

Exploring mechanisms of spatial segregation between body size groups within fish populations under environmental change

Hsiao-Hang Tao¹, Chun-Wei Chang², and Chih-hao Hsieh³

¹National Taiwan University Institute of Oceanography

²National Taiwan University

³National Taiwan University

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Abstract

Ample evidence has indicated shifts in distribution of fish populations in response to environmental stress. However, most studies focused at the whole population scale. This neglects the spatial dynamics between groups of different body size (body size groups), that fundamentally shapes the spatial structure of a population. Here, we explored the mechanisms that modulate spatial dynamics of body size groups, and applied our analyses to three North Sea fish populations which experienced severe declines in biomass from 1977 to 2019: Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*), haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*), and whiting (*Merlangius merlangius*). All three populations exhibited strong declines in the overlapped area between body size groups in winter over 43 years, yet their mechanisms differed. These declines were either due to (1) different magnitudes of contraction of the distribution area of body size groups; and/or (2) different speeds and directions of spatial shift among various body size groups, both increasing spatial segregation within populations. These patterns were either associated with ocean warming, and/or declining population biomass, and such associations often varied according to distinct body size groups. Our analytical approach provides a powerful tool for identifying vulnerable populations under environmental stress and can be generalized to study a variety of size/age structured populations at various ecosystem types.

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6 mechanisms that modulate spatial dynamics of body size groups, and applied our analyses
7 to three North Sea fish populations which experienced severe declines in biomass from 1977
8 to 2019: Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*), haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*), and whiting
9 (*Merlangius merlangius*). All three populations exhibited strong declines in the overlapped
10 area between body size groups in winter over 43 years, yet their mechanisms differed. These
11 declines were either due to (1) different magnitudes of contraction of the distribution area
12 of body size groups; and/or (2) different speeds and directions of spatial shift among various
13 body size groups, both increasing spatial segregation within populations. These patterns
14 were either associated with ocean warming, and/or declining population biomass, and such
15 associations often varied according to distinct body size groups. Our analytical approach
16 provides a powerful tool for identifying vulnerable populations under environmental stress
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18 ecosystem types.

19 **Keywords**

20 biogeography, marine ecology, ocean warming, population spatial structure, population
21 spatial shift.

22 **Introduction**

23 Many marine fish populations have undergone significant shifts in their spatial
24 distributions over the past decades, largely related to ocean warming and declining
25 population size (Perry et al. 2005, Sunday et al. 2015). Most of these studies focused at the
26 whole population scale; however, several lines of evidence have suggested that the spatial
27 shift varies in magnitude and direction for different body size groups within a population
28 (hereafter, body size groups) (Bell et al. 2015, Barbeaux and Hollowed 2018, Frank et al.
29 2018, Yang et al. 2019, Li et al. 2022). For instance, the distribution of the middle size
30 groups of some fish populations in the Eastern Bering Sea shifted at a greater speed in
31 warm seasons, compared to groups of smaller or larger body sizes (Barbeaux and Hollowed
32 2018). Another study across North Pacific, North Atlantic, and South Atlantic suggested
33 that the distribution of large size groups within some fish populations shifted deeper, as a
34 result of size-selective fishing at shallower water (Frank et al. 2018). These size-dependent
35 shifts in distribution are likely to reduce overlapped areas between body size groups, that is,
36 increase the spatial segregation within populations. However, temporal changes in spatial
37 segregation (i.e., overlapped area) between body size groups have not been quantified for
38 real-world populations, despite earlier efforts from theoretical approaches (Hughes and
39 Grand 2000).

40 Changes in spatial segregation between body size groups of a population have
41 various consequences on population dynamics. On one hand, a population with high spatial
42 segregation between body size groups can reduce the stress from predation and competition.
43 On the other hand, a population with highly segregated size group is more vulnerable to
44 local perturbations. These perturbations include size-selective fishing, size-selective
45 predation, or unfavorable habitat conditions for certain body size groups (Hsieh et al. 2010b).
46 These perturbations can change the abundance of certain body size groups, which in turn
47 alter the demographic structure and spatial structure of the population (Tao et al. 2021).

48 More generally, changes in the spatial structure of a marine population can influence life
49 history and demographic variations, which potentially affect its resilience to perturbations
50 (Ciannelli et al. 2013).

51 What are the potential mechanisms shaping spatial segregation between body size
52 groups of a population? Within a population, the distribution area of each body size group,
53 and the distance between their abundance-weighted centers of distribution area (hereafter,
54 centers of abundance), determine the overlapped area between them. On the one hand, when
55 the distribution areas of two body size groups contract, their overlapped area declines,
56 provided that their centers of abundance are fixed. On the other hand, elongated distance
57 between the centers of abundance reduces the overlapped area between body size groups,
58 provided that their areas of distribution are fixed.

59 Ocean warming and population decline potentially impact the area of distribution
60 and the center of abundance of body size groups (Barnett et al. 2017, Orio et al. 2017).
61 These impacts are likely size-specific. For example, earlier studies showed that ocean
62 warming and fishing altered the abundance of body size groups at various extents (Barnett
63 et al. 2017, Orio et al. 2017). Such size-specific changes in abundance could lead to
64 differential changes in their area of distribution, based on abundance-distribution
65 relationships and density-dependent habitat selection (MacCall 1990, Fisher and Frank 2004,
66 Thorson et al. 2016). In addition, previous findings suggest that ocean warming and fishing
67 contributed to size-specific shift in spatial distribution (Barbeaux and Hollowed 2018, Frank
68 et al. 2018). This is due to thermal tolerance, food requirements, spatial constraints, and
69 mobility that vary with body sizes within a population (Dahlke et al. 2020, Ciannelli et al.
70 2022). Depending on the original positions of the center of abundance, the size-specific shift
71 could increase the distance between their distribution. Linking body size-specific
72 distribution response to ocean warming and population decline is key to understanding the

73 mechanisms behind the changes in spatial segregation between body size groups of a
74 population.

75 In this study, we quantified and explored the mechanisms of changes in spatial
76 segregation over time between body size groups within fish populations. We asked the
77 following question: did the overlapped area of body size groups within populations decline
78 over time, and what are the mechanisms behind? We studied fish populations in the North
79 Sea, a global warming hotspot that has experienced rising sea surface temperature over the
80 past decades (Hobday and Pecl 2014). Particularly, we focused on those fish populations
81 that are ecologically and economically important and experienced large geographical re-
82 distribution over the past century (Huserbråten et al. 2018), including Atlantic cod (*Gadus*
83 *morhua*), haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*), and whiting (*Merlangius merlangius*).
84 The total biomass of these populations has declined since 1980s with slow recovery in recent
85 years (Engelhard et al. 2014). Therefore, these populations are prone to distribution area
86 contraction and fragmentation. We analyzed their spatial dynamics using 43-year (1977-
87 2019) winter survey data. We hypothesized that the body size groups of these populations
88 became spatially more segregated over time, which was associated with contracted
89 distribution area of body size groups, and/or elongated distance between centers of
90 abundance of these groups. In addition, these changes were caused by body size-specific
91 responses to environmental stress, including ocean warming and population decline.

92 **Materials and Methods**

93 Fish populations and survey data

94 The North Sea is a European epicontinental sea connected to the Atlantic Ocean.
95 The north part of the North Sea is deeper, colder with higher salinity, while the south part
96 is warmer, shallower with higher primary productivity. The North Sea has experienced

97 rising sea temperature and intensive fishing activities over the past decades (Murgier et al.
98 2021). Fishing has been more intensive in the south part of the North Sea (Engelhard et al.
99 2014).

100 We focused on three fish populations in the North Sea: Atlantic cod, haddock and
101 whiting. They belong to the *Gadidae* family and are demersal populations which live just
102 above the bottom of the sea (for life histories of three populations see **Table S1**). They have
103 spawning migration in winter (Tobin et al. 2010, González-Irusta and Wright 2016).
104 Evidence have shown that North Sea Atlantic cod is a metapopulation composed of three
105 subpopulations: South, Northwest, and Viking (ICES 2020).

106 We obtained the survey data of three target populations from the online database of
107 the International Bottom Trawl Survey (IBTS) of International Council for Exploitation of
108 the Sea (ICES) (<https://data.ices.dk/>). This survey follows a stratified sampling on survey
109 rectangles of 1° longitude \times 0.5° latitude. The dataset is in the form of catch per unit effort
110 (CPUE) per body size (in 10mm unit) for each rectangle and year-quarter. We extracted the
111 winter data (January to February) between year 1977 and 2019 as our study period, because
112 fishing gear was not standardized until 1977. We did not analyze the summer data, because
113 the survey period is relatively short (starting from 1991), and that seasonal differences in
114 the spatial structure is out of the scope of our study.

115 116 Define body size groups within populations

117 We examined the spatial dynamics at the body size level. We followed the most
118 common approach for body size grouping through dividing a population into equal body
119 size bins (Barbeaux and Hollowed 2018, Li et al. 2019, Yang et al. 2019). We first summed
120 the CPUE for each body size bin (in 1mm unit) over time and survey rectangle, to derive
121 body size distribution. As the distribution was right-skewed, we removed individuals below

122 5% and above 85% quantile to avoid extremely low abundance at both ends. Then, we
123 divided the body size distribution into equal-interval body size groups.

124 We tested different body size group number (10, 15, and 20 groups) to see how it
125 influenced the value of spatial dynamics. While higher size group number gave higher
126 precision, the spatial dynamics did not differ with group number (**Table S2**). We thus
127 reported the results with 20 body size groups in the main text. We did not use group number
128 higher than 20, otherwise would leads to too few individuals for largest and smallest body
129 size groups; this could raise uncertainty of the results.

130 Deriving fixed number of body size group for each population leads to wider body
131 size bins for larger populations, and narrower body size bins for smaller populations. To
132 confirm the temporal dynamics of spatial overlap within populations, we alternatively
133 derived body size groups by using fixed bin width for all three populations (e.g., 5 cm).

134 We also examined the changes in the overlapped area over time between life stages
135 within populations as a preliminary test. To do so, we grouped each population into juvenile
136 and adult, based on the body size at 50% maturity (**Table S1**).

137 We did not analyze the spatial structure using age groups because existing age-
138 specific data did not distinguish age groups older than six years. Thus, spatial dynamics
139 calculated using this dataset would neglect the dynamics between older groups. In addition,
140 body size interval differed from one age to another due to non-linear age-size relationships.
141 Because the results from age group or size group are not comparable, we reported only
142 spatial structure between body size groups in this work.

143 144 Spatial structure indices

145 To explore the temporal changes in the spatial distribution of body size groups
146 within populations, we calculated the following indices for each survey year: 1) area of

147 distribution of each body size group, 2) center of abundance of each body size group, 3)
 148 overlapped area between pairs of body size groups, and 4) distance between centers of
 149 abundance of pairs of body size groups. There is a total of 190 (C_2^{20}) pairs of body size
 150 groups between 20 body size groups within a population.

151 The area of distribution of each body size group is the proportion of occupied area
 152 at any given year, over the maximum occupied area of the same body size group over the
 153 study period. This standardized measure accounts for variations in the occupied area
 154 between different body size groups. Thus, this measure allows us to directly comparing
 155 distribution area between different body size groups. The occupied area of a body size group
 156 at a given year is defined as the number of survey rectangles where the CPUE of this group
 157 is greater than zero. Therefore, the area of distribution of body size group i at year t is
 158 $N_{i,t}/Max(N_i)$, where $N_{i,t}$ is the number of rectangles with the non-zero CPUE of body size
 159 group i at year t , and $Max(N_i)$ is the maximum number of rectangles of body size group i
 160 over the study period.

161 Center of abundance is CPUE-weighted center of occupied area for each body size
 162 group. For body size group i at year t , the center of abundance in longitude is $CEN_{i,t,lon}$
 163 $= \sum_{r=1}^N CPUE_{i,r,t} \times lon_r / \sum_{r=1}^N CPUE_{i,r,t}$, where lon_r is the longitudinal center of
 164 rectangle r , and N is the number of survey rectangles where the CPUE of the whole
 165 population is greater than zero. Similarly, the center of abundance in latitude $CEN_{i,t,lat} =$
 166 $\sum_{r=1}^N CPUE_{i,r} \times lat_r / \sum_{r=1}^N CPUE_{i,r}$, where lat_r is the latitudinal center of rectangle r .

167 The overlapped area for a given pair of body size groups are indicated by union
 168 overlapped area, and partial overlapped area. Union overlapped area is the proportion of co-
 169 occupied area, over the area where either of the body size group occupies. For body size
 170 group i and j at year t , the union overlapped area is $N_{intersect,i,j,t}/N_{union,i,j,t}$, where
 171 $N_{intersect,i,j,t}$ is the number of rectangles where both body size group i and j have CPUE

172 greater than zero at year t , and $N_{union,i,j,t}$ is the number of rectangles where either body
173 size group i or j has CPUE greater than zero at year t . Partial overlapped area is proportion
174 of co-occupied area over the occupied area of each body size group of the pair and then
175 taken average. For body size group i and j at time t , partial overlapped area is
176 $0.5 \times (N_{intersect,i,j,t}/N_{i,t} + N_{intersect,i,j,t}/N_{j,t})$. The concepts of distributional overlap has
177 been used in inter-species co-occurrence at the community level (Griffith et al. 2018, Carroll
178 et al. 2019), but not at the body size level.

179 The distance between centers of abundance is the longitudinal or latitudinal distance
180 between centers of occupied area of a pair of body size groups. For body size group i and j
181 at year t , the distance between centers of abundance in longitude is
182 $|CEN_{i,t,lon} - CEN_{j,t,lon}|$, while the distance between centers of abundance in latitude is
183 $|CEN_{i,t,lat} - CEN_{j,t,lat}|$.

184 Atlantic cod has three subpopulations in the North Sea (ICES 2020). Thus, we
185 calculated the spatial structure of Atlantic cod at both the regional scale, as well as at the
186 spatial scale concerning each subpopulation.

188 Population biomass decline

189 We used the estimates of yearly total stock biomass from the ICES stock assessment
190 (ICES 2016, 2018) as a proxy for population depletion level (Zhou et al. 2017). Total stock
191 biomass showed a declining trend from 1977 to 2019 for all three populations (**Fig. S1**).

192 Ocean warming

193 We used sea bottom temperature as an indicator of ocean warming, because all three
194 target populations are demersal species. We obtained the sea bottom temperature of the
195 CTD stations across the North Sea region from the ICES online database. We obtained the
196 yearly winter sea bottom temperature at the North Sea region by averaging the

197 measurements from all CTD stations at each year. Sea bottom temperature in the North Sea
198 exhibited a temporal increase from 1977 to 2019 (**Fig. S1**).

199 Statistical Analysis

200 The statistical models were constructed separately for each target population. We
201 applied a four-step analysis are as follows:

202 (1) We used linear mixed-effects models to examine the temporal trends in the overlapped
203 area of pairs of body size groups. Overlapped area of 190 paired groups was included
204 as the response variable (not averaged but as 190 measures). Overlapped area is count-
205 based percentage data. Therefore, it was logit-transformed before model fitting for better
206 homoscedasticity. Survey year was normalized and fitted as a fixed effect. The id of
207 paired groups nested within the survey year was fitted as a random effect. This allows
208 for random intercept and slope for each pair of body size group. We repeated the same
209 analysis to examine the temporal trends in the distance between centers of abundance
210 for pairs of body size groups, without transforming the response variable. Then, we
211 repeated the analysis to examine the temporal trends in the area of distribution of body
212 size groups. Area of distribution is continuous proportional data. Thus, it was logit-
213 transformed before fitting. The id of body size group nested within survey year was
214 fitted as random effect.

215 (2) Then, we constructed a multiple regression model to test the relative importance of area
216 of distribution and distance between centers of abundance on overlapped area. We
217 regressed yearly mean of overlapped area (mean of 190 paired groups) against yearly
218 mean of area of distribution (mean of 20 body size groups), and yearly mean of distance
219 between centers of abundance in latitude and longitude (mean of 190 paired groups).
220 This resulted in 43 data points (43 years) in each model. To account for serial correlation
221 in time series data, we included the temporal autocorrelation of one-step time lag (AR1).

222 For the initial model, we included an interaction term between area of distribution and
223 the distance between centers of abundance. As none of the interaction term was
224 significant for neither population, we removed the interaction term from the initial
225 model. The final model wrote:

226 Yearly mean of overlapped area across paired groups $\sim \beta_1$ Yearly mean of area of
227 distribution across body size groups + β_2 Yearly mean of distance between centers
228 of abundance in longitude across paired groups + β_3 Yearly mean of distance
229 between centers of abundance in latitude across paired groups + AR1,

230 where β represents the fixed effects coefficients. All explanatory variables were
231 normalized before fitting. All the explanatory variables had variance inflation factors <
232 6, suggesting no noticeable multicollinearity. We extracted the fixed effects coefficients
233 with 95% confidence intervals to represent the relative importance of each explanatory
234 variable.

235 (3) For each body size group, we evaluated the temporal trends in the area of distribution
236 and center of abundance. To do so, we fitted a simple linear regression model for each
237 body size group separately. We included the area of distribution (logit-transformed), or
238 center of abundance of a body size group, as the response variable. We included survey
239 year as the explanatory variable. We used the slope coefficient to indicate the rate of
240 change in the area of distribution or center of abundance. Then, we examined how the
241 rate of change varied with body size. To do so, we used nonparametric loess regression
242 models. We included the rate of change in area of distribution, or center of abundance,
243 as the response variable. We included body size group as a continuous explanatory
244 variable.

245 (4) Finally, we examined whether the overlapped area was influenced by sea bottom
246 temperature (Temperature) and total stock biomass (Biomass). In addition, we examined

247 how the effects differed between body size groups within each fish population. We
248 hypothesized that the overlapped area is shaped by the area of distribution, and center
249 of abundance of each body size group. Therefore, we examined the effects of
250 Temperature and Biomass on these two variables. Temperature and Biomass are highly
251 colinear for three populations. Thus, we tested their effects using separate models. In
252 addition, we included AR1 in the model to account for the temporal autocorrelation. The
253 four full models were:

- 254 i. Yearly area of distribution of each body size group $\sim \beta_1$ body size group id \times
255 yearly Temperature + β_2 CPUE + AR1, and
- 256 ii. Yearly area of distribution of each body size group $\sim \beta_1$ body size group id \times
257 Biomass + β_2 CPUE + AR1, and
- 258 iii. Yearly center of abundance of each body size group in longitude or latitude $\sim \beta_1$
259 body size group id \times Yearly Temperature + AR1, and
- 260 iv. Yearly center of abundance of each body size group in longitude or latitude $\sim \beta_1$
261 body size group id \times Yearly Biomass + AR1,

262 where log-transformed CPUE of each body size group was included as a covariate to
263 account for abundance-distribution relationships. From each full model, we performed
264 a backward stepwise model selection. We derived the most parsimonious model based
265 on AIC and R^2 values.

266 We performed linear mixed-effects models using the function *lmer* from the *lme4* package.
267 *P-values* were extracted using *lmerTest* package. We extracted Conditional R^2 (variance
268 explained by both fixed and random effects) from the function *r.squaredGLMM* of *MuMIn*
269 package. We performed the loess regression model with the *geom_smooth* function of
270 *ggplot2* package. We further used heatmaps to visualize the differences in the temporal
271 trends of overlapped area between each pair of size groups.

272 **Results and Discussion**

273 Temporal decline in overlapped area between body size groups

274 For all three populations between 1977 and 2019, the overlapped area between pairs
275 of body size groups declined; that is, the spatial segregation increased between 20 body size
276 groups (**Fig. 1**). The declining trends were significant regardless of the number of size
277 groups we defined for each population (from 10 to 20 size groups, see **Table S2**), or fixed
278 size bin width (e.g., 5cm, **Fig S2**). In addition, the declining patterns were observed for each
279 subpopulation of Atlantic cod (South, Northwest, and Viking) (**Table S3**), suggesting a
280 universal declining spatial overlap for the Atlantic cod metapopulation.

281 For Atlantic cod, the decline in spatial overlap was strong between small groups,
282 between large groups, and between small and large groups (**Fig. S3**). Supporting these
283 results, we observed clear declines over time in the number of co-occupied survey rectangles
284 between juvenile and adult stages (**Fig. S4**). In contrast, for haddock, the decline in spatial
285 overlap occurred only between small size groups (**Fig. S3**). Similarly, whiting showed
286 declining spatial overlap between smaller groups, but increasing spatial overlap between
287 larger groups (**Fig. S3**). The lack of changes in the spatial overlap between small and large
288 groups, for both haddock and whiting, explained why the changes in co-occupied survey
289 rectangles between juvenile and adult stages are less drastic compared to Atlantic cod (**Fig.**
290 **S5 – S6**).

292 Contraction of the area of distribution of body size groups

293 One mechanism of spatial segregation between body size groups over time was
294 related to the contraction of their distribution area, driven by rising sea temperature and/or
295 population biomass decline. This mechanism was strongest in Atlantic cod and haddock.

296 The mechanism was weaker in whiting, which exhibited contraction of distribution area for
297 smaller groups but expansion for larger groups over time.

298 Particularly, for Atlantic cod and haddock, the mean distribution area across body
299 size groups declined over time (**Fig. 2a-b**). The mean distribution area was positively
300 associated with the mean overlapped area across pairs of body size groups (**Fig. 3a-b**). In
301 addition, total stock biomass positively contributed to the distribution area of each body size
302 group (**Fig. 4a-b**). These results suggest that declining total stock biomass over time for
303 these two populations (**Fig. S1**) led to contracted distribution area of body size groups,
304 which in turn decreased their overlapped area. Particularly, during the latter years with
305 lower stock biomass, larger size groups of Atlantic cod contracted their distribution areas in
306 a greater rate than smaller groups ($P < 0.0001$ for an interactive term of total stock biomass
307 \times body size group, **Fig. 4a, Table S4**). This pattern implies a greater removal of larger
308 groups under intensive fishing exploitation time period (Horwood et al. 2006, Hsieh et al.
309 2010a). The positive association between population biomass and the area of distribution of
310 body size groups agrees with the positive relationship observed at the whole population
311 level of many fish species, as a result of density-dependent habitat selection (Fretwell and
312 Lucas 1970, MacCall 1990, Fisher and Frank 2004, Thorson et al. 2016). Our finding is also
313 supported by earlier evidence that during low abundance years, the area of distribution of
314 age-1 and age-2 North Sea cod contracted to less than half of that available, towards habitats
315 that have near-optimal bottom temperatures (Blanchard et al. 2005).

316 Overfishing is a potential main reason for biomass decline and spatial segregation
317 within the Atlantic cod population. However, we did not examine the direct impact of
318 fishing activity (i.e., fishing mortality) on spatial dynamics of Atlantic cod. It is because
319 Atlantic cod is categorized as overexploited species, and its biomass recovers very slowly
320 even after relaxing the fishing pressure since 1990s (Köster et al. 2014). Thus, instantaneous

321 fishing mortality measured at each year does not reflect the long-term impacts of fishing on
322 the biomass and spatial structure of the population. Thus, in this study, we used estimated
323 total stock biomass as the indicator of population depletion level (Froese et al. 2017) rather
324 than fishing mortality, as a proxy to examine long-term fishing impacts on population spatial
325 dynamics.

326 In contrast to Atlantic cod and haddock, whiting did not have a significant decline
327 in the mean distribution area across body size groups (**Fig. 2c**). It was because larger groups
328 expanded their distribution area while smaller groups contracted their distribution area over
329 time (**Fig. 4c**). However, the mean area of distribution across body size groups was still
330 positively related to their overlapped area (**Fig. 3c**).

331 In addition to the effect of population biomass decline, ocean warming also impacted
332 the distribution area of body size groups, and the impacts varied among populations. For
333 haddock, sea bottom temperature negatively explained the area of distribution of all body
334 size groups (slope coefficient \pm standard error = -0.012 ± 0.004 , $P < 0.005$, **Fig. 4b**, **Table**
335 **S4**). That is, the rising temperature over the study period contributed to the contraction of
336 the distribution area of all body size groups, which then reduced the overlapped area
337 between them (**Fig. 3b**). In contrast, for whiting, rising sea temperature resulted in the
338 contraction of the distribution area of smaller size groups, but expansion of distribution area
339 of large sizes groups ($P < 0.01$ for the interactive term of sea bottom temperature \times body
340 size group, **Fig. 4c**). The differential responses between smaller and larger groups explains
341 the lack of temporal patterns in the mean area of distribution across body size groups of
342 whiting (**Fig. 2c**). In contrast to haddock and whiting, the distribution area of body size
343 groups of Atlantic cod was determined by the population biomass but not by the sea bottom
344 temperature (**Fig 4a**).

345 We speculate that the differences between haddock and whiting, in their distribution
346 area response to ocean warming, may be due to their prey types. Haddock, regardless of
347 body size, mainly feeds on benthic organisms which are spatially restricted under
348 environmental changes (Schückel et al. 2010). In contrast, whiting is one of the top marine
349 predators feeding on fishes, such as Norway pout, sandeel and sprat (Hislop et al. 1991).
350 These fish prey have higher dispersal potential than benthic organisms under environmental
351 changes, and thus could lead to the expansion of distribution for adult whiting that followed
352 their prey. This is supported by otolith microchemistry analysis, showing that adult whiting
353 can travel long distances (>500 km) to faraway spawning areas (Tobin et al. 2010). Whereas,
354 contrary to larger size whiting, the distribution area of small size whiting contracted over
355 time (**Fig 4c**). These observations support the notion that larger groups of some fish
356 populations can be resistant to adverse conditions related to warming, and could have better
357 knowledge and higher mobility moving to the optimal foraging and spawning grounds
358 (Hsieh et al. 2010a).

359 Haddock and whiting have shifted northward since 1977, and the shift of whiting
360 was correlated with warming (Perry et al. 2005). If some fishes have shifted outside of the
361 North Sea, then the population biomass within the North Sea may reduce, leading to
362 contraction in the distribution area and then spatial segregation between body size groups.
363 Nevertheless, the spatial overlap indices used in our study is not sensitive to the spatial
364 boundary of populations. This is because the indices are calculated based on the ratio of co-
365 occupied area over occupied area by each body size group. Thus, these indices reveal the
366 temporal variations in the degree of spatial overlap within the region analyzed in this study.

367
368 Distance increased between the centers of abundance between body size groups

369 In addition to the area of distribution, we hypothesized that the overlapped area
370 between body size groups were negatively associated with their distance between the centers
371 of abundance. In addition, such pattern was due to body size-specific shift in the centers of
372 abundance, responding to rising sea temperature or population biomass decline. We found
373 that whiting was the only population that exhibited this mechanism. In contrast, the spatial
374 overlap within Atlantic cod and haddock was mainly determined by the area of distribution
375 of body size groups.

376 Particularly, whiting showed temporal increases in the mean distance between
377 centers of abundance across pairs of body size groups in longitude and latitude (**Fig. 2 f, i**).
378 In addition, the mean distance was negatively associated with the overlapped area across
379 paired groups (**Fig. 3c**). These results suggest that an increase in the distance contributed to
380 a decline in the overlap between body size groups. The center of abundance of larger whiting
381 shifted westward, while smaller groups shifted eastward ($P < 0.005$ for an interactive term
382 of sea bottom temperature \times body size group id, **Table S4, Fig. 4f**). Therefore, depending
383 on the original position of distributions, the body size-varying shift in the centers of
384 abundance may have increased the distance between body size groups, hence reducing their
385 overlapped area.

386 In contrast to whiting, for Atlantic cod and haddock, the distance between the centers
387 of abundance across paired groups did not significantly explain the overlapped area (**Fig.**
388 **3a-b**). However, both populations showed an increase in the distance between centers of
389 abundance (except for Atlantic cod at the longitudinal distance) (**Fig 2d-e, 2g-h**). These
390 results suggest that the changes in the distance were too weak to influence the overlapped
391 area between body size groups. Instead, the contraction of area of distribution of body size
392 groups was the main driver for the spatial segregation under lower population biomass for
393 Atlantic cod and haddock (**Fig 3a-b**). Interestingly, for haddock, the center of abundance of

394 larger groups at latitudinal direction was more negatively associated with the sea bottom
395 temperature, compared to smaller haddock ($P < 0.01$ for an interactive term of sea bottom
396 temperature \times body size group id, **Fig. 4h, Table S4**). Consequently, the centers of
397 abundance of all size groups shifted northward in response to higher temperature, but larger
398 size groups shifted faster than smaller size groups. Such different magnitudes of shift of the
399 centers of abundance of body size groups in response to warming may have led to increased
400 distance between their distributions for haddock.

402 Implications

403 While all the populations examined in this study demonstrated increased spatial
404 segregation between body size groups over time, the underlying spatial dynamics of body
405 size groups (i.e., area of distribution and center of abundance) and driving forces (i.e., ocean
406 warming and population biomass decline) differed among the three studied populations (**Fig.**
407 **5**). These results have important implications for exploring the differences between
408 populations in their physiological and biogeographic traits at the body size level. For
409 example, body size groups within a population can exhibit different niches (e.g., thermal
410 tolerance, food requirements (Ciannelli et al. 2013)). What drives different spatial responses
411 among populations depends on the extent to which the niches of body size groups overlap.
412 For example, populations with stronger or weaker niche preferences between body size
413 groups may respond differently to disturbances such as climatic or anthropogenic stress
414 (Tao et al. 2021).

415 For Atlantic cod and haddock, the contraction of the distribution area of body size
416 groups was the main driver for the spatial segregation among body size groups over time.
417 This finding has important implications to identify populations at risk of increased spatial
418 segregation at body size group level. For example, both highly migratory pelagic predators
419 (e.g., tuna, billfish) (Worm and Tittensor 2011) and species living in regional seas (e.g.,

420 Monterey Spanish mackerel at the coast of California (Collette and Russo 1984) and
421 yellowtail flounder around Newfoundland (Brodie et al. 1998)) have shown contraction of
422 their distribution area over the past decades. Although the contractions of distribution area
423 were observed at the population level, these patterns may apply to the finer level of body
424 size group. Furthermore, global projections estimated that the biomass of 77% of exploited
425 fishes and invertebrates will decrease when high-temperature extreme will occur (Cheung
426 et al. 2021). These pieces of evidence imply that many fish populations may have exhibited
427 spatial segregation between body size groups, especially for those underwent reduced
428 population biomass and contracted area of distribution, and for those living in climate-
429 unstable regions. Large distributional shift may also reduce population biomass and
430 distributional area at the original habitats. For example, in the North Sea, nearly two-third
431 of fish species have shifted northward or deeper between 1977 and 2001 (Perry et al. 2005).
432 Further investigations on these species which are “on the move” in the North Sea and
433 beyond can help identify the state of the art of spatial dynamics within these populations,
434 and to examine the spatial mechanisms and drivers for these vulnerable populations. These
435 results are helpful to prioritize management and conservation efforts.

436 The ecological consequences of spatial segregation between body size groups of a
437 population needs further investigation. While population growth may increase due to
438 weakened cannibalism and competition, spatial segregation of size groups may increase the
439 vulnerability of demographic structure to local perturbations. This merits future research to
440 investigate the net effects of within-population spatial segregation on population dynamics
441 and stability.

442 **Conclusion**

443 Recently, increasing evidence on aquatic and terrestrial populations has shown that
444 the shift in spatial distribution varied between life stages or body size under environmental
445 change (Bell et al. 2015, Máliš et al. 2016, Fei et al. 2017, Barbeaux and Hollowed 2018,
446 Frank et al. 2018, Yang et al. 2019). However, it remains unclear to what extent different
447 size groups within populations has segregated from each other over time. We develop a new
448 analytical approach to deepen the understanding of spatial dynamics within populations
449 under global environmental stress. This approach can be applied to populations at various
450 terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems globally, to identify vulnerable populations under
451 environmental stress. This approach also allows us to uncover the mechanisms of spatial
452 segregation within populations, which have profound consequences in demographic
453 connectivity and population stability.

454 **Data and availability statements:**

455 All raw data that support the findings of this study are publicly available. Fish survey data
456 and sea bottom temperature are available at the ICES data portal <https://data.ices.dk/>. Total
457 stock biomass is available from ICES stock assessment reports (ICES 2016, 2018). The
458 codes needed to replicate the analyses presented in this paper will be available at online
459 repository.

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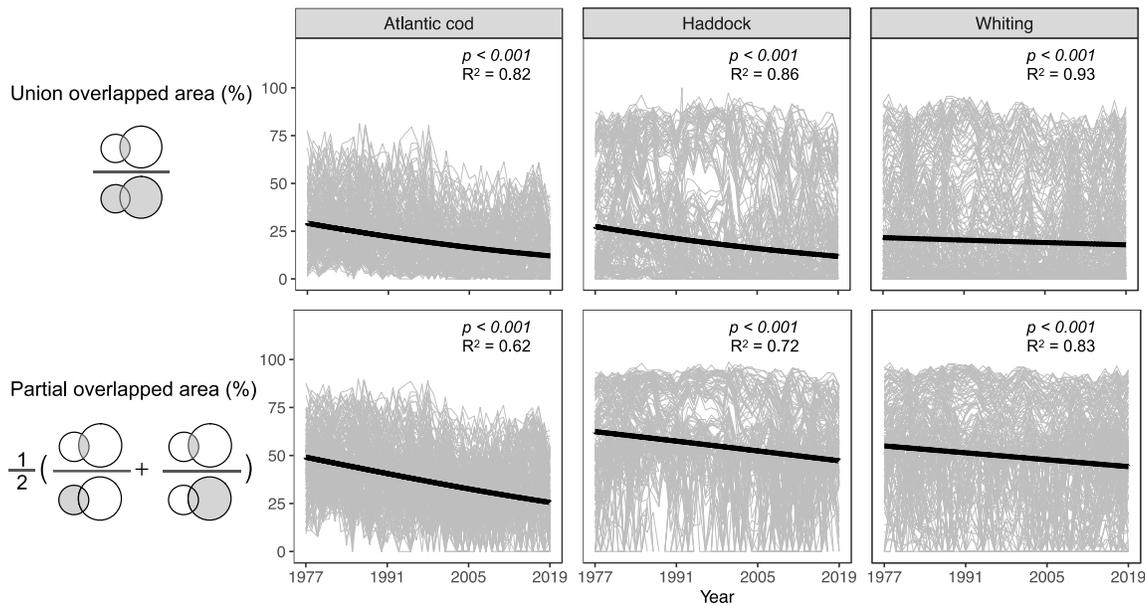
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587

588 **Fig. 1 Decline in the overlapped area between pairs of body size groups of three fish**

589 **populations between 1977 and 2019.** Each population is divided into 20 body size groups,

590 resulting in a total of 190 pairs of body size groups. Overlapped area was calculated as the

591 proportion of co-occupied area over the area where either body size group occupies (union

592 overlapped area, upper panel), and as the proportion of co-occupied area over the averaged area of

593 distribution of each body size group of the pair (partial overlapped area, lower panel). Yearly

594 overlapped area for each of the 190 body size group pairs is shown in grey thin line. The temporal

595 trend of overlapped area was examined using linear mixed-effects model, with logit-transformed

596 overlapped area as the response variable, survey year as the fixed effect, and pairs of body size

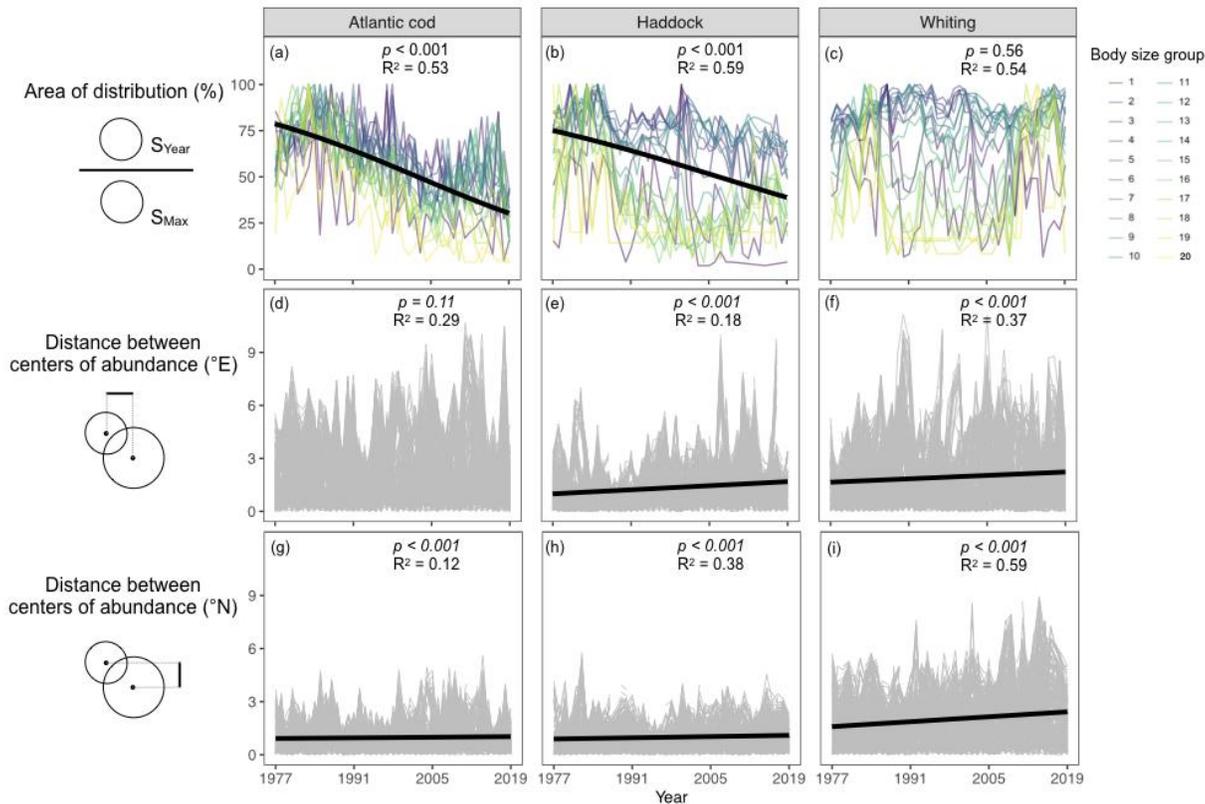
597 groups within year as the random effect. Black thick lines indicate the regression lines with slope

598 coefficients that were significantly different from zero according to F-test. Conditional R^2 (which

599 considers variances of both fixed and random effects) were reported on the graphs. Marginal R^2

600 (which considers only variances of fixed effects) for Atlantic cod, haddock, and whiting were 0.11,

601 0.03, 0.002 (union overlapped area) and 0.11, 0.04, and 0.006 (partial overlapped area), respectively.



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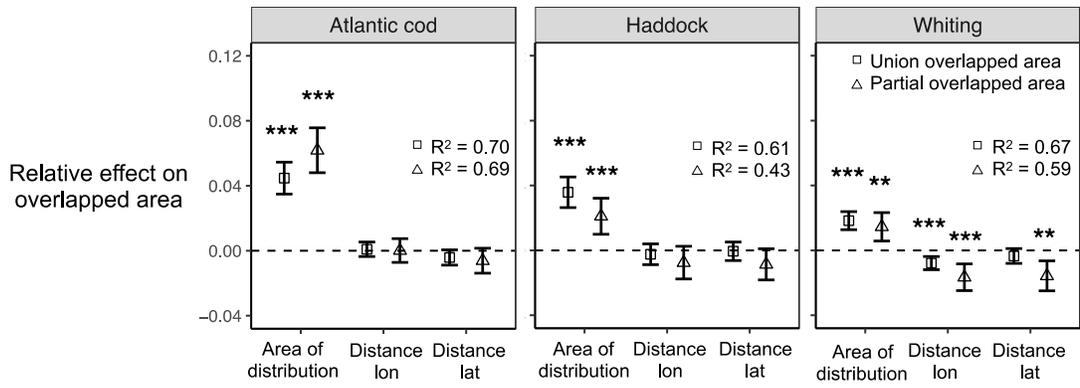
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Fig. 2 Area of distribution (a-c) and distance between centers of abundance in longitude (d-f) and latitude (g-i) between 1977 and 2019. (a-c) Area of distribution of each body size group for each year is calculated as the proportion of occupied area (S_{Year}) over the maximum occupied area over the study period (S_{Max}). Colored lines indicate time series of 20 body size groups. We performed linear mixed-effects models, with logit-transformed area of distribution as the response variable, year as the explanatory variable, and body size group nested within year as the random effect. (d-i) Each grey line indicates the time series of one of 190 pairs of body size groups. We performed linear mixed-effects models, with the distance between centers of distribution as the fixed effect, survey year as the fixed effect, and pairs of body size groups nested within year as the random effect. Black thick lines indicate significant models ($p < 0.05$), while nonsignificant results are now shown.



615

616 **Fig. 3 Effects of area of distribution and distance between centers of abundance on overlapped**

617 **area.** Relative effects were derived from slope coefficients of multiple linear regression models,

618 including overlapped area as the response variable, area of distribution of each body size group and

619 distance between centers of abundance of pairs of body size groups (in longitude and latitude) as

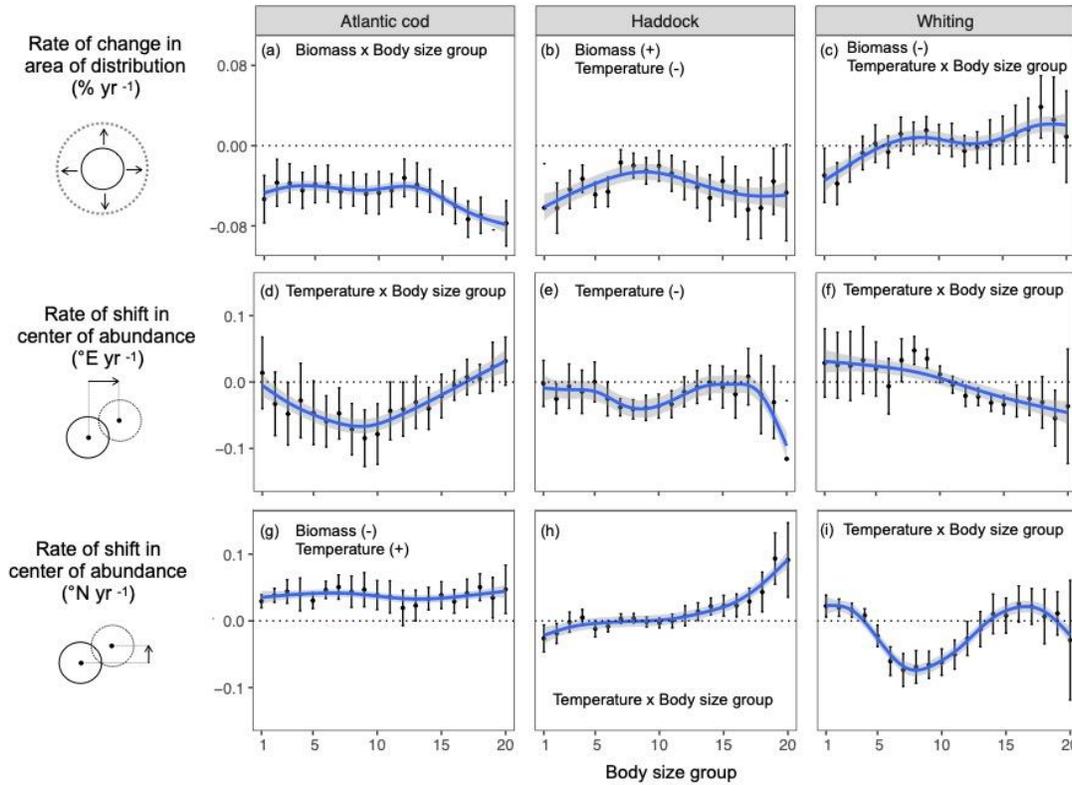
620 explanatory variables, and an AR1 term. Response and explanatory variables were yearly mean

621 values across all body size groups (for area of distribution) or across all pairs of body size groups

622 (for overlapped area and distance between centers of abundance). Bars indicate 95% confidence

623 intervals. Dotted horizontal line indicates zero slope coefficient. *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, and *

624 $p < 0.05$ indicate that the slope coefficient is significantly different from zero according to F-test.



626

627 **Fig. 4 Rate of change in the area of distribution and center of abundance between 1977 and**
 628 **2019 in response to ocean warming and population biomass decline.** The rate of change for each
 629 body size group was indicated by the temporal slope (point) of linear regression model, including
 630 area of distribution or center of abundance (in longitude or latitude) as a response variable, and
 631 survey year as the explanatory variable. Black bars indicate the 95% confidence intervals of
 632 temporal slopes. Differences in the rate of change between body size groups were visualized using
 633 loess regression prediction (blue line) and 95% confidence intervals (grey shade), including the
 634 temporal slope of body size groups as the response variable and body size group as the continuous
 635 explanatory variable. Size-dependent effects of sea bottom temperature (Temperature) and total
 636 stock biomass (Biomass) on the area of distribution and the center of abundance were examined in
 637 linear regression, by including interaction terms of Temperature or Biomass with body size group

638 in the initial models (further details in Methods). Significant explanatory variables ($p < 0.05$) from
639 the most parsimonious models are shown, with positive effects (+), negative effects (-), or size-
640 dependent effect (\times body size).

641

The diagram is organized into three columns for Atlantic cod, Haddock, and Whiting. Each column has three rows of diagrams. The top row, labeled 'Theoretical relative positions in 1977', shows two overlapping circles: a red circle on the left and a blue circle on the right, with a black dot at the center of each. Small fish icons are placed above the circles. The middle row, labeled 'Change in area of distribution in 2019', shows the same circles with arrows indicating expansion or contraction. The bottom row, labeled 'Change in center of abundance in 2019', shows the circles with black arrows indicating the shift in their centers. Vertical arrows between rows indicate the factors causing these changes: 'population biomass decline' and 'Ocean warming'.

642

643 **Fig. 5 Conceptual diagram illustrating changes in overlapped area between body size groups**
 644 **within populations in response to ocean warming and population biomass decline.** Circle
 645 represents the theoretical area of distribution of smaller (red) or larger groups (blue) within each
 646 population in a two-dimensional space. Black dots indicate centers of abundance. The direction of
 647 arrows in red or blue indicate expansion (outward) or contraction (inward) of the area of distribution
 648 for large or small groups, respectively, and the thickness of arrows indicates the magnitude of
 649 change. Black arrow indicates the direction of shift in the center of abundance. Changes in the area
 650 of distribution and center of abundance may or may not occur chronologically.

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