

Emerging Dynamics of Global Warming: A Case Study of Marine Life

Amjad Atta⁷, Saba Hadayat Ali⁸

Abstract

This study is focusing on global warming on marine life and information about blue economy, how can impacts as game changing as well as global effects on environment. According to this analysis, the effects of climate change may be seen throughout the evolution of the marine environment, affecting both the inhabitants and their habitats. Marine creatures and fish immensely disturb by it and respond of productivity is facing alarming time. According to analysts, the marine economy can the prospective to boost assets of such a coastline state. Here, we discuss its effects and the numerous changes that are increasingly important for scholars and international organizations to promote why it's critical to reduce climate change's effects. Its production and the subsequent rise in biological productivity across all ecosystem levels are advantages of global warming. Aquaculture, the introduction of new species, governmental management of fisheries, and the avoidance of marine pollution are a few examples of human activity that tries to safeguard the environment and manage resources. This investigation of blue economy elaborates the ecosystem mismanagement and environmental activities are giving the tough time marine inhabitants as well as human beings. Marine species and environment will be could proved profitable at largely.

Key words: Ecosystem, marine life, global warming, species, Aquaculture

⁷ PSE Law College (Saggia Bypass Lahore), University of Management of Technology (UMT), Email: onlineincharge@gmail.com

⁸ Lecturer in School of Advance Business & Commerce (SABAC)

Introduction

The ocean's water mass has sustained climate stability and life's survival throughout the planet's geological history. Because it regulates the continental climate and maintains stable physical and chemical conditions for marine life, it is helpful for life support. The marine regions of continents are home to the most prolific terrestrial ecosystems, where air currents carry temperature and moisture from the ocean to these areas. The temperature and ecosystem on land may be dramatically impacted by even small changes in the physical state of the ocean. It seems logical that the majority of conversations about the present global warming trend are held from a "terrestrial" perspective. Land meteorology makes use of a comparable and extensive sequence of observations, in contrast to marine meteorology. (Krutskikh, 1991) More of the warming's different effects can be seen on land than in the ocean. All long-term economic predictions must account for climate trends and variability since they have a considerable influence on land-based industrial and agricultural activity. The "marine" strategy to tackling global warming differs in a number of ways. First, since the existing oceanographic meteorological and deep-water hydrological surveillance system is insufficient to make conclusive statements, further proof is needed to substantiate the assertion itself. As climatic irregularities there were more common in the past and caused more severe ecological sequences, it is particularly crucial for the Arctic Ocean. Second, compared to terrestrial ecosystems, marine ecosystems often have more intricate and specialized trophic structures and organic matter cycles. Marine species can therefore easily adapt to changing environmental conditions. Mass plankton species control the bulk of the ocean's biological production, but since they are the most vulnerable to environmental changes, humans are most interested in individuals from the upper tiers of marine

ecosystems (marketable fishes, sea mammals). Finally, the geological past is easier to comprehend and allows for more accurate rebuilding of earlier microclimates and ecologies than on the mainland because the physical and chemical conditions in the vast ocean expanses are consistent. Gunter Pauli coined the phrase "Blue Economy" and "The Blue Economy: 100 innovations, 100 million employment, and ten years" for the first time in 2010. (Matishoy, 1992) Pauli stressed the transformation of society from one based on scarcity to one based on abundance, utilizing all found in the world's oceans and seas. The concept of the "Blue Economy," which emphasizes the preservation of oceans and seas and efficient use of water resources for long-term growth and development, is currently quite popular. Owing to its "undiscovered marine. Pakistan has the capacity to aggressively focus on a few important sectors, including: ports and rail-road infrastructure, the fishing industry, maritime pollution, and the extraction of top-notch human resources by the international shipping industry. (Matishoy, 2000) In order to embrace the idea of sustainable socio-economic progress through the use of marine resources, Pakistan must rethink its "National Maritime Policy. This article will discuss the state of our understanding of marine ecosystems and how they relate to changes in the climate globally. In light of the changing climatic background, other anthropogenic influences that have an effect on the biological resources and marine ecosystems' present and future health, such as aquaculture, marine pollution, and fishing, must also be taken into account.

The Ocean and Global Climatic Trends

The distinctive physical characteristics of seawater and the significance of oceanographic elements for the worldwide microclimate are related. It performs better than practically all other materials in terms of thermal capacity. Given the size of the ocean's total mass (about 1370 billion km³), even minor

variations in water temperature—less than 1°C—can cause noticeable changes in air temperature. The vertical and horizontal motion of water masses complicates the processes for heat transfer between the ocean and atmosphere. Throughout the hotter months, waves and currents mix the heated upper layer with the chilly deep water. (Matishoy, 1999) This circulation goes down to a depth of about 100 metres, maintaining relatively low temperatures (varying from 3°C to 4°C in equatorial and tropical regions to -1.9°C in polar oceans). The cooling mechanisms in freshwater basins and the ocean are very different from one another. The mixing between the surface and deep layers stops at 4°C because freshwater achieves its densest state at this temperature, and freezing starts at 0°C. With an average salinity of about 35 mg/liter, the maximum density temperature (-1.9°C) is comparable to the liquid's freezing point in sea water. Surface freezing is prevented by the mixing of cooled surface and slightly warmer deep water up until the water thickness becomes thermally homogenous. One of the important elements responsible for preserving a stable climate is the heat emitted into the atmosphere during this process. Heat is redistributed across the tropical, moderate, and polar climate zones through the horizontal ocean circulation. Ocean basin layout and water flow between low and high latitudes have a considerable impact on it. Oceanic current patterns are mostly to blame for the well-known climate variance between northern Europe and northeast Asia: Only a tiny quantity of warm Pacific water is able to get through the shallow and narrow Bering Strait and into the Arctic basin, in contrast to the North Atlantic current, which rapidly penetrates the Arctic basin and swiftly heats the west Arctic waters 2018. (Beaugrand) The species composition of the Arctic Ocean is significantly impacted by this difference. Glacial episodes are associated with the biggest and most dramatic shifts in marine climate conditions. Ice sheets that covered northern Europe and North

America in recent geological times stretched to the polar basin and hindered water flow between the Atlantic and polar oceans to some extent. (about 10,000 years ago). The most recent DE glacial, which took place between 8000 and 13,000 years ago, is when the current Arctic marine environment as a whole first emerged. The term "marine per glacial" phenomenon refers to all geological and biological events in the polar seas that are influenced by glacier. According to some climatologists, we are now in an interglacial period and a new glacial era is inevitable. Nevertheless, because global warming is now widely acknowledged as a trend, this viewpoint is currently less prevalent. In many Atlantic and Pacific oceans as well as the Arctic and Antarctica, life has adapted to the seasonal changes in ice cover. The Northern Hemisphere has 15 million km² of seasonal ice, compared to 8 million km² of pack ice that is present year-round. In stark contrast to the generally uniform marine environment witnessed there, the existence of all species, from microorganisms that live on sea ice to sea animals (such as polar bears, seals, and others), is greatly impacted by this factor in ice-free zones. The fundamental feedback in the climate system is connected to the land and marine ice cover. Snow and ice reflect a disproportionately large amount of solar energy back into space and the atmosphere compared to all other surfaces (water, soil, vegetation). As a result, after being formed, continental ice sheets and sea ice cover frequently keep growing on their own (the actual mechanism is more complicated, but this is a good first approximation). In contrast, in the case of DE glaciation, the larger absorption capacity of an ice-free surface would stop the ice from covering the surface again. (Beck, 2018) One of the most significant possible effects of global warming is the complete or partial removal of Arctic Ocean ice. Less precipitation would cause river discharge

from Eurasia and North America to rise owing to human losses, while freshened water entering the Arctic Ocean would cause ice to form.

Maritime Ecologies

Environmental factors and living things shape the ecology of the planet, where biogeochemical cycles control the movement of matter and energy. On the other hand, the ocean serves as a metaphor for the macro ecology, which is similar to yet distinct from land ecosystems. Any ecosystem is made up of four primary structural elements: abiotic substances; producers, or autotrophic species; macro consumers, or heterotrophic organisms; and micro consumers, or saprophytes. All living creatures are connected by trophic links, and in a real ecosystem, you can always distinguish between different trophic levels. Producers are the lowest level at which inorganic substance is changed into organic material via photosynthesis. (Bjork, 2008) These actions only occur in the top layer of the ocean, where light penetration is essentially nonexistent, between the surface and a depth of roughly 100 meters. This layer, which is most vulnerable to climate changes, is known as the euphotic zone. This region generates 90% of the organic stuff in the ocean, which is then spread from the top to the bottom of the water column. At rift zones where hot, highly mineralized water is released from the earth's subsurface, chemosynthesis is a crucial primary production method that helps to preserve extremely specialized bottom ecosystems. As it was just recently discovered, biologists and oceanographers have become more interested in this phenomenon. Later, in areas with bottom seepings of cold methanol and hydrogen sulfide, we discovered a new sort of ecology. (2015) Blasco Oceanic chemosynthetic ecosystems are unaffected by atmospheric processes. Macro eaters can be categorized into primary, secondary, tertiary, and so on trophic levels based on the main class of animals that feed them with food. Most marine animals are

highly specialized, in contrast to those on land, and marine ecosystems frequently have five or six trophic levels (phytoplankton; zooplankton; fish that live on plankton; piscivorous or carnivorous fishes; and sea creatures). Because humans use marine biological resources at the same rate as other consumer groups, they must be seen as the top of the food chain. By converting simple inorganic materials into dead animals, saprophyte species finish biogeochemical cycles. The majority of these processes occur within the depth of the water and beneath the surface of the bottom. Most of the organismal mineral remnants are buried in the bottom sediments and won't contribute to the next matter exchange. Based on where they are in space, ocean ecosystems are categorized as littoral (coastal), pelagic (linked to offshore water masses), and benthic (of the sea floor). Similar remarks are made concerning marine zones that are supposedly shut off from the ocean along the beach. Often, they rely more on land-based environmental factors than those found in places close to the ocean (continental air masses, freshwater runoff, and mineral runoff). Because some species spend their larval stages in the pelagic zone before becoming adults and dwelling on the bottom, it can be difficult to distinguish between benthic and pelagic organisms. It is generally acknowledged that the biomass of the oceans is less than 1% of that of land, despite the fact that there are different estimations of its total biomass. (Bonchea, 2019) Yet, the ocean produces it at a rate that is significantly faster than that of the continents: In particular, marine phytoplankton's (microalgae) average annual biomass to production ratio is 0.07:1 when compared to land vegetation. The productivity of different ocean regions varies greatly. Typically, estuarine and coastal waters are the most productive. Around the coast, environmental variables such as ocean temperature, total salinity, and chemical composition are far more diverse than they are offshore. Man-made issues, such as climate change,

chemical pollution, reduced freshwater runoff, and others, may have a negative effect on some maritime locations. The geological histories of various oceanic regions vary, and these histories have an effect on how marine ecosystems have developed. (2013) Elliott Throughout at least several tens of millions of years, the tropic and moderate ocean zones underwent remarkably little change. The marine ecosystems, however, are active and geologically young in the North Atlantic and Arctic Ocean. The alternation of glacial and interglacial epochs during the Quaternary geological period represents a metaphor for the significant environmental changes that occurred in this region. The most recent glacial episode, known as the mild glaciation, began between 18,000 and 20,000 years ago and lasted roughly 10,000 years. Glacial conditions resulted in the disappearance of pelagic habitats, and in the western Arctic, littoral ecosystems.

Changes in Ocean Current Patterns

It is anticipated that ongoing modifications to ocean circulation will have a significant effect on marine ecosystems. More temperature stratification is anticipated globally, which could impact upwelling and primary productivity. This change might have an impact on species distribution, habitat loss, and oxygen supply in coastal and margin regions. Similar effects have been observed throughout the California Current, where very productive coastal ecosystems were previously supported by deeper, nutrient-rich waters rising due to the wind. The productivity of salmon and other fish has been substantially reduced as a result of variations in this process brought on by El Nio occurrences. However, it is unclear exactly how a warming ocean and climate would change ocean currents (Galparsoro, 2018).

Ocean Acidification

Although though it can be challenging to distinguish differences in regional trends, ocean acidification is predicted to have an effect on all regions of the United States. The processes of calcification, photosynthesis, respiration, nitrogen fixation, and reproduction are all impacted by the ocean's pH and carbonate saturation level. It is unknown what ecological relevance other pH-related effects and their impacts on the rates of a wide range of physiological processes have because the effects on calcification have garnered the majority of the attention to date. In addition to the direct effects of ocean acidification on marine food webs and ecosystems, the eastern Pacific and Bering Sea, which are upwelling regions with high CO₂ waters, will experience acidification more quickly than other places. Several cold water corals will be harmed by this. The carbonate ions that are necessary for the development of coral reefs in tropical environments will likewise rapidly deplete. According to some researchers, 70% of corals would likely exist in oceans that are unfit for their growth by the year 2100. Another issue is the possibility for feedback processes as a result of the seas' growing uptake of CO₂ from the atmosphere. It is possible for feedback processes to damage marine ecosystems and further destabilize the climate of the planet. Plankton blooms, which take carbon dioxide out of the atmosphere, may occur less frequently as ocean acidification rises. If the ocean didn't absorb as much CO₂, the atmosphere would contain more greenhouse gases, accelerating global warming. The outcome would be a warming of the ocean and a worsening of the effects of climate change. (Chuadhry, 2016)

Sea Level Rise

For the past 50 years, the sea level has risen along much of the US shoreline. The Atlantic and Gulf Coasts, the Pacific Islands, and a portion of Alaska will all experience negative effects from sea level rise, which will worsen coastal erosion and storm surge. The United States Global Change Research Program's most recent study indicates that even a 2-foot rise in sea level over a century would cause a significant number of the nation's surviving coastal wetlands to disappear because they wouldn't be able to create enough new soil. Coral reefs and sea grasses are two key habitats that might be negatively impacted by a rise in sea level. In addition to destroying barrier islands, it would put at risk already-existing residences, businesses, and infrastructure, such as ports, highways, and water and sewage systems. With storm surges or even simply regular high tides, large cities like Boston and New York may have portions of their land covered by ocean water. (Commission, 2013)

Changes in the climate's impact on marine organisms' diversity and occurrence

It is well acknowledged that climate change will have an effect on the distribution of biodiversity in the present and the future. Climate change's effects are regularly addressed. The phenology of a species is where climate change has the greatest evident impact. The abundance and distribution of organisms in their habitat may be impacted by climate change. It is still unknown what the species diversity ranges and trends are in the open oceans. In contrast to fish and invertebrates, the variety of marine species is closely tied to environmental factors. A regional worry is the extinction of some tropical fish species, and climate change is becoming to be a serious threat to

marine fisheries. It's possible that some of the other species will move to higher latitudes. Sea level rise, invasive species, and increased nutrient enrichment (eutrophication) all increase the likelihood of obstruction in coastal areas. Even a 10 degree Celsius fluctuation in seawater temperature can have considerable impact on the variety, distribution, and life cycle of marine animals. Increases in water temperature may have decreased oxygen solubility, lowering the quantities of dissolved oxygen (DO) at which permeation occurs. These increases in water temperature are currently posing several concurrent risks to the majority of marine species and ecosystems. There are many different ways that phytoplankton use carbon, and they react differently to the presence of CO₂. As a result, not only will the increased CO₂ concentration in seawater affect the activity of different phytoplankton species, but some species will likely benefit more than others. The higher trophic levels that depend on phytoplankton for food and the cycling of different species-specific components would be impacted by these differences in the ecological structure of phytoplankton (for example, carbonate by calcifying organisms and silicate by non-calcifying organisms). Climate-related variability has a variety of effects on the ecosystems of fisheries and the livelihoods that depend on fishing, including modifications to marine ecology, productivity, shifting patterns, and the quantity of fish stocks. (Dulyy, 2008)

Changes in Climate and Sea Organisms: Impacts on Growth and Reproduction

Sedimentation, eutrophication, and pollution are just a few of the anthropogenic stressors that are progressively being applied to near-shore marine environments throughout the world. On larval survival, recruitment, and reproduction, these stresses have a considerable effect. These pressures could exacerbate or be linked to climate change. Aquatic animals could

experience thermal stress as a result of rising temperatures brought on by climate change, which could harm their immune systems, growth, and behaviors. In addition to how temperature affects hosts and their parasites, other effects of climate change include eutrophication, stratification, changes in acidity, condensed ice cover, variations in ocean currents, increased ultraviolet (UV) light penetration, runoff, and weather extremes. These characteristics will all have an impact on ecosystems and food webs. Fish reproduction is significantly impacted by periodic temperature fluctuations; in species that spawn in the spring, rising temperatures signal the start of reproductive development, whereas in species that spawn in the fall, falling temperatures encourage reproduction. High temperatures reduce spring spawning and delay fall spawning. Reproduction can be affected in a variety of ways, from segment shifting of spawning to general suppression, depending on how long and quickly temperatures rise. Edward from 2004 Temperature controls every process in aquatic organisms like fish, including gamete development and ripening, ovulation, and spermiation, as well as spawning, embryogenesis, hatching, and larval and juvenile development and survival. When sexually mature people are in their seasonal reproductive periods, temperature typically has very little impact on photoperiod. Shortening reproductive chapters and synchronizing the last phases of reproductive maturity are both influenced by temperature. Much more susceptible to environmental changes than adult fish, fish larvae are very vulnerable to climate change. In addition to the extent of the embryo and its survival, temperature affects the size at hatching, rate of growth, length of the pelagic larval stage, and survival of aquatic organisms. Only the belief of animals' "oxygen and capacity dependent thermal tolerance (OCLTT)" has been demonstrated to be significant in a framework for tackling climate change at

the ecological level. The survival, growth, and respiratory physiology of aquatic or marine organisms are similarly adversely impacted by significant CO₂. As a result, it appears that more thorough research is necessary to determine how climate change may affect aquatic biodiversity. Despite ongoing efforts to find a mechanical link between climate and plankton, the impact of weather on the concentration of ocean mixing is thought to be essential to the relationship. Bottom-up actions (i.e., the utilization of lower trophic level species as food for higher trophic levels) and phytoplankton proliferation across the pelagic food chain are encouraged by this concentration. Temperatures at the surface, light levels, and the amount of nutrient recycling are all influenced by its concentration. Similar to how temperature affects growth, warming does not guarantee faster growth rates. The dates of reproduction and reproductive output, as well as the wellbeing of juveniles and larvae, are inconsistent. (Esia, 2017) During their juvenile periods, marine species, or more precisely marine organisms, can be particularly susceptible to changes in temperature, salinity, and pH. In addition, larvae may adapt to temperatures higher than those that adults can tolerate. It is widely acknowledged that climate greatly influences temperature and that both have an impact on biological function. The timing of the egg hatching may affect how likely it is that the larvae will survive if their appearance and the presence of food do not coincide.

Designing MPAs and MPA network Resilience

It is common practice to establish marine protected areas in order to preserve habitats, guarantee ecosystem integrity, encourage resource sustainability, and/or guarantee the continuous provision of ecosystem goods and services. Protecting the habitats and ecosystems of MPAs from exploitation, nefarious activities, and disruption is undeniably desirable. It is

undeniable that protecting MPAs from exploitation and other destructive and disruptive activities benefits the habitats and ecosystems located inside them. Many studies using actual data have demonstrated that marine reserves (MPAs that ban taking) often increase biodiversity, density, biomass, and size of several exploited species. The ecological integrity of the ecosystem should be preserved or restored as a result of these benefits. Protecting ecosystems from climate change and rising CO₂ levels is one of the key goals of marine protected zones. The concepts for strengthening resilience and the function of MPAs in that process were developed primarily in response to the effects of coral bleaching brought on by rising ocean temperatures, but they can be applied to other ecosystems. Many publications have provided concise descriptions of the design principles that are anticipated to enhance the integrity and health of MPAs. (Flyn, 2018)

Ecosystem-Based Management and Coastal and Marine Spatial Planning

If ecosystem characteristics like resilience and ecological integrity are to be effective in the face of climate change, resource and environmental management must be based on ecosystems. It is even more crucial to incorporate the key components of ecosystem-based management—area-based, precautionary, and adaptive management—because of the potential severity of impacts and the high level of uncertainty in predicting the course of climate change at regional or local scales (i.e., the scales at which MPAs are managed). The benefits of MPA have been the subject of heated discussion for many years. Nonetheless, one characteristic of MPAs that has received much recognition is their ability to endure uncertainty. (Gilg, 2017) To combat climate change generally, a risk-management or preventative strategy will likely be required. Because of the extraordinary ways that ecosystems and resources are already changing, adaptive management is now even more

important. There will be a need for the adoption and evaluation of an experimental management plan, which should include tracking resilience indicators and conducting research to better comprehend essential processes and lessen their unpredictability. This calls for thoughtful consideration of the length of an adaptive management cycle, more flexible borders and goals, and perhaps the development of dynamic MPA systems for MPAs. Such efforts should be considered as part of a more thorough spatial strategy for the coastal and marine areas. (Gomez, 2008)

Conclusion

Oceans and the atmosphere have a close relationship. Climate change poses a severe threat to our maritime ecosystems and resources now and in the future. Unlike ecosystems that are in good shape, many of these maritime habitats and resources have throughout time been seriously harmed by a range of human pressures, and they are now subject to additional risks from climate change. The ability of the oceans to maintain life-sustaining processes is closely related to the long-term health of many ecosystems and is put to the test in a variety of ways by both the direct implications of rising CO₂ levels and the indirect effects of a changing climate. It is believed that terrestrial ecosystems are less susceptible to climate change than marine ones. Several climate change effects, such as warming, are also expected to remain in the waters for thousands of years due to geophysical time lags. Design and management changes for MPAs should be sought out and obtained as soon as possible in order to help us better meet the difficulties brought on by a changing climate, sustain the vitality of the maritime environment, and protect the lives and property of marine species. The Scientific and Technical Subcommittee of the MPA FAC suggests that in light of the anticipated impacts of climate change on our marine resources, the MPA FAC develop specific

recommendations on how to manage the National System of MPAs and communicate them to the Secretaries of the Departments of Interior and Commerce.

References

- Krutskikh B.A. (1991). *Climatic Regime of the Arctic at the Turn of the Twentieth and Twenty-First Centuries*, (4th Ed), New York,USA. Modern Times.pp206-212
- Matishov G.G. (1992). *Anthropogenous Destruction of the Ecosystems in the Barents and the Norwegian Seas*, (3rd Ed), Washington,D.C. USA. Carnegie Endowment press.pp290-295
- Matishov G.G. (1999). *Oceanic periglacial in the evolution of Arctic marine ecosystems*. (2nd Ed), UK,England. Oxford University Press.pp134-140
- Matishov G.G. and Denisov V.V. (2000). *Ecosystems and Biological Resources of Russian European Seas at the Turn of the Twenty-First Century* (5th Ed), New York,USA. Stein and Day press.p456
- Beaugrand, G., & Kirby, R. R. (2018). *How Do Marine Pelagic Species Respond to Climate Change? Theories and Observations. Annual Review of Marine Science*, (4th Ed), Calcutt,India.Westland publications.p126
- Beck, K. (2018). *Direct and Indirect Effects of Long-Term Climatic Change on Terrestrial-Aquatic Ecosystem Interaction in Tasmania*. (1st VOL), Washinton,USA. Washington Government Printing Office.pp78.
- Bjork, M., Short, F., Mcleod, E., & Beer, S. (2008). *Managing Seagrasses for Resilience to Climate Change*. (1st Vol), Toronto.Canda. Lexington Books, Ltd. pp134

- Blasco-Costa, I., Rouco, C., & Poulin, R. (2015). *Biogeography of Parasitism in Freshwater Fish: Spatial Patterns in Hot Spots of Infection*. (3rd Ed), UK.Britain. Oxford University Press.pp315-320
- Bonachea, L. A. (2019). *A Low-Cost Laboratory Demonstration of the Effects of Temperature on the Metabolism of an Aquatic Poikilotherm*. (13th Vol), New York.USA.Metropolitain Books.pp309-312
- Borja, A., Elliott, M., Andersen, J. H., Cardoso, A. C., Carstensen, J., Ferreira, J. G. et al. (2013). *Good Environmental Status of Marine Ecosystems: What Is It and How Do We Know When We Have Attained It?* (4rth Ed), New York.USA. Harper Collin Press.pp77-80
- Borja, A., Galparsoro, I., Irigoien, X., Iriondo, A., Menchaca, I., Muxika, I. et al.(2011). *Implementation of the European Marine Strategy Framework Directive: A Methodological Approach for the Assessment of Environmental Status*, (5th Ed), London.England. Osprey publishers.p290
- Chaudhary, C., Saeedi, H., & Costello, M. J. (2016). *Bimodality of Latitudinal Gradients in Marine Species Richness*. (1st Ed), Washington. USA.RAND Corporation. pp11-13
- Commission, H. (2010). *Ecosystem Health of the Baltic Sea 2003-2007: HELCOM Initial Holistic Assessment. Baltic Sea Environment Proceedings*, (1ST Ed), London. England. The Penguin press. pp. 25-27
- Dulvy, N. K., Rogers, S. I., Jennings, S., Stelzenmuller, V., Dye, S. R., & Skjoldal, H. R. (2008). *Climate Change and Deepening of the North Sea Fish Assemblage: A Biotic Indicator of Warming Seas. Journal of Applied Ecology*, (2nd Vol), Princeton USA. Princeton University Press.pp276

- Edwards, M., & Richardson, A. J. (2004). *Impact of Climate Change on Marine Pelagic Phenology and Trophic Mismatch*. *Nature*, (1st Ed), New York. USA. United States Institute of Peace.pp167-168
- Esia-Donkoh, K. (2017). *Fishing Communities' Adaptation to Climate Change At-Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem Municipality*, (3rd Ed), Chicago. USA. Green Heaven press.pp402-410
- Flynn, E. E., & Todgham, A. E. (2018). *Thermal Windows and Metabolic Performance Curves in a Developing Antarctic Fish*. (1st Ed), Sydney.Austrila. Sydney press.p291
- Gilg, O., Kovacs, K. M., Aars, J., Fort, J., Gauthier, G., Gremillet, D. et al. (2017). *Climate Change and the Ecology and Evolution of Arctic Vertebrates*. (3rd ed.). London, UK: Bacteria press.pp789
- Gomez, J. J., Goy, A., & Canales, M. L. (2008). *Seawater Temperature and Carbon Isotope Variations in Belemnites Linked to Mass Extinction during the Toarcian (Early Jurassic) in Central and Northern Spain. Comparison with Other European Sections*. (1st VOL), Pairas.Itlay. Italy press. pp26-29
- Heuer, R. M., Stieglitz, J. D., Enochs, I. C., Pasparakis, C. M., Benetti, D. D., & Grosell, M. (2019). *Effects of Temperature on Athletic Performance in the Pelagic Mahi-Mahi (Coryphaena hippurus)*. (2nd Ed), New York. USA. Harper press.pp90-99
- Hipfner, J. M. (2008). *Matches and Mismatches: Ocean Climate, Prey Phenology and Breeding Success in a Zooplanktivorous Seabird*. (3rd Ed), London.England. London Pluto Press.pp 8-9

- Hoegh-Guldberg, O., & Bruno, J. F. (2010). *The Impact of Climate Change on the World's Marine Ecosystems. (2nd ed.)*. Washington, US: University of Washington press.
- Hoegh-Guldberg, O., Cai, R., Poloczanska, E. S., Brewer, P. G., Sundby, S., Hilmi, K. et al. (2014). *The Ocean. (3rd ed.)*. London, UK: Pluto Press.
- Johnston, I. A., & Bennett, A. F. (2008). *Animals and Temperature: Phenotypic and Evolutionary Adaptation (1st Vol)*, New York.USA. Free Press.p43
- Kleisner, K. M., Fogarty, M. J., McGee, S., Barnett, A., Fratantoni, P., Greene, J. et al. (2016). *The Effects of Sub-Regional Climate Velocity on the Distribution and Spatial Extent of Marine Species Assemblages. (3rd Ed)*, New York.USA. Times Book.p105
- Koch, M., Bowes, G., Ross, C., & Zhang, X. (2013). *Climate Change and Ocean Acidification Effects on Seagrasses and Marine Macroalgae. (3rd Ed)*, UK.Britain.Mainstream press.p22
- Lafferty, K. D., Porter, J. W., & Ford, S. E. (2004). *Are Diseases Increasing in the Ocean? Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics, (3rd Ed)*,London.England.Corwell publication.p167
- Lee, C., Hong, S., Kwon, B.-O., Lee, J.-H., Ryu, J., Park, Y.-G. et al. (2016). *Lethal and Sub-Lethal Effects of Elevated CO2 Concentrations on Marine Benthic Invertebrates and Fish. Environmental Science and Pollution Research, (4rth Ed)*, New York. USA. Harper Collin Press pp78

Lohmus, M., & Bjorklund, M. (2015). *Climate Change: What Will It Do to Fish-Parasite Interactions? Biological Journal of the Linnean Society*, (4th Ed), New York, USA. Metropolitan Books. pp301-311

Marcogliese, D. J. (2016). *The Distribution and Abundance of Parasites in Aquatic Eco- Systems in a Changing Climate: More than Just Temperature. Integrative and Comparative Biology*, (5th Ed), New York, USA. Stein and Day press. p509