

## Are *Calanus* spp. shifting poleward in the North Atlantic? A habitat modelling approach

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### Abstract:

In the last decade, the analysis based on Continuous Plankton Recorder survey in the eastern North Atlantic Ocean detected one of the most striking examples of marine poleward migration related to sea warming. The main objective of this study is to verify the poleward shift of zooplankton species (*Calanus finmarchicus*, *C. glacialis*, *C. helgolandicus*, *C. hyperboreus*) for which distributional changes have been recorded in the North Atlantic Ocean and to assess how much of this shift was triggered by sea warming, using Generalized Additive Models. To this end, the population gravity centre of observed data was compared with that of a series of simulation experiments: (i) a model using only climate factors (i.e. niche-based model) to simulate species habitat suitability, (ii) a model using only temporal and spatial terms to reconstruct the population distribution, and (iii) a model using both factors combined, using a subset of observations as independent dataset for validation. Our findings show that only *C. finmarchicus* had a consistent poleward shift, triggered by sea warming, estimated in 8.1 km per decade in the North Atlantic (16.5 per decade for the northeast), which is substantially lower than previous works at the assemblage level and restricted to the Northeast Atlantic. On the contrary, *C. helgolandicus* is expanding in all directions, although its northern distribution limit in the North Sea has shifted northward. *Calanus glacialis* and *C. hyperboreus*, which have the geographic centres of populations mainly in the NW Atlantic, showed a slight southward shift, probably responding to cool water penetrating southward in the Labrador Current. Our approach, supported by high model accuracy, shows its power in detecting species latitudinal shifts and identifying its causes, since the trend of occurrence observed data is influenced by the sampling frequency, which has progressively concentrated to lower latitudes with time.

**Keywords:** *Calanus* ; climate change ; habitat model

### 1. Introduction

Data from Continuous Plankton Recorder (CPR) survey in the Northeast Atlantic Ocean indicate that zooplankton exhibit distribution range shifts in response to global warming that are among the fastest and largest of any marine or terrestrial group (Beaugrand *et al.*, 2002; Lindley and Daykin, 2005; reviewed by Richardson, 2008). Habitat models based on CPR data have also been developed to provide projections of future climate-driven shifts (Helaouet and Beaugrand, 2007, 2009; Beaugrand *et al.*, 2008; Helaouet *et al.*, 2011; Reygondeau and Beaugrand, 2011). Factors that control the spatial distribution of populations can be grouped into two main categories, external and internal (Planque *et al.*, 2011). External controls, which are often referred to as environmental controls, are independent of population state, and they are the basis of the ecological niche theory (Hutchinson, 1957). Different statistical and mathematical techniques have been developed to model the spatial distribution of species, also termed species distribution models (Elith

53 and Leathwick, 2009), climate envelope models (Pearson and Dawson, 2003), habitat distribution  
54 models (Guisan and Zimmermann, 2000), or habitat suitability models (Hirzel et al., 2002). A  
55 climate envelope model generally characterizes a set of suitable habitats for a species derived from  
56 their present geographic location. As, in general, habitat models are constructed from the  
57 associations between the extant geographic position of a species' occurrence and its climate, there is  
58 difficulty in testing these models under different climates (Lawing and Polly, 2011).

59

60 The second type of factors affecting the spatial distribution of populations is the internal control,  
61 which are directly linked to the population prospects (reproduction, mortality and migration rate, that  
62 in the case of copepods is mainly based on advection). These include density-dependent processes,  
63 the effect of demographic structure and biogeographical processes (Ohman et al., 2001; Planque et  
64 al., 2011). These two factor types have traditionally differentiated both the conceptual view of  
65 species control (niche theory vs. population dynamics) and the modelling approaches (habitat models  
66 vs. individual based models (IBMs, see Runge et al., 2005)). When modelling the pelagic habitat of  
67 plankton, dispersal limitation is often neglected although it can play an important role on community  
68 structure (Irigoiien et al., 2011; Chust et al., 2013). Research efforts need to focus on integrating the  
69 two mechanisms in the modelling approach for zooplankton species, as attempted for fish and  
70 invertebrates (Cheung et al., 2009).

71

72 Time series of spatially-explicit biological data such as zooplankton occurrence are challenging to  
73 analyse because of non-uniform sampling across time and space. Very few predictive models have  
74 been validated using independent data (but see Lewis et al., 2006; and Llope et al., 2012). Past works  
75 showed shift of populations (zooplankton assemblages) based on northward/southward limits of a  
76 restricted region (Northeast Atlantic) and did not encompass the overall distribution range of species  
77 (e.g. Beaugrand et al., 2002). Therefore, data reconstruction methods and models encompassing all  
78 North Atlantic and including both niche and population factors are needed to avoid bias in trend

79 analysis and to explore possible causes of population shifts. The application of habitat models to  
80 case species also requires key steps to be accurately undertaken to avoid model over-fitting  
81 (Burnham and Anderson, 2002), such as the selection of the explanatory variables and model  
82 validation. Model validation is one of the critical steps in order to extrapolate models to conditions  
83 outside of those used to generate the model, such as to other regions (Valle et al., 2011) and to future  
84 climate (Lawing and Polly, 2011).

85

86 Our objective is to develop models of habitat suitability (at species level) and data reconstruction for  
87 analysing past changes in zooplankton species (e.g. *Calanus* spp.) due to prominent climate drivers,  
88 particularly sea warming within the North Atlantic (Fig. 1), using Generalized Additive Models  
89 (GAMs, Hastie & Tibshirani, 1990). Zooplankton are good indicators of climate change for several  
90 reasons (Richardson, 2008): highly sensitive to temperature, most species are short-lived so there can  
91 be tight coupling of climate and population dynamics, copepods are usually not commercially  
92 exploited avoiding confusion with trends in exploitation, and the distribution of zooplankton can  
93 accurately reflect temperature and ocean currents because plankton are free floating. In this work,  
94 habitat suitability models were built for each one of the four copepod species (*Calanus finmarchicus*,  
95 *C. glacialis*, *C. helgolandicus*, and *C. hyperboreus*) within the temperate to subarctic North Atlantic  
96 from 1959 to 2004. These species, especially *C. finmarchicus*, dominate zooplankton biomass in N.  
97 Atlantic; as the one of the main grazers they transfer energy from phytoplankton to higher trophic  
98 levels such as commercially exploited fish (Planque and Batten, 2000; Richardson, 2008). The aim  
99 of this paper is to test whether population gravity centres of key taxa such as *Calanus* spp. shift  
100 poleward, and if so to explore whether this movement could be associated with sea warming. To this  
101 end, we compare time series of observed data with a series of GAM models as numerical  
102 experiments: 1) a model using only temporal and spatial terms, as a data reconstruction method, to  
103 simulate population movement, 2) a model using only climate factors (i.e. niche-based model) to  
104 simulate the habitat suitability, and 3) a model using both climate and spatio-temporal factors

105 combined. Subsequently, for all the models the distribution of the species was predicted over the  
106 whole spatio-temporal domain. Thus, the rate of change of the geographic gravity centre of the  
107 modelled occurrence probability allowed us studying the shifts of the species population and habitat  
108 suitability along time.

109

## 110 **MATERIAL AND METHODS**

111

### 112 *Biological data and sampling frequency*

113

114 Data on the abundance (mean density (ind./m<sup>3</sup>)) of four species (*C. finmarchicus*, *C. glacialis*, *C.*  
115 *helgolandicus*, *C. hyperboreus*), total diatoms and dinoflagellates and the phytoplankton colour index  
116 (PCI) were obtained from the CPR data base. The CPR survey is an upper layer plankton monitoring  
117 program that has regularly collected samples, at monthly intervals, in the North Atlantic and adjacent  
118 seas since 1946 (Warner and Hays, 1994). Water enters the CPR through a small aperture at the front  
119 of the sampler and travels down a tunnel where it passes through a silk filtering mesh of 270 µm  
120 before exiting at the back of the CPR. The plankton filtered on the silk is fixed to a final  
121 concentration of 4% formalin into a tank within the CPR body. On return to the laboratory, the silk  
122 roll is unwound and cut into sections corresponding to 10 nautical miles (approx. 3 m<sup>3</sup> of seawater  
123 filtered), the greenness of the silk is assessed and the plankton microscopically identified (Jonas et  
124 al., 2004). The CPR data used in the present study represent monthly data collected between 1959  
125 and 2004 within 35° to 65°N and 75°W to 9°E. Data were gridded using the inverse-distance  
126 interpolation method (Isaaks and Srivastava, 1989), in which the interpolated values were the nodes  
127 of a 1 degree by 1 degree grid. Total diatoms and dinoflagellates represent an aggregation of data  
128 from 66 and 39 genera, respectively. *C. glacialis* and *C. hyperboreus* are arctic species, while *C.*  
129 *finmarchicus* is a subarctic species and *C. helgolandicus* dwells on temperate regions (Beaugrand et  
130 al., 2002). *C. finmarchicus* overlaps in size range with *C. helgolandicus* and *C. glacialis* which is the

131 largest among them. The *C. finmarchicus*, *C. helgolandicus*, *C. glacialis* and *C. hyperboreus* data  
132 here used is represented by the 5<sup>th</sup> copepodite and adult stages (i.e. CV-CVI). We use the  
133 Phytoplankton Colour Index (PCI), which is a visual assessment of the greenness of the silk, as an  
134 indicator of the distribution of total phytoplankton biomass across the Atlantic basin (Batten et al.,  
135 2003; Richardson et al., 2006). This index covaries positively with both fluorimeter and satellite  
136 measures of chlorophyll (Batten et al., 2003; Raitsos et al., 2005).

137

138 A non-uniform distribution of sampling in space and time might influence the subsequent analysis of  
139 the poleward shift of species population gravity centres. Therefore, sampling frequency have been  
140 analysed as a function of year, latitude and longitude, in order to test the uniformity of sampling  
141 effort over the time period.

142

#### 143 *Environmental data and climate variability*

144

145 Environmental data compiled had a spatial resolution of 1° longitude and 1° latitude and cover the  
146 entire domain defined. Sea surface temperature (SST), salinity, vertical velocity, and sea level  
147 anomaly were extracted from reanalysis OS3 ECMWF (European Centre for Medium-Range  
148 Weather Forecasts) model and downloaded from CliSAP-Integrated Climate Data Center (ICDC).  
149 Bathymetry was extracted from ETOPO1 global model (NOAA).

150

151 The time series trends of sea surface temperature was analysed over the period 1959-2004 to test  
152 whether isothermals increased at all latitudes. In addition, overall mean SST was analysed over the  
153 period and map differences between cold and warm periods were calculated.

154

155 *Habitat modelling and occurrence reconstruction*

156

157 The approach consisted in modelling the species occurrence as a function of environmental factors  
158 (SST and salinity, vertical velocity), surrogates of environmental factors and population features  
159 (latitude and longitude, month), temporal trend (year), and potential food resources (PCI, total  
160 abundance of diatoms and of dinoflagellates), using Generalized Additive Models (GAMs, Hastie &  
161 Tibshirani, 1990). GAMs enable the fit of non-linear models for a wide family of statistical  
162 distributions. The presence / absence of each *Calanus* spp. was assumed to follow a binomial error  
163 distribution and the logit was considered as the link function.. Overfitting was prevented by  
164 restricting the degrees of smoothness as explained below and by visualizing the response for each  
165 variable. The CPR dataset encompasses 178,910 samples across the spatial domain and irregularly  
166 distributed at year and monthly basis (see 2004 data as an example in Fig. 1).

167

168 SST and salinity were used because of their recognised influence, either direct or indirect, on the  
169 spatial distribution of *Calanus* spp. (e.g. Helaouët and Beaugrand, 2007). Vertical velocity was used  
170 as a surrogate of upwellings. For environmental variables, the degree of smoothness of model terms  
171 was restricted from 3 to 5 in order to assume a unimodal niche model (*sensu* Hutchinson, 1957), but  
172 allowing asymmetry since interactions between species and extreme environmental stress may cause  
173 skewed responses (Oksanen and Minchin, 2002). In this sense, GAMs provide a more realistic  
174 solution than rectilinear climate envelope models or ellipsoidal climate envelope GLMs (Oksanen  
175 and Minchin, 2002). The CPR phytoplankton indices (i.e. PCI, diatoms and dinoflagellates  
176 abundance) were tested individually as phytoplankton is a key food resource for *Calanus* spp.  
177 (Irigoién et al., 1998); however, because the data relative to these indices were not always available  
178 to cover the spatial and temporal domain as the other environmental variables, they were not used for  
179 spatial and temporal reconstruction of the habitat suitability model and they were not included in the  
180 overall model.

181  
182 Month and geographic variables (i.e. latitude and longitude) are considered here as surrogates of  
183 population features or environmental factors not considered (Legendre, 1993). For instance, spatial  
184 terms might be proxies of overwintering areas since close vicinity to an overwintering site has been  
185 suggested to be the main prerequisite for a region or water mass to hold a large population of *C.*  
186 *finmarchicus* (e.g. Head et al., 2000; Torgersen and Huse, 2005; Speirs et al., 2004). Spatial terms  
187 (i.e. latitude and longitude) were considered with interaction and using a bivariate smooth function.  
188 Month information was considered as a categorical variable; thus, a parametric coefficient was  
189 estimated for each month. To analyse the temporal trend, year was considered as explanatory  
190 variable and its GAM smoothness term was restricted to 5 degrees of freedom.

191  
192 We built and compared three different models for each species: 1) A spatial and temporal Model. A  
193 GAM using spatial (latitude, longitude) and temporal (month, year) terms only. This model is  
194 employed as data reconstruction method, thus, to identify trends on population over the analysed  
195 period. 2) An SST Model. A GAM based upon only SST. As this model is driven by SST trend, it  
196 serves to identify species habitat suitability shifts. The comparison of the output of this model with  
197 the previous one permits to verify whether populations have shifted due to sea warming or if only  
198 their habitat suitability has shifted. 3) A combined Model. A GAM based on spatial, temporal and  
199 environmental factors. As this model incorporates all factors, it has the potential to be the most  
200 accurate in predicting overall habitat suitability among the three model types, and it is used also to  
201 assess the relative contribution of spatio-temporal factors with respect to the environment. Several  
202 steps had been undertaken: first, we have built a GAM for each variable independently. Second, we  
203 have selected the best model by removing variables that are not statistically significant or explaining  
204 the deviance of species occurrence by less than 1%. The explained deviance,  $1 - (\text{residual deviance})/(\text{null deviance})$ , is the equivalent to  $R^2$  in least squares models (Guisan and Zimmermann,  
205 2000). Third, we have improved the model using a forward stepwise procedure, i.e. by adding  
206

207 variables according to the explained deviance, and removing those that do not improve significantly  
208 the model or less than 1%.

209

### 210 *Model validation*

211

212 We validated the models based on the cross-validation resampling procedure, which use independent  
213 data sets for model building and model validation (Burnham and Anderson, 2002). The comparison  
214 between the accuracy of the model (that using all observations to build the model) and that of cross-  
215 validated permits the detection of model overfitting, which highly reduce the use of such models for  
216 extrapolation. In particular, we used k-fold partitioning of a data set(Hijmans et al., 2012), where  
217 each record in the data set is randomly assigned to a group. In our case, group numbers are between  
218 1 and k, with k=5, hence, 80% of the CPR observations are used for model building, and the  
219 remaining 20% (i.e. independent) observations are used for model validation in an iterative  
220 procedure that is repeated 5 times.

221

222 The accuracy of the model and the five replicate model cross-validations have been evaluated using  
223 Area Under the receiver operating characteristic Curve (AUC) (Fielding and Bell, 1997; Raes and ter  
224 Steege, 2007) and accuracy indices derived from confusion matrix (VanDerWal et al., 2012). To  
225 this end, first, the modelled probability of species presence was converted to either presence or  
226 absence using probability thresholds obtained using two criteria: sensitivity (true predicted  
227 presences) is equal to specificity (true predicted absences), and maximization of sensitivity plus  
228 specificity, following Jimenez-Valverde and Lobo (2007). Given the defined threshold value, a  
229 confusion matrix (also called an error matrix, Congalton, 1991), which represents a cross-tabulation  
230 of the modelled occurrence (presence/absence) against the observations data, was calculated. An  
231 overall accuracy measure was computed from the confusion matrix which is the proportion of the



232 presence and absence records correctly identified. Both overall accuracy and AUC values range  
233 between 0.5 (random sorting) and 1 (perfect discrimination).

234

### 235 *Time series analysis of the geographic gravity centre*

236

237 For all three model types, the probability of species occurrence was predicted over the whole spatial  
238 and temporal domain. Subsequently, we computed the geographic gravity centre of the predicted  
239 maps of probability of presence of each species from January 1959 to December 2004. The gravity  
240 centre is defined as the mean geographic location of a population (Wuillez et al., 2009). The changes  
241 in the gravity centre's coordinates (longitude and latitude) were used to describe the changes in the  
242 geographic distribution of the habitat suitability in the *Calanus* spp. along time. As a way to test the  
243 sensitivity of this approach to detect geographic shifts triggered by environmental change, first, this  
244 statistic was calculated from the habitat suitability models for each time step (i.e. a month) and  
245 subsequently represented along the seasonal cycle. Latitudinal trends estimated from these three  
246 models were compared with observed data (both abundance and presence/absence data), and  
247 sampling frequency.

248

## 249 **RESULTS**

250

### 251 *Climate variability and change*

252

253 The analysis of time series trends over the period 1959-2004 indicated that sea surface temperature  
254 at all latitudes analysed increased between 0.0240 and 0.0088 °C yr<sup>-1</sup> ( $p < 0.0001$ ,  $p = 0.018$ ,  
255 respectively). Specifically, the warming period started mainly at *circa* 1970 with a rate of increase of  
256 0.028 °C yr<sup>-1</sup> ( $p < 0.0001$ ) as showed by the mean SST (Fig. 2a). The spatial difference of SST  
257 between cold (1969-1979) and warm (1998-2004) periods (Fig. 2b) showed that warming in the NW

258 Atlantic was more heterogeneous than in the NE Atlantic with three hotspots of warming and a  
259 region of slight cooling.

260

### 261 *CPR data sampling frequency*

262

263 Sampling frequency has a strong variability throughout years, with maximum effort in the 1960s and  
264 minimum in the 1980s (Fig. 3a). Mean sampling frequency at the beginning of the period is more  
265 concentrated in higher latitudes and decreases 3° on average over the period, with moderate  
266 variability (Fig. 3b). Mean sampling frequency is more concentrated in the eastern part of the North  
267 Atlantic during 1959-1961 and during 1987-1989, and in the western part in the remaining period  
268 (Fig. 3b). There is non linear trend in the sampling frequency for the geographic longitude along the  
269 time period.

270

### 271 *Habitat models*

272

273 First, each term (environmental, spatial or temporal) was separately tested for each species using  
274 GAM (Table 1). This indicates that PCI and total abundance of diatoms and dinoflagellates  
275 accounted for a limited deviance of species occurrence. Subsequently, the three model types were  
276 fitted to each species according to the methodology described and the explained deviance compared.  
277 In all *Calanus* spp., spatial and temporal models accounted for 33-45% of species occurrence, while  
278 environmental variables accounted for 17-31% (SI 1). Specifically, SST model explained between  
279 26% and 10% of the variation according to species. Environmental factors contributed very little to  
280 the combined model (adding 0.9-2.2% to the explained variance), indicating that high covariation  
281 exists between both variables types and that spatial and temporal terms are key to reconstruct habitat  
282 suitability over the period. For the combined model, the estimated degrees of freedom, p-value for  
283 each selected variables, and the accuracy measures of cross-validation are indicated in Table 2.

284 According to the AUC and overall accuracy, models for *C. finmarchicus*, *C. glacialis* and *C.*  
285 *helgolandicus* have good agreement between occurrence predictions and observations (AUC: 0.77-  
286 0.88 and overall accuracy: 78-79%), while that for *C. hyperboreus* was slightly less accurate (AUC:  
287 0.72, overall accuracy: 72%). The high accuracy values for cross-validated models, also compared to  
288 that of model using all observations (80-90%), indicate that models do not present overfitting. As an  
289 example, Fig. 4 shows the GAM response curves of the combined model for *C. helgolandicus*  
290 occurrence probability, while Fig. 5 shows the SST model compared with the spatial and temporal  
291 model for the same species in June, averaged by time periods. In particular from the SST model, it  
292 appears that the habitat suitability of *C. helgolandicus* at the southern limit nearby the Bay of Biscay  
293 shifted poleward from 1970s to 2000s, while the spatial and temporal model indicates a general  
294 expansion of the population in all directions, southward, northward, and offshore.

295

#### 296 *Seasonal analysis*

297

298 In order to assess if the gravity centre index used is a good descriptor of the shift, first, the indices  
299 were applied to the *Calanus* spp. populations from the habitat suitability models (combined model)  
300 for each time step (i.e. a month) and then represented along the seasonal cycle (Fig. 6). Population  
301 gravity centre shifts poleward from April to August (average for the overall 1959-2004 period) and  
302 southward from September to February. This pattern is consistent in all four species, with low  
303 differences in the magnitude of this shift (i.e. from 2° of latitude range in *C. finmarchicus* to 4° in *C.*  
304 *helgolandicus* and *C. hyperboreus*). This shift corresponds to the population growth differential over  
305 the latitude, and not an advection of individuals. In the case of *C. finmarchicus*, *C. glacialis* and *C.*  
306 *hyperboreus* it also may correspond to the ascent of the overwintering population at the end of the  
307 diapause (Heath et al., 2004) rather than to a shift in the distribution of individuals remaining in  
308 surface during the winter (the CPR only samples the surface layer). The gravity centre index used for

309 *Calanus* spp. showed seasonal patterns which are consistent with the annual peaks reported for those  
310 taxa at different latitudes by other authors (Planque and Fromentin, 1996).

311

### 312 *Temporal analysis*

313

314 Population gravity centre indices throughout the years (Fig. 7, Table 3) permitted to infer the  
315 following trends for each species according to the comparison between models and observed data.  
316 For *C. glacialis*, all models and observed (presence/absence) data showed a slight shift to the South  
317 (Fig. 7a and e). This species presented relatively low occurrence in the data (i.e. *C. glacialis* was  
318 present in 5,023 samples within the entire spatial domain and time series, absent during 9 years)  
319 compared with other species (e.g. *C. finmarchicus* recorded in 105,598 samples in all years). This  
320 species has its main geographic distribution at arctic and subarctic regions; hence, enlarging the  
321 domain area of study beyond 65° is needed to confirm this result. For *C. hyperboreus*, observed data  
322 and the model based upon the spatial and temporal terms indicate a shift to the South (Fig. 7b and f).  
323 The combined model and the SST model showed no significant shift (Fig. 7b). This means that  
324 species distribution probably shifted slightly to the Equator, while its habitat suitability was not  
325 expected to shift. This species, which presented relatively low occurrence in the data (present in  
326 3853 samples, absent during 4 years), has its main geographic distribution in the arctic and subarctic  
327 regions; hence, enlarging the domain area of study beyond 65° is needed to confirm this result. For  
328 *C. finmarchicus*, all models showed poleward shift (Fig. 7c and g). This means that species  
329 populations and its habitat suitability shifted poleward; hence, we can infer that population shift can  
330 be associated to sea warming. In particular, the spatial and temporal model indicates a population  
331 shift rate of 0.0073° latitude per year (8.1 km per decade) for the overall North Atlantic, and a  
332 slightly higher for the Northeast Atlantic (longitude between 30° W and 15° E) (16.5 km per decade)  
333 (Fig. 7c). On the contrary, observed data showed that the gravity centre has a tendency to shift to the  
334 South (Fig. 7g). This southward shift is due to the latitudinal decreasing trend in the sampling

335 frequency (Fig. 3b, SI 2), particularly north of 64° Latitude in the North-eastern Atlantic, in recent  
336 years, see SI 2. For *C. helgolandicus*, habitat suitability based on SST model showed poleward shift  
337 since the 1970s; the combined model showed a similar result but the shift rate is less and starts from  
338 the 1980s (Fig. 7d). On the contrary, the model based upon spatial and temporal terms did not show  
339 a poleward shift. Observed data of *C. helgolandicus* showed slight southward shift for  
340 presence/absence data, and no shift considering abundance data (Fig. 7h). Overall, this means that  
341 species population probably did not shift poleward, and only its habitat suitability is shifted by sea  
342 warming.

343

## 344 **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

345

346 GAM models for the four *Calanus* spp. in the North Atlantic have been built to analyse species  
347 distribution shifts between 1959 and 2004. GAMs were previously used to investigate the influence  
348 of environmental factors on plankton standing stock in the North Sea (Llope et al., 2009; Llope et al.,  
349 2012). Concerning the species habitat suitability, the limitation of distance-based habitat models  
350 used in previous works (e.g. Helaouet and Beaugrand, 2007, 2009; Beaugrand et al., 2008, Helaouet  
351 and Beaugrand, 2009; Reygondeau and Beaugrand, 2011; Helaouët et al., 2011) to describe the  
352 asymmetry of ecological niche has been well solved by GAM models, which are usually more  
353 accurate according to model comparison studies (e.g. Elith et al., 2006). The models combining  
354 environmental and spatial factors have been validated using independent data sets and their  
355 reliability measure indicate moderate (72% for *C. hyperboreus*) to high accuracy performance (78-  
356 79% for *C. finmarchicus*, *C. glacialis* and *C. helgolandicus*). The reliability of our data  
357 reconstruction models and the gravity centres used here, encompassing the overall population in the  
358 study area, might improve previous estimates of shift rates based only upon observed data (e.g.  
359 Beaugrand et al., 2002).

360

361 Among the four analysed species, only *C. finmarchicus* showed a consistent poleward shift during  
362 the 1959-2004 period, as shown by all three models. This suggests that *C. finmarchicus* populations  
363 shifted poleward as a consequence of sea warming, since the SST model (i.e. habitat suitability) is  
364 consistent with the model with spatial and temporal terms (i.e. population data reconstruction) (see  
365 maps in SI 3). This poleward shift is, overall, in agreement with previous works (see a review in  
366 Richardson, 2008). However, the rate of northward movement detected in *C. finmarchicus* (8.1 km  
367 per decade for the overall North Atlantic, 16.5 per decade for the Northeast Atlantic) is substantially  
368 lower than the change in distribution indicated for zooplankton assemblages by previous works for  
369 the Northeast Atlantic (260 km per decade for the northward extension of zooplankton assemblages  
370 14 species including the four *Calanus spp.* analysed here, Beaugrand et al., 2002)). The main  
371 differences between those studies are the taxa assemblage analysed, the statistic considered  
372 (distribution limits *versus* geographic centres), and the model algorithm used. The gravity centre  
373 considered here is more reliable to capture overall population movement since distribution limits  
374 may also change because overall increase in population abundance. The rate estimate here for *C.*  
375 *finmarchicus* is still higher than that reported for terrestrial species based on a study of 99 species of  
376 birds, butterflies and plants (6.1 km per decade, Parmesan and Yohe, 2003) but within that of  
377 rattlesnakes (4.3-24.2 km per decade, Lawing and Polly, 2011). On the contrary, the population  
378 centre gravity in the observed data of *C. finmarchicus* showed southward shift. This is most likely  
379 due to the lower sampling frequency at latitudes  $> 64^{\circ}\text{N}$  after the early-1980s (Fig. 3b), as shown by  
380 the long-term mean latitude of sampling frequency (SI 2a,b); indeed the Norwegian Sea, which is a  
381 core area of distribution for *C. finmarchicus* in the North East Atlantic, was poorly sampled between  
382 1981 and 2004. Therefore, our data reconstruction modelling approach, which is supported by high  
383 model accuracy, shows its power in detecting latitudinal shifts even when observations are lacking  
384 due to discontinuous sampling.

385

386 Habitat suitability of *C. helgolandicus* based on SST showed poleward shift since 1970s. On the

387 contrary, the model based upon spatial and temporal terms did not show poleward shift, but an  
388 expansion of the overall population in the North Sea, Atlantic margin and central N Atlantic since  
389 the 1970s (as shown by the predicted maps in Fig. 7d and by the increasing variance of the gravity  
390 centre not shown here for brevity). This means that *C. helgolandicus* population did not shift  
391 poleward, although its habitat suitability changed probably as a result of sea warming. The causes of  
392 *C. helgolandicus* population expansion in all directions, including southward, are still unclear; one  
393 could hypothesize that it could be partially related to the general increase of phytoplankton biomass  
394 observed since the mid-1980s in the North East Atlantic (Raitsos et al., 2005; McQuatters-Gollop et  
395 al., 2011). This is supported by the fact that the CPR phytoplankton indices explained *C.*  
396 *helgolandicus* occurrence in a larger extent than for the other three species (Table 1). The expansion  
397 of *C. helgolandicus* includes its northern distribution limit in the North Sea where it has replaced *C.*  
398 *finmarchicus* since the 1990s, which has been interpreted as a result of warming of this region  
399 (Richardson, 2008). Changes in abundance are more difficult to attribute to global warming than are  
400 shifts in distribution or phenology (Richardson, 2008). Our approach helps to disentangle shifts in  
401 species distribution and shifts in their habitats, reconstructing species expected occurrence even  
402 when observations are not available.

403

404 Southward population movement of the arctic species (*C. glacialis* and *C. hyperboreus*), that have  
405 their main geographic centre at NW Atlantic, is in agreement with previous works focused on the  
406 NW Atlantic (see arctic and subarctic assemblages in Beaugrand et al., 2002, and *C. hyperboreus* in  
407 Johns et al., 2001). The southward shift of these two species would respond to cool water penetrating  
408 southward in the NW Atlantic (Richardson, 2008), in particular in the Scotian and Newfoundland  
409 shelf regions influenced by the outflow of freshwater from the Arctic (Head and Pepin, 2010;  
410 Licandro et al., 2011). The spatial difference of SST between cold (1969-1979) and warm (1998-  
411 2004) periods (Fig. 2B) showed that warming in the NW Atlantic (Labrador Sea) was more  
412 heterogeneous than in the NE Atlantic with three hotspots of warming and a region of cooling. This

413 pattern could be related to the observed trend of the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) index towards  
414 positive values (see Beaugrand et al., 2002) that result in warmer winters in the NE Atlantic and  
415 colder winters in the NW Atlantic (Hurrell, 1995) and might explain why *C. glacialis* and *C.*  
416 *hyperboreus* are showing southward shift. On the other hand, these two arctic species were less  
417 frequent in the time series (9 and 4 years without any presence for *C. glacialis* and *C. hyperboreus*,  
418 respectively) as their main geographic distribution is usually in arctic and subarctic regions, out of the  
419 area sampled by the CPR; hence, enlarging the domain area of study beyond 65° is needed to  
420 confirm these results.

421

422 Latitudinal shift of species is not the only potential response to ocean warming. Marine fishes and  
423 invertebrates, for instance, can also respond to warming migrating to deeper waters (Cheung et al.,  
424 2013), similar to terrestrial species shifting their distribution to higher elevations within mountains  
425 (Engler et al., 2011). Using electronic tagging, Neat and Righton (2007) found that cod moved to  
426 cooler water at deeper depths. The limitations of our data based uniquely on surface sampling  
427 (Jónasdóttir and Koski, 2011) preclude analysing whether there is also a shift towards deeper waters.  
428 In particular, Williams (1985) and Jónasdóttir and Koski (2011) observed that when *C.*  
429 *helgolandicus* and *C. finmarchicus* co-occur, the latter preferred colder deeper waters remaining  
430 reproductively active, while the former stayed in the warmer surface waters. In *C. glacialis*, Niehoff  
431 & Hirche (2005) found that temperature increase in the surface layer apparently triggered the descent  
432 of the females to lower depths and the arrest of their reproductive activity. In *Neocalanus plumchrus*,  
433 the timing of the annual maximum peak biomass has shifted 60 days earlier in warm than in cold  
434 years over the past 50 years (Mackas et al., 1998). Such phenological change is probably a  
435 consequence of both increased survivorship of early cohorts and increase in physiological rates such  
436 as egg hatching, reproductive and growth rate (Richardson, 2008). According to the study by  
437 Helaouet and Beaugrand (2009), the application of the ecological niche theory predicts that for  
438 northern hemisphere species, warming should produce increased survivorship in the northern (i.e. at



439 cooler waters) population side in respect with its optimal niche, while it will diminish survivorship at  
440 the southern (i.e. at warmer waters) population side. Similarly, in the case of competing species  
441 warming should produce increased competitive advantage for southern species with respect to  
442 northern species in overlapping areas. These two processes should cause latitudinal shift of the  
443 overall species distribution, thus, keeping pace with the shift of their suitable habitats. If vertical  
444 migration plays also a role in the climate response, even assuming that *Calanus* spp. could remain  
445 deeper ingesting an adequate ration of food, a drop in overall occurrence frequency at the two  
446 (northern-southern) sides of optimal (realised) niche should be observed in CPR surface-based data,  
447 which is not the case for *C. helgolandicus* according to our results.

448

449 Among the environmental factors, sea surface temperature is, in general, the one explaining most of  
450 the variance of species occurrence in the four *Calanus* spp. (especially in *C. glacialis*), in agreement  
451 with previous works (Beaugrand et al., 2013) and the view of temperature as the most broadly  
452 influential factor controlling biological processes (Brown et al., 2004). Other environmental factors  
453 that could be taken into account in future studies in order to improve trend analysis and habitat  
454 suitability models are horizontal currents, food resources and suitability of the overwintering habitat  
455 (Irigoien, 2004). As autonomous motility of copepods is spatially limited as compared with passive  
456 movement triggered by ocean currents, dispersal by this means might influence the probability of  
457 occurrence of a species at a given location from month to month. Phytoplankton indices used here  
458 and *Calanus* occurrence were poorly related according to our modelling approach as in previous  
459 attempts (e.g. Reygondeau and Beaugrand, 2011), either because those indices represent only part  
460 of the food available or because food is not a limiting factor. Phytoplankton is a key food source for  
461 calanoid species (Moller et al., 2012); hence, other phytoplankton indices (satellite-derived primary  
462 production) or other ways of modelling food resources in the habitat suitability model should be  
463 explored in the future. Further, factors affecting overwintering survival such as winter mixing depth  
464 or distribution of predators might also play a role in the final distribution (Irigoien, 2004).

465

466 Another relevant finding of this study is that environmental variables accounted for 17-31% of  
467 species occurrence, which is less than did spatial and temporal terms (33-45%) in all *Calanus* spp.,  
468 with high covariation among both types of factors. This means that space and seasonality are key to  
469 describe the pelagic distribution of copepods. Also, since spatial and temporal terms can be partially  
470 a proxy of dispersal constrains, our results are in line with a balanced view between the importance  
471 of the role of dispersal limitation and of niche partitioning on the plankton community structure (see  
472 for instance Irigoien et al., 2011, for zooplankton, and Chust et al., 2013, for phytoplankton).

473

474 Since species habitat models developed here have high accuracy, according to model evaluation  
475 using independent data sets, they have also the potential to be applied to future climate change  
476 scenarios in order to assess warming impacts on zooplankton, and to assess the implications of  
477 changes at this trophic level versus top predators such as fish and cetaceans. As we have seen,  
478 warming can modify the distribution of marine organisms, which in turn, it can be propagated  
479 through the upper trophic levels. In a context of rapid alteration of marine ecosystems throughout the  
480 world (Pauly et al., 1998), future projections of ocean productivity, based on habitat species  
481 distribution, are needed for a detailed assessment of ocean health and benefits and for achieving or  
482 maintaining the good environmental status of the North Atlantic (see for instance the environmental  
483 status defined by the Marine Strategy Framework Directive, MSFD, European Commission, 2008).

484

485 In summary, our findings show that among the four *Calanus* spp. analysed in the North Atlantic  
486 during the 1959-2004 period, only *C. finmarchicus* had a consistent poleward shift estimated in 8.1  
487 km per decade (16.5 km per decade for the Northeast Atlantic), triggered by sea warming, which is  
488 lower than previous works restricted to the Northeast Atlantic and considering zooplankton  
489 assemblages. Because of the sampling limitation of the CPR survey in the northern regions, it is not  
490 possible to clarify whether *C. finmarchicus* global gravity centre has displaced to the North or rather

491 its southern distribution has retracted. Our model is highly accurate (80%), which has been validated  
492 by a subset of observational data. It shows its power in detecting latitudinal shifts even when  
493 changes in the sampling frequency may not ensure an adequate coverage of a region. On the  
494 contrary, *C. helgolandicus* population gravity centre did not shift poleward according to the results,  
495 although its northern distribution limit in the North Sea has shifted northward. *C. helgolandicus* is  
496 expanding in all directions probably influenced by multiple factors (e.g. phytoplankton increase,  
497 warming, their own population dynamics, biotic interactions, environmental variability). *C. glacialis*  
498 and *C. hyperboreus* based on the CPR sampling, present the geographic centres of their populations  
499 mainly in the NW Atlantic, showed a slight southward shift, probably responding to cool water  
500 penetrating south in the Labrador Current and the heterogeneity in the warming at NW Atlantic.  
501 Despite of the limitations of CPR data restricted to surface sampling, the long and spatially extensive  
502 biological data set, together with species occurrence models based upon a wide range of factors  
503 (climate, spatio-temporal) and tested in a combined and separate manner, have the potential to detect  
504 and accurately quantify latitudinal shifts and suggest potential causes.

505

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507

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514

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691

692

693 Tables

694 Table 1. Explained deviance of *Calanus* spp. occurrence by each factor.

	<i>C. glacialis</i>	<i>C. hyperboreus</i>	<i>C. finmarchicus</i>	<i>C. helgolandicus</i>
PCI	0.27	0.16	0.16	4.15
PCI + Diatoms + Dinoflagellates	0.51	1.41	2.41	6.41
SST	26.3	17.7	11.6	10.0
Salinity	19.4	10.7	11.4	2.05
Bathymetry	1.06	3.59	4.72	15.7
Vertical Velocity	0.53	1.32	1.09	5.47
Spatial terms (Lat:Long)	35.6	23.1	26.3	39.0
Month	3.78	19.3	3.91	0.55
Year	4.87	0.75	1.66	2.74

695

696

Table 2. Combined GAM models. Variables entered: Year, Month, Longitude, Latitude, Sea Surface Temperature (SST), Salinity, Bathymetry, Vertical Velocity. EDF: Estimated Degrees of Freedom. Thresholds for conversion of probability of species presence to either presence or absence in model validation: 0.05 (*C. glacialis*), 0.60 (*C. finmarchicus*), 0.03 (*C. hyperboreus*), 0.30 (*C. helgolandicus*).

Species	Variables selected	EDF	p-value	Overall explained deviance (%)	AUC (model with all observations / mean kfold cross-validation)	Accuracy (model with all observations / mean kfold cross-validation) (%)
<i>C. glacialis</i>	Year	3.979	<1.10 <sup>-15</sup>	42.6	0.888 / 0.774	89.1 / 78.2
	SST	1.361	<1.10 <sup>-15</sup>			
	Salinity	1.289	0.0019			
	Longitude	2.964	<1.10 <sup>-15</sup>			
	Month		10 months significant			
<i>C. finmarchicus</i>	Year	3.940	<1.10 <sup>-15</sup>	34.4	0.778 / 0.778	79.8 / 79.8
	SST	1.997	<1.10 <sup>-15</sup>			
	Long : Lat	14.957	<1.10 <sup>-15</sup>			
	Month		10 months significant			
<i>C. hyperboreus</i>	Year	2.759	<1.10 <sup>-15</sup>	46.0	0.889 / 0.717	90.5 / 72.2
	SST	1.979	<1.10 <sup>-15</sup>			
	Long : Lat	14.771	<1.10 <sup>-15</sup>			
	Month		9 months significant			
<i>C. helgolandicus</i>	Year	3.988	<1.10 <sup>-15</sup>	41.2	0.819 / 0.798	80.8 / 79.7
	SST	1.998	<1.10 <sup>-15</sup>			
	Long : Lat	14.950	<1.10 <sup>-15</sup>			

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700 Table 3. Latitudinal shifts ( $^{\circ} \text{yr}^{-1}$ ) for each species and according to observed data and models  
 701 between 1959 and 2004 in the North Atlantic.

	<i>C. glacialis</i>		<i>C. hyperboreus</i>		<i>C. finmarchicus</i>		<i>C. helgolandicus</i>	
	Trend	p-value	Trend	p-value	Trend	p-value	Trend	p-value
Observed data (Pres/Abs)	-0.0386	0.0369	-0.1194	0.0006	-0.0641	4.5e-06	-0.0304	0.0042
Observed data (Abundance)	-0.0174	0.3570	-0.0979	0.0252	-0.0483	0.0296	0.0119	0.4170
SST model	-0.0077	0.0178	-0.0024	0.2770	0.0086	1.9e-09	0.0119	0.0002
Spatial and temporal model	-0.0143	0.0136	-0.0044	<2e-16	0.0073	<2e-16	-0.0019	1.2e-06
Combined model	-0.0079	0.0049	-0.0020	0.5350	0.0123	<2e-16	0.0029	0.0261

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704 Figure legends

705

706 Fig. 1. The North Atlantic basin. The domain of the studied area is 350° to 650° N and 750° W to  
707 150° E. Source of Bathymetry: ETOPO1, NOAA, Amante and Eakins (2009). Transparent dots are  
708 those sampled in the overall period (1959-2004). Red dots are those sampled in 2004.

709

710 Fig. 2. A) Mean SST trend; B) Difference of SST between 1969-1979 (cold period) and 1998-2004  
711 (warm period).

712

713 Fig. 3. Sampling frequency as a function of year (a), as a function of year and latitude (b), and as  
714 function of year and longitude (c). In b and c, the size of the circle is proportional to the sampling  
715 frequency, the black line indicates the mean value at the corresponding year, and the dotted line  
716 indicates the linear temporal trend.

717

718 Fig. 4. Response of *C. helgolandicus* occurrence probability for each variable of the combined  
719 model.

720

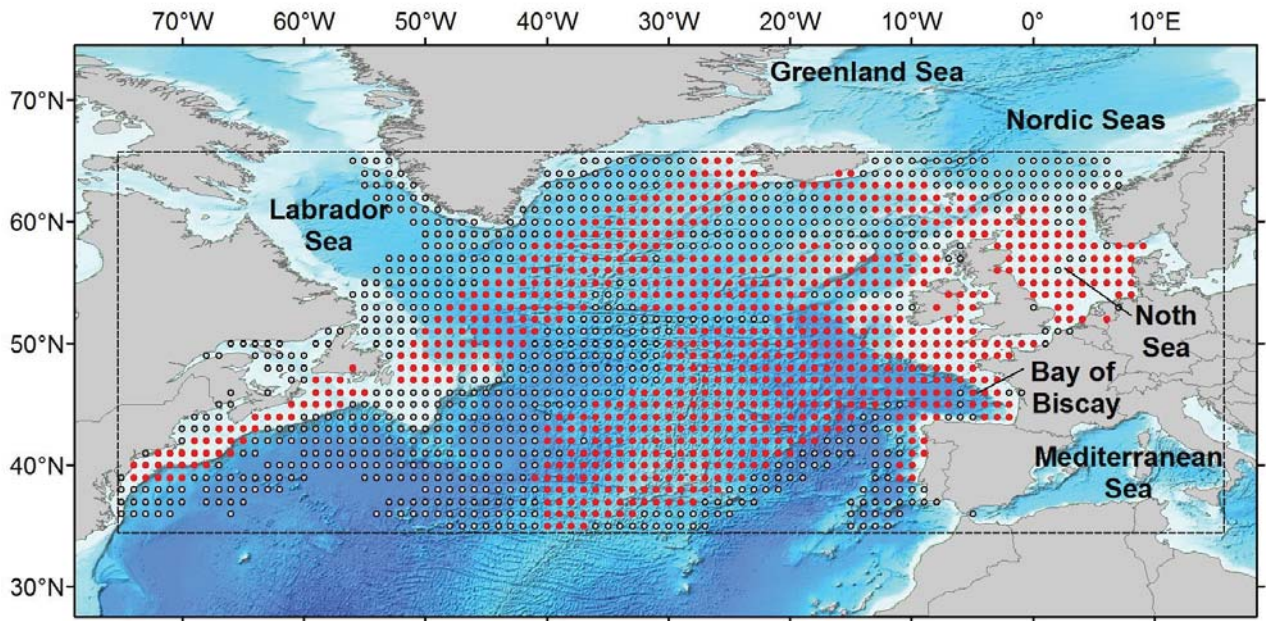
721 Fig. 5. Evolution of *C. helgolandicus* occurrence probability models (SST model, as habitat  
722 suitability model, and spatial and temporal model as population data reconstruction) between 1959  
723 and 2004 (Month: June).

724

725 Fig. 6. Latitudinal shift of the population gravity centre during seasonal cycle (average for the  
726 overall 1959-2004 period; combined model). See text for explanation.

727

728 Fig. 7. Shift in latitude of the gravity centre of *Calanus* spp. population habitat suitability models (a,  
729 b, c, d) and of the observed annual average (e, f, g, h), according to abundance and presence/absence  
730 data. See estimations of trends (and their statistical significance) in Table 3.



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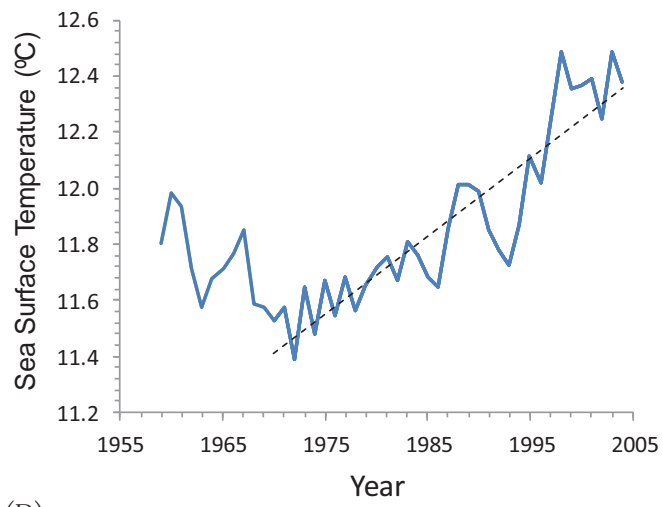
Fig. 1.

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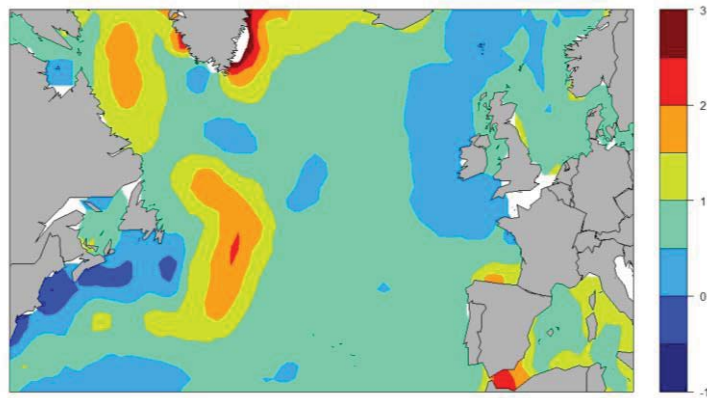
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(A)



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(B)



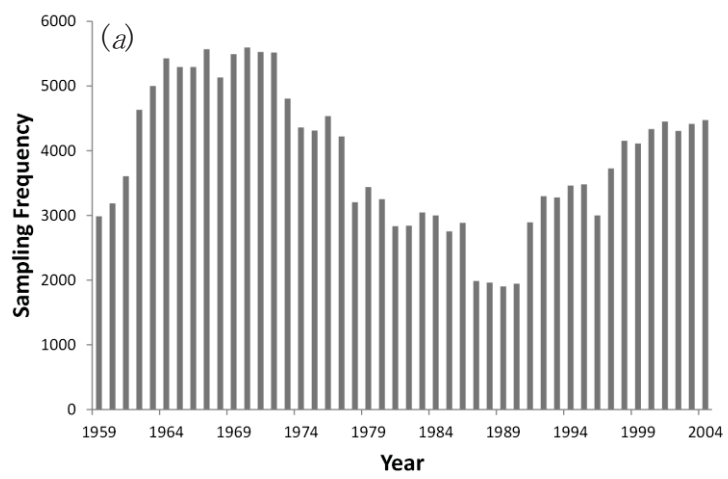
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737 Fig. 2.

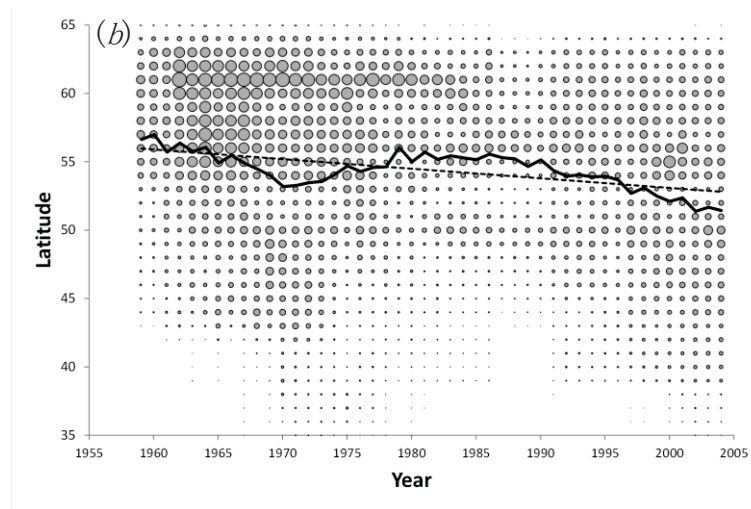
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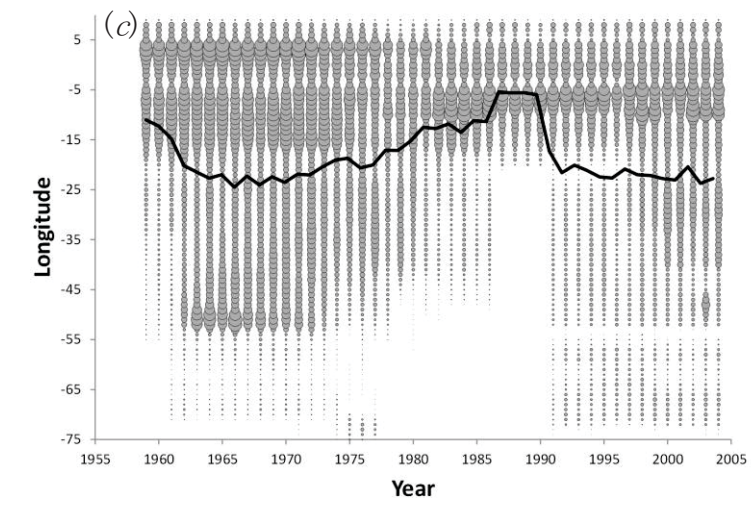
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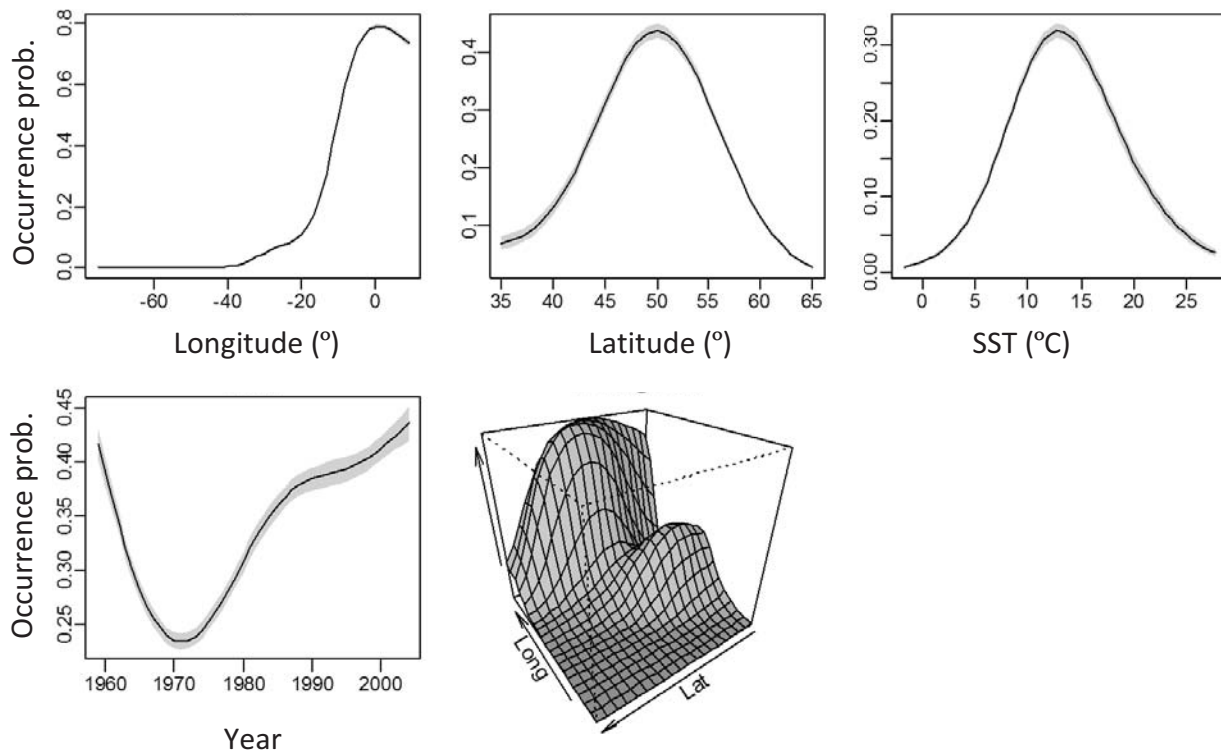
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Fig. 3.

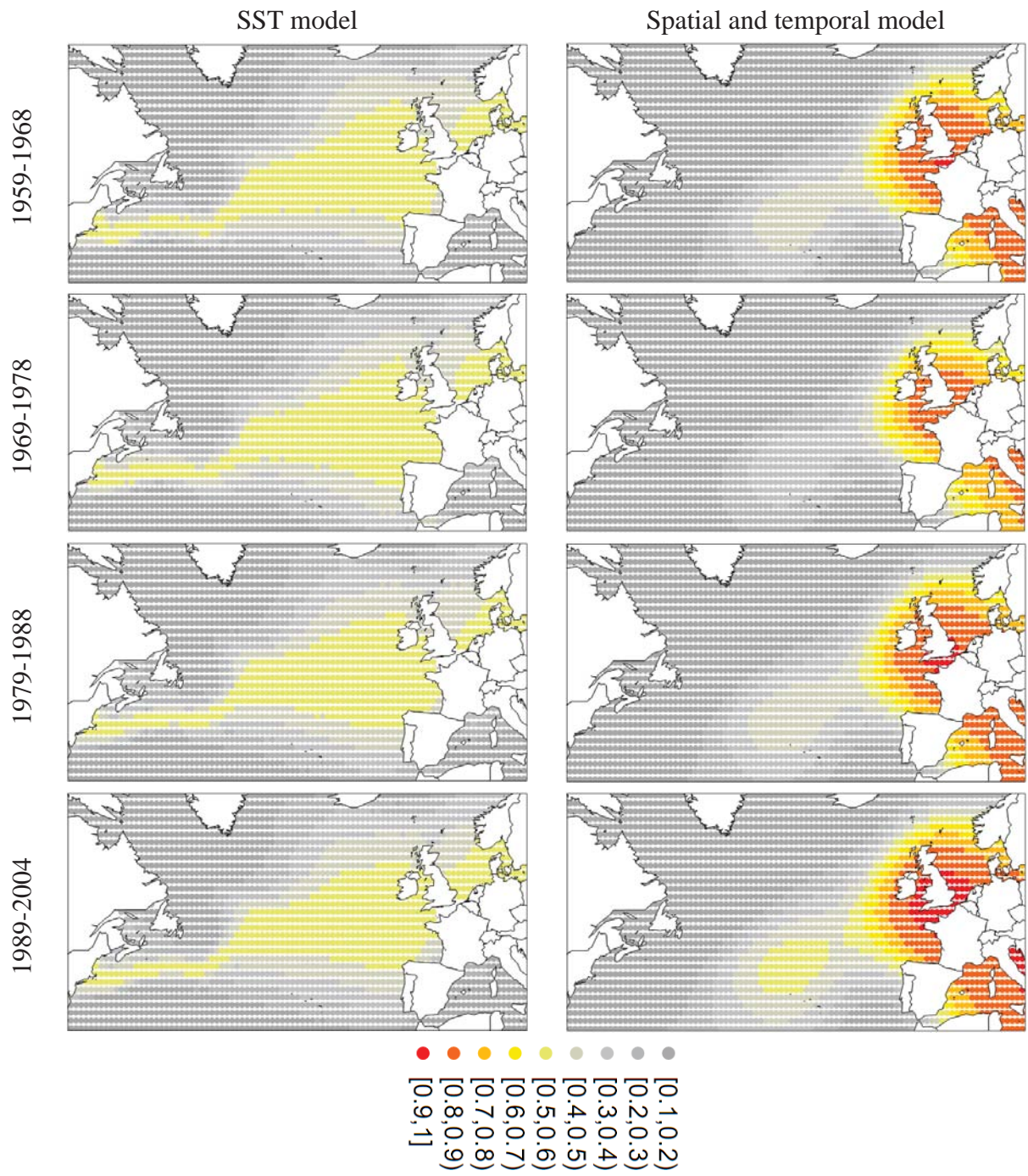
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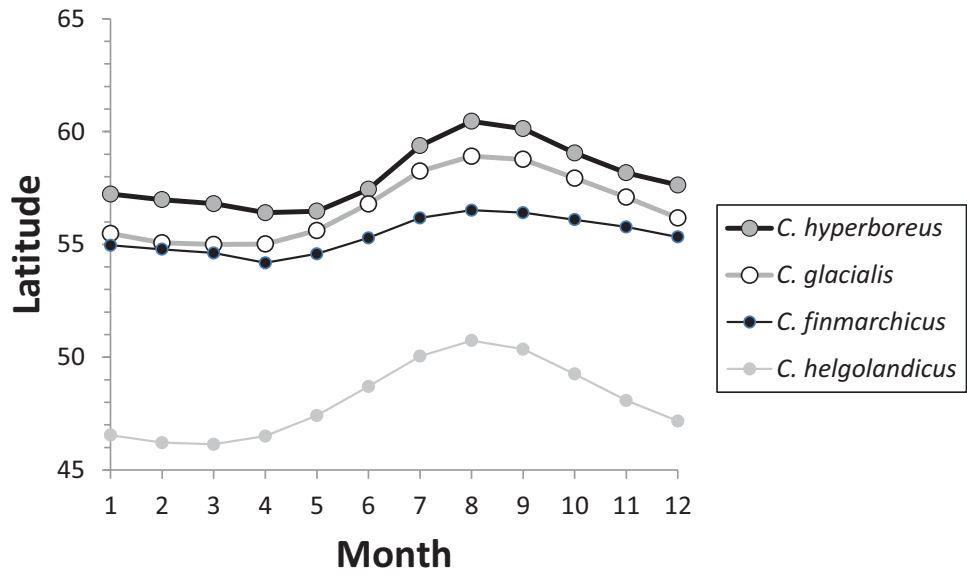
747 Fig. 4.

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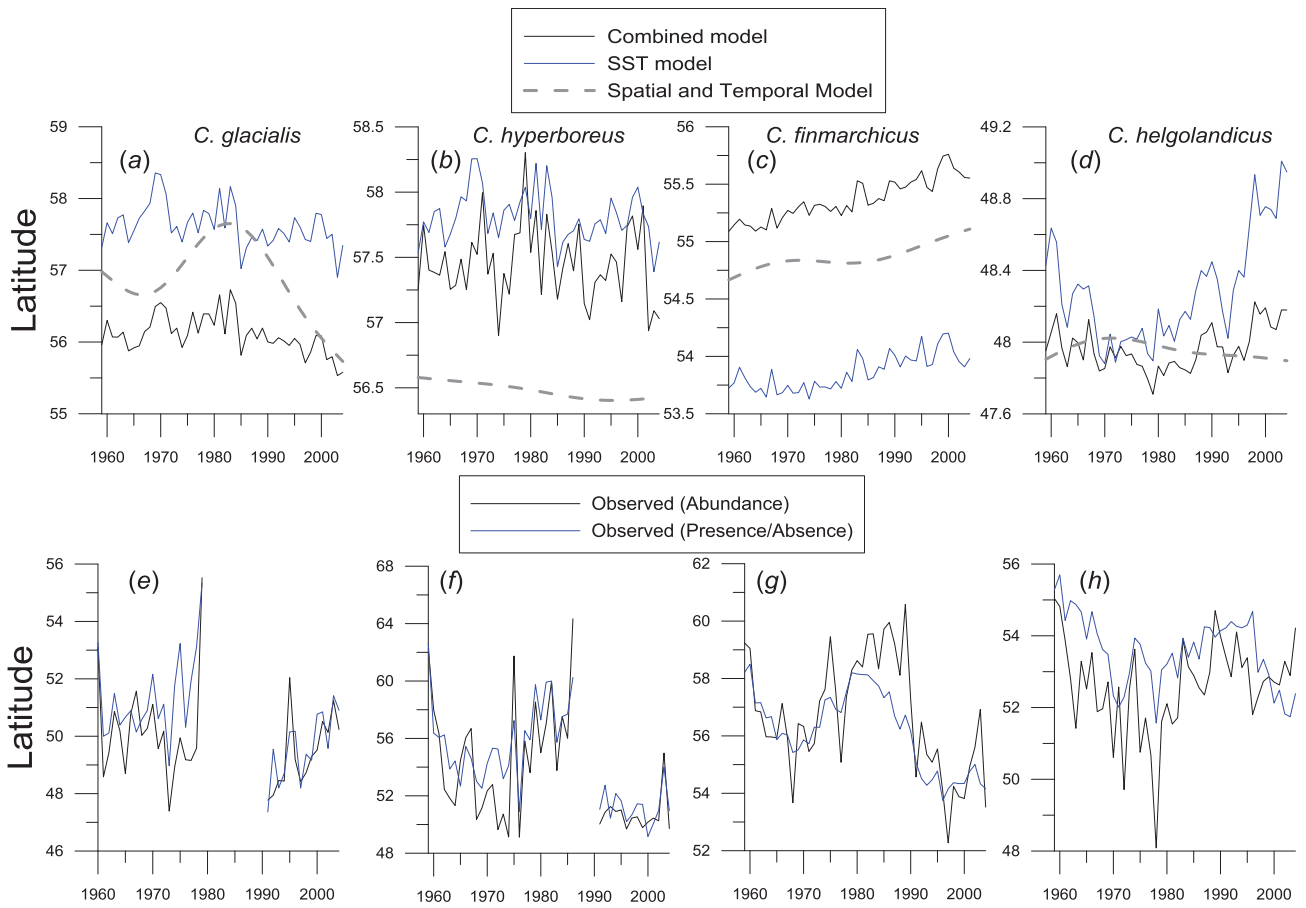
749 Fig. 5.

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751 Fig. 6.

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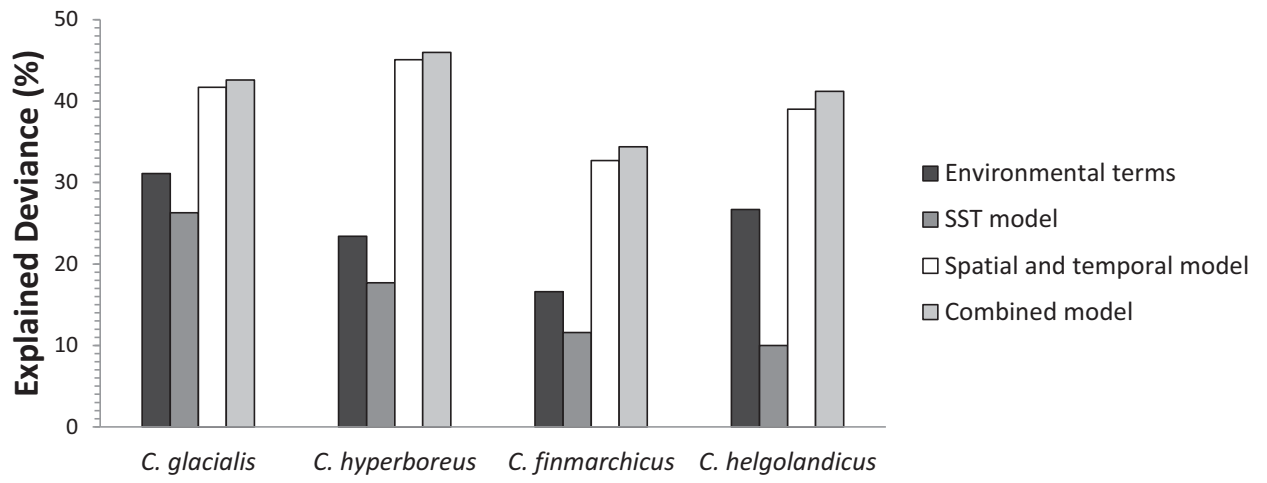


754 Fig. 7.

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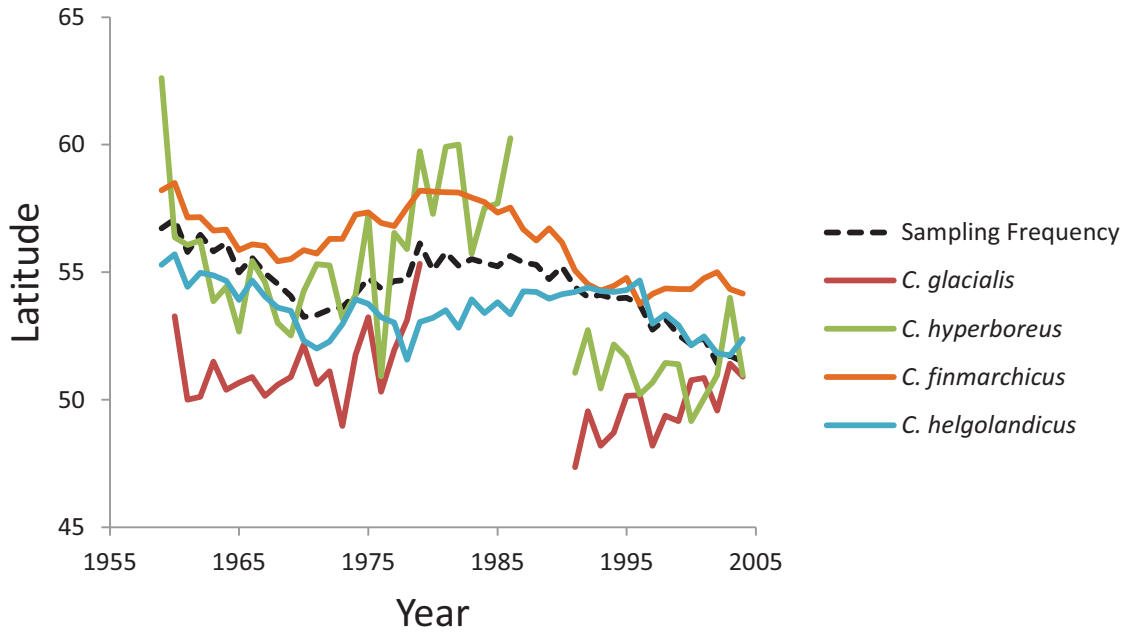
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757 Supplementary Information 1. Explained deviance according to environmental variables, and the  
758 three models used (SST, spatial and temporal, and the combined model).  
759

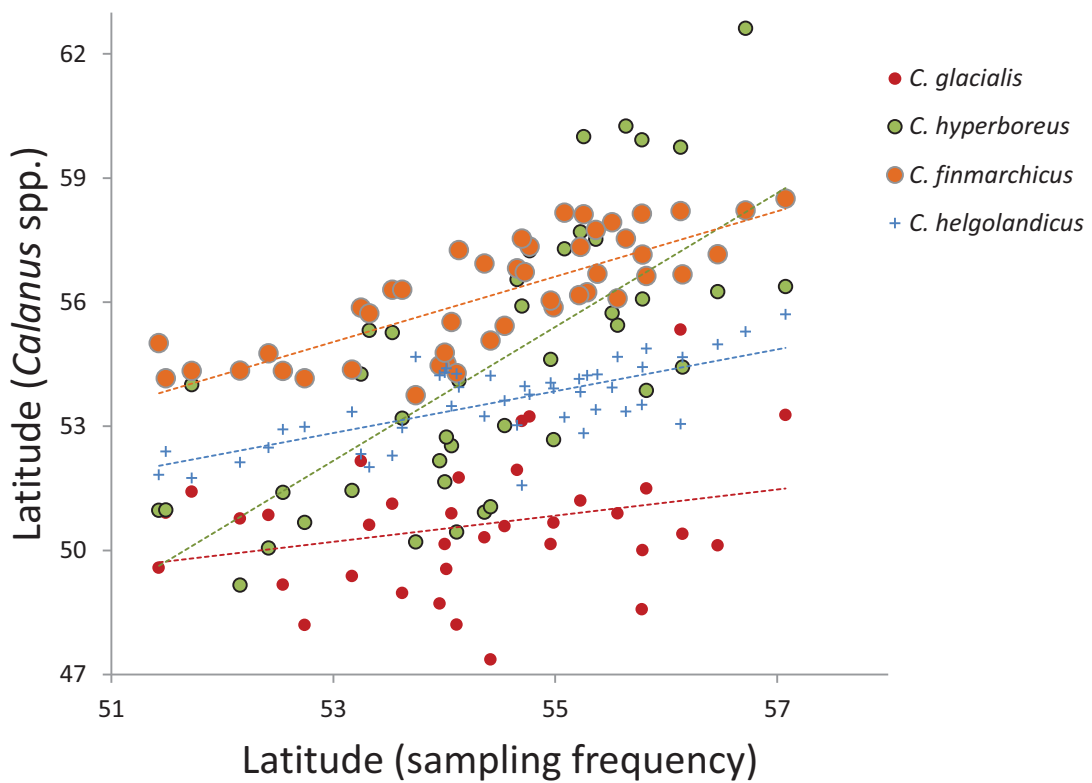


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761 Supplementary Information 2. Mean latitude of sampling frequency and gravity centre of *Calanus*  
 762 spp. of observed (Presence/Absence) data over the period (a) and linear regression analysis (b).  
 763 Correlation coefficients: for *C. glacialis* ( $r^2=0.078$ ,  $p=0.098$ ), *C. hyperboreus* ( $r^2=0.498$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ),  
 764 *C. finmarchicus* ( $r^2=0.61$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ), *C. helgolandicus* ( $r^2=0.499$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ).  
 765

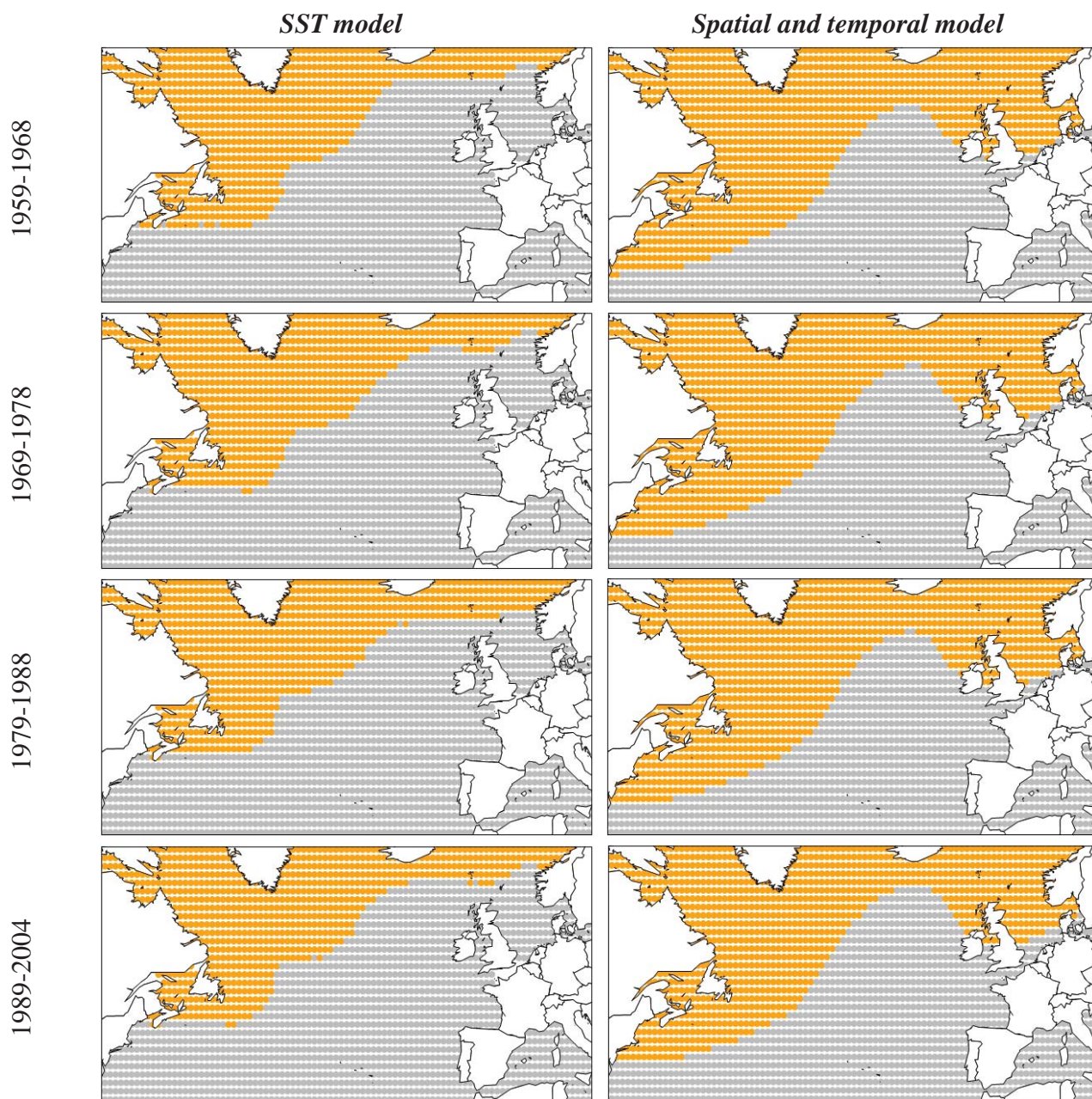


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769 Supplementary Information 3. Evolution of *C. finmarchicus* occurrence models (SST model, as  
770 habitat suitability model, and spatial and temporal model as population data reconstruction) between  
771 1959 and 2004 (Month: June). Map key: orange is presence and grey color is absence.  
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