On the vulneravility of food webs to multiple stressors

David Beauchesne^{1,2,*}, Kevin Cazelles³, Philippe Archambault², Dominique

```
Gravel^4
4
   <sup>1</sup>Institut des sciences de la mer, Université du Québec à Rimouski, Rimouski, QC, Canada
   <sup>2</sup>Québec Océan, Département de biologie, Université Laval, Québec, QC, Canada
   <sup>3</sup>Department of Integrative Biology, University Of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario, Canada N1G
   <sup>4</sup>Département de biologie, Université de Sherbrooke, Sherbrooke, QC, Canada
10
   Running title:
11
12
   Keywords:
13
   Type of article: Ideas and Perspectives
16
   Abstract word count:
   Main text word count:
   Number of references:
   Number of figures:
   Number of tables:
   Number of text boxes:
23
   Correspondence:
   David Beauchesne
   david.beauchesne@ugar.ca
   1-514-553-4975
28
   Statement of authorship:
29
30
```

Data accessibility statement:

2

32 Proposal letter

33 Instructions

Unsolicited proposals, which will be evaluated by the Ideas and Perspectives or Reviews and Syntheses Editors, in consultation with the Editorial Board and Editor-in-Chief, prior to a full submission. Proposals should be no more than 300 words long, describe the nature and novelty of the work, the contribution of the proposed article to the discipline, and the qualifications of the author(s) who will write the manuscript. Proposals should be sent to the Editorial Office (ecolets@cefe.cnrs.fr).

Notes \mathbf{Notes}

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

42

43

45

- In it's current form, I believe that the contribution portion is not good enough
- I wonder whether the qualifications should be more in depth.
 - Right now, the letter is 43 words over the word limit.
 - Also, this text might be better than the current abstract

46 Letter

Evaluating the effects of multiple sources of stress in natural environments has become an increasingly important issue as the effects of intensifying global change and expanding human activities result in complex stress exposure regimes. Even though the non-additive effects of multiple stressors have been investigated empirically for a few decades now, there remains a general lack of theoretical understanding of their impacts on natural systems. 51 In particular, the role of species and their interactions in mediating the effects of multiple disturbances through ecological eommunities networks, although widely acknowledged, has yet to be formally explored. We propose the first such formal exploration by exhaustively simulating the impacts of all possible pathways of effects on the dynamics of 3-species mo-55 tifs using Lotka-Volterra models. We uncover that interaction types and species position greatly influence sensitivity to and amplification of multiple disturbances and that indirect 57 pathways of effects are the main cause of non-additive effects. In particular, predators in food chain and omnivory interactions act as both weak entry points (i.e. highly sensitive to 59 disturbances) and biotic amplifiers (i.e. affected synergistically by disturbances). We then use the simulated sensitivity and amplification scores as heuristics to infer trophic vulnera-61 bility of species based on topology and realized pathways of effects in the food web of the Northern Gulf of St. Lawrence, Canada, prior to a groundfish stock collapse in the 1990s. We find that heavily exploited species appear to be the most vulnerable trophically, while fisheries transitioned to insensitive or beneficiary species post-collapse. This contribution is significant and timely for two main reasons. First, from a theory stand point, this is the first exhaustive exploration of mitigation and amplification of multiple disturbances via trophic motifs. Second, we provide a clear link between theory and management by illustrating how

- our framework can be applied to detect most sensitive species in a real food web exposed to various stressors. Our group of co-authors is singularly positioned to write this paper.
- D. Beauchesne and P. Archambault both have strong backgrounds in environmental assess-
- ments in general and cumulative impacts in particular. K. Cazelles and D. Gravel are both
- experts in theoretical ecology with strong backgrounds and recognition in the field.

4 1 Abstract

Evaluating the effects of multiple sources of stress in natural environments has become an increasingly important issue as the effects of intensifying global change and expanding human activities result in complex stress exposure regimes. Even though the non-additive effects of multiple stressors have been investigated empirically for a few decades now, there remains a general lack of theoretical understanding of their impacts on natural systems. In particular, the role of species and their interactions in mediating the effects of multiple disturbances through ecological communities, although widely acknowledged, has yet to be formally explored. We propose the first such formal exploration by exhaustively simulating trophic impacts through all possible pathways of effects on the dynamics of 3-species motifs using 83 Lotka-Volterra models. We uncover that interaction types and species position greatly influence sensitivity to and amplification of multiple disturbances and that indirect pathways of 85 effects are the main source of non-additive effects. In particular, predators in food chain and 86 omnivory interactions act as both weak entry points (i.e. highly sensitive to disturbances) 87 and biotic amplifiers (i.e. affected synergistically by disturbances). We then use the simulations results as heuristics to infer trophic vulnerability of species based on topology and realized pathways of effects in the food web of the Northern Gulf of St. Lawrence, Canada, prior to a groundfish stock collapse in the 1990s. We find that heavily exploited species appear to be the most vulnerable trophically, while fisheries transitioned to insensitive or beneficiary species post-collapse.

⁹⁴ 2 Introduction

110

Ecosystems worldwide are increasingly affected by a vast array of environmental pressures, commonly referred to as stressors (Boonstra et al. 2015; Halpern et al. 2019). Pressures may be driven by natural or human-induced biophysical processes such as ocean acidification and warming, or directly from anthropogenic activities such as fisheries. These drivers can be defined as any externality that affects environmental processes and disturbs natural systems. Individually, drivers have been found to impact all levels of biological organization and cause dramatic changes to whole ecosystems. Ocean acidification can reduce coral and mollusk 101 calcification, metabolic, growth and mortality rates, and has been linked to altered carbon 102 fluxes in ecological networks (Fabry et al. 2008; Kroeker et al. 2013; Bove et al. 2019). 103 Fisheries have caused the collapse of commercial species, decreased the mean trophic level in coastal and oceanic environments by targetting large predators and impaired a variety of 105 essential ecosystem services (Pauly et al. 1998; Myers & Worm 2003; Worm et al. 2006). 106 Rarely do drivers occur individually, and the list of potentially interacting drivers affecting an 107 ecosystem at any given point in time or space can be extensive (Halpern et al. 2019). Global 108 changes and local human activities thus result in increasingly intricate environmental stress exposure regimes, compounding the pathways of effects through which natural systems can be 110 impacted (Halpern et al. 2019). For example, coral reefs contend with a suite of pressures including fishing, warming temperatures, ocean acidification and water quality that may 112 impact species in contrasting ways (McClanahan et al. 2014; Harborne et al. 2017). Drivers 113 can then combine to induce complex and sometimes unpredictable effects (Côté et al. 2016). 114 Dramatic examples include up to 100-fold increases of the sensitivity of certain organisms 115 to toxicants (e.q. pesticides) when exposed to other environmental stressors (e.q. parasites; 116 Liess et al. 2016) and the reversal of the positive effects of acidification on primary producer 117 biomass by warmer waters in boreal lakes (Christensen et al. 2006). 118

The potential for complex interactions between drivers remains the largest uncertainty when

studying or predicting environmental impacts (Darling & Côté 2008; Côté et al. 2016).

Interactive drivers effects have thus been extensively investigated to uncover instances of
non-additive effects, i.e. when the effect of multiple interacting drivers is greater (synergism)
or lower (antagonism) than the sum of their individual parts. These studies have found nonadditive effects of multiple drivers to be the norm rather than the exception across ecosystems
globally (e.g. Darling & Côté 2008; Crain et al. 2008; Piggott et al. 2015; Jackson et al.
2016).

Species sensitivity to environmental pressures can be highly variable, which further com-127 pounds the complexity of multiple drivers studies. For example, hypoxia decreases overall 128 habitat quality but has species-dependent effects, ranging from well-adapted (e.g. north-129 ern shrimp Pandalus borealis and Greenland halibut Reinhardtius hippoglossoides; Pillet et 130 al. 2016) to avoidance behaviour (e.g. Atlantic cod Gadus morhua; Chabot & Claireaux 131 2008), and mortality (e.g. sessile benthic invertebrates; Eby et al. 2005; Belley et al. 2010). Species are also embedded in a complex web of interactions that provides indirect pathways 133 of effects through which pressures may permeate entire ecological communities (Wootton 2002; Bascompte 2009; Montoya et al. 2009; O'Gorman & Emmerson 2009; O'Gorman et 135 al. 2012). Indirect effects, i.e. when two or more direct effects are linked by a single species 136 involved in both effects, may be as important of, and propagate faster than, direct effects 137 (Wootton 1993, 2002; Menge 1995; Yodzis 2000). Empirical examples of trophic cascades are 138 abundant throughout all types of ecosystems globally (Estes et al. 2011). In multi-species 139 systems, where both direct and indirect effects are operating simultaneously, it is expected 140 that the effects of environmental pressures will be amplified or dampened through biotic 141 interactions (Ives 1995; Wootton 2002; Thompson et al. 2018). Community dynamics and 142 how species are embedded in complex networks is therefore likely to affect their sensitivity 143 to environmental pressures. 144

Confronted with the challenge of managing and preserving complex systems, there is an urgent need for the development of theoretical frameworks that properly consider the com-

plexities of multiple drivers and ecological networks in ways that are informative to management. From a practical standpoint, single-driver and single-species assessments reamin 148 overwhelmingly applied (O'Brien et al. 2019), while most multiple drivers studies have typ-149 ically focused on habitats (e.g. Ban et al. 2010; Halpern et al. 2019). This conveniently 150 circumscribes assessments to a set of tractable units, but it also ignores systems complexity 151 and aggregates biological processes operating at lower levels organization (Halpern & Fujita 152 2013; Giakoumi et al. 2015). Studies have also relied on the use of null models that provide 153 little insights into the mechanisms underlying ecological responses to the effects of multi-154 ple drivers (Griffen et al. 2016; Jackson et al. 2016; De Laender 2018; Schäfer & Piggott 155 2018). Theoretically, species interactions have long been identified as key components to the 156 sensitivity of whole networks to disturbances (e.g. Ives 1995; Wootton 2002; O'Gorman & 157 Emmerson 2009; O'Gorman et al. 2012), but the effects of multiple disturbances on networks 158 have yet to be formally explored. 159

In this paper, we address this issue by exhaustively investigating how multiple environmental 160 pressures permeate complex ecological networks and the role of species and their interactions 161 (i.e. food web topology) in buffering against or amplifying the effects of disturbances. In 162 doing so, we seek to answer questions of particular significance to management: 1) should 163 species interactions be considered in impact assessments, 2) should the effects of stressors be 164 evaluated separately or in combination, 3) which species are most vulnerable to disturbances 165 based on their trophic position, and 4) what types of pathways of effect most influences 166 species vulnerability? 167

3 Of food web and multiple disturbances 168

Conceptulizing disturbances 3.1

186

Drivers can disturb the dynamics of ecological communities by disrupting a variety of bi-170 ological processes (Figure 1A) such as behaviour (e.q. Chabot & Claireaux 2008; Hale et 171 al. 2017), reproduction [e.g. ref], physiology (e.g. Dupont-Prinet et al. 2013), mortality 172 (e.g. Belley et al. 2010), and species interactions (e.g. Wootton 2002; Guiden et al. 2019). 173 Multiple processes may be affected by a single driver, while multiple drivers may target a 174 single process. For instance, fishing could affect the behaviour and the mortality of cod, 175 while hypoxia and ocean acidification may affect the physiology of benthic invertebrates. 176 The potential number of univariate and multivariate pathways of effects through which com-177 munity dynamics may be affected is extensive and increases exponentially with the number 178 of species and the number on links in a network. 179 A thorough understanding of the impacts of disturbance regimes and community dynamics would be necessary to fully capture the effects of multiple drivers, but the complexity of 181 empirical food webs in itself is prohibitive to investigations of community dynamics. Studying 182 smaller subgraphs - community motifs or modules - has thus emerged as an alternative to 183

gather insights into the dynamics and stability of complex ecological communities (Holt 184 1997; Holt & Hochberg 2001). Motifs are collections of n-species that, when put together, 185 construct whole food webs (Milo et al. 2002; Stouffer et al. 2007). They form the backbone

of food webs and provide a mesoscale characterization of community structure (Bascompte 187

& Melián 2005; Stouffer et al. 2007). A species can be described as a function of all n-species 188

motifs it is involved in in an empirical food web (Figure 1B; Stouffer et al. 2012). 189

There are 13 distinct 3-species motifs composed of 30 unique positions (Milo et al. 2002; Stouffer et al. 2007, 2012). Four 3-species motifs have received particular attention in theoretical and empirical studies due to their roles [ref] and prevalence (Camacho et al. 2007; Stouffer & Bascompte 2010) in food webs: tri-trophic food chain, omnivory or intraguild predation, exploitative competition and apparent competition.

Motif dynamics has been studied extensively to uncover how structural properties of food 195 webs can benefit community persistence and stability (Allesina & Pascual 2008; Kondoh 196 2008; Stouffer & Bascompte 2010, 2011; Monteiro & Faria 2016) and to assess the structural 197 roles of species within food webs (Stouffer et al. 2012; Cirtwill & Stouffer 2015). These 198 provide meaningful insights for conversation efforts. For example, results from Stouffer et 199 al. (2012) suggest that species benefit whole community persistence based on their trophic 200 position and that the diversity of trophic roles found in empirical food webs does not correlate 201 to species richness. Using roles as targets may thus be valuable for community conservation 202 (Stouffer et al. 2012). Additional insights into the structural properties of food webs could 203 be gathered by studying motifs at equilibrium, i.e. when system dynamics is constrained by species coexistance (Figure 1C). This is of particular relevance to managers using ecosystem-205 based approaches to manage and maintain exploited populations. 206

Here, we study the equilibrium dynamics of the most prevalent 3-species motifs in food webs (*i.e.* food chain, omnivory, exploitative competition, and apparent competition) to exhaustively investigate how trophic position and interaction type influences the sensitivity to and the amplification of the effects of multiple disturbances. We then use the simulations to infer species trophic vulnerability in complex food webs as a function of species position in food web and realised pathways of effects.

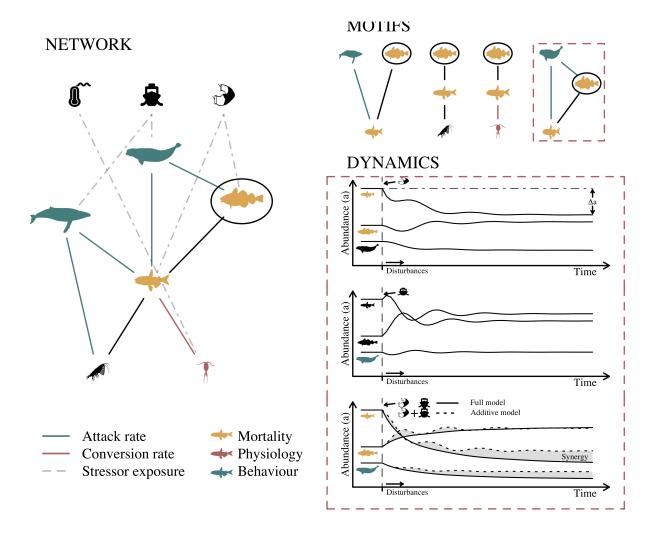


Figure 1: Conceptualization of the effects of multiple sources of environmental stress on the dynamics of a theoretical food web. A) Drivers such as sea surface temperature, marine traffic and fisheries penetrate food webs through various pathways of effects by disturbing ecological processes governing populations and communities. For instance, marine traffic disturbs whale feeding behaviour, which may lead to decreased attack rates on prey species. B) A species position in a food web can be decomposed in a suite of n-species submodules called motifs that are informative of the role played by a species in the entire food web. Different types of interaction types will lead to different types of community dynamics and a species can be described as a function of the number and types of interactions it is involved in. For instance, the interactions of the meso-predator can be decomposed into 1 exploitative competition, 2 food chains and 1 omnivory motifs. C) The dynamics of motifs can uncover if and how disturbances arising from individual and multiple drivers are propagated and amplified through different types of species interactions. Variations in species abundance due to driver induced disturbances provide an evaluation of motif species sensitivity (C1-3). The difference between the summed effects of individual drivers (i.e. additive model; C1-2) and the joint effects of multiple drivers (i.e. full model; C3) provides an evaluation of disturbance amplification.

3.2 Sumulating disturbances

3.2.1 Models formulation

The dynamics of tri-trophic food chain, omnivory, exploitative and apparent competition motifs were modeled using Lotka-Volterra equation systems (Table S1). Two additional motifs were included as controls to test the importance of species interactions in mediating the effects of disturbances, *i.e.* a partially connected motifs with a disconnected species and a predator-prey interaction, and a fully disconnected motif with three fully independent species.

Resources were modeled using logistic growth equations of the form

$$\frac{dX_i}{dt} = X_i(r_i - \alpha_{ii}X_i - \sum \alpha_{ij}X_j)$$

222 ,

where X are species, i is the resource, j are the consumers, r_i is the intrinsic resource growth rate, α_{ii} is the density-dependent effect of the resource on itself and α_{ij} is the rate at which consumer j affects resource i, i.e. the attack rate.

226 Consumers were modeled using a Type I functional response of the form

$$\frac{dX_j}{dt} = X_j(-m_j + \sum_{i \neq j} e_{ij}\alpha_{ij}X_i - \alpha_{jk}X_k)$$

227

where m is the mortality rate and e is the rate at which resource biomass is transformed into consumer biomass, i.e. the conversion rate, and is a scaling parameter of the attack rate which cannot exceed 1.

Models were solved at equilibrium to study the effects of disturbances on persistent motif dynamics. As no equilibrium exists for the exploitative competition motif with Lotka-Volterra 233 models of the selected forms, competitive parameters of the form

$$\alpha_{jj}\alpha_{jk}X_jX_k - \alpha_{jj}X_j^2$$

were included to the consumer models to constrain growth and limit competitive exclusion.

3.2.2 Models parameterization

Initial parameter values for intrinsic growth (r) and resource density-dependence (α_{ii}) were fixed to 1 and 0.001, respectively, to bound all resource solutions. Competitive parameters for the exploitative competition motif were also fixed at 0.001. Conversion rates (e) were fixed to 0.5. A total of 100 sets of mortality (m) and attack rates (α_{ij}) were evaluated using a simulated annealing algorithm optimizing for consumer abundance.

For each motif, a 1% change in initial equilibria equation parameter values was applied

241 3.2.3 Disturbances

242

to simulate negative disturbances (e.g. an increase in mortality). Parameters selected to simulate disturbances were those related to population growth (r and m) and conversion and attack rates (e and α_{ij}). Those parameters were used as they can be linked to disturbance 245 effects on common biological processes affected by disturbances, i.e. mortality, physiology 246 and behaviour. 247 For each motif, all possible mortality, resource growth, conversion and attack rates parameter 248 combinations were simulated. This resulted in a total of 930 unique pathways of effects 249 for all motifs combined (food chain, competitive exploitation and apparent competition: 250 7 parameters, 127 pathways of effects; omnivory: 9 parameters, 511 pathways of effects; 251 partially connected 5 parameters, 31 pathways of effects; disconnected: 3 parameters, 7 252 pathways of effects). 253

54 3.3 Trophic sensitivity

For all 13 unique motif positions considered and all unique pathways of effects, the variation in abundance between the 100 sets of initial conditions and disturbed conditions was used as a proxy of trophic sensitivity $(s_{i,j})$ to disturbances:

$$s_{i,j} = \frac{a_{i,j} - a_i}{a_i}$$

where i is a motif position, j is a unique pathway of effect, a_i is the initial abundance at position i, and $a_{i,j}$ is the abundance at position i due to pathway of effect j. Sensitivity score are bounded negatively to -1, as abundances cannot fall below 0. The sensitivity score used for a single pathway of effect $(S_{i,j})$ is the mean of the 100 simulations using all initial conditions:

$$S_{i,j} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{l=1}^{n} s_{i,j}$$

Overall position sensitivity (S_i) was evaluated using the mean of the set of all possible pathways of effect (K^i) for a given position i:

$$S_i = \frac{1}{|K^i|} \sum_{i \in K^i} S_{i,j}$$

We define weak entry points as particularly sensitive pathways of effect $(|S_{i,j}| > 1)$ or motif positions $(|S_i| > 1)$, while biotic sinks are insensitive pathways of effects $(|S_{i,j}| = 0)$ or motif positions $(|S_i| = 0)$.

3.4 Trophic amplification

A score of trophic amplification $(A_{i,j})$ was measured to evaluate non-additive arising through trophic pathways of effects:

$$A_{i,j} = S_{i,K_j} - \sum_{k_j \in K_j} S_{i,j}$$

where K_j is a multivariate pathway of effect j and k_j are unitary pathways of effect composition j. The amplification score evaluates the deviance of a multivariate pathway of effect and the sum of the univariate effects composing the pathway of effect, i.e. the additive model. Thus, a value of 0 identifies a null of additive effect, a value below 0 identifies an antagonistic effect, and a value over 0 identifies synergistic effects.

A score of position amplification (A_i) was evaluated using the mean of the set of all possible pathways of effect (K^i) for a give position i:

$$A_i = \frac{1}{|K^i|} \sum_{j \in K^i} A_{i,j}$$

We define biotic amplifiers as multivariate pathways of effect or motif positions that are more affected than expected from an additive model $(A_{i,j} > 0.0002, A_i > 0.0002)$. Biotic buffers are multivariate pathways of effect or motif positions that are less affected than expected from an additive model $(A_{i,j} < 0.0002, A_i < 0.0002)$.

3.5 Species vulnerability

We define species vulnerability as the combination of trophic sensitivity and trophic amplification, as described in the methodology. Two sets of scores are used at the species level. The first requires no information on realised pathways of effect and provides a topological evaluation of a species trophic sensitivity and trophic amplification potential based on the 287 frequency of times it occupies a position in a food web:

$$S_m = \sum_i f_m i S_i$$

$$A_m = \sum_i f_m i A_i$$

where S_m and A_m are the sensitivity and amplification scores of species m, respectively, $f_m i$ is the frequency at which species m occupies position i in a food web, and S_i and A_i are the sensitivity amplification scores at position i, respectively.

The second set of scores at the species level uses a list of realised pathways of effect:

$$S_m = \sum_{j \in K^{i*}}^{position} S_{i,j}$$

$$A_m = \sum_{j \in K^{i*}}^{position} A_{i,j}$$

where S_m and A_m are the sensitivity and amplification scores of species m, respectively, jare pathways of effect, K^{i*} is the set of realised pathways of effects for position i, and $S_{i,j}$ and $A_{i,j}$ are the sensitivity and amplification scores for pathway of effect j on position iWe evaluate the trophic sensitivity and amplification for the functional groups and species
found in an empirical food web for the Northern Gulf of St. Lawrence, in Eastern Canada,
prior to a groundfish stock collapse in the early 1990s (Morissette $et\ al.\ 2003$).

298 Describe how driver effects on biological processes were identified.

Explain here that this evaluation is not one of the vulnerability of species from
their biological perspective, but rather their vulnerability based on the types of
drivers in the system and their trophic position

302 4 Results

3 4.1 Motifs vulnerability

The simulations uncover, as anticipated, that interaction motifs (i.e. food chain, omnivory, 304 exploitative and apparent competition) are more sensitive and more likely to amplify the 305 effects of multiples disturbances than control motifs (Figures 2, 4). Species in omnivory and 306 food chain motifs are generally more sensitive and likely to amplify the effects of disturbances 307 than species in competitive interaction motifs (Figures 2, 4). 308 Biotic sinks are composed almost exclusively of pathways targeting control motif positions 309 (Figure 2) and simulations on control motifs largely result in additive affects (Figure 4). 310 Weak entry points, biotic buffers and biotic amplifiers, meanwhile, are prevalent for all 311 interaction motifs (Figures 2, 4). This is particularly true for species in the omnivory motif 312 and for the top predator in the food chain motif, whose trophic sensitivity and amplification 313 scores are highly variable (Figures 2, 4). 314 Species position also greatly influences trophic sensitivity to and amplification of distur-315 bances. In general, top predators are weak entry points for all interaction types (Figure 2). 316 In contrast, non-additive effects on top predators depends on interaction type. Pathways of 317 effect on top predators in omnivory and food chain interactions largely result in synergistic or 318 antagonistic effects, and predators are, on average, biotic amplifiers (Figure {amplification). 319 Predators in competitive interactions, meanwhile, are less affected by non-additive effects 320 and are fringe biotic buffers (Figure {amplification). 321 Resources are largely weak entry points for all motifs, yet the effect are typically negative in food chain and omnivory interactions, and positive in competitive interactions (Figure 2). Altough resources are, on average, neither biotic buffers or amplifiers, the effects of individual 324 pathways of effects are mostly non-additive (Figure 4). The effects of disturbances through 325

the other interactions are mostly additive. (Figure 4).

326

Meso-predators, which are found only in omnivory and food chain interactions, are weak
entry points and benefit from disturbances in general (Figure 2). Meso-predators in omnivory
interactions are, on average, fringe biotic buffers, but like all other positions in the omnivory
motif, most individual pathways of effect result in either antagonistic or synergistic effects
Figure 4).

The nature of the pathways of effects also influences trophic sensitivity and amplification.
Unsurprisingly, multivariate pathways of effects are generally more impactful to species sen-

Unsurprisingly, multivariate pathways of effects are generally more impactful to species sensitivity and hold a higher proportion of weak entry points than univariate pathways (Figure
2). Similarly, targeting multiple biological processes and combining direct and indirect effects will always result in greater sensitivity and amplification (Figure 3). There are however
a few generalities worth noting. Mortality and growth rates are driving heightened trophic
sensitivities, yet do not individually contribute to non-additive effects (Figure 4). Trophic
amplification is rather driven by attack and conversion rates (Figure 4). Most strikingly,
indirect effects are more impactful to both trophic sensitivity and amplification (Figure 4),
with direct effects largely resulting in additive impacts (Figure 4).

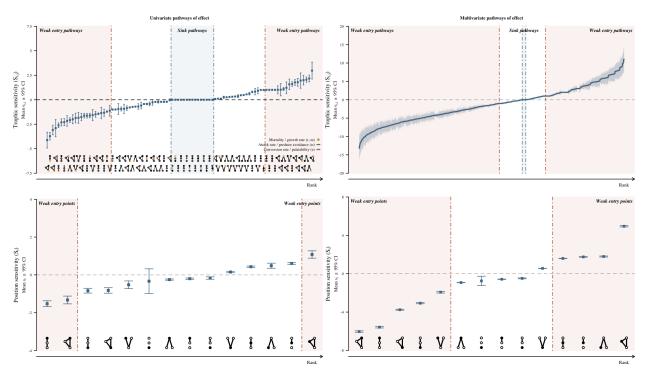


Figure 2: Ranking of all univariate and multivariate pathways of effect as a function of trophic (A,B) and position (C,D) sensitivity. Pathways and motif positions identified as weak entry points (*i.e.* highly sensitive to disturbances) and biotic sinks (*i.e.* insensitive to disturbances) are identified by the red and blue regions, respectively.

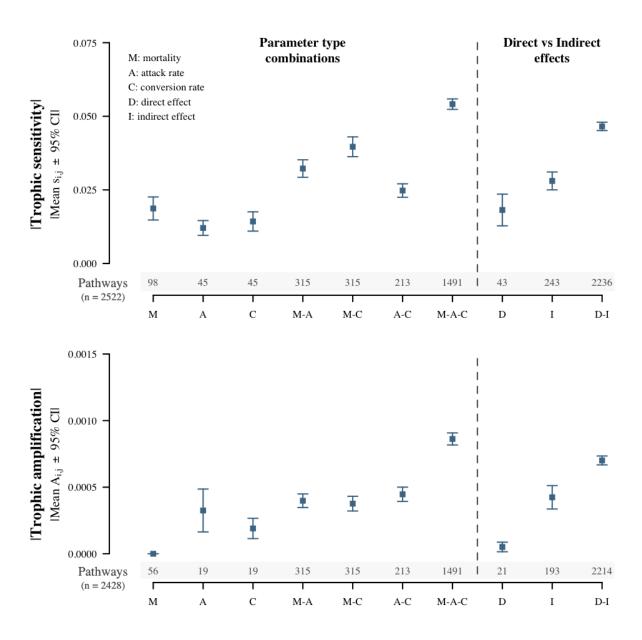


Figure 3: Absolute values of the mean trophic sensitivity (A) and amplification (B) as a function of disturbed parameter type and direct or indirect effects. All pathways of effect targetting a specific parameter type (i.e. mortality, attack and conversion rates) were grouped to evaluate their respective and combined effect on trophic sensitivity and amplification. Direct and indirect pathways of effect were similarly grouped. A direct or indirect pathway of effect on a motif position is any pathway that directly or indirectly involves a species, respectively. For example, the conversion rate of a resource by a predator in competitive exploitation is a direct pathway of effect for both the resource and the predator, and an indirect pathway of effect for the second predator involved in the interaction.

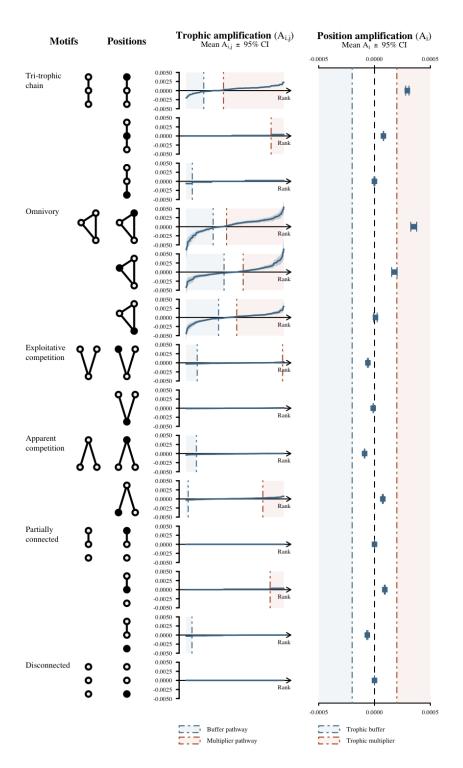


Figure 4: Ranking of all multivariate pathways of effect as a function of trophic and position amplification, for each motif position. Pathways and motif positions identified as biotic buffers (*i.e.* affected synergistically by disturbances) and biotic buffers (*i.e.* affected antagonistically by disturbances) are identified by the red and blue regions, respectively.

2 4.2 Network-scale vulnerability

Using the most common environmental pressures in the Northern Gulf of St. Lawrence with the topology of a food web from the mid-1980s to identify realised pathways of effect between all 3-species combinations, and their simulated scores as heuristics, we ranked species and functional groups as a function of their overall trophic sensitivity and amplification.

We find that sensitivity and amplification scores do not co-vary (Figure 5). We also find
that species targeted by multiple drivers are not necessarily the most vulnerable based on
their trophic position. For example, even though the mortality, physiology and behaviour
of shrimp were expected to be impacted by drivers, it is nonetheless insensitive based on
its trophic position (Figure 5). Similarly, species impacted by few drivers like sea birds, or
no drivers at all like seals, may nonetheless be highly vulnerable due to its trophic position
(Figure 5).

Large demersal predators, sea birds and seals are mostly weak entry points and biotic amplifiers (Figure 5). Prey species and large crustaceans appear to benefit from disturbances and may act as positive weak entry points in the St. Lawrence (Figure 5). Invertebrates in general and species like shrimp and redfish appear largely insensitive to disturbances (Figure 5).

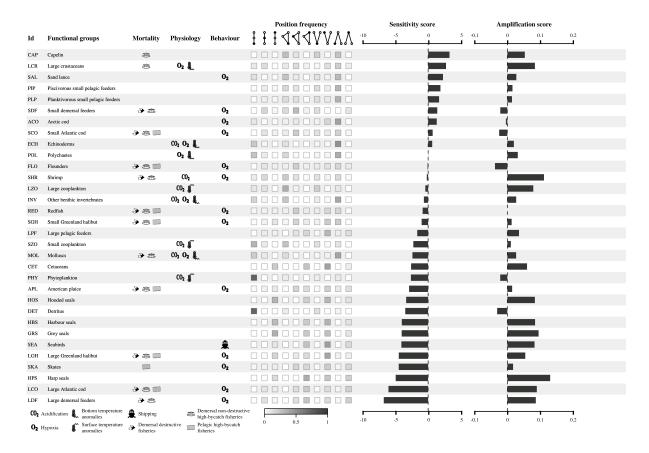


Figure 5: Change in species and functional groups sensitivity and amplification scores as a function of realised pathways of effects for an empirical food web of the Northern Gulf of St. Lawrence in the mid-1980s [?]. The left-hand side of the table presents the species and functional groups, the drivers supposed to be affecting population level mortality, physiology and behaviour, and the frequency at which they are found in each unique position of the food chain, omnivory, exploitative and apparent competition motifs. Important drivers in the Northern Gulf of St. Lawrence are fisheries (i.e. demersal destructive, demersal nondestructive high-bycatch and pelagic high-bycatch), climate change (i.e. ocean acidification, hypoxia and bottom and surface temperature anomalies), and shipping [?]. Species position and driver effects on biological processes were used to identify realised pathways of effects between all 3-species combinations in the food web. The right-hand side of the table presents the species sensitivity and amplification scores, which corresponds to the sum of the simulated effects of all realised pathways of effects for each species and functional group (Figures 2, 4). Negative and positive sensitivity scores mean that overall pathways affecting a species have negative or positive effects, respectively. The species with the most negative and positive scores are weak entry points (i.e. highly sensitive to disturbances), while species with null scores are biotic sinks (i.e. insensitive to disturbances) Similarly, negative and positive amplification scores mean that overall pathways affecting a species result in antagonistic or synergistic effects, respectively. Species with negative or positive scores are thus biotic buffers and biotic amplifiers, respectively.

- 5 What it all means
- ³⁶⁰ 6 The way forward

⁶¹ 7 Supplementary Material

7.1 Models

Motifs	Equation systems	Initial parameters values
Tri-trophic food chain	$ \frac{\frac{dX_i}{dt}}{\frac{dX_j}{dt}} = X_i(r_i - \alpha_{ii}X_i - \alpha_{ij}X_j) $ $ \frac{\frac{dX_j}{dt}}{\frac{dX_j}{dt}} = X_j(e_{ij}\alpha_{ij}X_i - \alpha_{jk}X_k - m_j) $ $ \frac{dX_k}{dt} = X_k(e_{jk}\alpha_{jk}X_j - m_k) $	$r_{i} = 1$ $\alpha_{ii} = 0.001$ $\alpha_{ij}, \alpha_{jk} \in [0.0001, 0.01]$ $e_{ij}, e_{jk} = 0.5$ $m_{j}, m_{k} \in [0.01, 0.5]$
Omnivory	$ \frac{dX_i}{dt} = X_i(r_i - \alpha_{ii} - \alpha_{ij}X_j - \alpha_{ik}X_k) $ $ \frac{dX_j}{dt} = X_j(e_{ij}\alpha_{ij}X_i - \alpha_{jk}X_k - m_j) $ $ \frac{dX_k}{dt} = X_k(e_{ik}\alpha_{ik}X_i + e_{jk}\alpha_{jk}X_j - m_k) $	$r_{i} = 1$ $\alpha_{ii} = 0.001$ $\alpha_{ij}, \alpha_{ik}, \alpha_{jk} \in [0.0001, 0.01]$ $e_{ij}, e_{ik}, e_{jk} = 0.5$ $m_{j}, m_{k} \in [0.01, 0.5]$
Exploitative competition	$\frac{\frac{dX_i}{dt}}{\frac{dX_j}{dt}} = X_i(r_i - \alpha_{ii} - \alpha_{ij}X_j - \alpha_{ik}X_k)$ $\frac{\frac{dX_j}{dt}}{\frac{dX_k}{dt}} = X_j(e_{ij}\alpha_{ij}X_i - \alpha_{jj}\alpha_{jk}X_k - \alpha_{jj}X_j - m_j)$ $\frac{dX_k}{dt} = X_k(e_{ik}\alpha_{ik}X_i - \alpha_{kk}\alpha_{kj}X_j - \alpha_{kk}X_k - m_k)$	$r_{i} = 1$ $\alpha_{ii}, \alpha_{jj}, \alpha_{kk}, \alpha_{jk}, \alpha_{kj} = 0.001$ $\alpha_{ij}, \alpha_{ik}, \in [0.0001, 0.01]$ $e_{ij}, e_{ik} = 0.5$ $m_{j}, m_{k} \in [0.01, 0.5]$
Apparent competition	$ \frac{dX_i}{dt} = X_i(r_i - \alpha_{ii}X_i - \alpha_{ik}X_k) $ $ \frac{dX_j}{dt} = X_j(r_j - \alpha_{jj}X_j - \alpha_{jk}X_k) $ $ \frac{dX_k}{dt} = X_k(e_{ik}\alpha_{ik}X_i + e_{jk}\alpha_{jk}X_j - m_k) $	$r_{i}, r_{j} = 1$ $\alpha_{ii}, \alpha_{jj} = 0.001$ $\alpha_{ik}, \alpha_{jk} \in [0.0001, 0.01]$ $e_{ik}, e_{jk} = 0.5$ $m_{k} \in [0.01, 0.5]$
Partially disconnected	$ \frac{\frac{dX_i}{dt}}{\frac{dX_j}{dt}} = X_i(r_i - \alpha_{ii}X_i - \alpha_{ik}X_k) $ $ \frac{\frac{dX_j}{dt}}{\frac{dX_k}{dt}} = X_j(r_j - \alpha_{jj}X_j) $ $ \frac{dX_k}{dt} = X_k(e_{ik}\alpha_{ik}X_i - m_k) $	$r_{i}, r_{j} = 1$ $\alpha_{ii}, \alpha_{jj} = 0.001$ $\alpha_{ik} \in [0.0001, 0.01]$ $e_{ik} = 0.5$ $m_{k} \in [0.01, 0.5]$
Disconnected	$ \frac{dX_i}{dt} = X_i(r_i - \alpha_{ii}X_i) \frac{dX_j}{dt} = X_j(r_j - \alpha_{jj}X_j) \frac{dX_k}{dt} = X_k(r_k - \alpha_{kk}X_k) $	$r_i, r_j, r_k = 1$ $\alpha_{ii}, \alpha_{jj}, \alpha_{kk} = 0.001$

Table 1: Systems of Lotka-Volterra equations used to model the effect of multiple disturbances

8 References

- Allesina, S. & Pascual, M. (2008). Network structure, predatorPrey modules, and stability
- in large food webs. Theoretical Ecology, 1, 55–64.
- Ban, N.C., Alidina, H.M. & Ardron, J.A. (2010). Cumulative impact mapping: Advances,
- relevance and limitations to marine management and conservation, using Canada's Pacific
- waters as a case study. Marine Policy, 34, 876–886.
- Bascompte, J. (2009). Disentangling the Web of Life. Science, 325, 416–419.
- Bascompte, J. & Melián, C.J. (2005). Simple Trophic Modules for Complex Food Webs.
- 371 Ecology, 86, 2868–2873.
- Belley, R., Archambault, P., Sundby, B., Gilbert, F. & Gagnon, J.-M. (2010). Effects of
- 373 hypoxia on benthic macrofauna and bioturbation in the Estuary and Gulf of St. Lawrence,
- ³⁷⁴ Canada. Continental Shelf Research, 30, 1302–1313.
- Boonstra, W.J., Ottosen, K.M., Ferreira, A.S.A., Richter, A., Rogers, L.A. & Pedersen,
- M.W. et al. (2015). What are the major global threats and impacts in marine environments?
- Investigating the contours of a shared perception among marine scientists from the bottom-
- ³⁷⁸ up. Marine Policy, 60, 197–201.
- Bove, C.B., Ries, J.B., Davies, S.W., Westfield, I.T., Umbanhowar, J. & Castillo, K.D.
- ³⁸⁰ (2019). Common Caribbean corals exhibit highly variable responses to future acidification
- and warming. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 286, 20182840.
- Camacho, J., Stouffer, D.B. & Amaral, L.A.N. (2007). Quantitative analysis of the local
- structure of food webs. Journal of Theoretical Biology, 246, 260–268.
- Chabot, D. & Claireaux, G. (2008). Environmental hypoxia as a metabolic constraint on
- fish: The case of Atlantic cod, Gadus morhua. Marine Pollution Bulletin, 5th International
- 386 Conference on Marine Pollution and Ecotoxicology, 57, 287–294.

- Christensen, M.R., Graham, M.D., Vinebrooke, R.D., Findlay, D.L., Paterson, M.J. &
- Turner, M.A. (2006). Multiple anthropogenic stressors cause ecological surprises in boreal
- ³⁸⁹ lakes. Global Change Biology, 12, 2316–2322.
- ³⁹⁰ Cirtwill, A.R. & Stouffer, D.B. (2015). Concomitant predation on parasites is highly variable
- but constrains the ways in which parasites contribute to food web structure. The Journal
- of Animal Ecology, 84, 734–744.
- ³⁹³ Côté, I.M., Darling, E.S. & Brown, C.J. (2016). Interactions among ecosystem stressors and
- their importance in conservation. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences,
- 395 283, 20152592.
- ³⁹⁶ Crain, C.M., Kroeker, K. & Halpern, B.S. (2008). Interactive and cumulative effects of
- multiple human stressors in marine systems. Ecology Letters, 11, 1304–1315.
- Darling, E.S. & Côté, I.M. (2008). Quantifying the evidence for ecological synergies. *Ecology*
- 399 Letters, 11, 1278–1286.
- 400 De Laender, F. (2018). Community-and ecosystem-level effects of multiple environmental
- change drivers: Beyond null model testing. Global change biology, 24, 5021–5030.
- 402 Dupont-Prinet, A., Vagner, M., Chabot, D. & Audet, C. (2013). Impact of hypoxia on
- the metabolism of Greenland halibut (Reinhardtius hippoglossoides). Canadian Journal of
- 404 Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences, 70, 461–469.
- Eby, L.A., Crowder, L.B., McClellan, C.M., Peterson, C.H. & Powers, M.J. (2005). Habitat
- degradation from intermittent hypoxia: Impacts on demersal fishes. Marine Ecology Progress
- series, 291, 249–262.
- Estes, J.A., Terborgh, J., Brashares, J.S., Power, M.E., Berger, J. & Bond, W.J. et al.
- 409 (2011). Trophic Downgrading of Planet Earth. Science, New Series, 333, 301–306.
- 410 Fabry, V.J., Seibel, B.A., Feely, R.A. & Orr, J.C. (2008). Impacts of ocean acidification on
- marine fauna and ecosystem processes. ICES Journal of Marine Science, 65, 414–432.

- Giakoumi, S., Halpern, B.S., Michel, L.N., Gobert, S., Sini, M. & Boudouresque, C.-F. et al.
- (2015). Towards a framework for assessment and management of cumulative human impacts
- on marine food webs. Conservation Biology, 29, 1228–1234.
- Griffen, B.D., Belgrad, B.A., Cannizzo, Z.J., Knotts, E.R. & Hancock, E.R. (2016). Re-
- thinking our approach to multiple stressor studies in marine environments. Marine Ecology
- 417 Progress Series, 543, 273–281.
- Guiden, P.W., Bartel, S.L., Byer, N.W., Shipley, A.A. & Orrock, J.L. (2019). Predator-
- Prev Interactions in the Anthropocene: Reconciling Multiple Aspects of Novelty. Trends in
- 420 Ecology & Evolution, 34, 616–627.
- Hale, R., Piggott, J.J. & Swearer, S.E. (2017). Describing and understanding behavioral
- responses to multiple stressors and multiple stimuli. Ecology and Evolution, 7, 38–47.
- Halpern, B.S., Frazier, M., Afflerbach, J., Lowndes, J.S., Micheli, F. & O'Hara, C. et al.
- (2019). Recent pace of change in human impact on the world's ocean. Scientific Reports, 9,
- 425 11609.
- Halpern, B.S. & Fujita, R. (2013). Assumptions, challenges, and future directions in cumu-
- lative impact analysis. *Ecosphere*, 4, art131.
- 428 Harborne, A.R., Rogers, A., Bozec, Y.-M. & Mumby, P.J. (2017). Multiple Stressors and
- the Functioning of Coral Reefs. Annual Review of Marine Science, 9, 445–468.
- Holt, R.D. (1997). Community modules. In: Multitrophic Interactions in Terrestrial Ecosys-
- tems, 36th Symposium of the British Ecological Society (eds. Grange, A.C. & Brown, V.K.).
- Blackwell Science, Oxford, pp. 333–349.
- Holt, R.D. & Hochberg, M.E. (2001). Indirect interactions, community modules and bio-
- logical control: A theoretical perspective. Evaluating indirect ecological effects of biological
- 435 control, 13–37.
- 436 Ives, A.R. (1995). Measuring Resilience in Stochastic Systems. Ecological Monographs, 65,

- 437 217-233.
- Jackson, M.C., Loewen, C.J.G., Vinebrooke, R.D. & Chimimba, C.T. (2016). Net effects
- of multiple stressors in freshwater ecosystems: A meta-analysis. Global Change Biology, 22,
- 440 180-189.
- Kondoh, M. (2008). Building trophic modules into a persistent food web. *Proceedings of the*
- National Academy of Sciences, 105, 16631–16635.
- 443 Kroeker, K.J., Kordas, R.L., Crim, R., Hendriks, I.E., Ramajo, L. & Singh, G.S. et al.
- 444 (2013). Impacts of ocean acidification on marine organisms: Quantifying sensitivities and
- interaction with warming. Global Change Biology, 19, 1884–1896.
- Liess, M., Foit, K., Knillmann, S., Schäfer, R.B. & Liess, H.-D. (2016). Predicting the
- synergy of multiple stress effects. Scientific Reports, 6, 32965.
- McClanahan, T.R., Graham, N.A. & Darling, E.S. (2014). Coral reefs in a crystal ball:
- Predicting the future from the vulnerability of corals and reef fishes to multiple stressors.
- 450 Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability, Environmental change issues, 7, 59–64.
- Menge, B.A. (1995). Indirect Effects in Marine Rocky Intertidal Interaction Webs: Patterns
- and Importance. Ecological Monographs, 65, 21–74.
- Milo, R., Shen-Orr, S., Itzkovitz, S., Kashtan, N., Chklovskii, D. & Alon, U. (2002). Network
- 454 Motifs: Simple Building Blocks of Complex Networks. Science, 298, 824–827.
- Monteiro, A.B. & Faria, L.D.B. (2016). The interplay between population stability and food-
- web topology predicts the occurrence of motifs in complex food-webs. Journal of theoretical
- biology, 409, 165–171.
- Montoya, J., Woodward, G., Emmerson, M.C. & Solé, R.V. (2009). Press perturbations and
- indirect effects in real food webs. *Ecology*, 90, 2426–2433.
- Morissette, L., Despatie, S.-P., Savenkoff, C., Hammill, M.O., Bourdages, H. & Chabot, D.
- (2003). Data gathering and input parameters to construct ecosystem models for the northern

- 462 Gulf of St. Lawrence (Mid-1980 s). Can. Tech. Rep. Fish. Aquat. Sci./Rapp. Tech. Can.
- 463 Sci. Halieut. Aquat., 100.
- Myers, R.A. & Worm, B. (2003). Rapid worldwide depletion of predatory fish communities.
- 465 Nature, 423, 280.
- O'Brien, A.L., Dafforn, K.A., Chariton, A.A., Johnston, E.L. & Mayer-Pinto, M. (2019).
- 467 After decades of stressor research in urban estuarine ecosystems the focus is still on single
- stressors: A systematic literature review and meta-analysis. Science of The Total Environ-
- ment.
- O'Gorman, E.J. & Emmerson, M.C. (2009). Perturbations to trophic interactions and the
- 471 stability of complex food webs. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 106,
- 472 13393-13398.
- O'Gorman, E.J., Fitch, J.E. & Crowe, T.P. (2012). Multiple anthropogenic stressors and
- the structural properties of food webs. *Ecology*, 93, 441–448.
- Pauly, D., Christensen, V., Dalsgaard, J., Froese, R. & Torres, F. (1998). Fishing Down
- 476 Marine Food Webs. *Science*, 279, 860–863.
- ⁴⁷⁷ Piggott, J.J., Townsend, C.R. & Matthaei, C.D. (2015). Reconceptualizing synergism and
- antagonism among multiple stressors. Ecology and Evolution, 5, 1538–1547.
- Pillet, M., Dupont-Prinet, A., Chabot, D., Tremblay, R. & Audet, C. (2016). Effects of
- exposure to hypoxia on metabolic pathways in northern shrimp (Pandalus borealis) and
- Greenland halibut (Reinhardtius hippoglossoides). Journal of Experimental Marine Biology
- and Ecology, 483, 88–96.
- Schäfer, R.B. & Piggott, J.J. (2018). Advancing understanding and prediction in multiple
- stressor research through a mechanistic basis for null models. Global Change Biology, 24,
- 485 1817-1826.
- Stouffer, D.B. & Bascompte, J. (2010). Understanding food-web persistence from local to

- global scales. Ecology Letters, 13, 154–161.
- Stouffer, D.B. & Bascompte, J. (2011). Compartmentalization increases food-web persis-
- tence. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 108, 3648–3652.
- 490 Stouffer, D.B., Camacho, J., Jiang, W. & Nunes Amaral, L.A. (2007). Evidence for the
- existence of a robust pattern of prey selection in food webs. Proceedings of the Royal Society
- 492 B: Biological Sciences, 274, 1931–1940.
- Stouffer, D.B., Sales-Pardo, M., Sirer, M.I. & Bascompte, J. (2012). Evolutionary Conser-
- vation of Species' Roles in Food Webs. Science, 335, 1489–1492.
- Thompson, P.L., MacLennan, M.M. & Vinebrooke, R.D. (2018). Species interactions cause
- non-additive effects of multiple environmental stressors on communities. *Ecosphere*, 9,
- 497 e02518.
- Wootton, J.T. (1993). Indirect Effects and Habitat Use in an Intertidal Community: Inter-
- action Chains and Interaction Modifications. The American Naturalist, 141, 71–89.
- Wootton, J.T. (2002). Indirect effects in complex ecosystems: Recent progress and future
- challenges. Journal of Sea Research, Structuring Factors of Shallow Marine Coastal Com-
- 502 munities, Part I, 48, 157–172.
- worm, B., Barbier, E.B., Beaumont, N., Duffy, J.E., Folke, C. & Halpern, B.S. et al. (2006).
- Impacts of Biodiversity Loss on Ocean Ecosystem Services. Science, 314, 787–790.
- Yodzis, P. (2000). Diffuse Effects in Food Webs. *Ecology*, 81, 261–266.