

A new model for simulating growth in fish

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Introduction

A main objective in fisheries management is to track the impact of fisheries on the fish stocks and predict the Maximum Sustainable Yield (MSY) (Pitcher & Hart 1982). A real dynamic population model calculates changes in population size and biomass independent of time. In mathematical terms, such a model is often formulated with differential equations where the change is initially measured as a function of time. The time factor is then removed by integration, but the differential models describing increment in biomass of fish cannot be integrated (Beverton & Holt 1957; Lotka 1925; Schaefer 1957; Volterra 1926). Furthermore, fish growth, i.e. the size increment with time, varies greatly with food quality and availability, temperature and other environmental factors and the fish will reach the different stages in development more dependent on size than on age (Amara & Lagardere 1995; Aritaki & Seikai 2004; Sæle & Pittman 2010). A certain size or energy store is needed for metamorphosis in fish larvae (Amara & Lagardere 1995; Aritaki & Seikai 2004), smoltification in salmon (McCormick & Bjørnsson 1994) and sexual maturation in fish in general. Accordingly, farmed cod grow faster and mature at an earlier age than wild cod (Braaten 1984; Karlsen et al. 1995; Karlsen et al. 2006). If the required size is not obtained, the fish will simply postpone development. Therefore, a growth function which omits time and is based on fish size would be in line with real fish growth and development, and would be preferred for calculation of yield in simulation models.

Population dynamic models built on the classical Beverton & Holt (B&H) model are often used in fish stock assessments (Beverton & Holt 1957; Hilborn 1994). This model estimates the yield per recruit by assuming that growth is a function of age, e.g. accumulated time (Bertalanffy 1938). As a result, the B&H model cannot sum up the yield in all year classes in the same year, but it can be used to sum up the yield in one year-class during life. The authors

therefore assume that the yield of all year-classes in one year is equivalent to the yield of one year-class through life (Beverton & Holt 1957), e.g. the model assumes constant growth.

Another way to quantify changes in mass than using differential equations was introduced by Albert Einstein, when he presented the theory of relativity. Instead of using mathematics to deduce from a known physical law, he postulated that energy and mass are equivalents and depend on the speed of light ($E=mc^2$) (Einstein 1905). Later experiments with particle acceleration, have verified this postulate. In a similar way, we postulate that the length increment (dL), which is the basis for harvesting fish stocks, is inversely proportional to the length (L_s) and that dL is reduced towards a maximum length (L_{max}):

$$dL = k \cdot (L_{max} - L_s) \quad 1$$

k is a variable determined by environmental factors, such as food availability and temperature. Eq. 1 includes only measurable factors so that dL can be summed arithmetically, either per year or by year classes, using modern computer techniques. It can be applied for vertebrates, only, because the dynamic term ($L_{max}-L_s$) cannot be negative, i.e. the animal cannot shrink.

The present study aims at developing a real dynamic growth model based on an unchangeable and predictable natural law which is independent of time. Eq. 1 is validated using length increment in zebrafish kept at constant conditions for one generation (Gomez-Requeni et al. 2010). We also investigate how the model fits to the observed growth of herring, capelin and cod in the North East Atlantic, the Barents Sea and the North Sea and of farmed cod, and we look at growth in laboratory mice in order to extend the findings to vertebrates other than fish.

Later we intend to use this law to simulate the development in fish stocks, starting with measurement of the state of the stocks using acoustic surveys, in accordance with Bjerknes' principle of exact science (Bjerknes 1904)

Materials and methods

Data acquisition and organisation

The data on growth in zebrafish were extracted from Gomez-Requeni et al. (2010). Mean lengths (L) of herring, capelin and cod were from ICES working group reports (ICES 2012a; ICES 2012c). In herring, data on 1 to 9 year old fish, from 1985 until 2003 were used, while fish older than 9 years were omitted from the dataset, because they had essentially no length increment. The data were organized as development of length with age in different year classes. Full year classes were obtained from those reaching one year of age in 1985-1995. Data on capelin and cod from the Barents Sea were also organized as development of length per year-class, the 1986-2001 year-classes for capelin and the 1985-1995 year-classes for cod. Data on weights of North Sea cod were taken from the ICES working group report ICES (2012b) and converted to length using a condition factor of 0.0104 (Daan 1974). The data on farmed cod were from cod hatched and reared in pens at Austevoll aquaculture research station, Institute of Marine Research, Norway. All fish were fed in excess with commercial dry pellets, and became sexually mature at age 2 years. Daily water temperature measured at 2 m depth from summer 1990 to autumn 1996 had a clear seasonal pattern, with minimum and maximum temperatures during spring and autumn, respectively (Hoie et al. 2004). Data on growth of laboratory mice were extracted from Sagazio et al. (2007).

Calculations and statistics

Increment in length (dL) was calculated as $dL = L_{(a+1)} - L_{(a)}$, where a is fish age, using time intervals of one day for zebrafish, one week for mice, 0.5 years for farmed cod and one year for the wild fish stocks.

The statistical treatment was performed with GraphPad Prism, ver. 6 for Windows (GraphPad Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). For the zebrafish data, the plot of length increment day^{-1} by length was fitted to a second order polynomial equation. The points after the maximum of the obtained parable were then fitted to a linear and a second order polynomial equation and the results compared using the GraphPad software. For herring, capelin, and wild cod, average length increment year⁻¹ by length in the year-classes were also fitted to a linear and a second order polynomial equation, and the results compared by the software.

For herring, length increment year⁻¹ was plotted against length for 1-9 year old fish in each year-class and fitted to the linear equation. In all cases, $R^2 > 0.98$ for 3-9 year old fish and L_{max} could be calculated from these data (average $L_{\text{max}} = 354 \text{ mm}$). The slope of the line (k) between length increment in 1 and 2 year old fish and the zero length increment at L_{max} , was compared with the slope of the data on 3-9 year old fish, using GraphPad software. The slope of 1 and 2 year old fish was taken to be significant different from that of the 3-9 year old fish when it was outside the $\text{mean} \pm 1$ confidence interval.

Results

Zebrafish growth as a function of age fits a sigmoid curve (Figure 1A), and plotting length increment as a function of length gave an almost perfect fit to the second order polynomial $y = -0.0027x^2 + 0.078x + 0.25$ ($R^2 = 0.994$, Figure 1A). When omitting the first two points corresponding to the larval and very early juvenile stages, and comparing the polynomial

($R^2=0.9988$) and the linear equation, the second order polynomial was preferred ($p=0.015$), but the straight line still had an $R^2=0.9887$ (Figure 1C). Therefore, for simplicity, growth in zebrafish held at constant conditions after the juvenile stage can be formulated mathematically by equation 1:

$$dL=k*(L_{max}-L_s) = -k*L_s+k*L_{max}$$

The slope of the curve corresponds to $-k$, while L_{max} can be calculated from the intercept with the y-axis; $k*L_{max}$ (Figure 1C).

The curve of length by age of the 1985 to the 1995 year-classes of herring from 1 until 9 years of age (Fig 2A) shows rapid growth in length of young fish and a decrease in length increment as the fish gets older and increase in size. The decrease in length increment starts already after the second year and lasts until year 9, where-after the length increment per year is close to zero (data not shown). Figure 2B shows the plot of average length increment by length in all year-classes. The fit to a second order polynomial has an $R^2=0.9979$, while the linear fit has an $R^2=0.9904$. Here the second order equation is again preferred ($p=0.01$). Figure 2C shows that the plots of length increment by length differ in the different year classes. The points for 1 and 2 year old fish deviate from each other and from the straight line obtained for in 3-9 year old fish ($R^2>0.98$) in the year-classes 1985, -86, -92, -93 and -94. The points in 1 year old fish deviate from the straight line obtained for 2-9 year old fish ($R^2>0.99$) in the year-class 1987. All ages fit a straight line in the 1988, -89, -90, -91 and -95 year-classes ($R^2>0.98$). Representatives of the different groups of year-classes marked in Figure 2C are given in Figure 2D-F.

Assuming that the deviations from the linear relationship are due to differences in environmental conditions that can be expressed by k , k was plotted by year-class for 1 year old, 2 year old and 3-9 year old herring, respectively, from 1985 to 1995 (Figure 3). K was lower in the one and two year old herring, compared to the 3-9 year olds, in the year-classes 1985-1987 and 1992-1994 and similar for all ages in the year-classes 1988-1991. The periods of high k in 1 and 2 year old fish coincided with high temperature in the Kola section, although there was no significant correlation between temperature and k .

Growth in capelin given as length by age is shown in Figure 4A. As in herring, the length increment decreases as the fish increase in age and size, however the number of points in the regression is limited by the life span of capelin, which is only 4-5 years, since almost all fish die after the first spawning. Average length increment by length in the year-classes from 1986 to 2001 is given in figure 4B and C, in 4B with a 2nd order polynomial fit ($R^2=0.9983$), in 5C with a linear fit ($R^2=0.9766$). In this case, the linear equation was preferred ($p=0.17$). Most of the year-classes of capelin had a similar pattern of length increment as the average (data not shown).

Growth in Northeast Arctic cod of different year-classes, given as length by age, seems to fit a linear equation, not a sigmoid curve as in the other fish stocks (Figure 5A). Figure 5 B-D shows that length increment in this case is very variable and does not seem to follow either the 2nd order ($R^2=0.85-0.27$) or the linear relationship ($R^2=0.88-0.06$) on a regular basis. However, growth in North Sea cod given as length by age (Figure 6A), did follow a sigmoid curve and length increment by length (Figure 6B) showed a good fit to Eq. 1 ($R^2=0.98$). The 2nd order polynomial fit was rejected ($R^2=0.98$, $p=1.0$). Furthermore, length increment by length in cod kept in captivity at relatively constant conditions and fed a dry diet to satiation

163 showed a good fit to Eq. 1 (Fig 7C, $R^2=0.85$) and the linear function was preferred over the
 164 second order one ($p=0.32$).

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166 Growth in mice held at constant conditions in the laboratory, registered as mouth to anus
 167 length by age, is presented in Figure 6A. The curve approaches a maximum length, as found
 168 in fish, and the fit to the 2nd order equation of length increment to length has an $R^2=0.92$,
 169 however, the fit to Eq. 1 ($R^2=0.87$) was preferred ($p=0.18$).

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Discussion

The questions asked in this study are: 1) Do fish grow according to an unchangeable natural law, independent of time? 2) Can such a law be described by Eq. 1? 3) Is this law also valid for other vertebrates?

Zebrafish is used as a model organism for mechanistic biological research and in this context it is kept under strictly controlled and constant conditions. The Zebrafish from which the present growth curve was extracted had been held at constant environmental conditions and fed *Artemia* only, according to a standard feeding regime, from 15 days post fertilization until the end of the experiment (Gomez-Requeni et al., 2010). This created a conventional sigmoid curve of weight by age, which seems to be common in all terrestrial vertebrates (Dumas et al. 2010). According to Dumas et al. (2010) and references therein, there is doubt that fish approach a maximum weight, since growth continues after sexual maturation.

However, the Zebrafish trial also gave a sigmoid growth curve for length by age. In order to omit time from the equation, length increment was plotted as a function of length. This plot had an almost perfect fit to a second order equation, showing that length increment increased in small fish, approaching a maximum, and decreased gradually in larger fish, reaching zero at a maximal length (L_{max}). We propose that the second order equation of length increment vs length describes the general law of fish growth. Length increment leads to accumulation of biomass and energy. Therefore, the model implies that energy in the food is used most efficiently for biomass accumulation in relatively small fish, with decreasing efficiency as the fish approach L_{max} . The lower growth in larvae and very young juveniles, may be caused by the energy needed to develop organ systems and the immature digestive system, which may prevent optimal utilization of the feed (Rønnestad et al. 2013). The linear model given in Eq. 1

is a simple version of the second half of the 2nd order growth function and it fits the data for Zebrafish past maximum length increment well, even though it is not statistically preferred over the 2nd order equation. Eq. 1 is easy to understand, it can readily be adapted in simulation models and it includes the variable k , which describes changes in the environment and food availability. Furthermore, the assessment of fish stocks most often only includes fish that are larger than the point where maximal length increment occurs, again favoring the use of Eq. 1.

Eq. 1 also fits the length increment by length data for the year-classes of fish, one year old or more, of capelin, North Sea cod and farmed cod. The data from Norwegian Spring Spawning herring of 3-9 years are very well described by Eq. 1, but in some of the year-classes, one and two year old fish grow slower than the prediction of Eq. 1 for 3-9 year old fish. The deviation from the straight line is larger than what would be predicted by the 2nd order polynomial fit, as it extends a minimum of 1 confidence interval. Therefore we have interpreted it as a difference in environmental conditions, e.g. a difference in k . There was no significant mathematical correlation between temperature and k . However, a high k in one and two year old fish coincided with high temperature in the Kola section, which is used as an indication of the general Barents Sea temperature (Ottersen et al. 1998). The young herring grow up in the Barents Sea and move to the warmer Norwegian Sea when they are 20-22cm, usually about three years old (Holst et al. 2004).

Length increment by length over individual year-classes in cod from the Barents Sea does not fit well to Eq. 1. This may be caused by low and varying food availability, since the Northeast Arctic cod stock is large and may therefore encounter food shortage (Jørgensen 1992). On the other hand, North Sea cod is heavily overfished and should have ample amounts of food (Cook et al. 1997). Furthermore, older and larger Northeast Arctic cod have a tendency to

distribute further to the west, where they encounter gradually increasing temperatures (Michalsen et al. 1998). The lack of fit of individual year-classes of Northeast Arctic cod to a common version of Eq. 1, may therefore be explained by increase in k from one year to the next over the whole life span. Unfortunately, the data from Northeast Arctic cod cannot be used to determine L_{max} , so that k cannot be defined per year.

The farmed cod were held under semi-controlled conditions, in net pens with ambient sea-water temperature and natural light, but were fed the same diet for one generation. The measurements were taken in summer and winter and the relatively large variation is related to the seasonal variation in temperature and light. When only winter measurements were included, e.g. the length increment from one winter to the next was monitored, there was a perfect fit of the data to Eq. 1 ($R^2=1.00$). Eq. 1 also fits well to data from North Sea cod.

In Eq. 1, L_{max} and k are individual characteristics determined by how the fish have adapted to the environmental conditions. L_{max} is different from L_{∞} in von Bertalanffy's growth function; it is a fixed value, not an asymptote, it has a variance and it is not connected to time. L_{max} is assumed to be genetically determined, and may change in response to long term changes in the environment and harvesting strategies, as described for North West Arctic cod by Borrell (2013). It differs between species, between the stocks within a species and between the individuals within a stock. Clearly, there are a considerable number of variables that determine the value of k , and the parameterization will demand expertise within oceanography and in biological fields such as genetics and nutrition.

Eq. 1 calculates length increment, while yield in biomass is the economically important variable. It has been shown that specific growth rate (SGR) in % of body weight per day has a

linear relationship to fish weight on a log-log scale (Björnsson & Steinarsson 2002; Braaten 1984; Brett & Shelbourn 1975; Jobling 1983), which is an alternative formulation of the natural law of animal growth to Eq. 1. One reason for using length in our model is that both length of individual fish and number of fish can be measured directly using acoustic trawl surveys. The length increment data can then be converted to yield in weight and biomass using Fulton's condition factor (Fulton 1904). Furthermore, weight can vary greatly due to varying food supply and varying gonad size in relation to sexual maturation, while length is a more stable and positive measure.

According to Eq. 1, harvesting of fish which are at the point of maximum size increment is energetically most efficient. In the case of herring, fish of 10 cm length grow at a rate which is four times higher than fish of 30 cm length (Figure 2B). Feed conversion efficiency generally increases with higher growth rates in fish (Kolstad et al. 2004), so utilization of the energy from plankton would be optimized by harvesting relatively small fish. The slaughter of farm animals prior to sexual maturation is a common practice in meat and fish farming which also takes advantage of the high growth rates in young animals. Selective fisheries on large fish may therefore defeat its own end, and prevent a maximum utilization of the marine resources. A similar perspective is presented by Borrell (2013). Ecological principles may also be explained as optimizing the efficiency of energy utilization. An example is the seabirds along the Norwegian coast, which mainly feed on 0-group fish (Dragesund et al. 2008). This represents an efficient utilization of zooplankton biomass and energy.

Conclusion

The data presented here indicate that there is a natural law for length increment in fish, based on achieved length, which can be described by a second order polynomial. Eq. 1 is a simplification of this law that can be used when the fish are past the point of maximal length increment. Length increment by length in laboratory mice held at controlled and constant conditions (Sagazio et al. 2007) also gave a good fit to Eq. 1, indicating that the law of length increment can be generalized to vertebrates other than fish. A consequence of Eq. 1 is that the efficiency of energy conversion from food decreases as the individual animal approaches L_{max} . Length increment represents yield in biomass and energy and is the way living organisms store energy from the sun. Eq. 1 enables us to quantify these processes.

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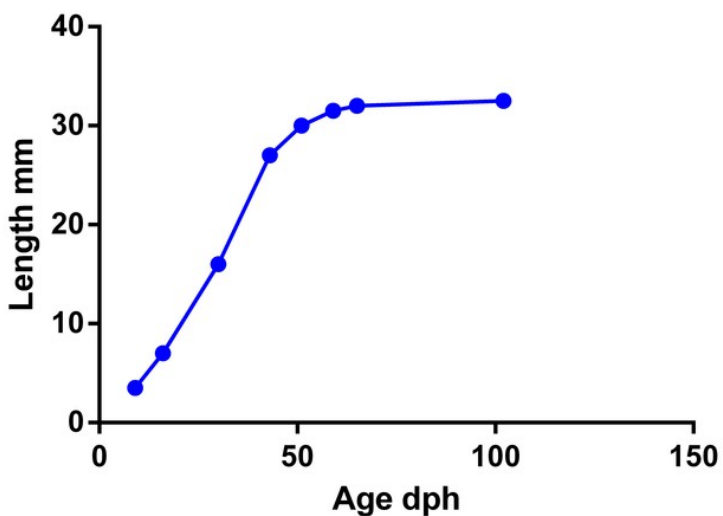
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Figure 1

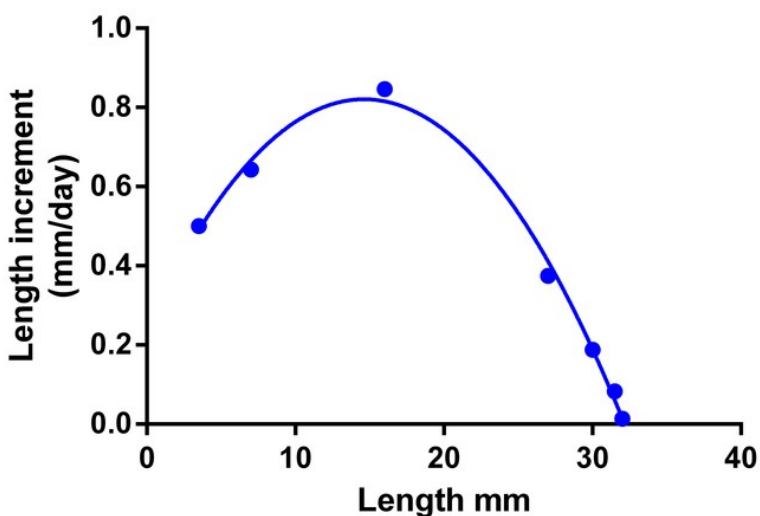
Growth in Zebrafish kept under constant conditions and fed *Artemia* to satiation through one generation

A. Growth in length by age (Extracted from Gomez et al., 2012). B. Length increment by length for all data-points with a second order polynomial fit. C. Points past the exponential growth phase fitted to a linear equation.

Lengthwise growth by age



Length increment by length



Length increment after exponential phase

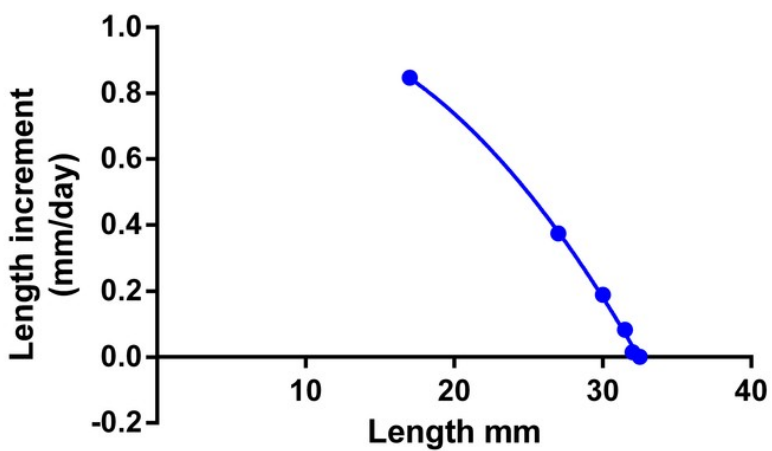


Figure 2

Growth in the year-classes 1985-1995 of Norwegian spring spawning herring

A. Growth in length with age. B. and C. Average and individual year-class length increment by length in all year-classes from 1985 until 1995. D-F. Representatives of the groups marked in C with linear fits (see text for explanation).

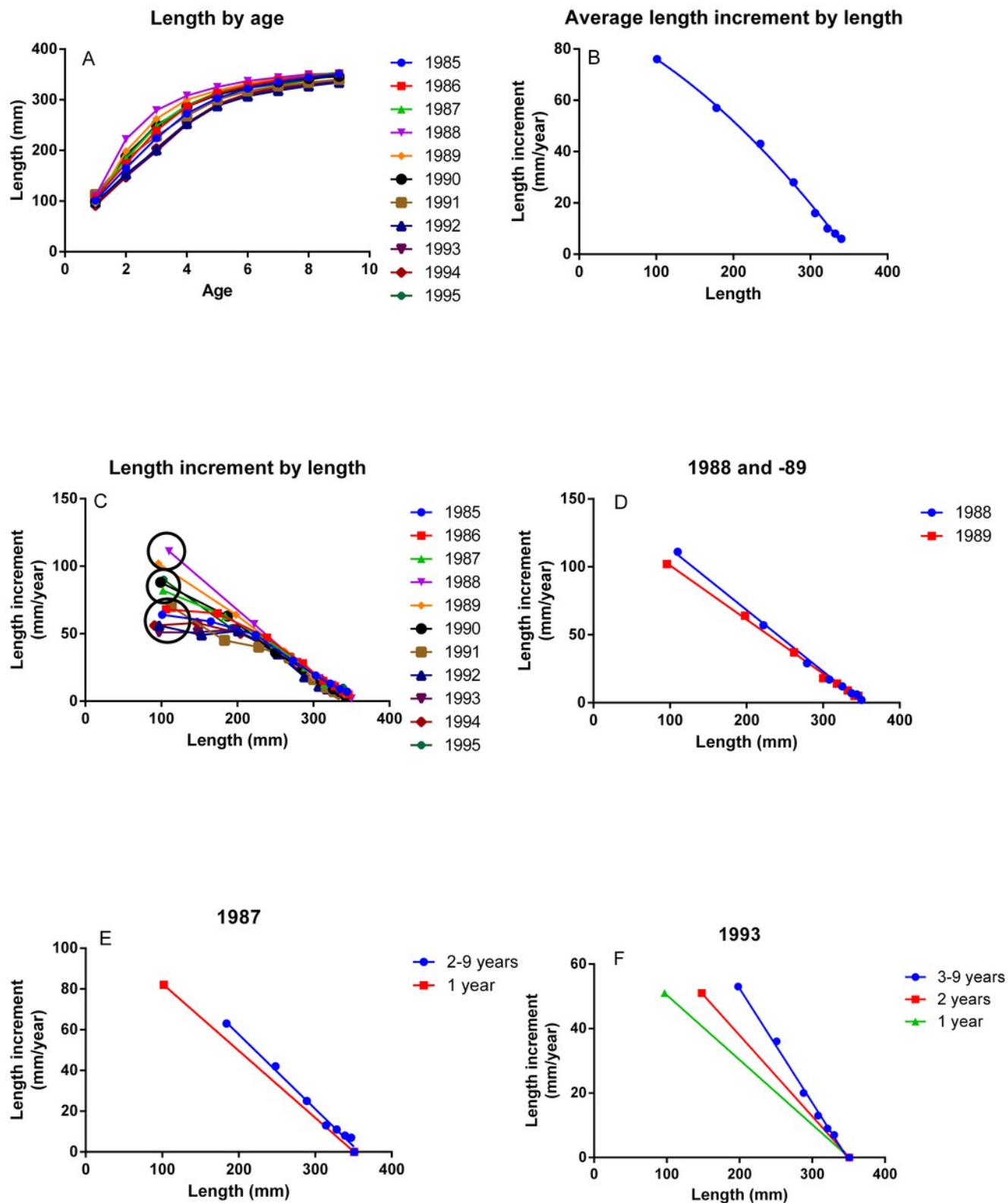


Figure 3

K in herring of different ages in the year-classes 1985-1995 and temperature in the Kola section when the fish were one year of age

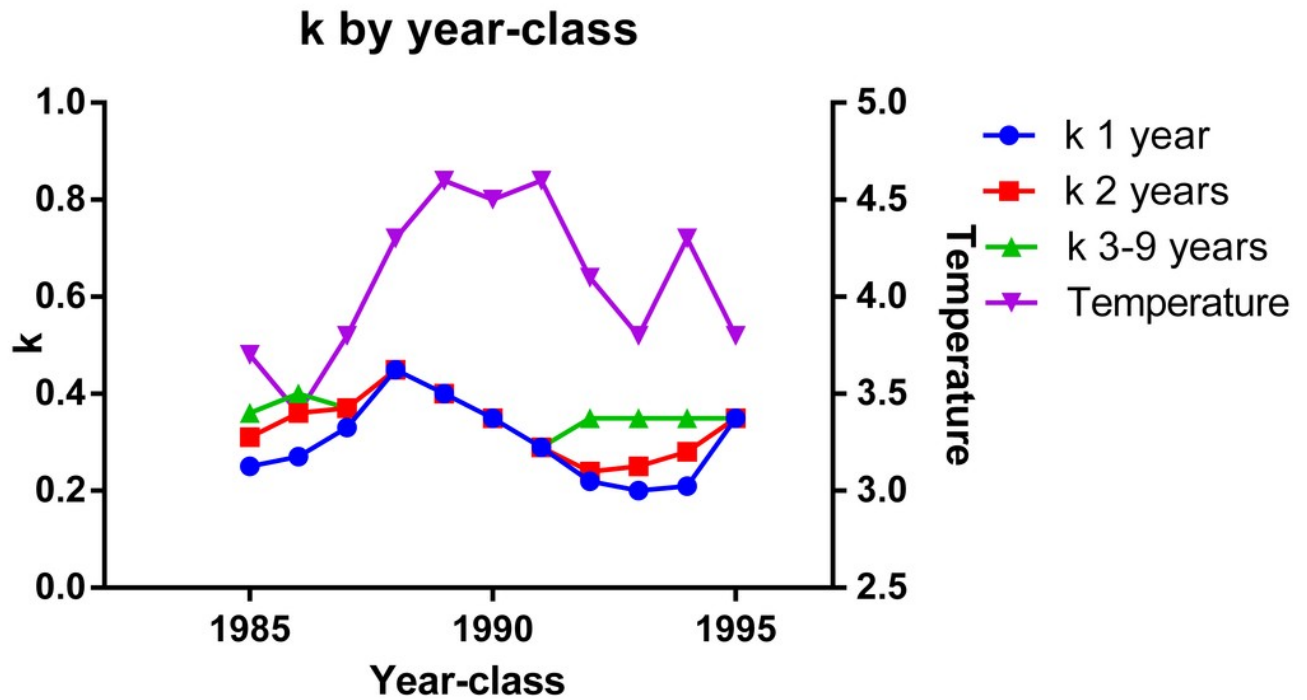


Figure 4

Growth in capelin

A. Growth as length by age. B. Second order exponential fit and C. linear fit of length increment by length, average for all year-classes from 1986 until 2001.

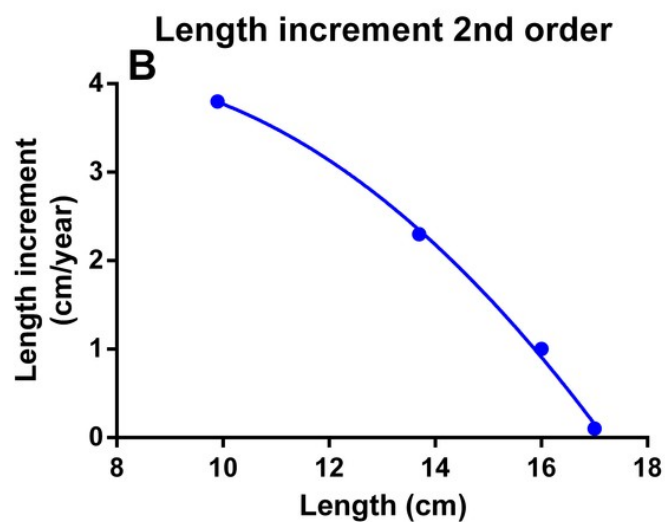
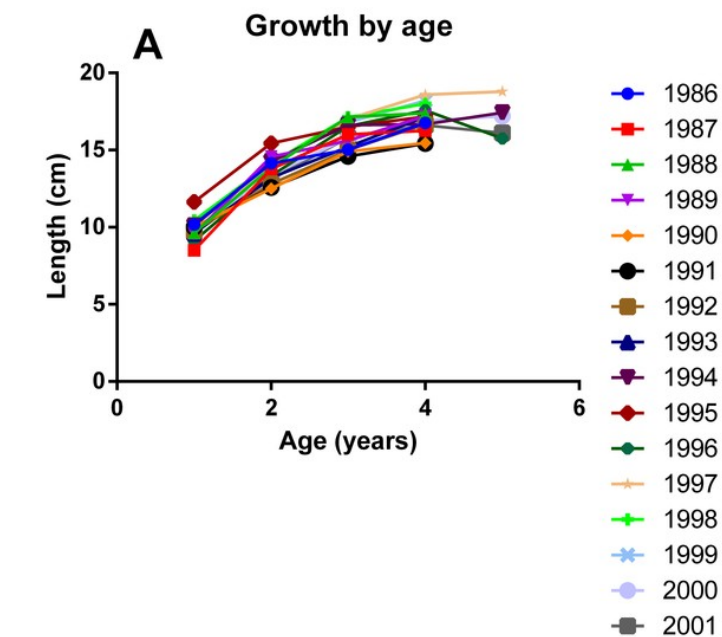


Figure 5

Growth in Northeast Arctic cod

A. Growth as length by age. B-D. Examples of length increment by length in different year-classes.

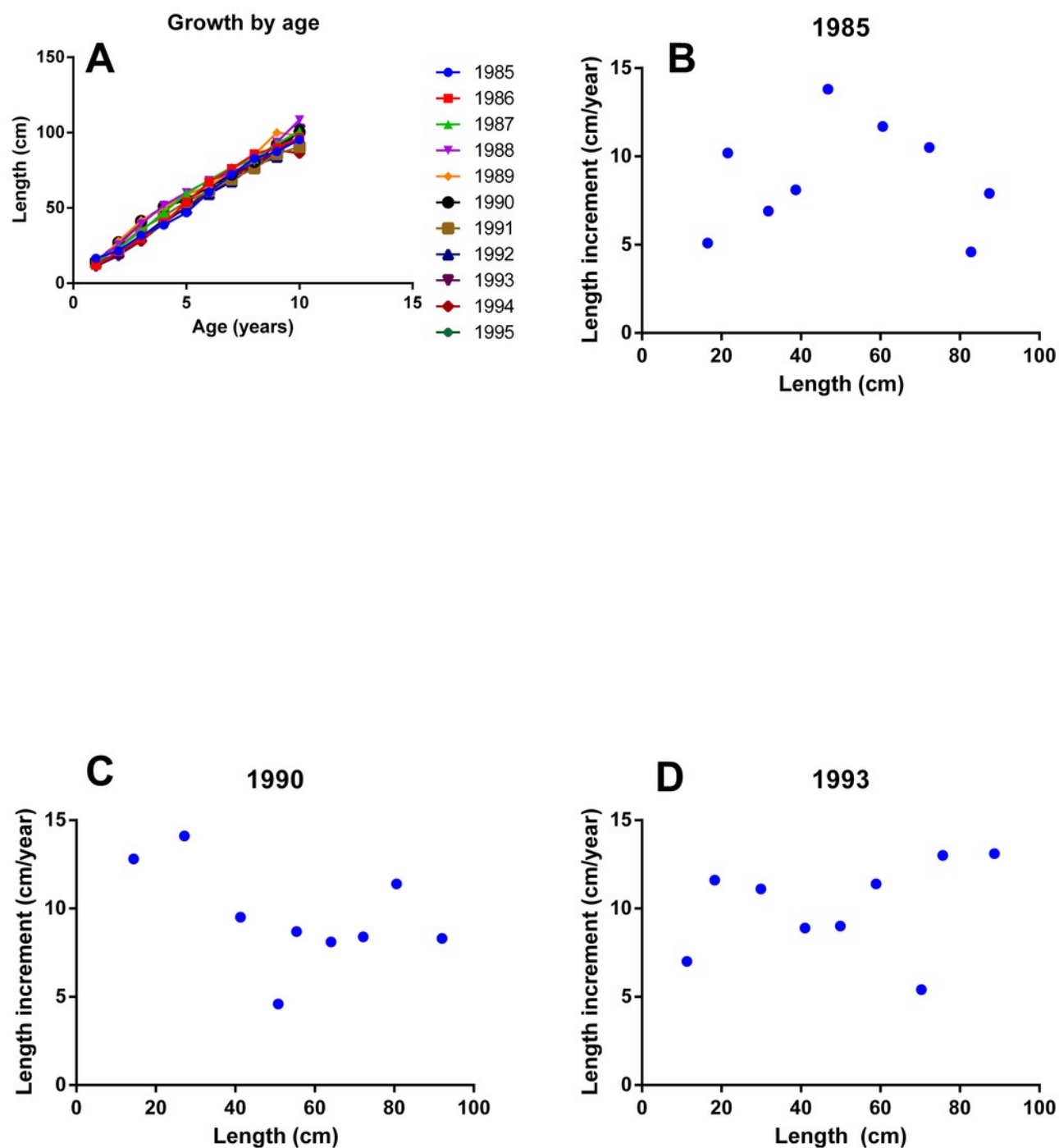
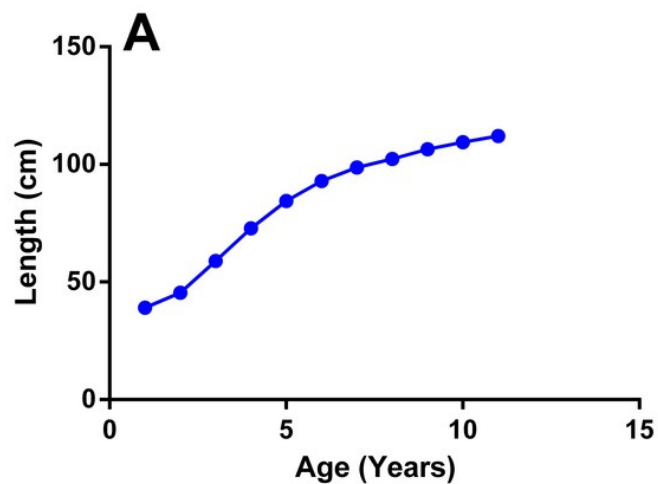


Figure 6

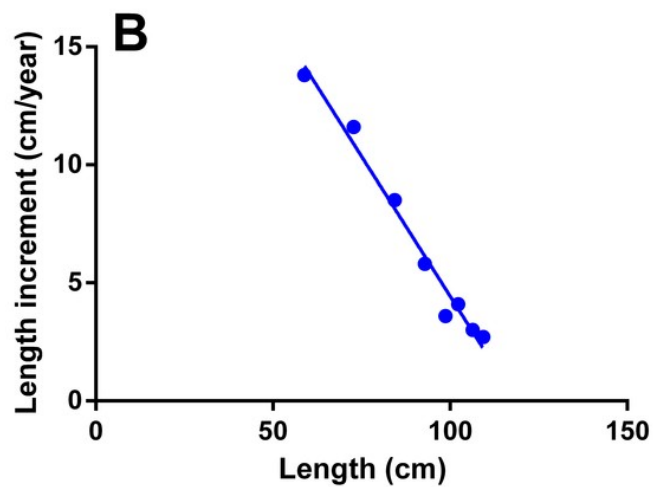
Growth in North Sea cod

A. Growth as length by age. B. Length increment by length with a linear fit and C. Farmed cod, Length increment by length.

North Sea cod



North Sea cod



Captive cod

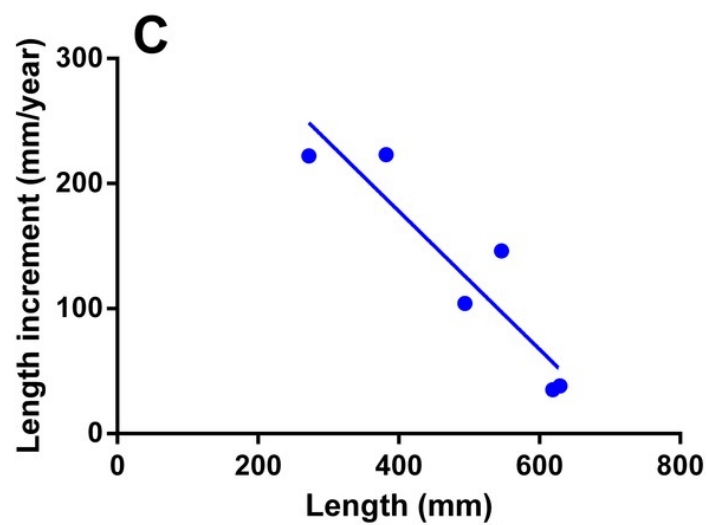


Figure 7

Growth in Laboratory mice

A. Growth as length by age. B. Length increment by length with a linear fit.

