



Modeling climate change impacts on marine fish populations: Process-based integration of ocean warming, acidification and other environmental drivers

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Key terms:	ecosystem modeling , environmental drivers, climate change, ocean acidification, fish ecophysiology, process understanding
Abstract:	<p>Global climate change affects marine fish through drivers such as warming, acidification and oxygen depletion, causing changes in marine ecosystems and socio-economic impacts. Experimental and observational results inform about anticipated effects of different drivers, but linking between these results and ecosystem level changes requires quantitative integration of physiological and ecological processes into models to advance research and inform management.</p> <p>We give an overview of important physiological and ecological processes affected by environmental drivers. We then provide a review of available modelling approaches for marine fish, analysing their capacities for process-based integration of environmental drivers. Building on this, we propose approaches to advance important research questions.</p> <p>Examples of integration of environmental drivers exist for each model class. Recent extensions of modelling frameworks have a greater potential for including detailed mechanisms to advance model projections. Experimental results on energy allocation, behaviour and physiological limitations will advance the understanding of organism-level trade-offs and</p>

thresholds in response to multiple drivers. More explicit representation of life cycles and biological traits can improve description of population dynamics and adaptation, and data on food web topology and feeding interactions help detail the conditions for possible regime shifts.

Identification of relevant processes will benefit the coupling of different models to investigate spatial-temporal changes in stock productivity and responses of social-ecological systems.

Thus, a more process-informed foundation for models will promote the integration of experimental and observational results and increase the potential for model-based extrapolations into a future under changing environmental conditions.

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1 **Modelling climate change impacts on marine fish populations: Process-based**
2 **integration of ocean warming, acidification, and other environmental drivers**

3 **Alternative 1: Modelling climate change impacts on marine fish populations:**
4 **Process-based integration of environmental drivers**

5 **Alternative 2: Integration of process-based understanding into ecological models for**
6 **marine fish**

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19 running title: Modelling environmental drivers for fish

20 Abstract

21 Global climate change affects marine fish through drivers such as warming, acidification
22 and oxygen depletion, causing changes in marine ecosystems and socio-economic impacts.
23 Experimental and observational results inform about anticipated effects of different
24 drivers, but linking between these results and ecosystem level changes requires
25 quantitative integration of physiological and ecological processes into models to advance
26 research and inform management.

27 We give an overview of important physiological and ecological processes affected by
28 environmental drivers. We then provide a review of available modelling approaches for
29 marine fish, analysing their capacities for process-based integration of environmental
30 drivers. Building on this, we propose approaches to advance important research questions.

31 Examples of integration of environmental drivers exist for each model class. Recent
32 extensions of modelling frameworks have a greater potential for including detailed
33 mechanisms to advance model projections. Experimental results on energy allocation,
34 behaviour and physiological limitations will advance the understanding of organism-level
35 trade-offs and thresholds in response to multiple drivers. More explicit representation of
36 life cycles and biological traits can improve description of population dynamics and
37 adaptation, and data on food web topology and feeding interactions help detail the
38 conditions for possible regime shifts. Identification of relevant processes will benefit the
39 coupling of different models to investigate spatial-temporal changes in stock productivity
40 and responses of social-ecological systems.

41 Thus, a more process-informed foundation for models will promote the integration of
42 experimental and observational results and increase the potential for model-based
43 extrapolations into a future under changing environmental conditions.

44 **Key words:**

45 ecosystem modelling, environmental drivers, climate change, ocean acidification, fish
46 ecophysiology, process understanding

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74 changing marine ecosystems?

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76 **Acknowledgements**

77 **References**

78 Introduction

79 The productivity of marine fish stocks is influenced by a multitude of environmental
80 factors. In the near future, many stocks will be increasingly affected by climate change
81 including global ocean warming, ocean acidification, oxygen loss and other long-term and
82 more regional environmental changes such as salinity, nutrient redistribution or
83 eutrophication and pollution (Roessig et al., 2005, Cochrane et al., 2009, Hollowed et al.,
84 2013, Pörtner et al., 2014). Environmental drivers affect marine ecosystems, marine
85 organisms and fish stocks through direct impacts on individual physiology and life history,
86 and/or indirectly via changes in primary productivity or ecological (mainly food web)
87 interactions, spatial configuration of habitats, or planktonic larval transport (Doney et al.,
88 2012, Metcalfe et al., 2012).

89 Responses to these environmental drivers, e.g. through changes in productivity and spatial
90 distribution will co-determine the future development of fish stocks and fisheries (Perry et
91 al., 2005, Lehodey et al., 2006). For instance, periodic changes between anchovy and
92 sardine regimes in the North Pacific can be explained by different optimum growth
93 temperatures (Takasuka et al., 2007, Lindegren and Checkley, 2013), and warming
94 temperatures have contributed to recently high stock levels in Barents Sea cod (Ottersen et
95 al., 2006, Kjesbu et al., 2014). In tropical and upwelling areas, and due to the general
96 warming trend, low oxygen availability can set physiological limits to fish stocks (Ekau et
97 al., 2010, Stramma et al., 2010). Across marine ecosystems, ocean acidification has emerged

98 as an additional threat for marine fish populations e.g. through impacts on larval behaviour
99 and associated mortality as seen in coral reef fish (Munday et al., 2010).

100 Climate change impacts different hierarchical levels of biological organization, from
101 individual physiology and population level changes to community and ecosystem shifts (Le
102 Quesne and Pinnegar, 2012). Many of the direct effects on organisms can only be observed
103 and investigated at the cellular or individual level, and to assess their overall stock effects,
104 they have to be scaled up to population and community level, thus integrating processes on
105 the different levels (Rijnsdorp et al., 2009, Pörtner and Peck, 2010). Physiological processes
106 link the physical environment to individual-level responses and thus help to gain principal
107 mechanism-based understanding of climate change impacts on populations and
108 ecosystems (Pörtner and Farrell, 2008, Denny and Helmuth, 2009, Chown et al., 2010).

109 To anticipate climate change effects in marine ecosystems, ecological simulation models
110 allow for the inclusion of processes on different hierarchical levels of biological
111 organization, and an analysis of their mutual feedbacks. Models may integrate the impacts
112 of multiple drivers on fish from the physiological to the community and ecosystem levels,
113 and to analyse stock dynamics under different scenarios of environmental change. To
114 improve model projections and test hypotheses about environmental determinants for fish
115 stocks, it is necessary to investigate mechanisms underlying stock dynamics and
116 distribution (Hollowed et al., 2009, Hare, 2014). As empirical or statistical descriptions are
117 based on the observed range of the combined underlying factors, historical data and
118 identified patterns for fish stocks may fail to resolve uncertainties of projections if the

119 underlying processes, e.g. life history, energetics, and recruitment patterns, change and
120 causalities are not understood (Mangel and Levin, 2005).

121 A more mechanistic formulation of models could be based on the explicit consideration of
122 physiological and ecological processes that determine observed phenomena (Baskett,
123 2012, Metcalfe et al., 2012). This could increase the projection capacities of models under
124 new combinations of environmental drivers (Jørgensen et al., 2012, Russell et al., 2012).
125 These models could make better use of results from advanced experiments on multiple
126 drivers (Denman et al., 2011, Dupont and Pörtner, 2013) and be tested with observations
127 on stock dynamics in already changing environments, facilitating development of early-
128 warning signs for productivity changes in fish stocks (Brander, 2010). In the light of
129 recently increased efforts to establish ecosystem-based fisheries management approaches
130 and the growing importance of societal climate adaptation, an integration of knowledge
131 about ecological and physiological processes seems necessary more than ever before (Cury
132 et al., 2008, Miller et al., 2010, Persson et al., 2014).

133 Although models for use in climate change projections and ecosystem-based fisheries
134 management have been reviewed for general strengths and weaknesses (Keyl and Wolff,
135 2007, Plagányi, 2007, Stock et al., 2011, Hollowed et al., 2012) and some approaches for
136 better integration of physiological data and mechanistic concepts have been proposed
137 (Metcalfe et al., 2012, Persson et al., 2014), a systematic inspection of possible directions
138 for advancement is currently lacking. An up-to-date and comprehensive review of
139 modelling approaches for marine fish and options for direct integration of environmental

140 effects therefore seems timely and may facilitate better interdisciplinary exchange and
141 well-coordinated progress in this fast-developing field.

142 In this article, we will provide an overview of potentially relevant physiological and
143 ecological processes to understand climate change impacts on fish stocks (section two). We
144 then review available modelling approaches and present examples for marine fish species,
145 analysing them for their potential and limitations to incorporate environmental impacts on
146 the identified processes (section three). In the closing section, we exemplify the challenges
147 and potential for the advancement of models by addressing five key questions in regard to
148 climate change impacts on marine fish, in the context of changes in their ecosystems and in
149 human resource uses.

150 **From drivers to processes: Physiological and ecological processes affected by environmental**
151 **drivers**

152 Physiological processes act from the cellular to the organism level, and can be used to
153 explain direct effects of environmental drivers and individual tolerance towards changes.
154 They affect and are affected by higher levels of biological organization, such as the
155 population or community and ecosystem interactions, where ecological processes can
156 serve to extrapolate the impacts of climate change, ocean acidification and other drivers
157 (Pörtner and Peck, 2010, Monaco and Helmuth, 2011, Gaylord et al., 2015). As a framework
158 for structuring our analysis of modelling approaches, we will consider physiological and
159 ecological key processes, organized by the level of biological organization on which they act

160 primarily (Fig. 1). This is intended to help the reader identify potentially relevant processes
161 as the basis for choosing an appropriate model.

162 **Organism level processes, and suborganismal processes interacting on the**
163 **individual level**

164 Environmental drivers can affect a range of processes at the organismal level, and
165 individual tolerance of fish is co-defined by suborganismal (i.e. tissue and cellular) level
166 capacities and processes (cf. Fig. 1). Basic organism processes such as routine activity,
167 growth and reproduction are sustained only in a limited range of temperatures, indicating
168 thermal specialization. Through its effects on metabolic processes in ectothermic animals,
169 temperature modifies development and growth rates. Elevated temperatures entail
170 increased metabolic rates and energy turnover (Clarke and Johnston, 1999). However,
171 when a critical temperature is reached, aerobic physiological performance fails to increase
172 further or is even reduced, due to limited oxygen availability and capacities of respiratory,
173 ventilatory, and cardiovascular systems. Sustained performance relies on aerobically
174 produced metabolic energy, thus oxygen availability sets general limits to fish metabolism
175 and growth (Pauly, 2010). Organismal capacities vary between behavioural types and
176 habitat adaptations, e.g. active pelagic swimmers vs. benthic ambush predators,
177 eurythermal vs. stenothermal habitats (Pörtner et al., 2004). Individual fish behaviour thus
178 has consequences for population, community and ecosystem processes, and behavioural
179 adaptation may also buffer impacts of environmental drivers on individuals and
180 populations (Mittelbach et al., 2014).

181 Limitations to an animal's performance and tolerance to unfavourable environmental
182 conditions will eventually become visible at the whole animal level, but are co-defined at
183 the cellular level. While temperature may be the most important factor in setting these
184 limits (Pörtner and Peck, 2010), further environmental factors such as ocean acidification
185 or hypoxia (low O₂ levels) can modify aerobic capacity and temperature limits (Pörtner,
186 2010, 2012). Hypoxia has for instance been shown to reduce food uptake and limit
187 metabolic and growth rates and development of early life stages in fish (Ekau et al., 2010).
188 More recently, ocean acidification (declining oceanic pH and elevated CO₂ levels) has been
189 identified as an additional driver, underscoring the necessity to integrate physiological
190 responses and experimental results on interactions among drivers into models and
191 projections (Fabry et al., 2008, Riebesell and Gattuso, 2015).

192 High seawater CO₂ levels increase CO₂ diffusion into the bloodstream of marine fish, which
193 is generally compensated within hours to days by an active accumulation of bicarbonate
194 (HCO₃⁻) to maintain the extracellular pH required for efficient cellular functioning (e.g.
195 Heisler, 1984, Brauner and Baker, 2009, Melzner et al., 2009b). The increased energy
196 demand of compensatory metabolic processes such as acid-base regulation (Deigweiher et
197 al., 2008, Melzner et al., 2009a) can entail shifts in the animal's energy budget, and lead to
198 acclimatory responses in various physiological processes. Consequently, ocean acidification
199 will act in addition to, or synergistically with, ocean warming, leading to decreased upper
200 critical temperatures (Pörtner and Peck, 2010). Recent studies have demonstrated a
201 considerable chronic impact of ocean acidification, e.g. on cellular metabolism (Strobel et
202 al., 2012, Strobel et al., 2013), metabolic rate (Michaelidis et al., 2007, Enzor et al., 2013),
203 respiratory performance (Couturier et al., 2013) and aerobic scope (Rummer et al., 2013).

204 Thus, consideration of the physiological processes involved in individual responses can
205 serve to integrate the effects of multiple drivers (increasing temperature, acidification,
206 hypoxia) and to assess the combined effect on the organism and the energetic cost of
207 individual acclimation.

208 **Population level processes: recruitment, reproduction, population adaptation**

209 Processes at the population level, such as recruitment, determine the dynamics of fish
210 stocks and can be strongly influenced by the physical environment (Rothschild et al., 1989,
211 Myers, 1998, Ottersen et al., 2013, Szuwalski et al., 2014). Increasing temperatures lead to
212 faster development of fish larval stages, earlier maturation at smaller sizes and reduced
213 *per-capita* fecundity, affecting population productivity (Rijnsdorp et al., 2009, Baudron et
214 al., 2014).

215 Embryos and larval stages do not yet express the fully developed capacities for acid-base
216 regulation of juvenile and adult fish. Thus, additional stressors such as ocean acidification,
217 hypoxia or pollution can lead to increased mortality and impaired growth performance
218 (Franke and Clemmesen, 2011, Baumann et al., 2012, Frommel et al., 2012, Nikinmaa,
219 2013). Increased temperature and ocean acidification can also affect reproductive output
220 and gamete survival, impacting reproduction of the population (Inaba et al., 2003, Frommel
221 et al., 2010, Miller et al., 2015). Thus, egg and larval stages are potential bottlenecks in life
222 history and in adaptation of fish to multiple environmental drivers (Melzner et al., 2009b,
223 Rijnsdorp et al., 2009).

224 Whether adaptation of fish populations can keep pace with future changes in
225 environmental conditions is an important open research question (Rijnsdorp et al., 2009).
226 Population adaptation can happen within the range of phenotypic plasticity, e.g. through
227 behavioural adaptation, developmental and trans-generational acclimation (Crozier and
228 Hutchings, 2014), or by evolution of adaptive genetic divergence (Nielsen et al., 2009,
229 Reusch, 2014). While genomic markers have been linked to ecological differentiation e.g. in
230 Atlantic cod (Hemmer-Hansen et al., 2013), most available studies have found plastic
231 responses, and studies reporting trans-generational plasticity under conditions of climate
232 change are relatively scarce for large and long-lived fish species (Crozier and Hutchings,
233 2014, Munday, 2014). However, some laboratory and in situ experiments demonstrate that
234 heritable effects can significantly enhance tolerance to environmental drivers and involve
235 metabolic readjustments (Donelson and Munday, 2012, Miller et al., 2012, Shama et al.,
236 2014). Effects of climate change at the population level may also act synergistically with
237 impacts of human exploitation, as fishing pressure can lead to a reduction in size at
238 maturation (Law, 2000, Jørgensen et al., 2007) and to a higher sensitivity towards
239 environmental fluctuations in exploited stocks (Perry et al., 2010).

240 **Community level processes: predation, competition, mutualism & facilitation**

241 Direct environmental effects on fish are influenced by species interactions in the food web,
242 and can lead to indirect effects on other species (e.g. Link et al., 2009, Engelhard et al.,
243 2014, Bogstad et al., 2015). The response of a marine ecosystem to changes of one stock
244 depends on the type of trophic control, i.e. bottom-up or top-down (Frank et al., 2006), and
245 the characteristics of predator-prey interactions are a primary determinant of marine

246 community resilience (Hunsicker et al., 2011). Cascading effects triggered by direct impacts
247 on one element of the food web may be especially relevant in top-down controlled systems
248 (Frank et al., 2006), can lead to regime or phase shifts, and therefore have to be considered
249 when discussing effects of climate change (Mangel and Levin, 2005, Link et al., 2009).

250 Changes in prey biomass and composition can influence the energy uptake for fish due to
251 different energy content or size of food particles (Beaugrand et al., 2003, Beaugrand and
252 Kirby, 2010). Regional changes in zooplankton communities are correlated to rising water
253 temperatures and may facilitate range shifts of fish stocks, which follow the occurrence of
254 their preferred prey (Brander, 2010, Dalpadado et al., 2012). Calcifying zooplankton
255 species, e.g. pteropods, may be vulnerable to ocean acidification and warming (Lischka and
256 Riebesell, 2012). Non-calcifying zooplankton, such as copepods, have displayed a reduced
257 overall energy content under warming and acidification (Hildebrandt et al., 2014), and may
258 also be impacted indirectly through reduced food quality of phytoplankton (Rossoll et al.,
259 2012).

260 Changes in trophic interactions and energy transfer will be modulated by individual animal
261 feeding behaviour. Behaviour and sensory systems of fish can be influenced by elevated
262 CO₂ levels putatively through interaction with neuronal receptors (Briffa et al., 2012,
263 Nilsson et al., 2012, Hamilton et al., 2014). Effects have been shown to occur in all life
264 stages in laboratory and field experiments mostly of tropical reef fish (but see Jutfelt et al.,
265 2013, Jutfelt and Hedgarde, 2013) and include impaired olfactory, visual and hearing
266 abilities (Simpson et al., 2011, Leduc et al., 2013, Chung et al., 2014), reduced capacities for
267 learning, homing and decision-making (Devine et al., 2012, Ferrari et al., 2012), and

268 reduced or delayed behavioural responses towards predators (Ferrari et al., 2011, Munday
269 et al., 2013a, Nagelkerken et al., 2015).

270 In sharks, warming and acidification can impair growth and hunting behaviour (Pistevos et
271 al., 2015).

272 Thus, changes in planktonic community composition and predator-prey interactions point
273 at probable changes in food composition for fish and in marine community dynamics. Other
274 interactions, such as mutualism, facilitation or parasitism, may also be affected by changed
275 occurrences and sensitivities of species, and influence the response at the community level.

276 **Spatial ecosystem level processes: migration, dispersal, habitat availability**

277 The spatial heterogeneity of marine habitats influences the range of environmental
278 conditions experienced by individuals, and interacts with population and community
279 processes (Ciannelli et al., 2008). Changes in distribution ranges of marine fish species
280 under climate change, are based on the spatial processes migration and dispersal, and on
281 the availability of suitable habitat (Roessig et al., 2005). For instance, vertical foraging
282 migrations or large-distance seasonal migrations can be linked to characteristic
283 temperature corridors (e.g. Kitagawa et al., 2000, Stensholt, 2001). Spatial structure and
284 distribution of stocks can be shaped by migratory behaviour and larval dispersal, as
285 governed by oceanic currents and bottom topography (e.g. Rindorf and Lewy, 2006,
286 Knutsen et al., 2007). Local impacts of climate change e.g. in spawning or nursery grounds
287 can thus disrupt spatial life cycles via recruitment success (Petitgas et al., 2012, Llopiz et

288 al., 2014). Spatial structure of fish stocks also influences the response to harvesting
289 (Ciannelli et al., 2013).

290 Ocean warming may reduce dispersal distances and decrease population connectivity due
291 to faster larval development, and can lead to shifts in seasonal spawning timing (O'Connor
292 et al., 2007, Asch, 2015). Experimental and empirical data can elucidate these spatial-
293 temporal organism-habitat connections. Processes such as migration and recruitment can
294 in principle be described as a result of behavioural responses to the spatial environment,
295 governed by physiological capabilities and limitations (cf. Fiksen et al., 2007).

296 Observational and telemetry data can be used to inform about population movements
297 (Metcalf et al., 2012), and genomic methods can reveal fine-scale population structuring
298 and local or regional adaptive differentiation in fish species (Nielsen et al., 2009).

299 **From processes to models: Modelling approaches and their capacity for process-based**
300 **integration of environmental drivers**

301 In this section, the main types of models used to investigate marine fish are analysed for
302 their capacity to incorporate the effects of environmental drivers on specific physiological
303 and ecological processes. For clarity, we divide the models into seven categories: 1) single-
304 species population dynamic models, 2) multi-species population dynamic models, 3)
305 trophodynamic & mass-balanced models, 4) species distribution models (SDMs), 5) trait-
306 based & size-spectrum models, 6) individual-based models (IBMs), and 7) bioenergetic
307 models. These categories represent historical developments, but no definitive functional
308 distinctions. Modelling approaches are under rapid development and continuously

309 incorporating new possibilities, sometimes originating from other model classes. Finally,
310 we describe approaches and issues for the coupling of models and coupled end-to-end
311 models.

312 We aim to explain the underlying concepts, and review recent applications and extensions
313 with regard to the incorporation of environmental drivers, to give a guideline in the choice
314 of a suitable modelling approach. Furthermore, we present relevant freely available
315 software packages, to encourage the reader to try out models and gain a better
316 understanding of the underlying assumptions.

317 **Single-species population dynamic models**

318 Single-species population dynamic models descend from models used for traditional
319 fisheries stock assessment (Ricker, 1954, Beverton and Holt, 1957). These models rely on
320 catch and survey data to estimate fish stock size, and simulate stock dynamics based on
321 estimated population-level parameters like biomass, growth rate, recruitment, fishing and
322 natural mortality (Hilborn, 2012). Extensions have divided stocks into age and/or size
323 classes that can possess varying mortalities and growth (Deriso et al., 1985, Fournier et al.,
324 1990), and 'matrix population' models consider both factors e.g. by describing stages
325 within age classes (Caswell, 2001).

326 **Organism:** Stock models with both size- and age-structure can integrate adjustments of
327 size-dependent or age-dependent processes (e.g. growth, mortality, development as shift to
328 the next stage) based on environmental effects. The effects of temperature have been
329 incorporated by tuning the growth function, e.g. for climate-dependent variations in

330 Atlantic cod stocks (Brander, 1995, Clark et al., 2003), and by adjusting natural mortality,
331 e.g. in an age-structured model for Pacific saury (*Cololabis saira*, Scomberesocidae; Tian et
332 al., 2004). Assumed effects of changes in temperature, salinity and hypoxia on growth,
333 mortality and reproduction have been integrated in a matrix projection model for Atlantic
334 croaker (*Micropogonias undulatus*, Sciaenidae; Diamond et al., 2013).

335 **Population:** Stock assessment models aggregate early life stages in an empirical stock-
336 recruitment relationship (Needle, 2001), which determines critical characteristics of the
337 produced stock dynamics (e.g. Cabral et al., 2013). Environmental drivers have been
338 incorporated into recruitment functions (Hollowed et al., 2009), e.g. as temperature effects
339 on North Sea and Baltic cod (Köster et al., 2001, Clark et al., 2003), on tropical rock lobster
340 (*Panulirus ornatus*, Palinuridae; Plaganyi et al., 2011) and on Baltic sprat (*Sprattus sprattus*,
341 Clupeidae; Voss et al., 2011). The influences of atmospheric oscillations and regional
342 oceanographic regimes on recruitment have been incorporated e.g. for Atlantic cod
343 (Brander and Mohn, 2004), Northern rock sole (*Lepidopsetta polyxystra*, Pleuronectidae;
344 Hollowed et al., 2009) and jackass morwong (*Nemadactylus macropterus*, [Cheilodactylidae](#);
345 Wayte, 2013).

346 Simpler, non stage-structured 'surplus production' models have investigated stock
347 dynamics as driven by temperature regimes and climate oscillations (Rose, 2004, Holsman
348 et al., 2012). Matrix projection models can incorporate more process detail, integrating
349 reproduction and estimating recruitment from growth, maturation and cannibalism
350 processes, as applied for Atlantic cod (Frøysa et al., 2002, Andrews et al., 2006) and
351 Atlantic croaker (Diamond et al., 2013).

352 **Community:** Food web interactions are not explicitly incorporated in single-species
353 assessment models (see ‘multi-species population dynamic models’), but are indirectly
354 considered through model fitting to stock observations. Stock models could take into
355 account changes in community level processes via adjusting stock growth or an additional
356 mortality parameter.

357 **Spatial consideration:** Movement of stocks has been integrated through grid cells
358 connected by advection and diffusion e.g. for albacore (*Thunnus alalunga*, Scombridae;
359 Fournier et al., 1998) and for Atlantic cod (Andrews et al., 2006). By modelling the
360 dynamics of metapopulations with distinct sub-stocks, differences in population
361 parameters and more detailed spatial processes such as migration, spatially disaggregated
362 spawning, and larval diffusion can be incorporated (Goethel et al., 2011).

363 **Multi-species population dynamic models**

364 Multi-species population dynamic models originate from the extension of single-species
365 stock assessment models (Pope, 1979, Gislason, 1999, Lewy and Vinther, 2004). These
366 models use diet data to couple several species via their feeding interactions, whereby the
367 mortality rate of a stock is determined from its consumption by other species (Pope, 1991,
368 Magnússon, 1995, Rose and Sable, 2009). Selection of the included species can be based on
369 abundance, relevance from an economic or management perspective, or because of key
370 interactions with the target species (Rindorf et al., 2013, Plaganyi et al., 2014b). Models
371 include up to six species and often aim to evaluate interdependent fluctuations of fish
372 stocks in response to environmental changes (e.g. Bogstad et al., 1997, Livingston, 2000).

373 **Organism:** Due to an underlying structure equivalent to single-species population dynamic
374 models, multi-species models have essentially the same capacities and limitations for
375 integrating organism-level processes. The explicit consideration of species interactions
376 may allow a more realistic parameterization e.g. of natural mortality and growth
377 (Hollowed, 2000).

378 **Population:** Restrictions apply as for single species stock models. However, multi-species
379 models can include impacts of predation by other species on early life stages, as
380 demonstrated e.g. for Atlantic cod and interacting species (Lewy and Vinther, 2004,
381 Lindstrøm et al., 2009, Speirs et al., 2010). This would in principle allow for integration of
382 food-web mediated environmental effects on recruitment success.

383 **Community:** Multi-species models incorporate predation and competition processes
384 among the included species, with a moderate number of species assumed to be sufficient to
385 describe regional food web dynamics (Rindorf et al., 2013). The predation process is
386 formulated as a statistical 'functional response' between predator consumption and prey
387 abundance (Holling type functions; Holling, 1959), where prey suitability is usually based
388 on data from stomach content analysis (Magnússon, 1995). Environmental influence on the
389 predation process has been incorporated by dynamically modelling stomach content and
390 the impact of temperature on evacuation rates to represent metabolic activity, in a study
391 with Atlantic menhaden (*Brevoortia tyrannus*, Clupeidae) and its predators (Garrison et al.,
392 2010).

393 **Spatial consideration:** Multi-species models can divide stock representations into several
394 regional areas to include connecting processes such as seasonal migration patterns and

395 larval dispersal, as realized for the Barents Sea (Tjelmeland and Bogstad, 1998, Lindstrøm
396 et al., 2009).

397 **Trophodynamic & mass-balance models**

398 Trophodynamic or mass-balance models (also termed whole system or aggregate system
399 models) build on the analysis of mass or energy flows in ecological networks (Polovina,
400 1984, Ulanowicz, 1985). Exchange of biomass as wet weight or energy equivalents is
401 modelled among functional groups or 'compartments' (usually species or ecologically
402 similar groups of species) in marine food webs. Available software packages include
403 *Econetwrk* (Ulanowicz, 2004), which focuses on network analysis, *Ecotroph* (Gascuel and
404 Pauly, 2009), which analyses biomass flow through trophic levels, and the multifunctional
405 and widely utilised *Ecopath with Ecosim* package (EwE; Christensen and Walters, 2004).

406 **Organism:** Effects of temperature, acidification and hypoxia on physiological performance
407 of organisms have been incorporated in Ecosim by forcing functional groups or by
408 adjusting their aggregate production, consumption or mortality values (e.g. Ainsworth et
409 al., 2011, Cornwall and Eddy, 2015). The spatial EwE extension *Ecospace* (Walters et al.,
410 1999) permits specifying habitat quality based on various environmental factors, which
411 then determines foraging capacity (Christensen et al., 2014a), and can divide life stages into
412 smaller packages to approach 'individual-based' functionality (Walters et al., 2010).

413 **Population:** The 'multi-stanza' feature in EwE facilitates the representation of life stages to
414 describe recruitment (Christensen and Walters, 2004, Walters et al., 2010), but
415 reproduction is not explicitly represented. As the underlying parameters are on functional

416 group level, the analysis of plasticity and adaptation of populations is limited (Christensen
417 and Walters, 2004).

418 **Community:** Energy flow over trophic levels can inform about general ecosystem
419 characteristics and functioning (e.g. Link et al., 2008, Gascuel et al., 2011). The
420 differentiation of represented compartments (species or functional groups) can be adjusted
421 to optimize between food web resolution and data availability and reliability (Prato et al.,
422 2014), informed by general ecological knowledge and sensitivity analyses (Link, 2010,
423 Lassalle et al., 2014).

424 Predation is represented by a functional response depending on predator and prey
425 biomasses (Christensen and Walters, 2004). In principle, vulnerability settings for each
426 compartment provide an aggregate measure to integrate e.g. risk-sensitive foraging or
427 predation behaviour (Ahrens et al., 2012). Via forcing functions, consumption and
428 vulnerability parameters, or zooplankton groups and primary production can be adjusted
429 to represent impacts of climate change on feeding interactions or food availability (e.g.
430 Shannon et al., 2004, Field et al., 2006, Araújo and Bundy, 2012).

431 **Spatial consideration:** The *Ecospace* module of EwE can represent spatial-temporal
432 distribution of biomass, including probability functions of movement (Walters et al., 2010).
433 Habitat suitability, seasonal migrations and larval dispersal have been integrated e.g. for
434 areas in the Mediterranean (Libralato and Solidoro, 2009, Fouzai et al., 2012). Two recently
435 added features enable dynamic spatial-temporal environmental data input (Steenbeek et
436 al., 2013a) and more detailed integration of variable habitat suitability factors (Christensen
437 et al., 2014a).

438 **Species Distribution Models (SDMs)**

439 Species Distribution Models (SDMs, also termed niche-based models, climate envelope
440 models, or predictive habitat distribution models) link observed geographical species
441 distributions to environmental parameters, classically through regression analysis (Guisan
442 and Zimmermann, 2000, Elith and Leathwick, 2009). Besides a wealth of applications in the
443 terrestrial realm, SDMs are increasingly used for projecting future distributions of marine
444 fish stocks from regional projections of environmental factors (Cheung et al., 2008, Cheung
445 et al., 2009, Lenoir et al., 2010). Dedicated SDM software platforms enable the application
446 and comparison of different algorithms (e.g. Thuiller et al., 2009).

447 **Organism:** Organism level effects of environmental drivers can readily be incorporated
448 into SDMs as performance curves dependent on physical factors. To integrate multiple
449 environmental variables, different suitability factors can be multiplied (e.g. Kaschner et al.,
450 2006). Aerobic scope has been used to integrate effects of temperature, oxygen, pH and
451 food energy into the population growth function for marine fish stocks (Cheung et al.,
452 2011).

453 SDMs which aim to increase detail by including functional relationships between physical
454 variables and species performance, e.g. thermodynamic energy transfer principles, have
455 been termed mechanistic SDMs or mechanistic niche models (Dormann, 2007, Kearney and
456 Porter, 2009). Under changing environmental conditions, increased care has to be taken in
457 the choice of environmental variables, species-specific data, and applied algorithms to
458 supply ecologically meaningful and robust projections (Araújo and Guisan, 2006, Heikkinen
459 et al., 2006, Austin, 2007).

460 **Population:** A logistic population growth model incorporates temperature effects on
461 population carrying capacity to model the global distribution of fish species (Cheung et al.,
462 2008). As environmental correlations are usually based on the occurrence of adults, it is
463 difficult to include ontogenetic shifts in environmental tolerance or preference in different
464 life stages (Robinson et al., 2011), but more detailed, stage-structured representations of
465 population processes have been achieved in terrestrial models (e.g. Fordham et al., 2013).

466 **Community:** The incorporation of community shifts under climate change represents a
467 challenge for SDMs, as species interactions are only implicitly included in the empirically
468 based response function. Depending on the scale of projections, changes in species
469 interactions may significantly influence the performance of SDMs (Araújo and Rozenfeld,
470 2014). Mechanistic SDMs aim to exclude biotic interactions from the response function and
471 consider them separately (Guisan and Thuiller, 2005) to take into account differential
472 preferences of prey and predator for environmental factors (Robinson et al., 2011),
473 An SDM for the North Atlantic has been extended with community size-spectra to represent
474 competition between species as a division of available food energy (Fernandes et al., 2013).
475 For the Mediterranean Sea, a niche model has been coupled to a trophic network model to
476 derive temperature-induced shifts in food webs (Albouy et al., 2014).

477 **Spatial consideration:** SDMs can provide high spatial resolution, but correlations are
478 often limited by the availability of species occurrence data. Larval dispersal, adult
479 migrations, habitat availability and regional primary production changes have been
480 included into projections of worldwide distribution changes of marine fish (Cheung et al.,
481 2009, Cheung et al., 2010). Seasonal migrations and other spatio-temporal processes

482 governed by factors other than current environmental parameters (e.g. genetic) are more
483 difficult to include (Robinson et al., 2011), but have been included e.g. in a habitat
484 prediction model for southern Bluefin tuna (*Thunnus maccoyii*, Scombridae) under
485 changing oceanographic conditions (Hartog et al., 2011).

486 **Trait-based & size-spectrum models**

487 Trait-based models constitute a relatively new approach, focusing on the description of
488 individual characteristics and processes (traits), e.g. size, morphology or weight, which are
489 defined to govern performance of organisms in a specific environment (Chown, 2012).
490 These traits can be used together with metabolic scaling and predation rules to describe
491 life histories and interactions (Brown et al., 2004, Andersen and Beyer, 2006) and to
492 construct community size-spectrum models for fish (Benoit and Rochet, 2004, Pope et al.,
493 2006). A multi-species size spectrum modelling package, is available with an example
494 parameterized for the North Sea (Scott et al., 2014).

495 **Organism:** Trait-based models can incorporate considerable detail on organism-level
496 processes such as growth, foraging, reproduction and basal metabolism, modelling
497 organismal trade-offs via energy allocation (Jørgensen and Fiksen, 2006). For Atlantic cod
498 larvae, optimal vertical migration and life history strategies have been derived from
499 responses to the environmental variables food, temperature and light (Kristiansen et al.,
500 2009, Fiksen and Jorgensen, 2011). Recently, individual energy and oxygen budgets have
501 been used to derive changes in growth, mortality and reproduction rates under ocean
502 warming and project impacts on population characteristics and optimal behavioural and
503 life history strategies (Holt and Jørgensen, 2014, Holt and Jørgensen, 2015).

504 **Population:** Trait-based models have high potential to describe processes shaping
505 population dynamics, such as reproduction and recruitment, by basing them on individual
506 life histories. These can be resolved for size, growth and maturation (e.g. Hartvig et al.,
507 2011, Holt and Jørgensen, 2014). However, trait-based models usually include an empirical
508 stock-recruitment relationship to determine recruitment and represent closure of life
509 cycles (Jacobsen et al., 2014). Adaptation of fish populations to size-selective drivers (e.g.
510 fisheries exploitation) can be quantified based on changes of individual growth,
511 reproduction and mortality processes (Andersen and Brander, 2009). Eco-genetic or
512 adaptive dynamics models investigate plasticity and evolutionary rates within populations
513 (Dunlop et al., 2009).

514 **Community:** In size spectrum models, community interactions and food webs are usually
515 constructed bottom-up, based on the realized interactions as governed by the integrated
516 traits, e.g. 'size at maturation' (e.g. Jennings and Brander, 2010, Hartvig et al., 2011). Simple
517 size spectrum models can investigate community shifts under temperature effects on
518 growth (Pope et al., 2009). Behavioural, energy allocation and foraging processes can
519 connect individual processes in more detail (Andersen and Beyer, 2013), and functional
520 separation in interactions can be integrated by using coupled size spectra, as exemplified
521 for pelagic predators and benthic detritivores (Blanchard et al., 2009).

522 **Spatial consideration:** Size spectrum models can use spatial input from oceanographic
523 and biogeochemical models to incorporate e.g. temperature effects on feeding and
524 mortality (Blanchard et al., 2012) and to simulate movement (Watson et al., 2014).

525 **Individual-based models (IBMs)**

526 Individual-based models (also termed agent-based models) are a bottom-up modelling
527 approach, based on the simulation of individuals as separate entities. Their status is
528 determined by internal state variables and changed by interactions with other individuals
529 and the environment (e.g. foraging and predation), generating population and higher-level
530 system properties (Huston et al., 1988, Judson, 1994, Grimm, 1999). Various IBM
531 programming packages focus on agent-environment interactions (Railsback et al., 2006,
532 Arunachalam et al., 2008). More specialized software tools model environmental impacts
533 on the dispersal of planktonic fish larvae (Lett et al., 2008, e.g. Huebert and Peck, 2014).

534 **Organism:** IBMs for larval fish describe growth, development and mortality as dependent
535 on environmental parameters (Hinckley et al., 1996, Hermann et al., 2001, Gallego et al.,
536 2007). Behavioural rules can link environmental factors (e.g. light, temperature, oxygen) to
537 metabolism, energy use, and predation risk (Fiksen et al., 2007). Energy allocation
538 principles can be used to describe connections and trade-offs among internal processes in
539 IBMs (Sibly et al., 2013). More detailed environmental and experimental data is needed for
540 further advances in larval IBMs (Lett et al., 2010, Peck and Hufnagl, 2012).

541 **Population:** IBMs allow for consideration of inter-individual variation in fish responses
542 and the resulting environmental selection (Van Winkle et al., 1993) and can thus be used to
543 investigate population adaptation to changing environmental drivers (e.g. Anderson et al.,
544 2013). While representing both detailed early life stages and closed life cycles of
545 populations produces considerable model complexity and computational demands, IBMs
546 can be used to integrate variation into more aggregate models (Rose et al., 2001).

547 IBMs have been used to investigate early life stage dynamics, connectivity between stocks
548 and environmental impact on recruitment potential of marine fish (Mullon et al., 2002,
549 Miller, 2007, Hinrichsen et al., 2011). Demographic changes under climate change have
550 been investigated for Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*, Salmonidae; Piou and Prévost, 2012).

551 **Community:** IBMs are successful in detailing the predation of larval fish on zooplankton
552 based on spatial co-occurrence, the environment and behavioural processes, e.g.
553 investigating match-mismatch dynamics (Kristiansen et al., 2011). Thus, growth and
554 mortality can be described as emergent properties of individual interactions, providing the
555 predation functional response with ecological detail (Huse and Fiksen, 2010).

556 Changes in lower trophic levels can be integrated as 'prey fields' (aggregated prey densities
557 in a defined space) into larval models (Hermann et al., 2001, Daewel et al., 2008). Size-
558 governed predation processes have been resolved in a multi-species IBM for pelagic fish
559 communities (OSMOSE; Shin and Cury, 2001, 2004; for this and other multi-species IBMs,
560 see section on 'coupled and end-to-end models').

561 **Spatial consideration:** Biophysical IBMs can model impacts on larval dispersal, based on
562 output from three-dimensional oceanographic models, as realized e.g. for larvae of walleye
563 pollock (*Theragra chalcogramma*, Gadidae; Hermann et al., 2001), Southern African
564 anchovy (*Engraulis capensis*, Engraulidae; Mullon et al., 2002), Atlantic cod (Vikebo et al.,
565 2007, Heath et al., 2008) and Atlantic herring (Vikebo et al., 2010). A mechanism-based, not
566 species-explicit model has been used to investigate climate change impacts on adult fish
567 and mammal migrations (Anderson et al., 2013).

568 **Bioenergetic models**

569 Bioenergetic models simulate the internal energy budget of organisms by using rules for
570 energy allocation. Metabolic processes such as feeding, respiration, growth and
571 reproduction are linked to external parameters, e.g. food and temperature, to determine
572 the organism's performance (Brown et al., 2004, Hartman and Kitchell, 2008). Classic
573 bioenergetic models have been applied to a variety of fish species (Hansen et al., 1993). In
574 Dynamic Energy Budget (DEB) models (Kooijman, 2000, van der Meer, 2006), individuals
575 are characterized by the state of different energy compartments such as structure, reserves
576 and reproduction (Lika and Kooijman, 2011, Nisbet et al., 2012). Energy budget
577 representations have also been integrated into other model types (see 'Organism'
578 subsections of 'Trait-based & size-spectrum models', 'Individual-based models' and
579 'Coupled and end-to-end models' sections).

580 **Organism:** Energy budgets have been used to compare temperature-dependent organism
581 performances and sensitivities among different fish species (van der Veer et al., 2001,
582 Sousa et al., 2008, Freitas et al., 2010). While this provides the base for a mechanistic
583 understanding of diverging organism performances under climate change, further research
584 will be required to incorporate life history and behavioural detail, activity costs, and
585 seasonal and ontogenetic variations in energy allocation (Beauchamp et al., 2007, Sibly et
586 al., 2013) as well as the treatment of oxygen supply for metabolism (Pauly, 2010).

587 **Population:** Bioenergetic models have been scaled up to population level to determine
588 parameters such as biomass, consumption and growth of fish stocks, based on changes in
589 metabolic and feeding rates (Beauchamp et al., 2007, Perez-Rodriguez and Saborido-Rey,

590 2012). To include more detail on population level processes, DEBs have been integrated
591 into matrix population models (e.g. Klanjscek et al., 2006) and energy allocation patterns
592 adapted to the life-history of the organism (Nisbet et al., 2012).

593 Spawning dynamics resulting from temperature and food effects on energy budgets have
594 been investigated for European anchovy (Pecquerie et al., 2009) and Atlantic Bluefin tuna
595 (*Thunnus thynnus*, Scombridae; Chapman et al., 2011). The integration of energy budget
596 models into IBMs allows more detailed upscaling of individual-level processes to
597 population level (Hölker and Breckling, 2005, Sibly et al., 2013), and for DEB-IBM
598 integration a software framework is available (Martin et al., 2011, Martin et al., 2013).

599 **Community:** Predator-prey interactions in bioenergetic IBMs determine energy transfer
600 between individuals, and can therefore include changes in prey composition or energy
601 content (Martin et al., 2011). Behavioural aspects of foraging are more difficult to include
602 (Beauchamp et al., 2007). Dynamic Energy Budgets have been used to derive thermal
603 ranges of fishes in the North Sea (Freitas et al., 2010), and can be integrated into size-
604 spectra models to investigate community dynamics (Maury and Poggiale, 2013).

605 **Spatial consideration:** A DEB model has been coupled to biogeochemical and lower
606 trophic level models to investigate the spatial distribution of North Atlantic flatfish species
607 (Teal et al., 2012). To investigate detailed spatial processes, bioenergetic models have been
608 integrated into size-structured models (e.g. Maury, 2010; see 'Coupled and end-to-end
609 models'), and can be incorporated into individual-based and species distribution models,
610 but data availability and the complexity of organismal plasticity and ontogenetic changes
611 may limit their up-scaling to the ecosystem level (Freitas et al., 2010).

612 **Coupled and end-to-end models**

613 As each modelling approach has characteristic strengths and simplifications, coupling of
614 different ecological models increases the potential for explicit process integration (cf.
615 Reuter et al., 2010). A range of coupled models is available, and some consist of a complex
616 array of submodels, connecting ecosystem levels and scientific disciplines (Moloney et al.,
617 2011) to achieve an 'end-to-end' representation of climate change impacts, i.e. from
618 physical oceanographic changes via nutrient dynamics and planktonic lower trophic levels,
619 to fish stocks, other higher trophic levels and links to socio-economic dynamics (Travers et
620 al., 2007, Fulton, 2010, Rose et al., 2010). To link across these levels, models can profit from
621 detailing processes, e.g. related to energy allocation, feeding and behaviour (Nisbet et al.,
622 2000, Brown et al., 2004, Kearney et al., 2010, Persson et al., 2014). Note that recent
623 extensions and advances in end-to-end modelling are not all covered in the peer-reviewed
624 literature, and it is beyond the scope of this paper to provide more than a short overview of
625 these models.

626 Three conceptually related models integrate oceanographic models, simplified nutrient and
627 lower trophic level dynamics and bioenergetic models for certain pelagic fish species.
628 APECOSM (Apex Predators ECOSystem Model; Maury, 2010) and SEAPODYM (Spatial
629 Ecosystem And POpulations DYnamics Model; Lehodey et al., 2008) represent size-
630 structured predation and movement in different tuna and related species, and have been
631 used to investigate worldwide distribution shifts under climate change (Lefort et al., 2015,
632 Lehodey et al., 2015). NEMURO.FISH (North Pacific Ecosystem Model for Understanding
633 Regional Oceanography - For Including Saury and Herring) has been developed to

634 investigate climate regime effects on Pacific herring (*Clupea pallasii pallasii*, Clupeidae;
635 Megrey et al., 2007, Rose et al., 2008) and Pacific saury (Ito et al., 2004).

636 OSMOSE (Object-oriented Simulator of Marine ecOSystems Exploitation) is an IBM
637 representing multiple size classes and size-based interactions (Shin and Cury, 2004).
638 Recent OSMOSE versions have been used to investigate combined effects of climate change
639 and fisheries by coupling energy-dependent growth of early life stages to simple models of
640 lower trophic levels (Travers-Trolet et al., 2014). Based on environmental driving from the
641 NEMURO model, a recent multi-species IBM development for the California Current
642 simulates dynamics of Californian anchovy (*Engraulis mordax*, [Engraulidae](#)) and Pacific
643 sardine (*Sardinops sagax caerulea*, Clupeidae), linking to an agent-based fisheries model
644 (Fiechter et al., 2015, Rose et al., 2015).

645 Atlantis is a modular end-to-end model aimed at the evaluation of management strategies
646 (Fulton et al., 2004, Fulton et al., 2011). Fish stocks are age-structured, with average size
647 and condition tracked, and different types of functional responses can be used to describe
648 trophic interactions (Fulton, 2010, Kaplan et al., 2012). Effects of warming, acidification
649 and salinity changes have been integrated on represented processes such as growth,
650 reproduction, and movement (Griffith et al., 2012, Fulton and Gorton).

651 In principle, these comprehensive models possess a high potential for consideration of
652 multiple drivers for different species and at various levels of description. However, the
653 complexity of model structures causes a high work effort for estimating and analysing
654 empirical parameters, the consideration of scaling issues and the coupling of modules may

655 be limited by calibration issues and the propagation of uncertainties (Fulton et al., 2003,
656 Rose, 2012, Voinov and Shugart, 2013, Evans et al., 2015).

657 As an alternative to the use of increasingly complex model structures, purposefully
658 simplified end-to-end models can quantify climate change impacts and provide
659 management advice. These have been termed 'models of intermediate complexity' (Hannah
660 et al., 2010) and can be related to or based on multi-species population dynamic models
661 (Plaganyi et al., 2014b). Recent examples have linked nutrient dynamics to fisheries
662 management for the North Sea and Baltic Sea (e.g. Heath, 2012, Radtke et al., 2013). Also,
663 Ecospace models (see 'Trophodynamic & mass-balance models') can be driven with spatial-
664 temporal input from oceanographic models (Steenbeek et al., 2013) to investigate e.g.
665 interactions of hypoxia and fishing (de Mutsert et al., 2015). Lastly, in system dynamics
666 modeling, which aims at a simplified representation of social-ecological systems (Costanza
667 and Ruth, 1998), some examples for fish stocks in the Northwest Atlantic have
668 incorporated habitat conditions and management elements (Ruth and Lindholm, 1996,
669 Gottlieb, 1998).

670 **From models to understanding and projections: Model choices and challenges for addressing**
671 **questions of environmental change**

672 Our compilation illustrates that modelling approaches have strongly diverging capacities to
673 incorporate physiological and ecological processes under scenarios of climate change
674 (Table 1). Most approaches concentrate on specific levels of organization and neglect
675 others, although in many cases recently added features have improved capacities. The best

676 choice of model thus depends on the primary question of interest, the relevant processes
677 and the available data.

678 To exemplify relevant considerations when choosing or constructing a model, we consider
679 five basic research questions asked by the scientific community. Questions 1 to 3 relate to
680 advancing the fundamental understanding of biological responses of fishes to
681 environmental changes (individual tolerance, population adaptation and ecological regime
682 shifts). Questions 4 and 5 focus on projections of the future states of fish stocks (spatial
683 distribution and links to socio-economic developments). We evaluate the capabilities of the
684 presented model classes to treat these questions and suggest how these models may profit
685 from integrating more experimental results and empirical data.

686 **Question 1: What is the individual response and tolerance of fish to multiple**
687 **changing environmental drivers?**

688 Laboratory experiments contribute primarily to this research question by investigating
689 organism level processes that determine the effect of multiple and combined
690 environmental drivers (increasing temperature, acidification, hypoxia) on individual
691 performance. Research on the cumulative effects of stressors, life stage-specific
692 sensitivities and trade-offs between physiological processes can build the foundation for
693 explaining the capacity for and the limitations of individual plasticity.

694 Bioenergetic models can represent individual processes in greatest detail. To project
695 effects on higher-level processes, energy budgets have been successfully integrated in
696 individual-based, trait-based, size-spectrum, species distribution and end-to-end models.

697 Individual-based and trait-based models on the individual level are most directly
698 parameterized with results from experiments, can consider inter-individual heterogeneity,
699 and facilitate a mechanistic understanding of the effects of different constraining or
700 enhancing factors on the performance of individuals. Due to detail richness and specificity
701 of model formulations, these models are often not easily transferable to other species.
702 When applied to multiple species and in a spatial ecosystem context, computational
703 demands can be high.

704 Species distribution models and Ecospace offer comparatively straightforward integration
705 of physiological performance curves into response functions to single and multiplicative
706 drivers. Due to the implicit assumptions regarding upscaling to higher levels of
707 organization, robustness and uncertainty of the applied response functions can be assessed
708 e.g. by using results on sub-lethal physiological responses, which can be provided by
709 laboratory experiments (Woodin et al., 2013). In single or multi-species population
710 dynamic and mass-balance models, experimental results can be used to adjust growth,
711 consumption and mortality of (age/size) stages or cohorts. As this kind of aggregated
712 integration of results does not account for individual variation in responses, robustness of
713 these representations should be assessed over the range of responses in regard to
714 interactions with other drivers and with processes on higher levels (such as predation and
715 selection). This can be conducted e.g. by sensitivity analyses informed by physiological and
716 ecological results, and by including multiple aggregate parameterisations to reflect some
717 level of variation.

718 Advancements are necessary in the individual-level integration of multiple drivers, which
719 can be informed by results from specifically designed experiments. Models will benefit
720 from the integration of data on energy allocation and well-established physiological
721 performance measures, such as aerobic scope, to define habitat suitability under driver
722 combinations (Teal et al., 2015). These can be used to integrate experimental results
723 directly into hydrodynamic and biogeochemical models (e.g. Cucco et al., 2012). Integrative
724 concepts such as scope for activity (Claireaux and Lefrancois, 2007) and oxygen- and
725 capacity-limited thermal tolerance (OCLTT; Pörtner, 2010) can be used to reduce
726 complexity of representation and serve as a matrix for integration of multiple driver effects
727 in order to generalize organismal performance and stress sensitivity (Pörtner, 2012).

728 Models should also increasingly incorporate dynamic responses, to account for acclimation
729 and evolution. Laboratory measurements of organismal acclimation and phenotypic
730 response variation within populations, as well as knowledge of the functional mechanisms
731 underlying organismal responses, can help to estimate organismal adaptive capacity (see
732 also question 2).

733 **Question 2: How will climate change affect the population dynamics of fish stocks**
734 **and what is their capacity for adaptation?**

735 To assess fish stock responses to climate change, integration of the population level
736 processes recruitment and reproduction, and of the adaptation capacity of populations is
737 needed. Recent meta-analyses and statistical models show that for many stocks,
738 recruitment may be strongly dependent on the environment (Ottersen et al., 2013,
739 Szuwalski et al., 2014, Pecuchet et al., 2015). Data from different early life stages, the

740 reproduction process and from trans-generational experiments can contribute to create a
741 more mechanistic description of the environmental dependence of population dynamics
742 and to determine the capacity of stocks to undergo adaptation.

743 Stage-structured single or multi-species population dynamic models can be used to
744 investigate the impacts of environmental change on population size and age structure. The
745 use of generalized stock-recruitment relationships or environmental carrying capacities
746 entails strong assumptions, such as homogeneity of a cohort and of environmental
747 conditions (Metcalf et al., 2012), and the recruitment function can put considerable
748 uncertainty on projections from these models (e.g. Cabral et al., 2013, Howell et al., 2013).
749 An improved integration of environmental effects could be based on the explicit
750 representation of different early life stages (e.g. eggs, non-feeding and feeding larval
751 stages), as realized in some matrix projection models. To incorporate spatially resolved
752 habitat drivers of population processes, increasing focus should also be put on the
753 development of mechanistic SDMs that incorporate stage-structured population dynamic
754 models, as they have been realized for terrestrial systems (e.g. Keith et al., 2008, Fordham
755 et al., 2013, Lurgi et al., 2014).

756 For a more detailed investigation of population structure across life stages and to
757 investigate population adaptation based on acclimation and evolution, trait-based models
758 and IBMs making use of heritable, physiology-based traits will play an important role.
759 While next-generation population genomic methods will help to link genotype and
760 phenotype (Hemmer-Hansen et al., 2014), laboratory studies on organismal tolerance
761 ranges and individual adaptation can help to identify plasticity and within-population

762 variation in phenotypic traits. Investigation of adaption will advance further once gene
763 expression can be more precisely linked to physiological functions and environmental
764 performance, making use of transcriptomic data and transgenerational experiments
765 (Munday, 2014, Logan and Buckley, 2015). This approach would improve mechanistic
766 understanding of acclimation and evolution (Whitehead, 2012, Alvarez et al., 2015) and
767 could be informed by data gained from 'common garden' experiments with fish from
768 different environmental conditions (e.g. Oomen and Hutchings, 2015) and from laboratory
769 experiments (Munday et al., 2013b). Investigations for early life stages can be
770 complemented by large-scale manipulations conducted e.g. in mesocosms (cf. Munday et
771 al., 2013b, Stewart et al., 2013).

772 Thus, using genetic data and physiological knowledge, exploratory studies about detailed
773 scaling of key processes from organism to population level may succeed when using trait-
774 based models or IBMs that integrate key traits for physiological mechanisms (cf. Reuter et
775 al., 2008). Behavioural traits mediate a wide range of organism-organism and organism-
776 habitat interactions in fish (Munday et al., 2013b, Nagelkerken and Munday, 2015), and
777 thus may become valuable in modelling phenotypic variation and adaptive potential in the
778 context of communities and ecosystems (e.g. Giske et al., 2014). Most trait-based models,
779 however, currently include only a low number of different traits. In IBMs, 'super-
780 individuals' can represent a variable number of real individuals (Scheffer et al., 1995). This
781 concept can be used to scale up organismal properties to higher-level dynamics,
782 maintaining self-organised population properties (Reuter et al., 2005) while limiting
783 computational demands. It has been extended into grid-based approaches, for community

784 size-spectra in OSMOSE (Shin and Cury 2004) and for sardine and anchovy in the
785 Californian Current in NEMURO.FISH (Fiechter et al., 2015, Rose et al., 2015).

786 **Question 3: Will marine food webs be resilient to climate change, or can regime**
787 **shifts occur?**

788 Regime shifts in marine ecosystems can have strong impacts on fish stocks and are difficult
789 to predict (Frank et al., 2005, deYoung et al., 2008), but community responses to
790 environmental drivers may be crucially determined by characteristics of food web
791 interactions (Mangel and Levin, 2005, Hunsicker et al., 2011, Plaganyi et al., 2014a). Food
792 web topology can be elucidated by analysing biochemical tracers such as stable isotopes
793 and fatty acids (Young et al., 2015). Experimental results on feeding parameters, predation
794 behaviour (e.g. prey switching) and size-dependence can help to detail the interactions and
795 mechanistically describe changes in community-level processes under multiple climate
796 change drivers (Stefansson, 2003, Persson et al., 2014, Nagelkerken and Munday, 2015).

797 In trophic mass-balance models such as EwE and in end-to-end models, different types of
798 trophic control (bottom-up, top-down, or a mixture) can be integrated through
799 vulnerability parameters (e.g. Ahrens et al., 2012), and network analysis indicators can be
800 used to characterize the resulting food web dynamics and identify key functional groups
801 (Heymans et al., 2014). Yet, aiming for a complete representation of food webs causes a
802 comparatively high need for field data, especially when analysing dynamics over time.

803 Multi-species stock models are less data demanding and have been used to compare
804 conditions for regime shifts and thresholds among different systems (e.g. Petrie et al., 2009,

805 Plaganyi et al., 2014a). Their simplified structure should be informed by ecological
806 knowledge, such as identification of major trophic pathways and selection of key
807 components (Gilman et al., 2010, Shin et al., 2010), network analysis of more complex
808 models (e.g. Metcalf et al., 2008, Livi et al., 2011), or 'ecotypes' that represent mixed
809 ecological characteristics (Engelhard et al., 2010).

810 Size spectrum models can investigate food web dynamics based on size structure (e.g.
811 Blanchard et al., 2010), but representation of other properties that affect interactions is
812 currently limited. To quantitatively characterize the vulnerability of interaction processes
813 to predator/prey or environmental changes, IBMs and trait-based models can use
814 behavioural rules and inter-individual variability to produce emergent feeding interactions,
815 instead of relying on a statistical functional response (Fiksen et al., 2007, Mariani and
816 Visser, 2010). Understanding of marine ecosystem resilience under climate change could
817 be advanced by trait-based models with a focus on ecologically functional traits (Bremner,
818 2008, Mouillot et al., 2013) and by multi-species IBMs that use empirical results on food
819 uptake, energy allocation and predation behaviour to set parameter values (see 'Coupled
820 and end-to-end models'). Predation and energy allocation are key processes to link fish
821 models to lower trophic level changes (Cury et al., 2008), and a realistic two-way coupling
822 is necessary to describe ecosystem dynamics, especially in top-down controlled systems
823 (Travers et al., 2009, Daewel et al., 2014).

824 To provide data for parameterization of these models, more systematic experimental
825 investigation of environmental influences on foraging and assimilation processes is
826 necessary. The effects of different functional response formulations on model behaviour

827 should be tested more routinely, and whenever feasible, relevant behavioural and habitat
828 aspects be represented dynamically. Options include using integrative suitability or
829 vulnerability settings (e.g. Kempf et al., 2010, Ahrens et al., 2012) and multi-dimensional
830 functional responses (e.g. Büssenschütt and Pahl-Wostl, 2000, Dawes and Souza, 2013).
831 These community models can then inform spatially resolved models to explore how local
832 food web dynamics respond to changes in spatial distribution of species abundance.

833 **Question 4: How will the spatial distribution and range of stocks change?**

834 This research question combines data on different levels of biological organization (cf. Fig.
835 1), as individual responses to local environmental factors (e.g. temperatures, oxygen
836 levels), adaptation and changes in recruitment, food web interactions, and dispersal and
837 habitat availability all influence the distribution of fish stocks (Roessig et al., 2005, Rose,
838 2005, Hollowed et al., 2013).

839 Spatial variability is well represented in Species Distribution Models. SDMs have advanced
840 considerably in incorporating details on organism-level processes, population dynamics,
841 competition and spatial-temporal processes, and can be based upon experimental results
842 on different levels, as exemplified for acidification and warming effects on a marine
843 invertebrate species (Queirós et al., 2015). Underlying assumptions of steady-state
844 relations in SDMs should always be critically examined (e.g. Guisan and Thuiller, 2005,
845 Knudby et al., 2010). Additional empirical results should be used to consider potentially
846 critical effects in processes not explicitly represented, e.g. recruitment, population
847 adaptation, migration and dispersal, and changes in species interactions (cf. Brander et al.,
848 2013).

849 Further development of SDMs in the marine realm should also be inspired from extensive
850 experience with related models in terrestrial applications, especially with respect to
851 dynamic (state-dependent) integration of population and community level processes
852 (Robinson et al., 2011, Fordham et al., 2013) and to physiological limits and adaptive
853 evolution (Catullo et al., 2015), although not all concepts may be transferable to marine
854 systems. The trophodynamic model Ecospace offers functionality similar to SDMs in its
855 'habitat capacity' response functions, with dynamic integration of spatial processes into the
856 food web context and the option to link to spatial-temporal input (Steenbeek et al., 2013,
857 Christensen et al., 2014a). As end-to-end models usually resolve spatial and community
858 processes, they possess high capacity for more integrative projections of distribution
859 changes (e.g. Rose et al., 2015).

860 IBMs have been used to describe larval growth and dispersal in high spatial resolution and
861 integrate sampling data (Lett et al., 2010, Hidalgo et al., 2012). Energy allocation principles
862 may be able to trace recruitment success and the evolution of spawning migrations, but
863 need to be informed by more experimental research and coupled between all life stages (cf.
864 Fiksen et al., 2007, Peck and Hufnagl, 2012). Integrative physiological concepts may be
865 used to generalize changes in relative performance of interacting or competing species
866 (Pörtner and Farrell, 2008, Pörtner, 2012). Additionally, more observational, telemetric
867 and demographic data will be needed to improve incorporation of spatial structure and
868 processes (Runge et al., 2010, Metcalfe et al., 2012).

869 The incorporation of active migration of later life stages and of spatially resolved and
870 potentially patchy distribution of spawning habitat, and in general the integration of lower

871 and higher level processes represent significant challenges in achieving reliable projections
872 about spatial shifts of fish stocks under climate change. In the near future, these challenges
873 will probably be handled using coupling of different modelling approaches and end-to-end
874 models along with case-dependent strategies for reduction of complexity. In the meantime,
875 adequate use of simpler representations will remain valuable for management and policy
876 advice.

877 **Question 5: What will be the socio-economic impacts and the implications for**
878 **management of changing marine ecosystems?**

879 Climate-mediated changes in marine ecosystems and fish stocks can have different socio-
880 economic effects in different regions and affect a range of ecosystem services used by
881 human societies (Cooley et al., 2009, Sumaila et al., 2011, Pörtner et al., 2014). Climate
882 change effects can interact with human uses, e.g. by fishing, and can be modified by other
883 short-term anthropogenic drivers such as eutrophication or pollution and amplified or
884 even overridden by general socio-economic developments (Perry et al., 2010). Therefore,
885 an analysis of ecosystem impacts of climate change in exploited marine systems, and
886 especially the assessment of their socio-economic consequences, need to link biological and
887 socio-economic research approaches, building on an identification of involved ecological
888 processes and incorporating interactions with human societies (Le Quesne and Pinnegar,
889 2012, Hilmi et al., 2013).

890 Different model classes have been used to assess management or adaptation strategies to
891 climate change effects for fish stocks and marine ecosystems, but societal dynamics have
892 until recently received little attention (Barange et al., 2010). Socio-economic dynamics and

893 background scenarios related to fish markets have been integrated into extended
894 population dynamic or 'bioeconomic' models (e.g. Merino et al., 2010, Norman-Lopez et al.,
895 2013), species distribution models (Cheung et al., 2010, Jones et al., 2014), mass-balance
896 models (Christensen et al., 2015), size spectrum and trait-based models (Woodworth-
897 Jefcoats et al., 2013, Barange et al., 2014, Zimmermann and Jorgensen, 2015) and the end-
898 to-end model Atlantis (Fulton et al., 2011, Griffith et al., 2012).

899 Societies have a range of adaptation options to climate change-induced changes, e.g.
900 increase of fishing effort, economic diversification, or change of fishing grounds (Perry et
901 al., 2011). Incorporating adaptive societal responses and their social and cultural
902 conditions, based on observations and models, can enable improved governance and
903 increase resilience of marine social-ecological systems (Folke, 2006, Miller et al., 2010,
904 Schlüter et al., 2012). Societal dynamics can be implemented e.g. using network models
905 (Janssen et al., 2006) or arising from individual actor behaviour in 'agent-based' models
906 (Gilbert and Terna, 2000).

907 The advancement of integrated models is promising to achieve more accurate projections
908 of the future states of social-ecological systems (Österblom et al., 2013, Griffith and Fulton,
909 2014), and models for informing fisheries management under changing environmental
910 drivers have been developed (e.g. Cooley et al., 2015). Advances are necessary in
911 identifying specific societal adaptive capacities in response to regionally expected impacts
912 of climate change, based on reliable quantitative data. Beyond fisheries, quantification of
913 impacts of other marine industries and on the provision of other marine ecosystem
914 services is needed, such as tourism, carbon sequestration, or coastal protection (cf.

915 Beaumont et al., 2007, Liqueete et al., 2013). Conceptual challenges relate to scale
916 differences and the identification of processes which determine adaptive capacities of
917 natural and social systems (Perry and Ommer, 2003, Griffith and Fulton, 2014).

918 **Conclusions**

919 The integration of physiological and ecological processes has great potential to advance
920 ecological models for fish stocks. Representation of mechanisms mediating climate effects
921 can be increased by 1) identifying key processes for the question of interest across levels of
922 organization, 2) using and coupling models which represent the key processes, and 3)
923 incorporating experimental results from a range of conditions and across life history stages
924 and generations.

925 For investigating the direct effects of multiple environmental drivers on fish, models should
926 be adapted sensibly to integrate experimental data and investigate organism-level trade-
927 offs and sensitivities, e.g. by making use of energy allocation principles. The investigation of
928 changes in population dynamics can benefit from increased model detail in the
929 representation of effects on early life stages and reproduction. Understanding of
930 acclimation and evolution under climate change can be advanced by assessment of
931 functional traits and specifically designed experiments. Marine community shifts under
932 multiple drivers can be better anticipated by analysis of food web structure and
933 quantification of functional responses. Research on stock distribution shifts and socio-
934 economic impacts of changes in marine living resources should increasingly incorporate
935 results on the co-determination of spatial movement and dispersal by behavioural fish
936 responses and trade-offs in energy allocation and community interactions, and improve the

937 integration of societal dynamics. Coupling of models to address these higher-order
938 questions can be informed e.g. by data on food energy content and transfer, and by
939 behavioural observations of fish and people.

940 Improvements in projection capacities by integrating these processes, and potential trade-
941 offs e.g. with regard to parameter uncertainties, will have to be verified on a case-to-case
942 basis. Scaling issues will have to be addressed to reduce the complexity of models while
943 maintaining sensitivities across scales: a focus should be put on the identification of
944 mechanisms and techniques that span levels of description and can couple specialized
945 models without levelling out heterogeneity and variability at lower levels that may be
946 decisive for higher level dynamics. Examples include the super-individual concept in
947 individual-based models and physiological concepts for estimating organism sensitivity
948 towards multiple drivers.

949 To this end, planning of experiments and structuring of models should be coordinated
950 more closely in the research process and based on an improved dialogue between
951 modellers and experimentalists. This will warrant meaningful physiological experiments
952 and an improved integration of both empirical results and mechanistic understanding of
953 effects into existing and future models.

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For Review Only

Table 1: Overview on model classes for marine fish and their potential for representation of physiological processes and integration of experimental results on various levels of biological organisation. Processes marked by an asterisk* are either incorporated on an aggregate level or non-dynamically (state-independent). Processes in brackets () can only be incorporated in a subset of models of the class or by using additional software features (see text for details). Coupled and end-to-end models can in principle incorporate all processes, and their specific capabilities depend on the model classes they are based on.

model class	incorporated processes on level of description				main use in climate change context
	Organism	Population	Community	Ecosystem	
1. Single-species population dynamic	growth* mortality* (development*)	recruitment (reproduction)	--	migration* dispersal*	stock management (no relevant stock interactions)
2. Multi-species population dynamic	growth* mortality* (development*) (foraging*) (assimilation*)	recruitment (reproduction)	predation* competition*	migration* dispersal*	stock management (interactions important), community dynamics

3. tropho-dynamic & mass-balance	growth* mortality* (development*) foraging* assimilation*	(recruitment) (reproduction*)	predation* competition* mutualism*	migration (dispersal) habitat <i>(all in Ecospace)</i>	community and ecosystem resilience, ecosystem-based management
4. species distribution (SDM)	growth* mortality* foraging* limitations*	recruitment*	(predation*) (competition) <i>(with size spectrum or trophic models)</i>	migration* (dispersal*) habitat	distribution range shifts, local fish catch potential
5. trait-based & size-spectrum	(plasticity) behaviour growth mortality development foraging assimilation (metabolism) energy allocation limitations	recruitment* reproduction adaptation	predation* competition*	habitat*	trade-offs in organismal processes, adaptation and community structure

6. individual-based (IBM)	(plasticity) behaviour growth mortality development foraging assimilation (metabolism) energy allocation limitations	recruitment* reproduction adaptation	predation competition mutualism*	migration dispersal habitat	larval dispersal, behavioural and population adaptation
7. bio-energetic	growth mortality (development) foraging assimilation metabolism energy allocation (limitations)	(recruitment) (reproduction) <i>(in IBMs)</i>	(predation) (competition) <i>(in size-spectrum models)</i>	(migration) (habitat) <i>(in IBMs or SDMs)</i>	trade-offs in organismal processes, linking of individual effects to community dynamics
8. coupled & end-to-end	[based on multi-species, size-spectrum, IBM, or bioenergetic]	recruitment* reproduction adaptation	predation competition mutualism*	migration dispersal habitat	ecosystem-based management, distribution and regime shifts

1934

1935 Figure 1: Overview over physiological and ecological processes, as a framework to assess
1936 potential effects of environmental drivers on fish stocks. Processes are separated among
1937 different levels of biological hierarchy, from organism and suborganismal (cell and tissue
1938 or organ) processes to population, community, and spatio-temporal ecosystem processes.
1939 Environmental drivers such as warming, acidification, hypoxia and others (bottom) act
1940 directly on organisms and indirectly affect processes on higher levels, shaping the
1941 characteristics resulting at each level of description (right). Higher-level processes are
1942 aggregate descriptions of processes on lower levels, and this framework is proposed to
1943 represent an easily observable and quantifiable description, but alternative descriptions
1944 are possible (e.g., recruitment can be described as the product of growth, foraging and
1945 mortality of early life stages, and evolution is the product of individual plasticity,
1946 acclimation and adaptations, and population adaptation). For details on processes and
1947 effects, see section two.

1948

