- 1 Title: Elevated temperature and deposited sediment jointly affect early life history traits in
- 2 southernmost arctic charr populations
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Summary

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The combination of global warming and local stressors can have dramatic consequences on freshwater biota. Sediment deposition is an important pressure that can affect benthic species and benthic ontogenetic stages (eggs and larvae) habitat quality. However, knowledge on the effects of sediment in a warming context is lacking. We used a common garden approach to examine the effects of combined exposure to elevated temperature and deposited sediment on early life history traits in offspring of four wild arctic charr (*Salvelinus alpinus*) populations, originating from geographically isolated lakes at the Southern edge of the species range. We report interactive effects of temperature and sediment, with higher temperature exacerbating the negative effects of sediments on the duration of the incubation period and on the body size-yolk expenditure trade-off during development. Our results highlight that reevaluating the impacts of sediment on organisms under the lens of global warming and at the scale of several wild populations is needed to improve our understanding of how vulnerable species can respond to environmental changes.

23 Keywords: sediment, climate change, multiple stressors, fish, life history

Introduction

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Global climate change induced-temperature elevations have been challenging the distribution, physiology, and phenology of species (Parmesan 2006; Bellard et al. 2012; Comte and Olden 2016). Additionally, ecosystems ought to cope with a wide array of local pressures. Because of their interactive effects on the system and its communities (Piggott et al. 2015a, 2015b), multiple stressors have already been acknowledged as one of the causes of the current worldwide decline of freshwater fish populations (Côté et al. 2016; Gordon et al. 2018). It is therefore crucial to assess the effects of multiple stressors on biota in a fast-changing climate context, especially on embryo-larval stages that are known to be more sensitive to environmental changes than later life stages (Rombough 1988; Pankhurst and Munday 2011; Lange et al. 2018). Water temperature and the metabolism, growth, and development rates of fish are firmly linked (Angilletta et al. 2003), thus affecting the life-history and fitness of individuals (Zuo et al. 2012; Hemmer-Brepson et al. 2014). Besides, fine sediment (particles of less than 200µm of diameter, (Argent and Flebbe, 1999)) accumulation is an important pressure naturally present in freshwater ecosystems (Townsend, Uhlmann and Matthaei, 2008). However, both anthropogenic activities (agriculture, urbanization) and natural events (floods frequency) can boost sediment input in lakes and rivers (Reid et al. 2018). Once deposited, fine sediment affects habitat structure, food availability and important ecological processes that can in turn alter the overall ecosystem functionality, e.g. organic matter processing (Piggott et al. 2015b) or trophic relationships (Louhi et al. 2017). Due to its properties that limit oxygen availability, deposited sediment can exert adverse effects on the embryo survival, development, timing of hatching, and growth of many fish species (see Kemp et al., 2011; Chapman et al., 2014), particularly in salmonids that are highly sensitive to breeding habitat degradation (Greig, Sear, and Carling 2007; Jensen et al. 2009; Louhi et al. 2011; Suttle et al. 2004).

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Among at-risk species is the arctic charr Salvelinus alpinus, a cold-water salmonid of cultural and economic importance throughout Northern America and Europe (Klemetsen et al. 2003; Winfield, Berry, and Iddon 2018). Distributed across the Northern hemisphere up to 80°N (Klemetsen, 2013), the arctic charr is the northernmost freshwater fish species on the planet, and has a limited thermal tolerance range compared to other salmonids (Sæther, Siikavuopio, and Jobling, 2016; Baroudy and Elliott, 1994; Elliott and Elliott, 2010). Optimal egg incubation occurs at 4-7°C (see Sæther, Siikavuopio, and Jobling 2016; Janhunen, Piironen and Peuhkuri, 2010), and egg mortality increases dramatically when temperature reaches 8°C (Jungwirth and Winkler 1984). In Europe, arctic charr populations of the alpine and peri-alpine region are landlocked and located at the Southernmost limit of distribution of the species, where embryolarval life stages already experience temperatures close to their known upper thermal limit of 8°C (Elliott and Elliott, 2010). While adults can migrate in the water column to track more suitable conditions, newly hatched individuals remain within the substratum, exhibiting very limited swimming behavior until they reach the first exogenous feeding stage that follows yolk sac absorption (Wallace and Aasjord 1984; Teletchea and Fontaine 2010). Compared to the pelagic larvae of other freshwater fish species, demersal salmonid embryos remain exposed to sediment for extended periods of time, and might be particularly at risk to its accumulation until hatchlings emerge from the substratum (Sternecker et al. 2013). Since temperature affects oxygen demand and fine sediment reduces oxygen availability in the environment, it is reasonable to hypothesize these two stressors will interact when experienced in combination as they both affect energy metabolism in a complementary manner (McBryan et al. 2013; Del Rio et al. 2019), and will likely affect primarily cold-water demersal and benthic species in their embryo-larval stages. In a recent study, Mari et al. (2016) showed that temperature influences negatively fine sediment tolerance of embryos of an arctic charr captive broodstock. Much is known about early development and growth of arctic charr in hatchery

settings (Jeuthe et al. 2015; Sæther et al. 2016), but few studies have examined the effects of environmental stressors on early life history traits in natural populations (*e.g.* (Swift 1965; Jungwirth and Winkler 1984; Humpesch 1985). Here, we investigate the combined effects of increased temperature and deposited fine sediment on embryonic life history traits of four wild arctic charr populations located at the Southern edge of the species distribution. We conducted a common garden experiment, rearing embryos at either an optimum developmental temperature or at a stressful regime close to their upper thermal limit, and in absence or presence of deposited sediment. As we hypothesized that combined exposure to the stressors would affect early life traits more negatively than when experienced separately, our results provide insights into the sensitivity of early life stages of arctic charr to unfavorable environmental conditions, and into the variation in response capacity among wild charr populations.

Material & Methods

Ethics statement

This experiment was designed in accordance with the European Directive 2010/63/EU on the protection of animals used for scientific purposes. As this study focused on fish embryos and larvae that rely on endogenous feeding only, no special ethics permission was required. Permission for fish captures on the field was granted by local authorities.

Study populations

We collected spawning individuals in December 2016 and January 2017 from four geographically isolated lakes located around the Southern limit of the species distribution range in Europe (Figure 1A): lake Geneva and lake Constance (Switzerland/Germany/Austria), where arctic charr is native, and lake Pavin (France) and lake Sainte-Croix, where the species was respectively introduced in 1859 and 1992 from the Geneva population (Machino 1991). In Lake

Geneva, allochthonous introductions have been documented in the 1970s but the population recovered its initial genetic diversity almost entirely today, with no traces of the initial admixture observed (Savary et al. 2017). The Geneva, Constance, and Pavin populations are nowadays managed through supportive breeding practices, with eggs obtained from local spawners, while the Sainte-Croix population is not managed. These four populations inhabit contrasted thermal habitats, particularly during the egg incubation period, during which average temperatures at spawning ground depths range from 3°C (Pavin) to 9°C (Sainte-Croix, Figure 1B).

Spawners capture and embryo rearing conditions

Spawning adults were caught with gillnets between December 2016 and January 2017 on one spawning ground per lake. Males and females (see Table S1) were crossed to produce 25 independent families in total. Due to limited spawners availability, the number of families produced varied among populations (Pavin: 8 families, Constance: 5 families [3 full-sib and 2 half-sib families], Geneva: 6 families, Sainte-Croix: 6 families). All ova were fertilized in the field at water temperatures comprised between 3 and 5° C and brought back to the INRAE facilities in Thonon-les-Bains, where they were individually distributed into 24-well cell culture microplates (Nunc MicroWellTM), a now common set-up to rear salmonid eggs experimentally and monitor embryonic development at the individual level (Côte et al. 2012; Wilkins et al. 2015).

We set up two sediment treatments (absence/"control" and presence/"sediment exposed"). In a previous study (Mari et al. 2016), we observed significant effects on survival at a minimal sediment load of 0.015 g.cm⁻² along a gradient of sediment exposure. We selected this load for the exposed treatment in the current study as it represents a low, but realistic sedimentation rate (Loizeau et al. 2012) that occurs over the arctic charr egg incubation period in Lake Geneva. We used the same sediment collecting method than described in Mari et al (2016). Sediment

was collected by pumping water at 51m deep in Lake Geneva, then mesh-sieved to retain the <200 μm diameter grain-size fraction, known to be the most harmful to fish early life stages (Kjelland et al. 2015). Sediment was oven-dried (60°C for 72 h) prior to being resuspended in mineral water (Volvic ©; Mari *et al.*, [2016]) to obtain a dilution corresponding to our chosen sediment load. After distributing one egg per microplate well, 2 ml of either clear water or resuspended sediment solution was added in each well of the corresponding microplates. We left sediment to deposit at the bottom of the wells, similarly to the sedimentation process observed in the substratum of spawning areas. Then, plates were split into two batches and incubated in separate climate chambers. In each chamber, plates were randomly distributed on a rack. We set up a cold temperature treatment of 5°C (+/- 0.090°C), optimal for development, and a warm treatment of 8.5°C (+/- 0.038°C) that is supposedly stressful, but experienced by the species on spawning grounds of lakes Geneva and Sainte-Croix (Mari *et al.*, [2016]). Temperature was recorded from fertilization to hatching using HOBO loggers (HOBO Onset®, #UX100-001).

We used duplicates of 12 eggs per family per population in plates containing no sediments and triplicates of 12 eggs in sediment plates as we were expecting higher mortality in sediment-exposed individuals (total of 2640 eggs, two families per plate). For the Sainte-Croix population, sediment effect was tested on 3 families out of 6, because 3 females produced clutches of less than 100 eggs.

Early life traits measurements

Each plate was photographed at the beginning of the experiment (Nikon® D5300 and Nikon® DX 18–105mm lens). Individual egg size was measured to the nearest 0.01 mm as the mean diameter (average of two perpendicular diameters) of the egg. Plates were initially left to incubate in the dark not to disturb the first stages of development during the first week of incubation, and were then monitored daily (every morning) during hatching period. Each newly

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hatched fish was anaesthetized with 0.35 ml per liter eugenol (clove oil diluted 1:10 into 95% ethanol) and photographed individually using the same set-up as described above. Body size was measured as the length from the snout to the end of tail (total length in mm, TL), and yolk sac volume (YSV) was calculated using the following formula: YSV = $\pi/6$ x L x H² (with L, major axis and H, minor axis, in mm, see [Kamler, 2005]). Individual egg size, length and yolk sac axes at hatching were measured using IMAGEJ (http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/download.html). Because sediment-exposed eggs were fully covered by a sediment layer, we could not measure fertilization success and early-life mortality at eyed-stage. Thus, survival was estimated as the number of hatched embryos divided by the number of eggs per family. While including unfertilized eggs might bias survivorship rates downwards, it allows taking into account any mortality that occurred before the eyed stage. However, fertilization success can vary among and within populations. Thus to allow populations comparisons, we standardized survival estimates relative to the trait value in the most optimal environment for egg development, i.e. the control (cold, no sediment) treatment as: standardized survival = $x_{treatment} / \mu_{control}$ with x: mean survival of a given family; treatment: one of the four treatments (cold, cold exposed, warm, warm exposed); $\mu_{control}$: mean survival of given family in the control treatment. Incubation period was calculated from the number of days from fertilization to hatching as a development rate in accumulated degree days (ADD): ADD = mean daily temperature x number of days between fertilization and hatching date. ADD represent the heat accumulated by developing embryos until hatching (Crisp 1981), and thus constitute a more biologically relevant metric for incubation duration than days.

Statistical analyses

All analyses were performed using R v3.6.2 (R Development Core Team 2019), applying a critical significance threshold of 0.05. We analyzed the relationship between the relative changes in life history trait values and treatments using linear mixed models (LMM and

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GLMM) with the *lme4* package (Bates et al. 2015). We ran one mixed model per trait to test for global effects of treatments, as well as differences among populations. We used a Gaussian error distribution following log transformation to improve normality and homoscedasticity in incubation duration, body size and YSV models and a binomial distribution for survival model. Temperature and sediment treatments and their interaction and population origin were specified as fixed effects, whereas family identity was set as random effect. Plate identity was set as random effect in all models except survival, because this trait was calculated at the family level instead of individually. Incubation duration was included as a fixed covariate in all body size and YSV models. Due to the importance of maternal investment in egg size in salmonids (Leblanc, Kristjánsson, & Skúlason, 2014; Perry, Audet, & Bernatchez, 2005; Polymeropoulos, Elliott, & Frappell, 2016), individual egg size was included as a fixed covariate in all models. All mixed models were fitted under maximum-likelihood estimation. The significance of independent variable was tested by comparing models including or not the explanatory variable(s) of interest with likelihood ratio tests, and all residuals for selected models were inspected visually (Q/Q plots) to ensure they did not deviate from assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity. We then performed post-hoc multiple pairwise population comparisons in each treatment and between treatments in each population. Pairwise differences were estimated using the *emmeans* package in R (Lenthe et al 2018), applying a Benjamini-Hochberg correction to account for false discovery rate (Benjamini and Yekutieli 2001).

Results

Effects of temperature and sediment on survival

Overall, temperature had a significant negative effect on survival (Table 1). Post-hoc testing revealed significantly lower survival in the Constance and Pavin populations in the warm

exposed treatment both with and without sediment (Figure 2), appearing to be the most affected by warm temperatures during development. Survival declined by 25% and 40% respectively when exposed to warmer temperature alone, and by 50% for embryos of both origins when exposed to temperature and sediment in combination.

Effects of temperature and sediment on incubation period

Incubation period, measured in ADDs, was significantly longer in the warm treatment for all populations (Table 1). There was no effect of sediment exposure on incubation period overall, but the temperature x sediment interaction was significant. The model showed differences among populations in their responses to temperature and sediment exposure (significant interactions with population, Table 1). The sediment effect was found to significantly increase incubation period in the Geneva population both under cold and warm conditions (significant post-hoc testing, Figure 2). Conversely, we observed a significant decrease in incubation period due to sediment in the warm treatment for the Constance and Pavin populations. This trait was unaffected by sediment in Sainte-Croix individuals. Initial egg size did not have an effect on the duration of the incubation period.

Effects of temperature and sediment on body size and YSV

The size of embryos was influenced by their origin and the temperature experienced throughout development (Table 1). Sediment exposed individuals were smaller than individuals in the control treatment. Size decreased even more substantially under warm exposed conditions: individuals suffered a 10% reduction in size when they experienced both stressors in combination (compared to control, Figure 2). Along with a significant temperature x sediment interaction, we detected significant temperature x population interaction. Body size, length of incubation period and initial egg size were positively linked. Temperature and sediment together did not affect YSV (Table 1). YSV varied among populations overall and within

treatments. Pavin and Sainte-Croix individuals had bigger yolk sacs in the warmer treatment. Sediment exposure had a negative effect on the yolk volume of Sainte-Croix individuals only, observable both at cold and at warm (Figure 2).

This study focused on the influence of two major pressures in freshwaters, deposited sediment

Discussion

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and increased temperature, on early life stages of southernmost arctic charr populations. It illustrates that, first, combined elevated temperatures and sediment-rich waters can affect fitness-related traits interactively, and second, that wild alpine S. alpinus populations have different susceptibilities to these pressures. Because temperature affects biochemical rates of reactions, it is a crucial parameter for early fish development. Our results reflect traits responses that are typically associated with thermal stress in salmonids, such as reduced size and earlier hatching under warmer conditions (Ojanguren and Braña 2004; Côte et al. 2016). Individuals from the Constance and Geneva populations reared in the warm treatment were smaller but had a yolk sac volume similar to that of cold treatment conspecifics. This indicates that part of the yolk reserves were not allocated to growth, likely revealing a physiological stress response (Valdimarsson et al. 2002). When yolk conversion efficiency is lower, growth rates are reduced (Heming 1982; Ojanguren and Braña 2004; Kamler 2008), which could explain the observed smaller size at hatching and changes in volk reserves expenditure. Sediment effects were less pervasive than temperature effects, and we did not detect any changes in survival. In literature, sediment has been linked with a decrease in embryo survival of other salmonids, such as Atlantic salmon (Levasseur et al. 2006) and brown trout (Sear et al. 2016). It is important to note that the amount of sediment to which embryos were exposed in this experiment was rather

low compared to known sedimentation rates (e.g. up to 1 g.cm⁻².yr⁻¹ in lake Geneva, ([Loizeau,

Girardclos and Dominik, 2012])). We deliberately used a low but realistic sediment level because detailed information on the local sedimentation conditions in the other source lakes was not available. However, field observations point at the presence of excess organic matter at the bottom of Lake Pavin, clogging potential charr breeding habitat (Desmolles 2016). Sediment was found to affect size of individuals at hatching but not yolk reserves. Incubation period did not vary significantly with sediment exposure, except in the Geneva population for which hatching was slightly delayed. This pattern is nonetheless consistent with our previous findings on charr embryos exposed at a similarly low sediment level (Mari et al. 2016), and with other studies that showed that sediment exposure can negatively affect fish larval development, growth (Greig et al. 2005; Sear et al. 2014; Kjelland et al. 2015), and even metabolic performance (Hess et al. 2015, 2017).

In accordance with our initial hypothesis that sediment would exert more harmful effects on

life-history traits under warm conditions, we detected sublethal effects of sediment in the warm treatment. The population of origin was an important factor in the response of charr embryos to temperature and fine sediment, as population appeared to be a significant variable in all models. Although the magnitude of the response to the two stressors experienced in combination was rather weak, the four populations exhibited distinct response patterns. In the populations in which hatched individuals exhibited bigger yolks (Pavin and Sainte-Croix), hatched embryos were much smaller. Temperature alone affected survival strongly, but temperature and sediment did not show significantly interactive effects on survival. When higher temperature and sediment were experienced simultaneously, incubation was significantly shorter than in the control treatment in days, but not in ADD. Our results further showed that ADD requirements until hatching were population-specific and varied with exposure to temperature, sediment, or both stressors. Hatching might occur earlier to compensate the high metabolic costs of an unfavorable environment (Wedekind and Müller 2005; Storm and Angilletta 2007). As

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example, Constance individuals hatched at fewer ADD when exposed to both stressors, compared to their conspecifics exposed to warm temperature only, meaning development was accelerated. Conversely, Geneva individuals hatched at a later age in ADD. Since the hatching process itself is energetically costly (Kamler 2008), hatching can also be delayed because meeting the energy demand necessary for hatching under warm conditions with limited oxygen availability can be more difficult (McBryan et al. 2013). This will be likely linked to the individuals capacity to partition yolk among different physiological functions (respiratory functions, development, organogenesis, growth) that will lead to the establishment of trade-offs during early life (Stearns 1992; Carlson et al. 2004; Kavanagh et al. 2010). This furthers pinpoint at other physiological or behavioral alterations that would be relevant to investigate, particularly in regard to how early life exposure to temperature and fine sediment that may carry effects into later life stages. However, although oxygen limitation can have severe consequences on embryonic traits of salmonids (Côte et al. 2012; Del Rio et al. 2019; Lavery and Cunjak 2019), induce immediate and long-lasting alterations in the cardio-vascular system of adults (Miller et al. 2011; Johnston et al. 2013; Anttila et al. 2015), evidence in regard to consequences of early life hypoxia on adult performance is mixed (Wood et al. 2017) and further studies are needed to characterize the long-term effects of developmental environment on salmonid physiology.

Interactive effects of temperature and sediment were less pronounced than expected based on what was observed previously in a captive charr broodstock (Mari et al. 2016), where the two stressors combined had induced a 25% decrease in survival, and a much shorter incubation period. Captive broodstocks are generally held in artificial conditions (high water quality, non-stressful temperatures), in which adaptation can occur rapidly (Christie et al. 2011). In the present study, our results indicate that wild populations seem to be better adapted than captive fish to exposure to a low but realistic sediment load. This could potentially raise questions on

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the consequences of supportive breeding practices on the population's capacity to respond to environmental stressors. Considering three out of the four populations studied are managed, future research in this direction would be extremely relevant to help management strategies make informed decisions in order to maintain wild populations. Salmonid early life is tightly linked to maternal provisioning (Perry et al. 2004; Leblanc, Kristjánsson, and Skúlason 2014), that we took into account as individual egg size in this study, although we did not measure egg quality (e.g. volk composition). Average egg size varied among populations (Figure S2), which could be due to local conditions, genetic divergence, and/or differences in individual size, as larger females tend to produce larger eggs (Leblanc, Kristjánsson, and Skúlason 2014). This variation is very likely to have contributed to differences observed among populations in length of incubation period, size at hatching and YSV in the control treatment. Since yolk reserves constitute the only nutritional source available to embryos, egg size variation could have promoted response variability among and within populations, likely through maternal effects. Maternal investment in egg size is known to influence heavily size and energetic reserves in offspring (as seen in fish (Einum, Hendry and Fleming, 2002; Régnier et al., 2012) or amphibians (Räsänen, Laurila, & Merilä, 2005)). The crossing design used in the present study was not drawn to disentangle genetic (sire and dam combination) from maternal effects, which were both taken into account under a single random effect (termed family identity, Table S3). However, in such a common garden experiment with individual egg size as a covariate in statistical analyses, differences among populations reflect to some extent genetic effects. Among and within-population variation highlights the existing genetic variability that is the basis for responding adaptively to future environmental changes. Furthermore, since the populations of Geneva, Pavin and Sainte Croix have the same genetic background and their divergence occurred recently (i.e., over decades), a larger quantitative genetics crossing design

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might help to investigate whether the different responses we observed could have emerged from local adaptations to local thermal and sedimentation conditions.

Our results show a limited, but significant interaction between temperature and fine sediment on early life history traits, and highlight the negative effects of increased temperature in offspring of wild salmonid populations, with relevance for the conservation of declining arctic charr populations. The species is known to have a lower thermal tolerance and lower capacity to acclimate to higher temperatures than other salmonids, favoring cold, well-oxygenated water (Baroudy and Elliott 1994a; Elliott and Elliott 2010; Anttila et al. 2015). While environmental conditions in European lakes are fast-changing (Salmaso, Anneville, & Straile, 2018), adults may be able to seek refugia in deeper waters (Jensen, Kiljunen, Knudsen, & Amundsen, 2017; Jones, Winfield, & Carse, 2008), and a priority might thus be to maintain good overwintering habitat quality and cold-water refugia. In deep, low-elevation lakes, temperature might exceed arctic charr tolerance thresholds levels and induce lethal and sublethal effects on embryos, with implications for later life reproductive stages, since elevated temperatures can greatly affect later life spawning success and next generation offspring quality (Gillet 1991; Gillet et al. 2011; Jeuthe, Brännäs, and Nilsson 2015). In alpine shallow high elevation lakes, temperature in spawning grounds during egg incubation is several degrees below the stressful condition of 8.5°C that was tested in the present study. Although mountain lakes are highly vulnerable to climate change, with faster projected warming and reduction of ice and snow cover (Thompson et al. 2005), temperature increases probably do not constitute a critical short-term threat for arctic charr early life stages yet. However, many pressures other than temperature may be of concern in the current multiple stressors context, including suspended sediment that can exert destructive effects on fish (Shrimpton et al. 2007; Berli et al. 2014; Chapman et al. 2014), pollutants, and abiotic pressures such as predation or interspecific competition with native and invasive species (Caudron et al. 2014; Morrissey-McCaffrey et al. 2019), all of which warrant further attention.

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Data availability statement

The data from this experiment has been uploaded to the Mendeley Data public repository (see Mari et al., 2019).

Conflict of interest

The authors hereby state they have no conflict of interest to declare.

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662 Tables

Table 1. Linear mixed model testing for the overall effects of temperature, sediment exposure, origin, and one and two-way interactions on relative changes in survival, incubation duration, size and YSV at hatching. Bolded values indicate p-value <0.05 (likelihood ratio tests).

		Survival (n=2640)		Incubation (n=1540)		Length (n=1540)		Yolk sac volume (n=1540)	
	df	X ²	p value	X ²	p value	X ²	p value	X ²	p value
fixed effects									
Temperature	1	32.537	<0.001	320.03	<0.001	181.01	<0.001	19.127	<0.001
sediment load	1	2.219	0.136	0.2	0.655	119.19	<0.001	0.74	0.39
Temperature x sediment load	1	3.808	0.051	6.74	0.009	14.107	<0.001	0.229	0.632
population	3	16.947	<0.001	29.785	<0.001	21.231	<0.001	14.02	0.003
Temperature x population	3	3.931	0.27	20.532	<0.001	12.839	0.005	32.19	<0.001
sediment load x population	3	5.297	0.506	29.2	<0.001	5.988	0.1122	10.86	0.03
Temperature x sediment x population	3	6.99	0.136	3.542	0.315	1.087	0.78	1.048	0.902
egg size	1	0.162	0.687	0.167	0.683	48.564	<0.001	64.186	<0.001
ADD	1	-	-	-	-	72.292	<0.001	0.348	0.555

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Figure Captions

Figure 1. (A) Map of the four source lakes from which spawning individuals were caught. The base map image was created with the *maps* and *ggplot2* packages in R and was graphically optimized in PowerPoint. (B) Daily average temperature from November to June in the four source lakes. Lakes Pavin and Geneva temperatures were recorded from December 2015 to May 2016 on arctic charr spawning grounds at 14m and 40m, respectively, using HOBO® loggers with one recording every ten minutes. Sainte-Croix temperatures were recorded at the lake maximum depth (60.5m) from November 2015 to June 2016. Lake Constance temperatures were obtained from already available data at depths corresponding to spawning grounds depths (40m; Limnological Institute of the University of Konstanz). Shaded area indicates egg incubation period.

Figure 2. Effects of the four treatments on (A) standardized survival rate (n=2640) (B) length of incubation period (n=1540) (C) length at hatching (n=1540) (D) YSV at hatching (n=1540) for the four study populations. In blue: Pavin, in green: Constance, in yellow: Geneva, in orange: Sainte-Croix. Values are expressed as mean +/-SEM. Letters indicate significant post hoc differences between populations within each treatment, and between treatments within each population (p<0.05, Benjamini-Hochberg correction). Note that survival is represented here as a rate standardized to the survival rate observed in cold control for clarity, but testing was performed on raw survival data, hence the differences observed among populations in the control treatment. All other traits are represented as raw data.

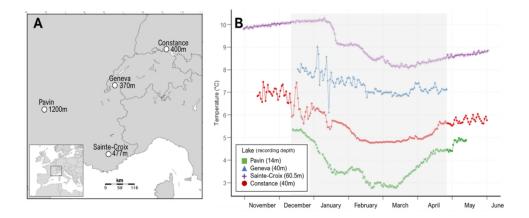


Figure 1. (A) Map of the four source lakes from which spawning individuals were caught. The base map image was created with the maps and ggplot2 packages in R and was graphically optimized in PowerPoint. (B) Daily average temperature from November to June in the four source lakes. Lakes Pavin and Geneva temperatures were recorded from December 2015 to May 2016 on arctic charr spawning grounds at 14m and 40m, respectively, using HOBO® loggers with one recording every ten minutes. Sainte-Croix temperatures were recorded at the lake maximum depth (60.5m) from November 2015 to June 2016. Lake Constance temperatures were obtained from already available data at depths corresponding to spawning grounds depths (40m; Limnological Institute of the University of Konstanz). Shaded area indicates egg incubation period.

324x141mm (150 x 150 DPI)

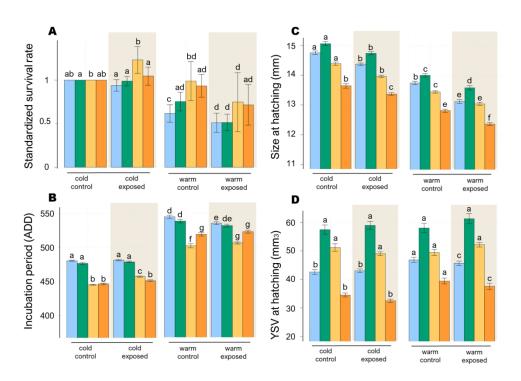


Figure 2. Effects of the four treatments on (A) standardized survival rate (n=2640) (B) length of incubation period (n=1540) (C) length at hatching (n=1540) (D) YSV at hatching (n=1540) for the four study populations. In blue: Pavin, in green: Constance, in yellow: Geneva, in orange: Sainte-Croix. Values are expressed as mean +/-SEM. Letters indicate significant post hoc differences between populations within each treatment, and between treatments within each population (p<0.05, Benjamini-Hochberg correction). Note that survival is represented here as a rate standardized to the survival rate observed in cold control for clarity, but testing was performed on raw survival data, hence the differences observed among populations in the control treatment. All other traits are represented as raw data.

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