



ECOLOGY AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE ISOPOD GENUS *IDOTEA* IN THE BALTIC SEA: KEY SPECIES IN A CHANGING ENVIRONMENT

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ABSTRACT

Marine isopods of the genus Idotea [I. balthica (Pallas, 1772), I. chelipes (Pallas, 1766), and I. granulosa Rathke, 1843] are common meso-grazers that enter deep into the Baltic Sea and here appear to live at their physiological limit, determined by salinity and temperature tolerance. We review available data on distribution and community ecology to assess the functional role of *Idotea* in the Baltic Sea and how global change may affect essential ecological interactions. Data from the last 150 years suggest an on-going shift southward for I. chelipes and I. granulosa that may be caused by a changing climate. Several studies report local extinctions and mass abundances, which may be caused by a changing food web from over-fishing and eutrophication. The three species of *Idotea* have clear habitat segregation in the Baltic Sea, where salinity, temperature and vegetation are the main dimensions. Idotea spp. have a central role as grazers and in communities dominated by the perennial macrophytes Fucus spp. and Zostera marina and attain impressive feeding rates on a range of epiphytes/filamentous algae (top-down effect). Idotea can have both a direct negative grazing effect on macrophytes but also an indirect positive effect by removing epiphytes. The relative role of nutritional value and chemical defence for food preference is yet unclear for Idotea. Baltic idoteids are also important prey for several fish (bottom-up effect) and fish predation may have increased following overfishing of piscivorous fish. It is concluded that Idotea is a key taxon in the Baltic Sea food web, where guilds often contain few dominant species. Changes in population dynamics of Idotea, as a function of human generated global change, may have large-scale consequences for ecosystem functions in a future Baltic Sea, e.g. the extent of vegetation cover in the coastal zone.

KEY WORDS: Baltic Sea, distribution patterns, environmental changes, *Idotea*, key species

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INTRODUCTION

The Baltic Sea is the youngest regional sea in the Northern Hemisphere (about 13000 years BP) and the world's second largest brackish environment. The most prominent feature of the Baltic Sea is the salinity gradient with almost freshwater in the northern Gulf of Bothnia to about 25 PSU at the boundary between Kattegat and the almost fully marine Skagerrak towards the North Sea. The reduced salinity makes the Baltic Sea a species-poor ecosystem (Bonsdorff, 2006). Most successful colonizers of the Baltic Sea consist of species with a generally broad salinity tolerance, but it is still unclear to what degree Baltic species have evolved significant local adaptations to a brackish environment. Johannesson and André (2006) showed that Baltic Sea populations have reduced genetic variation compared to Atlantic populations, which may indicate selection for extreme genotypes and/or population bottlenecks during colonization.

The Baltic Sea borders on nine countries and is one of the most environmentally impacted coastal areas in the world with serious effects of habitat loss, eutrophication, pollution and over-fishing (Diaz and Rosenberg, 2008; Halpern et al., 2008; Eriksson et al., 2009). There is concern that the low biodiversity of the Baltic ecosystem may render it particularly susceptible to environmental deterioration with a low resilience capacity and potential loss of essential ecosystem services (Österblom et al., 2007). It is thus important to improve overall knowledge about the mechanisms controlling the Baltic ecosystem with special emphasis on selected key species.

In the species-poor ecosystem of the Baltic Sea, several species can be regarded as key species since most guilds contain few or sometimes only one dominant species. Important benthic key species are the bladder wrack (Fucus vesiculosus and F. radicans), the suspension-feeding blue mussel (Mytilus trossulus/edulis), deposit-feeding amphipods (Monoporeia affinis (Lindström, 1855) and Pontoporeia femorata Krøyer, 1842) and meso-grazers of the isopod genus Idotea.

In Europe, eight different species of Idotea have been described, but only three of these species exist in the Baltic Sea: Idotea balthica (Pallas, 1772) (BA), Idotea chelipes (Pallas, 1766) (CH) and Idotea granulosa Rathke, 1843 (GR), inhabiting the bladder wrack belts (Fucus spp.) or eelgrass communities (Zostera marina). All three species

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(Idotea spp.) are common among the vagile fauna in the vegetation (Kautsky, 2008). Beside snails (Hydrobia spp.), amphipods, copepods, and ostracodes, BA is the numerically most important taxon of the Baltic eelgrass community (Schaffelke et al., 1995; Boström and Bonsdorff, 2000). In the Fucus belt the abundance of Idotea spp. may account for up to 28% of crustacean grazers (Korpinen and Jormalainen, 2008). Segerstråle (1932, 1944b) compared exposed and sheltered Fucus localities with different salinities in Finland and considered Idotea spp. among the most dominant of species, and Råberg and Kautsky (2008) described BA as the second most common crustacean. In the 1970's and 1980's together with an observed decline of the bladder wrack in the Baltic Sea, BA was described as an important grazer in the Fucus belt (Kangas et al., 1982; Haahtela, 1984; Hällfors et al., 1984), and *Idotea* spp. are suggested as dominant benthic herbivores in the western Baltic Sea (Sommer, 1997). Very high abundances of BA and GR in the bladder wrack belts have been reported (Jansson, 1974) and recently events of mass occurrence have been recorded (Engkvist et al., 2000, 2004; Nilsson et al., 2004; Svensson et al., 2004). However, some recent studies also describe declining distributions of Idotea (Jazdzewski et al., 2005; Jephson et al., 2008).

Successful attempts to predict ecosystem responses to environmental hazards, e.g., climate change, will depend on high-quality information on the Baltic ecosystem with emphasis on ecological interactions for key species and their evolutionary potential. We here review and analyse available information of the distribution and community ecology of the three species of *Idotea* and present a synthesis of their ecosystem role in the Baltic Sea and possible effects of ongoing environmental change. We explore the hypothesis that species of *Idotea* have changed their distribution patterns over the past 150 years. The ecological niche of the Idotea in the Baltic Sea is then sketched, and we hypothesize that Idotea are key species in the Baltic food web. Finally, we present a conceptual model of how environmental impacts may affect Baltic Idotea abundance and distribution through demographic and food web changes.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Study Area

The Baltic Sea is a shallow inland sea located in northern Europe (Fig. 1) and one of the largest brackish water bodies in the world with a surface area of 390100 km² (Lozan et al., 1996). It is connected to the North Sea via the Skagerrak (about 33 PSU), the Kattegat (20-26 PSU), the Danish straits and the Belt Sea (6-18 PSU, mean cross-section 0.35 km²) (Fig. 1). Hydrographically the natural boundary of the Baltic Sea is formed by the Danish Straits, whereas in a management context, the HELCOM (Helsinki Commission for the Protection of the Baltic Marine Environment) includes the Belt Sea and the Kattegat, motivated by the strong hydrographical influence from the Baltic Sea. The Baltic Sea consists of several sub-basins, separated by sills and other bathymetrical formations and the circulation is largely topographically bound in the subbasins (Fig. 1). The thermocline ranges between 15-25 m depth during summer, but is deeper and weaker in the cold seasons. The halocline depth is between 40-80 m except in the Danish straits and in the Kattegat where the thermocline and the halocline coincide at about 15 m in the summer. The Baltic is microtidal (<10 cm) and water exchange is dominated by a surface outflow from the Baltic Sea through the Danish straits with a deeper, more saline counter-current entering into the Baltic Sea. The limited water exchange with the North Sea (residence time in the Baltic around 25-35 years, Lozan et al., 1996) combined with an outflow from around 200 rivers from the Baltic Sea drainage area create a stable salinity gradient from almost freshwater in the northern part to around 18 PSU at the exit. The geographical and hydrographical features largely determine the composition of the Baltic fauna and flora. At the entry more than 500 macrozoobenthic species can be found (the Arkona Basin), but species richness decreases dramatically to around 20 in the Bothninan Bay and Gulf of Finland (Bonsdorff, 2006). A salinity of 5-7 PSU forms a natural barrier for both freshwater and marine species (Khlebovich, 1990). The benthic communities that have colonized the Baltic Sea are the result of tolerance to this extreme environment and the history of a series of geological events influencing the salinity (like the Baltic Ice Lake 14000-10300 yrs BP, the freshwater Ancylus Lake 9500-8300 yrs BP and the brackish Littorina Sea 8300-3700 yrs BP), together with anthropogenic interventions mainly during the past century (like eutrophication, climate change, overfishing and the introduction of invasive species). Established flora and fauna in the Baltic Sea thus have both marine and freshwater origin.

Data Analysis

This study is based on a detailed survey of the literature from 1850-2011 (January), where the largest part is related to the Baltic Sea. This screening resulted in a total of around 300 publications with information about distributions and/or the ecological role of Idotea spp. in the Baltic Sea. A subset of 115 articles were used to sketch the distribution patterns, and additionally we investigated the collections of *Idotea* at the Finnish Museum of Natural History (FMNH) in Helsinki, Finland; the Zoological Museum Hamburg (ZMH), Germany; the German Oceanographic Museum (GOM) in Stralsund, Germany; the Zoological Museum in Berlin (ZMB), Germany; the Senckenberg Museum in Frankfurt (SMF), Germany; the Zoological Museum of the Zoological Institute of Russian Academy of Science (ZIN) in St. Petersburg, Russia and the Swedish Museum of Natural History (SMNH) in Stockholm, Sweden, to obtain more historical information about distribution patterns of the species during the 19th century. Geographic data were visualised with a Geographic Information System (GIS software ArcView 9.2, ESRI, Redlands, California, USA).

Analysis of Temporal Change in Distribution of Idotea spp.

Based on the geographic positions of all recorded findings of BA, CH, and GR we calculated the mean longitude and latitude and also tested the null-hypothesis that the midpoint of distributions were identical for all species. The hypothesis of a temporal change in geographic distribution for all three species was tested with linear regressions of longitude and latitude against the year of recording.

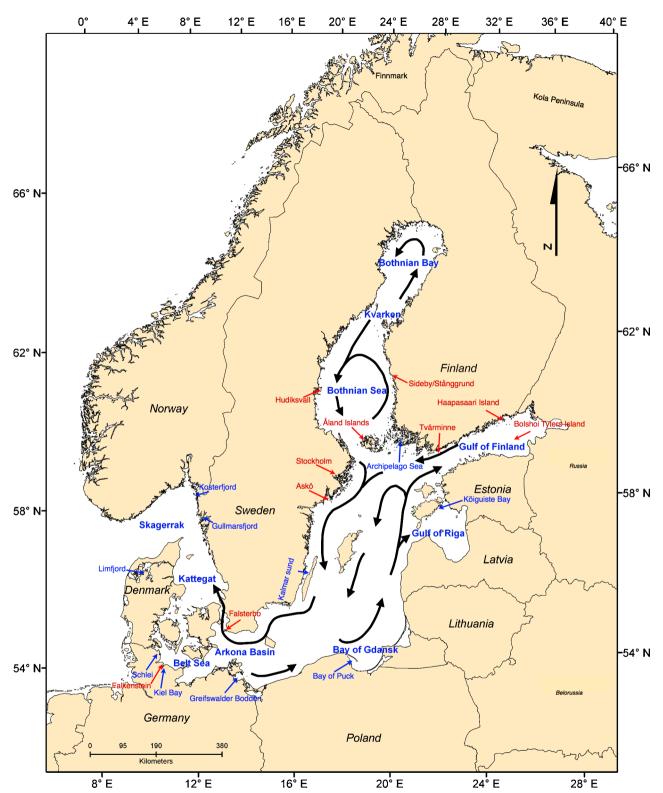


Fig. 1. Detailed map of the Baltic Sea indicating major geographic regions mentioned in the text. The surface water mean circulation is indicated by arrows and based on Elken and Matthäus (2008).

Correlations of Temperature and Salinity with Distribution of *Idotea* spp.

From recorded geographic distributions we estimated the temperature-salinity envelope for all three species. This

was done with a hydrodynamic model (Rossby Centre Oceanographic Model, Meier et al., 2003), which modeled temperature and salinity for the Baltic Sea with a spatial resolution of 3.7 km, a vertical resolution of 3 m and a temporal resolution of 6 hours. From the position of each record of *Idotea* we extracted modeled temperature and salinity for the months June to August for the years 1995-2004, which well represent the North Atlantic Oscillation cycle (Hurrel and Deser, 2009). We tested differences between the three species of *Idotea* in average temperature and salinity for the recorded locations with a 1-factor Anova for the geographic area defined by 54°N 12°E to 66°N 30°E.

Analysis of Temporal Change in Temperature and Salinity in the Baltic Proper

To explore if potential shifts in the geographic distribution of *Idotea* could be correlated with temporal changes in sea-surface temperature and salinity we extracted empirical data from HELCOM (http://ocean.ices.dk/Helcom/Default. aspx) for part of the Baltic Sea (58°N 17°E to 63°N 20°E) from the years 1960-2010. Temporal trends in temperature and salinity were tested with linear regressions. The subset between 58°-63°N was selected since this data set did not show any temporal trend in latitudinal sampling effort that could confound trends in temperature and salinity.

All scientific names used in this study conform to the nomenclature of the World Register of Marine Species (= WoRMS) (Appeltans et al., 2010).

RESULTS

Distribution and Abundance of Baltic of Idotea spp.

As noted above, only three species of *Idotea* occur in the species-poor brackish water of the Baltic Sea: *Idotea balthica* (*BA*), *I. chelipes* (*CH*) and *I. granulosa* (*GR*). Maps of their distribution are shown in Figs. 2-4 with all references given in the on-line appendices (A: museum sources and B: literature sources). The European distribution patterns of *Idotea* are described by Naylor (1972) and Hayward and Ryland (1995). More detailed information about distribution patterns in Scandinavia is published by Sars (1899) for Norway, by Segerstråle (1944a) for Finland and by Wahrberg (1930) for Sweden.

Idotea balthica

BA is the most recorded and investigated species in the Baltic Sea (Fig. 2), probably due to its high abundance (Table 1) and the easily distinguished morphological characteristics in adults: the telson shows a tridentate posterior border, where the middle one is the largest (Fig. 2, see also Sars, 1899; Naylor, 1955a; Sywula, 1964a; Gruner, 1965). The telson protrusions are less well developed in the Baltic Sea compared to populations in the North Sea. BA occurs in the Limfjord, Skagerrak, Kattegat, and nearly the whole Baltic Sea (Fig. 2). Arndt (1964) and Naylor (1972) mentioned the presence of BA for the Gulf of Bothnia without detailed limits, but the northernmost detailed description is from Hudiksvall, Sweden and Sideby/Stånggrund, Finland (Wahrberg, 1930; Segerstråle, 1944a; Gruner, 1965; Forslund, 2009) (Fig. 2). The species does not enter the very low salinity area of the Gulf of Bothnia. BA is a dominating species in the Greifswalder Bodden, Germany (Schiewer, 2008), the Stockholm Archipelago (Hill and Wallström, 2008), and the Askö Area and Himmerfjärden (Kautsky,

2008) in Sweden. It is also frequent at some places off the German coast (Mecklenburg Bay: Zettler et al., 2000; Falkenstein: Bobsien, 2006) and in the Gulf of Finland (Segerstråle, 1944a; Tvärminne: Salemaa, 1979). According to Råberg and Kautsky (2008) BA is the second most common crustacean meso-grazer beside Gammarus spp. on the Swedish east coast. Mean abundance appears to be highest in the Cladophora glomerata zone, followed by the eelgrass (Zostra marina) community and the bladder wrack (Fucus vesiculosus/radicans) belt (Table 1). For the eelgrass beds, BA is numerically one of the most dominant taxa (Boström and Bonsdorff, 2000; Boström et al., 2002) with peak abundance in the summer (Bobsien, 2006; Gohse-Reimann, 2007). In contrast, the exposed Fucus belt hosts the maximum density of BA during winter (Askö Laboratory, Sweden: Haage, 1975) or in the autumn (Finnish Baltic Sea: Salemaa, 1978) (Table 1). Korpinen et al. (2010) observed that the density of BA in the Fucus belt in Finland varied from a low in June to a peak in August (Table 1). Whereas the abundance of BA in the eelgrass beds of the Kiel Bay in Germany has been relatively constant over the last 30 years (Bobsien, 2006), events of mass occurrence in Fucus belts have been reported both on the Swedish east coast (Kangas et al., 1982; Hällfors et al., 1984; Engkvist et al., 2000; Svensson et al., 2004) (Table 1) as well as in the Koiguiste Bay in Estonia (Kotta et al., 2000a).

Idotea chelipes

The distribution pattern of CH in the Baltic Sea is similar to that of BA (Fig. 3). In older literature this species is often called by the junior synonym I. viridis Sars, 1899. It occurs in the Limfjord, Skagerrak, and Kattegat, as well as along the Swedish coastline up to the Stockholm Archipelago Sea and south in the Darß-Zingst Boddenkette, Germany. CH also extends into the Gulf of Bothnia (Naylor, 1972) and was recorded from Sideby/Stånggrund, Finland (Wahrberg, 1930; Segerstråle, 1944a; Gruner, 1965) (Fig. 3). It does not penetrate as deep into the Gulf of Finland as does BA (Fig. 3). Only one report mentioned this species in the Gulf of Riga, Estonia (Kotta and Möller, 2009). Segerstråle (1944a) reported that CH in general shows lower density and frequency than BA in the Gulf of Finland, but it can vary between different years and occasionally the abundance of CH is higher. For the Schlei-Fjord, Germany, the abundance of CH was highest between July-August (Betz, 1974; Lotze and Worm, 2000), whereas the peak occurred in the autumn at Tvärminne, Finland (Salemaa, 1979; Kangas et al., 1982). Schiewer (2008) considered CH among the dominating species in the Greifswalder Bodden, Germany. Korheina (1981) found that the abundances of BA and CH were similar at the Falsterbo Peninsula in Sweden. The abundance of CH decreases with increasing shore exposure (Korpinen et al., 2010). No mass occurrence has been reported for CH.

Idotea granulosa

The distribution pattern of GR differs from those of BA and CH (Fig. 4). Nierstrasz and Schuhmanns Stekhoven Jr. (1926) and Naylor (1972) mentioned that the distribution of GR extends into the Gulf of Bothnia, but the northern-

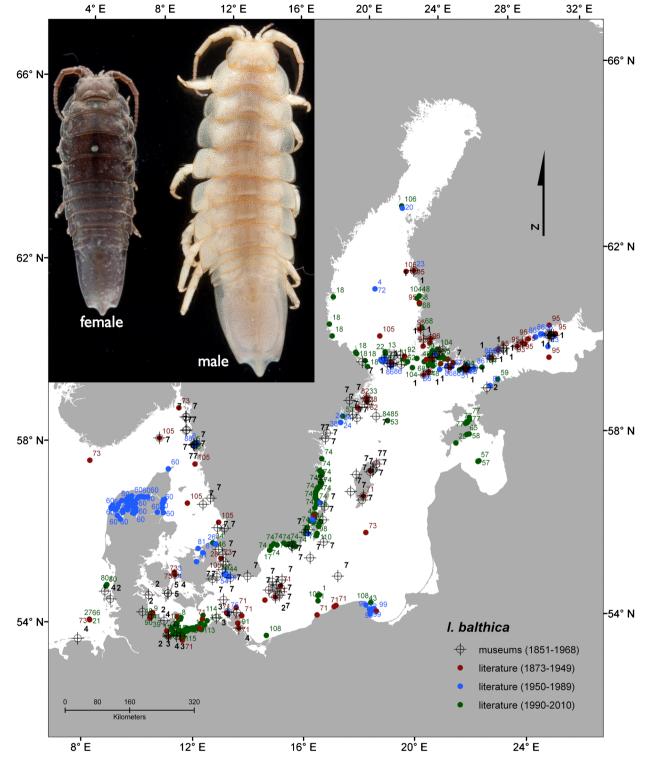


Fig. 2. Female and male of *Idotea balthica* (dorsal view) and the distribution pattern in the Baltic Sea. The number next to the dots gives the reference (see on-line Appendices A and B). Maximum length for males 21.9 mm and for females 14.8 mm (material: SMNH). Telson shape of the posterior border tridentate, the middle one is the largest. The first two coxal pairs do not reach the length of their segments (thorax segments 2 and 3), in contrast to the other (dorsal view).

most confirmed finding is from around the Åland Islands (Fig. 4). GR does not seem to enter far into the Gulf of Bothnia, the Gulf of Finland or the Limfjord. Data on dis-

tribution from the Baltic States are very limited (Fig. 4). Moreover, identification of GR and CH may be uncertain since they are easily confounded in the Baltic Sea due to

Table 1. Average abundances in different habitats of *BA*, *CH* and *GR* in the Baltic Sea (G = Germany, E = Estonia, F = Finland, S = Sweden; ind. = individuals, ww = wet weight). * = This measurement is from 1922 when it was not known that different species of *Idotea* exist in the Baltic Sea. + = Different localities. $\wedge = 196$ g ww *Fucus*.

		Sampling time	Reference
Eelgrass/Zostera	marina		
BA	$651 \pm 1072 \text{ ind./m}^2 (2001)$ $439 \pm 438 \text{ ind./m}^2 (2002)$	April-October	Bobsien, 2006 (G)
	256 ind. /m ²	Early summer	Jaschinski, 2007 (G)
	602 ± 590 ind./m ²	April-October	Gohse-Reimann, 2007 (G)
	max. $1640 \pm 1783 \text{ ind./m}^2$	August	
CH & GR	2.4 ind./m ²	June-September	Boström and Bonsdorff, 1997 (F)
Bladder wrack/F	ucus belt		
Idotea*	6-358 ind./m ²	Summer + autumn	Segestråle, 1944b (F) +
BA	$29 \text{ ind.}/1000 \text{ cm}^3$	June	Salemaa, 1979 (F)
	$200 \text{ ind.}/1000 \text{ cm}^3$	Autumn	Salemaa, 1978 (F)
	35 ind./1000 cm ³	Winter and spring	Salemaa, 1978 (F)
	1.5 ind./kg ww	August (1968-1970)	Kangas et al., 1982 (F)
	151 ind./kg ww	September 1980	(different localities)
	5 ind./kg ww	November (1968-1970)	()
	1681 ind./kg ww	December (1980)	
	1 ind./kg ww	May-June (1969)	
	858 ind./kg ww	June (1981)	
	0.2 ± 0.2 ind./100 g to	September	Enkvist et al., 2000 (S)
	84 ± 37 ind./100 g		
	3 ± 1 ind./100 g to	Min. and max. over 6 years	Enkvist et al., 2004 (S)
	240 ± 2 ind./100 g 77 ± 11 ind./m ²	November	Svensson et al., 2004 (S)
	3 ± 2 ind./m ²		Lauringson and Kotta, 2006 (E)
	3 ± 2 Ind./m 300 ind./m ²	Late May	
	250-754 ind./m ² (minmax.)	April-October	Kotta et al., 2006 (E)
		A	Wilstein and Kantalan 2007 (8)
	235 ± 11 ind./m ²	August	Wikström and Kautsky, 2007 (S) +
	450 ± 242 ind./m ²		
	37.5 ind./m ²	July	Råberg and Kautsky, 2007a (S)
	3 ind. in an average algae	May	Korpinen et al., 2010 (F)
	1.5 ind. in an average algae	June	
CII	26 ind. in an average algae 9 ind./1000 cm ³	August	S-1 1070 (E)
СН		June	Salemaa, 1979 (F)
	240 ind./100 g 0.2 ind./kg ww	Summer	Haage, 1975 (S) Kangaa at al. 1082 (E)
	19 ind./kg ww	August (1968-1970) September 1980	Kangas et al., 1982 (F) +
	5 ind./kg ww	November (1968-1970)	
	112 ind./kg ww	December (1980)	
	8 ± 3 ind./m ²	Late May	Lauringson and Kotta, 2006 (E)
	28 ± 19 ind./m ²	5	Wikström and Kautsky, 2007 (S) +
	30 ± 25 ind./m ²	August	Wikstrolli and Kautsky, 2007 (3) +
	3 ± 3 ind./m ²	May	Widbom and Westerlund, 2007 (S)
	15 ind. in an average algae	May	Korpinen et al., 2010 (F)
	5 ind. in an average algae	June	
	9 ind. in an average algae	August	
GR	1 ± 1 ind./100 g to	Min. and max. over 6 years	Engkvist et al., 2004 (S)
	377 ± 282 ind./100 g	, a a a a a grad	8
	15 ± 23 ind./m ²	August	Wikström and Kautsky, 2007 (S)
	8.3 ind./m ²	July	Råberg and Kautsky, 2007a (S)
Polysiphonia fuce	oides		
BA	40 ± 9 ind./m ²	November	Svensson et al., 2004 (S)
			2.0000000000000000000000000000000000000
Cladophora glon	8500 ind./m ²	April August	Lansson 1074 (S)
<i>Idotea</i>	$max. 28000 \text{ ind./m}^2$	April-August	Jansson, 1974 (S)
juveniles	max. 28 000 ma./m ⁻	July	

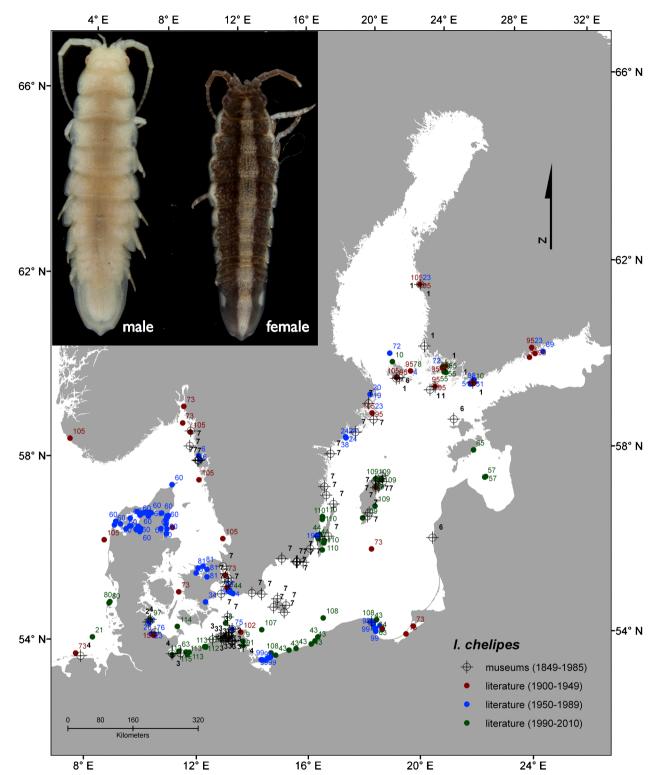


Fig. 3. Female and male of *Idotea chelipes* (dorsal view) and the distribution pattern in the Baltic Sea. The number next to the dots gives the reference (see on-line Appendices A and B). Maximum length for males 17.3 mm and females 13.0 mm (material: SMNH). Slender habitus. Telson shape of the posterior border with a short middle protrusion, as a whole more rounded. Coxal plates of the segments 2, 3, 4 and 5 do not reach the length of their segments (dorsal view).

less distinct differences in the shape of the posterior border of the telson [see legends in Figs. 2-4 and Sywula (1964a)]. Many studies report low abundances of *GR*, typically only few individuals (Hällfors et al., 1984; Zettler et al., 2000), which is in contrast to *BA* and *CH* (Segerstråle, 1944a;

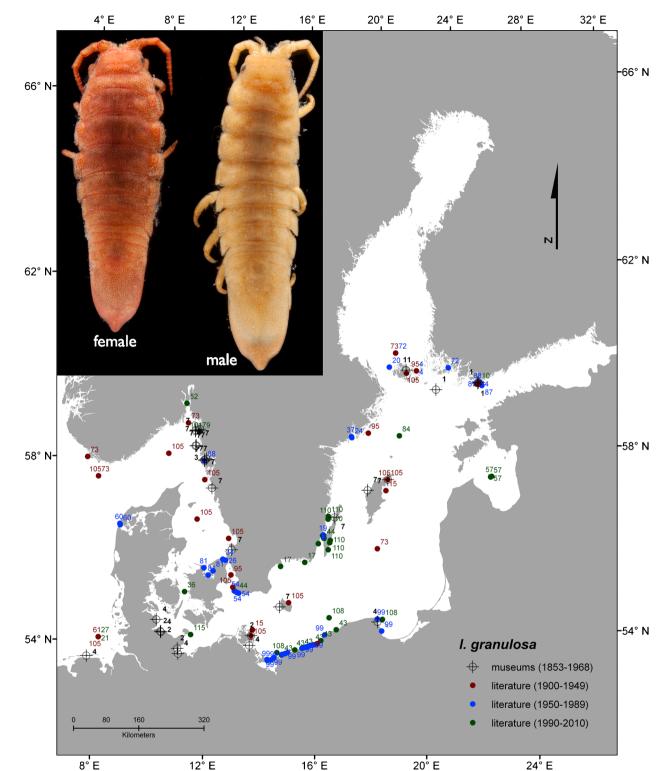


Fig. 4. Female and male of *Idotea granulosa* (dorsal view) and the distribution pattern in the Baltic Sea. The number next to the dots gives the reference (see on-line Appendices A and B). Maximum length for males 16.7 mm and for females 12.6 mm (material: SMNH). Telson shape of the posterior border with a middle protrusion, as a whole more slender. Coxal plates of the segments 2, 3, and 4 do not reach the length of their segments (dorsal view). The posterior edge of the coxal plates of thorax segment 5 outperforms the posterior edge of the segment.

Korheina, 1981; Wikström and Kautsky, 2007). However, on fully exposed shores in the outer archipelago *GR* can be the dominant species of *Idotea* (Forsman, 1956; Sywula,

1964b; Salemaa, 1979). Maximum densities occur during summer (Falsterbo Peninsula, Sweden: Korheina, 1981) or in the autumn (Askö Laboratory, Sweden: Haage, 1975).

Only Engkvist et al. (2004) have reported mass occurrence of GR (Table 1).

Analysis of Temporal Change of the Distribution of *Idotea* spp.

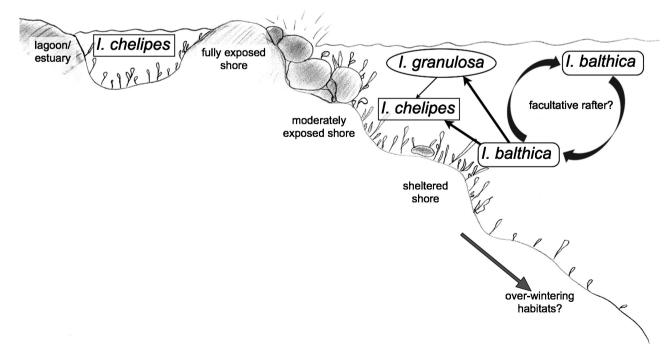
Over the investigated time period (1849-2010) both *CH* and *GR* showed a significant (p < 0.05) temporal shift towards the south in the Baltic Sea. The latitudinal shift over the time period was 1.15° and 1.5° for *CH* and *GR*, respectively. No latitudinal trend was detected for *BA*, or any longitudinal trends for any of the three species.

Habitat and Niche Analysis for Idotea spp. in the Baltic Sea

Salinity, temperature and wave forcing are known to strongly influence littoral communities. In the microtidal Baltic Sea, the species of Idotea are mostly found in the canopy of Fucus vesiculosus and in the Zostera marina belt (Table 1). Water transparency (Secchi depth) has deteriorated over the past 50 years, probably caused by eutrophication (Sandén and Håkansson, 1996), and has led to an upward shift of many macrophytes in the Baltic Sea. This has most likely also affected the habitat of Idotea. Today, F. vesiculosus can be found in the Baltic Sea from 0.2 down to 5.5 meters while it occurred down to 10 m 50 years ago (Schories and Wilhelmsen, 2006; Torn et al., 2006). The usual depth of Zostera in the Baltic Sea is 2-4 m (extremes: 1-10 m), but at some localities (Germany, Poland) the maximum depth of Z. marina has been reduced from 6 m (in 1960) to less than 2 m (Boström et al., 2003). During wintertime Idotea spp. supposedly take shelter in deeper waters to escape the ice cover (Fig. 5). Kangas et al. (1982) mentioned juveniles over-wintering in the Fucus belt, but in general they are rarely found in the littoral zone during the winter months. In spring, Hørlyck (1973b) observed that BA migrated earlier to the littoral than GR, but also disappeared before GR in autumn. During ice-free winters, downward migration may be less pronounced (Haage, 1975).

The habitat and niche description for Baltic Idotea spp. can be found in Table 2 as well as Figs. 5-6. BA is a typical inhabitant of the middle zone of the littoral, generally shallow waters with varying wave exposure. It can be dominant at exposed as well as at sheltered sites (Korheina, 1981; Kangas et al., 1982). Orav-Kotta and Kotta (2004) suggested that more exposed habitats allowed BA to escape from predation. According to Haage (1975), BA occurs in lower numbers at sheltered sites than CH. Engkvist et al. (2004) argued that wave exposure determines the choice of microhabitats, based on observations that BA in weak water movements grazed both on F. vesiculosus and F. serratus. whereas in strong water movements BA mainly occurred on the more exposure-tolerant F. vesiculosus. Outside the Baltic Sea, Idotea is often found rafting on floating seaweed (Gutow et al., 2007). For the Baltic Sea rafting idoteids have up to now only been reported on drifting algal mats after mass-blooms of annual algae in the Koinguiste Bay, Estonia (BA and CH, Lauringson and Kotta, 2006), the open sea north-west of the Åland islands (Idotea spp., Bonsdorff, 1992) or on floating Zostera blades in the Kiel Bay (M. Thiel, personal communication).

CH occurs more closely to the shore or in lagoons and mainly in the surface layer down to some meters (Zettler, 1999; Lapucki and Normant, 2008) (Fig. 5), but some extreme observations down to 30 m exist (Jazdzewski, 1970; Bobsien, 2006) (Table 2). *CH* does not occur in open coast regions (Sywula, 1964b). The species is characterised by a wide salinity range (Fig. 6). *CH* prefers exposed sites that are fully to moderately exposed (Forsman, 1956; Sywula, 1964b; Lapucki et al., 2005), but *CH* can also be found in



	I. balthica	I. chelipes	I. granulosa
Zone	Middle zone of littoral	Coastal zone, closely to the shore	Sublittoral, open coast region
	Shallow	Shallow	Only shallow
Temperature [°C]*	-0.3-21.8	-0.3-21.9	-0.3-21.7
Depth [m] \emptyset	Surface water <i>Fucus</i> belt	Surface water down to several meters (3-5)	-
Max.	20-21	7-30	5-11
Wave exposures	Exposed Moderate Shelter	Exposed Moderate Shelter	(Strongly) Exposed – –
Salinity [PSU]*	Euryhaline 2.7-24.3	Euryhaline 3.2-19.7	Euryhaline 4.6-24.7

Table 2. Niche description for *BA*, *CH* and *GR* in the Baltic Sea (preferences in bold-type). * Data from circulation model based on monthly averages for the years 1995-2004.

shallow and sheltered sites (Jazdzewski, 1970; Kangas et al., 1982; Hällfors et al., 1984), like the inner Archipelago Sea (Salemaa, 1979, 1986). Where *CH* is found in sheltered sites it is often the dominant idoteid and can constitute up to 77% of all isopods (Jansson and Matthiesen, 1971; Korheina, 1981; Zettler, 1999; Jazdzewski et al., 2005), although Salemaa (1979) reported a shared dominance at sheltered sites for *BA* and *CH* in the Finnish Archipelago Sea. *CH* is numerous on breakwaters (Sywula, 1964b) and often a dominant species in the eelgrass community (Bobsien, 2006).

There are only few studies describing the small-scale distribution for GR, which is relatively rare in the Baltic Sea. It prefers strong water movements and is restricted to fully exposed shores and beaches (Forsman, 1956; Sywula, 1964b; Salemaa, 1986; Engkvist et al., 2004) (Fig. 5). In

open Baltic Sea localities GR can occur at higher abundances than CH (Jazdzewski et al., 2005). GR can be found in the surface water down to some meters (Haage, 1975; Korheina, 1981; Salemaa, 1985; Engkvist et al., 2004). Whereas Forsman (1956) maintained that the species never goes deeper than 3 m, Zettler et al. (2000) found GR in a sample from 10.5 m (Table 2). GR mostly occurs in open coast regions (Fig. 5). The salinity range of GR in the Baltic varies between 4.6-24.7 PSU (Table 2).

Based on recorded distributions of *Idotea* and modeled temperature and salinity we found that *CH* on average occurs at higher summer temperatures than *BA* and *GR* (Student-Newman-Keuls, p < 0.05), while *BA*, on average, occurs at lower salinities than *CH* and *GR* (Student-Newman-Keuls, p < 0.05) (Fig. 6). This coincides with the geographical observations, and salinity ranges described

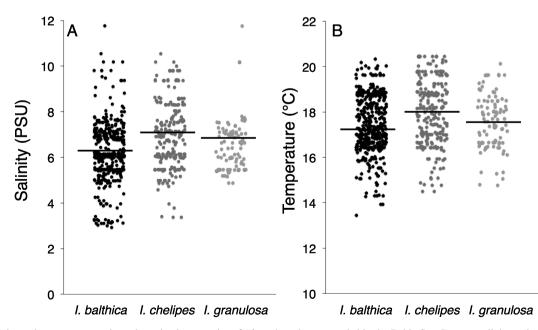


Fig. 6. Salinity and temperature at sites where the three species of *Idotea* have been recorded in the Baltic Sea. Data on salinity and temperature were extracted from the RCO circulation model as averages for the months June-August between 1995-2004. The horizontal bars indicate the means.

Community Composition and Habitat Segregation

above. Whereas *CH* is a typical brackish-water species and can be found in a wide salinity range, it is surprising that *BA* has penetrated deep into the brackish-water of the Baltic Sea. Our analyses also suggest that *BA* and *CH* differ in their temperature preferences (Fig. 6). In the analysis of historical data (HELCOM) on temperature and salinity for the Baltic Sea we detected a significant increase between 1960 and 2010 in surface temperature of 0.06° C per year (p < 0.0001) and a declining salinity of 0.014 PSU° per year (p < 0.0001). These changes may have caused a shift in the distribution of *Idotea* in the Baltic Sea (see Discussion).

On the rocky shores of the Baltic Sea, *Idotea* spp. are limited to a few habitat types determined by the low species diversity of macroalgae, phanerogams, and their epiphytes. The benthic community serves both as a food source and as shelter against predators. Species of *Idotea* use a range of vegetation types as substratum/shelter, but fewer as a nutritional source. All reported types of vegetation hosting *Idotea* are listed in Table 3. The typical hard-bottom habitat for *Idotea* spp. in the north-eastern Baltic Sea consists of the dominant macroalga *Fucus vesiculosus/radicans* together with some smaller species, e.g., *Pilayella littoralis, Cladophora glom*-

Table 3. Reported vegetation and animals used as structural or nutritional host for *BA*, *CH* and *GR* in the Baltic Sea. * Epiphyte; $^+$ in the Skagerrak; *Hotea* in the Baltic Sea.

	I. ba	lthica	I. ch	nelipes	I. granulosa	
	Structural	Nutritional	Structural	Nutritional	Structural	Nutritional
Red algae						
Ceramium sp.	Х		Х		Х	
Ceramium nodulosum*						X+
Ceramium tenuicorne	Х	Х				
Delesseria sp.					Х	
Furcellaria lumbricalis	Х		Х		Х	
Brown algae						
Ascophyllum nodosum	X^+		X^+		X^+	X^+
Dictyosiphon foeniculaceus*	Х	Х	Х		Х	
Fucus vesiculosus	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	
Fucus serratus	Х	Х			Х	Х
Fucus evanescens	Х	Х				
Fucus radians	Х	Х				
Ectocarpus sp.	Х		Х			
Elachista fucicola*	Х	Х	Х			X^+
Laminaria sp.	Х		Х		Х	
Pilayella littoralis*	Х	Х			Х	X^+
Green algae						
Chara connivens		Х				
Chara tomentose		Х				
Chorda filum	Х	Х	Х		Х	
Cladophora rupestris	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	
Cladophora glomerata*	Х	Х			Х	
<i>Spirogyra</i> sp.		X#		X#		X#
Ulothrix implexa				Х		
Ulva intestinalis	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х	
Ulva lactuca	Х	Х	Х		Х	
Phanerogams						
Potamogeton pectinatus	Х	Х				
Ruppia maritima	Х	Х				
Ruppia spiralis	Х	Х	Х		Х	
Zannichellia palustris	Х		Х		Х	
Zostera marina	Х	Х	Х		Х	
Animals						
Chironomus larvae		Х				
Dipteran larvae		X				
Einhornia crustulenta	Х					
Electra	X					
Balanus improvisus	X					
Mytilus edulis	X		Х			
Oligochaetes						
Planktonic animals		Х				
		Λ				

erata, Ulva intestinalis, and Furcellaria lumbricalis. Typical soft-bottom habitats are dominated by the eelgrass Zostera marina that often co-occurs with other phanerogams like Potamogeton pectinatus, Zannichellia palustris, and Ruppia spiralis (Vesakoski et al., 2008). Other meso-grazers, e.g. amphipods of the genus Gammarus are often found together with Idotea spp. In mesocosm experiments Gohse-Reimann (2007) demonstrated interspecific competition between Gammarus salinus Spooner, 1947 and BA where the biomass of BA was negatively affected by the amphipod. Betz (1974) observed that the population of CH decreased dramatically in August after a mass occurrence of the isopod Lekanesphaera hookeri (Leach, 1814) in the Fucus belt in the Schlei, Germany, due to competition for food and space.

BA is most abundant on Fucus vesiculous in the Baltic Sea (Salemaa, 1979; Korheina, 1981; Kangas et al., 1982; Jormalainen et al., 2008), which is the preferred microhabitat compared to Cladomphora glomerata, Chorda filum, Ulva intestinalis, and Ceramium (Orav-Kotta and Kotta, 2004) and to Potamogeton pectinatus, Zostera marina, Z. palustris, and C. glomerata (Vesakoski et al., 2008). In declining Fucus belts, BA preferentially occurs on Furcellaria lumbricalis compared to Pilavella littorlis (Kotta et al., 2000a). Vesakoski et al. (2008) found no structural host preferences between the sexes, whereas Merilaita and Jormalainen (1997, 2000) observed that males and females differed in their preferred microhabitat and the host choice (Jormalainen et al., 2001a). Males stayed more on apical than on basal parts of F. vesiculosus, while the females stayed equally often on both parts (Jormalainen et al., 2001a). Before females release their brood, however, they switch from F. vesiculosus to C. glomerata (Jansson and Matthiesen, 1971). Juveniles of BA and CH are most abundant on C. *glomerata* (up to 100 ind. g^{-1} dw algae or 28 000 ind. m^{-2}) (Jansson and Matthiesen, 1971; Jansson, 1974; Salemaa, 1979). After rapid growth the juveniles switch from filamentous algae (C. glomerata) in the upper littoral to the epiphyte P. littoralis and then, finally, to the deeper Fucus belt (Salemaa, 1978; Kangas et al., 1982), where they reach sexual maturity (Salemaa, 1979). This could be a reason, while the abundance is highest in the C. glomerata zone (see Distribution and Abundances) (Table 1). BA has been found, e.g., on bryozoans and on hydroids attached to hard substrates (Zettler et al., 2000), on different sediments types (sand, mud, clay, rocks, gravel, pebbles), under stones, and in Mytilus edulis/trossulus beds (Anger, 1975; Jormalainen and Tuomi, 1989; material from the SMNH). Jormalainen and Tuomi (1989) found a preference of female BA for the underside of stones and Mytilus shells, whereas the males often were found on light-green apical parts of Fucus. BA also occurs in seagrass beds at moderate to high densities (Boström and Bonsdorff, 2000; Boström et al., 2002).

CH occurs on a more narrow range of vegetation types compared to *BA* (Table 3). In Tvärminne, Finland *CH* showed a tendency to prefer the epiphyte *Dictyosiphon* as a microhabitat (Salemaa, 1979). *CH* can also be found on a diversity of bottoms, like clay, sand, detritus, salt marsh or stones and gravel. Korheina (1981) found that *CH* dominated over *BA* and *GR* on sandy clay and soft detrital material at the Falsterbo Peninsula, Sweden. GR can be found on similar algal species and substrates as CH (Table 3). GR has been reported only from few sediment types, like sand with scattered rocks, large stones and rocks or pilings covered with vegetation (Sywula, 1964b; Korheina, 1981; material from the SMNH). Zettler et al. (2000) found GR on *Delesseria* sp. (Table 3). In an experiment of habitat choice *Idotea* spp. from the Falsterbo Peninsula, Sweden favoured *Ruppia spiralis* (Korheina, 1981). In the presence of *BA*, however, *GR* shifted its preference to *Chorda filum* and in the presence of *CH* to *F. vesiculosus*. Korheina (1981) suggested a lower competitive ability for *GR*, which was supported by the dominance of *BA* and *CH* at exposed localities at the Falsterbo Peninsula, Sweden.

Habitat segregation for *Idotea* in the Baltic Sea seems to depend on the local habitat structure. *BA* and *CH* coexist at different sheltered places in the Baltic Sea (Korheina, 1981; Sommer, 1997; Zettler, 1999; own observations). Moreover, *BA* was observed together with *GR* at fully exposed sites in the outer archipelago or on rocky shores (Salemaa, 1978, 1979; own observations). Coexistence of all three species at exposed sites is possible, but rarely described (Korheina, 1981). Competitive interactions are not well described, but *BA* showed decreased abundance in its preferred microhabitat in the presence of *CH* or *GR* (Salemaa, 1987) (Fig. 5).

Mobility

Baltic specimens of *Idotea* are small crustaceans and show relatively weak mobility (Jansson and Källander, 1968; Salemaa, 1978; Lapucki et al., 2005; own observations). Species of Idotea are poor long-distance swimmers (probably few kilometers) and swimming is sporadic including short excursions from alga to alga. According to Jansson and Källander (1968), BA and GR avoid swimming up into the free water-column. Across substrata, e.g., seaweed surfaces, Idotea move by means of crawling. Nevertheless, Idotea are more mobile than some other meso-grazers, e.g., some amphipods and gastropods. BA swims actively, especially the males, in search for food or for mates (Merilaita and Jormalainen, 1997; Boström and Bonsdorff, 2000; Jaschinski, 2007). CH is a less active swimmer than BA (Jansson and Matthiesen, 1971). For GR, Pavia et al. (1999) suggested a size-dependent mobility: as the body size increases, mobility decreases. However, generally Idotea spend most time feeding attached to a host plant. Activity patterns strongly depend on season and light intensity. For Idotea the activity is high through the summer and during spring and in the autumn the activity is highest at night (Jansson and Källander, 1968; Hørlyck, 1973a). Jansson and Källander (1968) reported that activity increased for BA below 400-800 lux. During the winter season Hørlyck (1973a) could not observe any swimming activity (for BA: November- March; for GR: September-March).

Food Preferences

The species of *Idotea* are able to use several food types as nutritional source (Table 3). Food preference appears to differ between species, microhabitat and locality. Naylor (1955b) described *Idotea* as mostly omnivorous. Under laboratory conditions both cannibalism and feeding on moulted exuviae have been observed (Sywula, 1964b; Jansson and Matthiesen, 1971; Sommer, 1997; own observations). Thus Idotea, especially BA, are considered an omnivore and not only a herbivore in the Baltic Sea (Table 3). In the Baltic Sea, Salemaa (1978) suggested that adults are potentially omnivorous scavengers and Gohse-Reimann (2007) fed BA with chironomid larvae. BA seems to thrive on plant food as well as on food of purely animal origin (dead conspecifics, dead dipteran larvae, freshwater oligochaetes) (Sywula, 1964b). Fluorescence microscopy of fecal pellets indicated a broad diet for BA in the Baltic Sea (Svensson et al., 2004) with a diet including microalgae (including diatom chains), bacteria and planktonic animals (Sommer, 1997; Svensson et al., 2004; Jaschinski and Sommer, 2008). In gut analyses of BA, detritus and bacteria also have been found (Möbius, 1873; Jephson et al., 2008). However, Idotea are strongly associated with vegetation (Table 3) and among the ecologically most important grazers in the Baltic Fucus belt (Engkvist et al., 2000, 2004; Jormalainen et al., 2008; Råberg and Kautsky, 2008) and eelgrass beds (Zostera marina) (Boström and Bonsdorff, 1997; Jaschinski and Sommer, 2008). Their grazing activity can have substantial impact on the biomass and community structure, especially on epiphytes of macroalgae or seagrass. Published grazing rates are listed in Table 4 and Salemaa (1987) suggested that feeding rates are proportional to the size of the species. Both males and females prefer Fucus not only as food, but also as shelter (Kangas et al., 1982; Salemaa, 1987; Engkvist et al., 2000; Nilsson et al., 2004).

BA is very common on F. vesiculosus, and is one of its most important herbivores (Korpinen et al., 2010), but other species like F. serratus, F. evanescens, and F. radicans are also consumed (Schaffelke et al., 1995; Engkvist et al., 2004; Forslund, 2009). Forslund (2009) suggested that selective grazing limited the southern range of F. radicans. In general, grazing occurs on all parts of the *Fucus* thallus, younger tissue (Engkvist et al., 2000), as well as older parts (Salemaa, 1987). On the Swedish east coast most grazing activity on Fucus spp. was observed in autumn (October-November) (Engkvist et al., 2004) and overlaps with observations from the Finnish Archipelago Sea. While Salemaa (1987) reported more effective grazing by females than by males, Merilaita and Jormalainen (2000) found that males consumed significantly more food than did females. Females preferred the lower, old parts of F. vesiculosus and males the younger, apical parts (Jormalainen et al., 1992; Merilaita and Jormalainen, 1997). This difference in feeding behavior coincides with the habitat segregation of the genders, where males occur more on the upper parts of the algae while females seem to prefer the more sheltered, lower parts. Moreover, feeding on decaying parts and dead Fucus algae was observed (Sywula, 1964b; Haahtela, 1984). Juveniles of BA often feed on the filamentous green alga Cladophora glomerata, which is described as a nursing ground (Salemaa, 1978; Haahtela, 1984), or on the brown alga Pilayella littoralis. Adults seem not to be well adapted to Cladophora where they have been observed to get entangled in the algal filaments and die (Orav-Kota and Kotta, 2004).

Interestingly, adults from different localities appear to differ in their feeding preference (Goecker and Kåll, 2003), although in most cases Fucus vesiculosus was favoured over other species (Korheina, 1981; Haahtela, 1984; Jormalainen et al., 2001b). In a study of BA from the Falsterbo Peninsula, Sweden (Korheina, 1981) the green alga Ulva lactuca was the least consumed, while U. lactuca was the most preferred (together with larvae of Chironomus spp.) in a Zostera marina-community at Falkenstein, Germany (Gohse-Reimann, 2007). BA feeding directly on the eelgrass Zostera marina has only been observed during an experimental study in Finland and epiphytic algae appear to form the major food source in eelgrass communities (Boström and Mattila, 1999). Kotta et al. (2004) have also observed seasonal grazing on Charophytes with a peak in October. Nicotri (1980) suggested that BA selects host plants more based on its robustness as a microhabitat than its attractiveness as a food source. However, in this trade-off the food choice (= epiphytes) seems to be more important for the grazer than shelter (Boström and Mattilla, 1999).

Epiphytes, mainly filamentous algae, are an important food source for Idotea. Eelgrass growth appears to be positively affected by grazing from BA through removal of epiphytes, which may increase seagrass productivity up to 40% in mesocosm experiments (Jaschinski and Sommer, 2008). Thus, in addition to abiotic factors (temperature, light, nutrients), grazing from BA can control the epiphyte growth on seagrass. BA significantly preferred filamentous algae, like Cladophora spp., Pilavella littoralis and Furcellaria lumbricalis, after massive increase of filamentous algae or a decline of Fucus or when BA was exposed to longer starvation periods (Kotta et al., 2000a; Goecker and Kåll, 2003). In Estonia, BA showed low long-term grazing rates of 2.2% of the Furcellaria lumbricalis and of 4.7% of the Pilavella littoralis production (Kotta et al., 2000a; Orav-Kotta and Kotta, 2004). In contrast, based on the dry weight changes of P. littoralis in a 48-hour experiment, the short-term grazing rate from BA was 400% of the algal production (Orav-Kotta and Kotta, 2004). Despite such high short-term grazing rates, BA seems generally unable to control the formation of the enormous mats of filamentous algae frequently observed in the Baltic Sea.

Chemical composition of the diet often plays an important role in food preferences of herbivores (Paul et al., 2001). In general, grazers prefer parts with high nitrogen to carbon content as well as sugar-rich parts of the algae and avoid defensive compounds like phlorotannins (often in high concentrations in basal parts of *F. vesiculosus* [Hemmi et al., 2005]). Some studies have shown that *BA* prefers algae with low levels of phlorotannins or non-grazed parts (Wikström et al., 2006; Yun et al., 2010), while other studies have found no response or even attraction to phlorotannin-rich parts (Jormalainen et al., 2001b, 2005). Further studies are necessary to investigate the relationship between *Idotea* spp. grazing and phlorotannin production in Baltic Sea *Fucus* spp.

Little information is available on the food preference of CH (Table 3) and on consumption rates (Table 4). Similar to BA, adults of CH are often found on F. vesiculosus. Salemaa (1987) observed the highest feeding preferences for old stipes of *Fucus vesiculosus* for males of CH. CH are also reported to consume macroalgae of the genera Ulva

Species	Region	I. balthica	I. chelipes	I. granulosa	Reference
Chorda filum	Falsterbo Peninsula, S	7.1+			Korheina, 1981
[iiig ww iiid day] <i>Cladophora rupestris</i>	Falsterbo Peninsula, S	6.4+			Korheina, 1981
[mg ww ma ' day '] <i>Cladophora</i> spp.	Archipelago Sea, F	11.3*			Goecker and Kåll, 2003
Fucus evanescens	Bay of Kiel, G	<1.5			Schaffelke et al., 1995
[mg ww ind ' day '] Fucus vesiculosus [mg www ind-1 Acv-1]	Archipelago Sea, F	Female: 2.1 Mole: 1-2	Female: 0.7	Female: 1.6	Salemaa, 1987
Lung ww mud uay J	Archipelago Sea, F	Female: 2.71 ± 1.73 Male: 4.33 ± 7.00	C.O	Marc. 1.0	Tuomi et al., 1988b
	Archipelago Sea, F Bay of Kiel, G Falsterho Peninsula S	up to 3.5 17 5+			Goecker and Kåll, 2003 Schaffelke et al., 1995 Korheina 1981
Ruppia spiralis	Falsterbo Peninsula, S	9.0+			Korheina, 1981
[mg ww mada aday] Ulva intestinalis [mg ww ind ⁻¹ day ⁻¹] Ulva luctuca	Falsterbo Peninsula, S Archipelago Sea, F Falsterbo Peninsula, S	8.3 ⁺ 22.6* 1.6 ⁺			Korheina, 1981 Goecker and Kåll, 2003 Korheina, 1981
[mg ww mad · day ·] <i>Fucus vesiculosus</i> [mg ww h ⁻¹]	Archipelago Sea, F	Female day: 0.18 Female night: 0.7 Male day: 0.25 Male night: 1.2			Merilaita and Jormalainen, 2000
Epiphytes	Åland Islands, F	1.25 1.25			Boström and Mattila, 2005
[mg dw ind ' day '] Fucus vesiculosus	Kukumäe Bay, E	Max. 400.0			Kotta et al., 2006
[ing uw ind ⁻ day ⁻] <i>Pilayella littoralis</i> [ms dw ind ⁻¹ dav ⁻¹]	Kukumäe Bay, E	Max. 300.0			Kotta et al., 2006
Potamogeton pectinatus [ms_dw.ind ⁻¹ dav ⁻¹]	Åland Islands, F	1.1			
[ung uw ma day] Ruppia maritima	Åland Islands, F	0.25			Boström and Mattila, 2005
[ing uw ind uay] Zostera marina [Åland Islands, F	0.21			Boström and Mattila, 2005
Furcellaria lumbricalis	Koiguiste Bay, E	3-20 r			Kotta et al., 2000
[mg dw aigae × g dw <i>laotea</i> ⁻ day ⁻] <i>Pilayella littoralis</i>	Koiguiste Bay, E	$[-0.125 \mod 0.000 \mod 0.000 = 0.0000 \mod 0.0000 \mod 0.00000 \mod 0.000000 \mod 0.00000000$			Kotta et al., 2000
[mg dw algae \times g dw <i>laoted</i> $^{\circ}$ day $^{\circ}$]	Koiguiste Bay, E	$[= 0.500 \text{ mg dw mg d}^2]$			Orav-Kotta and Kotta, 2004

Table 4. Daily consumption rates for BA, CH and GR on algae, epiphytes and phanerogams at different localities in the Baltic Sea (E = Estonia, F = Finland, G = Germany, S = Sweden).⁺ = after 24 h of

and *Cladophora* in the Polish Baltic Sea (Lapucki et al., 2005; Lapucki and Normant, 2008). Betz (1974) observed that juveniles of *CH* were not associated with *F. vesiculosus*, but with diatom films and different chlorophytes. Sommer (1997) investigated grazing pressure of adult *CH* on epiphytic diatoms and cyanobacteria, and it was suggested that *CH* has the potential to drive succession in periphyton communities.

Reported diets of *GR* include all sorts of algal material in the Baltic Sea (Salemaa, 1987), but detailed studies are rare (Table 3). In the Skagerrak *GR* is the most abundant crustacean on the knotted wrack *Ascophyllum nodosum* (Pavia et al., 1999). Large *GR* (>10 mm) fed mostly on meristematic apices, while the small conspecifics (3-8 mm) preferred the macroepiphytes on *A. nodosum*. The opposite pattern was reported from Karez et al. (2000), where *GR* preferred older parts instead of meristematic tissues of the brown alga *Fucus vesiculosus*. Both studies noticed a significant preference for the epiphytes on the macroalgae. Neither nutritional values nor effects of chemical defence were investigated, but Toth (2007) observed that different seaweed species from the Skagerrak coast developed induced resistance in response to direct grazing of *GR*.

Predators on Idotea spp.

Idotea are important food sources for numerous predators. Some Plathyhelminthes, e.g., Provortex balticus, Promestostoma mamoratum, Convoluta spp., feed on Idotea, which can make up to 17% of their total diet (Jansson, 1974). The decapod shrimp (Palaemon elegans Rathke, 1837 and P. adspersus Rathke, 1837) are known to consume BA (Jephson et al., 2008). The goosander duck Mergus merganser is reported to feed exclusively on Gammarus and Idotea during the first half of August in the Finnish Archipelago Sea (Segerstråle, 1944b). However, the main predators on Idotea are fish (Sywula, 1964b; Salemaa, 1978; Korheina, 1981; Bobsien, 2006). Analyses of stomach contents showed that BA and CH were eaten by 23 different Baltic marine and freshwater fish species (Salemaa, 1978; Bobsien, 2006) (Table 5). Significant predators feeding on *Idotea* are perch (Perca fluviatilis), cod (Gadus morhua) and eelpout (Zoarces viviparus) (Jansson and Källander, 1968; Haahtela, 1984; Jormalainen and Tuomi, 1989; Engkvist et al., 2000). Around Vilm island/Greifswald Lagoon the straightnose pipefish Nerophis ophidion (20% of gut content) and the black goby Gobius niger (>60%) were the most important predators on CH, whereas at Falkenstein/Kiel Bay BA was mainly consumed by sand gobies (Pomatoschistus minutus) (>10%), fifteen-spined stickleback (Spinachia spinachia) (>60%) and Zoarces viviparus (>40%). For the latter two species, Bobsien (2006) described that young isopods were preferred (size: 1.4-3.8 mm), but in some cases individuals up to 15.3 mm were consumed. Korheina (1981) observed that Z. viviparus preferred the smaller CH over the larger BA. When body length reached >16 mm, BA seemed to escape predation from S. spinachia (Bobsien, 2006).

The *Fucus* belt forms a mosaic of microhabitats of different colours and shades. Evolution of polymorphic cryptic colouration appears to be an adaptation of *Idotea* to reduce predation. Predation experiments with *Z. viviparus* and *Cyclopterus lumpus* by Salemaa (1978) showed that

apostatic selection is involved in maintaining the balance of colour polymorphism of BA. Five major phenotypes of BA exist (uniformis, albafusca, maculata, bilineata and *lineata*), where the *uniformis* type is the most abundant in the Finnish Archipelago Sea followed by albafusca (Salemaa, 1978; Merilaita, 2001). The lineata type does not exist in the northern Baltic. Phenotypic diversity is lower in fully exposed habitats and may be a consequence of the less diverse Fucus communities at fully exposed sites (Salemaa, 1978) or lower predation pressure. Males are often lighter than females and are found more often on brightly coloured and exposed apical algal parts (Jormalainen and Tuomi, 1989). Both sexes also have the ability to adjust their colour intensity according to the background colour. BA is more active by night than by day, especially for males in the breeding season (Merilaita and Jormalinen, 2000). The preference for a dark background is stronger at day than at night. The visual protection from predators probably plays a central role in the selection of microhabitats and seems more important for females than for males (Merilaita and Jormalainen, 2000). However, under laboratory conditions Boström and Mattila (1999) observed that habitat choice of BA was not affected by the presence of perch (Perca fluviatilis). Independently of the presence of the predator, a habitat with low density of Zostera marina leaves (but with epiphytes) was still preferred over one with a higher leaf density (= more shelter).

DISCUSSION

Changes in Distribution

The maps for the three species of *Idotea* in the Baltic Sea indicate that the large-scale distribution has remained fairly constant during the last 150 years (Figs. 2-4), but our analyses found a significant shift towards the south for CH and GR. Although such trends in recorded distributions should be interpreted with caution, there are several examples of distributional changes on the regional scale in the Baltic Sea during the last decades. Whereas Bobsien (2006) mentioned a relatively constant abundance of BA in the eelgrass beds of the Kiel Bay over the last 30 years, the survey by Zettler et al. (2000) found only sporadic individuals of GR along the German Baltic coastline. Along the Polish coast, all three species of Idotea were common during the 20th century, but more recent studies could not find GR in the Bay of Puck nor in the Bay of Gdansk, suggesting a long-term change in distribution (Sywula, 1964b; Jazdzewski et al., 2005). Lapucki and Normant (2008) pointed out that CH is now most abundant in the Gulf of Gdansk whereas several other benthic species have disappeared through many ecological changes in this region. In contrast, Kotta et al. (2000b) observed that CH is now very rare in extensive areas of the Gulf of Riga compared to the 1970s. The authors proposed that the decline of CH probably reflects the decreasing cover of benthic vegetation in the area since also other phytophilous species have declined, e.g., Jaera albifrons Leach, 1814, Asellus aquaticus (Linnaeus, 1758), and Lymnaea peregra. Similar patterns were observed by Orav-Kotta et al. (2004) for BA in the Väinameri Archipelago Sea, Estonia where BA has declined from high abundance in 1960s. There is a rather dramatic decline of *Idotea* spp. along the Swedish West coast

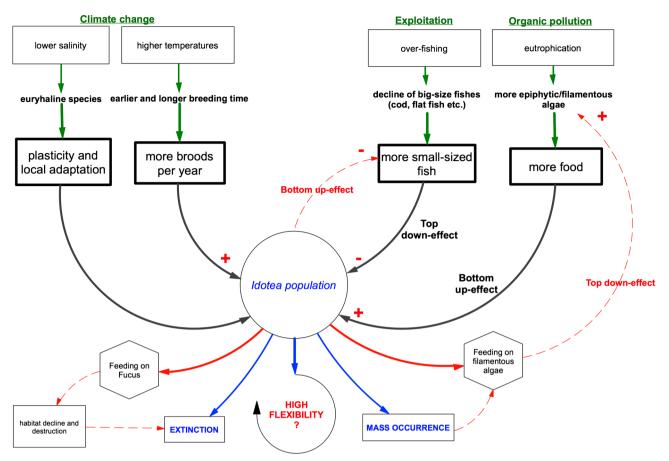


Fig. 7. A conceptual model of community dynamics with focus on *Idotea* spp. The green upper text and the boxes below show on-going environmental and human generated changes. The boxes in bold show possible changes in responses and ecological interactions relevant for *Idotea*. Black arrows indicate direct effects on population dynamics of *Idotea*. Red arrows indicate indirect effects with feedbacks to population dynamics of *Idotea*. Blue arrows suggest how populations of *Idotea* spp. may respond numerically. Hatched arrows indicate weaker effects.

(Skagerrak and Kattegat). Collections at the SMNH (1850-1933) and data from Wahrberg (1930) indicate that Idotea used to be numerous at several locations, e.g., in the Gullmar and Koster Fjords. Baden and Pihl (1984) described Idotea occurring at high abundances and during the whole season in the Gullmar Fjord, but today especially BA and CH occur in low densities (personal observations) or may even be difficult to find (Jephson et al., 2008; Moksnes et al., 2008). We might speculate that the decline of *Idotea* in the Kattegat and Skagerrak is caused either by high nutrient loads and the loss of Zostera beds (about 58% since the 1980s [Baden et al., 2003]), and/or changes in the food web by overfishing (Baden et al., 2010; Fig. 7). The Skagerrak and Kattegat form an important transition between the Atlantic and the Baltic Sea. If this corridor is disappearing as a habitat for Idotea, the Baltic populations will become increasingly isolated from the Atlantic populations. Dispersal from Atlantic populations into the Baltic Sea is further constrained by the water circulation where transport of surface water is mainly out from the Baltic Sea. In addition to possible trends the temporal change in distribution of *Idotea* also seems to be driven by local extinctions and mass occurrences, which are described for some parts of the Baltic Sea (Table 1, Fig. 7). Mass occurrences may appear in cycles although data are still scarce (a first occurrence in the late 1970's and early

1980's: Kangas et al., 1982; Hällfors et al., 1984, and a second around 2000: Engkvist et al., 2004), but were observed to stretch along a 100 km coastline.

The Habitat of Idotea spp.

Salinity conditions mainly determine the potential habitat of the species of Idotea in the Baltic Sea (Figs. 5-6). GR is obviously not able to tolerate low salinity as well as the other two congeners, which is reflected in its distribution pattern coinciding with higher salinities. CH may escape competition with the other two species by tolerating periods of very low salinity (Figs. 5-6). BA, in contrast, prefers more saline waters (Zettler, 2000, 2001), but in our analyses BA is the most abundant idoteid in the northern Gulf of Bothnia and penetrates deeper into the Gulf of Finland than do CH and GR (Figs. 2-4), where the salinity is lower. In experimental studies CH is known to have a better osmoregulatory capability compared to BA and GR (Hørlyck, 1973b). So why does CH not enter deeper into the Gulf of Bothnia and the Gulf of Finland? It may be speculated that the average temperature also plays an important role for the habitat of CH. BA is known to be better adapted to rapid temperature changes than sudden salinity changes (Bulnheim, 1974), whereas CH may prefer warmer temperatures (Fig. 6), which coincides with the

preferred habitat of CH in lagoons and estuaries (Zettler, 2000, 2001) and the limit of distribution in the Baltic Sea. Experimental studies of osmoregulatory ability also suggest that salinity and temperature may interact to limit CH to higher salinities in high temperatures (Vlasblom et al., 1977). Distribution limits for Idotea in Europe outside the Baltic Sea are not well known. Individuals of Idotea spp. from Vaideguba/Finnmark, North Norway and the Kola Peninsula. Russia collected during the Sandeberg expedition (1877) are reported in the Idotea collection of the SMNH. In addition, Ingolfsson (1992) reported GR in Finnmark, Northern Norway, However, the winter-spring water temperatures are generally lower in the Baltic Sea than in many of these subarctic regions. According to Sywula (1964b), BA occupies the ecologically most favourable sites (mostly deeper and protected areas) in the Baltic, and may displace GR to regions with more water movements and ecologically less favourable areas (open sea, surf zone, manmade structures).

Sywula (1964b) proposed the theory that *CH* entered into the present Baltic Sea between the geological transition from the Ancylus Lake to the Littorina Sea about 7500 yrs BP. He argued that *CH* was the only species of the North Sea *Idotea*, which was able to penetrate early into the newly formed Littorina Sea due to its ability to colonize estuaries and lagoons. Moreover, *CH* is resistant to wave exposure and could supposedly spread widely in the new habitat. With increasing salinity several marine species invaded the Littorina Sea, like *BA* and *GR*. They moved northwards and eastwards along the vegetation belt and pushed *CH* into isolated lagoons again.

Little is known about population structure or the presence of local adaptations of *Idotea* in the Baltic Sea. Individuals of *Idotea* are brooders, which could facilitate evolution of local adaptations. Dispersal of juveniles in the coastal circulation is probably the main mechanism, but all species of *Idotea* are known to disperse through rafting on drifting seaweed (Gutow and Franke, 2003), although this is not yet described for the Baltic Sea. Future studies of population genetics may resolve the question of population structure throughout the Baltic Sea and beyond.

Trophic Interactions and Grazing Effects

Idotea may play an important ecological role in the Baltic Sea through grazing in biotopes formed by the foundation species F. vesiculosus and Zostera marina (Kangas et al., 1982; Boström and Mattila, 2005). Grazing can affect these macrophytes indirectly by reducing the epiphytes (possible positive effects) or directly by feeding on the macrophyte tissue (negative effect). The effect of *Idotea* thus depends on their food choice and the grazing intensity, which is mainly a function of their abundance (Jaschinski, 2007). However, the numerous studies on grazing by *Idotea* on macrophytes and their epiphytes cannot be easily generalised. Fucus vesiculosus seems to be most preferred by Idotea spp. both as a nutritional source and as a habitat, but several studies show that *Idotea* are also able to switch to several other food sources and habitats in the Baltic Sea (Table 3). High flexibility in terms of food and habitat characterises Idotea in the Baltic Sea (Fig. 7). Fucus vesiculosus is the only large, perennial alga in the Baltic Sea forming a complex habitat structure, which does not disappear during the winter (Jormalainen et al., 2001b). The occasional preference of *BA* for phlorotannin-rich algal species, e.g., *F. vesiculosus*, suggests an adaptation/co-evolution to brown algae, maybe a local adaptation for Baltic Sea populations (Jormalainen et al., 2001b; Hemmi and Jormalainen, 2004). The contrasting results for grazing rates as a function of phlorotannins are interesting and call for further studies.

High grazing rates of *Idotea* on epiphytes could reduce ecosystem-wide negative effects from eutrophication by removing epiphytes from foundation species like F. vesiculosus and Z. marina. Råberg and Kautsky (2007b) showed that a consumer community of BA and the gastropod Theodoxus fluviatilis significantly reduced the epiphytic biomass. However, experimental studies indicate that Idotea spp. cannot always control outbreaks of filamentous epiphytes (Lotze and Worm, 2000; Kotta et al., 2006). Nevertheless, in experimental studies BA was able to reduce the epiphytes on Z. marina with nearly 50%, which enhanced eelgrass production with up to 63% (Jaschinski, 2007). Boström and Mattila (2005) reported a six-fold higher feeding rate on epiphytes than on Zostera marina (Table 4) indicating a net positive effect on the eelgrass. In field experiments in the western Baltic Sea, Worm et al. (2000) found that meso-grazers, including BA and CH, could partially control epiphytes and buffer against moderate eutrophication. However, under highly eutrophicated conditions Idotea do not seem to be able to control the formation of epiphyte blooms in the Baltic Sea. Lotze and Worm (2000) suggested that there might be a critical bloom intensity to escape herbivore control. Other studies from the American Pacific and Atlantic coast found that Idotea resecata and BA enhanced eelgrass growth and reduced the epiphytic biomass more than other herbivores (Williams and Ruckelshaus, 1993; Duffy et al., 2001). Idotea may also graze directly on F. vesiculosus and Engkvist et al. (2000) showed that the depth distribution of F. vesiculosus was correlated with the density of BA. This density-dependent grazing effect can have vast impact on the Fucus belt and major declines of the Fucus belts along the Swedish southeast coast have been correlated with the mass occurrences of BA (Engkvist et al., 2004; Nilsson et al., 2004; Fig. 7). The community effect of Idotea grazing apparently varies in time and space in the Baltic Sea and this definitely deserves further attention.

A Changing Food Web

The Baltic Sea is one of the most human impacted coastal areas in the world with eutrophication, over-fishing, and contaminant pollution as the main environmental stressors (Diaz and Rosenberg, 2008; Ducrotoy and Elliott, 2008; Halpern et al., 2008). Intense fishing in the Baltic Sea has dramatically changed the fish community with possible cascading effects through the food web (Baden et al., 2010). A clear decline in cod, herring and flounder is noticed and all stocks have undergone a strong change in abundances (Hammer et al., 2008). In the Kiel Bay, Bobsien (2006) found a disappearance of large species like cod and flatfish in eelgrass meadows that coincided with an increase of the proportion (biomass) of small-sized fish from 1.6% to 36% between 1975-2006. It was suggested that this increase of small-sized fish, e.g., the fifteen-spined

stickleback (*Spinachia spinachia*) and the viviparous blenny (*Zoarces viviparus*), might control *Idotea* spp. populations in eelgrass beds in the southern Baltic Sea (Fig. 7).

Eriksson et al. (2009) found a strong negative correlation between the abundance of piscivorous fishes, e.g., perch (*Perca fluviatilis*) and pike (*Esox lucius*), and the large-scale distribution of bloom-forming macroalgae in the Baltic Sea, where smaller fish preying on invertebrates had significant effects on the meso-grazer community and on the production of ephemeral algae. Thus, excluding larger predatory fish may have top-down cascading effects via an increase of small fish that may control invertebrate grazing on epiphytic algae and macrophytes (Fig. 7). The presence of cascading top-down effects from fish predation on meso-grazers, including *Idotea* spp., was supported in a field experiment by Korpinen et al. (2007) in the Archipelago Sea. At present, it is not clear how strongly predators may control *Idotea* and if this may even lead to local extinction.

An opposite, bottom-up effect is also possible driven by the on-going eutrophication of the Baltic Sea. The Baltic Sea has been eutrophicated since the 1950's (reviewed by Voss et al., 2011) and the high nutrient load has strongly increased the growth of epiphytic and filamentous algae, which form a food resource for *Idotea* spp. (Fig. 7). As a consequence, common meso-grazers like *Idotea* are able to increase in population size, and events of mass occurrence have been observed (Hällfors et al., 1984; Engkvist et al., 2000; Nilsson et al., 2004; Svensson et al., 2004). Hemmi and Jormalainen (2002) found that in nutrient-rich environments *BA* performed significantly better. The food quality affected consumption rates of females, and their fecundity, mass gain and intermoult duration. Mass occurrences of *Idotea* spp. in some Baltic *Fucus* belts during recent decades along the Swedish and Finnish coasts may serve as food for smaller fish and explain the drastically increased stocks of for example the 3- and 9-spined sticklebacks *Gasterosteus aculeatus* and *Pungitius pungitius* in the Baltic Sea (Bobsien, 2006; Sieben et al., 2011). In conclusion, *Idotea* may act as a key species mediating both top-down and bottom-up effects in the Baltic coastal ecosystem (Fig. 7).

Idotea spp. as Key Species and Future Scenarios

The concept of "keystone species" relates to species that can induce a top-down, trophic cascade at a relatively low biomass, whereas a "key species" drives ecosystem processes or energy flows in general (Paine, 1966, 1969; Piraino and Fanelli, 1999), often caused by high biomass (Ihaksi et al., 2007). Classical key species in the Baltic Sea are the bladder wrack (Fucus vesiculosus), the eelgrass (Zostera marina), and the blue mussel (Mytilus edulis/trossulus) (Kangas et al., 1982; Wikström and Kautsky, 2007), whereas the common eider duck (Somateria mollissima) is suggested as a keystone species for the Gulf of Finland (Ihaksi et al., 2007). So, can species of *Idotea* be regarded as key species? Weslawski et al. (2009) termed BA and CH key species along the Polish coast. They defined key species as a major predator or representing an important food source that is placed centrally in the food web. For BA and CH we know that they play an important role as grazers (Fig. 7) and serve as food for numerous fish (Table 5). It is uncertain if GR can

Table 5. Reported fish predators for Idotea (BA and CH) in the Baltic Sea.

Species	Common name	References
Abramis brama	Bronze/freshwater bream	Salemaa, 1978
Alburnus alburnus	Alver/bleak	Salemaa, 1978
Clupea harengus	Herring	Salemaa, 1978; Jormalainen and Tuomi, 1989; Engkvist et al., 2000
Cottus gobio	Bullhead	Salemaa, 1978
Cyclopterus lumpus	Henfisch/lumpfish	Salemaa, 1978
Gadus morhua	Cod	Jormalainen and Tuomi, 1989; Engkvist et al., 2000
Gasterosteus aculeatus	Three-spined stickleback	Salemaa, 1978; Bobsien, 2006
Gobius niger	Black goby	Salemaa, 1978; Bobsien, 2006
Gobiusculus flavescens	Two-spotted goby	Bobsien, 2006
Gymnocephalus cernuus	Ruffe	Salemaa, 1978
Leuciscus idus	Ide/orfe	Salemaa, 1978
Myoxocephalus scorpius	Sea scorpion/sculpin	Salemaa, 1978
Nerophis ophidion	Straight-nosed pipefish	Bobsien, 2006
Perca fluviatilis	Perch	Salemaa, 1978; Haahtela, 1984; Jormalainen and Tuomi, 1989;
		Engkvist et al., 2000
Pholis gunnellus	Rock gunnel	Salemaa, 1978
Pomatochistus minutus	Sand goby	Bobsien, 2006
Pungitius pungitius	Nine-spined stickleback	Salemaa, 1978
Rutilus rutilus	Roach	Salemaa, 1978
Scardinius erythrophthalmus	Rudd	Salemaa, 1978
Spinachia spinachia	Fifteen-spined stickleback	Salemaa, 1978; Bobsien, 2006
Syngnathus rostellatus	Lesser pipefish	Bobsien, 2006
Syngnathus typhle	Deep-nosed pipefish	Bobsien, 2006
Zoarces viviparus	Eelpout	Salemaa, 1978; Korheina, 1981; Jormalainen and Tuomi, 1989;
		Bobsien, 2006

be called a key species due to the limited information about this species for the Baltic Sea, e.g., there is no information available about their role as a food source (Table 5), but mass occurrence has been observed in the Kalmarsund (Engkvist et al., 2004; Table 1). One likely reason why *GR* may not qualify as a key species is their preference for open and exposed habitats (Fig. 5) where they interact less with smallsized fish that feed on benthic invertebrates. Numerous studies report significant top-down effects from *Idotea* grazing on epiphytes (Råberg and Kautsky, 2007b) and *Idotea* spp. may here act as a keystone species by promoting recruitment and growth of perennial macrophytes (Duffy et al., 2001).

The changing climate is expected to affect the Baltic Sea according to recent scenario models (Belkin, 2009; Meier et al., 2011). Analysis of historical data (HELCOM this study) and scenarios up to the year 2100 point to an ongoing increase of sea-surface temperature of around 3-5°C and some scenarios predict a dramatic decrease in salinity of around 3-4 PSU. Our review shows that Idotea inhabit a wide range of environmental conditions in the Baltic Sea, but are likely limited to areas with an average salinity above 3 PSU for BA and CH and above 5 PSU for GR (Fig. 6). With the present climate change scenarios combined with a possible negative interaction between tolerance to low salinities and an increasing temperature (Vlasblom et al., 1997), the low-salinity limit for Idotea may be shifted upwards and, in the absence of evolutionary change, lead to extinction in most of the Baltic Sea. A changing climate may also negatively affect the Idotea through declines of the main substratum, Fucus vesiculosus (Fig. 7). Higher temperature may reduce the lifespan and Tuomi et al. (1988a) found that a change of only two degrees (from 13°C to 15°C) in the Finnish Archipelago Sea compressed female BA lifespan by 10 days. There may also be other effects of temperature like increased susceptibility to pathogens. Under an experimental scenario that mimicked the 2003 European heat wave of 26°C water temperature in the southern Baltic Sea, BA responded with a significantly decreased phagocytic activity and a 50% reduction in immuno-competence (Roth et al., 2010). There are also possible positive effects where an increased temperature with milder winters may lead to an earlier and longer breeding period with more broods per year (Fig. 7).

The on-going eutrophication of the Baltic Sea (Voss et al., 2011) causes frequent hypoxic events with mass occurrence of a few generalists often leading to low-diversity communities (Anger, 1975). Our review indicates that GR responds with local extinction to increased organic pollution, while BA and CH seem to be more tolerant. Anger (1975) considered Gammarus spp. and BA as indicators for local organic pollution. Zettler (2001) agreed with Anger (1975), but replaced BA by CH. Janas et al. (2004) reported CH from sites with permanent hydrogen sulphide and findings of BA and CH on black sediment with low oxygen content are described (Korheina, 1981). BA tolerates short-term (6 hour) exposure to hypoxia (Theede et al., 1969), but as typical inhabitants of the upper benthic Fucus belt, BA avoids natural hypoxia. CH can be expected to survive longer under hypoxia due to habitat preferences in lagoons, shallow waters and estuaries (Fig. 5), where hypoxia occurs naturally (Diaz and Rosenberg, 2008). Habitat-related differences in the response to oxygen deficiency are known for *BA* and *Idotea emarginata* in the North Sea (Vetter et al., 1999). *BA* is also known for its sensitivity to metal contaminations including zinc, lead and copper (Bat et al., 1999). In summary, species of *Idotea*, particularly *BA* and *CH*, are expected to be even more dominant in a eutrophicated Baltic Sea although this may be tempered by the disappearance of the habitat-forming species *F. vesiculosus* and *Z. marina*.

To conclude, I. balthica, I. chelipes, and I. granulosa, are able to inhabit the Baltic Sea. As euryhaline species they are tolerant to salinity changes, and BA and CH appear to be more tolerant to low salinities than GR. The Baltic species of Idotea are all flexible in habitat and food requirements but the three species have different niches (habitat segregation) and seem to differ in their sensitivity to on-going environmental changes in the Baltic Sea. Several macroalgae, filamentous algae, phanerogams as well as animals form not only structural hosts but also nutrition for this omnivorous species. Our review supports a view that Idotea, especially I. balthica and I. chelipes, are key species in the coastal vegetation zone. They serve as food for several Baltic fish (bottom-up effect) and can have impressive grazing rates on filamentous algae (top-down effect). The Baltic Sea is one of the most impacted marine environments and the ongoing climate change is expected to strongly affect the Baltic ecosystem. Some climate change scenarios predict extinction of Idotea from large areas of the Baltic Sea. Studies are urgently needed to improve our understanding of how new pressures from global change, like overfishing, eutrophication, contaminants and a changing climate, may interact with the Idotea ecology in the Baltic Sea.

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Appendix A. References from the museum material used for the distribution patterns of *BA*, *CH* and *GR* in the Baltic Sea, Kattegat and Skagerrak.

Nr.	Species	Museum	ID-nr.	Year
1	I. balthica	Helsinki	989	1864
1	I. balthica	Helsinki	990	1867
1	I. balthica	Helsinki	992	1887
l	I. balthica	Helsinki	997	1887
l	I. balthica	Helsinki	2663	1887
l	I. balthica	Helsinki	2664	1888
l	I. balthica	Helsinki	2665	1888
l	I. balthica	Helsinki	2666	1889
[I. balthica	Helsinki	991	1892
	I. balthica	Helsinki	2667	1893
	I. balthica	Helsinki	993	1895
L	I. balthica	Helsinki	2668	1902
	I. balthica	Helsinki	2669	1903
l	I. balthica	Helsinki	2670	1904
	I. balthica	Helsinki	2671	1904
	I. balthica	Helsinki	2672	1904
	I. balthica	Helsinki	994	1905
	I. balthica	Helsinki	995	1905
	I. balthica	Helsinki	996	1905
l	I. balthica	Helsinki	998	1905
	I. balthica	Helsinki	2673	1905
	I. balthica	Helsinki	2675	1907
	I. balthica	Helsinki	999	1908
	I. balthica	Helsinki	2676	1910
	I. balthica	Helsinki	1000	1915
	I. balthica	Helsinki	1001	1922
	I. balthica	Helsinki	1002	1926
	I. balthica	Helsinki	1003	1928
	I. balthica	Helsinki	1004	1928
	I. balthica	Helsinki	1005	1928
l	I. balthica	Helsinki	1006	1928
	I. balthica	Helsinki	2687	1929
	I. balthica	Helsinki	1007	1932
	I. balthica	Helsinki	1008	1934
	I. balthica	Helsinki	1009	1934
	I. balthica	Helsinki	1010	1936
	I. balthica	Helsinki	2678	1936
[I. balthica	Helsinki	2679	1936
1	I. balthica	Helsinki	2680	1936
[I. balthica	Helsinki	2681	1936

Appendix A.	(Continued.)
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Species	Museum	ID-nr.	Year
I. balthica	Helsinki	2682	1936
I. balthica	Helsinki	2683	1936
I. balthica	Helsinki	2684	1936
I. balthica	Helsinki	2685	1936
I. balthica	Helsinki	2686	1936
I. balthica	Helsinki	1011	1937
I. balthica	Helsinki	2688	1939
I. balthica I. balthica	Helsinki Helsinki	1012 2689	1943 1943
I. balthica	Helsinki	2689	1945
I. balthica	Helsinki	2690	1951
I. balthica	Helsinki	2692	1961
I. balthica	Helsinki	1013	1968
I. balthica	Hamburg	19420	1894
I. balthica	Hamburg	23492	1895
I. balthica	Hamburg	19439	1895
I. balthica	Hamburg	22219	1901
I. balthica	Hamburg	23528	1911
I. balthica	Hamburg	19444	1913
I. balthica	Hamburg	11296	1924
I. balthica	Hamburg	20804	1930
I. balthica	Hamburg	25274	1937
I. balthica	Hamburg	28802	1968
I. balthica	Stralsund	IIG-739	1966
I. balthica	Stralsund	IIG-731 II-G/1655	1966
I. balthica I. balthica	Stralsund Stralsund	II-G/2335	1967 1968
I. balthica	Stralsund	II-G/2335 II-G/2336	1908
I. balthica	Stralsund	IIG-906	1968
I. balthica	Berlin	22101	1917
I. balthica	Berlin	26700	1985
I. balthica	Berlin	26700	1985
I. balthica	Berlin	10571	1915
I. balthica	Berlin	22038	1907
I. balthica	Berlin	22100	1914
I. balthica	Berlin	22015	1929
I. balthica	Frankfurt	522	1911
I. balthica	Frankfurt	829	1911
I. balthica	St. Petersburg	ID 2/50088	1908
I. balthica	St. Petersburg	ID 6/50092	1908
I. balthica	Stockholm	2913	1851
I. balthica	Stockholm	2975	1854
I. balthica	Stockholm	2874	1855
I. balthica	Stockholm	2916	1862
I. balthica	Stockholm	2931	1862
I. balthica	Stockholm	2946	1862
I. balthica	Stockholm	2942	1863
I. balthica	Stockholm	2923	1864
I. balthica	Stockholm	2933	1864
I. balthica	Stockholm	2934	1864
I. balthica	Stockholm	2936	1864
I. balthica	Stockholm	2912	1865
I. balthica I. balthica	Stockholm Stockholm	2943 2921	1865 1870
I. balthica I. balthica	Stockholm	2921	1870
I. balthica	Stockholm	2922 2924	1870
I. balthica	Stockholm	2924	1870
I. balthica	Stockholm	2937	1870
I. balthica	Stockholm	2968	1870
I. balthica	Stockholm	2938	1871

rependix r. (Continued.	Appendix A.	(Continued.)
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Appendix A. (Continued.)

Nr.	Species	Museum	ID-nr.	Year	Nr.	Species	Museum	ID-nr.	Year
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2872	1875	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG/1408	1965
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2893	1875	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG/1413	1965
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2873	1875	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1410	1965
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2940	1877	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1573	1965
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2949	1877	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG-940	1965
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2836	1878	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1589	1965
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2837	1878	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG-898	1965
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2839	1878	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG-738	1966
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2840	1878	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG/1407	1966
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2841	1878	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG-732	1966
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2842	1878	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG-939	1966
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2843	1878	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG-941	1966
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2844	1878	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG-744	1967
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2848	1878	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG-774	1967
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2950	1878	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1656	1967
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2850	1879	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1588	1967
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2851	1879	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1570	1967
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2953	1880	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG/1411	1967
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	8778	1880	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1465	1967
7 7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2854	1881	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG-719	1967
7	I. balthica I. balthica	Stockholm Stockholm	2855 2856	1881 1881	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG/1409	1968
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2850	1882	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1406	1968
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2857	1882	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1403	1968
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2858	1882	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G71404	1968
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2859	1882	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG-960	1968
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2860	1882	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG-1119	1968
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2863	1882	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG/1412	1968
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2863	1882	3 3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG-905	1968
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2867	1882	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1587	1968
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2951	1882	3	I. chelipes I. chelipes	Stralsund Stralsund	IIG-848 II-G/1405	1968 1969
, 7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2954	1882	3	I. chelipes I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1405 II-G/1586	1909
, 7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2955	1882	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1725	1971
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2957	1882	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1725 II-G/1746	1972
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2959	1882	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1741	1973
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2869	1883	3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1773	1973
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2891	1883		-			
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2875	1884	4	I. chelipes	Berlin	22017	1929
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2876	1884	4 4	I. chelipes	Berlin	23292	1931
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2948	1884	4	I. chelipes I. chelipes	Berlin Berlin	18429 25286	1904 1942
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2952	1890	4	I. chelipes	Berlin	26701	1942
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2882	1895	4	I. chelipes	Berlin	26701	1985
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2885	1902		-			
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2886	1902	5	I. chelipes	St. Petersburg	ID 6/50052	1908
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2964	1903	5	I. chelipes	St. Petersburg	ID 5/50052	1908
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2944	1907	5	I. chelipes	St. Petersburg	ID 4/50051	1908
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	2941	1908	7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3064	1849
7	I. balthica	Stockholm	6826	1933	7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3213	1862
1	I. chelipes	Helsinki	2693	1864	7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3247	1862
1	I. chelipes	Helsinki	1017	1887	7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3249	1863
1	I. chelipes	Helsinki	2694	1887	7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3226	1864
1	I. chelipes	Helsinki	1019	1907	7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3227	1864
1	I. chelipes	Helsinki	1019	1928	7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3229	1864
1	I. chelipes	Helsinki	1020	1928	7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3232	1864
1	I. chelipes	Helsinki	1021	1943	7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3233	1864
1	I. chelipes	Helsinki	1023	1943	7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3235	1864
1	I. chelipes	Helsinki	1024	1968	7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3243	1864
	-				7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3215	1870
2	I. chelipes	Hamburg	32995	1973	7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3221	1870
3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG-782	1965	7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3242	1871
3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	IIG-788	1965	7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3198	1875
3	I. chelipes	Stralsund	II-G/1572	1965	7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3195	1876

Appendix A.	(Continued.)
пррепат п.	(Continucu.)

Nr.	Species	Museum	ID-nr.	Year
7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3244	1877
7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3174	1878
7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3175	1878
7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3256	1878
7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3257	1878
7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3264	1878
7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3176	1881
7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3177	1881
7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3182	1881
7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3251	1881
7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3261	1881
7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3183	1882
7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3184	1882
7 7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3185	1882
7 7	I. chelipes	Stockholm Stockholm	3186	1882
7 7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3188	1882
7 7	I. chelipes I. chelipes	Stockholm	3189 3190	1882 1882
7 7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3190	1882
7 7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3255	1882
, 7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3255	1882
, 7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3253	1882
, 7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3192	1885
, 7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3192	1884
, 7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3200	1895
, 7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3250	1907
, 7	I. chelipes	Stockholm	3234	1964
1	I. granulosa	Helsinki	1026	1867
1	I. granulosa	Helsinki	1030	1867
1	I. granulosa	Helsinki	1028	1907
1	I. granulosa	Helsinki	1027	1932
1	I. granulosa	Helsinki	1029	1943
2	I. granulosa	Hamburg	23472	1893
2	I. granulosa	Hamburg	23509	1902
2	I. granulosa	Hamburg	26940	1924
2	I. granulosa	Hamburg	26941	1893
3	I. granulosa	Stralsund	IIG-897	1968
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	3066	1853
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	3078	1863
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	3049	1864
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	3080	1865
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	3053	1870
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	3061	1874
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	3056	1877
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	3060	1880
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	2866	1882
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	3058	1882
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	3069	1884
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	3070	1886
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	3070	1886
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	3067	1890
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	3057	1895
7	I. granulosa	Stockholm	3075	1902

Appendix B.	References from the literature used for the distribution	patterns of BA, CH and GR in the Baltic	Sea, Kattegat and Skagerrak.

Nr.	Author	Year	Title	Source
1	Andrulewicz et al.	2004	Phytobenthos and macrozoobenthos of the Slupsk Bank stony reefs, Baltic Sea.	Hydrobiologia 514: 163-170.
2	Anger	1975	On the influence of sewage pollution on inshore benthic communities in the South of Kiel Bay.	Helgoländer wissenschaftliche Meeresuntersuchungen 27: 408-438.
3	Anger et al.	1977	In-situ investigations on the echinoderm <i>Asterias rubens</i> as a predator of the soft-bottom communities in the western Baltic Sea.	Helgoländer wissenschaftliche Meeresuntersuchungen 29: 439-459.
4 5	Arndt Baden		Tiere der Ostsee. The ecology and physiology of epibenthic crustaceans used as biomarkers of oil pollution and hypoxia.	A. Ziemsen Verlag, Wittenberg Lutherstadt. Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Gothenburg, Sweden.
6	Baden and Pihl	1984	Abundance, biomass and production of mobile epibenthic fauna in <i>Zostera marina</i> (L.) meadows, western Sweden.	Ophelia 23: 65-90.
7	Betz	1974	Phänologie, Reproduktion und Wachstum der valviferen Assel <i>Idotea chelipes</i> (Pallas, 1766) in der Schlei.	Kieler Meeresforschung 30: 65-79.
8	Bleich	2006	Messung der beta-Diversität entlang eines Salzgehaltsgradienten anhand von Makrozoobenthoszönosen der Ostsee.	Diploma Thesis, University of Rostock, Germany.
9	Bobsien	2006	The role of small fish species in the eelgrass food webs of the Baltic Sea.	Ph.D. Dissertation, Christian-Albrechts-Universität, Kiel, Germany.
10	Boström and Bonsdorff	1997	Community structure and spatial variation of benthic invertebrates associated with <i>Zostera</i> <i>marina</i> (L.) beds in the northern Baltic Sea.	Journal of Sea Research 37: 153-166.
11	Boström and Bonsdorff	2000		Marine Ecology Progress Series 205: 123-138
12	Boström and Mattila	1999		Oceologia 120: 162-170.
13	Boström and Mattila	2005	6	Crustaceana 78: 185-200.
14	Bulnheim	1974	Respiratory metabolism of <i>Idotea balthica</i> (Crustacea, Isopoda) in relation to environmental variables, acclimation processes and moulting.	Helgoländer wissenschaftliche Meeresuntersuchungen 26: 464-480.
15	Dahl	1916	Die Asseln oder Isopoden Deutschlands, pp. 22-27.	Jena.
16	Engkvist et al.	2000	Density dependent grazing effects of the isopod <i>Idotea baltica</i> Pallas on <i>Fucus</i> <i>vesiculosus</i> L in the Baltic Sea.	Aquatic Ecology 34: 253-260.
17	Engkvist et al.	2004	Interaction between isopod grazing and wave action: a structuring force in macroalgal communities in the southern Baltic Sea.	Aquatic Ecology 38: 403-413.
18	Forslund	2009	Grazing and the geographical range of seaweeds.	Plant and Ecology, Licentiate Thesis, University of Stockholm, Sweden.
19 20	Forsman Forsman		Notes on the invertebrate fauna of the Baltic. Evertebrater vid svenska östersjökusten.	Arkiv för Zoologi Serie 2, Bd. 9(17): 389-419. In, J. Ladin, Djur och växer i Östersjön. Zoologisk Revy 34: 6-31.
21	Franke et al.	1999	The recent arrival of the oceanic isopod <i>Idotea</i> <i>metallica</i> Bosc off Helgoland (German Bight, North Sea): an indication of a warming trend in the North Sea?	Helgoländer wissenschaftliche Meeresuntersuchungen 52: 347-357.
22	Goecker and Kåll	2003	Grazing preferences of marine isopods and amphipods on three prominent algal species of the Baltic Sea.	Journal of Sea Research 50: 309-314.

Appendix B.	(Continued.)
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Nr.	Author	Year	Title	Source
23	Gruner	1965	Krebstiere oder Crustacea. V. Isopoda, pp. 27-88.	In, M. Dahl and F. Peus (eds.), Die Tierwelt Deutschlands und der angrenzenden Meeresteile nach ihren Merkmalen und nach ihrer Lebensweise, 51. Teil. VEB Gustav
24	Haage	1975	Quantitative investigations of the Baltic <i>Fucus</i> belt Macrofauna. 2. Quantitative seasonal fluctuations.	Fischer Verlag, Jena, Germany. Askö Laboratory, University Stockholm, Sweden. 9.
25	Haavisto et al.	2010	Induced resistance in a brown alga: phlorotannins, genotypic variation and fitness costs for the crustacean herbivore.	Oecologia 162: 685-695.
26	Hagerman	1966	The Macro- and Microfauna associated with <i>Fucus serratus</i> L. with some ecological	Ophelia 4: 1-43.
27	Hammrich	2003	remarks. Vergleichende Untersuchungen zur ökologischen Diversifikation der Helgoländer <i>Idotea</i> -Arten.	Diploma Thesis, Universität Hamburg/Alfred-Wegener-Institut für Polar- und Meeresforschung, Germany.
28	Hansen	1916	Crustacea Malacostraca, III. V. The order Isopoda. Sub-Order Valvifera, pp. 187-190.	In, The Danish Ingolf-Expedition 3(5): 185-190.
29	HELCOM	2009	Biodiversity in the Baltic Sea – An integrated thematic assessment on biodiversity and nature conservation in the Baltic Sea.	Baltic Sea Environment Proceedings, No. 116B.
30	Hemmi et al.	2010	Genetic and environmental variation in performance of a marine isopod: effect of eutrophication.	Oecologia 140: 302-311.
31	Hemmi and Jormalainen	2002	Nutrient enhancement increases performance of a marine herbivore via quality of its food	Ecology 83: 1052-1064.
32	Hemmi and Jormalainen	2004	alga. Geographic covariation of chemical quality of the host alga <i>Fucus vesiculosus</i> with fitness of	Marine Biology 145: 759-768.
33	Hill and Wallström	2008	the herbivorous isopod <i>Idotea baltica</i> . The Stockholm Archipelago, pp. 309-334.	In, U. Schiewer (ed.), Ecology of Baltic Coastal Waters. Springer-Verlag, Heidelberg.
34	Hørlyck	1973	The osmoregulatory ability in three species of the genus <i>Idotea</i> (Isopoda, Crustacea).	Ophelia 12: 129-140.
35	Janas et al.	2004	Seasonal and annual changes in the macrozoobenthic populations of the Gulf of Gdánsk with respect to hypoxia and hydrogen sulphide.	Oceanologia 46: 85-102.
36	Janke and Kremer	1999	Düne, Strand und Wattenmeer. – Tiere und Pflanzen unserer Küsten, p. 223.	Kosmos Naturführer. Franckh-Kosmos-Verlags GmbH and Co., Stuttgart.
37	Jansson and Källander	1968	On the diurnal activity of some littoral peracarid crustaceans in the Baltic Sea.	Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 2: 24-36.
38	Jansson and Matthiesen	1971	On the ecology of young <i>Idotea</i> in the Baltic, pp. 71-88.	Fourth European Marine Biology Symposium. Cambridge University Press.
39	Jaschinski	2007	The effects of mesograzers in eelgrass communities.	Ph.D. Dissertation, Christian-Albrechts-Universität, Kiel, Germany.
40	Jaschinski et al.	2008	Carbon sources and trophic structure in an eelgrass <i>Zostera marina</i> bed, based on stable isotope and fatty acid analyses.	Marine Ecology Progress Series 358: 103-114.
41	Jaschinski and Sommer	2008	Top-down and bottom-up control in an eelgrass-epiphyte system.	Oikos 117: 754-762.
42	Jazdzewski	1970	Biology of Crustacea Malacostraca in the Bay of Puck, Polish Baltic Sea.	Zoologica Poloniae 20: 423-480.
43	Jazdzewski et al.	2005	Native and alien Malacostracan Crustacea along the Polish Baltic Sea coast in the twentieth century.	Oceanological and Hydrobioloical Studies 34(1)(suppl.): 175-193.
44	Jephson et al.	2008	Trophic interactions in <i>Zostera marina</i> beds along the Swedish coast.	Marine Ecology Progress Series 369: 63-76.
45	Jormalainen et al.	1992	Mate choice for male and female size in aquatic isopod <i>Idotea balthica</i> .	Annales Zoologici Fennici 29: 161-167.

Appendix B. (Continued.)

Nr.	Author	Year	Title	Source
46	Jormalainen et al.	2000	Dynamics of intersexual conflict over precopulatory mate guarding in two populations of the isopod <i>Idotea baltica</i> .	Animal Behaviour 60: 85-93.
47	Jormalainen et al.	2001	Why does herbivore sex matter? Sexual differences in utilization of <i>Fucus vesiculosus</i> by the isopod <i>Idotea baltica</i> .	Oikos 93: 77-86.
48	Jormalainen et al.	2008	Geographical divergence in host use ability of the marine herbivore in alga-grazer interaction.	Evolutionary Ecology 22: 545-559.
49	Jormalainen and Tuomi	1989a	Reproductive ecology of the isopod <i>Idotea</i> <i>baltica</i> (Pallas) in the northern Baltic.	Ophelia 30: 213-223.
50	Jormalainen and Tuomi	1989b	Sexual differences in the habitat selection and activity of the colour polymorphic isopod <i>Idotea baltica</i> .	Animal Behaviour 38: 576-585.
51	Kangas et al.	1982	A general model of the decline of <i>Fucus vesiculosus</i> at Tvärminne, south coast of Finland in 1977-81.	Acta Botanica Fennica 118: 1-27.
52	Karez et al.	2000	Co-consumption and protective coating: two new proposed effects of epiphytes on their macroalgal hosts in mesograzer-epiphyte interactions.	Marine Ecology Progress Series 205: 85-93.
53	Kautsky	2008	Askö and Himmerfjärden, pp. 335-360.	In, U. Schiewer (ed.), Ecology of Baltic Coasta Waters. Springer-Verlag, Heidelberg.
54	Korheina	1981	Environments and co-existence of <i>Idotea</i> species in the southern Baltic.	Ph.D. Dissertation, Department of Animal Ecology, University of Lund, Sweden.
55	Korpinen et al.	2010	Nutrient availability modifies species abundance and community structure of <i>Fucus</i> -associated littoral benthic fauna.	Marine Environment Research 70: 283-292.
56	Korpinen and Jormalainen	2008	Grazing effects in macroalgal communities depend on timing of patch colonization.	Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 360: 39-46.
57	Kotta and Möller	2009	Important scales of distribution patterns of benthic species in the Gretagrund area, the central Gulf of Riga.	Estonian Journal of Ecology 58: 259-269.
58	Kotta et al.	2000	Major changes in macroalgae community composition affect the food and habitat preference of <i>Idotea baltica</i> .	International Review of Hydrobiology 85: 697-705.
59	Kotta et al.	2006	Seasonal changes in situ grazing of the mesoherbivores <i>Idotea baltica</i> and <i>Gammarus</i> <i>oceanicus</i> on the brown algae <i>Fucus</i> -vesiculosus and <i>Pylaiella littoralis</i> in the central Gulf of Finland, Baltic Sea.	Hydrobiologia 554: 117-125.
60	Kroer	1986	Distribution and habitat segregation of four species of <i>Idotea</i> (Isopoda) in a Danish Fjord.	Ophelia 25: 199-207.
61	Kunze	1923	Helgoländer Meeresalgen und die Assel <i>Idothea</i> . Ein Beitrag zur Frage nach den Schutzmitteln der Pflanzen gegen Tierfrass.	Wissenschaftliche Meeresuntersuchungen Abteilung Helgoland Bd. 14: 189-195.
52	Køie and Svedberg	2004	Havets Djur, p. 143.	Bokförlaget Prisma, Stockholm.
53	Lapucki et al.	2005	Comparative studies on the metabolic rate of the isopod <i>Idotea chelipes</i> (Pallas) inhabiting different regions of the Baltic Sea.	Thermochimica Acta 435: 6-10.
54	Lapucki and Normant	2008	Physiological responses to salinity changes o the isopod <i>Idotea chelipes</i> from the Baltic brackish waters.	Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology, Part A 149: 299-305.
65	Lauringson and Kotta	2006	Influence of the thin drift algal mats on the distribution of macrozoobenthos in Koiguste Bay, NE Baltic Sea.	Hydrobiologia 554: 97-105.
66	Leidenberger	2004	Konkurrenzfähigkeit und Habitatwahl bei marinen Isopoden: <i>Idotea baltica</i> und <i>Idotea metallica</i> .	Diploma Thesis, Justus-Liebig-Universität Gießen/Alfred-Wegener-Institut für Polar- und Meeresforschung, Germany.
57	Merilaita	1998	Crypsis through disruptive coloration in an isopod.	Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, Series B, Biological Siences 265: 1059-1064.
68	Merilaita	2001	Habitat heterogenity, predation and gene flow: colour polymorphism in the isopod, <i>Idotea</i> baltica.	Evolutionary Ecology 15: 103-116.

Appendix B. (Continued.)

Nr.	Author	Year	Title	Source
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Nr.	Author	Year	Title	Source
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Appendix B. (Continued.)

Nr.	Author	Year	Title	Source
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