

1 **Growth rate extremes of a Sciaenid in an ocean-warming hotspot**

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3 Charmaine E. Jagger ^{a, b, 1}, Warren M. Potts ^{c, d, 2}, Brett A. Pringle ^{c, e, 3}, M. Hadi Bordbar ^{f, 4},
4 Romina Henriques ^{g, 5}, Niall J. McKeown ^{h, 6}, Margit R. Wilhelm ^{b, 7, *}

5
6 ^a Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources, National Marine Information and Research
7 Centre, Swakopmund, Namibia.

8 ^b University of Namibia, School of Agriculture and Fisheries Sciences, Department of Fisheries
9 and Ocean Sciences, Henties Bay, Namibia.

10 ^c Rhodes University, Department of Ichthyology and Fisheries Science, Makhanda, South
11 Africa.

12 ^d South Africa Institute for Aquatic Biodiversity, Makhanda, South Africa

13 ^e Advance Africa Management Services, Johannesburg, South Africa

14 ^f Leibniz Institute for Baltic Sea Research Warnemünde (IOW), Rostock, Germany

15 ^g Marine Genomics Group, Department of Biochemistry, Genetics and Microbiology,
16 University of Pretoria, South Africa

17 ^h Department of Life Sciences, Aberystwyth University, Aberystwyth, UK

18
19 * Corresponding author. Tel.: +264 64 502647, Email address: mwilhelm@unam.na

20
21 ¹0009-0009-9501-5363

22 ²0000-0002-6707-0383

23 ³0000-0002-0073-013X

24 ⁴0000-0003-3852-3889

25 ⁵0000-0002-6544-5532

26 ⁶0000-0002-7351-5553

27 ⁷0000-0001-9271-2109

28

29 **Abstract**

30

31 *Argyrosomus inodorus* is a cool water Sciaenid, important to the recreational and commercial
32 coastal fishery in Namibia, the northern Benguela. Given recent findings on the northern
33 Benguela as an ocean-warming hotspot and *A. inodorus* being more sensitive to warm
34 temperatures than its congeneric *A. coronus*, it is important to study long-term growth
35 responses of this Sciaenid. We developed a 34-year otolith biochronology for *A. inodorus*. The
36 linear mixed-effects models fitted to *A. inodorus*' otolith biochronology indicated that the best
37 linear unbiased predictor of growth was significantly positively correlated with mean sea
38 surface temperatures (SSTs) in September of the year of formation and significantly negatively
39 correlated with mean summer SSTs (November y-1), in the central Namibian area (20-24°S, 12-
40 14°E). Thus, faster annual growth was observed during warmer winter/spring temperatures (up
41 to 16 °C) and slower growth was noted during warmer summer temperatures (> 16 °C). These
42 results indicate that the species has a narrow range of thermal plasticity, and highlight the
43 recent reductions in growth of this species in response to rapid thermal change observed in the
44 ocean warming hotspot. Our findings suggest that *A. inodorus* would not be able to adapt
45 readily with future climate warming predicted to happen and already happening along the
46 northernmost part of the Namibian coast.

47

48 **Keywords**

49 *Argyrosomus*, Benguela, biochronology, Otoliths, Ocean warming, Tolerance range

50

51 **Highlights**

52

- 53 • We described the relationship between SSTs and annual growth of *Argyrosomus inodorus*
54 using otolith biochronologies
- 55 • *A. inodorus* grew faster in years with high winter SSTs (up to 16 °C) but slower in years
56 with high summer SSTs (>16 °C)
- 57 • *A. inodorus* has a narrow temperature tolerance and is likely to react negatively to
58 predicted ocean warming over time

59

60 **1. Introduction**

61

62 Human-induced climate change has been placing immense pressure on exploited fish stocks
63 (Fincham et al., 2013) with increasing ocean temperatures being one of the main concerns for
64 marine species (e.g., Sims et al., 2004; Pankhurst and Munday, 2011; Potts et al., 2014a, b;
65 Latif et al., 2016; Smoliński and Mirny, 2017; Denechaud et al., 2020). Average global ocean
66 temperature is predicted to increase by about 3.0 °C by the year 2100 (Hoegh-Guldberg and
67 Bruno, 2010), and will drive sea level rise (0.5–1.2 m by 2100), enhance ocean stratification,
68 decrease the extent of sea-ice, and alter the patterns of ocean circulation, precipitation, and
69 freshwater flux into the ocean (e.g., Doney et al., 2012; Bordbar et al., 2015; Smoliński and
70 Mirny, 2017; Denechaud et al., 2020).

71

72 Evaluating and understanding how fish populations adapt and respond to climate change is
73 critical for adaptive management plans. Broadly, fish populations are thought to respond to
74 climate changes by altering their abundance (e.g., Lloyd et al., 2012), spatial distributions (e.g.,
75 Campana et al., 2020), demography (e.g., Otero and Hidalgo, 2023), physiology (Duncan et al.,
76 2019), behaviour (Guzzo et al., 2017) and phenology (Fincham et al., 2013). Changes in the
77 growth of fish species is a critical factor that will influence their demography (Ohlberger et al., 2022).
78 Therefore, managing future fish populations will require an understanding of the factors that
79 influence growth rates. However, the factors that determine somatic growth can often be
80 difficult to detect due to multiplicity of possible natural stressors, anthropological activities,
81 such as exploitation (e.g., Lorenzen and Enberg, 2002; Enberg et al., 2012) as well as the
82 varying responses of organisms at individual, population, species, and group levels
83 (Morrongiello and Thresher, 2015).

84

85 Despite the difficulties of detecting the drivers, the dendrochronology approach is useful to
86 understand environmental drivers of spatio-temporal variations in the growth of fishes,
87 particularly because it is possible to examine variation in population growth (Morrongiello and
88 Thresher, 2015). Here, the increments in the hard parts of marine organisms can provide long-
89 term chronologies of growth, which is analogous to tree rings (e.g., Dean, 1997; Black et al.,
90 2005; Gillanders et al., 2012). In fishes, the dendrochronology technique measures the width

91 between annulus rings of fish otoliths and uses this measurement as a proxy for somatic
92 growth. This approach delivers long-term data on a fish' response to environmental or biotic
93 factors because annual otolith growth can reflect the condition of a fish' physical environment
94 during its growth period and thus otolith chronologies can be used to examine the relationship
95 between temperature or other environmental or biotic drivers and fish growth (e.g., Matta et al.,
96 2010; Neuheimer et al., 2011; Morrongiello et al., 2012; Gillanders et al., 2012; Black et al.,
97 2013; Tanner et al., 2019; Wilhelm et al., 2020; Brinkman et al., 2025a).

98

99 Namibia's marine waters are among one of the richest in the world, in part, driven by the
100 nutrient-rich Benguela Current, which is an eastern boundary upwelling system (EBUS) along
101 the south eastern Atlantic Ocean bordering Angola, Namibia, and South Africa. The upwelling
102 across this region is primarily wind-driven and characterised by several distinct upwelling cells.
103 The Benguela upwelling system is divided into two distinct regions by the Lüderitz Upwelling
104 Cell; namely the northern Benguela upwelling system (nBUS) and southern Benguela
105 upwelling system (sBUS) (Shannon 1985; Duncombe Rae, 2005; Hutchings et al., 2009;
106 Brandt et al., 2024). Marine ecosystems across EBUSs are believed to be vulnerable to climate
107 change (Lima et al., 2019; Brandt et al., 2024). This has been demonstrated over the past
108 decades in the northern Benguela, where the rapid ocean warming (0.8 °C per decade) and
109 increased thermal variability, driven by the periodic intrusion of the warm Angola Current
110 waters at the Angola-Benguela Frontal Zone (ABFZ) ocean current convergence, has been
111 recognised as a global marine hotspot (Hobday and Pecl, 2014; Yemane et al., 2014; Potts et
112 al., 2014a; Brandt et al., 2024). The warming sea surface is believed to be caused by an
113 increasing strengthening of the Angola Current and weakening of the Benguela Current and in
114 doing so, affect the seasonality and displacing the ABFZ southwards (Potts et al., 2014a;
115 Koseki et al., 2018, 2019). This warming trend and subsequent shift in the position of the
116 ABFZ has an influence on the distribution (Potts et al., 2014a), reproduction (e.g., Sims et al.,
117 2004; Pankhurst and Munday, 2011; Potts et al., 2014b) and productivity of several species.
118 While the northern boundary of the northern Benguela, the ABFZ, is warming rapidly, the
119 Lüderitz Upwelling Cell, the southern boundary of the northern Benguela, is strengthening and
120 cooling (Lamont et al., 2019). It is therefore likely that the convergence zone between the
121 northern Benguela and the Lüderitz Upwelling Cell may be a thermal refuge for some species.

122

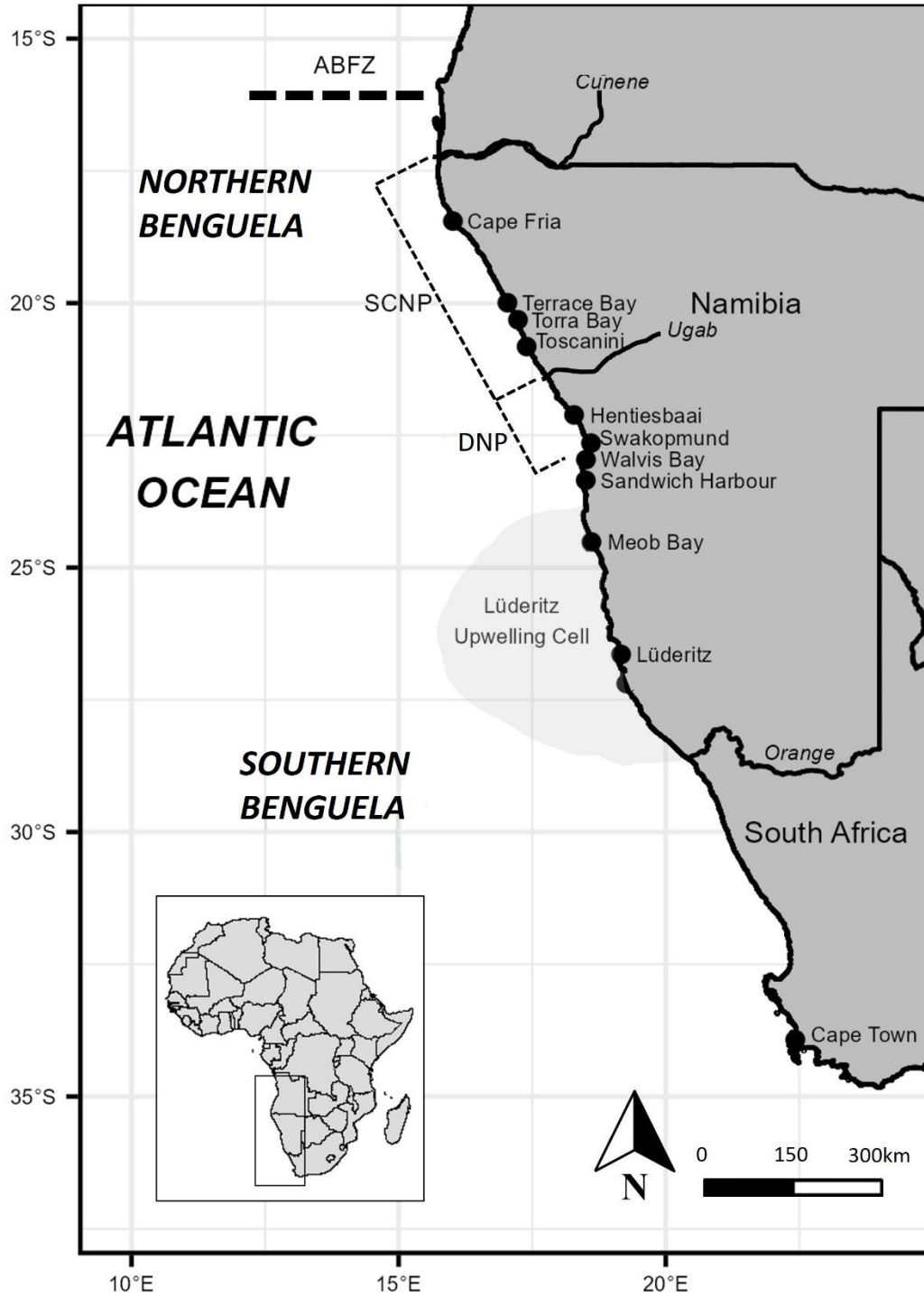
123 The linefishery (fishery where fishes are captured using hook and line) in Namibia, comprised
124 of commercial, recreational and subsistence subsectors, is of great economic importance, but
125 also essential for livelihoods (Kirchner et al., 2000; Stage and Kirchner, 2005; Khan, 2023;
126 Gusha et al., 2024; Engelhard et al., 2024). The dominant recreational and commercial linefish
127 species in the northern Benguela is the silver kob *Argyrosomus inodorus* (Sciaenidae), and to a
128 lesser extent, its congener, the west coast dusky kob *A. coronus* (Griffiths and Heemstra, 1995;
129 Kirchner, 1998; Potts et al., 2010). *Argyrosomus* spp. in Namibian waters have been exploited
130 for many decades, with the first land-based records recorded in 1964 (Kirchner, 1998; Kirchner
131 et al., 2001a), and records from the “Sea Around Us” database
132 (<https://www.searoundus.org/data/>) show catches were made as far back as 1950 (Heymans
133 and Sumaila, 2007).

134

135 *A. inodorus* has a size and age at maturity of 35–36 cm and 1.5–1.6 years, for females and
136 males respectively (Kirchner et al., 2001b), with females thus appearing to grow slightly faster
137 than males (Kirchner and Voges, 1999). *A. inodorus* is a cool-water species with a Namibian
138 distribution ranging from 18°S to 26° S occurring in the surf zone at depths less than 20 m due
139 to the anoxic conditions in Namibia at depths greater than 20 m. In contrast, the warmer water
140 species, *A. coronus*, is found from 0.8°S to 23°S in central Namibia (Potts et al., 2010, 2014a;
141 Beckenstein et al., 2016; Henriques et al., 2018). However, there is evidence to suggest that
142 the southward part of the distribution has only been occupied recently, possibly due to a climate
143 driven distributional shift (Griffiths and Heemstra, 1995; van der Bank and Kirchner, 1997;
144 Kirchner, 1998, 2001; Kirchner and Beyer, 1999; Kirchner and Holtzhausen, 2001a). *A.*
145 *inodorus* undergo annual spawning migrations from the SCNP (17°14’S to 21°11’S) area
146 southwards to Sandwich Harbor (23°46’S) and Meob Bay (24°31’S) (Fig. 1) during austral
147 summer (October–April). This migration is thought to be triggered by a change in temperature
148 (Kirchner and Holtzhausen, 2001b). In winter, the adult stock is believed to move northwards
149 again to feeding grounds in the Skeleton Coast National Park (SCNP). The increasing overlap
150 between the adult stock of *A. inodorus* and the poleward shifting *A. coronus* due to the steadily
151 warming waters and southward shift of the ABFZ has resulted in species mixing and appears to
152 have resulted in hybridization between the species (F1 and backcrosses) (Potts et al., 2014a;

153 Henriques et al., 2018). In a recent metabolic physiology study, Pringle et al. (2023) suggested
154 that the two species and their hybrids have different responses to warm temperatures, with *A.*
155 *inodorus* found to be less tolerant to the warming conditions when compared to *A. coronus* and
156 their hybrids (Pringle et al., 2023).

157



158

159 **Figure 1.** Map of the Namibian coast with Meob Bay, the Dorob National Park (DNP), and
160 Skeleton Coast National Park (SCNP) indicated.

161

162 Given the rapid climate warming, and the seemingly reduced tolerance to warmer conditions,
163 the aim of this study was to better understand the relationship between temperature and the
164 growth of silver kob, *A. inodorus*, in order to understand their likely growth response to
165 environmental change in the rapidly warming northern Benguela region. To do this, we viewed
166 otolith biochronologies and then compared growth rate patterns with environmental conditions,
167 including sea surface temperatures (SSTs), upwelling indices and a catch-per-unit effort time
168 series.

169

170 **2. Materials and methods**

171

172 The care and use of animals complied with Namibian animal welfare laws, guidelines and
173 policies as approved by National Commission for Research Science and Technology (NCRST),
174 Namibia authorisation number: 20190204; University of Namibia Decentralised Ethics
175 Committee (Reference number: SNC0002 of University of Namibia, 2021) and the Rhodes
176 University Animal Research Ethics Committee (RU-AREC), reference number: 2019-0174-
177 271.

178

179 **2.1. Study area and sample sizes**

180

181 This study was conducted in the northern Benguela region, from the SCNP (17°14'S to
182 21°11'S) in northern Namibia to the Dorob National Park in central Namibia (21°11'S,
183 13°38'E to 23°19'S, 14°29'E) and then in Meob Bay (24°31'S) (Fig. 1). A total of 236
184 individuals of *A. inodorus* were randomly and opportunistically collected from fish catches of
185 recreational and commercial fishers between September 2018 and August 2019. In addition, 89
186 archived otoliths were prepared for an otolith biochronology (Table 1). No fish were collected
187 from the southern region (Meob Bay, see Fig. 1) during the contemporary period because of
188 sampling permit restrictions. Thus, the contemporary samples only represented the central and
189 northern regions as defined by Kirchner and Voges (1999) and were categorised as such (Table
190 1).

191

192 For each fish, the species (as per external features), the total fish length (TL, to the nearest cm),
 193 the sex (when possible), and the approximate catch location was recorded. Otoliths were
 194 removed and stored dry in labelled envelopes after they were cleaned of any residual material.
 195 Most of the otoliths were collected during the austral summer months, from November to April
 196 (Table 1), the period of the highest catches in the fishery (Kirchner, 1998) (Table 1). *A.*
 197 *inodorus* ranged in size from 33.5 to 99.9 cm TL and from 34.2 to 91.0 cm TL (historical and
 198 contemporary, respectively) with only 60 of the 236 contemporary samples being juveniles
 199 (Table 1).

200

201 **Table 1.** Number of *Argyrosomus inodorus* (determined after genetic and otolith shape
 202 analysis) used for final analysis per month during the historical (1994-1996) and contemporary
 203 (September 2018 – August 2019) periods in the different sampling regions, northern and
 204 central, 17-23°S (N&C), and southern, 24-25°S (S) Namibia. For the contemporary period, also
 205 indicated is the sample size of mature (adults), and fish are immature fish (juveniles)

Year	Month	1994-1996		2018-2019	
		N&C	S	Adults	Juveniles
2018	Sep	0	0	1	0
2018	Oct	12	0	9	1
2018	Nov	19	1	25	2
2018	Dec	12	0	6	0
2019	Jan	2	1	21	0
2019	Feb	8	8	25	12
2019	Mar	3	3	32	19
2019	Apr	3	9	38	10
2019	May	4	2	10	8
2019	Jun	0	0	6	0
2019	Jul	0	2	3	7
2019	Aug	0	0	1	1
	Total	63	26	176	60

206 *Note: The historical samples were otoliths collected by MFMR during the 1994–1996 linefish
 207 data collection period. The mature fish were those either classified as gonad stages 2 + or above
 208 the length at 50 % maturity of 35 cm total length (Kirchner et al., 2001b).

209

210 **2.2. Species identification**

211

212 Species were identified either by molecular genotyping, using mitochondrial DNA and five
213 nuclear microsatellite loci (n = 202) (Jagger, 2024), or by otolith shape analysis using a test
214 sample of 217 fishes of known genotype (Wilhelm et al., 2025) when DNA material was not
215 available (n = 34). Only those individuals that were assigned as “pure” *A. inodorus* genotypes
216 were used for the present study.

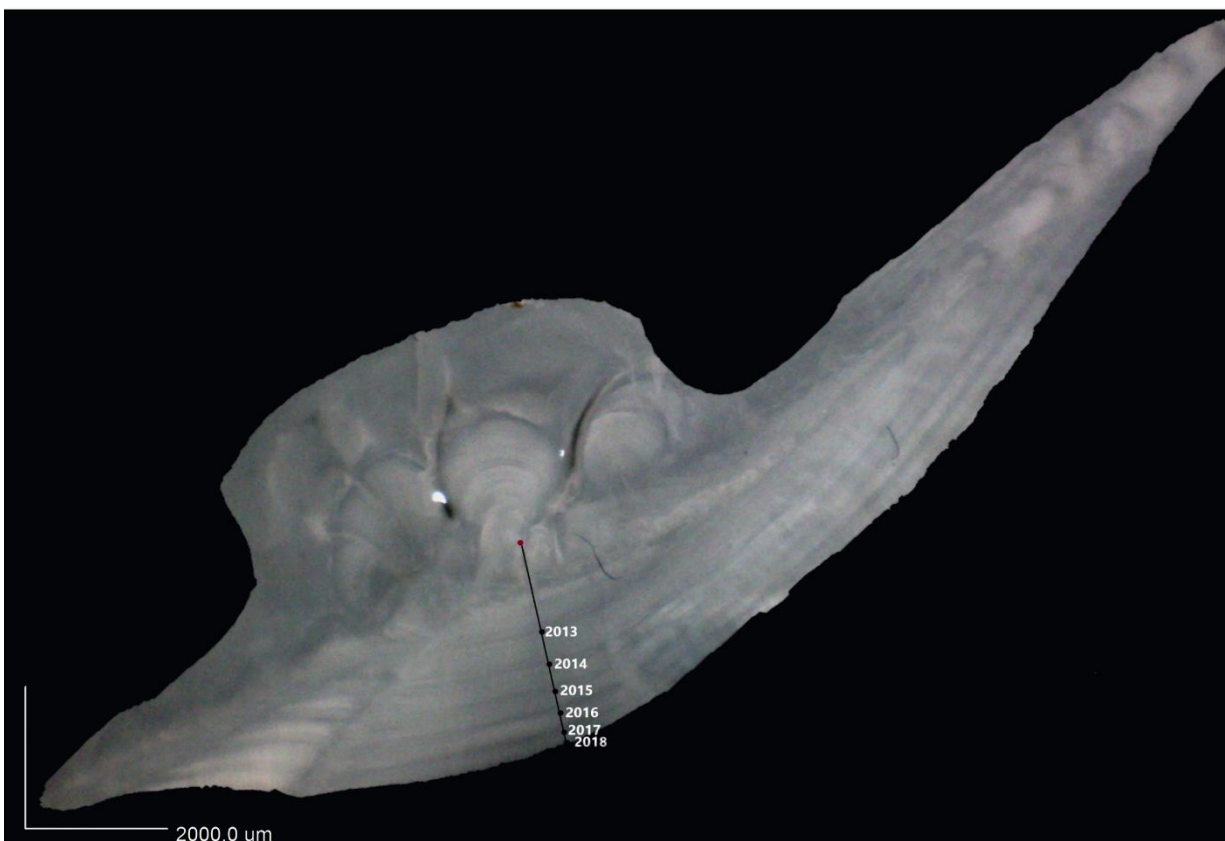
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218 **2.3. Otolith preparation and increment measurements**

219

220 The otoliths were embedded in clear casting polyester resin and longitudinally sectioned at
221 approximately 0.5 mm thick through the primordium (otolith core) with a low-speed double-
222 bladed, diamond-edged saw. Otoliths were sectioned longitudinally (see Fig. 2), instead of
223 laterally, using the method for *Argyrosomus* in southern Africa established by Kirchner and
224 Voges (1999), based on Griffiths (1996a); (1996b). The thin sections were mounted onto glass
225 slides with DPX mountant for microscopy and then photographed using reflected light against a
226 black background (Kirchner and Voges, 1999). Two camera-attached stereo microscopes, a
227 Zeiss Stemi DV4 microscope with an AxioCam ERc 5s at up to 160 x magnification or an
228 Olympus SZ61 microscope with an Olympus SC30 camera were used to photograph the
229 otoliths at up to 200 x magnification. Two different microscopes and cameras were used due to
230 their availability at different times during Covid-19 lockdown restrictions.

231



232

233 **Figure 2.** Thin section of an otolith of a 5-year-old *Argyrosomus inodorus* caught in central
234 Namibia in 2019. Annual growth increments and their calendar years assigned are indicated.
235

236

237

238 Sectioned otoliths comprised of broad opaque zones and narrow translucent zones and showed
239 clear, visible growth rings (Fig. 2). Otolith increments were measured manually using the
240 Image processing package ImageJ version 1.53a (<http://imagej.nih.gov/ij/>) (Abràmoff et al.,
241 2004) with the ObjectJ version 1.05e (<https://sils.fnwi.uva.nl/bcb/objectj/index.html>) plug-in. A
242 similar method to Wilhelm et al. (2020) for increment measurements was used, and each
243 increment was defined as the distance from the end of the translucent zone (beginning of the
244 opaque zone) to the end of the next translucent zone so that each annual increment contained an
245 opaque and a translucent zone. Each complete growth increment was measured from the
246 nucleus to the dorsal edge perpendicular to the annual growth zone along the medial section of
247 the otolith (Fig. 2). Each individual fish was assigned a final age-at-capture (AAC) (number of
248 complete growth increments) and Cohort (Year of birth of the fish = Year of Capture – AAC)
after the increments were marked and measured. Otolith increment width measurements in mm

249 (Inc) were assigned an age and calendar year at the time of increment formation (Year)
250 (Morrongiello and Thresher, 2015).

251

252 **2.4. Environmental data**

253

254 Mean monthly SSTs were extracted from the NOAA National Centre for Environmental
255 System (NCEP) database

256 [http://iridl.ldeo.columbia.edu/SOURCES/.NOAA/.NCEP/.EMC/.CMB/.GLOBAL/.Reyn_Smit](http://iridl.ldeo.columbia.edu/SOURCES/.NOAA/.NCEP/.EMC/.CMB/.GLOBAL/.Reyn_SmithOIv2/.monthly/.sst/)
257 [hOIv2/.monthly/.sst/](http://iridl.ldeo.columbia.edu/SOURCES/.NOAA/.NCEP/.EMC/.CMB/.GLOBAL/.Reyn_SmithOIv2/.monthly/.sst/) (Reynolds et al., 2002). Monthly averages from January 1982 to

258 December 2018 were calculated for two areas: Northern (17–20°S, 10–12°E) and Central (20–

259 24°S, 12–14°E) Namibia. Additionally, we used surface wind field data from the European

260 Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) ERA5 product from 1979 to 2021 to

261 estimate the wind-driven upwelling indices, including upwelling associated with alongshore

262 wind stress near the coast and the divergence of Ekman transport offshore. The former is

263 limited to a narrow coastal strip of a few tens of kilometres, whereas the latter covers a few

264 hundred kilometres offshore and is shown to be proportional to the local wind stress curl

265 (Bordbar et al., 2021, 2023). Both upwelling indices were derived from the cross-shore integral

266 of upwelling from the coast to the offshore distance where the long-term mean of the wind

267 stress curl becomes zero.

268

269 The monthly time series of several climate variability indices, including the Antarctic

270 Oscillation Index (AAO), the Southern Oscillation Index (SOI), and the multivariate El Niño

271 index (MEI), were also used in this study. These indices were obtained from

272 <https://climexp.knmi.nl/start.cgi> for January 1982 to December 2018. The Southern Oscillation

273 is an important climatic index which measures air pressure (sea level pressure) difference

274 across the Pacific Ocean from the south-east in Tahiti to the west in Darwin, Australia (Power

275 and Kociuba, 2011).

276

277 A mean annual catch-per-unit-effort (CPUE) time series for *A. inodorus* was used as indicator

278 of overall stock size in central Namibia, collected by the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine

279 Resources, Namibia, roving creel surveys, based on Kirchner and Beyer (1999), available from
280 October 1995 to September 2017 (M.R. Wilhelm, unpublished data).

281

282 **2.4. Data analysis**

283

284 In order to verify the “annual” increment (what time period constitutes a year of growth), edge
285 analysis was performed. The proportion of otoliths with a translucent zone on the edge was
286 plotted against month, separated by juvenile (immature) and adult (mature) fish identified as
287 mature either by their gonadal stage (stage 2 +) or by their size when gonadal stage was not
288 available, above the length at 50 % maturity (35 cm total) length being considered mature
289 (Kirchner et al., 2001b), see Table 1. Proportions of translucent zones against month were
290 visually inspected for an annual peak for age verification.

291

292 Prior to modelling, otolith increment width in mm (Inc), Age (at increment formation) and
293 Age-at-capture (AAC) were log-transformed to satisfy normality assumptions and all
294 continuous variables were mean centred (Morrongiello and Thresher, 2015). Increment width
295 (Inc), the response variable, was related to potential intrinsic (ontogenetic or individual-
296 specific) and extrinsic (environmental or intra- or interspecific interactions) sources of variation
297 for *A. inodorus* annual growth rates in a linear mixed effects model (Morrongiello and
298 Thresher, 2015). Intrinsic factors included Age, AAC, Sex (either male or female or unsexed),
299 allowing for the interaction between Age and Sex, and FishID (each specific fish had a unique
300 identification). The Age, AAC, Sex and Area (North-Central or South) variables were treated as
301 fixed effects. The extrinsic effects were Cohort, Area and Year (of increment formation). The
302 effects of Year, Cohort and FishID were treated as random effects (allowing for intercepts and
303 slope $\log(\text{Age})$ or just intercept 1). The full model is shown in Eq. 1.

304

$$305 \log(\text{Inc}) \sim \log(\text{Age}) * \text{Sex} + \log(\text{AAC}) + \text{Area} + \log(\text{Age}) | \text{FishID} + \log(\text{Age}) | \text{Year} + \\ 306 \log(\text{Age}) | \text{Cohort} \quad (1).$$

307

308 A method modified from Morrongiello and Thresher (2015) was used to test for the best
309 possible combination of the explanatory variables, testing all possible combinations of fixed

310 effects and random effects, and intercept or slope for random effects (Morrongiello and
311 Thresher, 2015). This modelling approach considers the hierarchical structure of the
312 biochronological data (repeated measurements of otolith annual increments from one
313 individual, year, or cohort) and allows for robust assessment of different sources of variation
314 (Morrongiello and Thresher, 2015). The lowest Akaike's Information Criterion corrected for
315 small sample sizes (AICc) was used to select the most parsimonious model (all combinations of
316 Eq. 1) – fitted with maximum likelihood (Akaike, 1973; Burnham and Anderson, 2002;
317 Johnson and Omland, 2004; Zuur et al., 2009). A change in AICc of > 2 was considered
318 significant. The optimal selected model was refitted with restricted maximum likelihood
319 (REML) to produce unbiased parameter estimates (Zuur et al., 2009), using the random effects
320 of year to produce the best linear unbiased predictor of annual otolith growth (BLUP) 1981–
321 1995, 2000–2018), n = 1532 growth increments, groups FishID = 326, Years = 34.

322

323 To examine the protentional effects of extrinsic environmental parameters on fish growth, a
324 series of models were tested including SST, coastal upwelling, and the kob CPUE index. Due
325 to the restriction of the length of the CPUE time series, this was done in two steps, first only
326 including environmental indices (SST, upwelling, AAO, SOI), n = 1529 growth increments,
327 groups: FishID = 326, Years = 32, 1983–1995, 2000–2018; and second including the CPUE
328 index (available 1996–2017) in addition to the environmental indices, n = 846 growth
329 increments, groups: FishID = 247, matching environmental data with 17 years (2000–2017).

330

331 Initial exploratory correlation analyses showed that austral summer (October to March) and
332 winter (July to September) monthly SSTs were strongly correlated within seasons, but not
333 between seasons, i.e. a cold summer did not necessarily mean a following cold winter (Figure
334 S1). SSTs from the central area were also strongly correlated with SSTs from the northern area
335 in the same month (Figure S2). MEI was strongly correlated with SOI, but not AAO, and SOI
336 and AAO were not correlated (Figure S3), while the SSTs as well as the Walvis Bay upwelling
337 index were positively correlated with both the AAO and the SOI in both summer (Figure S4)
338 and winter (Figure S5). The August Walvis Bay coastal upwelling index was negatively
339 correlated with the central September SST (Figure S6), and the January Walvis Bay upwelling
340 index was correlated with the central November and December SST (two months, and one

341 month prior, respectively) (Figure S7). The Walvis Bay upwelling index was correlated with
342 the Cape Columbine and Kunene upwelling index in both winter (Figure S8) and summer
343 months (Figure S9). Thus, for testing potential effects of the environment on *A. inodorus*
344 growth, only SST from central Namibia was used, and collinear indices were only used
345 separately. When including environmental parameters, the random effect of year was removed
346 to reduce the complexity of the models for the sample size (singular fit). It was also assumed
347 that the effect of the year was included with the annual environmental or biological parameters.
348 CPUE was log-transformed before being used as a co-variate.

349

350 All analyses were performed in R Version 4.3.0 (R Core Team, 2023) and RStudio version
351 2023.3.1.446 (Posit team, 2023), with libraries “lme4” (Bates et al., 2015), “AICcmodavg”
352 (Mazerolle, 2023), “effects” (Fox and Weisberg, 2019), “GGally” (Schloerke et al., 2023),
353 “latticeExtra” (Sarkar, 2008; Sarkar and Andrews, 2022), and “tidyverse” (Wickham et al.,
354 2019; Wickham, 2023).

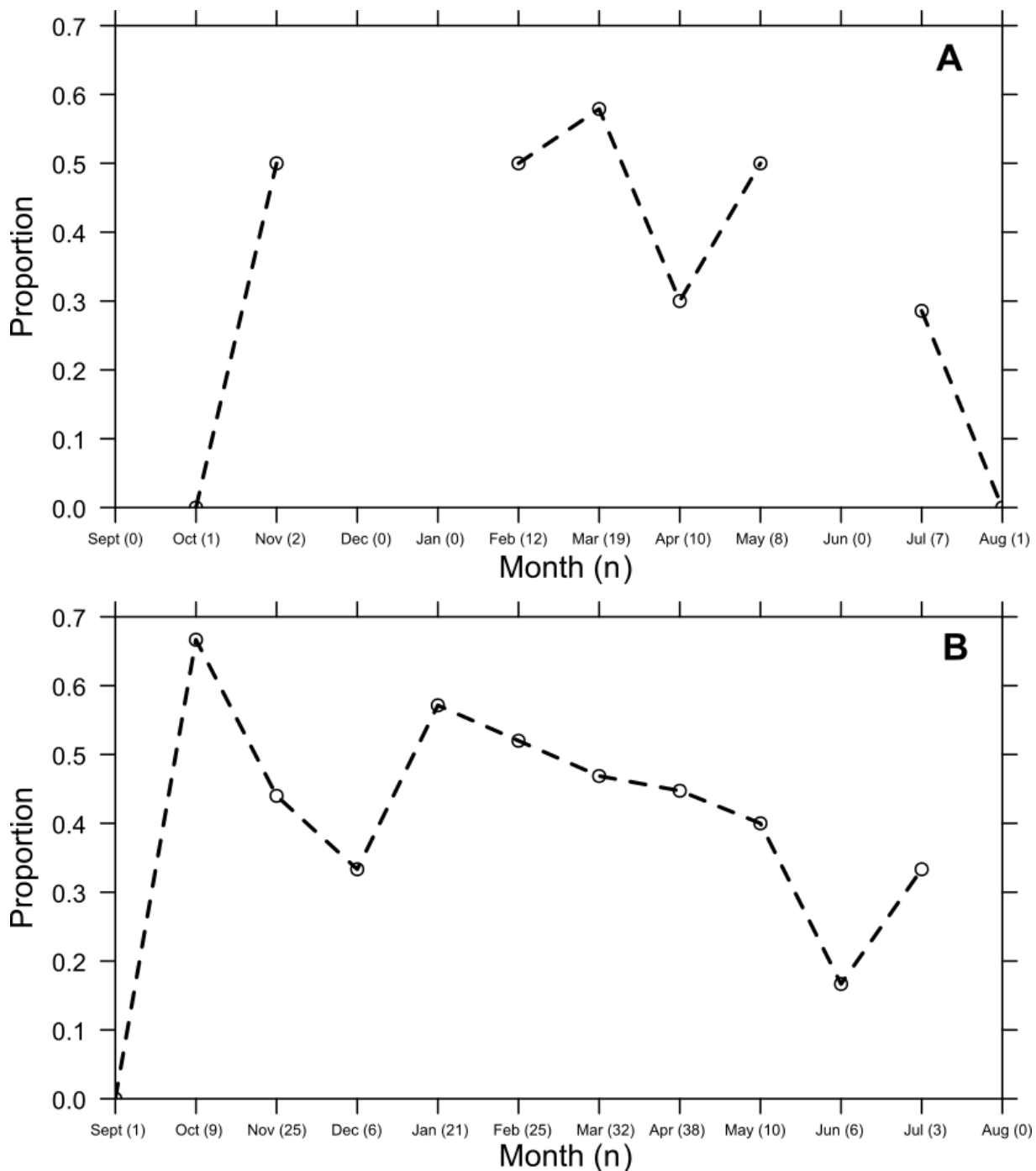
355

356 **3. Results**

357

358 Although few samples were available in August and September, it appeared that overall, an
359 increase of proportion of translucent zones of mature fish was observed during austral spring
360 and summer (October–March), with a peak in October, and the lowest proportion of translucent
361 zones, i.e. highest proportion of opaque zones, formed in austral winter (Fig. 3).

362



363

364 **Figure 3.** Proportion of translucent zone edges found on otoliths of A. immature and B. mature
 365 *Argyrosomus inodorus* and caught in the northern and central regions of Namibia from
 366 September 2018 to August 2019 against month. The numbers in parentheses indicate the
 367 number of otoliths sampled per month.

368

369 Based on a total of 1532 increments measured on 326 individual historical and contemporary
370 *A. inodorus* otoliths (Figure S10), the most parsimonious base model was chosen (Table S1),
371 including only significant variables (Table S2), for *A. inodorus*:

372

$$373 \text{Log}(Inc) \sim \text{log}(Age) + \text{log}(AAC) + \text{log}(Age)|FishID + 1|Year \quad (2),$$

374

375 where Inc = increment width measurement in mm, Age = age at time of increment formation,
376 AAC = age-at-capture, FishID = individual fish sample's unique identification, Year = calendar
377 year of increment formation, 1| denotes random effect intercept for Year and Age| denotes
378 slope and intercept for FishID (AICc = -126.94, Conditional R² = 0.682, Tables S1 and S2).
379 Overall, the best supported model explained 68.2 % of variation in the annual growth of *A.*
380 *inodorus*. Cohort and Area did not have a significant influence on the variation in growth
381 (otolith increment width). Age had the greatest influence on growth among the tested variables
382 (Table 2A, Fig. 4), but all fixed effects variables were highly significant (Table 2A).

383

384 **Table 2.** Optimal model parameter estimates and test statistics describing fixed and random
 385 sources of growth variation in *Argyrosomus inodorus* using restricted maximum likelihood
 386 (REML) caught along the Namibian coast during the historical (1994-1996) and contemporary
 387 (2018-2019) period without environmental parameters (A) and with environmental parameters
 388 (B).

389 **A. Excluding environmental parameters (1981-1995, 2000-2018), n = 1532 growth**
 390 **increments, groups: FishID = 326, Years = 34**

Fixed effects

Covariate	Estimate	SE	t-value	p-value
Intercept	-1.278	0.01594	-80.207	<0.0001
Log(Age)	-0.187	0.01607	-11.637	<0.0001
Log(AAC)	-0.340	0.03804	-8.939	<0.0001
Random effects				
Covariate	Variance component	SD	Correlation	
1 FishID (intercept)	0.0258	0.1607		
Log(Age) FishID (slope)	0.0172	0.1313	-0.15	
1 Year	0.0018	0.0422		
Residual	0.0344	0.1856		

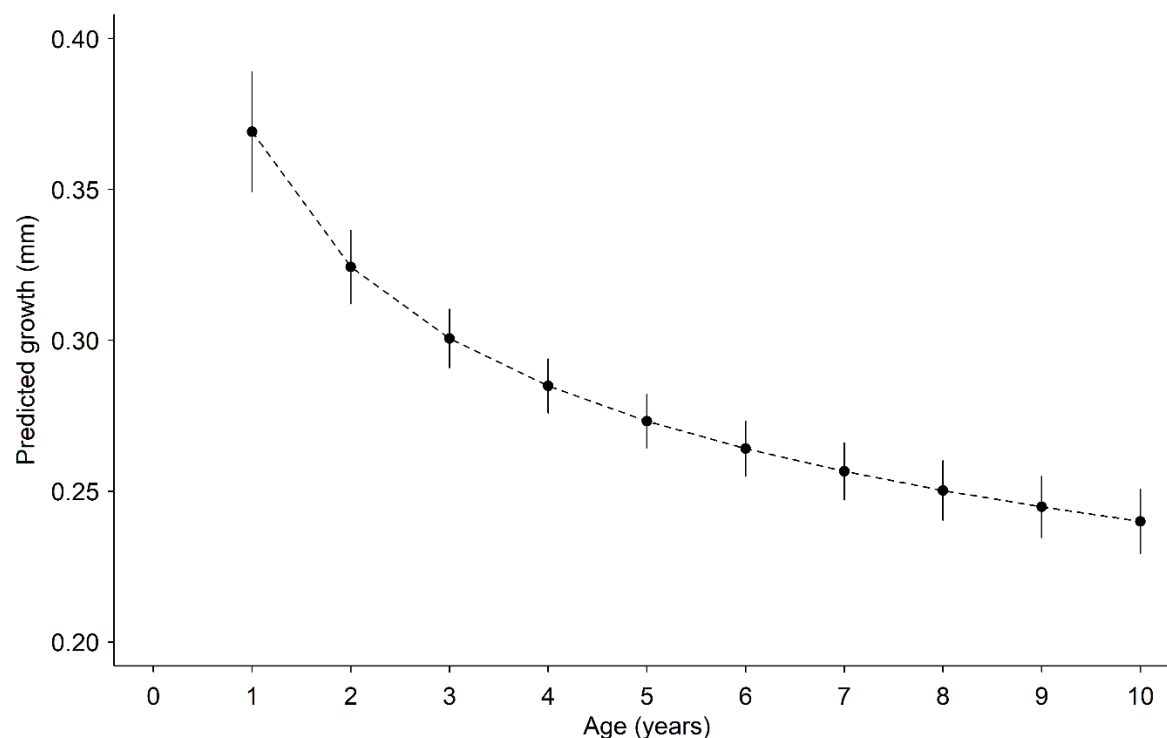
391

392 **B. Including environmental parameters (1983-1995, 2000-2018), n = 1529 growth**
 393 **increments, groups: FishID = 326**

Fixed effects

Covariate	Estimate	SE	t-value	p-value
Intercept	-1.3318	0.2988	-4.456	<0.0001
Log(Age)	-0.1923	0.0125	-15.420	<0.0001
Log(AAC)	-0.3352	0.0340	-9.874	<0.0001
SSTC9	0.0565	0.0126	4.498	<0.0001
SSTClag11	-0.0477	0.0123	-3.881	<0.001
Random effects				
Covariate	Variance component	SD	Correlation	
1 FishID (intercept)	0.0261	0.1614		
Log(Age) FishID (slope)	0.0180	0.1340	-0.16	
Residual	0.0344	0.1854		

394



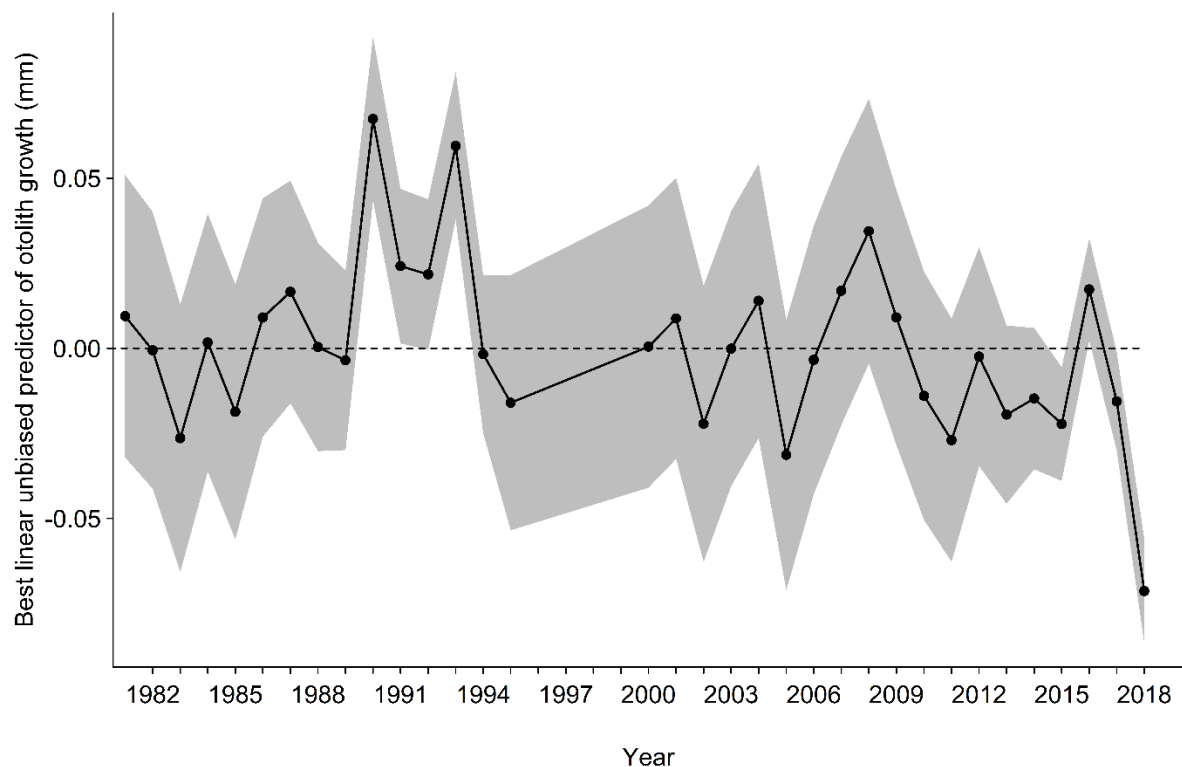
395

396 **Figure 4.** Predicted annual growth variation (mm) for *Argyrosomus inodorus* against age in
397 years estimated in the full mixed effects model back transformed to the original scale.

398

399 The *A. inodorus* growth time series extracted from the best linear unbiased predictor (BLUP)
400 (from the random effects intercept of Year) showed relatively low inter-annual variations of
401 growth over the period 1981–1995 and 2000–2018 (34 years), but with below average growth
402 for several years, in both historical and contemporary periods, most notably 2018; and above
403 average growth in 1991, 1993 and 2008 (Fig. 5). Linear regression analysis showed a
404 significant decline in otolith growth of 0.0007 mm per year ($t = -2.0375$, $df = 33$, $p = 0.0499$).

405

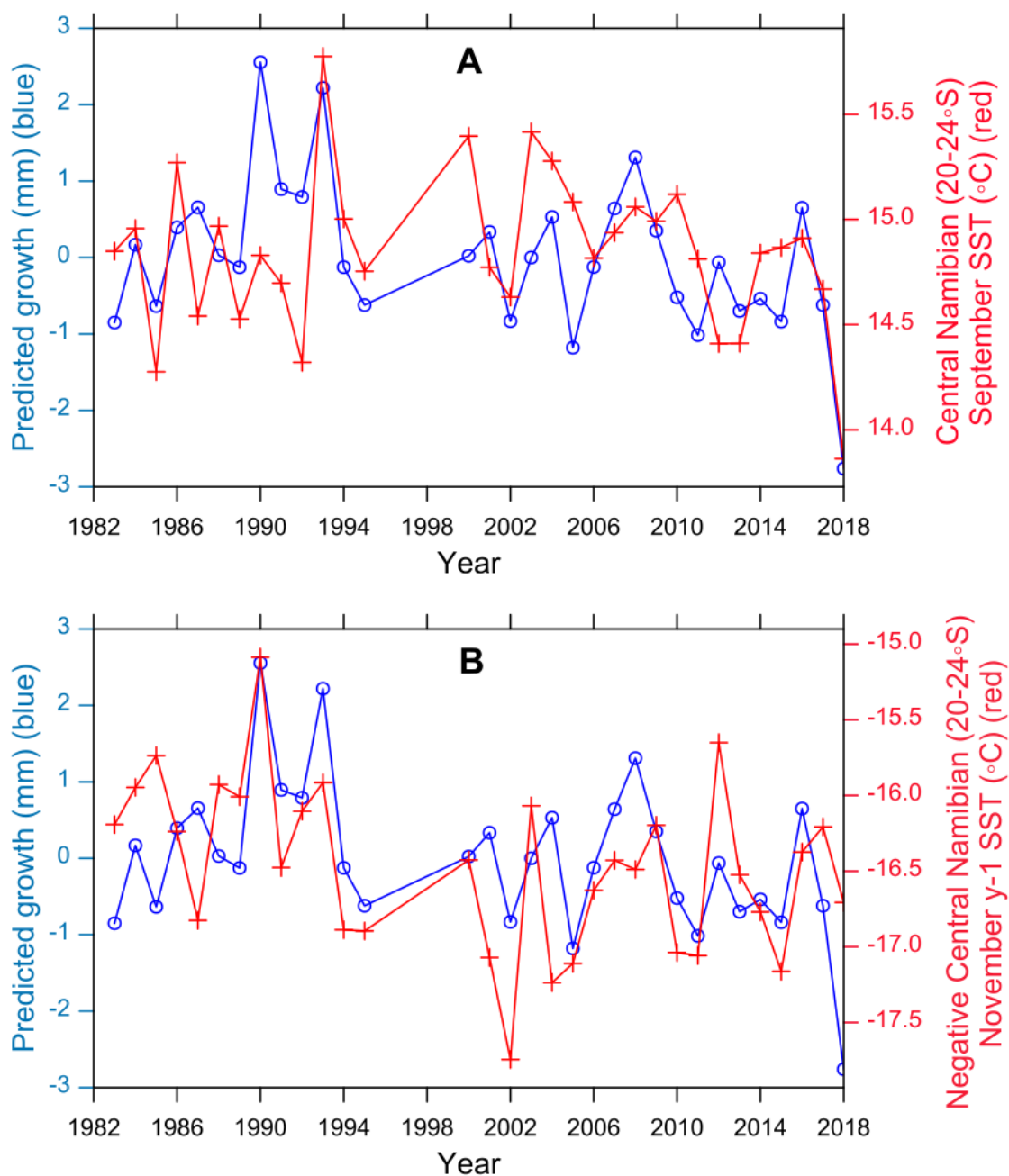


406

407 **Figure 5.** Best linear unbiased predictor of growth against year of *Argyrosomus inodorus*
 408 caught off Namibia estimated from the most parsimonious mixed effects model on otolith
 409 increments. The 95% confidence limits are indicated by the grey solid lines and the mean
 410 growth is indicated by the dashed grey line.

411

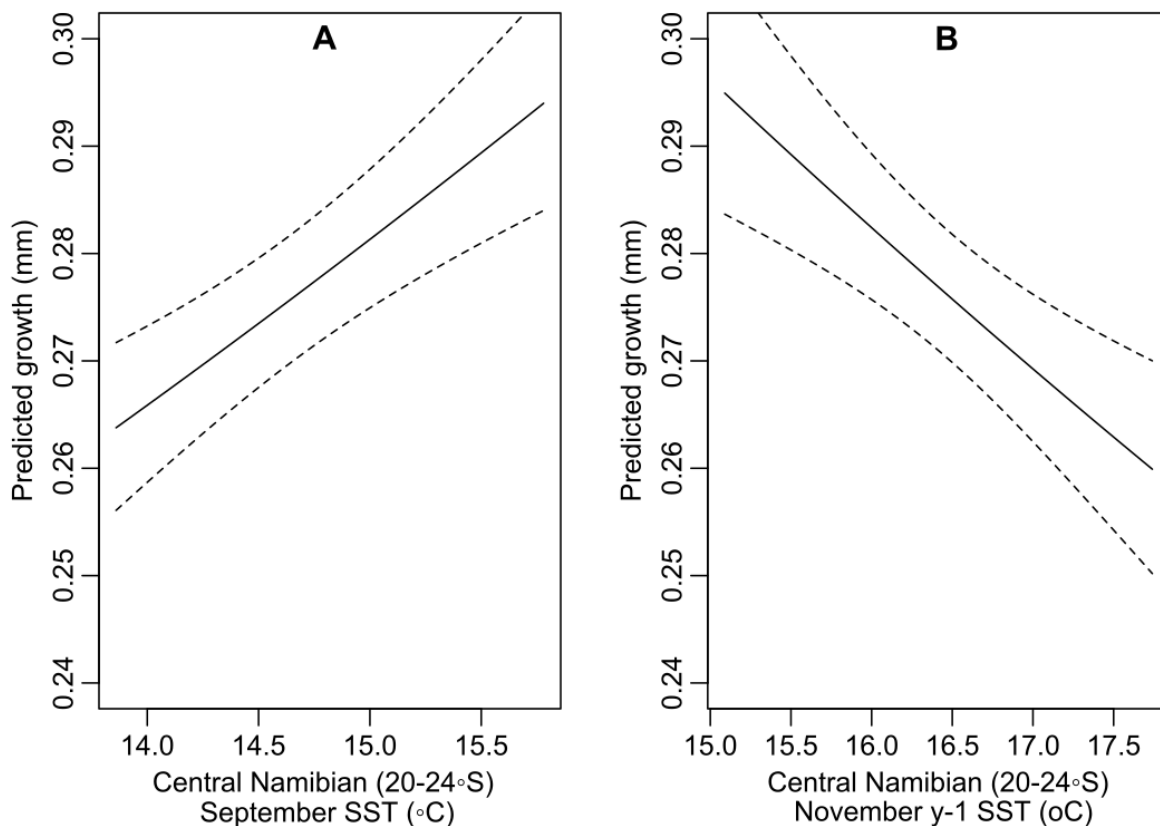
412 Inclusion of environmental parameters fitted to data from 1983 to 1995, and 2000 to 2018
 413 showed that including both central Namibian SST of September (current year) and November
 414 (previous year) significantly decreased the AICc (AICc = -144.4, Conditional $R^2 = 0.683$, Table
 415 S3), with all variables highly significant (Table 2B). Synchrony between the predicted growth
 416 from the base model, as well as September and previous November SSTs are shown in Fig. 6A
 417 and B, respectively, with the final growth model showing a positive response of *A. inodorus*
 418 growth with September SST and negative response of *A. inodorus* growth with the previous
 419 November SST (Table 2B, Fig. 7).



420

421 **Figure 6.** Best linear unbiased predictor (BLUP) of annual growth increments against year of
 422 growth for *Argyrosomus inodorus*, from Namibia, superimposed with (A) September (year of
 423 formation) SST and (B) lagged summer SST (November y-1) in the area 20–24°S, 12–14°E
 424 against year. In plot B, temperature is on a negative scale for visual effect.

425



426

427 **Figure 7.** Model estimated relationship of *Argyrosomus inodorus* predicted growth with winter
 428 / cold (September) (A) and summer / warm (November y-1) (B) sea surface temperatures (SST)
 429 in central Namibia (20–24°S, 12–14°E).

430

431

432 Including CPUE, as well as the environmental parameters in the growth model fitted to data
 433 from 2000–2017 (n = 846 growth increments, groups: FishID = 247) also showed that central
 434 Namibian SST of September and November (previous year) explained most of the variation of
 435 *A. inodorus* growth, and CPUE did not significantly reduce the model AICc (Table S4).

436

437 **4. Discussion**

438

439 The findings of this study showed that there has been a significant decline in the growth of *A.*
440 *inodorus* between the 1980s and the end of the 2010s. During this time, the predicted growth
441 for *A. inodorus* was significantly positively correlated with SSTs in September (coldest
442 temperatures) and negatively correlated with SSTs in summer (November previous year).

443 Based on these findings, it appears that the warming summer temperatures in recent years
444 (2010s) may have negatively influenced the growth of the species. In addition, our results
445 suggest that the growth of *A. inodorus* is related to the timing and movement of the Angola-
446 Benguela frontal zone (ABFZ). These findings are in support of previous studies that showed
447 temperature-dependent growth in marine fish (e.g., Pörtner et al., 2001; Matta et al., 2010;
448 Smoliński and Mirny, 2017; Duncan, 2018), but not only increasing growth with increasing
449 temperatures as for *A. japonicus* (Nicolle et al., 2022).

450

451 Marginal increment analysis suggested that growth increments of mature fish were formed in
452 austral spring (October). This coincides with the onset of the six months protracted spawning
453 season (October–March) for Namibia’s *A. inodorus* (Kirchner and Holtzhausen, 2001b). The
454 formation of a single opaque and translucent zone agrees with the findings from other
455 *Argyrosomus* spp. growth studies in the Benguela, for example *A. japonicus* (Griffiths, 1996a);
456 *A. inodorus* (Griffiths, 1996b; Kirchner and Voges, 1999) and *A. coronus* (Potts et al., 2010).
457 This indicated that the growth period for this present study, measured from the end of the
458 translucent zone to the end of the next translucent zone, was measured from October (previous
459 year) to September (present year), explaining the correlations of growth in the present year with
460 the previous year’s summer (November) temperatures.

461

462 *A. inodorus* individual growth rates were significantly negatively related to the Age-at-capture
463 (AAC) variable, indicating growth-rate-based selectivity of fishing occurring for this stock,
464 namely that faster-growing fish are generally caught at younger ages than are slower-growing
465 fish (Morrongiello and Thresher, 2015). This could mean a gradual fisheries-driven selection
466 for slower-growing fish, and could partially explain the significant decline in growth of *A.*
467 *inodorus* over the time period in the present study (1980–2019). However, since growth was

468 not significantly related to CPUE as a measure of stock density, the trend is more likely
469 explained by environmental changes over the time period.

470

471 Significant positive effect of cold temperatures (September) and negative effect of warm
472 temperatures (November previous year) and no significant effect of upwelling on growth were
473 identified in the present study. Given that the upwelling index and SST were correlated in lag
474 and differently for summer and winter, it is worth noting that wind-driven upwelling is not the
475 exclusive driver of SST. Other processes, such as lateral advection, radiation at the ocean
476 surface, and ocean mixing, can also change the near-surface ocean temperature (Brandt et al.,
477 2024), thus a strong indication that *A. inodorus* growth is directly linked with water
478 temperature (rather than indirectly through upwelling). When considered together, it appears
479 that the optimal growth temperatures for *A. inodorus* are narrow and likely range from only 15
480 to 16 °C, mostly observed throughout September. This finding supports a recent study by
481 Pringle et al. (2023) showing that the aerobic scope of *A. inodorus* was highest at temperatures
482 between 15 °C and 16 °C and sloped off after 18 °C, and suggesting that the aerobic scope of
483 the species would decline rapidly above 24 °C with additional future ocean warming. Also,
484 Dickens (2007) showed that the preferred temperature range of juvenile *A. inodorus* was 16.3–
485 17.6 °C for the first cohort and 16.9–18.1 °C for the second. These findings explain the pattern
486 seen in the present study, i.e. *A. inodorus* grew faster in warmer winters-springs (increasing
487 growth up to 16 °C) but slower in warmer summers (decreasing growth > 16 °C).

488

489 While fast growth coincided with a cold austral summer and warm austral winter, the recent
490 years (end of 2010s) indicated below average (significantly declined) growth for *A. inodorus*.
491 This slower growth, especially in recent years, could be linked to the recent rapid warming
492 observed in the northern boundary of the northern Benguela as well as to the weakening of
493 upwelling intensity in the same area (Lima et al., 2019; Brandt et al., 2024). The rapid
494 oceanographic changes predicted for the northern boundary of the northern Benguela will thus
495 likely have negative implications for the *Argyrosomus* spp. and their fisheries. For example, the
496 feeding grounds of *A. inodorus* in central and northern Namibia are predicted to become even
497 warmer, which could further cause *A. inodorus* annual growth to decline with increased
498 warming. This makes *A. inodorus* a potentially “sensitive” species (Izzo et al., 2016). It is

499 therefore important to understand climate-induced temperature effects on growth performance
500 (Pörtner et al., 2001) and it is critical that there is a continuous monitoring of the growth and
501 composition of *Argyrosomus* spp. off Namibia, in order to incorporate climate-induced changes
502 in fisheries management as well as to understand the consequences of rapid ocean warming on
503 coastal fish and fisheries.

504

505 The findings in this study are not unique to the region. While deep water hake *Merluccius*
506 *paradoxus* (Wilhelm et al., 2020) and sardine *Sardinops sagax* from the northern Benguela
507 (Brinkman et al., 2025b) only showed positive responses of annual somatic fish growth to cold
508 water temperatures and upwelling in winter and spring, sardine from the southern Benguela
509 also showed positive responses of fish growth to warm winter temperatures and negative
510 responses to warm summer temperatures (Brinkman et al., 2025a), similar to the growth
511 responses of *A. inodorus* in the present study.

512

513 In conclusion, as a first for a coastal fish stock in the northern Benguela, this study showed the
514 significant role of water temperatures on driving *A. inodorus*' annual growth through showing
515 how their mean annual growth is negatively affected by both cold (< 16 °C) and warm (> 16
516 °C) water temperatures. The results suggest that *A. inodorus* growth rates will likely continue
517 to decline with increased warming. A mechanistic understanding of this is therefore necessary
518 to understand when SSTs and other environmental parameters will no longer be suitable for the
519 growth and survival of *A. inodorus* in this ocean warming hotspot.

520

521 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

522

523 **Pringle, Brett A.:** Writing – review & editing, Data curation. **Potts, Warren M.:** Writing –
524 review & editing, Supervision, Resources, Funding acquisition. **Jagger, Charmaine E.:**
525 Writing – original draft, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Wilhelm, Margit**
526 **R.:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Formal
527 analysis, Conceptualization. **McKeown, Niall J.:** Writing – review & editing, Data curation.
528 **Henriques, Romina:** Writing – review & editing, Data curation. **Bordbar, Mohammed Hadi:**
529 Writing – review & editing, Data curation.

530

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532

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544

545 **Data availability**

546

547 Data will be made available on request.

548

549 **Appendix A Supporting information**

550

551 Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at
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553

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