



23 **Abstract**

24 Coupled three-dimensional circulation and biogeochemical models predict changes in  
25 water properties that can be used to define fish habitat, including physiologically important  
26 parameters such as temperature, salinity, and dissolved oxygen. Yet methods for calculating the  
27 volume of habitat defined by the intersection of multiple water properties are not well established  
28 for coupled three-dimensional models. The objectives of this research were to examine multiple  
29 methods for calculating habitat volume from three-dimensional model predictions, select the  
30 most robust approach, and provide an example application of the technique. Three methods were  
31 assessed: the “Step,” “Ruled Surface”, and “Pentahedron” methods, the latter of which was  
32 developed as part of this research. Results indicate that the analytical Pentahedron method is  
33 exact, computationally efficient, and preserves continuity in water properties between adjacent  
34 grid cells. As an example application, the Pentahedron method was implemented within the  
35 Habitat Volume Model (HabVol) using output from a circulation model with an Arakawa C-grid  
36 and physiological tolerances of juvenile striped bass (*Morone saxatilis*). This application  
37 demonstrates that the analytical Pentahedron method can be successfully applied to calculate  
38 habitat volume using output from coupled three-dimensional circulation and biogeochemical  
39 models, and it indicates that the Pentahedron method has wide application to aquatic and marine  
40 systems for which these models exist and physiological tolerances of organisms are known.

41

42 **Keywords**

43 Circulation model; hydrodynamic model; Habitat model; Habitat volume; Physiological  
44 tolerances; Biological-physical interactions; Coupled three-dimensional circulation and  
45 biogeochemical models

46

47 **1. Introduction**

48 Numerical circulation models have become important tools in understanding the physical  
49 dynamics of oceanic and coastal systems (e.g., Allen et al., 1995; Ezer and Mellor, 1994;  
50 Holloway and Merrifield, 1999; Li et al., 2005), and numerical biogeochemical models have  
51 played a central role in understanding water quality responses to nutrient loading (e.g., Cerco,  
52 1995; Kremer and Nixon, 1978; Li et al. 2016; Peeters et al., 1995). These models provide  
53 greater understanding of the interactions between physical and biological processes and the  
54 characteristics of a system, and they can be used to understand past events as well as make future  
55 projections, such as the effects of climate change (e.g., Caldeira and Wickett, 2003; Harley et al.,  
56 2006; IPCC, 2007; Scavia et al., 2002). In marine ecosystems, physical conditions can have  
57 profound effects on the species living there (Mann and Lazier, 2006). In addition, in coastal  
58 systems, eutrophication is a widespread problem that is altering estuarine ecosystems and the  
59 habitat and nursery areas of many commercially and recreationally important fish species  
60 (Caddy, 1993; Karlson et al., 2002; Kemp et al., 2005; Nixon, 1995). Thus, understanding  
61 changing physical and biogeochemical conditions can help us predict how each species will be  
62 affected by changes in the environment. The goal of this research was to develop and describe a  
63 numerical tool that integrates the predictions of three-dimensional numerical circulation and  
64 biogeochemical models with organisms' physiological tolerances to quantify how changes in  
65 environmental conditions influence the habitat of living marine resources.

66 Temperature, salinity, and dissolved oxygen (DO) are important factors which influence  
67 habitat suitability for fish and invertebrate species (e.g., Hanks and Secor, 2011; McLeese, 1956;  
68 Wuenschel et al., 2004). Physiological tolerances to these factors can differ markedly between  
69 species that inhabit the same system (e.g., Brandt, 1993; Breitburg, 1994; Diaz and Rosenberg,

70 1995; Funderburk et al., 1991; Miller et al., 2002; Secor and Gunderson, 1998). Although there  
71 are numerous examples of the use of different physiological requirements and numerical models  
72 to calculate suitable habitat in two dimensions (e.g., Barnes et al. 2007; Bidegain et al. 2013;  
73 Kimmerer et al., 2009; MacWilliams et al., 2016; Yi et al. 2010), fewer efforts have quantified  
74 the three-dimensional volume of suitable habitat (but see Cline et al. 2013; Kimmerer et al.,  
75 2009; Kimmerer et al. 2013; Mouton et al. 2007; Schlenger et al. 2013b). Because coupled three-  
76 dimensional circulation and biogeochemical models can predict changes in various water  
77 properties, including temperature, salinity, and DO, in three dimensions over time, the  
78 predictions of these models could be used to estimate changes in the volumetric extent of  
79 suitable habitat for a given species, with application for understanding how habitat changes from  
80 year to year, how eutrophication and climate change could affect habitat, and which species may  
81 be most sensitive to these stressors.

82         The objectives of this study were to examine multiple approaches for calculating habitat  
83 volume from three-dimensional model predictions, select the most robust approach, and provide  
84 an example application of the technique. Although the algorithms developed herein could be  
85 used with numerical model grids based on either quadrilaterals (e.g., curvilinear models) or  
86 triangles (e.g., finite element models), the development of methods for calculating habitat  
87 volume focused on an Arakawa C-grid, which is the grid structure of the Regional Ocean  
88 Modeling System (ROMS) (Song and Haidvogel, 1994) and the Princeton Ocean Model (POM)  
89 (Blumberg and Mellor, 1987). Three different techniques to calculate the volume of suitable  
90 habitat were tested and compared. The most suitable method was used within the Habitat  
91 Volume Model (HabVol) to provide an example of how the algorithm could be implemented and  
92 applied to evaluate the habitat of juvenile striped bass (*Morone saxatilis*) in Chesapeake Bay.

93

## 94 **2. Methods and Results**

### 95 **2.1. Algorithm development and testing**

96 Three methods for calculating the volume of a grid cell defined by rho nodes of an  
97 Arakawa C-grid were investigated: the “Step,” “Pentahedron,” and “Ruled Surface” methods. In  
98 this section, we describe each of the three methods for calculating volume, and then compare  
99 them for efficiency and precision. All three methods used a grid structure that placed the rho  
100 nodes, where depth and hydrographic parameters including temperature, salinity, and dissolved  
101 oxygen were defined, at the vertices of the grid cells used for calculating habitat volume (Fig. 1).  
102 Note that in an Arakawa C-grid, rho nodes are located at the center of the grid cells, are  
103 distributed non-linearly over the  $x$ - and  $y$ -directions, and can occur at multiple varying depths (at  
104  $s$ - or  $\sigma$ -levels). In addition, the vertices of the rho grid cells often are not part of standard  
105 model output. The rho nodes were chosen to be the vertices of the grid for volume calculations  
106 so that rho-node coordinates would be the only coordinates required for calculations. The  
107 calculation of the volume of the resulting grid cells was non-trivial because 1) the curvilinear  
108 grid cells do not necessarily contain parallel lines, and 2) the top and bottom faces of the grid  
109 cells are not necessarily planar because adjacent rho nodes may be located at different depths  
110 (i.e., they are skew quadrilaterals; Fig. 2).

111 In the Step method, grid cells were interpreted as having flat, horizontal top and bottom  
112 faces by averaging the  $z$ -coordinates ( $z$ ) of the top four vertices  $[(x_1, y_1, z_{t1}), (x_2, y_2, z_{t2}), (x_3, y_3,$   
113  $z_{t3}), (x_4, y_4, z_{t4})]$  and the bottom four vertices  $[(x_1, y_1, z_{b1}), (x_2, y_2, z_{b2}), (x_3, y_3, z_{b3}), (x_4, y_4, z_{b4})]$ ,  
114 respectively (Fig. 3a). The volume was then simply the average height of the cell multiplied by  
115 the horizontal cross-sectional area of the cell ( $A$ ):

116 
$$V = A \times \left[ \frac{1}{4}(z_{t1} + z_{t2} + z_{t3} + z_{t4}) - \frac{1}{4}(z_{b1} + z_{b2} + z_{b3} + z_{b4}) \right] \quad (1a)$$

117 where

118 
$$A = \frac{1}{2} |(x_1y_2 - x_2y_1) + (x_2y_3 - x_3y_2) + (x_3y_4 - x_4y_3) + (x_4y_1 - x_1y_4)| \quad (1b)$$

119 Although this technique was conceptually and computationally simple, it did not allow  
 120 calculation of continuous surfaces of suitable habitat, because the surfaces of adjacent grid cells  
 121 were not continuous across multiple grid cells (see Fig. 3a).

122 The Pentahedron (Fig. 3b) and Ruled Surface (Fig. 3c) methods both allowed for  
 123 continuity in the physical and chemical characteristics of the water across multiple grid cells. In  
 124 the Pentahedron method, the top and bottom faces were each divided into four triangles; the  
 125 vertices of each of these triangles included two adjacent rho nodes at the edges of the face as  
 126 well as the center point of the face. The grid cell was then divided into four triangular  
 127 pentahedrons formed by connecting the triangles of the top and bottom faces (Fig. 3b). The total  
 128 volume ( $V$ ) of the grid cell was calculated as the sum of the volume of each pentahedron ( $v_i$ ):

129 
$$V = \sum_{i=1}^4 v_i \quad (2a)$$

130 The volume of each pentahedron was calculated using the coordinates of the three points at the  
 131 top  $[(x_1, y_1, z_{t1}), (x_2, y_2, z_{t2}), (x_3, y_3, z_{t3})]$  and bottom  $[(x_1, y_1, z_{b1}), (x_2, y_2, z_{b2}), (x_3, y_3, z_{b3})]$  of each  
 132 pentahedron:

133 
$$v_i = \frac{A'}{3} [(z_{t1} + z_{t2} + z_{t3}) - (z_{b1} + z_{b2} + z_{b3})] \quad (2b)$$

134 where  $A'$  is the cross sectional area of the pentahedron:

135 
$$A' = \frac{1}{2} |x_1(y_2 - y_3) + x_2(y_3 - y_1) + x_3(y_1 - y_2)| \quad (2c)$$

136 Hence the ‘‘Pentahedron method,’’ which interprets the grid cell as being composed of four  
 137 pentahedrons, is an exact method based on the geometric solution for the volume of a  
 138 pentahedron. When applied to a numerical model, the Pentrahedron method is an exact solution  
 139 for habitat volume in each vertical grid cell as long as the habitat variable varies linearly along  
 140 the edges of the cell, which is a valid assumption because numerical models cannot predict  
 141 nonlinear behavior, like temperature inversions, within one vertical grid cell (i.e., between two  
 142 grid points in the vertical).

143 In the Ruled Surface method, the top and bottom faces of the grid cell were assumed to  
 144 be the hyperbolic paraboloids defined by the skew quadrilaterals connecting the rho node  
 145 vertices of each face. These were doubly ruled surfaces (i.e., through each point on the surface  
 146 there are two straight lines that lie on the surface) that were formed through bilinear  
 147 interpolation, presenting one of the smoothest possible interpretations of the grid cell faces. The  
 148 ruled surface was constructed by drawing lines connecting midpoints of opposite sides of the  
 149 skew quadrilateral, then connecting matching quarter points, and so forth (Fig. 3c) (Farin, 1996;  
 150 Wells, 2012). Thus, the  $z$  coordinate of the ruled surface of the top face at a horizontal position  
 151  $(x, y)$  was defined as

$$152 \quad z_t = \frac{[(z_{t4} - z_{t1})(1-s) + (z_{t3} - z_{t2})s] \times [y - y_1(1-s) - y_2s]}{(y_4 - y_1)(1-s) + (y_3 - y_2)s + z_{t1}(1-s) + z_{t2}s}, \quad (3a)$$

153 where  $s$  is the fraction of the distance from the side joining  $(x_1, y_1, z_{t1})$  with  $(x_4, y_4, z_{t4})$  to the side  
 154 joining  $(x_2, y_2, z_{t2})$  with  $(x_3, y_3, z_{t3})$  at which  $(x, y)$  is located; that is,

$$155 \quad s = \frac{-b - \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}, \quad (3b)$$

156 where

$$\begin{aligned}
a &= (y_4 - y_3)(x_1 - x_2) + (x_4 - x_3)(y_2 - y_1) \\
157 \quad b &= (y_1 - y_4)(x_1 - x_2) + (x_1 - x_4)(y_2 - y_1) + (x - x_1)(y_4 + y_2 - y_1 - y_3) \\
&+ (y_1 - y)(x_4 + x_2 - x_1 - x_3) \\
c &= (y_1 - y_4)(x - x_1) + (x_1 - x_4)(y_1 - y)
\end{aligned} \tag{3c}$$

158 The corresponding  $z$  coordinate for the bottom face was found with the same equations,  
159 replacing the subscript “ $r$ ” with “ $b$ ”. The volume defined by this method was computed  
160 numerically using the statistical programming language R (R Development Core Team, 2005)  
161 and excluded rare cases when grid coordinates could lead to zero in the denominator. First, a box  
162 defined by the  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  extremes of the grid cell was drawn around the grid cell (outer box in  
163 Fig. 4). Then, evenly spaced points in  $x$ - $y$  space in the box were sampled to find the grid cell  
164 heights at each location ( $h_i$ ) (dashed lines in Fig. 4), which were calculated as the difference  
165 between the  $z$  coordinates in the top and bottom faces. An  $x$ - $y$  point in the box that was out of the  
166 bounds of the grid cell was considered to have a height of zero. The volume ( $V$ ) of the grid cell  
167 was then calculated as

$$168 \quad V = \frac{A''}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n h_i, \tag{4}$$

169 where  $A''$  is the horizontal cross-sectional area of the box (Fig. 4) and  $n$  is the total number of  $x$ - $y$   
170 points sampled. The accuracy of the numerical solution for the volume can be improved by  
171 sampling the heights in the grid cell at more closely spaced  $x$ - $y$  points. Although this numerical  
172 technique was hypothesized to be more precise than the other methods because of increased  
173 smoothness of the grid cell top and bottom faces, the iterative numerical nature of the solution  
174 was clearly more computationally intensive than the analytical methods.

175 To determine how the numerical Ruled Surface method compared with the analytical  
176 Pentahedron and Step methods, multiple tests of the Ruled Surface method were conducted on a



177 model grid cell using increasing resolution. The goal was to determine the resolution (i.e., the  
178 number of  $x$ - $y$  points) needed for the Ruled Surface model to converge on a stable volume and  
179 then to compare this volume to the solutions derived from the other two methods. Results of this  
180 test indicate that as the resolution was increased, the volume from the Ruled Surface method  
181 converged with the volume calculated using the analytical Pentahedron method (Fig. 5). For the  
182 test grid cell, the volume calculated with the Step method was slightly larger than that calculated  
183 by the other methods.

184 On a single processor, the mean time ( $\pm$  std,  $n = 10$ ) to calculate the volume of the grid  
185 cell in Fig. 5 was  $0.032 \pm 0.006$ ,  $0.033 \pm 0.007$ , and  $3.636 \pm 0.044$  s for the Step, Pentahedron,  
186 and Ruled Surface methods, respectively, with Ruled Surface sampling resolution = 200. The  
187 Step method did not offer a significant difference in time efficiency compared to the Pentahedron  
188 method, while the time-consuming Ruled Surface method did not offer increased precision  
189 compared to the Pentahedron method. Based on these results, the Pentahedron method was  
190 selected as the optimal method because it was exact, computationally efficient, and preserved the  
191 continuity of surfaces across multiple grid cells.

192

## 193 **2.2. Implementation and application**

194 After identifying the Pentahedron method as the most appropriate method for calculating  
195 the volume of a grid cell, the next step was to implement the method to calculate the volume of  
196 suitable habitat for a marine organism across an entire circulation model domain. First, a method  
197 for defining suitable habitat volume within a grid cell based on a species' physiological  
198 tolerances was developed. In each grid cell in the model, linear interpolation in the vertical  
199 direction was used to find what depths, if any, corresponded to the limits of a species' tolerance

200 to a physical water property (Fig. 6a). These interpolated locations were used in combination  
201 with the grid cell nodes where suitable habitat existed to define the border vertices of the region  
202 of suitable habitat within the grid cell (Fig. 6b). In the case of multiple constraints (e.g.,  
203 temperature and salinity), the most limiting vertices defined the borders of the habitat region  
204 (Fig. 6a). The Pentahedron method was then used to calculate the volume of the region defined  
205 by the border vertices (Fig. 6c). Finally, summing all such volumes from every model grid cell  
206 gave the full habitat volume within the model domain (Fig. 6d).

207         The Pentahedron habitat volume method was incorporated into a stand-alone open source  
208 Fortran program that can be applied to calculate habitat volume for species in multiple estuarine  
209 and coastal systems. This Habitat Volume Model (HabVol) runs with output from the curvilinear  
210 Regional Ocean Modeling System (ROMS) (Schlenger et al. 2013a) and uses the rho nodes of  
211 the ROMS model to define the grid vertices of the HabVol model (e.g., Fig. 1). HabVol  
212 implements the Pentahedron method to calculate the system-wide suitable habitat for the  
213 variables specified by the user, as well as for the intersection of the variables if more than one is  
214 specified (e.g., Fig. 6). In implementing this habitat volume method, special treatment was  
215 required for horizontal grid locations where no suitable habitat existed (e.g., land, or nodes where  
216 no water properties were within the range of a species' physiological tolerances). In these cases,  
217 the horizontal grid cells were sectioned as depicted in Fig. 7, using the midpoints between habitat  
218 and non-habitat nodes as volume-defining vertices. Equations 2b,c were applied to the  
219 pentahedrons defined by the numbered faces in each case shown in Fig. 7, and their volumes  
220 were summed.

221         In addition to calculating habitat volume based on fixed physiological tolerances (e.g.,  
222 intersections of salinity, temperature, and/or dissolved oxygen), HabVol also can be used to

223 calculate volumes based on bioenergetics (e.g., where potential growth is positive) (Schlenger et  
224 al., 2013b). The user can specify a subset of the ROMS model domain in which to calculate  
225 habitat volume (e.g., one river system) and can limit the volume calculations to a specified  
226 distance from bottom (e.g., the volume of water within 2 m of bottom which meets specified  
227 physiological constraints).

228         As an example of HabVol application, the salinity and temperature ranges that were  
229 optimal for growth of juvenile striped bass (*Morone saxatilis*) (Schlenger, 2012) were used to  
230 find the optimal habitat based on salinity and temperature separately as well as their intersection  
231 using ROMS model predictions for Chesapeake Bay on August 15, 1996. Habitat volumes based  
232 individually on optimal salinity range (1–15) and optimal temperature range (24–27 °C) were  
233 calculated to be 69.8 km<sup>3</sup> and 103.2 km<sup>3</sup>, respectively. The intersection of these salinity and  
234 temperature ranges resulted in an estimated 65.2 km<sup>3</sup> of optimal habitat in the bay. The regions  
235 of predicted optimal habitat were plotted in Fig. 8. As demonstrated by Schlenger et al. (2013b),  
236 system-wide habitat volumes can be calculated daily and can be integrated to derive seasonal and  
237 annual totals that allow interannual comparisons in habitat volume based on predictions from  
238 coupled circulation and biogeochemical models.

239

### 240 **3. Summary and Discussion**

241         The novel Pentahedron method was developed to calculate analytically the volume of  
242 irregularly shaped grid cells formed with the rho nodes of an Arakawa C-grid from circulation or  
243 coupled circulation and biogeochemical models. In addition, the Pentahedron method was  
244 readily adapted to calculate the volume of the portion of a grid cell that qualified as suitable  
245 habitat for a species of interest, including when rho nodes were specified as land or when no

246 suitable habitat was predicted at a location. The example of calculating the optimal habitat of  
247 juvenile striped bass using HabVol illustrated the utility of the method (Fig. 8), as did the  
248 extensive analyses presented by Schlenger et al. (2013b) who used more complex criteria for  
249 defining habitat suitability.

250         Although certainly many more factors beyond habitat volume influence the survival,  
251 growth, and distribution of living marine resources (e.g., food availability and predation), the  
252 ability to calculate and compare changes in physically-defined habitat is an important step  
253 forward for better understanding the physical drivers of range-shifts and changes in abundance.  
254 Previous modeling studies have estimated changes in abundance and distribution of species due  
255 to habitat variability, but few calculate habitat volume variations, which offer a robust metric of  
256 environmental favorability for a species (Gotelli and Ellison, 2006; Kimmerer et al., 2009;  
257 Werner et al., 2001). The Pentahedron method described here could be applied for any 3D  
258 circulation and coupled bio-physical model that predicts a suite of changing physical conditions  
259 relevant to a species. Habitat volumes calculated with historical predictions could reveal  
260 mechanisms that may have affected population growth or population decline in various species.  
261 When run with future projections exploring the influence of climate change or nutrient loading,  
262 changes in habitat volumes could be used to identify sensitive species, providing information  
263 useful for fisheries and water quality managers. Furthermore, the metrics calculated using this  
264 habitat volume method could be used as habitat forcing functions in models such as Ecopath  
265 (Christensen and Walters, 2004). Thus, the approach presented here could link circulation  
266 models that have no living resources but high resolution to upper trophic level models with many  
267 species but low physical resolution and could have wide application to the computational tools  
268 that support fisheries management.

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270

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272

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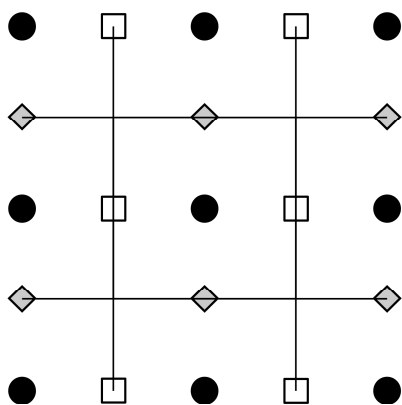
411 **Figures**

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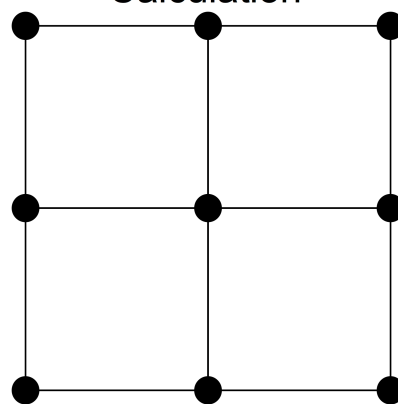
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A. Circulation Model Grid



B. Grid for Habitat Volume Calculation



● rho node  
□ u node  
◇ v node

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417 Figure 1. Plan view of the grids used for habitat volume algorithm development. A) An Arakawa

418 C-grid structure, with rho nodes located in the center of the grid cells. Water properties like

419 temperature and salinity are calculated at the rho nodes of circulation models that are based on

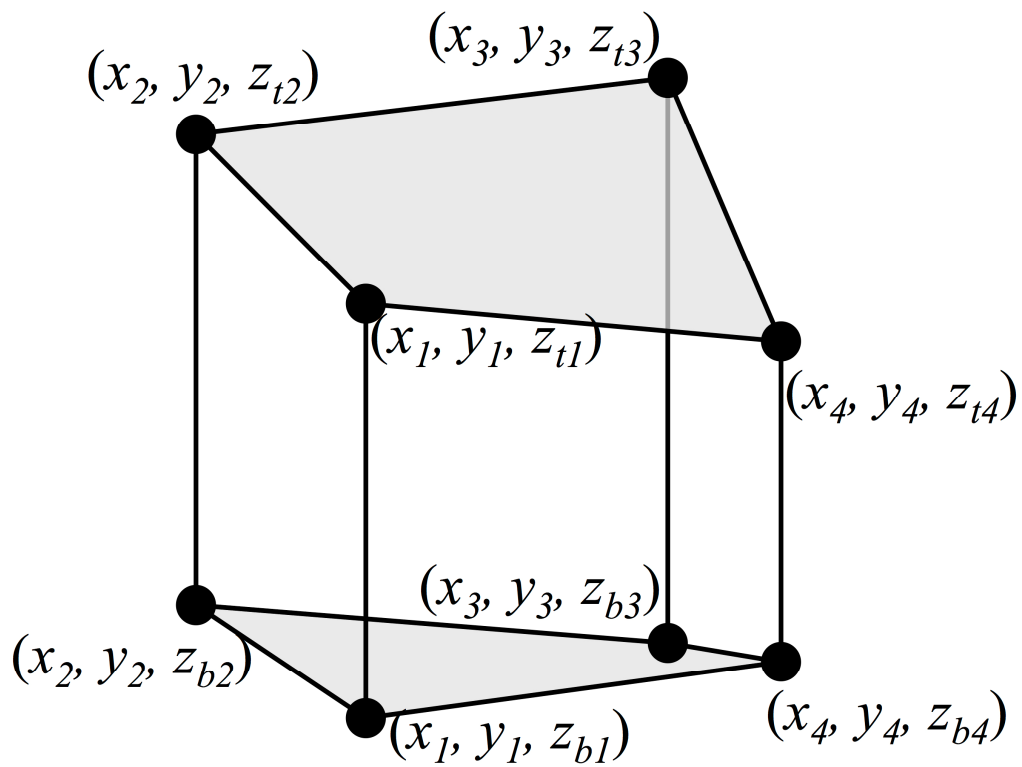
420 the Arakawa C-grid. B) The grid structure for the habitat volume calculations herein. This grid

421 employed the rho nodes from the circulation model as the vertices of its grid cells. Note that the

422 grids are depicted here as rectilinear, which was not a property required for volume calculations.

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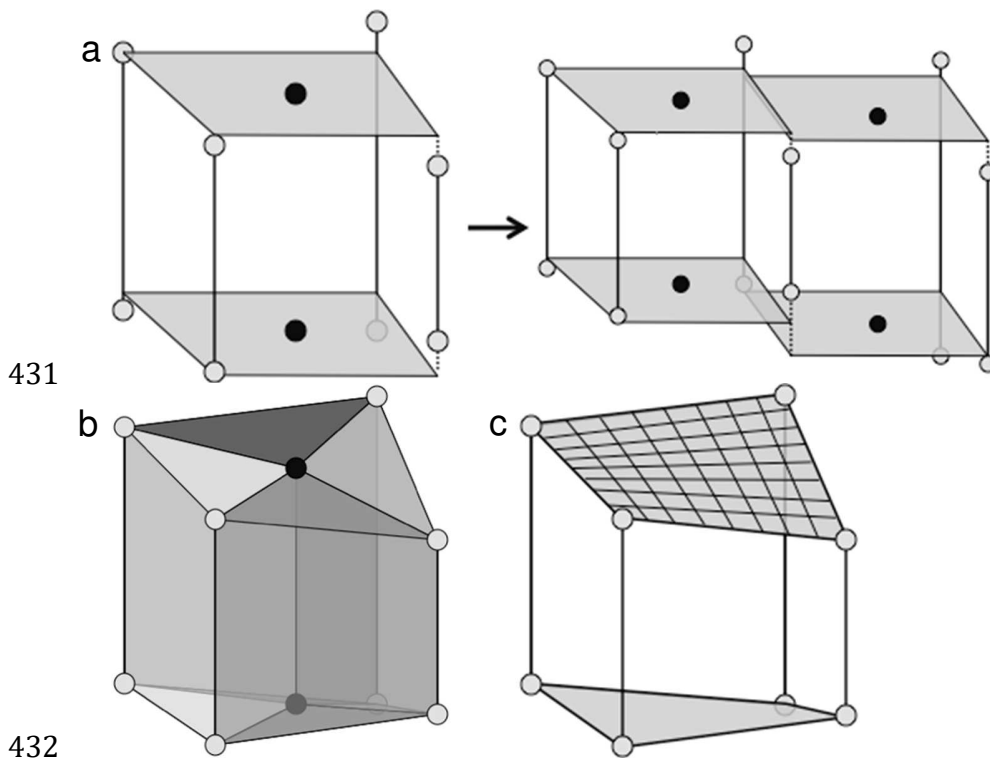


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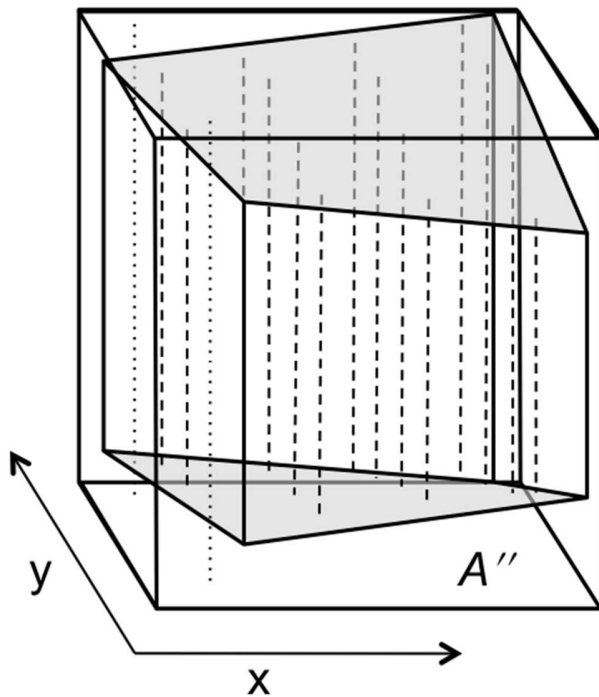
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428 Figure 2. An example of a grid cell used for calculating habitat volume with the top (*t*) and  
429 bottom (*b*) vertices labeled. The top and bottom faces were not necessarily planar and thus can  
430 form skew quadrilaterals.



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432  
433 Figure 3. Schematic of three methods used to define volume based on an Arakawa C-grid. a)  
434 Step method. Top and bottom faces (gray surfaces) were assumed to be flat and were placed  
435 horizontally at the heights of the midpoints (black circles) of the top and bottom cell vertices  
436 (gray circles), respectively. This method led to discontinuities between adjacent cell volumes. b)  
437 Pentahedron method. Top and bottom faces were each defined by the four triangles that can be  
438 formed with two adjacent grid cell vertices and the face midpoint. Corresponding top and bottom  
439 triangles were connected vertically to form four pentahedrons. c) Ruled Surface method. Top and  
440 bottom faces were defined as the hyperbolic paraboloids formed by the skew quadrilaterals  
441 joining the four top and four bottom vertices, respectively. These were constructed by connecting  
442 the midpoints of opposite sides of a face, then connecting opposite quarter points, etc., until the  
443 surface was filled out. A few such lines are illustrated on the top face.

444



445

446 Figure 4. Schematic of the Ruled Surface method to calculate volume of a three-dimensional cell

447 with top and/or bottom faces defined as hyperbolic paraboloid (ruled) surfaces. A box with

448 rectangular faces was constructed around the cell with its corner points defined by the extremes

449 of the cell's vertices. Heights of the cell (dashed lines) were sampled at regularly spaced

450 horizontal locations throughout the box, and points that were completely outside the cell (dotted

451 lines) were counted as having a height of zero. The average of all sampled heights was then

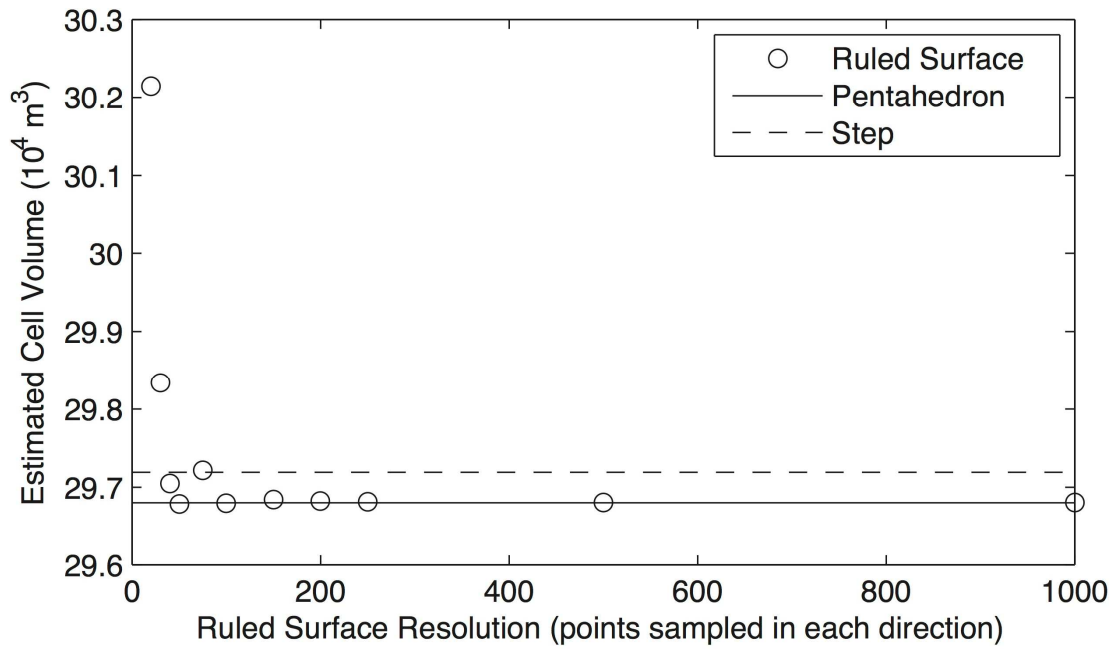
452 multiplied by the area ( $A''$ ) of the rectangular box's horizontal face to give the volume estimate.

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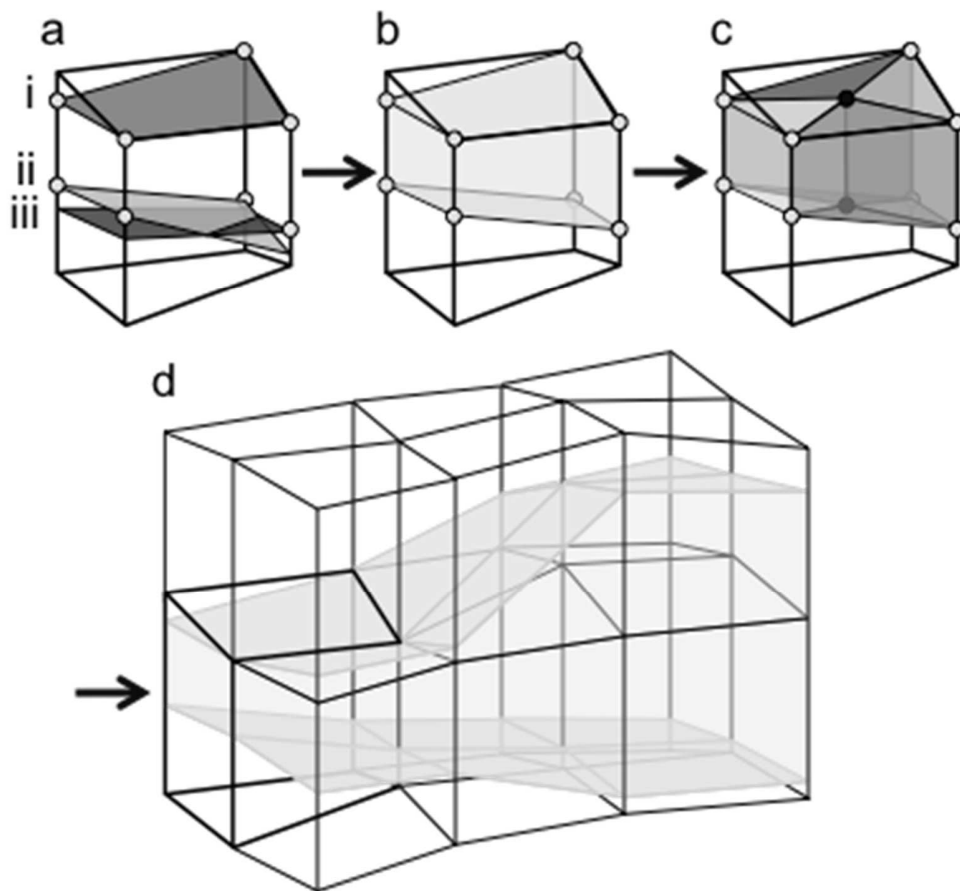
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459 Figure 5. The volume of a sample grid cell calculated using the Ruled Surface method with  
460 increasing numerical resolution (the number of points sampled in both the  $x$  and  $y$  directions),  
461 compared with the volume calculated using the Pentahedron and Step methods. As the number of  
462  $x$ - $y$  points used for the Ruled Surface method increased, the Ruled Surface solution converged  
463 with the Pentahedron solution.

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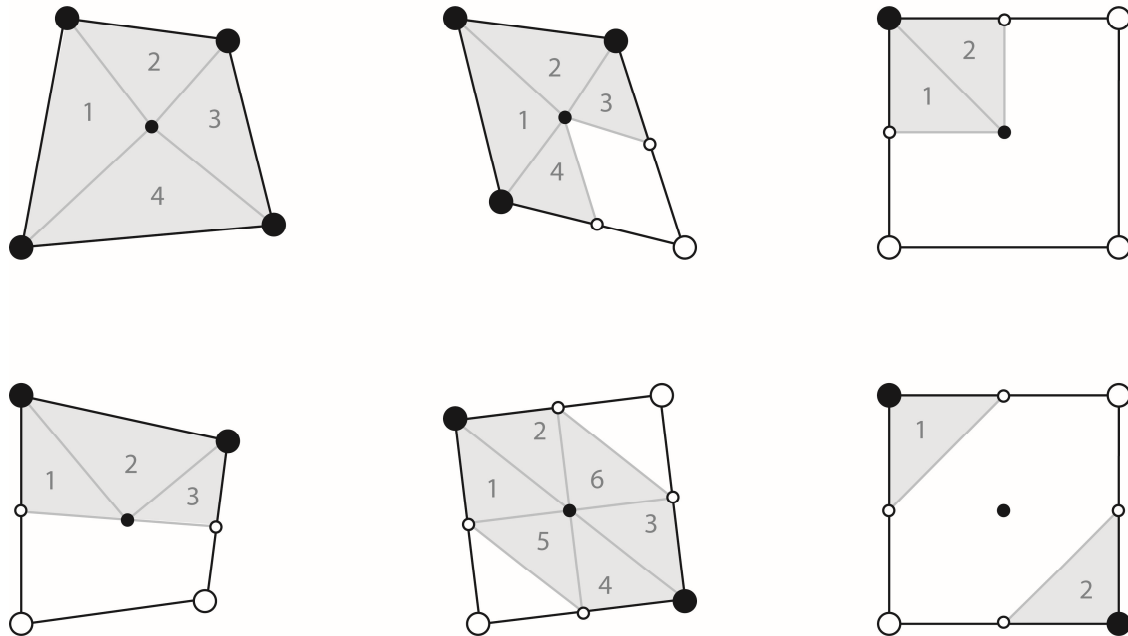




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466 Figure 6. Conceptual schematic of habitat volume calculation based on multiple physiological  
 467 constraints. a) Linear interpolation in the vertical was used to find an upper boundary for salinity  
 468 (i), lower boundary for dissolved oxygen (ii), and lower boundary for temperature (iii) based on  
 469 a species' tolerances. b) The most constraining boundary points were chosen (gray circles) to  
 470 define the suitable habitat in the grid cell. c) The suitable habitat region was divided into four  
 471 pentahedrons, according to the Pentahedron method, and its volume was calculated as the sum of  
 472 the volumes of the pentahedrons. d) The process was repeated for every grid cell in the model,  
 473 and the volumes were summed to calculate the model-wide habitat volume.

- Favorable habitat
- Land or unfavorable habitat
- Mean location of all four nodes
- Mean location of two adjacent nodes



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477 Figure 7. Diagram of the application of the Pentahedron method for calculating volume (gray  
 478 areas) based on rho nodes (large circles at quadrilateral corners) from an Arakawa C-grid. Six  
 479 cases are represented: when all rho nodes were water (large black circles) and favorable habitat  
 480 was defined at all four nodes (upper left quadrilateral) and special cases near the land boundaries  
 481 or when suitable habitat did not exist at all nodes (large white circles in the remaining cases).

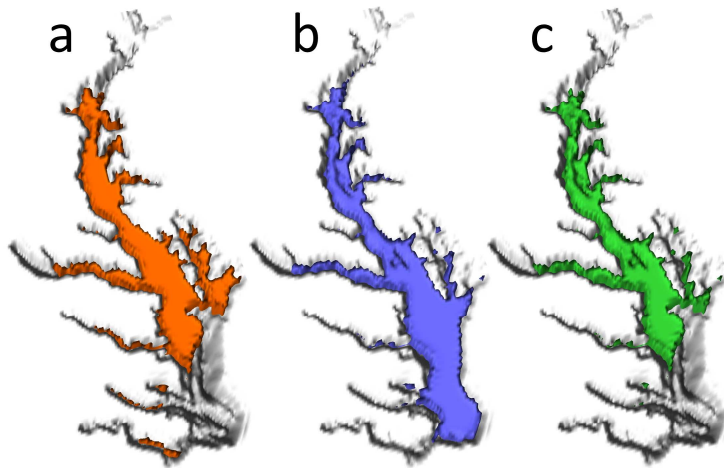
482 Numbered triangles inside each quadrilateral indicate the areas in which the Pentahedron method  
 483 was applied to calculate the volume in that water column. Small white circles indicate half the  
 484 distance between the rho nodes.

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493 Figure 8. Example predictions of optimal habitat from the Habitat Volume Model using the  
494 Pentahedron method. Each panel depicts the location of optimal habitat for juvenile striped bass  
495 (*Morone saxatilis*) on August 15, 1996 based on the physiological tolerance thresholds for a)  
496 salinity (orange), b) temperature (blue) and c) combined salinity and temperature (green). The  
497 salinity and temperature thresholds were set to 1–15 and 24–27 °C, respectively, based on a  
498 literature review in Schlenger (2012).

499