more sensitive to high temperatures at the end of summer and during an extremely warm
6 year.

7 High and excessively low temperatures alter physiological and biochemical properties of
8 *S. latissima*. Overall, wild *S. latissima* from Iceland revealed positive correlation between
9 carbohydrates and negative correlations of proteins with the environmental temperature
10 (Coaten *et al.* 2023). Lower pigment concentrations were found at temperatures <10°C,
11 whereas DPS was significantly higher compared to higher temperature treatments
12 (Olischläger *et al.* 2017; Monteiro, Li, *et al.* 2019; Li, Monteiro, *et al.* 2020) and higher
13 phosphorylation rates of mitogen-activated protein kinases were measured at 2 than at
14 7°C (Parages *et al.* 2013). Additionally, strongly enhanced mannitol concentrations were
15 detected in young sporophytes from Brittany after 0°C treatment, indicating a strong anti-
16 freezing response of the species (C Monteiro *et al.* 2020). Consequently, *S. latissima* will
17 most likely rather benefit from the predicted rising temperatures in subpolar and polar
18 regions (Filbee-Dexter *et al.* 2019; Diehl and Bischof 2021) as physiological functions of
19 *S. latissima* will be enhanced (Iñiguez *et al.* 2016). Yet, darkness during the polar night
20 seems to outcompete the positive effects of warming (Scheschonk *et al.* 2019), and low
21 water temperature is a requirement for survival (Gordillo *et al.* 2022). Warming in winter
22 accelerated weight loss of young sporophytes over four months of darkness, with approx.
23 50% at 8°C and 40% at 3°C (Gordillo *et al.* 2022). Further, dark respiration of Arctic *S.*
24 *latissima* sporophytes increased with increasing temperatures (3, 7, 11°C) (Niedzwiedz
25 and Bischof 2023).

1 Arctic *S. latissima* gametophytes did not survive 20°C in the lab but grew at 15°C and
2 below, with higher growth rates between 10–15°C than 5°C (measured in length of both
3 male and female gametophytes) (Park *et al.* 2017). Another laboratory study targeting
4 Arctic gametophytes showed that they survive at 20°C through heat stress mechanisms
5 that were extensively induced at the transcriptomic level at that temperature, while at 4
6 and 12°C, which did not occur (Monteiro, Heinrich, *et al.* 2019). If we consider spore
7 germination, a higher temperature of 9°C increased the germination rate of spores
8 compared to 5°C for Arctic individuals (Zacher *et al.* 2016). In an experiment with
9 individuals from North America, at temperatures between 4 and 12°C, lower temperatures
10 negatively influenced the size of gametophytes and sporophytes and the production of
11 eggs and young sporophytes (Raymond and Stekoll 2021). When looking at sexual
12 reproduction, sex-biased responses to temperature were found, with male gametophytes
13 being more resilient to higher temperatures than females – females grew at a slower rate,
14 and pathways related to fecundity were repressed (Monteiro, Heinrich, *et al.* 2019).
15 Similarly, higher temperatures increased the proportion of male gametophytes in an
16 earlier study (Lee and Brinkhuis 1988), but not more recently (Park *et al.* 2017).
17 Recently, the impact of increasing temperatures in the Arctic in combination with
18 decreased salinity (Monteiro, Li, *et al.* 2019; Diehl and Bischof 2021), increased $p\text{CO}_2$
19 (Olischläger *et al.* 2014, 2017; Iñiguez *et al.* 2016), UV radiation stress (Parages *et al.*
20 2013), increased sedimentation (Zacher *et al.* 2016) or increased nutrient conditions
21 (Diehl and Bischof 2021) were investigated. All these studies showed that growth,
22 photosynthetic performance, biochemical composition and also transcriptomics of *S.*
23 *latissima* were strongly affected by temperature. The species would rather benefit from
24 higher temperatures in Arctic regions, whereas the impact of the other drivers was less
25 pronounced, or there was no impact at all. On the other hand, the early stages of *S.*

1 *latissima* appear vulnerable to strong warming and interaction with other factors in the
2 Arctic. Overall, strong interactions between light and temperature were also detected in
3 different microstages, highlighting UV-B radiation's impairing effect (Müller *et al.* 2008,
4 2012). Increased production of superoxide anion radicals (O_2^{*-}) was measured in
5 gametophytes under increasing temperatures between 2 and 18°C and slightly under UV
6 radiation (Müller *et al.* 2012). Temperatures up to 21°C combined with hyposalinity
7 diminished the spore settlement of *S. latissima* from Alaska (Lind and Konar 2017). While
8 higher temperatures generally lead to higher germination rates of Arctic *S. latissima*
9 spores, temperature and grazing had an interactive effect (Zacher *et al.* 2016). At 5°C,
10 germination rate was higher when grazers were present, and at 9°C, the reverse happened.
11 The same pattern holds for the density of juvenile sporophytes. The species-specific
12 interactive effects revealed a differential response between co-occurring kelps in the
13 Arctic.

14 Large ecosystem shifts from kelp canopies to turfs or barrens have been reported.
15 Generally, the loss of *S. latissima* populations has been attributed to warming to a certain
16 extent. In Norway, *S. latissima* communities were observed to be replaced by ephemeral,
17 filamentous turf algae (Moy and Christie 2012; Christie, Andersen, *et al.* 2019). This
18 ecosystem shift was proposed to have been mainly driven by extraordinarily high
19 temperatures over summer, in combination with eutrophication (Moy and Christie 2012).
20 Loss of *S. latissima* beds and shifts to turf-dominated ecosystems were also observed in
21 Nova Scotia, Canada, caused by increased temperature and diverse unbalanced
22 multitrophic interactions (Filbee-Dexter *et al.* 2016). Yet, the impacts of interactions
23 between MHWs and biota on kelp forests appear to be extremely dynamic and complex
24 (e.g., Christie, Gundersen, *et al.* 2019; McPherson *et al.* 2021). Thus, multifactorial
25 experimental set-ups are of major importance in identifying the complexity of climate

1 change reactions and local anthropogenic stressors (Strain *et al.* 2014). Overall, much
2 research has been done on Arctic and Norwegian populations of *S. latissima*. Contrary,
3 the knowledge about the acclimation potential of southern populations has been scarce
4 and should receive particular attention in future studies.

5 *Hydro-optics*

6 As photosynthetic organisms, seaweeds are dependent on light availability to survive.
7 Irradiance effects on *S. latissima* have already been well studied for decades and
8 summarised in Bartsch *et al.* (2008). Both extremely high and low Photosynthetic
9 Active/Available Radiation (PAR) and mainly UV radiation (UVR) cause modifications
10 in multiple biochemical and physiological processes in *S. latissima*, with early-life stages
11 and adult sporophytes showing differences in susceptibility.

12 More recent studies demonstrated that reduced irradiance negatively affects the growth
13 performance of sporophytes *in situ* (Spurkland and Iken 2011; Forbord *et al.*
14 2020) without diminishing the photosynthetic performance (Spurkland and Iken 2011) but
15 still promoting biofouling (Forbord *et al.* 2020). The maximum modelled distribution
16 depth of *S. latissima* in Arctic fjords followed the extent of the meltwater plume, being
17 shallower close to the glaciers and deeper in outer fjord regions (Niedzwiedz and Bischof
18 2023). Pronounced variability was found in different parts of the phylloid regarding the
19 long-term storage of carbohydrate laminarin in Arctic field sporophytes between October
20 and early February (Scheschonk *et al.* 2019). Also, other biochemical components, such
21 as mannitol or nitrogen, strongly declined during the dark season. Interestingly, darkness
22 appeared to be optimal for artificial sporogenesis of Danish *S. latissima* compared to other
23 light levels (20-120 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) (Boderskov *et al.* 2021).

24 A few studies suggest that other response variables, beyond the main physiological and
25 biochemical parameters, are involved in acclimating to light variations in *S. latissima*.

1 Enhanced release of organic iodine and reduced release of reactive organic bromine and
2 chlorine were found after PAR ($23 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) + UVR exposure (Laternus *et*
3 *al.* 2010). The impact of PAR ($\sim 10 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and UVR were also investigated
4 in chloroplasts of vegetative (non-soral) and fertile (soral) tissue of *S. latissima*
5 (Holzinger *et al.* 2011). While fertile tissue cells were not affected by PAR + UVR,
6 negative effects were found in vegetative parts. For instance, decreased optimum
7 quantum yields (F_v/F_m) were measured under UVR treatment, and the chloroplast
8 structure was altered, i.e., including more physodes. Another study revealed that the
9 oxygen consumption rate of *S. latissima* was significantly higher at high light ($300 \mu\text{mol}$
10 $\text{photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) compared to low light conditions ($3 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) (McDowell *et*
11 *al.* 2015).

12 Sedimentation and epibiosis have a strong impact on light availability. *S. latissima* can
13 withstand short-term sediment cover (Roleda and Dethleff 2011; Picard *et al.* 2022),
14 whereas longer burial negatively affects its vitality and morphology (Roleda and Dethleff
15 2011). Furthermore, it was shown that sediment from melting ice weakened the
16 recruitment of *S. latissima* (Zacher *et al.* 2016). The overgrowth with epibionts, and
17 consequent shading, can reduce growth and survival of the species (Andersen *et al.* 2018).
18 Polar night imposes very special conditions for Arctic *S. latissima*, especially when
19 combined with future increases in winter temperatures. Treatments of light/dark or
20 darkness alone seem to have a greater effect on *S. latissima* than the various temperatures
21 applied (0, 4, 8°C) (Scheschonk *et al.* 2019). The lower laminarin content at elevated
22 temperatures (8°C) suggests that prolonged darkness may be a problem for *S. latissima*
23 under future temperature trends.

24 In a comparable study on *S. latissima* sporophytes, low temperatures (2°C) and PAR (10
25 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) + UVR treatments activated the rapid phosphorylation of mitogen-

1 activated protein kinases, while UVR generally impaired the photosynthetic performance
2 (Parages *et al.* 2013). A study in juvenile Arctic sporophytes revealed that F_v/F_m remained
3 unchanged in low PAR treatments ($\sim 24 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), even with the addition of
4 UVR, and that it decreased under high light stress ($\sim 110 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), especially
5 combined with UVR (Heinrich, Valentin, *et al.* 2012; Heinrich *et al.* 2015). Remarkably,
6 the photosynthetic performance was particularly severely reduced at high PAR \times high
7 temperatures (17 vs. 2 and 7°C) (Heinrich, Valentin, *et al.* 2012), whereas when UVR
8 was included in a comparable set-up, the strongest inhibition occurred in the high PAR +
9 UVR treatment at 2°C, compared to 7 and 12°C (Heinrich *et al.* 2015). Thus, high
10 temperatures appear to mitigate the impairing effects of UVR on *S. latissima* sporophytes.
11 However, these observations were more pronounced in laboratory cultures than in field
12 sporophytes (Heinrich *et al.* 2015).

13 Investigating the effects of irradiance (<10 and $30\text{--}50 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), temperature
14 (4, 8, 12°C), and season on gametophyte growth and reproduction of *S. latissima*, revealed
15 that gametophyte length, sporophyte length, fraction of female gametophytes with eggs,
16 and fraction of female gametophytes with sporophytes were all mainly altered by
17 temperature and season (Raymond and Stekoll 2021). Irradiance significantly affected all
18 response parameters except for gametophyte length; however, interactions were only
19 found for sporophyte length (irradiance \times temperature).

20 In the last decade, transcriptomic responses of *S. latissima* to different light conditions
21 have been investigated (Heinrich, Valentin, *et al.* 2012; Heinrich *et al.* 2015, 2016; Li,
22 Scheschonk, *et al.* 2020; Xing *et al.* 2021). On the time scale of 24 h exposure, the
23 combination of high temperature and high photosynthetically active radiation (PAR)
24 induced more transcriptomic regulation than low temperature and low PAR. High PAR
25 and high temperature widely downregulated genes involved in photosynthesis, including

1 photosystem I/II components, thylakoid protein and light harvest complex proteins with
2 strong folds (up to 60-fold). In contrast, genes encoding reactive oxygen species (ROS)
3 scavenging enzymes, oxygen heat shock proteins (HSPs), and proteins involved in
4 proteolysis were upregulated under high PAR and high-temperature conditions. On the
5 other hand, the combination of high PAR and low temperature generally upregulated
6 genes encoding photosynthesis, ROS, and HSPs, whereas downregulated genes encoded
7 proteolysis-related protein. The 24 h exposure to UVR also induced a wide regulation of
8 gene expression, mainly including photosynthetic components, DNA repair, vitamin B₆
9 biosynthesis and ROS scavengers, which supported that UVR negatively affected
10 photosynthesis and damaged DNA (Heinrich, Valentin, *et al.* 2012). The long-term (14
11 days) exposure to PAR, UVR and temperature combinations resulted in large
12 transcriptomic reprogramming, which did not cause physiological adjustments. The
13 combination of high PAR and UVA caused more gene regulation than the single exposure
14 to high PAR or UVR and mainly upregulated genes encoding photosynthetic components,
15 pigment metabolisms, glycine, serine and threonine metabolism and ROS scavenging
16 enzymes. The transcriptomic responses of *S. latissima* to 14 days of darkness at two
17 temperatures revealed that darkness induced more regulated genes than increased
18 temperature (Li, Scheschonk, *et al.* 2020). Darkness downregulated genes encoding
19 enzymes involved in glycolysis and metabolite biosynthesis. Some energy-consuming
20 processes, e.g., photosynthetic components and transporters' biosynthesis were also
21 repressed. On the contrary, genes coding for the catabolism of lipid and laminarin,
22 glyoxylate cycle and signalling were upregulated in darkness, pointing out the possible
23 energy source of *S. latissima* during the polar night.

1 *Salinity*

2 Coastal salinity frequently varies with tidal ranges, precipitation, freshwater plumes from
3 rivers or terrestrial run-offs (Lüning 1990a), increasing with climate change (Holt *et al.*
4 2010; Masson-Delmotte *et al.* 2021). Salinity variation is particularly relevant for the
5 physiology of *S. latissima* in Arctic fjord systems due to enhanced sea ice and glacier
6 melting (Hanelt *et al.* 2001; Svendsen *et al.* 2002; Sundfjord *et al.* 2017). Fluctuations in
7 salinity lead to osmotic stress with consequences on the physiological and biochemical
8 level, which is overall well studied for seaweeds (see Karsten 2012 and references
9 therein) but not on *S. latissima*. Even though *Laminaria sensu lato* is considered a rather
10 stenohaline genus (Bartsch *et al.* 2008), *S. latissima* is known to physiologically tolerate
11 broad ranges of salinities between S_A 5 and 60 (Karsten 2007), although young
12 sporophytes were shown to have a tolerance of down to S_A 11 under laboratory conditions
13 (Karsten 2007; Peteiro and Sánchez 2012), which allows the species to inhabit Brackish
14 waters (Nielsen, Paulino, *et al.* 2016; Mortensen 2017). Still, hyposalinity results in
15 decreased growth (e.g., Spurkland and Iken 2011; Marinho *et al.* 2015; Bruhn *et al.* 2016;
16 Forbord *et al.* 2020), diminished photosynthetic performance (e.g., Karsten 2007;
17 Spurkland and Iken 2011; Peteiro and Sánchez 2012), and loss of pigmentation (Karsten
18 2007; Peteiro and Sánchez 2012). Furthermore, decreased carbon dioxide exchange rates
19 were detected at low salinities (Mortensen 2017). Generally, salinity has a strong effect
20 on the biochemical composition of *S. latissima*. For instance, the content of sulfated
21 fucose-rich polysaccharides, measured with fucoidan, generally increased at absolute
22 salinities (S_A 15-25) in the Baltic Sea, however, the pattern did not hold for all locations
23 (Bruhn *et al.* 2017). Samples of *S. latissima* from an Atlantic population hold higher
24 content of fucose-containing sulfated polysaccharides than a Baltic one, which
25 experiences lower salinity variation than the former population (Ehrig and Alban 2015).

1 Along the Baltic Sea's salinity gradient, salinity's effects were observed in various
2 carbohydrates, proteins, pigments and nitrogen contents (Nielsen, Kumar, *et al.* 2016).
3 However, it should be noted that these observations were not necessarily consistent
4 between different populations or experimental frameworks (Manns *et al.* 2017; Diehl *et*
5 *al.* 2023).

6 Little is known about the interaction between salinity and other factors in *S. latissima*,
7 with only salinity × temperature investigated so far. Recent studies revealed that
8 hyposalinity is potentially highly stressful for *S. latissima* in combination with
9 temperature variation. In the Baltic Sea, low salinity in combination with high summer
10 temperatures decreases the productivity of *S. latissima* due to high physiological stress in
11 cultivated seaweed (Nielsen *et al.* 2014). Arctic field adult sporophytes of *S. latissima*,
12 however, were almost unaffected by temperature increase (4°C to 10°C) and hyposalinity
13 (S_A 25) under mimicked field conditions (Diehl *et al.* 2020), even though slightly
14 increased growth and photosynthetic performance (F_v/F_m) were detected at higher
15 temperatures. In contrast to adult sporophytes, more pronounced effects of both
16 parameters and some interaction of salinity and temperature are detectable in the early
17 life stages of *S. latissima*. For instance, elevated temperatures and low salinities decreased
18 spore settlement and gametophyte growth (Lind and Konar 2017). The impact of
19 temperature × salinity interaction was investigated in young sporophytes from Brittany
20 and the Arctic by running comparable experiments on specimens from both locations
21 (Monteiro, Li, *et al.* 2019; Li, Monteiro, *et al.* 2020; C Monteiro *et al.* 2020). Remarkably,
22 almost similar effects were observed in young sporophytes from the two regions. Lower
23 salinities had little negative impact on growth and F_v/F_m and modified the xanthophyll-
24 cycle pigment pool. The effects of different temperatures were more pronounced,
25 revealing ameliorating effects of higher and diminishing effects of lower temperatures.

1 At the transcriptomic level, an ameliorating effect of high temperature was observed for
2 algae from Brittany and Svalbard (Monteiro, Li, *et al.* 2019; Li, Monteiro, *et al.* 2020).
3 The treatments at low salinity (S_A 20) at 0°C and 8°C elicited more differentially
4 expressed genes than at 15°C and low salinity. Geographical variation also played an
5 important role as the combination of low salinity and low temperature was especially
6 stressful for sporophytes from Brittany (not exposed to 0°C in their environment of
7 origin) than Svalbard. In response to low salinity, metabolic pathways such as
8 photosynthesis and carbon assimilation were down-regulated, and some gene coding
9 enzymes contributed to the xanthophyll cycle and cell wall metabolism. Moreover, genes
10 coding for heat shock proteins and enzymes involved in the synthesis of mannitol and
11 proline were not significantly regulated during this experiment, revealing perhaps that the
12 stress was mild or that the regulation of salt stress is more intricately than expected,
13 involving several other pathways than already described for other environmental drivers.

14 *Nutrients*

15 The macronutrients nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) serve as essential elements for
16 photosynthesis and growth, of which N is considered the main limiting resource for
17 macroalgal productivity (Roleda and Hurd 2019). An overarching overview of nutrient
18 physiology and factors affecting nutrient uptake in seaweeds is given by Roleda and Hurd
19 (2019). Effects of various nutrient regimes have been well investigated for Laminariales,
20 including *Saccharina latissima* (summarised in Bartsch *et al.* 2008). Laminariales can
21 accumulate nutrient reserves over winter when nutrient conditions are favourable
22 (Bartsch *et al.* 2008; Lubsch and Timmermans 2019) and have an optimum environmental
23 nitrate concentration of about 10 μ M but also tolerate oligotrophic conditions (Kerrison
24 *et al.* 2015). Still, nutrient depletion is already long known to have negative impacts on
25 the physiological status of *S. latissima*, resulting, for instance, in lower growth rate and

1 lower photosynthetic performance (Williams and Herbert 1989; Gerard 1997a; b; Korb
2 and Gerard 2000; Roleda and Hurd 2019). A recent study revealed that young
3 sporophytes' development, density, and length growth were also diminished under
4 nutrient-poor conditions (Raymond and Stekoll 2021). Nitrate (NO_3^-) uptake rates are
5 linearly related to the substrate concentrations for both N-limited and N-saturated young
6 sporophytes, indicating that *S. latissima* requires high ambient nitrate concentrations in
7 the environment to have rapid growth. The sporophytes with deficient internal nitrogen
8 pools exhibited higher uptake rates of NO_3^- than sporophytes with higher internal nitrogen
9 pools (Forbord *et al.* 2021). As a result, the growth of *S. latissima* decreases significantly
10 over summer, yet it can continue to grow for some time even under low nutrient
11 conditions (Nielsen *et al.* 2014; Lubsch and Timmermans 2019; Forbord *et al.* 2020). The
12 species' ability to store nutrients is also considered an advantage in direct competition for
13 habitat with other seaweeds (Armitage *et al.* 2017). Several physiological parameters of
14 *S. latissima* are also limited by bioavailable P (Bruhn *et al.* 2016). Comparing the effect
15 of P enrichment on spores and gametophytes in February and April showed that growth
16 was supported by elevated P levels (23–69 μM), and earlier gametophyte development
17 appeared under P-treatment in April (Nielsen, Kumar, *et al.* 2016). Sufficient or slightly
18 enhanced N supply is reported to have beneficial effects on the response of *S. latissima*
19 with respect to several environmental stressors. For instance, it was found that UV
20 damage in *S. latissima* can be mitigated or prevented by enriched (50 μM) N supply
21 (Davison *et al.* 2007). Recent studies on nutrient \times light interactions showed the high
22 importance of nutrients (N + P). Specimens were overall not much altered by the different
23 natural light intensities, but growth and intracellular N were positively affected by
24 elevated nutrient conditions (Boderskov *et al.* 2016; Jevne *et al.* 2020). The contents of
25 total C decreased, and chlorophyll *a* and fucoxanthin increased under nutrient-rich

1 conditions and varying between frond parts (Boderskov *et al.* 2016). No distinct
2 interaction of light and nutrients were determined. Yet, interactions of nutrients and light
3 were found regarding sterolic compounds (de Jong *et al.* 2021). Highest sterol content
4 was measured at low nutrient and high light, though enhanced nutrient conditions
5 combined with high light resulted in unchanged or even decreased concentrations.
6 However, the authors attribute the results to reduced photosynthetic function rather than
7 nutrient fluctuations.

8 A recent study on the interaction of nutrient availability and wave exposure revealed that
9 fronds grow narrow under high wave exposure and high nutrient concentrations and wider
10 under low nutrient concentrations (Zhu *et al.* 2021). Additionally, the frond surface's
11 biomass, shape, and C:N ratio were affected by waves, nutrients, and their interaction.
12 Thereby, specific morphological changes can compensate for nutrient-poor conditions.

13 Eutrophication has become a common phenomenon in coastal regions, mainly triggered
14 by anthropogenic nutrient input (Skjoldal 1993; Norderhaug *et al.* 2015). Moderate
15 enhanced N (~3–20 μM) supply was already reported to positively influence the
16 physiology of *S. latissima* (e.g., Chapman *et al.* 1978; Conolly & Drew 1985; Gerard
17 1997). However, severe eutrophication levels combined with high temperatures are
18 detrimental (Moy and Christie 2012). Contrary, Arctic primary production was reported
19 to be limited due to low nutrient availability (< 1 μM), but nutrient concentrations are
20 expected to increase and alter seasonal patterns as melting, and thus freshwater run-off,
21 increases and occurs earlier (Zacher *et al.* 2009; Filbee-Dexter *et al.* 2019). Only marginal
22 positive effects of nutrient enrichment on the physiological and biochemical status were
23 reported (Gordillo *et al.* 2006; Diehl and Bischof 2021). Temperature effects
24 outcompeted nutrient supply, and no significant interactions of temperature and nutrients
25 were determined (Diehl and Bischof 2021).

1 *Saccharina latissima* can act as a bioremediator. In investigating the potential of *S.*
2 *latissima* to remove nutrients from eutrophic brackish fjord systems and the parallel
3 effects on several chemical compounds of the species, it was found to survive
4 hyposalinity under elevated nutrient conditions (Mortensen 2017). Higher protein and
5 tissue N content and lower contents of β -glucans and iodine were found in young *S.*
6 *latissima* maintained in brackish water with nutrient supplementation compared to
7 conditions in seawater with adequate nutrient supply. Furthermore, the study revealed
8 that the beneficial effects of increased nutrient levels were greater in young sporophytes
9 than in older ones.

10 Regarding aquaculture research, the nutrient regime is of prominent importance. The
11 potential of algae to sequester nutrients poses great potential for establishing integrated
12 multi-trophic aquaculture, which aims to reduce eutrophication caused by intensive fish
13 farming (Kim *et al.* 2015; Marinho *et al.* 2015). While removing large amounts of N from
14 the environmental system, *S. latissima* benefits from the elevated nutrient conditions by
15 enhancing its growth by up to 50% compared to a reference site (e.g., Sanderson *et al.*
16 2012; Broch *et al.* 2013; Wang *et al.* 2014; Fossberg *et al.* 2018). Different studies
17 describe enhanced growth, photosynthetic activity, N (protein) concentration and pigment
18 content, resulting in higher biomass quality of cultivated *S. latissima* (Sanderson *et al.*
19 2012; Wang *et al.* 2014; Rugiu *et al.* 2021) (see *Saccharina latissima* II for further
20 information).

21 The effects of micronutrients on *S. latissima* are still largely unexplored. Trace metals are
22 essential for various metabolic functions in seaweeds but can also be harmful at higher
23 concentrations (Stengel *et al.* 2005 and references therein). The only studies on the effects
24 of microelements, e.g., iodine or copper, on *S. latissima* were conducted more than 30
25 years ago (Hsiao and Druehl 1973; Brinkhuis and Chung 1986; Chung and Brinkhuis

1 1986). However, for other Laminariales, iodine has been shown to support osmotic
2 functions (Nitschke and Stengel 2014), iron had a strong impact on gametogenesis
3 (Raymond and Stekoll 2021), and copper modified the transcriptomic profile (Zhang *et*
4 *al.* 2019). To what extent abiotic factors and distribution patterns affect the concentration
5 of microelements in *S. latissima* is unknown. In addition, the fact that *S. latissima*
6 accumulates micronutrients from the environment (e.g., Schiener *et al.* 2015; Bruhn *et al.*
7 2016; Nielsen, Manns, *et al.* 2016) is of high relevance to the food industry as
8 concentrations above certain thresholds can exclude *S. latissima* biomass from human
9 consumption (e.g., Bruhn *et al.* 2019; Kim *et al.* 2019; Roleda *et al.* 2019).

10 *pH*

11 Ocean acidification (OA) refers to the ongoing decrease in seawater pH and variations in
12 carbonate chemistry resulting from the substantial marine uptake of CO₂ since the
13 Industrial Revolution (Doney *et al.* 2020). Studies about the effects of OA on *Saccharina*
14 *latissima* have mainly focused on growth, photo-physiology and biochemistry. OA has
15 been reported to increase (Gordillo *et al.* 2015; Olischläger *et al.* 2017; Young and Doall
16 2021), not affect (Iñiguez *et al.* 2016; Olischläger *et al.* 2017) or even decrease (Swanson
17 and Fox 2007) the growth rates of *S. latissima* according to the duration of the experiment
18 and the levels of partial pressure of CO₂ (*p*CO₂) applied. Photophysiology, reflected by
19 different parameters (e.g., pigments, photosynthetic O₂ evolution and CO₂ uptake, and
20 chlorophyll *a* fluorescence), also showed various responses under OA conditions. For
21 example, in some studies, it was shown that OA (about 1000 and 800 ppm, respectively)
22 significantly increased the rates of photosynthetic CO₂ uptake and O₂ evolution rates
23 (Longphuir *et al.* 2013; Nunes *et al.* 2016), whereas another study failed to detect
24 differences in net photosynthesis rates between ambient (390 ppm) and increased *p*CO₂
25 levels (1200 ppm)(Iñiguez *et al.* 2016). Regarding the biochemistry, *S. latissima* was

1 found to utilise more CO₂ than bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) as the photosynthetic carbon source,
2 revealed by the signatures of carbon stable isotope (δ¹³C) (Young and Doall 2021). The
3 contents of soluble carbohydrates, nitrogen, and lipids changed in sporophytes of a
4 temperate population of *S. latissima* whereas remained stable in the Arctic samples when
5 pCO₂ increased alone (Olischläger *et al.* 2014). *Saccharina latissima* has been found to
6 mitigate the negative effects of OA on farmed bivalves by increasing pH and the
7 saturation state for aragonite (Ω_{aragonite}) (Young *et al.* 2022). Thereby, the co-cultivation
8 of bivalves and *S. latissima* is likely a promising integrated multi-trophic aquaculture
9 approach to generate synergistic benefits in future OA scenarios.

10 The effects of OA on *S. latissima* have been investigated in interaction with temperature
11 (Olischläger *et al.* 2014, 2017; Iñiguez *et al.* 2016) and ultraviolet radiation (UVR)
12 (Gordillo *et al.* 2015). The effects of increased pCO₂ on growth, biochemical
13 composition, and photosynthetic performances of *S. latissima* were generally less
14 pronounced than those of increased temperature (Olischläger *et al.* 2017). Furthermore,
15 Arctic *S. latissima* was more resilient to increased pCO₂ and more likely to benefit from
16 climate change than the temperate population, as reflected by its increased growth rates
17 at elevated pCO₂ and higher temperatures (Olischläger *et al.* 2014, 2017). The interactive
18 effects of OA and UVR illustrated that OA increased the growth of *S. latissima*,
19 meanwhile, inhibited a series of UVR-driven responses (e.g., pigments and
20 photosynthetic electron transportations) (Gordillo *et al.* 2015). Due to the various
21 responses of *S. latissima* to OA discussed above, more work is needed to understand how
22 it is and will affect *S. latissima*. Besides, no studies on the molecular mechanisms
23 regulating responses of *S. latissima* to OA are available to date. Transcriptomics and/or
24 metabolomics must be applied to understand the gene regulation and related metabolic
25 pathways of *S. latissima* under OA conditions.

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Biotic interactions

Microbiome

Macroalgal functioning must be considered as the result of the interactions between the algal hosts and their associated microbiota, forming a singular entity, the algal holobiont (Egan *et al.* 2013). Algal microbial partners can be prokaryotes like viruses, Archaea, or bacteria and eukaryotes like fungi. Bacterial partners regulate and support macroalgal health and fitness (Goecke *et al.* 2010), pathogen resistance (Wiese *et al.* 2009), acclimation to a changing environment (Dittami *et al.* 2016), and metabolism (Burgunter-Delamare *et al.* 2020).

Saccharina latissima microbiota has only become a subject of interest in recent years (Vallet *et al.* 2018; Tourneroché *et al.* 2020; King *et al.* 2022; Liu *et al.* 2022; Burgunter-Delamare *et al.* 2023). Bacteria associated with *S. latissima* are also classically found in other brown macroalgae (Hollants *et al.* 2013) and belong predominantly to the Proteobacteria and Bacteroidota phyla (Tourneroché *et al.* 2020; Burgunter-Delamare *et al.* 2023). At the class level, Alphaproteobacteria and Gammaproteobacteria (Liu *et al.* 2022; Burgunter-Delamare *et al.* 2023), Deltaproteobacteria, Bacilli, Flavobacteriia, Planctomycetia, and Verrucomicrobiae (Liu *et al.* 2022) were found. Bacterial strain isolation experiments determined that strains were affiliated with Actinobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Firmicutes, Alpha-, Beta-, and Gammaproteobacteria and belonged to 21 genera (Wiese *et al.* 2009). The genera *Marinobacter*, *Psychromonas*, *Litorimonas*, and *Aquimarina* were also exclusively found attached to the blade of *S. latissima* and not in the surrounding seawater (Liu *et al.* 2022). The bacterial composition gradually changes along the blade, shifting from a lower to higher alpha-diversity from the meristem to the distal part, reflecting the age gradient (Staufenberger *et al.* 2008; Burgunter-Delamare *et al.*

1 *al.* 2022, 2023). The degree of colonization is partially linked to the type of metabolites
2 released by the algae (Tourneroché *et al.* 2020). As such, epibiotic bacteria are considered
3 specialized metabolizers (Staufenberger *et al.* 2008; Liu *et al.* 2022).

4 The bacterial core of *S. latissima* is independent of the specimens' geographical origin,
5 season, or physiologic state. When looking at the meristematic part, a small core
6 comprising the four genera *Granulosicoccus* sp., *Litorimonas* sp., *Hellea* sp., and
7 *Blastopirellula* sp. was found in two studies - (8/13 ASVs and 4/9 genera (King *et al.*
8 2022); four genera (Burgunter-Delamare *et al.* 2023). Five additional ASVs (*Croceitalea*
9 sp., *Robiginitomaculum* sp., *Gammaproteobacteria* sp., OM190 sp., and KI89A_clade
10 sp.) were also found in this blade region (King *et al.* 2022). The bacterial core
11 composition also shows the shifts from low to higher diversity along the blade at the
12 genus level. Indeed, the distal bacterial core comprises the four genera found in the
13 meristem core plus the five genera *Algitalea*, *Arenicella*, *Portibacter*, *Tenacibaculum*,
14 and *Bdellovibrio* (Burgunter-Delamare *et al.* 2023). In addition, when looking at the core
15 community and the ASVs found specifically attached to a particular tissue, particularly
16 *Granulosicoccus* and *Litorimonas*, ecology and genome profiles suggest that they may be
17 functionally necessary for the host (King *et al.* 2022; Burgunter-Delamare *et al.* 2023).
18 For example, the *Granulosicoccus* genus might help its host by providing vitamins (e.g.
19 vitamin B12) and reduced nitrogen (Kang *et al.* 2018; Capistrant-Fossa *et al.* 2021;
20 Weigel *et al.* 2022).

21 Fungi infect the blade more often than other parts, and fungal communities comprise
22 principally Ascomycota and Basidiomycota (Vallet *et al.* 2018; Tourneroché *et al.* 2020),
23 with a predominance of *Dothideomycetes* and *Sordariomycetes* (Vallet *et al.* 2018) or
24 *Psathyrellaceae* (Tourneroché *et al.* 2020). Additionally, *S. latissima* is colonised by
25 viruses classified as Phaeovirus (*Saccharina latissima* virus, SlatV, family

1 *Phycodnaviridae* (Schroeder and Mckeown 2021). They are latent double-stranded DNA
2 viruses that insert their genome into those of their host (McKeown *et al.* 2017) and spread
3 in three sub-groups A, B, and C. Phaeoviruses are geographically widespread in the
4 Laminariales (McKeown *et al.* 2018). In particular, *Laminaria* and *Saccharina* genera are
5 infected by Phaeovirus from sub-group C (McKeown *et al.* 2017). Identifications of these
6 viruses are supported by novel Phaeovirus major capsid protein (*mcpl* MCP) sequences
7 found in kelp (by PCR) (McKeown *et al.* 2017, 2018; Schroeder and Mckeown 2021).

8 Environmental factors influence microbiota composition. Those factors interact
9 altogether and affect bacterial communities (King *et al.* 2022). Several studies compared
10 the bacterial population of different geographical origins and found regional structuring
11 in *S. latissima* [Baltic and North Sea (Staufenberger *et al.* 2008; Lachnit *et al.* 2009),
12 North and West Scotland, Wales, and South England (King *et al.* 2022); Brittany,
13 Helgoland, and Skagerrak (Burgunter-Delamare *et al.* 2023)]. The global epibacterial
14 communities of *S. latissima* were differentiated between the Baltic and North Sea
15 (Staufenberger *et al.* 2008; Lachnit *et al.* 2009). Differences regarding salinity, tidal
16 range, and bacterioplankton composition between sampling sites likely explain this. A
17 regional structuring across British sites (North, West Scotland, Wales, and South
18 England) was also discovered, where bacterial communities in Wales differ from those in
19 North and West Scotland. Here, the temperature is not the responsible factor, but rather
20 that the variable portion of the microbiota reflects random and determinant processes
21 within the host environment (King *et al.* 2022), as reef habitats are highly dynamic and
22 influenced by several factors that vary across multiple scales [wave exposure, light and
23 nutrient availability, sedimentation rates, salinity;(Kaiser 2011; Lamy *et al.* 2018)]. In the
24 same way, samples from Brittany, Helgoland, and Skagerrak cluster according to their
25 region of origin (Burgunter-Delamare *et al.* 2023). Abiotic factors can lead to cellular

1 stress and senescence and thus will create a new ecological niche for specific bacterial
2 groups (Burgunter-Delamare *et al.* 2023). Also, algal genotypes differ depending on the
3 region (see *Biogeographic patterns*) (Guzinski *et al.* 2016, 2020) and can impact bacterial
4 communities. Chemical and lipid content in membranes also varies with environmental
5 factors (see *Responses to environmental drivers*), so attractiveness for bacteria is
6 influenced (Burgunter-Delamare *et al.* 2023). Furthermore, the associated microbial
7 communities can vary with seasonality. Regardless of the mechanisms, seasonal changes
8 may vary from site to site, and therefore, any conclusions drawn about seasonality are
9 valid only for the studied area. Differences between winter and spring were found at the
10 blades and rhizoid levels of *S. latissima* from the Baltic Sea (Staufenberger *et al.* 2008).
11 In Brittany (Roscoff, France), the abundance of Firmicutes, Actinobacteria, and Alpha-
12 and Gammaproteobacteria were impacted, with an increase in autumn for the Firmicutes
13 and Alphaproteobacteria, in summer for the Actinobacteria and in spring for the
14 Gammaproteobacteria. The seasonal changes were linked to the nutrient content of
15 seawater and the algae's chemical composition (Burgunter-Delamare *et al.* 2023).
16 Even though the biological impact of viruses on their hosts is mainly unknown,
17 researchers are working on the microbial effects on the host regarding potential
18 pathogens. By performing co-culture experiments with bacteria specifically isolated from
19 *S. latissima*, it has been shown that a disruption in the microbiota composition (dysbiosis)
20 is correlated to an increase in Quorum Sensing molecules (bacterial ability to detect and
21 respond to cell population density through gene regulation) and a decrease in algal growth
22 (Burgunter-Delamare *et al.* 2022). Also, *Aquimarina*, *Parcubacteria*, and
23 *Peronosporomycetes* were suggested as potential pathogens of *S. latissima* (Liu *et al.*
24 2022). Conversely, first-time evidence that fungal partners of brown macroalgae may
25 protect their host *in vivo* by producing molecules as an active chemical defence has

1 already been given (Vallet *et al.* 2018). Thus, the algal microbiota might manage the
2 infection rate of pathogenic microbes in the phycosphere.

3 *Mobile biota*

4 Kelps are essential coastal habitats for many commercially important fish and crustacean
5 species (Seitz *et al.* 2014). However, specific associations between fish/crustaceans and
6 *S. latissima* have been poorly assessed. One study found 358 individuals of fish and
7 crustaceans associated with *S. latissima* communities in Southern Norway, higher than
8 the number of individuals associated with eelgrass and turf algae but lower than the
9 specimens caught in *Laminaria hyperborea* (700). Regarding species richness and
10 diversity, eelgrass beds held higher diversity than *S. latissima* and the other habitats
11 (Christie *et al.* 2022). Habitat preferences of fish are species-specific and vary with life
12 stages. Young (< 1 year old) cod in Norwegian waters prefers red algae and eelgrass over
13 *S. latissima* dominated habitats, however, cod older than one year used all seaweed and
14 seagrass habitats equally. In turn, the fishes Goldsinny wrasse (*Ctenolabrus rupestris*)
15 and corkwing wrasse (*Symphodus melops*) preferred *S. latissima* and red algae over
16 eelgrasses (Dunlop *et al.* 2022). In the Northwest Atlantic, the residential fish cunner
17 (*Tautoglabrus adspersus*) uses *S. latissima* and other large blade Phaeophyta for
18 foraging and refuge (O'Brien *et al.* 2018). *S. latissima* offers a better refuge for fish (>1
19 cm) but lower quality habitat for meso-invertebrates than other morphologically different
20 macroalgae, such as turf (Ware *et al.* 2019). On the other hand, the decline of large
21 predatory fish has cascading effects throughout the food-web, ultimately reinforcing the
22 decline of *S. latissima* in some regions (Eriksson *et al.* 2009).

23 *Epi- and Endobiota*

24 *Saccharina latissima*, like other kelps, can serve as a substratum for smaller algae and
25 animals to grow on (epiphytes) or inside (endophytes) of its thalli (Bartsch *et al.* 2008).

1 Considering epiphytes, both macro- (e.g., *Ectocarpus siliculosus*, *Ulva lactuca*, and
2 *Champia parvula*) and microalgae (e.g., pennate diatoms including genera *Licmophora*,
3 *Navicula*, and *Nitzschia*) were observed on the surface of *S. latissima* (Liu *et al.* 2022).
4 Considering endophytes, microscopic brown algae with filamentous thalli, mostly
5 Ectocarpales *sensu lato*, are common in kelps (reviewed by Bartsch *et al.*, 2008) and in
6 *S. latissima* (Bernard *et al.* 2018). A study revealed that 88 % of endophyte algae from
7 kelps belonged to the genera *Laminarionema* and *Laminariocolax*, with two isolates
8 belonging to the genera *Ectocarpus* (MS Bernard *et al.* 2019). Furthermore, the most
9 common endophyte in European *S. latissima* is *Laminarioema elsbetiae* (M Bernard *et*
10 *al.* 2019). The infection rates of endophytic algae in wild *S. latissima* along the European
11 coasts were found to be up to 100 % (Bernard *et al.* 2018). The occurrence and abundance
12 of epi-/endophytic algae were affected by both environmental factors, such as seasons
13 and locations, and characters of *S. latissima*, such as age and position (Peteiro and Freire
14 2013a; MS Bernard *et al.* 2019; Corrigan *et al.* 2023). For example, the abundance of
15 epiphytes on *S. latissima* was observed to be significantly higher for fronds growing in
16 the sheltered area of the bay compared to those farmed at the exposed location, and the
17 greatest quantities of epiphytes were on the apical parts of *S. latissima* blades (Peteiro and
18 Freire 2013a). Besides, the cultivated *S. latissima* in Northern Brittany was not found to
19 be affected by *Laminarioema elsbetiae*, which is highly prevalent in the wild populations
20 of European *S. latissima* (Bernard *et al.* 2019a). The infection with epibionts can reduce
21 the photosynthesis of *S. latissima* by hindering up to 90 % of available light revealed
22 under laboratory conditions (Andersen *et al.* 2018). In addition to causing morphological
23 changes, endophytic algae also adversely impacted the physiological and biochemical
24 traits of kelps, such as growth and reproduction. The transcriptomic analysis
25 demonstrated that *S. latissima* upregulated many cell-wall modification-related genes and

1 stress response-related genes during the infection of endophytes *L. elsbetiae*, suggesting
2 that endophytic algae damaged the cell wall and induced oxidative stresses in *S. latissima*
3 (Xing *et al.* 2021). In Norway, cultivated *S. latissima* sustains a heavy load of epibionts,
4 up to 90 % of available area, causing light deprivation driven mainly by epiphytic algae
5 and ascidians and to a less extent by bryozoans (Andersen *et al.* 2018). The lack of *S.*
6 *latissima* populations at the Skagerrak coast was suggested to be due to heavy epiphytism
7 rather than the direct effect of abiotic factors on *S. latissima*, as transplanted sporophytes
8 were able to grow and mature until epiphyte load increased in the summer (Andersen *et*
9 *al.* 2011). The reduced growth and survival of kelp populations in shallow waters are also
10 driven by the heavy load of epibionts, driving *S. latissima* populations deeper down and
11 reducing their vertical distribution. This impact is seasonal and site-specific; hence it
12 probably interacts with other environmental factors to drive the ongoing decline of *S.*
13 *latissima* populations (Andersen *et al.* 2018).

14 In the wild, the bryozoan *Membranipora membranacea* – epiphyte on *S. latissima* – has
15 negative effects on populations of *S. latissima* in the Northwest (NW) Atlantic, namely
16 tissue weakening, breakage and ultimately kelp biomass loss (Attridge *et al.* 2022).
17 Populations of this bryozoan, invasive in the Northeast (NE) Atlantic, are expected to
18 increase under climate change scenarios, further impacting *S. latissima* populations in the
19 area (Denley *et al.* 2019). In the NE Atlantic, *M. membranacea* is a common native
20 bryozoan, and although very little is known for natural populations, impacts of this
21 species on cultivated *S. latissima* are already reported (e.g., Førde *et al.* 2016; Forbord *et*
22 *al.* 2020). Another common bryozoan on kelps is *Electra pilosa*, however, this species
23 has a slower growth rate and less substrate preference than *M. membranacea* and seems
24 to have a more benign effect on kelps, including *S. latissima*. A pattern that holds on both
25 sides of the Atlantic (Yorke and Metaxas 2011; Førde *et al.* 2016).

1 Mobile and epiphytic communities associated with *S. latissima* farms in Norway were
2 shown to be significantly different from wild stands, holding less biodiversity and a
3 smaller number of individuals (Bekkby *et al.* 2023). The dominant species also differed
4 between farmed and wild stands, with isopods being abundant in farmed *S. latissima* and
5 nearly absent in the wild sporophytes. Also, kelp farms represent an additional, richer
6 habitat than the surrounding water column (Bekkby *et al.* 2023). A *S. latissima* farm in
7 Sweden had a significantly positive impact on the amount and diversity of benthic infauna
8 and attracted a similar number of mobile taxa as the nearby wild sites (Visch *et al.* 2020).
9 In a field study in Ireland comparing the associated biota of four macroalgae (*S. latissima*,
10 *Halydris siliquosa*, *Fucus serratus* and *Sargassum muticum*), *S. latissima* held the lowest
11 epiphytic algae's biomass of the four species (Strong *et al.* 2009). *S. latissima* supported
12 a broad epiphytic faunal community (significantly different from the other macroalgae)
13 with the species *Gibbula umbilicalis*, *Corophium volutator* and *Ischyrocarus anguipes*
14 being characteristic of the thallus of *S. latissima*. In turn, the grazer amphipod *Dexamine*
15 *spinosa* was considerably more abundant in *S. muticum* than *S. latissima* and had no
16 significant effect on *S. latissima*'s growth. *S. latissima* also showed more resilience to
17 fouling (with only 9% of biomass loss) when compared to the invasive *S. muticum* (with
18 mean losses of 70%) (Strong *et al.* 2009). The biota associated with *S. latissima* in
19 Kongsfjorden, a high Arctic fjord on the west coast of Spitsbergen, was assessed
20 (Shunatova *et al.* 2018). 111 sessile taxa were reported for the complex stone with *S.*
21 *latissima* in 2018 – 80 animals (of these 56 were Bryozoa) and 30 algae taxa (of these 36
22 were Phaeophyceae and 11 Florideophyceae) (Shunatova *et al.* 2018). Species richness
23 associated with *S. latissima* was higher than in nearby sediment substrates. Both species
24 richness and biomass varied with microhabitat and season, being considerably higher on
25 holdfast compared to blades and stipes and in January compared to May and September.

1 *Grazers*

2 Although *S. latissima* contains high levels of phlorotannins that decrease the species'
3 digestibility, several animals can still graze directly on it. Among them is the snail *Lacuna*
4 *vincta* (O'Brien and Scheibling 2016; Young and Doall 2021). A comparative study
5 revealed that *S. latissima* is one of the preferred food sources for *L. vincta* and the
6 macroalgae that elicits a higher growth rate (Chavanich and Harris 2002). This snail
7 prefers reproductive over vegetative tissue, probably due to lower levels of phlorotannins
8 in the first, compromising the reproductive success of *S. latissima* (O'Brien and
9 Scheibling 2016). *L. vincta* also consumes *S. latissima* at higher rates when pre-treated
10 with high temperatures (21°C), probably because the tissue is easier to consume (weaker,
11 more fragile at higher temperatures) (E J Simonson *et al.* 2015). *L. vincta*'s grazing rate
12 is apparently unaffected by changing temperatures) (E J Simonson *et al.* 2015) but
13 decreased under ocean acidification conditions (Young and Doall 2021).

14 A significant group in the coastal food web are sea urchins. Across the globe, events of
15 mass grazing by sea urchins have decimated kelp forests and give rise to sea urchin
16 barrens (Filbee-Dexter and Scheibling 2014). Several studies have shown that grazing
17 pressure of the green sea urchin *Strongylocentrotus droebachiensis* led to the decline of
18 *Laminaria hyperborea* (e.g., Rinde *et al.* 2014) in several areas in NE Atlantic and of
19 *Saccharina longicruris*, now *S. latissima*, in NW Atlantic. Although field studies studying
20 the direct link between *S. droebachiensis* and *S. latissima* are rare, laboratory experiments
21 show that *S. droebachiensis* indeed feeds on *S. latissima* (Daggett *et al.* 2010; Eddy *et al.*
22 2012) and growth rates of the sea urchins fed *S. latissima* or other macroalgae species is
23 similar (Carrier *et al.* 2017). The growth and survival of *S. droebachiensis* are, in turn,
24 controlled by its predators (Norderhaug *et al.* 2021) and by disease outbreaks (Feehan
25 2014). A field and laboratory study in Nova Scotia showed that the presence of the crab

1 *Cancer borealis* did not change the foraging behaviour of the sea urchin on *S. latissima*.
2 A greater proportion of sea urchins around cages with *S. latissima* than without was also
3 determined, revealing some response to a food cue (Harding and Scheibling 2015).
4 Another study revealed that juveniles of *S. droebachiensis* inhabiting *S. latissima*
5 holdfasts are 20-30 % less likely to be predated by crabs *Cancer borealis* and *C. irroratus*
6 when compared to treatments with no refuge (Feehan *et al.* 2019). Also, there was a
7 correlation between *S. latissima* volume and the size of sea urchin juveniles, showing that
8 *S. latissima* serves as food, habitat, and refuge for *S. droebachiensis* (Feehan and Francis
9 2014). Moreover, *S. latissima* detritus remains a main food source even for deep-living
10 sea urchins (60 m) that can maintain a good reproductive status (Filbee-Dexter 2014). In
11 a laboratory experiment with samples of *S. latissima* from Alaska, a high sediment load
12 (as in a land-terminating glacier) led to a sharp decrease in grazing rates of *S.*
13 *droebachiensis* on *S. latissima*. In the same experiment, increasing temperature had no
14 effect on grazing rates (Traiger 2019). Other species of sea urchin feed on *S. latissima*,
15 such as *Arbacia punctulata*, even though they prefer turf algae over *S. latissima* (Hamel
16 2022). The purple sea urchin *Paracentrotus lividus* also feeds on *S. latissima* (Castilla-
17 Gavilán *et al.* 2019), although the best growth performance is achieved when fed on the
18 red alga *Palmaria palmata*. A set of mesocosm experiments compared respiration and
19 consumption rates of several grazers under medium and increased temperatures (Gilson
20 *et al.* 2021). While the common sea urchin *Echinus esculentus* preferred the combination
21 of *S. latissima* and *L. digitata* over *L. ochroleuca* and *Saccorhiza polyschides*, the
22 gastropod *Steromphala umbilicalis* consumed more of the latter and the amphipod
23 *Gammarus* spp. did not show preference. In addition, both *E. esculentus* and *Gammarus*
24 spp. increased their respiration rates under warming but only *Gammarus* spp. increased
25 its consumption rates. In turn, *S. umbilicalis* increased growth with warming but not the

1 other two species. Another animal group feeding on *S. latissima* are fish, such as wrasses,
2 although *S. latissima* only represents a small percentage of their diet (Bourlat *et al.* 2021).
3 However, more studies looking at fish's gut content are necessary to understand better
4 the pressure exerted by this group of grazers.

5 A recent study revealed that kelp forests have recovered (*L. hyperborea* and *S. latissima*
6 considered together) along the northern Norwegian coast (Christie, Gundersen, *et al.*
7 2019). It was suggested as the result of complex interactive effects of temperature on the
8 food-web. In the southern part of the previous sea urchin barren, the recovery of kelp is
9 due to a decline in sea urchins following direct and indirect effects of increasing
10 temperature. While in the northernmost section, the recovery seems to be driven by top-
11 down control. Higher crab abundances, led by lower abundance of cod and higher
12 temperatures, led to higher predation of sea urchins, which released kelp beds from their
13 grazing pressure (Christie, Gundersen, *et al.* 2019). Given the diversity of animals feeding
14 on *S. latissima* and the unknowns related to their interactions with other species and
15 physical factors, more work is necessary to clarify the impact of grazing on *S. latissima*.

16 *Algal competitors*

17 *Saccharina latissima* disappeared in the early 2000s from several sites in Norway and has
18 been replaced by turf algae (Moy and Christie 2012). Since then, several studies have
19 tried to understand the underlying mechanisms and monitor any changes (e.g., Andersen
20 *et al.* 2018; Christie, Andersen, *et al.* 2019; Christie, Gundersen, *et al.* 2019). Although
21 some studies have reported that a regime shift has occurred (*S. latissima* was no longer
22 able to recover and had been replaced by turf algae), recent monitoring efforts have
23 revealed some recovery, although temporal and spatially variable. Given that this region
24 is closely monitored (Moy and Christie 2012; Christie, Andersen, *et al.* 2019; Christie,
25 Gundersen, *et al.* 2019), this could be an ideal opportunity to understand shifts between

1 phases and determine what actions are successful in recovering *S. latissima* populations
2 – knowledge that can then be applied to less studied regions. A similar regime shift has
3 occurred in the NW Atlantic, off Nova Scotia, Canada’s kelp biomass (mainly composed
4 of *Laminaria digitata* and *S. latissima*) decreased 85–99 % recently when compared to
5 the first monitoring campaigns in 1949 (Filbee-Dexter *et al.* 2016). In the Gulf of Maine,
6 a phase shift from canopy algae (including *S. latissima*) to ephemeral turf algae has
7 occurred, and now 50–90 % of the bottom is dominated by red and green algae that were
8 not common in the 1980s (Dijkstra *et al.* 2017). Associated biota was found in lower
9 numbers in *S. latissima* and other canopy species than in highly branched and filamentous
10 algae. Nevertheless, high numbers of several gastropods were associated with *S.*
11 *latissima*, including *Lacuna vincta*, *Margarite helycinus*, and *Mitrella* (Dijkstra *et al.*
12 2017). The presence of turf algae further reduced *S. latissima* populations by competing
13 for space. *S. latissima* is increasingly recruiting from turf algae, but the individuals are
14 smaller, the survival rate lower, and are more likely to be dislodged by wave action than
15 sporophytes attached to rocky reefs, hence decreasing the health of the populations (Burek
16 *et al.* 2018; Feehan *et al.* 2019). It was suggested that individuals are smaller because
17 energy is diverted to larger holdfasts required to stabilise sporophytes in a more unstable
18 substratum (turfs compared to rocks). Detachment rates of turf-attached *S. latissima* are
19 more pronounced at high-wave action sites or after storm events. This pattern was
20 consistent throughout the distributional range of *S. latissima* in NW Atlantic.

21 A field study in Northern Ireland revealed that the invasive *Sargassum muticum* did not
22 compete with *S. latissima* stands (Strong and Dring 2011). Another potential competing
23 species is the invasive green alga *Codium fragile* ssp. *fragile*. A study in Nova Scotia
24 compared *C. fragile* with *S. latissima* in terms of composition of its detritus and
25 contribution to the detrital food chain (Krumhansl 2012), revealing that degradation in *S.*

1 *latissima* was faster and resulted in higher mass loss than *C. fragile*. The C:N ratio was
2 higher in *S. latissima* than in *C. fragile* throughout decomposition, resulting in a lower
3 nutritional value of *S. latissima* than in *C. fragile*. This resulted in associated macrofauna
4 that was more abundant but less diverse on *S. latissima* than on *C. fragile*.

5

6 **Biogeographic patterns**

7 *Population differentiation at genetic level*

8 Population structure, genetic diversity and connectivity of populations of *Saccharina*
9 *latissima* have been explored in recent years (Guzinski *et al.* 2016, 2020; Nielsen,
10 Paulino, *et al.* 2016; Luttikhuisen *et al.* 2018; Mooney *et al.* 2018; Neiva *et al.* 2018;
11 Grant and Chenoweth 2021). Overall, population differentiation, low within-genetic
12 diversity, and low connectivity have been observed, although regional and local patterns
13 can differ.

14 Only one study compared samples across oceans, identifying four differentiated
15 phylogroups – A) including specimens from Northwest (NW) Pacific (Japan, as *S.*
16 *coriacea*), Northeast (NE) (British Columbia) Pacific and Greenland and Hudson Bay in
17 NW Atlantic; B) NE Atlantic; C) NW Atlantic and D) samples from Russia previously
18 identified as *S. cichorioides* (Neiva *et al.* 2018). Together with recent findings on
19 individuals in NE Pacific and Bering Sea (Grant and Chenoweth 2021), the hypothesis of
20 a northern refugium during the Last Glacial Maximum for the species is gaining support,
21 in contrast to the previous hypothesis of recolonisation from southern European
22 populations, as it has been suggested for other seaweed species (Bringloe *et al.* 2020).

23 Further differentiation of *S. latissima* populations exists within the NE Atlantic
24 phylogroup with quite distinct ‘northern’ and ‘southern’ clusters (Neiva *et al.* 2018).

25 Authors suggest that speciation might be in progress within these phylogroups, in

1 accordance with another study determining population differentiation between seven
2 European populations (Luttikhuizen *et al.* 2018). Furthermore, it was shown that within-
3 population genetic diversity is the lowest for the southern populations (Spain and
4 Portugal) and the isolated island population on Helgoland, German Bight and highest in
5 Spitsbergen (Guzinski *et al.* 2016). This was also confirmed by a more recent study
6 employing both microsatellites and a more recent method, ddRAD-seq, to explore the
7 genetic diversity of eleven populations in the NE Atlantic (Guzinski *et al.* 2020).

8 At smaller scales, populations of *S. latissima* revealed low genetic diversity within a
9 brackish population (Denmark), while significant differences were observed between
10 brackish and marine populations (Denmark vs. Norway and Sweden) (Nielsen, Paulino,
11 *et al.* 2016). In the Irish Sea, populations from Scotland, the Isle of Man and Northern
12 Ireland were also shown to be differentiated (Mooney *et al.* 2018). In Norway, isolation-
13 by-distance has been observed in *S. latissima*, however, the grouping seems to differ by
14 method of analysis due to the use of different genetic markers and sampling sites and
15 sizes. In general, northern populations (Svalbard and Lofoten) are observed to be
16 genetically distinct, suggesting that a physical barrier (islands) drives genetic
17 differentiation. Overall, along the Norwegian coastline, results range from three different
18 genetic groups (Evankow *et al.* 2019) to generally connected populations (Ribeiro *et al.*
19 2022). Local adaptation has been discussed for the general connection, as including a
20 locus under positive selection altered the results of the genetic structure, even in the face
21 of gene flow (Ribeiro *et al.* 2022). Like European populations, a differentiation in ‘cold’
22 and ‘temperate’ clusters was found in the NW Atlantic phylogroup, though less
23 pronounced (Neiva *et al.* 2018). Fine-scale genetic structure and low within-genetic
24 diversity have been found for populations along the eastern Maine region in the NW
25 Atlantic (Breton *et al.* 2018). However, comparing the same markers, lower allelic

1 richness and heterozygosity were reported in NW Atlantic than in NE populations
2 (Guzinski *et al.* 2016). Lower genetic diversity in NW Atlantic compared to NE has been
3 reported for other benthic taxa (Wares and Cunningham 2001). A recent study in *S.*
4 *latissima* with more sampling sites revealed a biogeographic barrier at Cape Cod
5 separating the Gulf of Maine and Southern New England's populations (Mao *et al.* 2020).
6 Despite the apparent wealth of studies targeting population structure of *S. latissima*, they
7 differ in locations studied and methods applied, preventing a wide comparison and global
8 conclusions. All studies generally show that within-population genetic diversity is low,
9 which is concerning since it indicates that populations might not have the adaptive
10 potential to face increasing environmental change at sites where it is most extreme.
11 Moreover, they report low connectivity that could result from stretches of land, waves
12 and currents and salinity variation depending on the site that restricts colonisation of
13 disturbed populations. For a successful conservation and/or restoration plan for the
14 species, the data on population differentiation obtained so far suggest it is crucial to apply
15 the same methodology to a large number of locations covering the geographical
16 distribution but also spatial heterogeneity at smaller scales (e.g., islands or other isolated
17 populations).
18 However, most studies on population differentiation neglected the epigenetic component
19 of local adaptation, which is strong in *S. latissima* across latitudes (Scheschonk *et al.*
20 2023). They might explain the general capacity of this species to adjust to rapid changes
21 and colonise very different habitats. Hence, even with the apparent low genetic diversity,
22 epigenetic differences might be high, and therefore it is crucial that they are considered
23 in future studies.

1 *Phenotypic plasticity and local adaptation*

2 Phenotypic plasticity refers to the ability of a single genotype to modify its phenotype in
3 response to changing conditions (Nicotra *et al.* 2010; King *et al.* 2018). Contrary,
4 ecotypes are locally adapted populations that are phenotypically and genetically
5 differentiated for adaptive traits, meaning they perform better at the local conditions than
6 another population from a distant location with other local environmental factors
7 (Kawecki and Ebert 2004; Nicotra *et al.* 2010). Ecotypes can emerge by long-term
8 exposure to selective environmental pressures (Nicotra *et al.* 2010), such as temperature
9 ecotypes in different climate zones. For example, stress responses and recovery towards
10 ocean warming and heat waves were shown to differ between organisms and across
11 latitudes (Winters *et al.* 2011; Liesner, Fouqueau, *et al.* 2020). By local adaptation and
12 acclimation mechanisms, species can vary in tolerance and performance to biotic and
13 abiotic factors. In models or simulations, broadly distributed species are usually treated
14 as single homogenous physiological units (Reed *et al.* 2011). However, seaweeds such as
15 *S. latissima* can exhibit different specific responses to distinct environmental conditions,
16 of which temperature is a key factor (Lüning 1990a; Adey and Steneck 2001, see also
17 *Responses to environmental drivers*). Overall, influences of various abiotic factors on the
18 morphology, physiology and biochemical composition of *S. latissima* have been
19 extensively studied, and a high degree of acclimation capacity has been found. Only little
20 is known about how geographical patterns influence the species' acclimation capacity.
21 Morphological plasticity is linked with adjustments to local conditions in different sites
22 (Lüning 1990a; Peteiro and Freire 2013b; Visch *et al.* 2020; Zhu *et al.* 2021; Diehl *et al.*
23 2023). Effects of wave exposure on the frond length and width of *S. latissima* have been
24 described in the field (Chapman 1973) and under laboratory conditions (Gerard 1987;
25 Zhu *et al.* 2021). Sporophytes typically form narrow blades with solid stipes in more

1 wave-exposed habitats, while blades are broader with hollow stipes in sheltered habitats
2 (Lüning 1990a). Controlled laboratory experiments revealed an interaction between wave
3 action and nutrient availability (Zhu *et al.* 2021). Under wave action, *S. latissima*
4 sporophytes developed a rough, more intricate frond surface that allowed for a higher
5 nutrient and light uptake, resulting in high biomass and frond length even under low
6 nutrient conditions (Zhu *et al.* 2021). Additionally, sporophytes from a glacier-influenced
7 area in Alaska have been described as narrower and longer than oceanic individuals
8 (Spurkland and Iken 2012), while in Svalbard (European Arctic), biomass and size of *S.*
9 *latissima* were lower in glacier-influenced sites. In the same fjord, sporophytes of *S.*
10 *latissima* were longer and heavier at greater depths (Ronowicz *et al.* 2022). For lab-grown
11 individuals (from the gametophyte stage), sporophytes from the Arctic were narrower and
12 longer than sporophytes from Brittany (Monteiro, Li, *et al.* 2019), indicating eco-
13 phenotypes (see further down). Morphological plasticity is very common in *S. latissima*
14 and has led to misidentifications. For example, *S. angustissima*, formerly considered a
15 morphotype of *S. latissima* (Augyte *et al.* 2018), is endemic to Maine (USA). Very
16 exposed conditions result in narrow blades; otherwise, it is morphologically very similar
17 to *S. latissima* but shows genetic divergence. Recent studies investigated the biochemical
18 plasticity of field-grown sporophytes of *S. latissima*. By comparing the lipidomic
19 composition and other parameters such as total carbon, lipid, protein, and carbohydrate
20 contents of *S. latissima*, it was possible to distinguish populations from France, Norway
21 and the United Kingdom (J Monteiro *et al.* 2020). High intraspecific variability and
22 habitat-specific phenotypes in morphology and biochemical composition were also found
23 in field sporophytes of *S. latissima* across its entire distribution range in Europe, although
24 without apparent geographic patterns (Diehl *et al.* 2023).

1 In addition, different populations of *S. latissima* were shown to vary in sensitivity to
2 environmental factors, such as temperature (Olischläger *et al.* 2014, 2017; Monteiro, Li,
3 *et al.* 2019; Diehl *et al.* 2021, 2023)The existence of ecotypes regarding specific local
4 parameters such as temperature, salinity, $p\text{CO}_2$ and light have been postulated for the
5 Northeast and Northwest Atlantic (Lüning and Dring 1975; Gerard 1987, 1988, 1990;
6 Gerard and Du Bois 1988; Müller *et al.* 2008; Spurkland and Iken 2012; Olischläger *et*
7 *al.* 2014, 2017). Contrary, other studies did not find evidence for ecotypic differentiation
8 and rather suggested high phenotypic plasticity in *S. latissima* (Bolton and Lüning 1982;
9 Spurkland and Iken 2011). Several studies have proposed ecological differentiation
10 between populations from Spitsbergen and Helgoland (Müller *et al.* 2008; Olischläger *et*
11 *al.* 2014, 2017). Differences in biochemical composition and physiological performance
12 were reported under different temperature and CO_2 treatments (Olischläger *et al.* 2014,
13 2017). In a multiple-stressor experiment on laboratory cultures of *S. latissima* from
14 Brittany and the Arctic, results suggest the existence of ecotypes in *S. latissima*
15 (Monteiro, Li, *et al.* 2019; Li, Monteiro, *et al.* 2020). Responses to salinity and
16 temperature variation diverged between Brittany and the Arctic, resulting in variations in
17 morphology, differences in growth rate and pigment content and gene expression profiles.
18 At the transcriptomic level, short-term responses differed between sporophytes from the
19 two sites in magnitude and in involved metabolic pathways, which correlated to some
20 degree with the local conditions (Monteiro, Li, *et al.* 2019).

21 Along the Norwegian coast (58 to 69°N), populations of cultivated *S. latissima* display
22 higher blade length and biomass in central and northern regions that peak later in the
23 season than for individuals in the south (Forbord *et al.* 2020). Increased growth in north
24 and central populations was coupled with higher protein content and delayed onset of
25 biofouling.

1 Concerning vertical distribution, cultivated *S. latissima* sporophytes in Norway display
2 higher biomass yields and frond length at 1-2 m depth compared to 8-9 m (Forbord *et al.*
3 2020). However, this is not the case for the Baltic coast of Denmark, where frond size
4 and dry matter reached the highest values at depths over 11 m (Nielsen, Manns, *et al.*
5 2016).

6 To date, it has been shown that *S. latissima* is adapted to local conditions throughout its
7 wide geographic distribution. As several studies attempt to look at regional differences,
8 evidence of high intra-regional – among sites differences are evident (e.g., Smale and
9 Moore 2017; Wang *et al.* 2021; Diehl *et al.* 2023), which complicates the analysis of
10 latitudinal effects on *S. latissima* but reveals its acclimation ability. Adjustments to abiotic
11 drivers are site-specific and, therefore, cannot be generalised from one population to the
12 entire species complex. Still, definite ecotypes could not be confirmed yet, and the
13 question of whether *S. latissima* exhibits ecotypes or not is still not fully resolved. In
14 addition, most studies conducted on ecotypes so far have been focused on the genetic
15 level as an explanation for the intra-specific variability (phenotypes as local expression
16 of a genotype). However, epigenetic mechanisms have been shown to control gene
17 expression (Richards *et al.* 2017), and first data are available on epigenetic mechanisms
18 in *S. latissima* (Scheschonk *et al.* 2023). These findings show that, like the concept of
19 phenotypic plasticity, the epigenome of *S. latissima* likely plays a vital role in local
20 acclimation and adaptation in this species. To highlight the importance of non-genetic
21 gene control for local adaptation/acclimation processes, the term ‘eco-phenotype’ has
22 been suggested (Scheschonk *et al.* 2023). It indicates epigenetic mechanisms (within and
23 across generations, see *Epigenomics*) to be involved in the variation of the phenotype in
24 response to local parameters.

1 Phylogeographic differentiation of *S. latissima* populations has been reported across the
2 Northern Hemisphere, also on small geographical distances (see *Population*
3 *differentiation at genetic level*). Though it is hypothesised that the European *S. latissima*
4 species complex has not reached an equilibrium, the emergence of ecotypes can occur
5 and eventually lead to different species (Luttikhuizen *et al.* 2018; Neiva *et al.* 2018).
6 However, this might be precluded by the rapid changes in its habitats due to climate
7 change. The fact that there is evidence that divergence between different populations is
8 expressed at transcriptomic and epigenetic levels (Monteiro, Li, *et al.* 2019; Scheschonk
9 *et al.* 2023) suggests that ecotypes may emerge at phenotypic level (or as more
10 pronounced eco-phenotypes) in future or may be revealed with more extreme
11 environmental pressure or different parameters tested.

12 The variability in phenotypic plasticity and formation of ecotypes in *S. latissima*
13 described above is based on different approaches (various laboratory experiments, *in situ*
14 measurements, reciprocal transplants), environmental criteria (temperature, salinity,
15 irradiance), and response parameters (growth, survival, fitness, biochemical
16 composition). These differences complicate a systematic comparison of results and
17 warrant a discussion of which parameter is most helpful in assessing phenotypic plasticity
18 or local adaptation. ‘Common garden experiments’, or reciprocal transplants of field
19 specimens from distinct populations, are needed to clarify ecotypes’ existence in *S.*
20 *latissima* (Kawecki and Ebert 2004). However, reciprocal transplants cannot be applied
21 in protected areas, such as Spitsbergen (Norway 2001), and concerns regarding genetic
22 contamination are warranted (Guzinski *et al.* 2016; Luttikhuizen *et al.* 2018). Again,
23 assessing and comparing the epigenome might shed light on the complex topic of eco-
24 evolutionary dynamics in *S. latissima*.

1 *Ecological forecast*

2 Climate change, especially global warming, has affected the distribution and abundance
3 of many kelps (Smale 2020; Fragkopoulou *et al.* 2022). Kelps are projected to
4 continuously shift northwards in the future (Wilson *et al.* 2019; Krause-Jensen *et al.*
5 2020). *Saccharina latissima* has already been observed and estimated to decrease in Nova
6 Scotia (Filbee-Dexter *et al.* 2016), Gulf of Maine (Witman and Lamb 2018), Rhode Island
7 (Feehan *et al.* 2019), Norway (Bekkby and Moy 2011; Moy and Christie 2012), Sweden
8 (Eriksson *et al.* 2002), Helgoland: (Pehlke and Bartsch 2008), Iberian Coast: (Casado-
9 Amezúa *et al.* 2019) whereas increasing in biomass in Greenland (Krause-Jensen *et al.*
10 2012, 2020) and Svalbard (Bartsch *et al.* 2016) (Distribution see Fig. 1).

11 Species distribution models (SDMs) have been regarded as an effective tool for predicting
12 marine species distribution shifts, using the species occurrence data and environmental
13 variables available (Robinson *et al.* 2011). In the last decade, SDMs have been applied to
14 evaluate the distribution of *S. latissima* in Norway (Bekkby and Moy 2011) and the
15 British Isles (Yesson *et al.* 2015). Furthermore, other models considered the effect of
16 climate change on *S. latissima* distribution and projected its future distribution trends
17 (Müller *et al.* 2009; Assis *et al.* 2018; Goldsmit *et al.* 2021). The northward shift of *S.*
18 *latissima* was first projected by relating the temperature requirements of *S. latissima* and
19 the modelling of sea surface temperature isotherms in 2080-2099 (Müller *et al.* 2009). By
20 constructing SDMs of kelp forests in the year 2100 under the future scenario (RCP 8.5),
21 *S. latissima* was projected to extend to higher latitudes and inhabit the entire Arctic coast
22 while retreating from its southern limits in Nova Scotia, northwest Iberia, and Brittany
23 towards Newfoundland and southwest Ireland (Assis *et al.* 2018). In the Eastern Canadian
24 Arctic, under RCP 8.5, *S. latissima* was projected to have the largest gain (64,000 km²)
25 of suitable habitats in 2050 and second largest gain (17,000 km²) in 2100 of the kelps

1 studied (Goldsmid *et al.* 2021). Still, some areas were projected to be lost in 2100, such
2 as north of Baffin Bay, Foxe Basin, and Hudson Bay (Goldsmid *et al.* 2021).

3 Although SDM is a powerful tool to predict the potential distribution of species under
4 future climate scenarios, the accuracy of predictions is often disputed. For example, few
5 studies have taken into the account physiological limits in SDMs of seaweeds, although
6 this has proven useful for modelling macroalgal distribution (Martínez *et al.* 2015).

7 Besides, the discrepancy between model predictions and long-term field observations of
8 Arctic kelps abundance suggests that SDMs might overestimate the northern expansion
9 potential of kelps in the short-term (Filbee-Dexter *et al.* 2019). The possible reasons may
10 be the extensive gaps between available substrates, the limited dispersal ability of kelps,
11 and other abiotic factors, such as turbidity and light penetration (Filbee-Dexter *et al.* 2019;
12 Smale 2020). Hence, it is critical to track the occurrence and absence of *S. latissima*
13 throughout the whole distributional limit in the future to improve the precision of model
14 predictions. Modelling exercises that include physiological data generated from
15 experiments and considering possible local adaptation are also worth considering. To
16 achieve more accurate predictions, it is also essential to improve the spatial resolution of
17 environmental data layers available to consider the variable physical landscape of the
18 intertidal and shallow subtidal where *S. latissima* occurs and account for regional patterns
19 that might override large-scale warming patterns, e.g., upwelling (Potter *et al.* 2013;
20 Meneghesso *et al.* 2020).

21

22 **Conservation and restoration**

23 Given the severe decline of kelp forests globally, the need for conservation has called for
24 action. Threats to *S. latissima* have been discussed in previous sections – effects of abiotic
25 and biotic factors largely driven by climate change. Evidence of the impacts of other

1 anthropogenic activities, such as pollution, on *S. latissima* are scarce. These rare examples
2 include hydrogen peroxide on salmon farms that significantly induced mortality and
3 reduced photosynthetic efficiency of nearby *S. latissima* juveniles (Haugland *et al.* 2019).
4 In contrast, *S. latissima* juveniles at sites impacted by the Exxon Valdez oil spill presented
5 higher densities than reference sites two years after the spill, and populations recovered
6 ten years later (Dean and Jewett 2001).

7 Kelp forests have been included in conventions aiming to protect habitats – the
8 Convention of Bern and the Habitats Directive, both at the European level and in the list
9 of threatened species and habitats of the Convention for the Protection of the Marine
10 Environment of the Northeast Atlantic (OSPAR) (de Bettignies *et al.* 2021). Nevertheless,
11 specific measures targeting conservation of kelps and, more specifically, *S. latissima* are
12 rare. Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) in the Atlantic have not yet been designed to protect
13 kelp forests, but many include areas with kelp forests, providing some protection as
14 harvest is forbidden. This is the case in some MPAs in Norway, France, the United
15 Kingdom and Germany. However, the effects of these measures have not been evaluated,
16 and little is known about the efficiency of MPAs in conserving kelps (de Bettignies *et al.*
17 2021). A study in California, USA, revealed that after 15 years, the abundance of sea
18 urchins inside the MPA remained unchanged and giant kelp populations did not differ
19 between inside and outside the MPA (Malakhoff and Miller 2021). However, another
20 study in a 30-year-old marine reserve in New Zealand demonstrated that the MPA
21 effectively conserves populations of the kelp *Ecklonia radiata*. Outside MPAs, where
22 fishing still occurred, sites were dominated by sea urchins and turf algae, while inside the
23 MPA, healthy populations of *E. radiata* are present (Peleg *et al.* 2023). MPAs in Chile
24 have successfully preserved intertidal populations of the commercially harvested
25 *Lessonia* spp. (González-Roca *et al.* 2021). These are encouraging results and call for

1 similar actions for *S. latissima* if aiming for the protection and/or restoration of its
2 populations. Considerable baseline information will be required to evaluate the effect of
3 MPAs and other conservation measures, such as reducing local pollution inputs or
4 limiting coastal construction, on the conservation of *S. latissima*.

5 In case conservation actions fail, restoration may be the way to go. One strategy to recover
6 populations is to plant new individuals where it has been lost/decreased, aiming to restore
7 the populations. A few studies aiming to find the best techniques for restoration have been
8 performed on *S. latissima* (Fredriksen *et al.* 2020; Tsiamis *et al.* 2020; Le François *et al.*
9 2023). In a trial in Quebec, Canada, the production of *S. latissima* sporophytes was
10 successful and worked best on artificial substrate and using a binder-based method for
11 spraying gametophytes (Le François *et al.* 2023). In contrast, a study in Scotland revealed
12 that the abundance of *S. latissima* and other kelps in an artificial reef was low, and in turn,
13 turf seaweeds were abundant (Tsiamis *et al.* 2020). This is in accordance with a review
14 on artificial seaweed reefs that concluded that the success of reforesting macroalgae is
15 variable and depends on scale, structural composition, materials employed and surface
16 complexity (Jung *et al.* 2022). A trial in Norway was also successful using the ‘green
17 gravel’ method – stones are seeded in the laboratory and only planted in the field when
18 sporophytes reach 2-3 cm (Fredriksen *et al.* 2020). Another strategy for restoration of
19 kelps is grazer control. A study in Norway showed that sea urchin decline following
20 treatment with quicklime allowed for kelp forest recovery, including *S. latissima* (Strand
21 *et al.* 2020). Other strategies not yet tested for *S. latissima* include the harvest of grazers
22 and destructive hammering of sea urchin populations (Eger *et al.* 2022). Up to this
23 moment, research on restoration practices in *S. latissima* is scarce, and no large-scale
24 restoration plan has been attempted.

1 Scientific debate is ongoing on whether assisted evolution (or assisted adaptation) is
2 warranted when restoring degraded and vulnerable populations. Assisted evolution entails
3 that genetic diversity of populations is artificially increased, either by moving new
4 genotypes to a population, boosting genetic diversity within, using intra-specific hybrid
5 vigour or heterosis or genome editing (Coleman *et al.* 2020; van Oppen and Coleman
6 2022). These methods raise important ethical questions that might limit their use (Filbee-
7 Dexter and Smajdor 2019). Given all stated above, this is an area of research that we
8 expect will get a lot of attention in the near future as the need to restore degraded habitats
9 becomes evident, and best practices need to be discussed.

10

11 **Conclusions**

12 All in all, *Saccharina latissima* has intensively been studied over the last 15 years, and
13 important new insights have been gained (Fig. 4). Nevertheless, new findings usually
14 raise new questions, and we will highlight below the most current research priorities.

15 Generally, as already stated in the review of the genus *Laminaria* by Bartsch et al. (2008),
16 microscopic life-history phases have received considerably less research attention than
17 the sporophyte stage. Direct comparisons between life-history stages have to be included
18 in future studies to identify phase-specific responses to environmental drivers. Spores,
19 stages of gametophyte development, gametes, and microscopic sporophytes should all be
20 studied more intensely. Also, studies on differences in gametophyte sexes and sporophyte
21 maturity are largely underrepresented. Only by examining the sensitivity throughout the
22 entire life cycle of *S. latissima* a comprehensive understanding of the species' resilience
23 to climate change will be possible.

24 Regarding climate change, most attention has been given to the impact of warming and
25 marine heat waves. However, other weather extremes, such as marine cold spells

1 (Schlegel *et al.* 2021) or climate change-related increases in storm surges, can have a
2 huge impact and should be considered in future studies. Furthermore, to date, studies
3 investigating the impact of irradiation on *S. latissima* mainly focused on changes in PAR
4 and the effect of UVR. However, increased sediment input along all coastal regions
5 (meltwater run-off, river outflows, precipitation) not only leads to a reduction of PAR but
6 also affects the spectral composition in the water column. Especially in Arctic regions,
7 the environmental light spectrum changes drastically due to accelerating glacial melt and
8 permafrost thaw, reducing the photosynthetically available (Niedzwiedz and Bischof
9 2023). Therefore, in further experimental and modelling research on *S. latissima*, the
10 spectral composition of radiation should be incorporated.

11 The strongest impact of climate change on marine life has been observed in the Arctic
12 (Masson-Delmotte *et al.* 2021), where pronounced seasonal light conditions exist.
13 Overall, seaweeds in Arctic regions have been intensively studied (Lebrun *et al.* 2022).
14 Still, adaptive responses to polar day, polar night, and the respective transitions are poorly
15 investigated. Furthermore, melting sea ice and glaciers change salinity or result in coastal
16 darkening (Konik *et al.* 2021), which can result in additional stress for Arctic *S. latissima*
17 and should be further analysed. In addition, increasing temperatures are especially
18 pronounced during Arctic winters with significant environmental consequences (Maturilli
19 *et al.* 2015). However, only very little winter data for Arctic *S. latissima* are available. In
20 this context, transgenerational effects in cold acclimation have been shown for *Laminaria*
21 *digitata* (Liesner, Shama, *et al.* 2020) and the same may hold for *S. latissima*. Data on
22 growth rates, stress response and biotic interactions for the rear edge populations of *S.*
23 *latissima* is also lacking. The uneven distribution of studies across the species'
24 distributional range – focusing on central populations in Germany, United Kingdom and
25 mainland Norway- limits our understanding of the species' acclimation potential to

1 various environmental conditions. To date, the question of whether *S. latissima* exhibits
2 different ecotypes remains unanswered and requires further research.

3 When testing the consequences of climate change, an important and very complex topic
4 is the interaction of drivers. Hence, multifactorial approaches are increasingly applied but
5 are still a minority, despite their high ecological relevance. The interplay of various
6 altering factors might have synergistic or antagonistic impacts on the resilience and
7 susceptibility of *S. latissima*, and hence are key to understanding survival and success in
8 the future. Experiments testing the impact of ongoing climate change mostly use average
9 values over large scales, e.g., average sea surface temperature increase, and fail to include
10 relevant temporal and spatial variability at different scales (Seabra *et al.* 2015; Bates *et*
11 *al.* 2018). Different intensities, duration and recovery periods in marine heatwave
12 experiments result in different responses of *S. latissima*. Moreover, inter-annual and
13 seasonal variability on the thermal stresses of *S. latissima* was already shown
14 (Niedzwiedz *et al.* 2022). In general, seasonality strongly impacts physiological and
15 biochemical parameters of *S. latissima*, still, little is known about how phenology changes
16 across the distributional range and how it is affected by climate change. Future research
17 needs to include more intricate experimental designs that address more variability and
18 how it may affect the survival of *S. latissima*.

19 The application of ‘omics’ to *S. latissima* is expected to sharply increase soon as costs
20 decrease, and technologies quickly improve. Still, ‘omics’ approaches to *S. latissima* and
21 other kelps lag behind other major taxonomic groups and there is still much to be
22 explored. Recent work on the transcriptomic responses in *S. latissima* should be expanded
23 to include more abiotic and biotic drivers and complex interactive responses to climate
24 change. In addition, transcriptomic studies should be combined with metabolomics and
25 proteomics to understand how regulation occurs fully. Still, a major caveat to these

1 approaches is the lack of functional annotation that limits our interpretation of results.
2 More efforts in the molecular and biochemical characterisation of genes are necessary,
3 and knowledge generated for *S. japonica* (a closely related species) will help to streamline
4 progress in *S. latissima* (e.g., Zhang *et al.* 2018). Another severe knowledge gap is how
5 epigenetic mechanisms modulate responses in *S. latissima*. The modulation of DNA
6 methylation in response to environmental stimulus has recently been demonstrated in *S.*
7 *latissima* (Scheschonk *et al.* 2023) but if non-coding RNAs and histone modifications are
8 also involved has not yet been tested. As these last two mechanisms have been
9 demonstrated in other brown algae (Bourdareau *et al.* 2021; Bai *et al.* 2023), studies
10 examining these patterns in *S. latissima* will surely follow. In addition, active gene
11 modulation would be required to assess the definite impact of any given epigenetic
12 modulation on the actual gene expression. Regarding the microbiome, most microbiota
13 studies for *S. latissima* have focused on describing the microbial partners. Consequently,
14 there is a need to expand the research on co-cultures to investigate causal relations.
15 Specific isolates of interest, such as bacterial core, specialised metabolisers, and
16 pathogens, can be used to study their impact on algal growth and morphology
17 ((Burgunter-Delamare 2022). Furthermore, more research is needed on the impact of
18 potential pathogens on the physiological state of *S. latissima* and the composition of its
19 whole microbiota. *In silico* predictions of beneficial metabolic network complementarity
20 are a way to identify specific interactions between *S. latissima* and its microbiota. There
21 is also a need to start cataloguing genes and their functions for both the microbiome and
22 the host, which will require a combination of metagenomic and metatranscriptomic
23 studies linking microbial and host gene expression. Viruses have been recently described
24 in Laminariales and reported to infect two-thirds of the host populations (McKeown *et al.*
25 2017), highlighting the importance of incorporating viruses in studies on algal microbiota.

1 All the ‘omic’ data recently generated is being used to improve breeding of macroalgae
2 that still lags far behind plant crops. Several of these land crop techniques are expected
3 to be applied to *S. latissima* as investment in aquaculture facilities is rising on both sides
4 of the North Atlantic. However, these techniques may raise social and ethical issues that
5 will need to be discussed with society in the next decades (more on Charrier *et al.* 2020).
6 Although the distribution of *S. latissima* is fairly well documented in some regions,
7 repeated monitoring and detailed distribution data are still lacking in other regions, e.g.
8 south of Europe, Russian waters. New technologies, such as remote sensing, drone
9 imagery, video by underwater vehicles, but also eDNA approaches can greatly assist in
10 monitoring the occurrence of *S. latissima* (e.g. De Pooter *et al.* 2017; Douay *et al.* 2022).
11 Studies across the biogeographic distribution range of *S. latissima* will help to distinguish
12 between present phenotypic plasticity and adaptation patterns present in the species and
13 how it may be affected by climate change scenarios.

14 Despite overwhelming evidence that *S. latissima* populations are declining and that this
15 compromises the ecosystem services they provide, there are still few management actions
16 in place. Moreover, if present, these are country- or region-specific, without international
17 perspective and guidance. Hence, the effectiveness of management actions already
18 applied to other macroalgae has not been tested for *S. latissima*. It is imperative that this
19 will be put into action if we aim to maintain the remaining populations and restore some
20 of the others. Management actions tested in other seaweeds that may also prove successful
21 with *S. latissima* include improving water quality (by decreasing nutrient load, for
22 example), Marine Protected Areas, grazer control, and others (Strain *et al.* 2015; Eger *et*
23 *al.* 2022; Peleg *et al.* 2023). As political interest and societal benefits in recovering kelp
24 populations are rising, securing the financial and logistical means to undergo large-scale

1 restoration efforts might become more reachable (Eger *et al.* 2020; Filbee-Dexter,
2 Wernberg, *et al.* 2022).

3

4 **Acknowledgements**

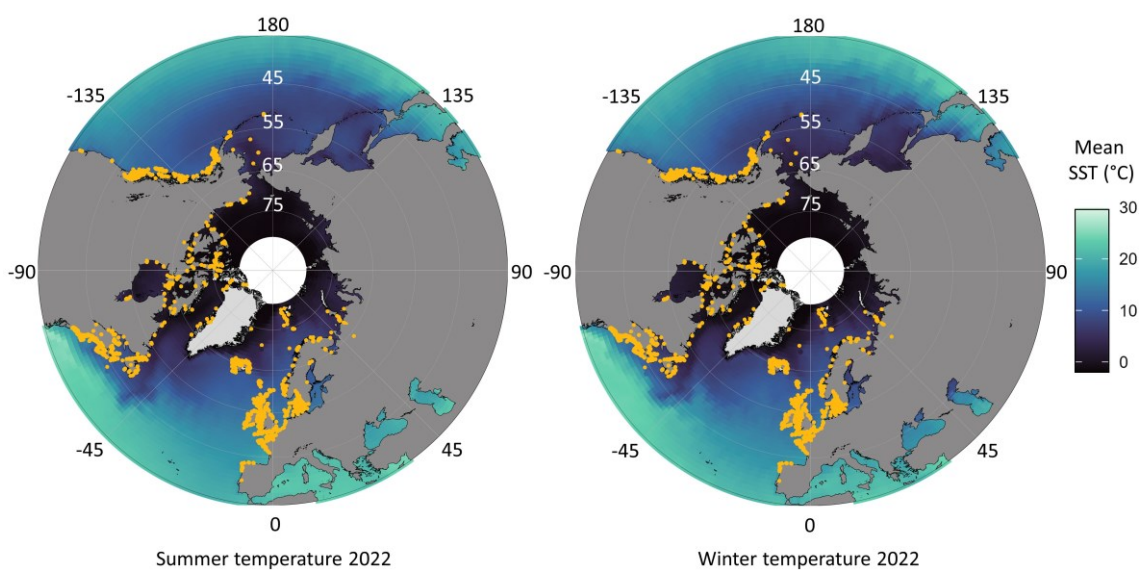
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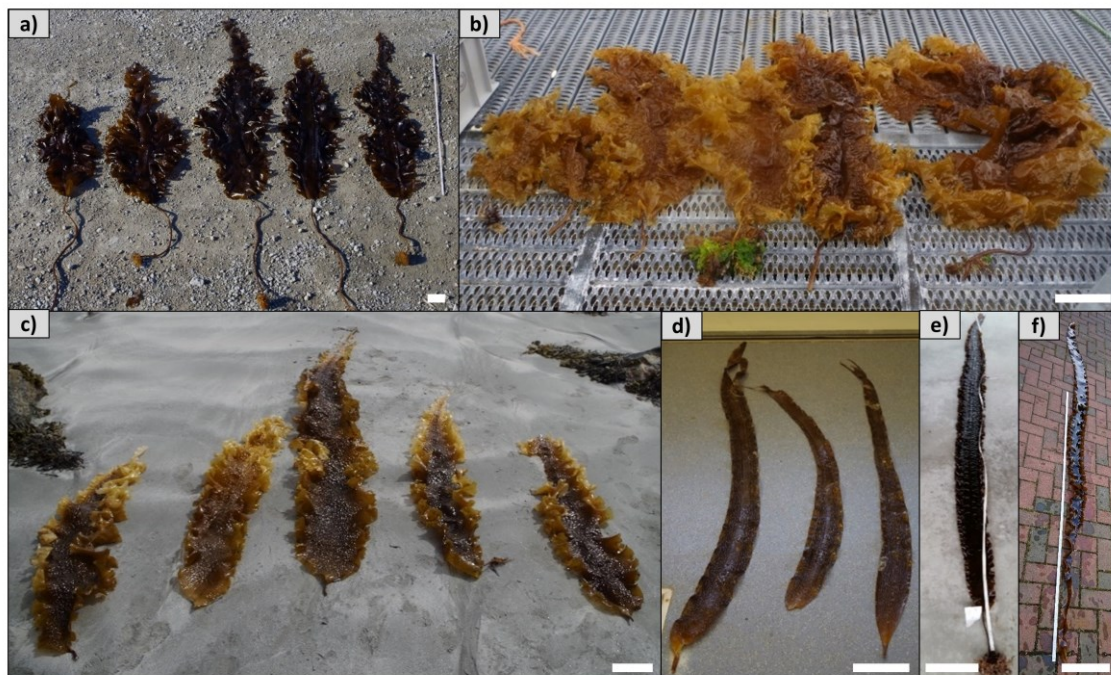
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16 **Figure legends**



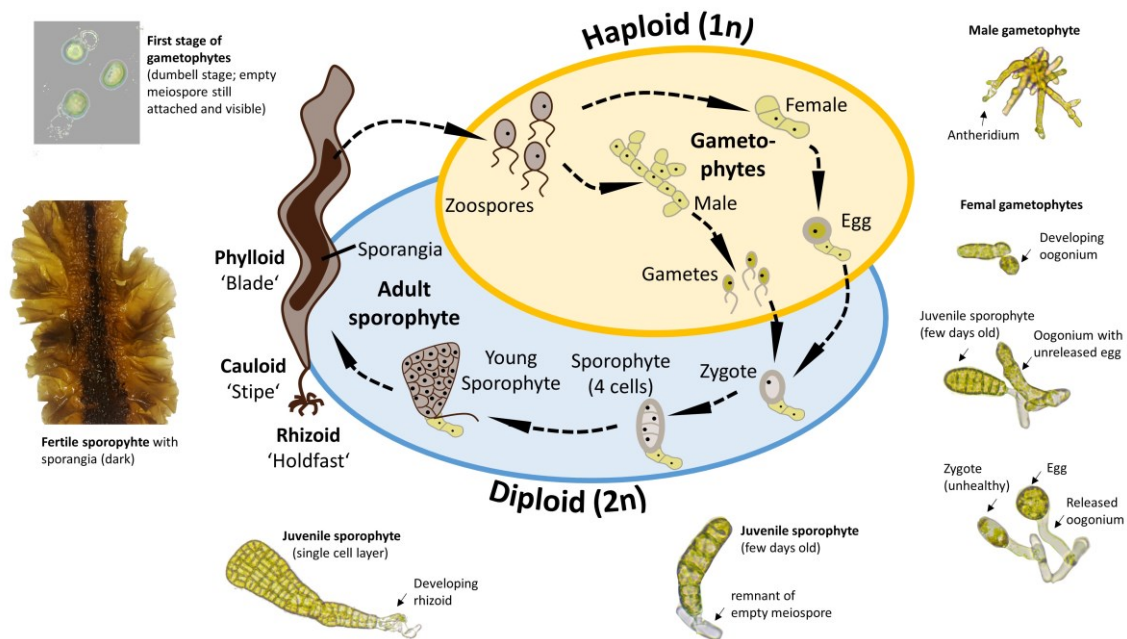
17

1 **Figure 1:** The worldwide distribution of *Saccharina latissima*. Occurrence data of *S.*
 2 *latissima* (orange dots) were collected from databases (Global Biodiversity Information
 3 Facility (<http://www.gbif.org>) and the Ocean Biogeographic Information System
 4 (<http://iobis.org>). Occurrence data cover the timeframe between 1903–2020. Note that the
 5 point size is increased to allow visualisation at this large scale and does not display the
 6 real area extent. Sea surface temperature data (colour gradient) from 2022 **a)** summer
 7 temperature (21.03–21.09.2022) and **b)** winter temperature (01.01–21.03.2022 & 21.09–
 8 31.12.2022) were downloaded from the NOAA database
 9 (<https://coastwatch.pfeg.noaa.gov/erddap/>). The maps integrate the monthly temperature
 10 mean with latitude and longitude averaged as integers. White areas around the North Pole:
 11 projection makes data interpolation impossible. Maps were created with the R package
 12 ‘ggOceanMaps(Vihtakari 2022)’.

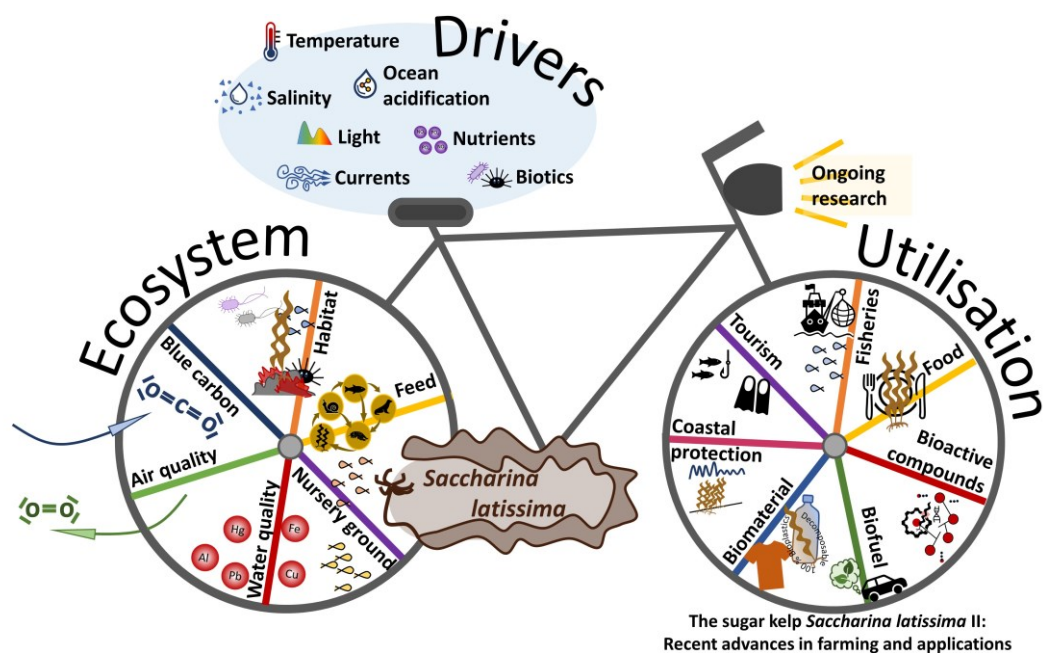


13
 14 **Figure 2:** Morphological variability of European *Saccharina latissima* sporophytes. The
 15 white bars represent 20 cm. **a)** Ny-Ålesund, Spitsbergen; collected from the Old Pier, 10
 16 m depth, moderate exposure (Photo: N. Diehl). **b)** Ansnas, Norway; collected in a small

1 bay, 1-2 m depth, protected (Photo: N. Diehl). **c)** Runde, Norway; collected from rocks
 2 surrounded by sand, 1-2 m depth, moderate exposure (Photo: N. Diehl). **d)** Runde,
 3 Norway; collected in a *Laminaria digitata* forest, 1-3 m depth, exposed (Photo: N. Diehl).
 4 **e)** Locmariaquer, France; collected from rocky shores, high tidal range, 3-5 m depth,
 5 moderate exposure (Photo: L. Fouqueau). **f)** Helgoland, Germany; collected from rocky
 6 shores, 5 m depth, exposed (Photo: A. Wagner). Figure modified from (Diehl *et al.* 2023).



7
 8 **Figure 3:** Life cycle of *Saccharina latissima*. The life cycle of *S. latissima* can be split
 9 into a diploid (blue) and a haploid (yellow) phase. Adult sporophytes (2n) release
 10 zoospores, which grow into either female or male gametophytes (1n). Female
 11 gametophytes release eggs (1n); male gametophytes release gametes (1n). Egg and
 12 gametes fuse to a zygote (2n), which grows into sporophytes (2n). Sporophyte photo: S.
 13 Forbord. Microscopic photos and description: I. Bartsch.



1

2 **Figure 4:** Research values of *Saccharina latissima* – ecosystem services, economic
 3 values, and drivers. Schematic display of the manifold ecosystem services and economic
 4 application. *S. latissima* is represented as a bicycle chain, powering many ecosystem
 5 services: providing habitat, feed and nursery ground for the associated micro- and
 6 macrofauna (*Biotic interactions*); improving the water quality accumulating high
 7 concentrations of harmful elements; improving the air quality by releasing oxygen; and
 8 sequestering carbon (*Conservation and restoration*). These ecological values lead to a
 9 multitude of economic values. In nature, *S. latissima* provides coastal protection by
 10 reducing wave energy, increasing fishing and diving tourism, and enhancing fisheries by
 11 serving as a nursery group for economically important fish species (*Biotic interactions*).
 12 Harvested *S. latissima* is utilised for food; feed; extraction of bioactive compounds, with
 13 applications in pharmaceutical, medical, cosmetics, paper and processed food industries,
 14 among others (see more in Review II); development of biofuels and biomaterial (see more
 15 in Review II). The main drivers of *S. latissima* survival and growth are temperature
 16 (*Microbiome*), light availability (*Mobile biota*), salinity (Epi- and endobiota), nutrients
 17 (*Grazers*), and biotic factors (*Biotic interactions*), that significantly modify ecological and

1 economic services provided. Ongoing research leads the way for a deeper understanding
2 of kelp ecosystems and new applications (*Conclusion*).

3

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