1Full title: Future sea-level rise drives rocky intertidal habitat loss and benthic community change

2

3Short title: Sea-level rise impacts to the rocky intertidal

4

5Nikolas J. Kaplanis^{1,2*}, Clinton B. Edwards¹, Yoan Eynaud¹, Jennifer E. Smith¹

6

- 71. Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of California, San Diego,
- 8 La Jolla, California, United States of America
- 92. Current address: Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of California,
- 10 Santa Cruz, Santa Cruz, California, United States of America

11

12*Corresponding author

13E-mail: nkaplanis@ucsc.edu (NJK)

14Abstract

15Rocky intertidal ecosystems may be particularly susceptible to sea-level rise impacts but few 16studies have explored community scale response to future sea-level scenarios. Combining 17remote-sensing with large-area imaging, we quantify habitat extent and describe biological 18community structure at two rocky intertidal study locations in California. We then estimate 19changes in habitat area and community composition under a range of sea-level rise scenarios 20using a model-based approach. Our results suggest that future sea-level rise will significantly 21reduce rocky intertidal area at our study locations, leading to an overall decrease in benthic 22habitat and a reduction in overall invertebrate abundances, but increased densities of certain taxa. 23These results suggest that sea-level rise may fundamentally alter the structure and function of 24rocky intertidal systems. As large scale environmental changes such as sea-level rise accelerate 25in the next century, more extensive spatially-explicit monitoring at ecologically relevant scales 26will be needed to visualize and quantify the impacts to biological systems.

27

28Introduction

29**Sea-level rise projections and potential impacts to the rocky** 30**intertidal**

31Sea-level rise is predicted to alter habitat availability and modify community structure in many 32marine ecosystems [1,2]. In the monitoring record, sea-level changes vary among locations but 33generally show a rising trend, with rates showing a recent increase [1,3–9]. While projections 34remain uncertain, recent studies predict extremes of up to 2.5 meters of sea-level rise within the 35next century [3,10]. Such large magnitude and rapid sea-level rise poses a substantial risk to the 36integrity of coastal ecosystems, yet the extent to which it will modify the physical and ecological 37structure of rocky coastlines remains mostly unknown [11–14].

38Rocky intertidal systems may be particularly vulnerable to sea-level rise driven habitat loss [11– 3914]. When backed by steep cliffs or anthropogenic structures, as is the case on the majority of 40coastlines globally [15], rather than migrating shoreward with sea-level rise, many rocky shores 41are expected to experience "coastal squeeze" -- a general narrowing of the extent of the 42intertidal zone [16,17] and a steepening of the coastal profile [18]. Recent studies provide a 43disconcerting consensus that sea-level rise may cause substantial habitat loss. Estimates of 44habitat loss range from 10-27% with 0.30 m of sea-level rise in Scotland [19], to 10% and 57% 45with 1.0 and 2.0 m of sea-level rise, respectively, in Oregon, USA [20]. Thorner et al. (2014) 46found that with 0.3-1.0 m of sea-level rise on five rocky headlands in Australia, impacts will be 47variable but will largely result in substantial habitat loss [21]. Habitat loss is one of the greatest 48threats to global biodiversity [22,23]. Thus it is critical to evaluate the current state of rocky 49intertidal ecosystems and assess how sea-level rise may affect these important communities in 50coming years.

51The ecological characteristics that make rocky intertidal systems unique may also make them 52particularly vulnerable to changes in structure and function as a result of sea-level rise. The 53rocky intertidal is characterized by patterns of ecological zonation that manifest as distinct bands 54along the tidal elevation gradient. These bands are generated by a variety of spatially and 55density-dependent biological mechanisms such as competition [24,25], mutualism [26] and 56predation [25,27–29], all of which are largely influenced by the physical environment [28,30]. 57Sea-level rise will cause an upward shift in this banding as the current intertidal is submerged 58and up-slope habitats become inundated by the sea. While some species may keep pace with this 59upward shift, many intertidal species are sessile and will likely be incapable of rapidly adjusting 60their distributions [14]. Additionally it is unclear whether the changing intertidal zone will be 61suitable for colonization by many species, as habitat characteristics and physical environmental 62conditions may also change [12]. Thus, coastal squeeze and the rapid upward shift in intertidal 63area will likely significantly impact the abundance, distribution, and competitive interactions of 64rocky intertidal species.

65

66Large-area imaging approach to quantify climate change impacts

67The rocky intertidal is one of the most extensively studied ecosystems, and over 75 years of 68experimentation and monitoring in these habitats has generated an impressive body of 69fundamental ecological theory and insight into the mechanisms controlling ecosystem structure 70[24,25,27–29,31–35]. Traditional sampling methods, however, have been largely restricted in 71their spatial extent, with units of replication on the scale of one to ten square meters. This limits 72our ability to address ecological processes which operate on larger spatial scales. Determining 73how climate change will modify landscape scale patterns in biological communities will require 74an approach that can integrate high-resolution data at ecologically relevant spatial scales. This 75has been a major technological challenge in the past.

76Over the past few years several efforts have advanced the use of innovative geographic
77information system (GIS) sampling tools and analysis software to provide intensive high78resolution, landscape-scale ecological information in the rocky intertidal [36–39]. Unfortunately,
79these tools have remained somewhat limited in either spatial coverage or taxonomic resolution

80due to technological limitations. While remote sensing techniques such as satellite imagery, light 81detection and ranging (LiDAR), and aerial photography can provide ecological information on 82broader landscape-scales, they have been generally limited in taxonomic resolution, and 83researchers have had to rely on traditional field-based methods to provide species identifications. 84Recent advances in remote sensing, digital imaging, and modern computing now provide 85researchers new opportunities to explore the interplay between spatial patterns and ecological 86processes in the rocky intertidal at spatial scales never before possible (from the millimeter to the 87kilometer scale) [40–42].

88Here, we investigated the potential ecological impacts of future sea-level rise on rocky intertidal 89ecosystems, utilizing a multi-scale approach at two marine reserves in San Diego, CA, USA as a 90case study. Using a LiDAR dataset, we estimated site-level habitat area changes under a range of 91sea-level rise scenarios. Using newly available high-resolution large-area imaging tools, we then 92mapped 720 m² of intertidal habitat and quantified the percent cover, abundance, and density of 93sessile and mobile organisms at each site. We then used a modelling approach to investigate 94future sea-level rise driven changes in the cover, abundance, and density of rocky intertidal 95species. This work takes a critical step toward determining the future impact of sea-level rise on 96rocky intertidal communities at ecologically relevant scales and provides a novel framework for 97future monitoring and experimental efforts.

98

99

101 Methods

102Survey locations and sites

103Two rocky intertidal study locations in San Diego County were chosen: the Scripps Coastal 104Reserve (SCR) and the Cabrillo National Monument (CNM) (Fig 1). These locations are 105recognized for their ecological and economic importance within the southern California region 106and are both designated as marine protected areas (MPAs) under California state legislation. 107CNM sites were studied under a permit granted by the US Department of the Interior National 108Park Service, Cabrillo (permit #: CABR-2016-SCI-0007), and SCR was studied under a permit 109granted by the Scripps Coastal Reserve manager (application #: 33783). Long-term ecological 110monitoring has occurred at one distinct site at SCR (SCR 0) since 1997, and at three sites at 111CNM (CNM 1-3) since 1990 [43]. All four sites face predominantly west and have a coastal 112profile and rocky intertidal structure representative of many rocky intertidal coastlines globally 113[15]. The topography of SCR comprises primarily a large, gently sloping boulder-field backed by 114steep cliffs, with a large metamorphic dike running south by southwest through the site and 115providing a distinct upper limit to the intertidal. CNM is composed of a wide, gently-sloping 116rocky intertidal bench with variable areas of flat sandstone terraces, boulders, scree, and sand 117accumulation, also backed by steep cliffs [44].

118

119**Figure 1. Study site overview**. Location of large-area imaging plots (orange rectangles) in San 120Diego, CA, USA. Sites were selected to fall within long-term monitoring areas (upcoast and 121downcoast boundaries, black lines), and were bounded by highest astronomical tide (HAT, light 122red contour) and Mean Lower Low Water (MLLW, dark red contour).

123Sea-level rise scenarios

124In its Fifth Assessment Report, the United Nations Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change 125(IPCC) projects a rise in global sea-level of between 0.26 m and 0.98 m by 2100 [3]. More 126recently the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) released projections 127that include sea-level rise extremes of up to 2.5 m on US coastlines [10]. Sea-level rise 128projections for California specifically generally fall within the range of global projections. Cayan 129et al. 2008 forecast sea-level rise on the coast of California of 0.11 - 0.72 m by the 2070–2099 130period [45]. More recently, the National Research Council (NRC) projected 0.42 - 1.67 m of sea-131level rise relative to 2000 levels by 2100 for the coast of California south of Cape Mendocino 132[5]. For this study, sea-level rise scenarios from 0 – 2.0 m were analyzed in 10.0 cm increments 133(twenty scenarios) in order to cover the generally accepted potential sea-level rise range for the 134California region in the next century. By analyzing sea-level rise in increments, we also avoided 135utilizing projections for specific dates, and thus our analysis is not time specific and is more 136flexible to the uncertainty of the projections.

137

138Intertidal area estimation

139To estimate rocky intertidal habitat area at survey sites, an open-source LiDAR dataset (the 1402009-2011 California Coastal Conservancy Coastal LiDAR Project: Hydro Flattened Bare Earth 141Digital Elevation Model (DEM)) was used. This dataset was downloaded from the NOAA Office 142of Coastal Management Data Access Viewer [46]. These data were collected by the California 143Coastal Conservancy in conjunction with the State of California specifically for shoreline 144delineation purposes and to inform coastal planning. This dataset has consistent coverage of our 145target area and a tested data quality of 50.0 cm RMSE horizontal accuracy and 4.8 cm RMSE 146vertical accuracy [46]. Data was collected with a Leica ALS60 MPiA sensor with 1.0 m nominal 147post spacing. WGS1984 and Mean Lower Low Water (MLLW) were selected as horizontal and 148vertical datums during the data download step to allow later embedding of orthophotos and direct 149referencing to common tidal datums. DEM data was extracted and visualized in ArcMap 10.5 150(ESRI 2016. ArcGIS Desktop: Release 10.5 Redlands, CA, USA). Intertidal area was estimated 151using the DEM Surface Tools Extension for ArcGIS, which provides accurate surface area 152estimates on a grid by grid basis for raster DEMs using a 3 x 3 cell neighborhood [47]. 153The area of the intertidal zone was estimated from the DEM constrained within specific 154boundaries at each survey site. The northern and southern most long-term monitoring plots at 155each site were selected as fixed upcoast and downcoast boundaries. Tidal datums from NOAA 156tide stations nearest our survey sites (La Jolla, Station ID: 9410230, and San Diego, Station ID: 1579410170 (S1 Table) were selected as vertical constraints that were allowed to migrate upward 158under each sea-level rise scenario. Mean Lower Low Water (MLLW) and Highest Astronomical 159Tide (HAT) were chosen as the lower and upper boundaries. Tidal datum elevations are 160computed from time series of observed tides at NOAA tidal stations. The current National Tidal 161Datum Epoch (NTDE) is the 1983-2001 period. The DEM was further segmented to specific 162tidal elevations to allow analyses by intertidal zone (lower, middle, and upper intertidal). MLLW 163(0 m) was chosen as the lower limit because it is a commonly used datum and because the 164penetration limitations of LiDAR did not allow for accurate data below the MLLW line. The 165middle intertidal was designated as the area between mean low water (MLW) and mean high 166water (MHW). The upper intertidal was designated as the area between MHW and HAT, 167encompassing the zone that is only covered during the highest high tides, and the spray zone. 168Long-term monitoring plot locations confirmed the relevancy of our chosen zone designations,

169as the elevation of plots targeting characteristic lower, middle, and upper intertidal species 170corresponded closely with our chosen datums (S1 Table). In each scenario, the total area in the 171intertidal was estimated by adjusting the vertical constraints to the future intertidal extent and 172summing surface area of all DEM grid cells within the chosen intertidal boundaries.

174**Benthic community characterization through fine-scale, large-area** 175**imaging**

176In order to gather fine scale information on biological community composition, one plot was 177established at each site for image collection and subsequent model creation. Plot locations were 178selected to encompass all representative vertical zonation within the rocky intertidal. To choose 179plot locations, ten stratified random coordinates were first generated in ArcMap within the upper 180intertidal area of the LiDAR DEM covering each survey site. Coordinates were then ground-181truthed to ensure they occurred on natural substrate within representative upper-intertidal habitat 182(evaluated on the presence of representative upper-intertidal benthic species). Of those 183coordinates falling in appropriate habitat, one was then randomly selected as the upper up-coast 184corner for each plot. Rectangular 6.0 m x 30.0 m plots were then established running 185perpendicular to the shoreline along the elevation gradient. This size was determined to be 186sufficient for accomplishing project goals while balancing image collection and data processing 187capabilities.

188Imagery was collected at the four survey plots between December 2016 and January 2017.
189Survey dates corresponded with the season's lowest tides and with associated long-term
190monitoring surveys. Transect tapes were deployed along predetermined headings to bound the
191survey plot. A GoPro Hero 5 camera (GoPro Inc., San Mateo, CA) was mounted to a frame on a

192handheld transect line and passed between two surveyors across the plot every 0.5 m. Images 193were collected every 0.5 seconds using a linear field of view setting with an equivalent focal 194length of 24-49 mm. The camera was held approximately 1.0 m above the substrate to maximize 195overlap of images while also ensuring sufficient image resolution for accurate species 196identifications. Ten scale bars of known length (0.5 m) were deployed throughout the plot as x, 197y, z spatial references, and ground control point (GCP) coordinates were collected at the upcoast 198end of each scale bar. Images were collected over a 9.0 m x 33.0 m area to ensure that the target 199plot was imaged with sufficient coverage (1.5 m buffer around perimeter) to minimize areas 200missing data.

201

202Image processing

203Agisoft PhotoScan Professional V.1.3 Structure-from-motion (SFM) software (Agisoft LLC 2042014, St. Petersburg, Russia) was used to create 3-dimensional (3D) models, DEMs, and 2-205dimensional orthorectified large-area images (e.g. orthophotos) of the intertidal (Fig 2). The 206details of 3D model and orthophoto creation have been described in detail elsewhere [40–42,48]. 207Briefly, Agisoft was used to first align imagery and produce a sparse cloud of points extracted 208from the collected imagery. These sparse clouds were then optimized to correct model geometry 209and minimize alignment error, and assigned a coordinate system and scale using GCP 210coordinates and lengths from the scale bars within each plot. Textured dense point clouds were 211then produced and subsequently meshed to produce fine-scale DEMs of each plot with a 1.0 cm 212nominal post spacing, providing elevation data for benthic identifications. Finally, top down 2D 213orthophotos (1.0 mm / pixel resolution) were then produced to allow visual identification and 214quantification of benthic organisms (Fig 2). This resolution allowed clear identification of all

215organisms of sizes greater than or equal to approximately 1.0 cm in diameter. Orthophotos and 216DEMs were exported from Agisoft Photoscan in a raster format and uploaded into ArcMap 10.5. 217These rasters were then clipped to the targeted extent of each plot, and DEM surface area 218calculations and benthic identifications were conducted.

219

220**Figure 2. Survey plot photomosaic and Digital Elevation Model (DEM).** Example of 6 m x 22130 m (180 m²) benthic landscape mosaic (left) with zoomed in inset, and DEM (right) for study 222site Cabrillo National Monument Zone 3.

223

224Biological data extraction

225To determine benthic community composition (% cover) across tidal elevations, stratified 226random point sampling was conducted within each orthophoto using ArcMap. First, a grid of 227ninety-six hundred equal sized rectangles (12.5 cm x 15.0 cm) was generated within each plot 228Ninety-six hundred stratified random points (one within each grid cell) were then generated and 229these points were manually identified to the highest taxonomic resolution possible (see S2 Table 230for species identification metadata). Tidal elevation data for each point identification was 231extracted from the high resolution plot DEMs. This approach allowed quantification of benthic 233community composition (% cover) across a continuous range of tidal elevation. Benthic 234each plot using the stratified random point sampling data. Percent cover was calculated by: %

235cover = $\frac{x_i}{z_i}$, where i = bin number, x_i = species stratified random point count in the ith bin, and z_i 236= total stratified random point count for all species within the ith bin. 237To provide estimates of densities of targeted long-term monitoring invertebrate species at each 238site, counts of all invertebrates larger than approximately 1.0 cm in diameter were conducted. 239This included both motile species (owl limpets (*Lottia gigantea* (Sowerby, 1834)), other limpets 240(*Lottia spp.*), black turban snails (*Tegula funebralis* (A. Adams, 1855)), chitons (*Katharina spp.*), 241dog whelks (*Nucella spp.*), periwinkles (*Littorina spp.*)) and sessile species (solitary anemones 242(*Anthopleura sola* (Pearse and Francis, 2000) / *Anthopleura elegantissima* (Brandt, 1835)), pink 243barnacles (*Tetraclita rubescens* (Darwin, 1854)), gooseneck barnacles (*Pollicipes polymerus* 244(Sowerby, 1883)), and mussels (*Mytilus californianus* (Conrad, 1837))). Species counts were 245done at a consistent scale (1:4) to allow accurate identification near the limit of orthophoto 246resolution. Only invertebrates that could be clearly identified at this scale were counted. density 247of invertebrates was estimated within the same elevation bins mentioned above across the plots.

248Density was calculated by: density $=\frac{x_i}{w_i}$, where i = bin number, x_i = species point count within 249the ith bin, and w_i = total orthophoto plot surface area within the ith bin.

Sea-level rise impacts to community composition, abundances, and densities

253In order to assess how changes in habitat area as a result of sea-level rise may influence the 254rocky intertidal community, the cover of benthic organisms (area, m²), abundance, and density of 255invertebrates was estimated for each site under each sea-level rise scenario.

259Species benthic area cover

260To estimate how sea-level rise will change benthic community composition, the total area (m²)

261 covered by each species in each scenario at each site was calculated as: cover = $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{x_i}{z_i} y_i$, where i

262= bin number, x_i = species stratified random point count within the ith bin, z_i = total point count 263 for all species within the ith bin, and v_i = site surface area within the ith bin.

264

265Scenario abundance estimates

266To estimate how sea-level rise will alter invertebrate populations, the abundance (# individuals)

267 for each species in each scenario at each site was calculated as: abundance = $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{x_i}{w_i} y_i$, where i =

268bin number, x_i = species point count within the ith elevation bin, w_i = sampled orthophoto plot 269surface area within the ith elevation bin, and y_i = landscape surface area within the ith bin.

270

271Scenario density estimates

272In order to estimate overall density for each species in each scenario at each site the above 273abundance estimate values were divided by the total intertidal area within each site in each

274scenario. Density (# / m²) was calculated as: density = $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{x_i}{w_i} y_i}{y_{sl}}$, where s = scenario number, l =

275site, i = bin number, x_i = species point count within the ith elevation bin, w_i = sampled orthophoto

276plot surface area within the ith elevation bin, y_i = landscape surface area within the ith bin, and y_{sl}

277= landscape surface area across the entire intertidal for scenario s at site l.

279**Results**

280Change in intertidal habitat area and zonation with sea-level rise

281Using a LiDAR elevation dataset, we estimated habitat area within current and future intertidal 282elevation ranges at each of our study sites under scenarios of 0 - 2.0 m of sea-level rise and found 283that sea-level rise will significantly reduce total intertidal habitat area (m²) (Fig 3). Following a 284sea-level rise trajectory consistent with the observed trend in San Diego, CA, (approximately 28520.0 cm by 2100), total intertidal habitat area loss will be on average 29.88 % (\pm 3.78, SE) across 286study sites. Under the IPCC upper-end global projection of 1.0 m by 2100 [3], this value will 287reach 77.72% (\pm 4.65). Under the NRC upper-end projection for California [5] of 1.7 m, this 288value will rise to 85.32% (\pm 2.33). Habitat loss will be greatest for the lower and middle 289intertidal zones, which currently occupy a broad intertidal shelf that will rapidly become subtidal 290as sea-levels rise (Fig 3). Under scenarios greater than 0.2 m the lower intertidal will nearly 291always experience the greatest proportional habitat area loss, followed by the middle, then upper 292zones (Fig 3). As a result, we expect that the proportional contribution of each zone to total 293intertidal area will shift, with the contribution of the lower intertidal diminishing, and that of the 294middle and upper zones increasing (Fig 3, S1 Fig).

295

296**Figure 3. Intertidal area changes with sea-level rise**. a. site and zone level intertidal habitat 297area under 0 - 2.0 m of sea-level rise at four survey sites. b. site and zone level intertidal area 298change (% change) under three sea-level rise scenarios. Both panels show significant habitat area 299loss at study sites.

301Impacts to benthic community composition with sea- level rise

302With little exception, we found that sea-level rise will result in lower overall habitat area and 303 thus benthic area cover (m^2) of rocky intertidal organisms. Importantly, species will experience 304benthic cover changes of different magnitudes, resulting in changes in community structure as 305the relative abundance of different species shifts (Fig 4). The most pronounced changes will 306occur in the first half meter of sea-level rise for all species. At 0.5 m of sea-level rise, we 307 estimate a mean decrease in total benthic cover across all species and study sites of 56.95% (\pm 3082.40). Benthic cover changes will be most pronounced for those taxa that primarily occupy lower 309and middle intertidal habitats, such as articulated coralline algae, brown algae, red foliose algae, 310and turf algae species, and surfgrass (see S2 Table for species identifications and classifications). 311For example, we estimate that cover of articulated coralline algae will decrease by an average of 31283.74% (± 4.72 SE; range 70.10 - 91.77) across our study sites under the IPCC upper-end 313 projection. Under the more extreme NRC projection, we expect decreases of cover of up to 31498.22%, 97.42% and 97.20% for chainbladder kelp (Stephanocystis setchellii ((N.L.Gardner) 315Draisma, Ballesteros, F.Rousseau & T.Thibaut, 2010: 1340)), wireweed (Sargassum muticum 316((Yendo) Fensholt, 1995), and surfgrass (*Phylospadix spp.*), respectively. Benthic cover is 317 expected to change less dramatically for taxa occupying primarily upper intertidal habitat, such 318as mussels, barnacles, crustose coralline algae, and green algal turf. For example, we expect that 319 cover of barnacles (*Balanus/Cthamalus spp.*) will decrease by an average of 52.99 % (\pm 12.01; 320range 20.38 - 77.84) across our study sites under the IPCC upper-end projection.

321

323**Figure 4**. Sea-level rise impacts to benthic community cover. Estimated current and future 324intertidal area coverage for 10 most common benthic community members at each survey site 325under 0 - 2.0 m of sea-level rise, showing decreases for all benthic space occupiers. 326

327Invertebrate abundance and density estimates for sea-level rise

328**scenarios**

329We estimate nearly ubiquitous declines in numerical abundance of sessile and mobile 330invertebrates with sea-level rise (Fig 5). Lower and middle intertidal taxa will exhibit greater 331population declines than upper intertidal taxa, and the largest declines will be observed in the 332first 0.5 to 1.0 meter of sea-level rise. For example, our results suggest that the abundance of 333green solitary anemone (*Anthopleura sola/xanthogrammica*) will decrease by an average of 33464.37% (\pm 8.66) and 76.20% (\pm 15.60) across study sites at 0.5 and 1.0 m of sea-level rise, 335respectively. In contrast, we estimate smaller declines in the abundance of upper intertidal 336periwinkles (*Littorina spp.*) with 26.22% (\pm 14.9) and 51.19% (\pm 0.17) and upper intertidal 337goose barnacles with 29.10% (\pm 5.60) and 47.14% (\pm 7.54) across study sites at 0.5 and 1.0 m of 338sea-level rise, respectively. Across all intertidal invertebrate taxa identified and sites, our results 339suggest overall mean decreases in abundance of 55.82% (\pm 4.25) and 66.92% (\pm 4.09) under the 340IPCC and NRC projections, respectively.

341

342Figure 5. Sea-level rise impacts to rocky intertidal invertebrate abundances. Estimated
343current and future abundances for large invertebrates at survey sites under 0 - 2.0 m sea-level
344rise.

345Despite expected declines in overall abundance for many species, we expect to see an increase in 346density resulting from the relatively large predicted declines in habitat area under most sea-level 347rise scenarios (Fig 6). Nearly all species exhibit significant increases in overall density in the first 3480.5 m of sea-level rise at one or more sites. For example, our results suggest an average increase 349in density of 85.35% (\pm 64.57) for lower intertidal chitons and of 177.65% (\pm 107.71) for upper 350intertidal periwinkles (*Littorina spp.*) across sites under 0.5 m of sea-level rise. Beyond 0.5 m of 351sea-level rise the predicted density trends are more variable, though densities generally increase 352with continued loss of colonizable habitat. The major exception was seen with the green 353anemone (*Anthopleura sola/xanthogrammica*) at CNM 1 and CNM 2, which we predict will 354generally decrease in density as a result of the large estimated declines in population size at these 355sites.

356

357Figure 6. Sea-level rise impacts to rocky intertidal invertebrate densities. Estimated current358and future invertebrate densities at study sites.

359

360 **Discussion**

361Our results suggest that sea-level rise will significantly reduce total rocky intertidal habitat area 362at our study sites. Changes will neither occur uniformly across time nor space, but rather will be 363most pronounced during the first meter of sea-level rise and within the lower and middle 364intertidal zones. As seas rise, the broad intertidal bench present at our study locations will 365quickly be submerged, resulting in a first-rapid, then more gradual loss of intertidal habitat area. 366We also model variable but generally negative impacts to the rocky intertidal communities at our 367survey sites, even under modest sea-level rise scenarios well within the range projected for the 368next century. As the amount of available habitat decreases we predict reductions in benthic cover 369for all major benthic space occupiers. We also predict significant population declines for 370invertebrate species. Finally, despite declines in overall abundance, we predict that densities of 371invertebrates will generally increase as habitat area decreases.

372

373Impacts to rocky intertidal community structure

374Habitat area is a limiting factor affecting growth and abundance of rocky intertidal species [32]. 375Thus, the changes in habitat area estimated here will likely significantly impact community 376structure. As habitat area is compressed, biotic interactions known to drive community structure 377 will likely change. Both competition and predation will likely intensify as densities of sessile and 378mobile invertebrates increase. Additionally, interactions that were otherwise rare or non-existent 379due to the spatial separation between species may become intensified or be created as species are 380spatially compressed. Further, because rocky intertidal organisms exhibit distinct distributions 381 across tidal elevation and a range of life history strategies, the impact of sea-level rise will likely 382be non-uniform across the rocky intertidal community both taxonomically and through time. Our 383 results suggest that lower and middle intertidal species will generally experience the greatest 384 losses of benthic cover and abundance. Because these species will also experience extensive 385habitat loss more quickly than upper intertidal species, it is possible that they will struggle to 386compete for space as they are forced to move upward. If dominant upper intertidal benthic space 387occupiers, such as the California Mussel (*Mytilus californianus*), experience little habitat loss 388under early sea-level rise scenarios and have little competition for space in the largely bare 389substrate above their current distributions, they may gain a distinct competitive advantage. Long-

390lived species with high habitat affinities and small home ranges, such as owl limpets (*Lottia* 391*gigantea* (Sowerby, 1834)) and the critically endangered intertidal black abalone (*Haliotis* 392*cracherodii* (Leach, 1814)) will potentially be more heavily impacted than short-lived species 393 with low habitat affinities, such as many barnacles, even if these species occupy the same tidal 394zone. These species may experience significant change within their lifespans and are more likely 395 to experience loss of necessary microhabitats as conditions change due to their narrow habitat 396 requirements.

397

398Impacts to rocky intertidal function

399As sea-level rise changes species interaction networks and competitive hierarchies, the function 400of the rocky intertidal ecosystem will also potentially shift. Our results suggest that as sea-levels 401rise, the middle and upper intertidal will occupy a greater proportion of total intertidal area (S1 402Fig). Lower shore habitats are generally recognized to be richer in terms of species diversity and 403higher in productivity [49], thus declines in this zone may be of particular consequence. Loss of 404primary producers common in the lower intertidal may drive a subsequent reduction in 405herbivores in this region and a reduction in nutrient and biomass export to adjacent areas [50]. 406Additionally, loss of pools common in the lower intertidal as a result of a general steepening of 407the coastal profile may decrease important nursery habitat for offshore species such as the 408opaleye (*Girella nigricans*(Ayres, 1860)) [51], and foraging habitat for commercially important 409species such as the spiny lobster (*Panulirus interruptus* (Randall, 1840)) [52] as well as many 410seabirds [20]. As seas rise it will be crucial to examine the impacts of such shifts in community 411structure to ecosystem function to inform management policies.

412Future directions

413Our study provides a framework to evaluate climate change impacts on one the world's most 414important marine ecosystems at a scale not previously possible. We found compelling evidence 415that sea-level rise will significantly and profoundly affect species inhabiting this habitat. Future 416studies can improve upon this approach by incorporating additional information on physical 417parameters that are known to influence spatial heterogeneity in rocky intertidal community 418organization and that are likely to evolve under global climate change, such as temperature [53], 419ocean chemistry [54,55], and wave intensity [45]. Further coverage of much larger areas of 420coastline will also allow researchers to more precisely predict the future impacts of climate 421change on the rocky intertidal.

422The rocky intertidal is the most accessible of marine environments, and is of immense 423recreational, commercial, and educational value to coastal societies worldwide. These systems 424are likely to be substantially modified by large-magnitude global sea-level rise on an accelerated 425and uncertain timeline within the next century. The implications of our results are wide reaching, 426highlighting the need for ecosystem-scale evaluations in order to quantify and visualize the 427global change impacts that will modify the structure and function of this unique ecosystem. 428Similar approaches are needed more broadly for global coastlines in order to understand how to 429manage and mitigate impending global change impacts [42].

430Acknowledgements

431The authors would like to acknowledge C. Amir, L. Bonito, D. Chargualaf, A. Martinez for their 432assistance collecting field data, J. Jones and K. Lombardo for assistance with acquiring permits 433and accessing Cabrillo National Monument sites, I. Kaye for providing permits to access the 434Scripps Coastal Reserve, J. Jenness for advice on analyzing DEM data in GIS and on the use of 435the DEM Surface Analyst extension for ArcGIS, S.A. Sandin for modeling the use of large area 436imaging for studying spatial ecology, E. Parnell for his natural history guidance, V. Petrovic for 437his assistance with 3D model visualization, and N. Pederson for assistance with image 438processing.

439**References**

- 4401. Nicholls RJ, Cazenave A. Sea-Level Rise and Its Impact on Coastal Zones. Science (80-).
- 441 2010;328(5985):1517–20.
- 4422. Hoegh-Guldberg O, Bruno JF. The Impact of Climate Change on the World's Marine
- 443 Ecosystems. Science (80-). 2010;328(2010):1523–9.
- 4443. Church JA, Clark PU, Cazenave A, Gregory JM, Jevrejeva S, Levermann A, et al. 2013:
- 445 Sea level change. Clim Chang 2013 Phys Sci Basis Contrib Work Gr I to Fifth Assess Rep
- 446 Intergov Panel Clim Chang. 2013;1137–216.
- 4474. Church JA, White NJ. A 20th century acceleration in global sea-level rise. Geophys Res
- 448 Lett. 2006;33:94–7.
- 4495. National Research Council. Sea-Level Rise for the Coasts of California, Oregon, and
- 450 Washington: Washington, DC: The National Academies Press; 2012. 1-201 p.
- 4516. Mcleod E, Poulter B, Hinkel J, Reyes E, Salm R. Sea-level rise impact models and
- 452 environmental conservation: A review of models and their applications. Ocean Coast
- 453 Manag . 2010;53(9):507–17. Available from:
- 454 http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ocecoaman.2010.06.009
- 4557. Chen X, Zhang X, Church JA, Watson CS, King MA, Monselesan D, et al. The increasing
- 456 rate of global mean sea-level rise during 1993 2014. Nat Clim Chang. 2017;7(July):492–
- 457 5.
- 4588. Cazenave A, Dieng H, Meyssignac B, Schuckmann K Von, Decharme B, Berthier E. The
 rate of sea-level rise. Nat Clim Chang. 2014;4(May):358–61.

4609.	Rahmstorf S. A new view on sea level rise. Nat Reports Clim Chang. 2010;4(April):0–1.
46110.	Sweet W V., Kopp RE, Weaver CP, Obeysekera J, Horton RM, Thieler ER, et al. Global
462	and Regional Sea Level Rise Scenarios for the United States. Silver Spring, Maryland,
463	USA; 2017.
46411.	Helmuth B, Mieszkowska N, Moore P, Hawkins SJ. Living on the Edge of Two Changing
465	Worlds: Forecasting the Responses of Rocky Intertidal Ecosystems to Climate Change.
466	Annu Rev Ecol Evol Syst . 2006;37:373–404. Available from: http://www.jstor.org/stable/
467	30033837
46812.	Harley CDG, Hughes RA, Hultgren KM, Miner BG, Sorte CJB, Thornber CS, et al. The
469	impacts of climate change in coastal marine systems. Ecol Lett. 2006;9(2):228-41.
47013.	Thompson R, Crowe T, Hawkins S. Rocky intertidal communities: Past environmental
471	changes, present status and predictions for the next 25 years. Environ Conserv .
472	2002;29(2):168-91. Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0376892902000115
47314.	Denny M, Paine R. Celestial mechanics, sea level changes, and intertidal ecology. Biol
474	Bull. 1998;194(18):108–15.
47515.	Emery KO, Kuhn GG. Sea cliffs: their processes, profiles, and classification. Geol Soc
476	Am Bull. 1982;93(7):644–54.
47716.	Doody JP. Coastal squeeze and managed realignment in southeast England, does it tell us
478	anything about the future? Ocean Coast Manag . 2013;79:34-41. Available from:
479	http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ocecoaman.2012.05.008
48017.	Pontee N. Defining coastal squeeze: A discussion. Ocean Coast Manag. 2013;84:1-4.

48118. Vaselli S, Bertocci I, Maggi E, Benedetti-Cecchi L. Assessing the consequences of sea

- 482 level rise: Effects of changes in the slope of the substratum on sessile assemblages of
- 483 rocky seashores. Mar Ecol Prog Ser. 2008;368:9–22.
- 48419. Jackson AC, Mcilvenny J. Coastal squeeze on rocky shores in northern Scotland and some
- 485 possible ecological impacts. J Exp Mar Bio Ecol. 2011;400(April (1-2)):314–21.
- 48620. Hollenbeck JP, Olsen MJ, Haig SM. Using terrestrial laser scanning to support ecological
- 487 research in the rocky intertidal zone. J Coast Conserv. 2014;18(6):701–14.
- 48821. Thorner J, Kumar L, Smith SDA. Impacts of climate-change-driven sea level rise on
- 489 intertidal rocky reef habitats will be variable and site specific. PLoS One. 2014;9(1):1–7.
- 49022. Brooks TM, Mittermeier RA, Mittermeier CG, Da Fonseca GAB, Rylands AB, Konstant
- 491 WR, et al. Habitat Loss and Extinction in the Hotspots of Biodiversity. Conserv Biol.
- 492 2002;16(4):909–23. Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1046/j.1523-1739.2002.00530.x
- 49323. Mantyka-Pringle CS, Martin TG, Rhodes JR. Interactions between climate and habitat loss
- 494 effects on biodiversity: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Glob Chang Biol.
- 495 2012;18(4):1239–52.
- 49624. Connell JH. The influence of interspecific competition and other factors on the
- distribution of the barnacle Chthalamus stellatus. Vol. 42, Ecology. 1961. p. 710–23.
- 49825. Menge BA. Organization of the New England Rocky Intertidal Community: Role of
- 499 Predation, Competition, and Environmental Heterogeneity. Ecol Monogr.
- 500 1976;46(4):355–93. Available from: http://www.esajournals.org/doi/abs/10.2307/1942563
- 50126. Menge BA. Indirect Effects in Marine Rocky Intertidal Interaction Webs : Patterns and
- 502 Importance. Ecol Monogr. 1995;65(1):21–74.
- 50327. Paine RT. A Note on Trophic Complexity and Community Stability. Am Nat .

- 504 1969;103(929):91–3. Available from:
- 505 http://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/10.1086/282586
- 50628. Paine RT. Intertidal Community Structure. Experimental Studies on the Relationship
- 507 between a Dominant Competitor and Its Principal Predator. Oecologia. 1974;15(2):93–
- 508 120.
- 50929. Paine RT. Food Webs: Linkage, Interaction Strength and Community Infrastructure. J
- 510 Anim Ecol. 1980;49(3):666–85.
- 51130. Connell JH. Interactions on Marine Rocky Intertidal Shores. Annu Rev Ecol Syst.
- 512 1972;3(22):169–92.
- 51331. Paine RT. Food Web Complexity and Species Diversity. Am Nat . 1966;100(910):65–75.
- 514 Available from: http://www.jstor.org/stable/2459379
- 51532. Dayton PK. Competition, Disturbance, and Community Organization: The Provision and
- 516 Subsequent Utilization of Space in a Rocky Intertidal Community. Ecol Monogr.
- 517 1971;41(4):351–89.
- 51833. Sousa WP. Disturbance in Marine Intertidal Boulder Fields : The Nonequilibrium
- 519 Maintenance of Species Diversity. Ecology . 1979;60(6):1225–39. Available from: http://
- 520 www.jstor.org/stable/1936969
- 52134. Paine RT. Marine Rocky Shores and Community Ecology: An Experimentalist's
- 522 Perspective. Excell Ecol. 1994;175.
- 52335. Ricketts EF, Calvin J. Between Pacific Tides. 1st ed. Hedgpeth JW, editor. Stanford,
- 524 California: Stanford University Press; 1939. 487 p.
- 52536. Guichard F, Bourget E, Agnard JP. High-resolution remote sensing of intertidal

- 526 ecosystems: A low-cost technique to link scale-dependent patterns and processes. Limnol
- 527 Oceanogr . 2000;45(2):328–38. Available from:
- 528 http://doi.wiley.com/10.4319/lo.2000.45.2.0328
- 52937. Wedding LM, Christopher LA, Pittman SJ, Friedlander AM, Jorgensen S. Quantifying
- seascape structure: Extending terrestrial spatial pattern metrics to the marine realm. Mar
- 531 Ecol Prog Ser. 2011;427(Gustafson 1998):219–32.
- 53238. Bryson M, Johnson-Roberson M, Murphy RJ, Bongiorno D. Kite Aerial Photography for
- 533 Low-Cost, Ultra-high Spatial Resolution Multi-Spectral Mapping of Intertidal
- Landscapes. PLoS One. 2013;8(9).
- 53539. Thorner J, Kumar L, Smith SDA. Fine-Scale Three-Dimensional Habitat Mapping as a
- 536 Biodiversity Conservation Tool for Intertidal Rocky Reefs. J Coast Res.
- 537 2013;29(5):1184–90. Available from:
- 538 http://www.bioone.org/doi/abs/10.2112/JCOASTRES-D-12-00142.1%5Cnhttp://
- 539 www.bioone.org/doi/abs/10.2112/JCOASTRES-D-12-00142.1?af=R&
- 54040. Burns JHR, Delparte D, Gates RD, Takabayashi M. Integrating structure-from-motion
- 541 photogrammetry with geospatial software as a novel technique for quantifying 3D
- 542 ecological characteristics of coral reefs. PeerJ . 2015;3:e1077. Available from:
- 543 https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.1077%5Cnhttps://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/
- 544 PMC4511817/pdf/peerj-03-1077.pdf
- 54541. Edwards CB, Eynaud Y, Williams GJ, Pedersen NE, Zgliczynski BJ, Gleason ACR, et al.
- 546 Large-area imaging reveals biologically driven non-random spatial patterns of corals at a
- 547 remote reef. Coral Reefs. 2017;36(4):1–15.

- 54842. Murfitt SL, Allan BM, Bellgrove A, Rattray A, Young MA, Ierodiaconou D. Applications
- of unmanned aerial vehicles in intertidal reef monitoring. Sci Rep . 2017;7(1):1–11.
- 550 Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-10818-9
- 55143. Pacific Rocky Intertidal Monitoring: California Central Coast . Available from:
- 552 http://www.eeb.ucsc.edu/pacificrockyintertidal/sites/sites-region/sites-region-ca-
- 553 cen.html#ca-central
- 55444. California South Coast | MARINe . Multi Agency Rocky Intertidal Network. Available
- 555 from: https://www.eeb.ucsc.edu/pacificrockyintertidal/sites/sites-region/sites-region-ca-
- south.html#ca-south
- 55745. Cayan DR, Bromirski PD, Hayhoe K, Tyree M, Dettinger MD, Flick RE. Climate change
- projections of sea level extremes along the California coast. Clim Change . 2008;87:57–
- 559 73. Available from: http://link.springer.com/10.1007/s10584-007-9376-7
- 56046. NOAA Digital Coast: Data Access Viewer . Available from:
- 561 https://coast.noaa.gov/dataviewer/
- 56247. Jenness JS. Calculating landscape surface area from digital elevation models. Wildl Soc
- 563 Bull. 2004;32(1986):829–39.
- 56448. Naughton P, Edwards C, Petrovic V, Kastner R, Kuester F, Sandin S. Scaling the
- 565 Annotation of Subtidal Marine Habitats. WUWnet. 2015;
- 56649. Menge BA, Branch GM. Rocky intertidal communities. In: Bertness MD, Gaines SD, Hay
- 567 ME, editors. Marine community ecology. Sunderland, England: Sinauer Associates; 2001.
- 568 p. 221–51.
- 56950. Liebowitz DM, Nielsen KJ, Dugan JE, Morgan SG, Malone DP, Largier JL, et al.

570 Ecosystem connectivity and trophic subsidies of sandy beaches. Ecosphere. 2016;7(10):1–

571 19.

- 57251. Norris KS. The Functions of Temperature in the Ecology of the Percoid Fish Girella
- 573 nigricans (Ayres). Ecol Monogr. 1963;33(1):23–62.
- 57452. Windell SC. Spiny Lobster (Panulirus interruptus) Use of the Intertidal Zone at a Santa
- 575 Catalina Island MPA in Southern California. California State University, Monterey Bay;576 2015.
- 57753. Helmuth B, Harley CDG, Halpin PM, O'Donnell M, Hofmann GE, Blanchette CA.
- 578 Climate change and latitudinal patterns of Intertidal thermal stress Climate Change and
- 579 Latitudinal Patterns of Intertidal Thermal Stress. Science (80-). 2002;298:1015–8.
- 58054. Kroeker KJ, Micheli F, Gambi MC. Ocean acidification causes ecosystem shifts via
- altered competitive interactions. Nat Clim Chang . 2013;3(2):156–9. Available from:
- 582 http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nclimate1680
- 58355. Kroeker KJ, Sanford E, Rose JM, Blanchette CA, Chan F, Chavez FP, et al. Interacting
- 584 environmental mosaics drive geographic variation in mussel performance and predation
- 585 vulnerability. Ecol Lett. 2016;771–9.
- 586
- 587
- 588

590Supporting information captions

591S1 Table. Site Tidal datums from NOAA tidal stations. Tidal datums were used to segment
592the intertidal into zones (upper, middle, lower). Data presented in m in reference to MLLW.
593
594S2 Table. Species Identification Metadata. Table shows species and functional group level
595identifications used for stratified random point counts and invertebrate counts.

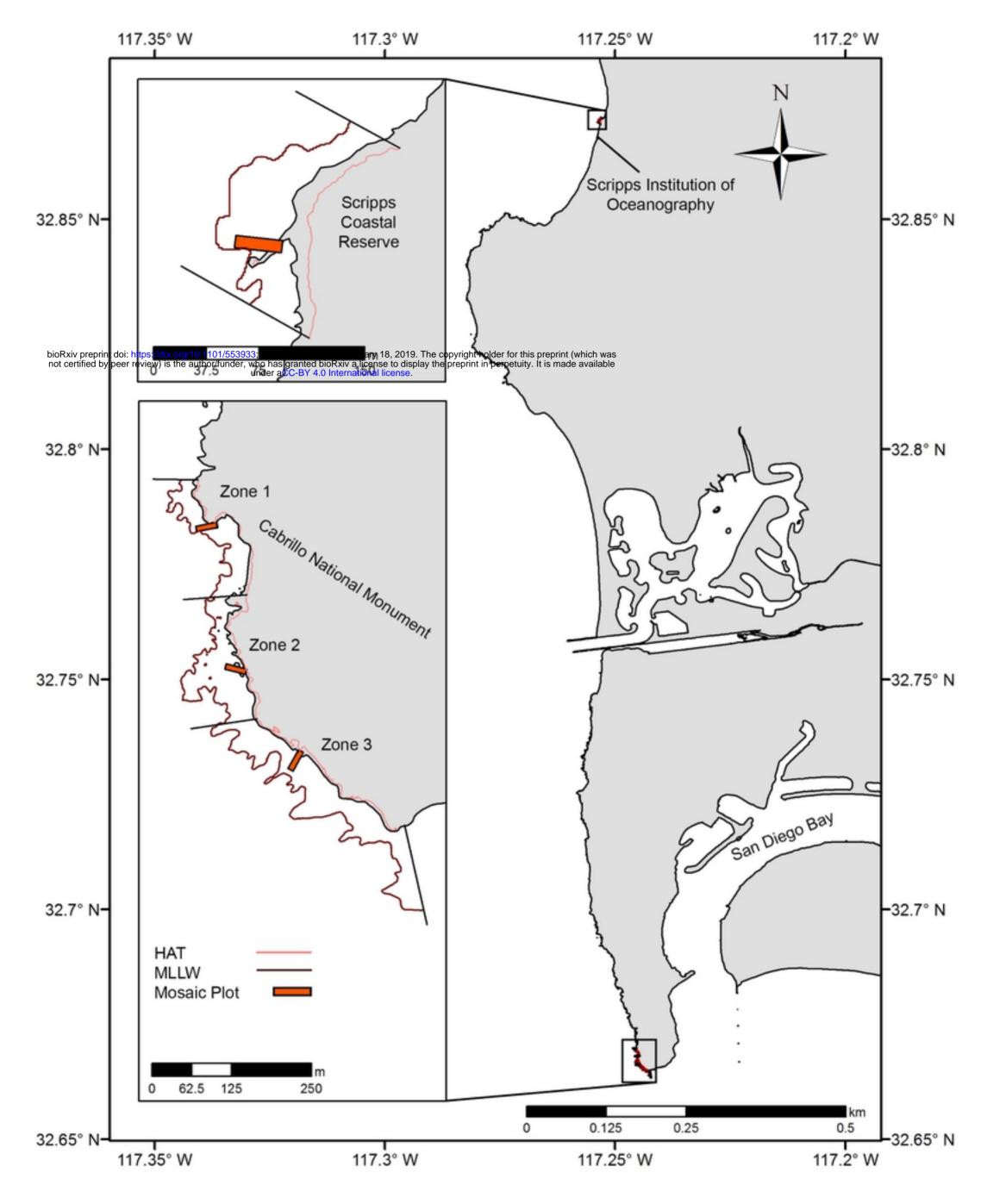
S1 Figure. Proportion of intertidal area contributed by each tidal zone under 0 - 2.0 m of sea-598level rise for four survey sites.

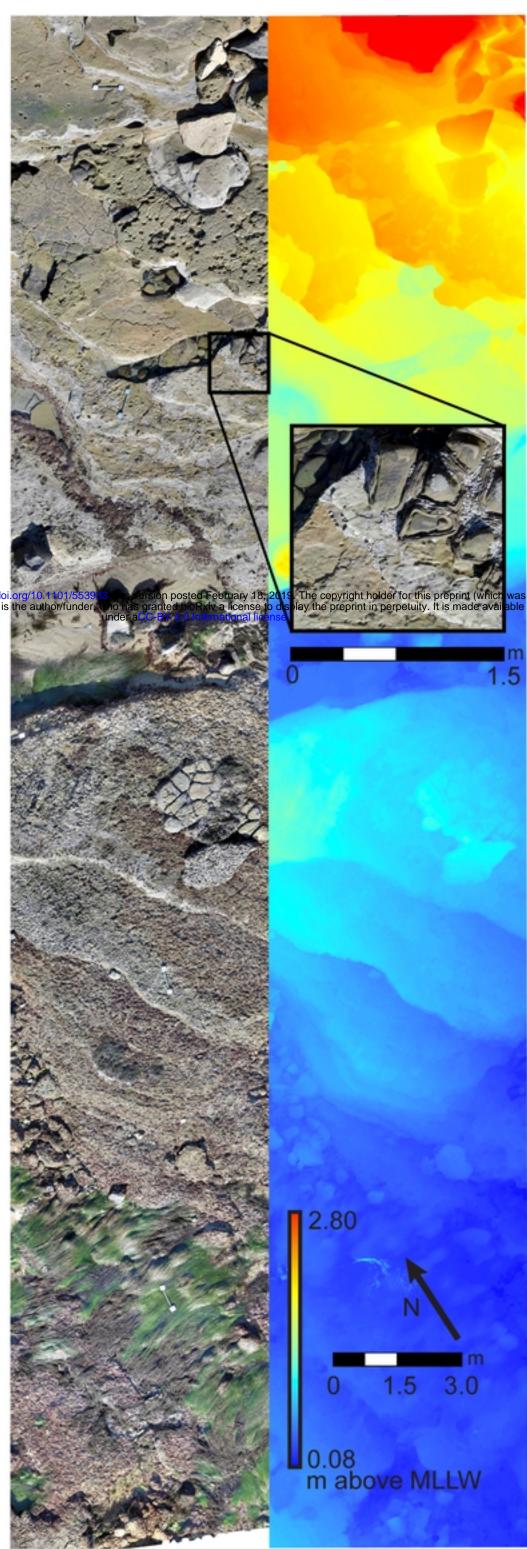
S1 Dataset. Intertidal area estimate data. Estimates of intertidal area and percent change in 601intertidal area (site- and zone-level) for sea-level rise scenarios from LiDAR raster DEM.

S2 Dataset. Species benthic cover estimate data. Site-level estimates of benthic area cover and 604percent change in benthic area cover of benthic community members for sea-level rise scenarios.

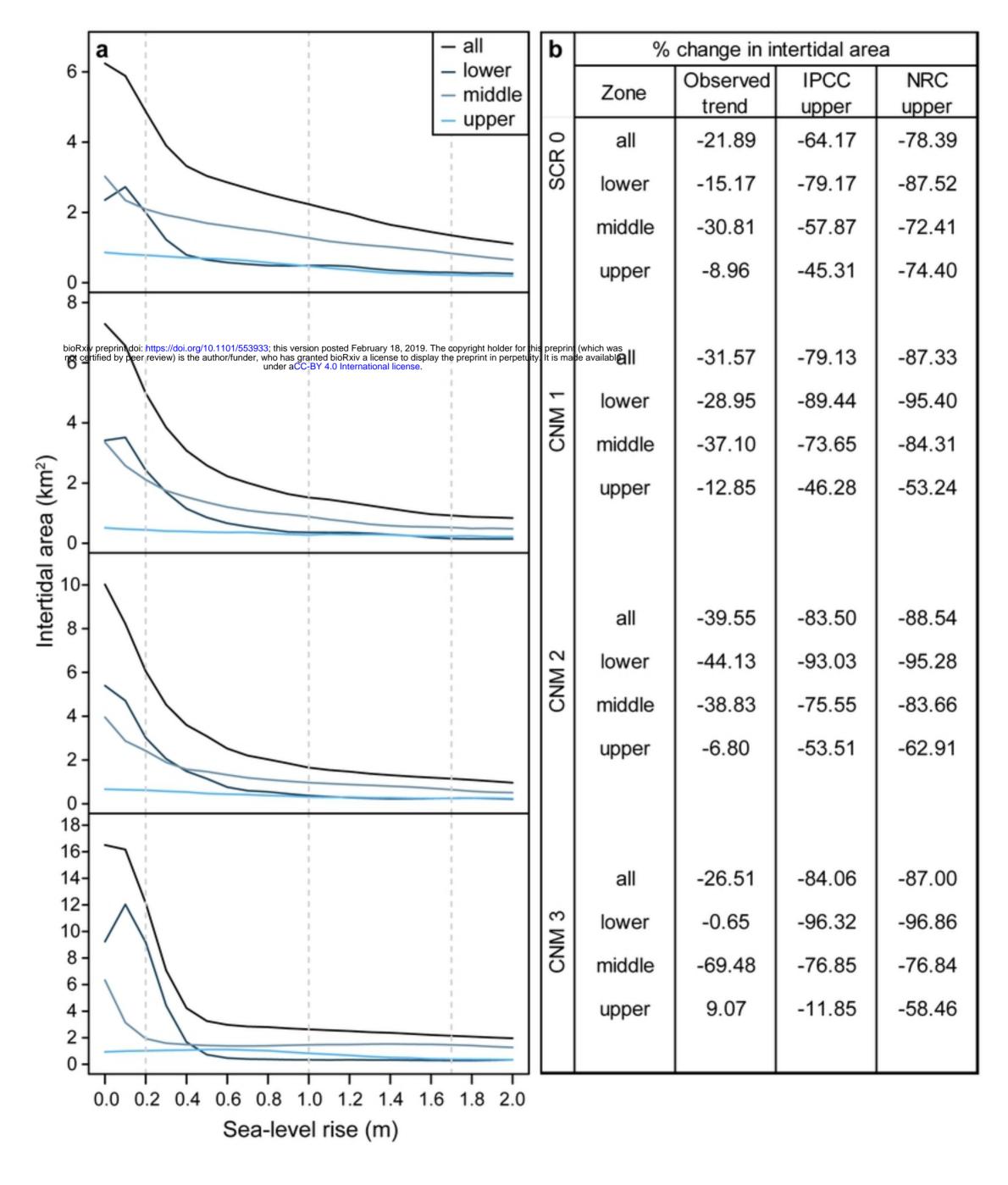
S3 Dataset. Abundance estimate data. Site-level estimates of abundance of invertebrate taxa 607 for sea-level rise scenarios.

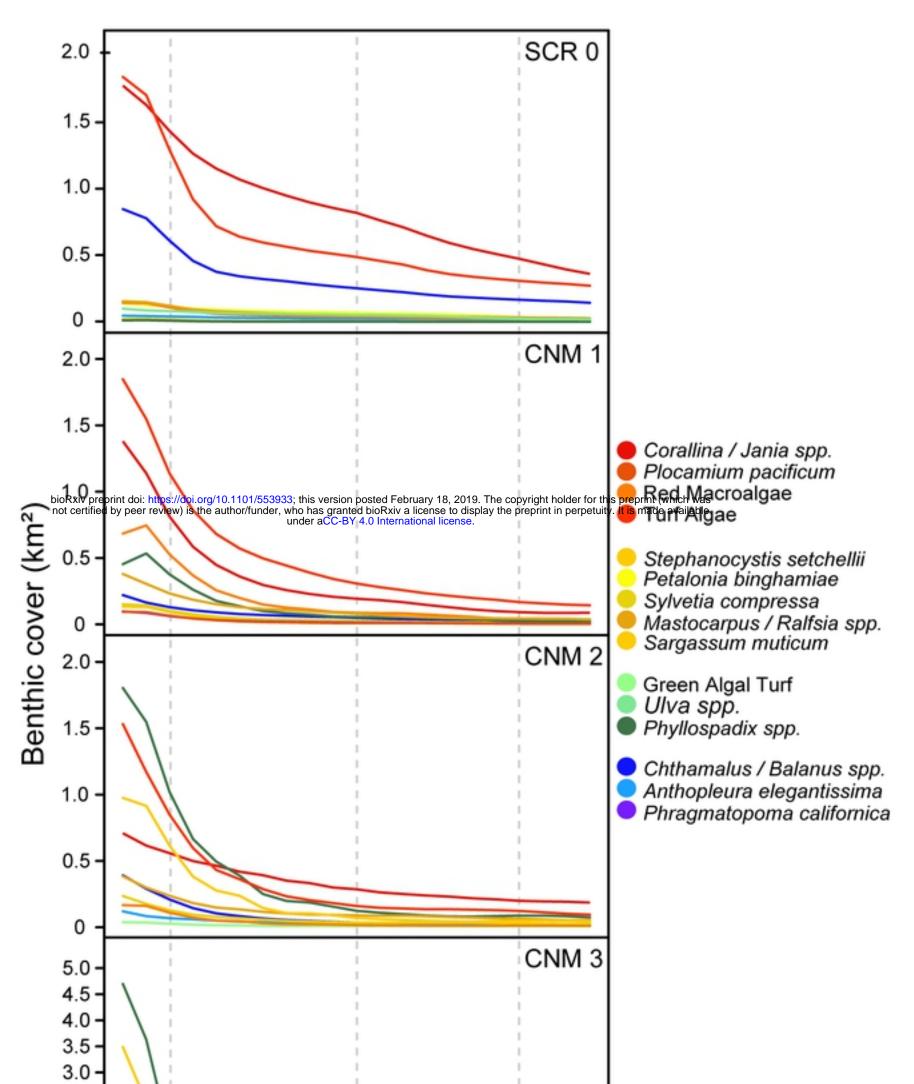
S4 Dataset. Density estimate data. Site-level estimates of density of invertebrate taxa for sea-610level rise scenarios.





bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/5538 not certified by peer review) is the author/funder





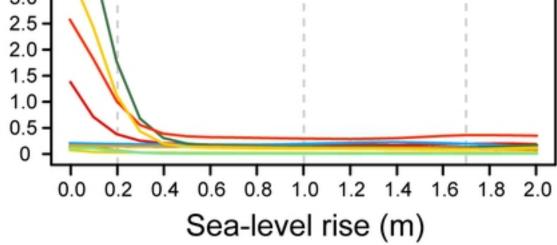


Fig 4

