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In Focus. Staying out of the heat: how habitat use is determined by local temperature 1 2 3 Martin J. Genner 4 5 School of Biological Sciences, University of Bristol, Bristol Life Sciences Building, 24 Tyndall Avenue Briol, BS8 1TQ. United Kingdom 6 7 8 Email: m.genner@bristol.ac.uk 9 In the marine environment species distributions are closely linked to temperature gradients, but how 10 individual behaviour is affected by local temperatures is less well understood. Frietas et al. (2016) 11 tracked Atlantic cod within a Norwegian fjord using electronic acoustic tags. They showed that when 12 surface waters were warm, cod occupied the cold deep non-vegetated habitats. However, when 13 surface waters cooled, fish moved into shallow seagrass and macroalgae beds that were previously 14 out-of-bounds. The study provides a clear example of how thermal regimes determine habitat use 15 16 over fine spatial and temporal scales, with potential implications for population dynamics under 17 climate warming. 18 19 20 To ensure peak physiological performance animals should occupy an optimal temperature regime. Sub- or supra-optimal temperatures will result in a lower physiological efficiency and be energetically 21 22 expensive. At extreme critical temperatures, core aerobic physiological processes will fail, ultimately 23 leading to death (Pörtner & Farrell 2008). Due to these major effects that temperature can have on animals it is perhaps not surprising that thermal tolerance is a one of the major drivers of species 24 25 distributions (Sunday et al. 2012). However, life is never simple, and temperature alone does not determine species ranges. Instead species ranges are also determined by the availability of 26 essential resources, such as food and shelter, and the distributions of natural enemies. Thus, the 27 need for optimal thermal habitat can conflict with the need to spend time in other locations (van 28 Beest et al. 2012). Animals may benefit when moving from thermally optimal habitats if the costs of 29

staying become too high. Such movement can in principle be determined by how temperaturechanges over daily, seasonal, or even interannual cycles.

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33 Atlantic cod is one of the most commercially important species of fish, with recent (2013) estimates 34 of fisheries landings in excess of 1.3 million tonnes per year (FAO 2015). The species has a broad distribution across the boreal waters of the northern Atlantic from northern Europe to Iceland, 35 Greenland and North America (Mieszkowska et al. 2009). Many fished populations have historically 36 37 been decimated by overharvesting, but there are also strong indications that populations have been negatively affected by climatic warming (Brander 2010). Decades of study by fisheries biologists 38 have provided key information on how temperature affects reproduction, growth and longevity in the 39 species (Taylor 1958; Pörtner et al. 2001; Kling et al. 2007; Righton et al. 2010). Moreover, several 40 studies with tagged Atlantic cod have identified temperature as an important factor affecting depth 41 42 distributions (Neat & Righton 2007; Frietas et al. 2015), suggesting an influence of the local temperature regime on individual behaviour. Against this background, it is clear that the species 43 provides useful opportunities to investigate how natural temperature changes affect patterns of 44 45 habitat use and population demography.

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47 Freitas et al. (2016) tagged individuals within an Atlantic cod population in a Norwegian fjord with 48 acoustic transmitters. Then, using a comprehensive array of receivers they were able to compile 49 information on the location and depth of these fish to the remarkable spatial resolution of less than 50 5m. Uniquely they coupled location data with high quality habitat maps and sea temperature 51 information from underwater data loggers, enabling tests of how habitat use alters with changing 52 temperature. The authors discovered that when temperatures in surface waters were cool (<16°C). cod entered the shallows to use eel grass and macroalgae beds where they are presumed to feed. 53 54 However, when surface waters were warm (>16°C), the cod descended into non-vegetated rock and sand habitats characteristic of deeper waters. These results suggest that these fish avoid warmer 55 waters, and only when the surface temperatures cool past a thermal threshold can they use their 56 favoured habitat. It seems that sea surfaces temperatures directly determine the seasonal time 57 58 window when cod can use shallow water resources.

The work of Freitas et al. (2016) highlights the link between temperature and habitat use in fish, but 60 61 the underlying reasons for the correlation can be complex. Warmer waters have lower dissolved 62 oxygen, so rising temperatures can lead to a mismatch between oxygen demand and availability 63 (Pörtner & Knust 2007; Pörtner & Farrell 2008). Thermal shifts may also affect the behaviour and abundance of prey, predator and competitor species of Atlantic cod (Brander et al. 2010), perhaps 64 making shallower waters less profitable environments in warmer periods. Due to this complexity a 65 full understanding of how thermal change drives behavioural and abundance changes in populations 66 and communities will be major undertaking, but perhaps the cool-water fjord ecosystem studied by 67 68 Freitas et al. (2016) will be a valuable system in which to undertake such future study.

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Evidence of temperature-dependent habitat selection from Frietas et al. (2016) helps to interpret 70 earlier work that shows that Atlantic cod often use thermal habitat that is less than optimal for growth 71 72 (Neat & Righton 2007). It appears likely that cod are capitalising on resource rich habitats that are thermally tolerable, but less than ideal for growth. Although further work is needed to establish this 73 74 concept firmly, the results are indicative of fish distributions being dependent upon requirements for 75 both suitable thermal habitat and essential ecological resources. The combination of these needs may be the driver of the spatial patterns of population substructure often seen in cod from both 76 77 tagging (Neat et al. 2014), and genetic studies (Knutsen et al. 2011).

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79 Sea surface temperatures in the North Sea region are projected to rise by 1.8°C over the next 50 80 years (Rutterford et al. 2015). Projections of the impacts of such climate change on marine fish 81 distributions to date have been primarily based on bioclimate envelope modelling approaches that 82 extrapolate existing thermal occupancy patterns to projected future environments (Cheung et al. 83 2010). By necessity such methods overlook more subtle effects of temperature on populations, such as thermally-driven migrations or shifts in competitive ability (Milazzo et al. 2013). It is becoming 84 increasingly clear that population-level responses of marine fishes to climate change may not 85 necessarily always involve active wholesale movement of populations to optimal thermal regimes 86 (Simpson et al. 2011; Rutterford et al. 2015). Instead we may expect marine climate change to lead 87

- to differences in recruitment and survivorship of established local populations that are co-located
 with the essential resources they need.
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142 Figure legend

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- 144 Figure 1. Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) and the Tvedestrand fjord Norwegian Skagerrak coast
- 145 studied by Freitas et al. (2016). Photos by Øystein Paulsen (left), and Institute of Marine Research,
- 146 Norway (right).