

An Integrated Global-to-Regional Scale Workflow for Simulating Climate Change Impacts on Marine Ecosystems

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63 **Key Points:**

- 64 • Develops a standardised protocol for detecting past ecosystem changes and
65 simulating climate impacts by regional marine ecosystem models.
- 66 • Details tools such as the Regional Climate Forcing Data Explorer Shiny application
67 to access, visualise, and process climate forcing variables.
- 68 • The protocol and tools are flexible and can be applied to the different marine
69 ecosystem model types included in FishMIP.

70 **(The above elements should be on a title page)**

71

72 Abstract (250 max)

73

74 As the urgency to evaluate the impacts of climate change on marine ecosystems increases, there is a
75 need to develop robust projections and improve the uptake of ecosystem model outputs in policy and
76 planning. Standardising input and output data is a crucial step in evaluating and communicating results,
77 but can be challenging when using models with diverse structures, assumptions, and outputs that address
78 region-specific issues. We developed an implementation framework and workflow to standardise the
79 climate and fishing forcings used by regional models contributing to the Fisheries and Marine
80 Ecosystem Model Intercomparison Project (FishMIP) and to facilitate comparative analyses across
81 models and a wide range of regions, in line with the FishMIP 3a protocol. We applied our workflow to
82 three case study areas-models: the Baltic Sea Mizer, Hawai'i-based Longline fisheries therMizer, and
83 the southern Benguela ecosystem Atlantis marine ecosystem models. We then selected the most
84 challenging steps of the workflow and illustrated their implementation in different model types and
85 regions. Our workflow is adaptable across a wide range of regional models, from non-spatially explicit
86 to spatially explicit and fully-depth resolved models and models that include one or several fishing
87 fleets. This workflow will facilitate the development of regional marine ecosystem model ensembles
88 and enhance future research on marine ecosystem model development and applications, model
89 evaluation and benchmarking, and global-to-regional model comparisons.

90 1 Introduction

91 Climate change is one of the key drivers drastically altering marine and terrestrial ecosystems at rates
92 faster than ever previously recorded (Jaureguiberry et al., 2022; Pörtner et al., 2021). The impacts of
93 climate change differ among regions of the world. Consequently, regionally focused models are needed
94 to meet the needs of considering the effects of climate change at the scales necessary to address the
95 system specific details. Currently, model-based studies project major marine biomass decreases in the
96 tropics by the end of the century, while other areas, such as the Arctic, are expected to experience
97 biomass increases or distribution shifts of economically important species (Cheung et al., 2010; Lotze
98 et al., 2019; Palacios-Abrantes et al., 2022; Rogers et al., 2020; Tittensor et al., 2021). However, the
99 high uncertainty related to these projections can preclude their uptake in decision-making and
100 adaptation planning. Standardised model handling and reporting can help address this by facilitating
101 multi-model comparisons, but also by creating a systematic and repeatable process for those interested
102 in models or their outputs to interact with model products.

103

104 Model intercomparisons have been extensively used in climate science to quantify uncertainty in model
105 estimates and projections (Wallach et al., 2016). Their use has been extended to agriculture
106 (Rosenzweig et al., 2013), fisheries and marine ecosystems (Blanchard et al., 2024; Pethybridge et al.,
107 2020; Tittensor et al., 2018), and other sectors (Frieler et al., 2024; IPCC, 2023; Rocklöv et al., 2021).
108 The Fisheries and Marine Ecosystem Model Intercomparison Project (FishMIP) uses ensembles of
109 marine ecosystem models to 'better project the long-term impacts of climate change on fisheries and
110 marine ecosystems and support policy development and long-term planning at the global and regional
111 scales' (Novaglio et al., 2024; Tittensor et al., 2018). As part of the Inter-Sectoral Impact Model
112 Intercomparison Project (ISIMIP), FishMIP has developed several protocols (Blanchard et al., 2024;
113 Tittensor et al., 2018) to provide a standardised, structured approach to comparisons of multiple MEMs
114 with the aim of offering more robust projections of changes in biomass and ecosystem structure globally
115 (Bryndum-Buchholz et al., 2019; Lotze et al., 2019; Tittensor et al., 2021). FishMIP considers both
116 global and regional marine ecosystem models (MEMs), which have been calibrated to observations and
117 are used to make medium- to long-term projections of ecosystem dynamics, structure and functioning
118 under different emissions scenarios (Tittensor et al., 2018). A diverse set of regional modelling
119 frameworks, including Atlantis, Ecopath with Ecosim, Mizer and OSMOSE, participate in FishMIP
120 (Audzijonyte et al., 2019; Christensen et al., 2014; Christensen & Walters, 2004; Shin & Cury, 2001).
121 However, due to the patchy global coverage of FishMIP regional MEMs and ensembles, regional
122 extractions of global MEM outputs have often been used to inform on potential biomass change in data-

123 limited areas (Cinner et al., 2022; Tittensor et al., 2018). While such extractions can fill in the
124 knowledge gap, there remains uncertainty as to appropriate ranges of application in terms of system
125 specific characteristics and spatial scale (Eddy et al., this issue).

126 To date, the focus of FishMIP has mostly been on global MEMs due to their similar spatial coverage,
127 scientific purposes -they have been developed to address climate impact issues by linking to Earth
128 System Models (ESMs), and focus on very similar broad emergent issues in fisheries and ecology. On
129 the other hand, regional models were generally not designed to couple directly to ESMs and tend to be
130 much more specific in terms of objectives, temporal and spatial scales, and have primarily focussed on
131 fisheries issues. This makes regional models much more heterogeneous in content and configuration,
132 and harder to standardise and intercompare. Thus, there is a need to develop a framework tailored to
133 implementing modelling protocols in practice by regional model types within FishMIP. In particular,
134 the standardisation of input and output data is a crucial step in model intercomparisons (Bahlburg et al.,
135 2023; Tittensor et al., 2018) and this is a challenge for models with different structures, assumptions
136 and outputs representing diverse ecosystems and fisheries worldwide. Here we develop an
137 implementation framework and workflow that will guide and improve the implementation of modelling
138 experiments by regional MEMs, thus minimising barriers to entry and thereby increasing the number
139 of regional models performing simulations in a coordinated and standardised manner. FishMIP's vision
140 for regional models includes (i) performing regional-global model comparisons to assess global model
141 reliability and bias for data-limited regional applications, and (ii) fostering regional model ensembles
142 to support case studies. Standardising the climate and fishing effort forcings across regional and global
143 models will facilitate comparisons of MEM outputs, and evaluate the applicability of global models to
144 predict future outcomes in data-poor regions (see Eddy et al., this issue).

145 This paper aims to present an overview of the approaches used by the different types of FishMIP
146 regional MEMs in conducting climate-impact simulations, and to describe an implementation
147 framework to foster future intercomparisons of MEMs and to ensure they produce assessments that can
148 support policy. The ISIMIP 3a (Frieler et al., 2024) and FishMIP 3a (Blanchard et al., 2024) protocols
149 are used here as a basis for testing the applicability of developing an implementation framework for
150 regional MEMs in FishMIP. FishMIP 3a is the first of the two tracks of the current FishMIP simulation
151 framework (FishMIP 2.0), which addresses the lack of standardised historical fishing data and future
152 fisheries scenarios, and evaluates models against observations before carrying out future projections
153 (Blanchard et al., 2024). "Track A" (FishMIP 3a) focuses on the detection of past climate and fishing
154 impact on historical biomass and catch trends (Blanchard et al., 2024). The goal of this study is to
155 translate the FishMIP 3a protocol into a workflow with practical steps for modelling groups to
156 implement and ultimately facilitate and enable a comparative analysis of MEM outputs within and
157 across a wide range of regions.

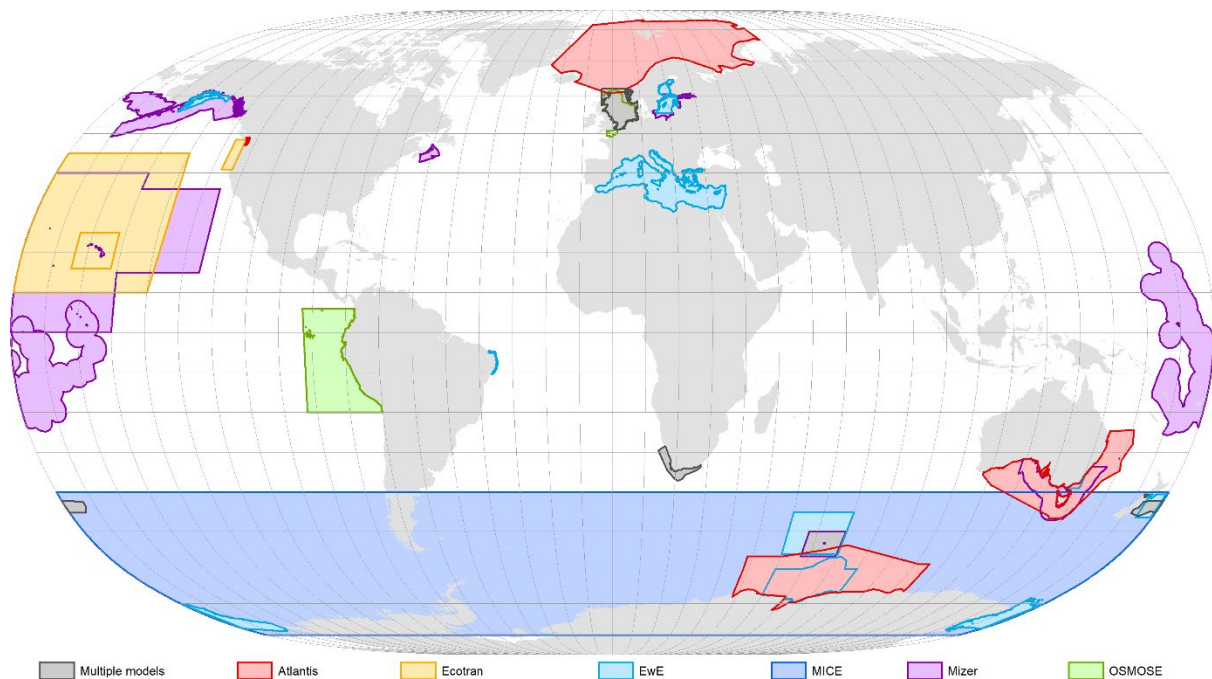
158 **2 Materials and Methods**

159 **2.1 Marine Ecosystem Model Types in FishMIP**

160 To date, FishMIP includes four regional marine ecosystem modelling frameworks: Atlantis, Ecopath
161 with Ecosim (EwE), Mizer/therMizer and OSMOSE. In addition, EcoTran (Ruzicka et al., 2016) and
162 Models of Intermediate Complexity for Ecosystem Assessments (Plagányi et al., 2014; Tulloch et al.,
163 2019) have recently joined FishMIP. These modelling frameworks are vastly different in model type,
164 representation of species and ecosystem processes, and inclusion and parameterisation of physiological
165 processes affected by climate variables and fishing, among others (Table 1, Tittensor et al., 2018). There
166 is also great heterogeneity in terms of the input data requirements of each model (e.g spatial and vertical
167 resolution). Common key forcings used by regional MEMs are sea water temperature and primary
168 production/plankton biomass (Table 1), and thus these are considered the standard environmental input
169 forcings used by regional MEMs. However, MEMs use a variety of other environmental data as forcing
170 and can include alternative forcings such as oxygen and pH, and even sea ice. Within FishMIP, several
171 EwE models have only used Net Primary Production as climate forcing in the past and have bias-
172 corrected the ESM forcings using the delta method described in Eddy et al. (this issue). A description

173 of the forcings used by each regional modelling framework participating in FishMIP can be found in
 174 Table 1 (also see Tittensor et al., 2018; Eddy et al. this issue).
 175

176 Previous rounds of FishMIP simulations were conducted using outputs from the Coupled Model
 177 Intercomparison Project (CMIP) 5 and 6 (O'Neill et al., 2016; Taylor et al., 2012). Details can be found
 178 in Tittensor et al. (2018) and Blanchard et al. (2024). FishMIP models, consistent with most MEMs,
 179 evaluate the effects of a changing environment on species and ecological processes and use this
 180 information to estimate the ecosystem impacts of climate change, while several also include fishing
 181 impacts. A major source of uncertainty when projecting climate impacts on marine ecosystems comes
 182 from differences in assumptions and structures about the implementation of temperature effects among
 183 MEMs (Heneghan et al., 2021; Reum et al., 2024). Some differences between the MEMs in FishMIP
 184 include the number of species, functional groups, or size classes affected by temperature changes and
 185 the processes affected by temperature and primary production (Table 1). Because of this diversity and
 186 the growing number of regional MEMs joining FishMIP (Figure 1), here, we describe an
 187 implementation framework and workflow as to how regional MEMs can implement the FishMIP 3a
 188 protocol and provide examples of three case studies.



189

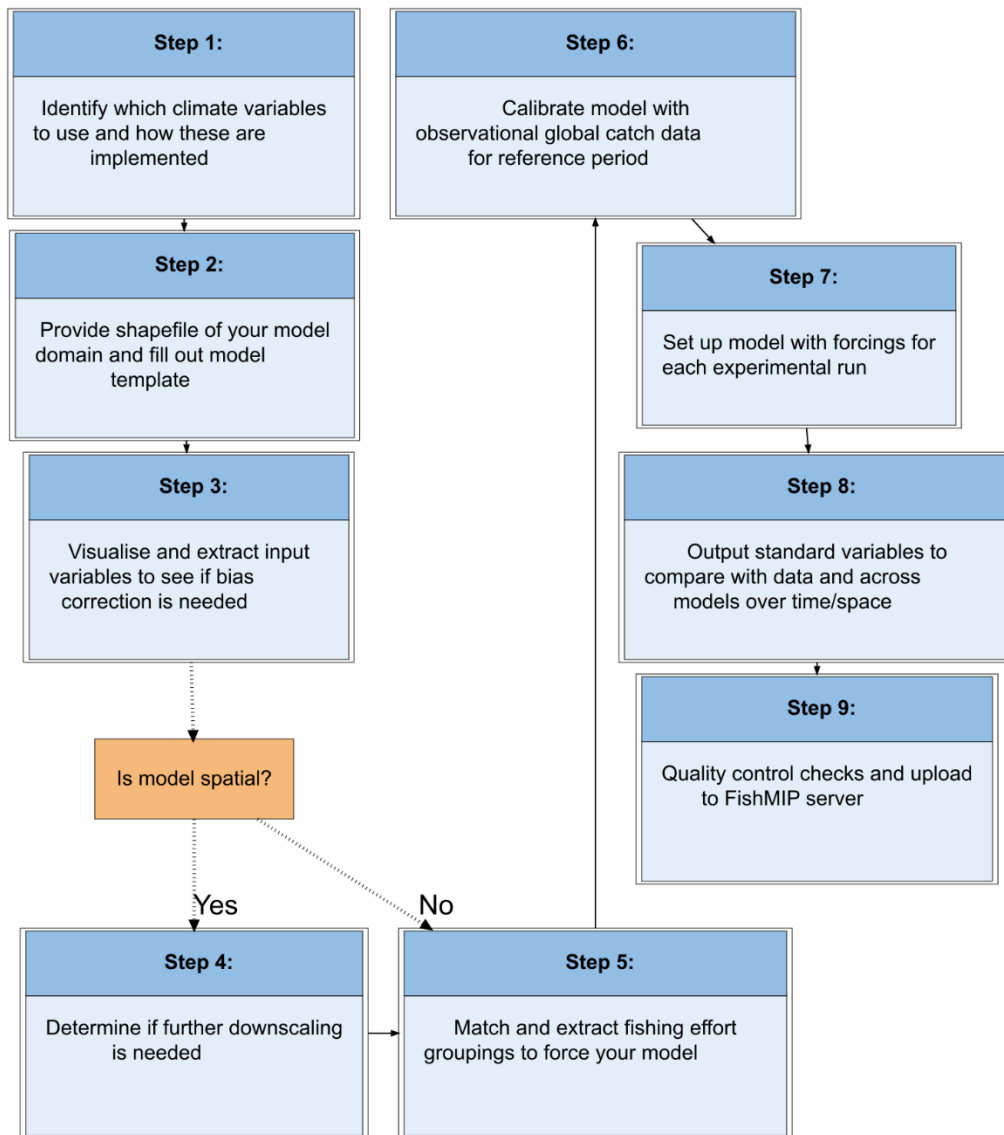
190 Figure 1. Regional marine ecosystem models participating in FishMIP.

191 2.2 Simulation workflow

192 The proposed workflow allows modellers to identify and process the climate model variables of interest,
 193 calibrate models to observed data, conduct simulations and contribute outputs to FishMIP and ISIMIP
 194 under the standardised FishMIP protocols. The workflow aims to lower the barriers to entry to FishMIP
 195 and enable more models to join and perform standardised simulations. The workflow was developed by
 196 the FishMIP regional modelling team following best practices for multi-model comparison (e.g. den
 197 Boon et al., 2019), and incorporates the experience and knowledge of experts covering all the regional
 198 model types included in FishMIP.

199 Here, the protocol 3a of ISIMIP (Frieler et al., 2024) and FishMIP 2.0 (Blanchard et al., 2024) is used
 200 as the basis to provide an implementation framework for regional MEMs. Protocol 3a is aimed at
 201 attribution of past changes in marine ecosystems and model evaluation (Blanchard et al., 2024). The

202 latest advancements and efforts conducted by FishMIP to further expand the geographical
 203 representation of regional models in FishMIP are also showcased.



204

205

206 Figure 2. Regional simulation workflow that integrates standardised global forcings with
 207 required regional marine ecosystem model inputs. Steps are described in detail below.

208

209 ***Step 1: Identify which climate model variables to use and how these are implemented***

210

211 Climate forcings are available from ISIMIP, hosted at the German Climate Computation Center
 212 (DKRZ) server and the [ISIMIP data repository](#) in NetCDF format. ISIMIP has developed [tutorials](#) and
 213 an [Application Programme Interface](#) to access the climate forcings from the DKRZ server. FishMIP
 214 has also developed a [tutorial on accessing the climate forcings from ISIMIP](#).

215

216 For the FishMIP 3a protocol, oceanic forcing data is derived from the coupled physical and
 217 biogeochemical ocean models developed by the Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory (GFDL):
 218 Modular Ocean Model version 6 (MOM6) and Carbon, Ocean Biogeochemistry and Lower Trophics
 219 version 2 (COBALTv2). The GFDL-MOM6-COBALT2 model (hereafter GFDL hindcast) was forced
 220 by the Japanese 55-year atmospheric reanalysis JRA-55 (Tsujino et al., 2018) and it includes dynamic,

221 time-varying river freshwater and nitrogen inputs that simulate the observed increase in nitrogen loading
222 over the historical period, which is especially important for coastal marine productivity and not
223 regularly included in ESMs (Liu et al., 2021). The FishMIP 3a protocol also makes use of a parallel
224 GFDL-MOM6-COBALT2 simulation without increasing nutrient loading, to test the sensitivity of the
225 FishMIP models to this forcing (hereafter the control). GFDL-MOM6-COBALT2 outputs were
226 regridded to a regular 0.25° and 1° horizontal resolution grid, while preserving vertical resolution. All
227 regional MEMs use forcings at 0.25° horizontal resolution.

228
229 A complete list of oceanic climate-related variables available from GFDL-MOM6-COBALTv2 can be
230 found in Frieler et al., 2024 (Table 8) and on the [FishMIP 3a protocol](#). As mentioned above, regional
231 MEMs commonly use sea temperature, primary productivity and plankton biomass to force their
232 models, but differ in the representation of sea temperature and primary production effects (Table 1).
233 For instance, sea temperature can affect different processes in the different regional MEMs, such as
234 movement of ecological constituents in some models (e.g., Atlantis, Ecospace and OSMOSE), while
235 mortality and/or assimilation efficiency can be affected by temperature in EwE, Bioen-OSMOSE and
236 Atlantis. Regarding primary production and plankton biomass, most MEMs can use plankton biomass
237 derived from ESMs and override the plankton dynamics within the MEM. Table 1 summarises how
238 temperature and primary production/plankton biomass forcings are implemented in the FishMIP
239 regional MEMs.

240 ***Step 2: Provide shapefile of your model domain and complete model template***

241
242 As per Step 1, modellers have the option to (i) access climate forcings directly from the DKRZ server
243 or the ISIMIP repository or (ii) provide model spatial boundaries (shapefile or bounding box) for the
244 regional modelling team to extract all climate variables available in GFDL-MOM6-COBALTv2 (Table
245 8 of Frieler et al., 2024, [FishMIP GitHub page](#)). The creation of Python scripts to complete this step has
246 streamlined the process into a standardised format for the 34 participating FishMIP regional models
247 (Fig. 1, as of April 2024). The Python scripts developed for regional data extraction are publicly
248 available in the [FishMIP GitHub repositories](#). Regional climate forcings are also publicly available at
249 the University of Tasmania [THREDDS server](#).

250 Modellers were required to document how the climate and fishing forcing were integrated into their
251 models to ease the quantification of uncertainties due to differences in model structure and assumptions
252 and the analysis of ensemble MEM projections (den Boon et al., 2019). This includes the resolution of
253 the climate forcing used, the environmental forcings equations used, and which ecological process each
254 forcing affects, the fishing forcing set-up—e.g., fishing mortality rates, selectivity and catchability
255 estimates, and how fishing gears and functional groups targeted were aggregated—as well as details on
256 model calibration (Supplementary Information II). Because models involved in FishMIP evolve through
257 time, questionnaires with information about regional marine ecosystem models are stored in the
258 [FishMIP GitHub](#). Information on the model templates also feeds the model documentation on the
259 [ISIMIP website](#).

260 ***Step 3: Visualise and extract input variables to see if bias correction is needed***

261
262 Visual comparison of climate forcings from ESMs against observations for the region of interest is
263 necessary to determine whether bias correction is required. To improve the accessibility of climate data
264 to different regional modelling teams and ease the processing of ocean forcings, FishMIP is currently
265 focused on (i) improving the workflow before FishMIP protocols are finalised and modelling
266 experiments are run and (ii) developing tools that contribute to these modelling efforts (Novaglio et al.,
267 2024). The development of the '[Regional Climate Forcing Data Explorer](#)' Shiny app (Fig. 3, left panel)
268 represents one of these steps. The shiny app shows climatological means from 1961–2010 (historical
269 period of the 3a protocol) as maps, and spatial averages as time series, for 37 ocean variables available
270 in GFDL-MOM6-COBALTv2 for the regional models currently participating in FishMIP. These ocean
271 forcings can be downloaded for each model region for use as inputs by regional MEMs.

272 Climate model outputs are known to have systematic biases, which can preclude their direct use for
273 regional climate-impact and vulnerability assessments (Casanueva et al., 2020). A number of bias
274 correction methods have thus been developed to correct the climate model outputs using observations
275 at regional scales (Casanueva et al., 2020 and references therein). These methods differ in complexity
276 and can be trend-preserving or not, correct the mean to univariate or multivariate metrics, and robustly
277 adjust extreme values (Casanueva et al., 2020; Lange, 2019). The implications of bias correction include
278 possible impacts on magnitudes, signals or trends (Oliveros-Ramos et al. in revision). For FishMIP 3a,
279 regional modellers observed differences in sea temperature and primary production between the GFDL
280 hindcast (1961-2010) and those derived from regional ocean models or observations (Fig. 3, see section
281 4.1 for an example of three case study areas). These temperature differences resulted in having species
282 outside their thermal tolerance ranges causing some of them to collapse during pilot historical model
283 runs. It was therefore decided to perform bias correction on the GFDL outputs. The delta method for
284 calibrating the mean (see Supplementary Information I) to observations was chosen due to its relative
285 simplicity and applicability (Marshall et al., 2017; Pozo Buil et al., 2023).

286
287 The selection of the dataset used to perform bias correction is of utmost importance as previous studies
288 found that bias correction methods strongly rely on the reference dataset used for calibration. We used
289 the World Ocean Atlas 18 (WOA) (Garcia et al., 2019; Locarnini et al., 2018) because this is a
290 comprehensive, quality controlled dataset based on ocean profiles data from 1955 to 2017, providing
291 gridded climatology fields for temperature, salinity, oxygen, among other variables. The WOA datasets
292 have been extensively used for bias correction purposes (e.g., Séférian et al., 2013 (WOA09); Fu et al.,
293 2022 (WOA18)). Global reanalysis products such as GLORYS were not used at this stage because their
294 temporal range does not match the time span of the ISIMIP and FishMIP protocol 3a (i.e. GLORYS
295 starts in 1993, and the FishMIP protocol starts in 1961). A list of sequential steps to perform bias
296 correction on sea water temperature can be found in Supplementary Information I. Those steps can also
297 be used for variables such as salinity and oxygen.

298
299 Different approaches have been used to bias correct plankton biomass and primary productivity within
300 FishMIP regional MEMs (Table 1). A common approach involves using the delta method to adjust ESM
301 outputs and force primary production (Eddy et al., this issue) and the growth of plankton groups
302 (Rovellini et al., 2024).

303

304 ***Step 4: If spatial: determine if further downscaling is needed***

305

306 Given the complexity of downscaling approaches and the need to evaluate their performance on a
307 regional basis, we have not yet standardised the statistical downscaling approach to be used in this
308 implementation framework (other than performing bias correction). ISIMIP has a bias correction and
309 statistical downscaling protocol, which has been applied to atmospheric climate data and it is likely not
310 directly transferable to oceanic variables (Lange, 2019). If this step needs to be carried out by regional
311 modellers, we advise the modeller to choose a statistical downscaling approach that performs best for
312 their region and use the WOA18 dataset and the time periods specified in step 3 (see Supplementary
313 Information I) to perform the downscaling and to ensure consistency with this implementation
314 framework. We acknowledge that standardising the choice of a statistical downscaling method is an
315 area that warrants further attention within FishMIP.

316

317 Major differences have been found between low-resolution ESM outputs and highly resolved
318 downscaled projections at a regional scale (Melsom et al., 2009; Skogen et al., 2018). When forcing the
319 Nordic and Barents Atlantis model with an ESM (1° resolution) and a regional ocean model
320 (dynamically downscaled projections at 10 km resolution), a general agreement in future biomass trends
321 and distribution patterns for some species at higher trophic levels were found, but this was not the case
322 for lower trophic level groups (e.g., plankton, mesopelagic and prawns), and for some higher trophic
323 level species such as Northeast Arctic cod (*Gadus morhua*). These differences indicate that highly
324 resolved forcings are needed in studies focused on coastal systems (as is the case for most regional

MEMs) and/or representing finer-resolution processes. However, downscaled climate forcings, especially dynamically downscaled, are not available for most regions of the world, nor the full set of climate scenarios, and this represents a challenge for regional climate-impact assessments (Kristiansen et al., 2024; Pozo Buil et al., 2021).

OSMOSE-Humboldt is the only FishMIP regional model type that has performed statistical downscaling using methods other than the delta method commonly used to perform bias correction (Step 3). Oliveros-Ramos et al. (2023) evaluated 19 nested statistical downscaling models describing the relationship between empirical distributions of historical modelled and observed SST using ten indicators of predictive performance for model selection. They did not find a single statistical downscaling model that performed better than all others across regions. Instead, model performance varied across regions, indicating that these approaches should be evaluated on a case-by-case basis. The ‘[Gridded time series analysis](#)’ R package implements the statistical downscaling models described in Oliveros-Ramos et al. (2023). Statistical downscaling does not require the use of high-performance computing (as required by dynamical downscaling), and this is extremely important as lower requirements for technical skills and computational capacity may result in a higher adoption rate within the modelling community, especially among researchers starting in this field. This is one approach currently being evaluated for future use within FishMIP.

Step 5: Match and extract fishing effort groupings to force your model

For FishMIP protocol 3a, global fishing effort time series were made available to FishMIP modellers (Blanchard et al., this issue), and future scenarios are being developed for Phase 3b (Maury et al., this issue). This represented a significant step forward, as this allowed global modellers to represent historical fishing impacts, which many global MEMs were not able to include before such global data were available. Regional models did include fishing, and in most cases, used statistics from government agencies or regional advisory organisations. Regional modellers generally consider this regional fishing effort information more accurate, and several discussions were held to find the best way to use global effort data developed for protocol 3a to standardise fishing forcing between global and regional MEMs and improve the comparability of their outputs.

The fishing effort data provided by FishMIP (hereafter called global effort data) was derived from Rousseau et al. (2024) and consists of 16 gears or fleets and a total of 29 functional groups (Table 2). Fishing effort data used to force regional models and fishery catch data (Watson & Tidd 2018) used for model calibration were processed and extracted for each regional MEM by the FishMIP coordination team and are publicly available in the [FishMIP THREDDS server](#). More details on the regional extraction of catch and effort data can be found in Blanchard et al. (2024).

Most regional models include at least some of their ecological components at the species level, or at least at taxonomic resolutions finer than reported in aggregated global statistics. Consequently, it was necessary to make some assumptions on how to split the global effort and catch data by fleet and functional group to match the taxonomic resolution of the regional model considered. Regional effort and catch time series (where available) are to be used in combination with the global data to inform the processing assumptions (e.g. disaggregation of effort by functional groups into species). Careful consideration and a preliminary analysis of the FishMIP effort data for some model regions highlighted important inconsistencies with effort data from regional management authorities and other local sources commonly used by regional modellers (see section 4.2). Inconsistencies were mostly due to the nature of the global data, which is global in coverage but less detailed and reliable at the regional scale. To address this issue, three sensitivity tests are proposed for the implementation of the global data:

1. Global effort data only: If there is a good agreement between the historical trends and magnitude of the global and regional effort data. Modellers implement the global effort data into their regional MEMs following the procedure described in Supplementary Information 1.
2. Bias-correction of the global effort using regional data: If there are differences between the historical trends and magnitudes of the global and regional effort data for some fleets. Modellers

376 can use the global effort data for those fleets showing reasonable historical trends and use their
377 regional effort/mortality to correct the global effort forcing for those that do not.
378 3. Regional effort data only: If there is little agreement between the historical trends and
379 magnitude of the global and regional effort data. Modellers should use their regional
380 effort/mortality to perform simulations as per their baseline models. Modellers are requested to
381 describe the differences between these datasets to justify the use of regional data and to ensure
382 improvements are made in future. This will also allow us to evaluate the influence of global vs
383 regional effort forcings on historical model outputs.

384 Modellers are requested to submit their fishing effort/mortality time series with their simulations. We
385 acknowledge that regional effort and catch time series are often not publicly available as they belong to
386 national government agencies. In those cases, we ask modellers to submit their forcings as relative
387 values if this does not contravene the access conditions under which the data was granted. The
388 sequential steps involved in processing the global effort and catch data to obtain a time series of fishing
389 effort and total catch split by fleet and functional groups can be found in the Supplementary Information
390 I. Code has been provided for worked examples that illustrate this step.

391

392 ***Step 6: Calibrate MEM outputs with observational global catch data for reference period***

393

394 Calibrating MEM outputs to observational data is a computationally- and time-intensive process. For
395 some models (EwE, Mizer), it may be feasible to recalibrate models with all climate and fishing forcings
396 since specific protocols exist. We have provided catch data extracted for each regional shapefile to
397 facilitate this step in cases where no other data are available (step 5) or where experimental design
398 necessitates. Even though the 3a experiments extend to 2010, the catch time series extends up to and
399 including 2004. Later years (2005-2010) must not be used in calibration because we have retained the
400 last six years of the catch data for predictive skill assessment across models.

401

402 In cases where recalibration cannot be carried out, we still encourage modellers to submit their runs and
403 compare them to the outputs of their baseline calibrated runs, including inputs. In this case, we ask
404 modellers to submit the results of their baseline model runs. It may, in some cases, be appropriate to
405 carry out a statistical post-hoc adjustment of simulations based on the discrepancy of the two runs.
406 Another possibility is simply to provide the non-calibrated runs with a clear indication in the model
407 template that recalibration was not carried out. In these cases, an analysis of relative changes may still
408 be performed, keeping in mind that the non-calibrated model may have limited performance when
409 capturing observed historical changes for the system in question.

410

411 In all cases, we expect modellers to carry out “sanity checks” of their models. This is step 0 of the
412 Hipsey et al. (2020) framework. This involves ensuring that processes and rates in each MEM are
413 plausible and sensible. We then suggest using a subset of the model skill metrics to assess how well the
414 MEMs forced with the global effort data compared to the original MEM calibrated with regional
415 effort/mortality data. A minimum set of suggested metrics and plots include bias and correlation of time
416 series of catches and, if observations are available, biomasses for key functional groups and species in
417 the model. We ask modellers to submit the data and all data sources (when those are publicly available)
418 used in this step if different to what has been provided and detailed in steps 3 and 5. When this is not
419 feasible, possibly due to permissions, relative time series and summary statistics should be provided.

420

421 A toolbox is being developed to analyse and compare spatial model outputs within an integrated and
422 standardised workflow and calculate a number of skill metrics (i.e. [MapCompR](#)). MapCompR provide
423 functions to i) compare spatial maps from different species, ii) compare spatial maps of the same species
424 obtained with different methods, and iii) analyse model predictions.

425

426 ***Step 7: Set up MEMs with forcings for each experimental run***

427

428 The [FishMIP protocol 3a](#) consists of four model experiments and eight scenarios, with different
429 combinations of climate and human forcings (see Table 1 of the FishMIP 3a protocol). A model
430 experiment is a set of model simulations with a particular goal (e.g. model evaluation), while a scenario
431 is a particular setting for climate and human forcing drivers (e.g. fishing). The two core experimental
432 runs aim to evaluate the impacts of climate with time-varying river input forcing at 0.25° resolution
433 (step 3), with and without fishing (step 5). Two optional but preferred runs were set up to estimate the
434 sensitivity of model outputs to riverine influx (ctrlclim, input forcings held at 1955 values throughout
435 the simulations). This model experiment is also run with and without fishing.

436
437 Two additional experiments were also set up in the FishMIP 3a protocol, aiming to understand the
438 impacts of resolution on model outputs, and use climate forcings at a 1° resolution with exactly the
439 same set-up listed above for the core and preferred runs. In translating the FishMIP 3a protocol to a
440 regional context, we decided to focus on the experiments using 0.25° resolution forcings (i.e. the core
441 runs) due to the finer resolution needed to force regional models.

442 ***Step 8: Output standard variables to compare with data and across models over time/space***

443
444 The [FishMIP protocol 3a](#) lists all the mandatory and optional model outputs to be provided by modellers
445 (Table 9, [FishMIP protocol 3a](#)), including the variable specifiers. We request that modellers report what
446 species and species groups were allocated to the different output variables (Table 9, [FishMIP protocol](#)
447 [3a](#)) in the model templates (step 2). Regional modellers should submit their spatial outputs as NetCDF
448 files, while outputs from non-spatial regional MEMs can be saved as .csv files.

449
450 The optional outputs include indicators such as the biomass and catch of different size classes of pelagic
451 and demersal fish. These outputs are highly relevant at the regional scale as they can be directly linked
452 to system specific species of ecological and economic importance. The mandatory and optional outputs
453 will also allow the estimation of ecosystem indicators (Coll et al., 2016; Shin, Bundy, et al., 2010; Shin,
454 Shannon, et al., 2010), which are regularly calculated in regional modelling studies in a number of
455 regions and allow for a further point of comparison. These indicators include species-based, size-based
456 and trophodynamic indicators that have already been compared across regional MEMs and ecosystems
457 in the frame of the IndiSeas working group (Fu et al., 2019; Ortega-Cisneros, Shannon, et al., 2018;
458 Reed et al., 2016; Shin et al., 2018). Depending on the scenarios and forcings considered, a subset of
459 indicators could be used that are the most sensitive, responsive and specific to changes in drivers. For
460 example, Shin et al. (2018) showed that among the IndiSeas indicators tested, mean fish length had the
461 more specific response to changes in plankton biomass, while total catch/biomass ratio was more
462 specific to changes in fishing pressure. Recent sensitivity and uncertainty analyses can be used to
463 identify the indicators that are more robust to uncertainties (Luján et al., 2024). Along the lines of Luján
464 et al. (submitted), a standardised protocol could be developed in the future for the FishMIP MEMs to
465 identify a common set of indicators that are robust to uncertainties in model parameterisation.

466 467 ***Step 9: Quality control checks and upload MEM outputs to FishMIP server***

468
469 There are strict specifications on how to prepare and name MEM outputs for submission to FishMIP.
470 File names consist of a series of identifiers including the regional MEM type, climate forcing, the
471 climate, socioeconomic and sensitivity scenario identifiers, and the variable identifier, region and
472 timesteps. Specific guidelines and instructions can be found on the [ISIMIP website](#) and the [FishMIP](#)
473 [protocol 3a](#) repository.

474
475 This is a seemingly trivial but extremely important step to ensure ensemble consistency and expedite
476 analysis. It is crucial that modellers follow closely the formatting guidelines for reporting model outputs
477 to facilitate their analysis within the ISIMIP framework. Regional modellers should use the quality
478 control tool developed by ISIMIP, which allows modellers to check their outputs against the definitions
479 and conventions of ISIMIP protocol before submission. Regional modellers should contact the FishMIP
480 regional modelling team if they have questions about how to format their MEM outputs. Once model

481 outputs are ready for submission, modellers must save them on the upload area (a folder is available for
482 each model region and type) of the DKRZ server.

483

484 *Applying the framework*

485

486 The workflow described here (Fig. 2) has been applied to three case study areas-models: the Baltic Sea
487 Mizer, the Hawai'i-based Longline therMizer and the southern Benguela ecosystem Atlantis regional
488 models. Details on these models (e.g. functional groups, fleets, calibration and skill assessment) can be
489 found in Supplementary Information I and the [FishMIP GitHub repository](#). The results below represent
490 a subset of the steps described in the workflow and were selected to illustrate the implementation of the
491 most challenging steps of the workflow and how they can be applied to different MEM types and model
492 regions to illustrate the applicability and flexibility of the workflow.

493

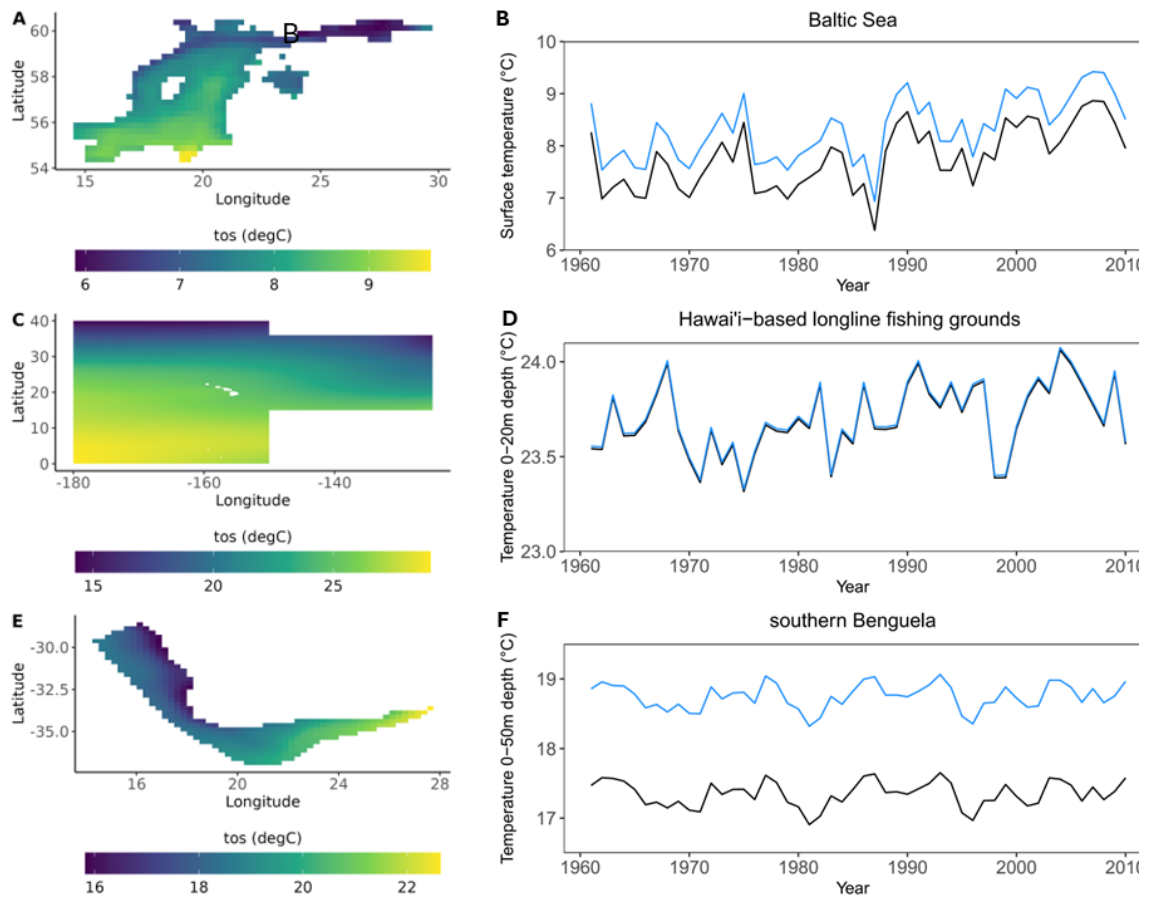
494 **4 Results**

495 **4.1 Case study 1: Climate forcing intermodel comparison**

496 In step 3 of our workflow, our shiny app is available for modellers to extract climate forcings for their
497 region, visualise them and download the variables they need to compare them to standardised global or
498 regional observation datasets. Any region can be selected to visualise and download the 0.25° resolution
499 forcings (see Figure 3A, C, E for sea temperature), then each model may aggregate this data as required.
500 To further assess whether bias correction is required for physical ocean variables (i.e. temperature), a
501 comparison with WOA observations was carried out.

502 **Baltic Sea Mizer model**

503 The Baltic Sea Mizer model uses sea surface temperature as model input, averaged over the whole
504 model domain (Lindmark et al., 2022). A time series of monthly sea surface temperature was acquired
505 from the GFDL hindcast, spanning from January 1961 to December 2010 (Fig. 4B). This hindcast
506 represents the 'climate with observed atmospheric forcing and river input forcing'. Similarly, an average
507 sea surface temperature value was calculated for the control and the WOA datasets. The bias corrected
508 time series (Fig 4B) was compared to the GFDL hindcast to determine if bias correction was needed for
509 this model. The absolute difference between these time series was 0.56 °C, and suggested that bias
510 correction may be needed for this model. Based on the temperature difference between datasets, it is
511 expected that some modelled species may show unexpected behaviour during model simulations.



512

513 Figure 3. Maps of surface temperature climatological means (1961-2010) calculated from GFDL-
 514 MOM6-COBALT2 hindcast for the Baltic Sea Mizer (A), Hawai'i-based longline fishing grounds (C),
 515 and southern Benguela (E) model domains. Time series of bias-corrected (black lines) and GFDL-
 516 MOM6-COBALT2 hindcast (light blue lines) sea temperature for the surface within the Baltic Sea
 517 Mizer model (B), for the top 20 m within the Hawai'i-based longline fishing grounds (D) and for the
 518 top 50 m of the southern Benguela (F). The different depth intervals used to integrate sea temperature
 519 in panels B, D and F reflect the different input forcings used by each model (see section 4.1 for more
 520 information). The bias-corrected time series were calculated using the procedure detailed in the
 521 Supplementary Information I.

522 Hawai'i-based longline therMizer model

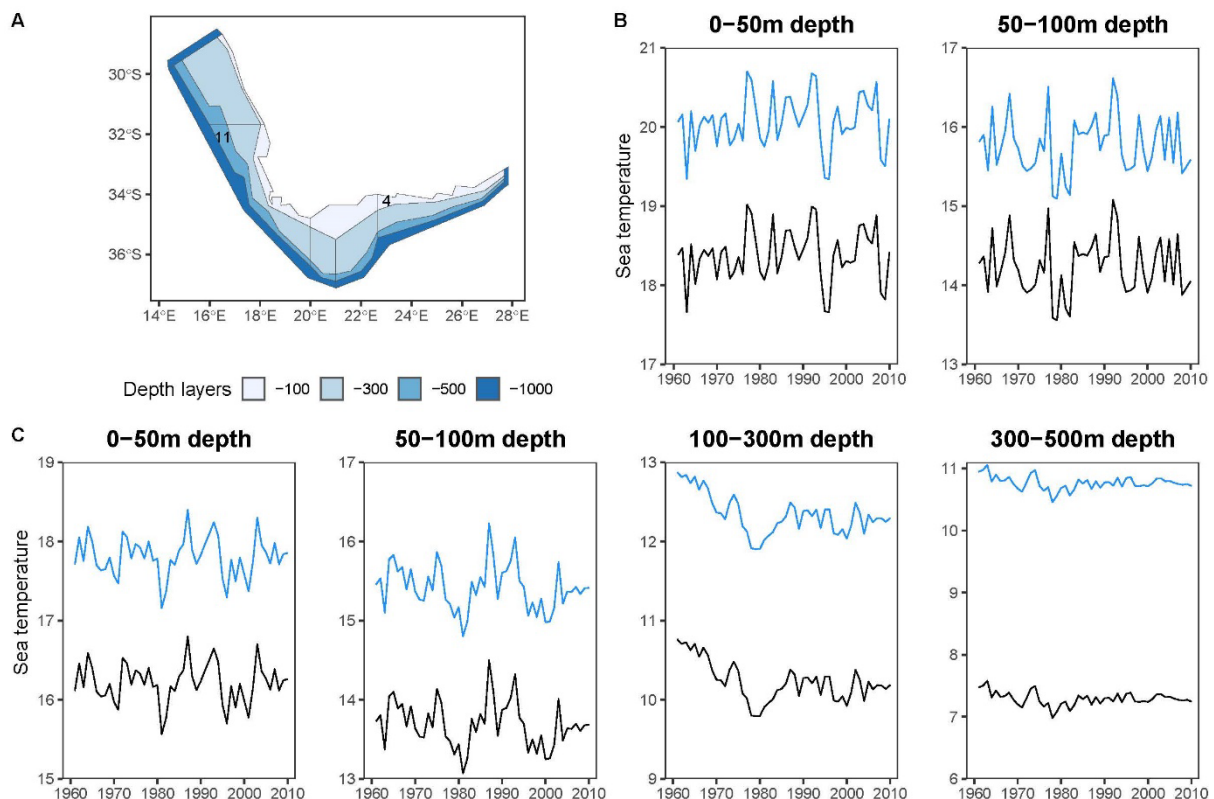
523 The Hawai'i-based longline therMizer model uses temperature averaged over 18 depth ranges as model
 524 input. This model captures species' vertical behaviour and exposure to different depths, and includes
 525 temperature at depth ranges from 0–20 m up to 400–1200 m depth (see Supplementary Information I
 526 for an explanation of the approach). Eighteen temperature time series (January 1961 to December 2010)
 527 were acquired for this model from the GFDL hindcast. Each time series corresponds to the 18 preferred
 528 depth ranges for the model species (see Fig. 3D for an illustration of average temperature at 0-20 m
 529 depth), while 18 average sea temperature values were calculated for the control and the WOA datasets.
 530 The comparison between the GFDL hindcast and the bias corrected time series indicates small absolute
 531 differences in temperature (0.013 °C) for the 0–20 m depth range. While the bias was negligible for the
 532 0-20m depth layer for this model, the bias was higher for deeper depths, and simulations (results not
 533 shown here) using the GFDL hindcast without bias correction resulted in some species going extinct
 534 during the simulations because the GFDL hindcast temperatures fell outside observed temperatures.
 535 This highlights the importance of the bias-correction step for some models, specifically those including
 536 functional groups with narrow thermal preferences.

537

538 Southern Benguela ecosystem Atlantis model

539 The southern Benguela ecosystem Atlantis model is a spatially explicit model, for which the model area
 540 is divided into 18 polygons (Ortega-Cisneros et al., 2017). The model extends to a maximum depth of
 541 500 m, with two depth layers near the coast and four offshore (Fig. 4) and an assumption of an open
 542 boundary layer underlying the offshore boxes (1000 m depth). The procedure detailed in step 3
 543 (Supplementary Information I) was followed as was the case for the Baltic Sea Mizer and Hawai'i-
 544 based longline therMizer models. For the southern Benguela Atlantis model, this procedure resulted in
 545 59 time series of sea water temperature (1961-2010) from the GFDL hindcast and 59 average sea water
 546 temperature data points each for the control and WOA datasets. This was because it was necessary to
 547 aggregate the gridded inputs into the 18 spatial polygons used as the spatial configuration for this
 548 regional model (instead of one for the whole model area), and then to calculate average temperature for
 549 the different depth layers used in this model (Fig. 4). For illustrative purposes, the bias corrected and
 550 GFDL hindcast temperature time series for two model polygons of the southern Benguela ecosystem
 551 Atlantis model are shown in Figure 4. The difference between these datasets is 1.43°C at the 0-50 m
 552 depth layer (Fig. 3F), and increased with depth to 3.48 °C for the 300-500m depth layer. It is therefore
 553 expected that using the GFDL-MOM6-COBALTv2 hindcast without bias correction would likely result
 554 in several modelled species going extinct during model simulations.

555 For other spatially explicit models (case-dependent, step 4), comparing them with gridded observed
 556 climatologies can help indicate whether further statistical downscaling may also be needed (e.g.
 557 Oliveros-Ramos et al., 2023). For this, we recommend following the guidelines provided in step 4.



558

559 Figure 4. Model geometry of the southern Benguela Atlantis model showing model polygons and
 560 depth layers (A). Time series of bias corrected (black) and GFDL-MOM6-COBALTv2 hindcast (light
 561 blue) temperatures at different depth ranges for model polygons 4 (18 boxes × 2 depth layers) (B) and
 562 11 (18 boxes × 4 depth layers) (C).

563 4.2 Case study 2: Fishing effort forcing intermodel comparison

564 All regional MEMs in FishMIP include fishing impacts. However, they vary in their representation of
565 those impacts, such as the use of fishing effort or mortality, the number of fleets, and the number of
566 functional groups impacted by fishing. Here, we provide an overview of how the global fishing effort
567 was used for our three regional MEMs, including one to several fleets.

568

569 All fisheries models are based on the premise that fishing mortality is the product of selectivity \times
570 catchability \times effort. Only effort was varied in the construction of the fishing forcing, with selectivity
571 and catchability unchanged from the way in which the respective models typically deal with these
572 parameters. In the Baltic Sea Mizer and Hawai'i therMizer selectivity and catchability were set to 1
573 throughout for both. For the southern Benguela ecosystem Atlantis, catchability is set to 1, and constant
574 age selectivity is used with fishing mortality. For anchovy, age selectivity applies to fish older than six
575 months and for sardine older than one year.

576

577 **Baltic Sea Mizer model**

578 The Baltic Sea Mizer model required an alternative approach to how fishing was incorporated. This
579 Mizer model consists of three fish species: Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*), Atlantic herring (*Clupea*
580 *harengus*) and European sprat (*Sprattus sprattus*). The original model (Lindmark et al., 2022) was
581 calibrated to stock-level fishing mortalities and did not explicitly include different fleets. The majority
582 of landings of cod stem from the bottom trawl fleet ("Trawl_Bottom"), and the majority of sprat and
583 herring by pelagic trawl fleet ("Trawl_Midwater_or_Unsp") (verified using logbook data and
584 assessment reports from the regional advisory organisation ICES). Therefore, these gears were selected
585 in the initial processing of the global effort data. The effort ("NomActive") was next summed by year
586 and functional group, where cod belongs to "demersal30-90cm" and sprat and herring belong to
587 "pelagic<30cm". A time series of relative global fishing effort was made by dividing the effort by the
588 maximum in the time window 1992–2004. This deviation from the workflow (scaling to maximum
589 rather than mean) was made because the bottom trawl effort was characterised by a few large spikes in
590 effort (two years with fishing efforts larger than 5 standard deviations above the mean). To go from
591 relative fishing effort to fishing mortality in the Baltic Mizer model, the mean difference between the
592 fishing mortality derived from stock assessments and that of the relative effort time series over the time
593 period 1961–2010 was added to the relative time series to correct the global effort forcing. The time
594 series of assessment-derived fishing mortalities and global fishing effort are shown in Fig. 5A-C. The
595 validation compared these time series for cod, herring and sprat through a correlation; the Pearson's
596 correlation coefficient r was -0.203 ($p = 0.156$), 0.497 ($p < 0.0001$) and 0.6 ($p < 0.0001$) for cod, herring
597 and sprat respectively. The model predicted average spawning stock biomass (SSB) (forced with global
598 climate and fishing data) was compared to the average SSB from the assessment in the calibration time
599 window (1992–2004), as in the original publication (Lindmark et al., 2022). The model returns a
600 comparable SSB as the original model for cod and herring (77 vs 56 tonnes, and 600 vs 532 tonnes for
601 the original model and the one forced with global data, respectively), while sprat SSB is nearly half in
602 the simulation with global forcings due to the considerably higher effort in the global effort data. This
603 is partly explained by sprat having higher fishing mortality in the global data (mortalities are on average
604 +0.25 higher than the assessment fishing mortalities) in the calibration time window.

605 **Hawai'i-based longline (ther)Mizer model**

606 The Hawai'i-based longline model (Woodworth-Jefcoats et al., 2019) includes the longline fleet
607 ("Lines_Longlines"), hence this fleet was selected in the initial processing of the global effort data. The
608 modelled Hawai'i-based longline fleet catches 12 model species included in three pelagic
609 ("pelagic<30cm", "pelagic30-90cm", "pelagic \geq 90cm") and two shark ("shark<90cm",
610 "shark \geq 90cm") functional groups. The effort ("NomActive") across these five functional groups was
611 aggregated to estimate the total effort of the longline fleet per year, under the assumption that a single
612 longline fleet is catching these functional groups. This assumption is based on the characteristics of the
613 Hawai'i-based longline fleet.

614

615 The catch data used to inform the Hawai‘i-based longline model starts in 1995, and thus, a baseline
616 average effort was calculated using the time period 1995–2004. The time series of global effort
617 (“NomActive”) for the longline fleet was then divided by the baseline average effort to estimate the
618 relative global fishing effort. The global relative fishing effort was multiplied by 0.2, which is the
619 fishing mortality ($F = 0.2$) used to calibrate the Hawai‘i-based longline therMizer model (Woodworth-
620 Jefcoats et al., 2019) to arrive at a time series of fishing mortality values (Fig. 5D). Fishing mortality F
621 = 0.2 was used in this model because a fishing mortality close to 0.2 has been estimated for those species
622 with available stock assessments (Woodworth-Jefcoats et al., 2019 and references therein).

623

624 The Hawai‘i-based longline therMizer model applied the global fishing effort to the functional groups
625 caught by the longline fleet. A validation run was performed using constant fishing mortality ($F = 0.2$)
626 as per the original model (Woodworth-Jefcoats et al., 2019). The validation used a correlation test to
627 compare observed and modelled catch at size for the 12 species targeted in the model. All correlations
628 were significant (max p -value = 0.0028), while the Pearson’s correlation coefficient r ranged from 0.296
629 to 0.922, with a mean of 0.65 and a median of 0.684.

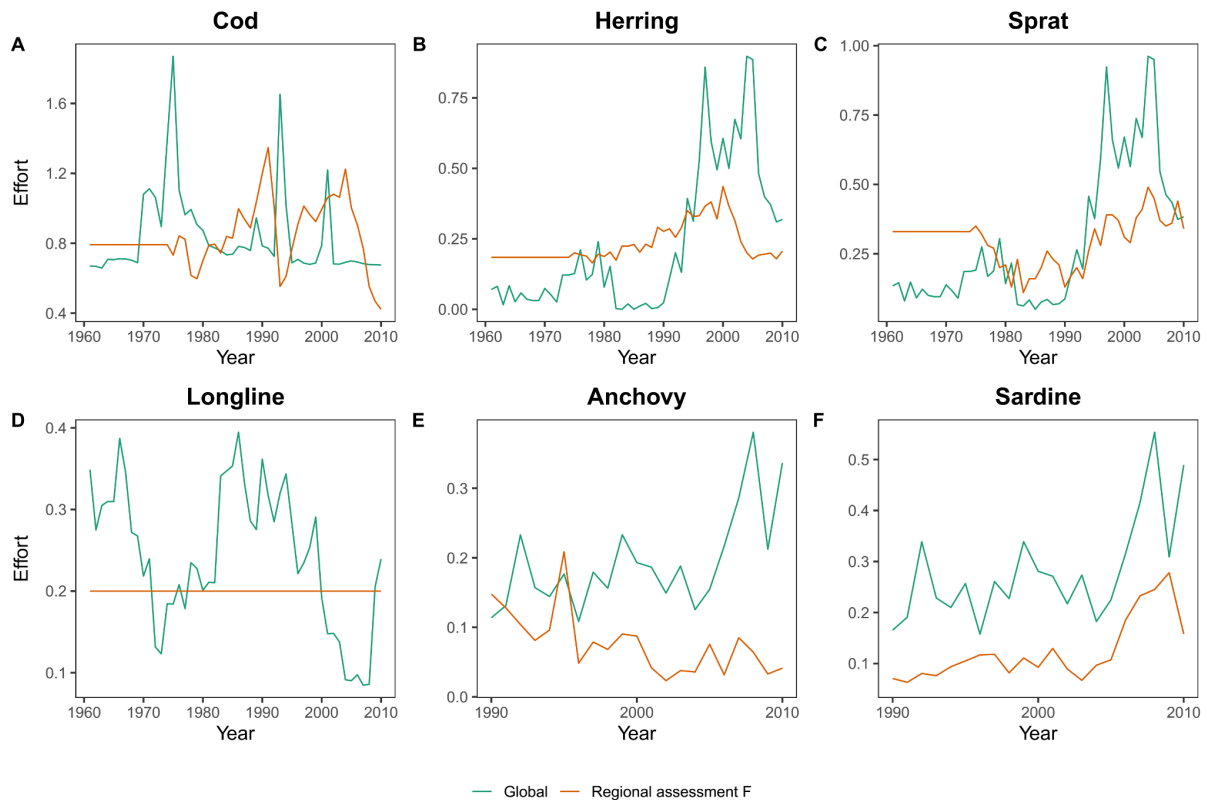
630

631 **Southern Benguela Atlantis model**

632 The southern Benguela Atlantis model followed the approach detailed in step 5 (Supplementary
633 Information I), as described for the Hawai‘i-based longline therMizer model. The southern Benguela
634 Atlantis model (Ortega-Cisneros, Cochrane, et al., 2018; Ortega-Cisneros et al., 2017) includes purse
635 seine, inshore and offshore demersal trawl, mid-water trawl, line and jig fisheries targeting a number of
636 functional groups within the model. The original model was calibrated against biomass and catch time
637 series for key functional groups (Ortega-Cisneros et al., 2017).

638

639 The purse-seine fishery, targeting small pelagics, is the largest fishery in terms of landings in South
640 Africa (DFFE, 2023). Therefore, this fleet was selected for the initial processing of the global effort
641 data. First, the effort (“NomActive”) for the purse seine fleet (“Seine_Purse_Seine”) was filtered. This
642 fleet targets anchovy (*Engraulis encrausicolus*) and sardine (*Sardinops sagax*), and also round herring
643 (*Etrumeus whiteheadi*) in recent years; these species belong to the “pelagic<30cm” functional group in
644 the global effort data. A relative time series of global effort for the purse seine fleet and the
645 “pelagic<30cm” was then estimated using the baseline effort calculated from 1990-2004 (the southern
646 Benguela ecosystem Atlantis model starts in 1990). The conversion from relative fishing effort to
647 fishing mortality was achieved by multiplying the relative effort time series by the annual baseline
648 fishing mortality for anchovy and sardine in this model (Fig. 5E-F). The correlation between the global
649 effort data for the purse seine fleet and the harvest proportion for anchovy and sardine derived from the
650 stock assessment for these species (de Moor, 2021) was estimated as a form of validation. A high and
651 significant correlation was found for sardine ($r = 0.668, p < 0.0001$) but not for anchovy ($r = -0.171, p$
652 = 0.459).



653

654 Figure 5. Annual global fishing effort time series for key functional groups compared with regional
 655 inputs for the Baltic Sea Mizer (A-C), Hawai‘i-based longline therMizer (D) and southern Benguela
 656 ecosystem Atlantis (E-F) regional models. Global fishing effort refers to the effort time series
 657 calculated using the effort provided by FishMIP and the regional assessment refers to the fishing
 658 mortality or harvest proportions derived from stock assessments (see section 4.2)

659 5 Discussion

660 Here we described an implementation framework for regional MEMs to participate in comparative
 661 analyses as part of FishMIP, across models and a wide range of regions worldwide. Our workflow for
 662 setting up regional MEMs for climate hindcasts or projections is flexible enough to apply to a range of
 663 MEM types. The case study intercomparison applications of our workflow show that each specific
 664 model-region combination has unique requirements that can be accommodated by the extraction tools
 665 we have designed. We envisage this workflow will facilitate future research on MEM ensemble
 666 development and applications in at least the following ways: 1) regional MEM ensembles, 2) model
 667 evaluation and benchmarking (across multiple models/regions), 3) global-regional model
 668 intercomparison for regions.

669 5.1 Regional marine ecosystem model ensembles

670 The framework presented here provides modellers with a workflow that allows them to process climate
 671 and fishing forcings in line with their model requirements and the resources of the modelling team to
 672 perform the simulations. Our protocol proved flexible in accommodating MEMs with one fleet
 673 (Hawai‘i-based longline therMizer model) or several fleets targeting different functional groups (Baltic
 674 Sea Mizer and southern Benguela ecosystem Atlantis models). Notably, the availability of the global
 675 fishing effort also represents an important step for regions where local fishing effort and mortality are
 676 unknown or where records are incomplete, as this will allow regional modellers to represent the impacts
 677 of fishing on their MEMs. In addition, the global effort data can be used to represent artisanal fisheries,
 678 for which there is limited available data worldwide (Cisneros-Montemayor et al., 2020). It is, however,
 679 recommended that the limitations of such an approach (see section 5.4) be clearly communicated to any
 680 end-user of such projections (e.g. decision makers) and that global effort data be combined with any

681 available regional information or knowledge from local experts to improve the implementation of the
682 global data into regional MEMs.

683 We hope the development of this workflow will accelerate and foster comparisons of MEMs across and
684 within regions. For instance, MEM ensembles can be used to conduct experiments and test scenarios in
685 a standardised manner or to perform in-depth evaluations of uncertainty sources in climate projections
686 (e.g. Murphy et al., this issue). The latter is particularly important given the increasing need for MEM
687 outputs to support policy and decision-making, for which regional models should be particularly suited.

688 **5.2 Model benchmarking**

689 Benchmarking is necessary to improve the uptake of MEM outputs and to make them policy-relevant
690 (Frieler et al., 2024). There are several different approaches to benchmarking, ranging from quantifying
691 error to fully conducting uncertainty assessments (Luo et al., 2012; Mackinson et al., 2018; Ogunro et
692 al., 2018). One of the main issues related to improving the reliability and robustness of projections by
693 MEMs is their limited cross-ecosystem validation against historical data (Heneghan et al., 2021;
694 Novaglio et al., 2024), which is true at both global and regional levels. One of the reasons is the limited
695 observational data available at the global scale. For instance, the datasets available to FishMIP are
696 mostly derived from global catch reconstructions (Watson & Tidd, 2018). Recently, a fisheries-
697 independent dataset of biomass from bottom trawl surveys became available, but it only covers coastal
698 regions in the Northern Hemisphere, and authors suggest that biomass cannot be compared across
699 regions (Maureaud et al., 2023). At the regional scale, in several instances, there is enough data to
700 conduct calibration, but the availability of appropriate optimisation routines can constrain the
701 application of systematic calibration of regional MEMs (Oliveros-Ramos & Shin, 2016). To address
702 these issues, FishMIP aims to develop standardised datasets to evaluate historical model simulations
703 (Blanchard et al., 2024), standardised methodological frameworks for model skill evaluation, novel
704 approaches to exploring how best to constrain projections (Novaglio et al., this issue), and novel
705 lightweight approaches to systematically execute and assess MEMs (Steenbeek et al., 2024). These
706 actions will support the development of model benchmarks and tools (Collier et al., 2018; Fu et al.,
707 2022) and ultimately lead to improved ecosystem models. This implementation framework represents
708 one of these actions by standardising model forcings and observational datasets and ultimately reducing
709 model parameterization uncertainty (Blanchard et al., 2024).

710

711 **5.3 Global-regional model intercomparison**

712 The FishMIP 3a protocol permits the use of standardised fishing effort for global and regional models.
713 While regional ecosystem modellers may find the global effort forcing less precise for their regions
714 compared to local data due to factors such as the taxonomic resolution of the forcing (functional groups
715 instead of species) and system specific variation in catch or effort reporting not captured in the global
716 reconstructions, the standardised fishing effort allows modellers to conduct systematic comparisons
717 between global and regional MEMs. This is one of the main challenges for FishMIP and a priority area
718 for future work, as it will enable us to determine if the projections from regional MEMs are similar or
719 different to those from global MEMs and the likely causes for these differences (Eddy et al., this issue;
720 Novaglio et al., 2024). Fostering these comparisons is especially important for regional impact
721 assessments in data-limited areas, as they will provide insights into whether projections from global
722 MEMs can be used for regional purposes.

723 **5.4 Insights from using the global fishing effort on regional MEMs**

724 Poor agreement was found between the historical trends of the global and regional fishing efforts for
725 some species, e.g., cod in the Baltic Sea and anchovy in the southern Benguela ecosystem models. This
726 is likely explained by the functional group resolution of global effort data, compared to regional
727 resolution, which was to the species level. Thus, in several instances, one fleet can target different
728 species within the same functional group. For example, both anchovy and sardine were included in the

729 'pelagic<30cm' functional group targeted by the purse seine fleet in the southern Benguela model.
730 Similarly, in the Baltic Sea model, two species were included in the same functional group and fleet.
731 The level of taxonomic resolution (e.g., functional group), therefore, results in the same temporal
732 variability in effort being applied to the different species within a functional group and gear. This is,
733 however, not always the case for species targeted under the same fleet. The global effort data can thus
734 be less representative for some species within the same functional group, and this could explain why
735 anchovy harvest proportions showed a poor correlation with the global effort estimates, while an
736 acceptable correlation was observed for sardine for the southern Benguela model.

737 The protocol thus advises modellers to first evaluate how regional observations compare to global data,
738 and the applicability of the latter for a particular region. For instance, the sensitivity analysis presented
739 in step 5 will allow us to determine the impacts of using global vs regional forcings on regional MEM
740 outputs and whether the differences between the effort time series are sufficiently large to impact model
741 outputs and the extent of the impact. We acknowledge that if the differences in trends and magnitudes
742 between the datasets are considerable, it may not be productive for regional modellers to recalibrate
743 their MEMs to the global fishing efforts, which are considered less appropriate than the regional ones.
744 If recalibration cannot be carried out, we still hope modellers will submit their runs and compare them
745 to the outputs of their baseline calibrated runs and regional observations. The latter will help identify
746 areas for improvement and refinement of both global and regional MEMs, and global datasets (e.g.
747 effort data) that are regularly used for other reasons in fisheries and anthropogenic impact assessments.
748 Moreover, it will ultimately contribute to the improvements of MEMs within FishMIP (Heneghan et
749 al., 2021), which are often also used for other purposes, the rigour of which would also benefit from
750 any MEM improvements. Lastly, it will also contribute to efforts by the FishMIP community to include
751 an evaluation approach into the MEM protocol (Blanchard et al., 2024) that could also be used
752 regionally. All of these advances move the entire MEM community more clearly toward best practice
753 standards that could be applied to any MEM at any scale in all project work (Planque et al., 2022;
754 Steenbeek et al., 2021).

755 **5.5 Next steps**

756 Given the large amounts of climate and fishing effort data used for this protocol, the Regional Climate
757 Forcing Data Explorer shiny app is a significant step forward in simplifying the processing of these
758 forcings as it performs some of the common steps (e.g., extraction and subsetting) followed in data
759 processing. Moreover, several R and Python scripts that supplement the data processing and analyses
760 performed in this study are publicly available in the FishMIP GitHub repository to ensure the
761 replicability of the process. In the near future, the shiny app will also integrate the global effort data for
762 the different participating regional MEM areas to further simplify the analysis of forcings and foster the
763 application of this workflow for comparisons across regions and global-regional comparisons.

764 Another area that requires further attention is the use of a harmonised downscaling approach. While
765 this was an area that needed attention for only specific models in the past, it has become one of the
766 focus areas for future work in FishMIP due to the importance of using highly resolved projections for
767 regional climate-impact assessment and other management applications (Pozo Buil et al., 2021).

768 **6. Conclusions**

769 To date, a range of different methods have been used to process and implement climate forcings in
770 regional MEMs participating in FishMIP, with the decision on the methods used lying with the
771 ecosystem modellers. Moreover, the diversity of approaches to implementing climate impacts on MEMs
772 can limit the ability of researchers to replicate the process and compare and analyse MEM ensemble
773 outputs. To address this concern, we developed a workflow that standardises the analysis of climate and
774 fishing forcings, with a focus on global-regional and regional model intercomparisons. The
775 development of this framework is particularly timely, given the increasing number of regional modellers
776 joining FishMIP and the need to systematically evaluate the impacts of climate change worldwide.

777 While this workflow is designed for model intercomparisons under FishMIP, it may also be adapted to
 778 other climate model-MEM linkages. This is particularly important given that projections under climate
 779 change are becoming standard expectations in many jurisdictions as the influence of climate change on
 780 marine ecosystems matches or exceeds that of fishing (e.g. Fulton et al., 2024). The steps identified in
 781 Figure 2 can be generalised to:

- 782 1) Identify climate variables needed for the MEM
- 783 2) Develop shapefiles of MEM region to extract variables from climate models
- 784 3) Aggregate climate variables for non-spatial models
- 785 4) Apply downscaling, if needed, for spatial models
- 786 5) Apply appropriate fishing effort
- 787 6) Calibrate MEM
- 788 7) Set up MEM experimental or scenario runs
- 789 8) Perform quality checks

790 If a regional modeler has an application that requires use of different forcing datasets (e.g., use of more
 791 regionally specific fishing effort data than what is available in the global fishing data set), then the user
 792 can apply those data as needed. However, as a check to their climate-MEM set-up, they can use the
 793 FishMIP forcing data sets and perform the FishMIP quality check as a first pass. The inclusion of these
 794 regional simulations in FishMIP will facilitate a broader intercomparison and wider understanding of
 795 climate impacts on fishing ecosystems globally. The user could then apply their local forcing data for
 796 their final application. Substituting forcing data sets enables the user to test the sensitivity of their
 797 climate-MEM to different drivers.

798 The workflow presented here provides a flexible approach to setting up regional MEMs for hindcasts
 799 or projections under different climate and fishing scenarios. This workflow is adaptable to different
 800 types of regional MEMs, including those that are aspatial or spatial and fully-depth resolved, and those
 801 that include one or several fishing fleets. Despite some limitations in the global effort data, the results
 802 shown here support its use in regional MEMs, especially for areas with limited fishing information. It
 803 is expected that regional models conduct the simulations as described in this protocol to evaluate
 804 differences in MEM outputs when using global vs regional sources, provide recommendations for
 805 improving global-regional comparisons, and detect drivers of past change in a standardised manner.

806 807 DATA AVAILABILITY

808 The R scripts used to execute the analyses in the paper can be found at:
 809 https://github.com/Fish-MIP/FishMIP_regions, [https://github.com/pwoodworth-jefcoats/therMizer-](https://github.com/pwoodworth-jefcoats/therMizer-FishMIP-2022-HI/blob/main/ClimateForcing/Temperature/Prep_TempRealms_therMizer.Rmd)
 810 [FishMIP-2022-HI/blob/main/ClimateForcing/Temperature/Prep_TempRealms_therMizer.Rmd](https://github.com/pwoodworth-jefcoats/therMizer-FishMIP-2022-HI/blob/main/ClimateForcing/Temperature/Prep_TempRealms_therMizer.Rmd),
 811 <https://data.isimip.org/>, [https://rstudio.global-ecosystem-](https://rstudio.global-ecosystem-model.cloud.edu.au/shiny/FishMIP_Input_Explorer/)
 812 [model.cloud.edu.au/shiny/FishMIP_Input_Explorer/](https://rstudio.global-ecosystem-model.cloud.edu.au/shiny/FishMIP_Input_Explorer/),
 813 <http://portal.sf.utas.edu.au/thredds/catalog/gem/fishmip/catalog.html>,
 814 https://github.com/Fish-MIP/Regional_MEM_Model_Templates,
 815 [https://github.com/Fish-](https://github.com/Fish-MIP/FishMIP_Input_Explorer/blob/main/data_wrangling/regional_data_extractions_DKRZ.py)
 816 [MIP/FishMIP_Input_Explorer/blob/main/data_wrangling/regional_data_extractions_DKRZ.py](https://github.com/Fish-MIP/FishMIP_Input_Explorer/blob/main/data_wrangling/regional_data_extractions_DKRZ.py)
 817

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1158 Table 1. A description of climate forcings used by, and how process effects are represented in, the FishMIP ecosystem modelling types. The optional forcing
 1159 column highlights variables that may be required by some implementations of the model type. The key forcings column represents those for which the climate
 1160 input forcings described in the workflow are preferred over time series drawn from other sources or defined by default within the model. Adapted from Tittensor
 1161 et al., 2018.
 1162

Ecosystem model name	Spatial and temporal scale and vertical resolutions	Key forcing variables used	Optional forcing variables used	Implementation of temperature effects/processes	Implementation of primary production / Plankton biomass
Composite (hybrid) models – including multiple model formulations in system representation					
Atlantis	3-D spatial polygons matched to biophysical features; vertically resolved using “slab” layers (with finer layers and the surface and thicker at depth). Timestep is flexible, typically 6–24 h	Sea Water Potential Temperature (thetao), Sea Water Salinity (so), Sea water X velocity (uo), Sea water Y velocity (vo)	Dissolved oxygen concentration (o2), pH (pH), Mole Concentration of nutrients (NH, NO, Si and potentially micronutrients), Diatoms (phydiat), Diazotrophs (phydiaz), Picophytoplankton (phypico), Sea ice, irradiance, precipitation, river inflow, changes in sea level, eddy strength	Any model ecological process (e.g. metabolic rates, consumption, growth, mortality, movement/distribution, spawning) and the functional groups as defined by the modeller, as well as all modelled biogeochemical processes	Plankton mole concentration (in N m^{-3}) read in and forcing replaces the emergent phytoplankton biomass estimated for each model. Best done as a weighted average (somewhat similar to data assimilation), to minimise loss of mass conservation. Delta method to correct primary production or plankton biomass can be applied as a relative anomaly to the phytoplankton growth rates (Rovellini et al., 2024)
Models of Intermediate Complexity (MICE)	Flexible, typically running in monthly or yearly time steps. Can be non-spatial or spatial. If spatial, applications are usually of coarse resolution. Spatially resolved in 2-D.	Sea Water Potential Temperature (thetao) averaged over specific depth ranges to represent the preferences of the different functional groups or species included in the model;	Chl-a, Primary Organic Carbon Production by All Types of Phytoplankton (intpp), Mole concentration of Diatoms (phydiat), Diazotrophs (phydiaz), Picophytoplankton (phypico), mesozooplankton (zmeso) and microzooplankton	Different model ecological process (e.g. growth, mortality, movement/distribution, spawning) and the functional groups as defined by the modeller	Estimating multipliers for carrying capacity and predator-prey interactions (e.g., Tulloch et al., 2019)

		or at the surface, bottom of the water column*	(zmicro), Rainfall, Sea ice		
OSMOSE	Flexible. Typically, resolution of 1/6 and a weekly time step. Spatially resolved in 2-D; the vertical distribution of species is handled through a matrix of accessibility.	Sea Water Potential Temperature (thetao)*, Primary Organic Carbon Production by All Types of Phytoplankton (intpp), Mole Concentration of Diatoms (phydiat), Diazotrophs (phydiaz), Picophytoplankton (phypico), mesozooplankton (zmeso) and microzooplankton (zmicro)	Sea Water Salinity (so), Dissolved oxygen concentration (o2) (e.g., Moullec et al. 2019, Morell et al. 2023).	Species distributions, Maintenance rate, growth, fecundity, starvation mortality. OSMOSE parameterisation relies on species distribution model outputs. Climate forcings must be within the same range as the data used for parameterisation of thermal preferences to avoid species collapses (e.g., out-of-range environmental conditions)	Statistical downscaling and bias-correction to produce plankton biomass consistent with regional biogeochemical model (ROMS-PISCES) (Espinoza-Morriberon et al., 2016).
Trophodynamic models – structured based on species interactions and transfer of energy across trophic levels.					
EcoTran (Coupled physical-trophic model)	2D and 3D implementations. Rectangular polygons of varying size, ~10s-100s km, and 2-6 depth layers of varying thickness, ~10s-100s m. Time-step typically 24 h nearshore, but 3 h in oceanic regions to simulate diel vertical migration	Temperatures within specific depth ranges. Horizontal water velocities. Nutrient (N) input rate or phytoplankton production rate (flexible phytoplankton group definitions).	User-defined changes to consumption rates of individual consumer groups or catch rates by individual fleets. User-defined changes to community composition and food web structure.	Metabolic rate (Q10). Feeding rate of poikilotherms is scaled via dome-shape response representing optimal and sub-optimal/lethal conditions)	When driven via nitrate and ammonium input, primary production is estimated via Michaelis-menten kinetics. Model may also be driven directly with phytoplankton biomass time-series output of a biogeochemical model (in cases where biomass is available but not production, a constant production/biomass ratio is typically assumed to estimate primary production rates).

EwE	Flexible, typically running in monthly time steps. Depth dimension is considered implicitly through food web interactions and habitat preference patterns for Ecopath and Ecosim. Ecospace is spatially resolved in 2-D; the vertical distribution of species is handled through the niche model (Christensen et al., 2014; de Mutsert et al., 2023).	Sea Water Potential Temperature (thetao)*, Primary Organic Carbon Production by All Types of Phytoplankton (intpp)	Sea Water Salinity (so), Dissolved oxygen concentration (o2)	Typically uses forcing and environmental response functions to model temperature effects through changes in assimilation efficiency, adjustment of consumption rates and mortality. In Ecospace, sea water temperature also affects species distributions.	Primary production used as a forcing function influencing the production of plankton size classes. Primary production from ESMs is bias corrected using the delta method (Eddy et al. this issue). This method involves calculating relative values of primary production compared to the model base year. EwE can also ingest primary producer biomass density distributions directly, overriding internal primary production growth dynamics (de Mutsert et al. 2023)
Size-based models – developed from food web, macroecological, and life history theory for exploration of community size spectra					
(ther)Mizer	Non-spatial. Mizer is a multi-species size-structured model, and therMizer allows climate and plankton forcing to be added to Mizer (Delius et al., 2023; Woodworth-Jefcoats et al., 2019).	Sea Water Potential Temperature (thetao)*, Mole Concentration of Diatoms (phydiat), Diazotrophs (phydiaz), Picophytoplankton (phypico), mesozooplankton (zmeso) and microzooplankton (zmicro)		Individual metabolism, maximum consumption, search volume and predation mortality	Use the concentration of vertically integrated plankton size classes to estimate the plankton size spectrum via linear fit across these size classes

1164 Table 2. List of gear and functional group codes.

1165

Gear codes	Functional groups
Dredges	bathydemersal<30cm
Gillnets	bathydemersal30-90cm
Lift_Nets	bathydemersal>=90cm
Lines_Handlines_and_poles	bathypelagic<30cm
Lines_Longlines	bathypelagic30-90cm
Lines_Unspecified	bathypelagic>=90cm
Others_Multiple_Gears	benthopelagic<30cm
Others_Others	benthopelagic30-90cm
Others_Support	benthopelagic>=90cm
Others_Unknown	cephalopods
Pots_and_Traps	demersal<30cm
Seine_Danish_and_Other	demersal30-90cm
Seine_Purse_Seine	demersal>=90cm
Trawl_Midwater_or_Unsp	demersalmollusc
Trawl_Bottom	flatfish<90cm
Falling_Gear	flatfish>=90cm
	krill
	lobsterscrab
	pelagic<30cm
	pelagic30-90cm
	pelagic>=90cm
	rays<90cm
	rays>=90cm
	reef-associated<30cm
	reef-associated30-90cm
	reef-associated>=90cm

	shark<90cm
	shark>=90cm
	Shrimp

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