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1 **Title:** The shifting distribution of Mediterranean fishes: a spatio-temporal assessment based on  
2 Local Ecological Knowledge

3

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34 **Abstract**

35 A major problem worldwide is the rapid change in species abundance and distribution, which is  
36 rapidly restructuring the biological communities of many ecosystems under changing climates.  
37 Tracking these transformations in the marine environment is crucial but our understanding is often  
38 hampered by the absence of historical data and by the practical challenge of survey large  
39 geographical areas. Here we focus on the Mediterranean Sea, a region which is warming faster than  
40 the rest of the global ocean, tracing back the spatio-temporal dynamic of species, which are  
41 emerging the most in terms of increasing abundances and expanding distributions. To this aim, we  
42 accessed the Local Ecological Knowledge (LEK) of small-scale and recreational fishers  
43 reconstructing the dynamics of fish perceived as ‘new’ or increasing in different fishing area. Over  
44 500 fishers across 95 locations and 9 different countries were interviewed and semi-quantitative  
45 information on yearly changes in species abundance was collected. Overall, 75 species were  
46 mentioned by the respondents, being the most frequent citations related to warm-adapted species of  
47 both, native and exotic origin. Respondents belonging to the same biogeographic sectors described  
48 coherent spatio-temporal dynamics, and gradients along latitudinal and longitudinal axes were  
49 revealed. This information provides a more complete understanding of recent bio-geographical  
50 changes in the Mediterranean Sea and it also demonstrates that adequately structured LEK  
51 methodology might be applied successfully beyond the local scale, across national borders and  
52 jurisdictions. Acknowledging this potential through macro-regional coordination, could pave the  
53 ground for future large-scale aggregations of individual observations, increasing our potential for  
54 integrated monitoring and conservation planning at the regional or even global level.

55

56 **Keywords:**

57 Collaborative research, small scale fishery, recreational fishery, climate change, biological  
58 invasions, interviews

59

## 60 **Introduction**

61 The redistribution of Earth’s species is among the most evident consequences of global warming  
62 (Parmesan & Yohe, 2003; Poloczanska, Burrows, Brown, García Molinos, Halpern *et al.*, 2016) and  
63 a critical aspect for the health of both, natural ecosystems and human populations worldwide (Pecl,  
64 Araújo, Bell, Blanchard, Bonebrake *et al.*, 2017). These changes are usually greater for marine  
65 environments, because of their high environmental connectivity (Burrows, Schoeman, Buckley,  
66 Moore, Poloczanska *et al.*, 2011) and because of the pivotal role of water temperatures, which  
67 strongly influence growth, survival and reproduction in marine animals (Crozier & Hutchings,  
68 2014; Reusch, 2014). In facts, even apparently modest changes in water temperature might trigger a  
69 rapid cascade of multiple pressures over marine organisms. Some species, unable to cope with these  
70 environmental alterations, or benefiting from them, may change their abundances accordingly.  
71 However, mobile marine organisms, also have another option: they can move to new areas where  
72 they were formerly absent (Cheung, Lam, Sarmiento, Kearney, Watson *et al.*, 2009; Fogarty,  
73 Burrows, Pecl, Robinson & Poloczanska, 2017). These two dynamics are not mutually exclusive, as  
74 they can be considered as different behavioural and demographic responses that might co-exist in  
75 the same species or population.

76         Specifically, in the northern hemisphere, sea water warming has been associated to both the  
77 northward expansion of species and their increasing abundances (Fossheim, Primicerio,  
78 Johannesen, Ingvaldsen, Aschan *et al.*, 2015; Perry, Low, Ellis & Reynolds, 2005; Pörtner & Knust,  
79 2007; Sabatés, Paloma, Lloret & Raya, 2006). Yet, many studies provided evidence for the causal

78 relationship between temperature, species distribution and abundance (Cheung, Watson & Pauly,  
79 2013; Pinsky, Worm, Fogarty, Sarmiento & Levin, 2013; Poloczanska, Brown, Sydeman, Kiessling,  
80 Schoeman *et al.*, 2013), as well as their interplay with other global drivers, such as biological  
81 invasions, marine overexploitation and pollution (Stergiou, 2002; Walther, Roques, Hulme, Sykes,  
82 Pyšek *et al.*, 2009). These changes, which are taking place across many different taxa and through  
83 different regions of the globe, have significant implications for biodiversity, ecosystems and society  
84 (McGeoch & Latombe, 2016) and are considered to be particularly apparent in the Mediterranean, a  
85 semi-enclosed sea, which is warming faster than any other marine region in the world (Vargas-  
86 Yáñez, García, Salat, García-Martínez, Pascual *et al.*, 2008; Schroeder, Chiggiato, Bryden,  
87 Borghini, & Ben Ismail, 2016). In addition, maritime traffic, mariculture, aquarium trade and above  
88 all, entries through the Suez Canal (Edelist, Rilov, Golani, Carlton & Spanier, 2013; Parravicini,  
89 Azzurro, Kulbicki & Belmaker, 2015) contribute to introduce a large number of non-indigenous  
90 species (hereafter referred as NIS) to this basin (Galil, Marchini, Occhipinti-Ambrogi & Ojaveer,  
91 2017; Golani, Orsi-Relini, Massuti, Quignard, Dulčić *et al.*, 2018; Zenetos, Çinar, Crocetta, Golani,  
92 Rosso *et al.*, 2017), re-shaping the structure of biological communities (Albouy, Guilhaumon,  
93 Leprieur, Lasram, Somot *et al.*, 2013; Albouy, Leprieur, Le Loc'h, Mouquet, Meynard *et al.*, 2015;  
94 Albouy, Velez, Coll, Colloca, Le Loc'h *et al.*, 2014; Katsanevakis, Mackelworth, Coll, Frascetti,  
95 Mačić *et al.*, 2017) and impacting biodiversity and fishery resources (Edelist *et al.*, 2013).  
96 Despite the magnitude of these changes and their relevance for conservation and adaptation policy  
97 (Givan, Parravicini, Kulbicki & Belmaker, 2017; Marras, Cucco, Antognarelli, Azzurro, Milazzo *et*  
98 *al.*, 2015), observational studies are often fragmented in space (Elmendorf, Henry, Hollister, Fosaa,  
99 Gould *et al.*, 2015) and methodologically heterogeneous (Coll, Piroddi, Steenbeek, Kaschner, Ben  
100 Rais Lasram *et al.*, 2010). This also applies to the northward expansions of warm-water species, a

101 phenomenon that has been mostly described in the North-Western sectors of the Mediterranean  
102 basin, probably due to the uneven distribution of research efforts (Boero, Féral, Azzurro, Cardin,  
103 Riedel *et al.*, 2008; Lejeusne, Chevaldonné, Pergent-Martini, Boudouresque & Pérez, 2010; Marbà,  
104 Jordà, Agustí, Girard & Duarte, 2015; Sabatés, Martín & Raya, 2012). This fragmentation, together  
105 with the lack of coherent depictions of change, hampers the availability of reliable information to  
106 stakeholders and decision makers (Grafton, 2010; Pauly & Zeller, 2016). Indeed, in light of  
107 profound impacts that have already affected both people and the ecosystems they depend on, many  
108 national and transnational authorities and agencies are engaged in efforts to build adaptive capacity,  
109 seeking reliable information to enable people to anticipate and appropriately respond to the ongoing  
110 change (Coulthard, 2012). This explains the growing need of integrated monitoring and assessment  
111 systems to capture the ongoing transformations of marine ecosystems (including the effects of a  
112 changing climate) and to bring them into the policy agendas (Creighton, Hobday, Lockwood &  
113 Pecl, 2016). Certainly, our observational potential grew steadily during the last few years and  
114 increasing efforts are devoted to conceive global observation systems for up-to-date information on  
115 the state of biodiversity and the threats it faces (Tittensor, Walpole, Hill, Boyce, Britten *et al.*,  
116 2014). To achieve this, the use of standardized and cost-effective procedures is needed to underpin a  
117 large-scale observation strategy that can accommodate countries across a range of baseline  
118 knowledge levels and capabilities (Latombe, Pyšek, Jeschke, Blackburn, Bacher *et al.*, 2017;  
119 Bélisle, Asselin, LeBlanc, Gauthier, 2018). These are key principles for collecting and integrating  
120 information from stakeholders across national boundaries. In this, fishers are a particularly  
121 interesting group of stakeholders, as they spend a considerable proportion of their lives in close  
122 contact with the marine environment and they become familiar with local species. Therefore, their  
123 personal experience can provide precious complementary information about marine communities

124 and be used to set effective monitoring practices. Yet, accessing this knowledge (hereafter referred  
125 as Local Ecological Knowledge or LEK), is offering new opportunities to Mediterranean research  
126 (Azzurro, Bolognini, Dragičević, Drakulović, Dulčić *et al.*, 2018; Azzurro, Moschella & Maynou,  
127 2011; Damalas, Maravelias, Osio, Maynou, Sbrana, & Sartor, 2015; Bastari, Beccacece, Ferretti,  
128 Micheli & Cerrano, 2017; Coll, Carreras, Ciércoles, Cornax, Gorelli *et al.*, 2014; Mavruk, Saygu,  
129 Bengil, Alan & Azzurro, 2018), providing new opportunities to overcome practical and budgetary  
130 constraint, especially in poorly studied areas.

131 Here we accessed the knowledge of Mediterranean fishers, to reconstruct changes in fish  
132 distribution and abundance, altogether with their related spatial and temporal dynamics. We did so  
133 by:

- 134 1. Compiling a dataset of species that were perceived as increasing or new by respondents (hereafter  
135 referred to as *increasing species*);
- 136 2. Using this multivariate information to explore the structure of perceived change across different  
137 subsectors of the Mediterranean Sea;
- 138 3. Testing for the effect of spatial gradients on the overall number of increasing species;
- 139 4. Exploring the spatio-temporal evolution of increasing species.

140

## 141 **Methods**

### 142 **Fishers' interviews**

143 Drawing on the methodology conceived within a pilot experience (Azzurro, Moschella &  
144 Maynou, 2011) and according to the procedure described by an online video tutorial (*in prep*), we  
145 used a semi-structured questionnaire (**Annex 1a,b**), to reconstruct changes in distribution and  
146 abundance of Mediterranean fishes.

147 Knowledgeable small-scale fishers with more than 10 years of experience were identified  
148 and selected by each local research team and individual face-to-face interviews were realized  
149 according to a standard protocol. Respondents were asked to mention the species that increased in  
150 abundance or were perceived as ‘new’ (i.e. never observed before) in their fishing areas. For each of  
151 these species, qualitative ranking of historical abundances was expressed along a yearly timeline  
152 and according to six categories [0 =ABSENT; 1 =RARE (once in a year); 2=OCCASIONAL  
153 (sometimes in a fishing period); 3=COMMON (regularly in a fishing period); 4 =ABUNDANT  
154 (regularly in a fishing period and abundant); 5=DOMINANT (always in a fishing period and with  
155 great abundances)]. To facilitate the process of reconstructing historical abundances, line drawings  
156 on a pre-printed diagramming table was used by the interviewer (**Annex 1**). Coloured pictures of  
157 fish and fish identification manuals were used as visual aids for accurate species identification,  
158 checking respondent’s knowledge on specific taxonomic characters, whenever needed. The duration  
159 of a single interview ranged between 15 and 45 minutes. This protocol, which was initially tested in  
160 Italy with a restricted number of fishers (Azzurro, Moschella & Maynou, 2011) , was applied here  
161 across 9 different countries and 95 locations (Fig. 1) distributed into 7 different Mediterranean  
162 subsectors (sensu di Sciara, 2016): Algero-Provencal, Tyrrhenian, Adriatic, Strait of Sicily and  
163 Tunisian plateau, Ionian, Aegean and Levantin. This large spatial coverage was made possible  
164 through a collective and coordinated effort based on the engagement of an international team of  
165 researchers well connected with local fishery communities. The methodological transfer to the  
166 participating researchers was supported, from 2012 to 2016, by five training sessions carried out in  
167 Tunisia, Montenegro, Albania, Croatia and Italy. Training included both theoretical lessons and joint  
168 field surveys made in collaboration with local fishers. Attendants were guided in performing  
169 standardized interviews and advised on how to reduce potential biases, such as the ones related to



170 taxonomical identification and ‘memory recall’ bias (Coughlin, 1990). Interviews were realized  
171 between 2009 and 2016 by local researcher in local languages (Albanian, Arabic, Croatian, Greek,  
172 Italian, Montenegrin and Turkish). The LEK protocol is currently applied in other Mediterranean  
173 countries, such as Libya, Spain and France and adopted by five Mediterranean Marine Protected  
174 Areas generating new data, which were not included in the present study.

175

### 176 **Sample characteristics**

177 A total of 513 Mediterranean fishers with more than 10 years of experience were selected and  
178 successfully interviewed. Their age ranged from 28 to 87 years (mean±sd; 48±11). Their cumulative  
179 working experience accounted for a total of 15030 years of observations at sea. Overall, 59% of  
180 respondents were represented by professional fishers and 38% by recreational ones. Gillnets were  
181 the most common used gear among professionals (48%), followed by longlines (26%), traps (9%),  
182 purse (8%) and other gears (9%). Concerning recreational fishers, 64% of them were anglers and  
183 34% were spearfishers (Fig. 1).

184

### 185 **Statistical approach**

186 Based on available literature (Azzurro, 2008; Golani *et al.*, 2018) and according to their origin and  
187 spatial trend, we classified fish species spontaneously mentioned by the respondents in three  
188 different groups: North Expanding Species of indigenous origin (NES); Other Indigenous Species  
189 (OIS); Non Indigenous Species (NIS).

190 Based on the Bray-Curtis index, four different analyses of similarity were used to compare  
191 the groups of species mentioned by each respondent across the seven Mediterranean sectors: i) we  
192 firstly used similarity percentages to see on which *increasing* species respondents agreed the most

193 ii) then we adopted a Nonmetric Multidimensional Scaling (nMDS) to represent the extent to which  
194 the increasing species cited from the different Mediterranean subsectors were similar; iii) we fit  
195 autosimilarity curves to see whether our interviews captured the entire amount of increasing species  
196 in the different areas of the Mediterranean. Autosimilarity curves are adopted in community ecology  
197 to see if sample size is suitable to detect all the species within a community (Schneck & Melo,  
198 2010). A curve is calculated by iteratively computing average resemblance values between  
199 randomly selected samples from a data set. When resemblance attains an asymptote, sample size is  
200 deemed to represent a whole community. In this research, we regarded interviews as ecological  
201 samples. Therefore, autosimilarity curves told us whether our sampling in the various areas of the  
202 Mediterranean captured fisher’s consensus about increasing species. We fit separate curves for NIS,  
203 NES and OIS. Finally, to see the extent to which changes in fish communities were reflected in  
204 fisher’s knowledge, iv) we modelled the effect of latitude, longitude over the total number of  
205 increasing species and over the number of increasing NES, NIS and OIS, through Generalized  
206 Additive Modelling (Guisan, Edwards & Hastie, 2002; Hastie & Tibshirani, 1990; Wood, 2017a;  
207 Wood, Pya & Säfken, 2016). To account for heterogeneity in sampling effort, we used the total  
208 number of interviews collected at each location as an offset. We chose a spline-based penalized  
209 likelihood estimators, with a fixed number of knots (k=6), that was deemed large enough to avoid  
210 overfitting and Wald Chi-square statistics was adopted to test for the significance of smooth terms  
211 (Wood, 2013).

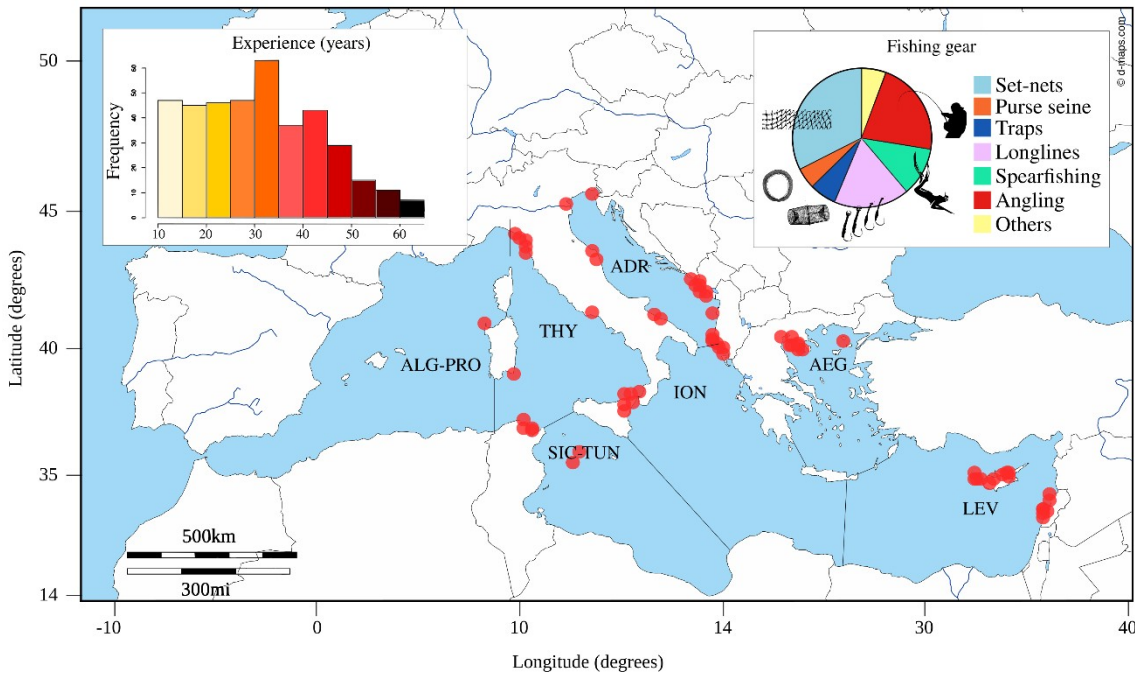
212         Spatio-temporal changes in fish abundances were analysed through breakpoint analyses of the  
213 historical time series of perceived abundances of the two most frequently cited NES and NIS  
214 species. We determined the year at which each species-specific time series indicated a significant  
215 change in the perceived abundance (breakpoint) by using a binary segmentation method assuming a

216 Poisson distribution of the data (Killick & Eckley, 2014). To quantify the intensity of this break, we  
217 also determined its jump, defined as the difference between the perceived abundance before and  
218 after the breakpoint. Since the breakpoint analysis was not sensitive in detecting the exact year of  
219 arrival of the ‘new’ species, we also extracted from each species-specific time series the year of  
220 perceived arrival, which corresponded to the year at which the perceived abundance changed from 0  
221 (absence) to any of the other scores (i.e., 1-5). Then, we explored the effect of latitude and longitude  
222 over the year of break, the jump and the year of arrival, through another set of GAM with a  
223 Gaussian distribution of the error. We implemented six models for each species using latitude and  
224 longitude as smoothing terms for the three variables (year of break, jump and year of arrival). In all  
225 cases, the total number of interviews collected at each latitude and longitude was used as offset to  
226 account for different sampling efforts. Then we used spline-based penalized likelihood estimators  
227 and a number of fixed knots ( $n=7$ ) and F statistics was used to assess the significance of smooth  
228 terms (Wood, 2013).

229 Statistical analyses were run using the 3.4.3 version of R (<https://www.R-project.org/>). GAM  
230 modelling was carried out with the ‘mgcv’ package (Wood, 2017b), breakpoint analysis with the  
231 package ‘changepoint’ (Killick & Eckley, 2014), similarity percentages, autosimilarity curves and  
232 NMDS with the package ‘vegan’ (Oksanen, Blanchet, Kindt, Legendre, Minchin *et al.*, 2013).

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237 **Figure 1** – Map of the Mediterranean region where the red dots indicate the sampling sites where  
238 interviews were conducted. On the top-left of the map the distribution of the fishing experience (years)  
239 of the interviewed is reported. On the top-right the different fishing gears used by the interviewed are  
240 reported.

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## 245 **Results**

246 Mediterranean fishers, with their varying cultural and political settings, were proved a fertile ground  
247 where to explore LEK on changes in fish diversity and abundance. In the most of the cases,  
248 respondents were interested about the research questions, glad to share information with the  
249 researchers and generally pleased to be regarded as experts. What most participants pointed out, in  
250 their narratives was the rapid and dramatic ecological change and the reconstruction provided here  
251 summarizes years of individual witnesses, which quantify our climate/invasive expectations.

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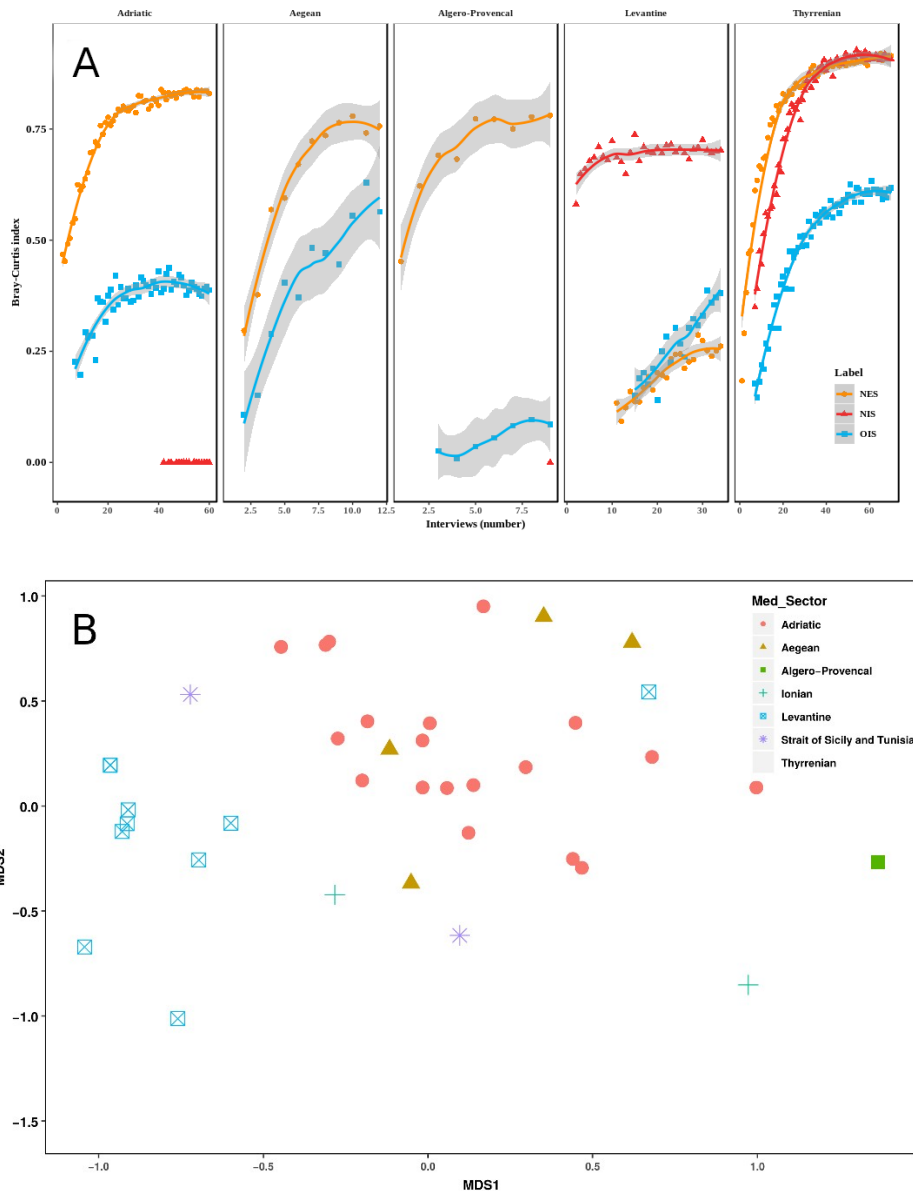
253 *Species perceived as increasing in abundance or new in respondent’s fishing areas*

254 Overall, 423 fishers (82%) told us that at least one species increased in abundance or appeared as  
255 new in their fishing area, for a total of 886 observations across 75 taxa (Annex 2). These included a  
256 number of 13 NIS (21% of citations), 20 NES (64% of citations) and other 42 OIS (15% of  
257 citations). A complete list of species is available in Figure S1.

258 The invasive *Lagocephalus sceleratus* and *Fistularia commersonii* were the most cited NIS  
259 (31% and 34% of total observations, respectively, see Fig. S1), whilst *Pomatomus saltatrix* and  
260 *Sphyraena viridensis* were the most cited NES (30% and 15% of total observations, respectively,  
261 see Fig. S1). Finally, *Sparus aurata*, *Synodus saurus* and *Thunnus thynnus* were the most cited OIS  
262 (16%, 10% and 9% of total observations, respectively, see Fig. S1).

263 Some of the autosimilarity curves, based on the Bray-Curtis similarity index, reached an  
264 asymptote (Fig. 2a), indicating that respondents strongly agreed on the increase of a specific group  
265 of species. This was observed for NES in all the sub-sectors of the Mediterranean but the Levantine,  
266 and for OIS, like *Sparus aurata*, in the Tyrrhenian and the Adriatic Sea (See Table S1). Respondents  
267 belonging to the same geographical subsectors generally provided coherent information about NIS,  
268 NES and OIS, when interviews were collected from the same geographical sector (e.g. the  
269 Tyrrhenian sea). On the contrary, significant differences can be highlighted for the group NIS,  
270 when distant areas are compared (e.g. Tyrrhenian vs Levantine Sea) (Fig. 2b).

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276 **Figure 2.** a) Upper panel: autosimilarity curves, for NIS/NES/OIS in the 5 geographical subsectors;  
277 when a curve reached a plateau, respondents in that geographical sector agreed over the increase of  
278 that specific group of species. b) Lower panel: Non-metric Multi Dimensional Scaling, indicating  
279 the degree of overlapping between the various geographical sectors in term of cited increasing  
280 species.

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284 *Structure of perceived changes across areas*

285 Non-metric Multi Dimensional Scaling (nMDS) showed a good nonmetric ( $R^2 = 0.95$ ) and linear  
286 ( $R^2 = 0.735$ ) fit to the data in a two-dimensions form. The plot (Fig. 2b) revealed a general  
287 similarity across areas, such as the Tyrrhenian, the Algero-Provencal, the Adriatic and the Ionian  
288 seas. Nevertheless, a variable level of separation can be highlighted between the Adriatic and the  
289 Levantine, between the Aegean and the Strait of Sicily and between the Tyrrhenian and the  
290 Levantine subsectors, indicating significant changes in the pool of increasing species across distant  
291 bio-geographical sectors.

292 Similarity percentages, expressed through the Bray-Curtis index (Table S1) showed the  
293 species which explained the most the observed similarity between responses. For example,  
294 respondents from the Adriatic, Levantine or Algero-Provencal areas provided similar depictions of  
295 change, because they agreed over the increase of *P. saltatrix* or *L. sceleratus* that accounted to about  
296 one third of observed intragroup similarity, respectively (Table S1). On the other hand, intragroup  
297 similarity, in other sub-sectors like the Tyrrhenian, the Aegean or the Strait of Sicily, was explained  
298 by a wider group of species (Table S1). A complete table of the various NIS, NES and OIS cited as  
299 increasing in the various sub-sectors is available in Table S2.

300

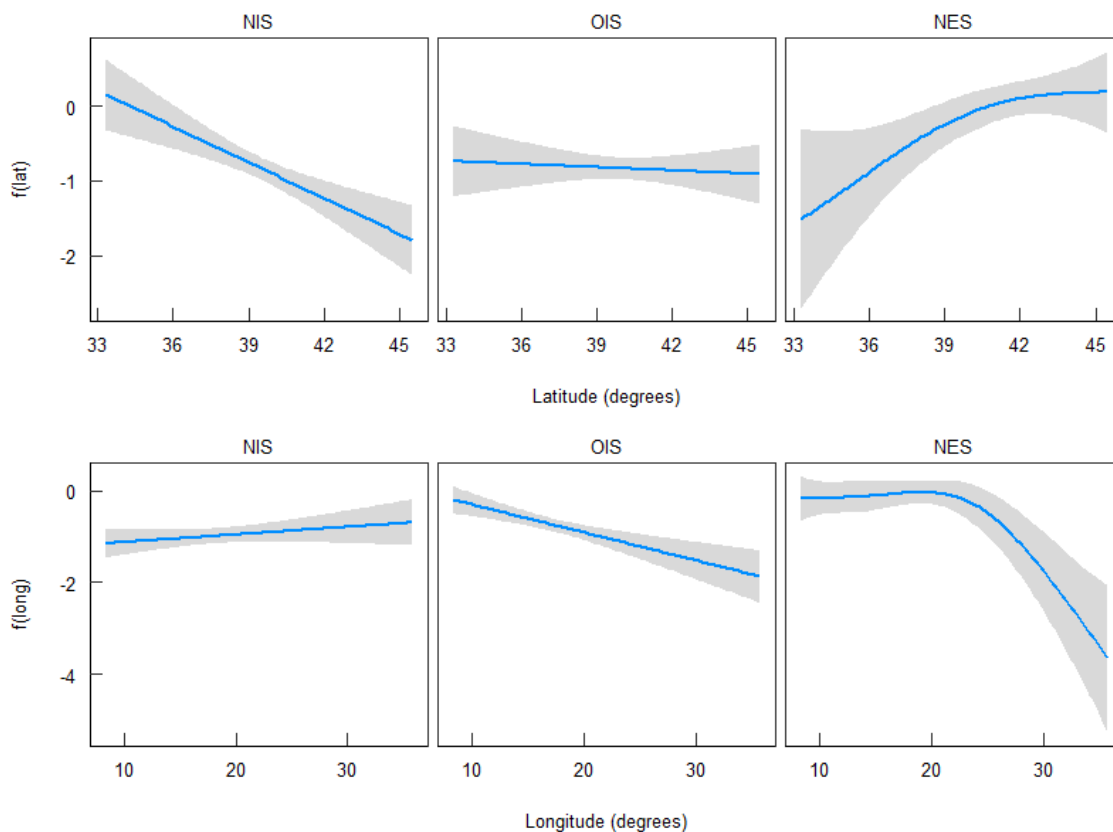
### 301 *Spatial gradients in the overall number of increasing species*

302 Latitude and longitude explained 33.5% of the deviance in the total number of species mentioned by  
303 the respondents ( $R^2 = 0.54$ ; UMBRE = 0.267; see also Table S3). The number of cited NIS showed a  
304 significant and linear decrease along a northward gradient, with higher number of NIS at lower  
305 latitudes (Fig. 3). On the contrary no effect of longitude was highlighted ( $p > 0.05$ ).

306 Concerning OIS, these species did not show any clear, nor significant ( $p > 0.05$ ), latitudinal pattern.

307 On the contrary their number significantly decreased from lower to higher longitudes ( $p < 0.001$ ).

308 Finally the number of NES increased between 33 and 40 degrees of latitude, and remained stable at  
309 higher latitudes (Fig. 3, Table S3). A significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) smooth effect of longitude with constant  
310 values up to 23 degrees, followed by a steep drop was also observed (Fig. 3, Table S3).  
311



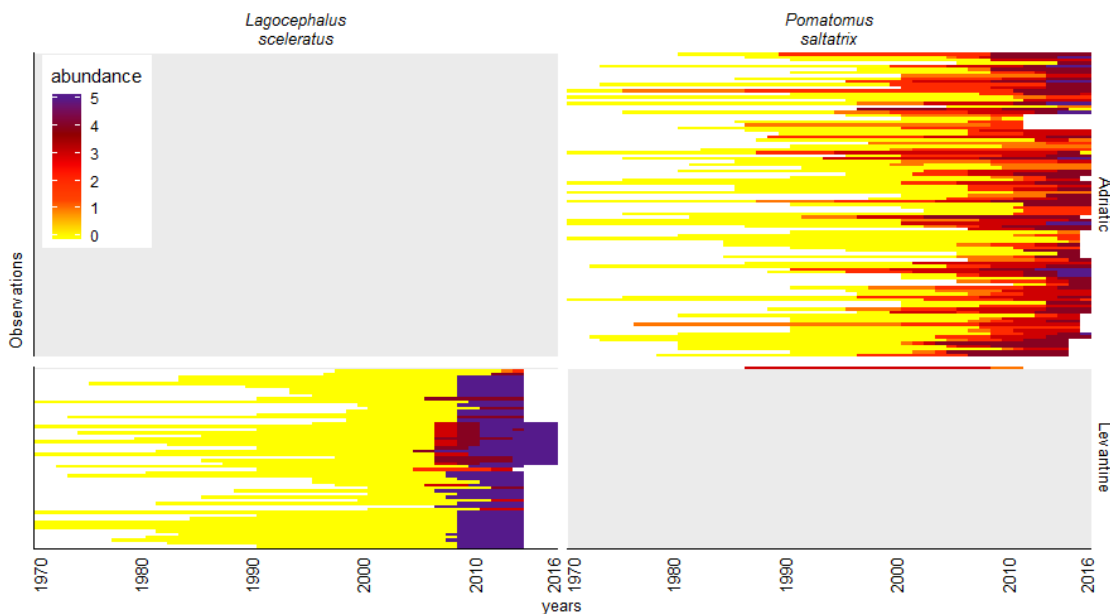
312  
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314 **Figure 3** – Generalized Additive Model (GAM) smoothing effects of latitude and longitude on the  
315 total number of increasing species. Grey shaded area indicates standard errors above and below the  
316 estimates shown in solid blue lines.  
317

318  
319 *Temporal dynamics and their spatial variation*  
320 Breakpoint analysis indicated significant breaks for 561 time series (63%) across 45 taxa. Among  
321 them, NIS represented 27% of observations (10 taxa in total), while NES represented 66% of  
322 observations (18 taxa in total). Selecting the most cited NIS (i.e. *L. sceleratus* and *F. commersonii*)



323 and the most cited NES (*P. saltatrix* and *S. viridensis*) (Fig. 4) we traced back their spatio-temporal  
324 dynamics. The number of significant breakpoints and observed first occurrences were: 57 and 57 for  
325 *L. sceleratus*; 46 and 58 for *F. commersonii*; 134 and 123 for *P. saltatrix*; 48 and 49 for *S. viridensis*,  
326 respectively.

327



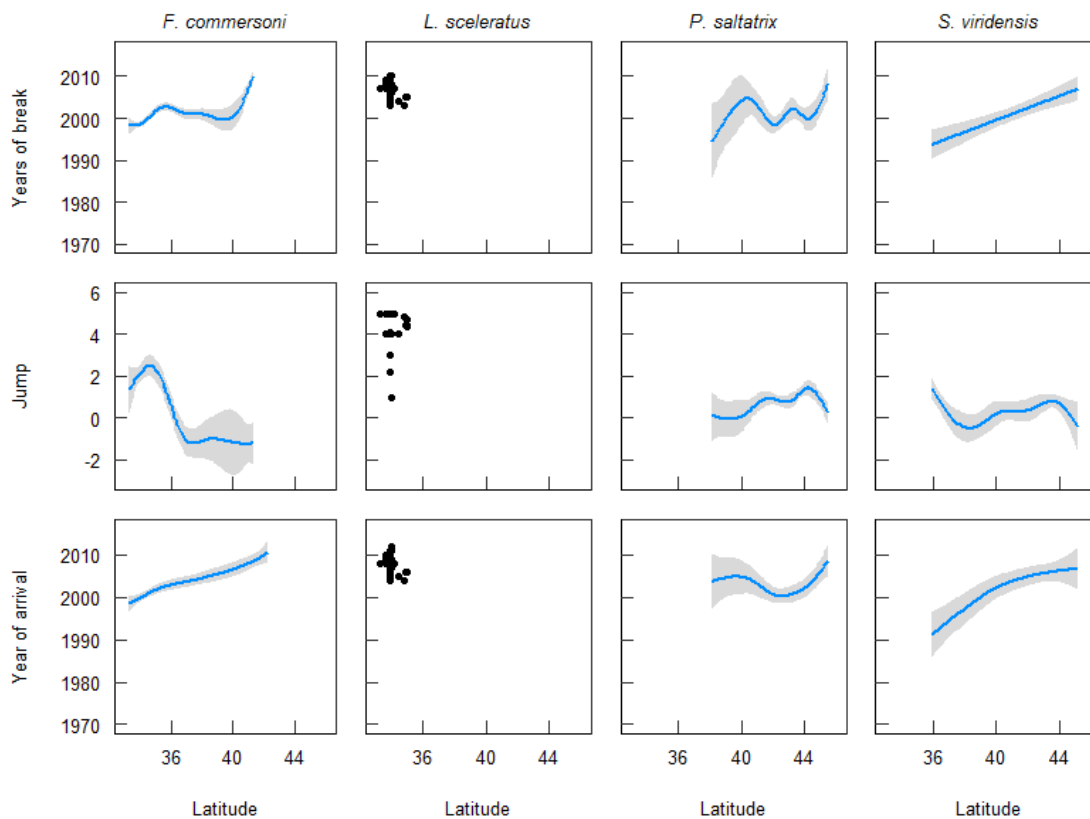
328  
329

330 **Figure 4** – A representative example of the reconstruction of historical abundances according to  
331 fisher’s knowledge for two species (*Lagocephalus sceleratus* and *Pomatomus saltatrix*) in two  
332 different geographical sectors (Adriatic and Levantine). A more complete dataset is presented in  
333 figure S2.

334  
335

336 Concerning NIS, GAM indicated that at lower latitudes the years of break and arrival started  
337 soon after 2000 for *F. commersonii* and positively increased towards 2010 at higher latitudes (Fig.  
338 5). The analysis of arrivals showed an even more consistent geographical pattern. The strength of  
339 the *F. commersonii* breaks indicated a sudden arrival at lower latitudes than higher ones (Fig. 5).  
340 The smoothing effect of longitude on *F. commersonii* breaks and arrivals did not show specific  
341 trends, however the strength of the breaks was higher at higher longitudes (Fig. 6). On the contrary,

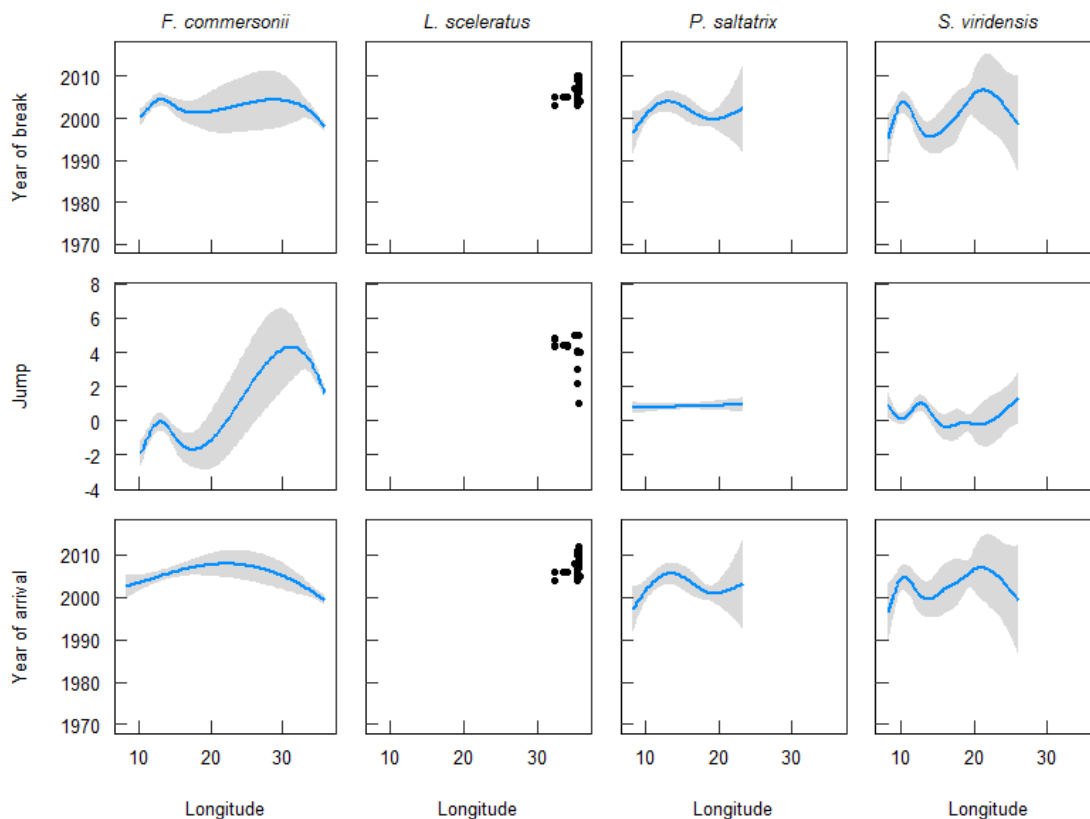
342 the 57 breaks and arrivals of *L. scleratus* were not modelled because they all occurred with a very  
343 strong jump (mean±sd:  $4.58 \pm 0.75$ ) between 2003 and 2010 in a limited spatial range confined to  
344 the South-Eastern area of the Mediterranean Sea (Latitude: 33.3 – 35.0; Longitude: 32.4 – 35.8).  
345



346  
347  
348  
349 **Figure 5** – Generalized Additive Model (GAM) smoothing effects of latitude on the years of break,  
350 jump and year of arrival for the most common species perceived in increase. Grey shaded area  
351 indicates standard errors above and below the estimates shown in solid blue lines.  
352  
353

354 Concerning NES, the smoothing effects of latitudes and longitudes on breaks and arrivals  
355 were weak or not significant for *P. saltatrix* (Fig. 5, 6 and Table 1). No significant breaks and  
356 arrivals were present for latitudes lower than 38.1 and longitude higher than 23.3. On the contrary,  
357 GAM modelling indicated that in *S. viridensis* there was a significant smooth effect of latitude and

358 the years of break and arrival started around 1995 at 36 degrees of latitude and then positively  
359 increased towards 2005 at higher latitudes (Fig. 5). Despite there were no clear pattern related to  
360 longitude, we did not detect significant breakpoints at longitudes higher than 26.0.  
361



362  
363

364 **Figure 6** – Generalized Additive Model (GAM) smoothing effects of longitude on the years of  
365 break, jump and year of arrival for the most common species perceived in increase. Grey shaded  
366 area indicates standard errors above and below the estimates shown in solid blue lines.  
367

368

## 369 Discussion

370 In this research we used for the first time Local Ecological Knowledge (LEK) to reconstruct  
371 distributional changes of species across an entire geographical region, the Mediterranean Sea. Our  
372 approach responds to the idea of collecting a minimum set of *essential variables*, which can be used

372 to ensure effective collaboration among countries and tangible information on a specific ecological  
373 or societal phenomena (Nativi, Mazzetti, Santoro, Papeschi, Craglia *et al.*, 2015). By gathering and  
374 combining the experience of Mediterranean fishers and everyday knowledge across different  
375 countries and varying social settings (Papaconstantinou & Farrugio, 2016), we traced back the  
376 geographical expansion of warm-adapted species of both native (NES) and exotic (NIS) origin,  
377 deepening our current understanding of the tropicalization of temperate marine ecosystems (e.g.,  
378 Vergés, Steinberg, Hay, Poore, Campbell *et al.*, 2014).

379 Respondents, in almost all the sub-areas other than the Levantine, reported an increase of  
380 NES and GAM modelling showed the effect of latitude and longitude on the total number of  
381 reported species, highlighting that the more evident manifestation of northward expansions in the  
382 North-Western sectors of the Mediterranean can be real and not only the result of a skewed  
383 concentration of research efforts in this area (Marbà *et al.*, 2015). Northward spreads were  
384 extremely obvious for species such as the bluefish, *P. saltarix*, which was reported to positively  
385 respond to seawater warming in both the North Western Mediterranean (Sabatés, Martín & Raya,  
386 2012) and in the Atlantic Ocean (Callihan, Takata, Woodland & Secor, 2008). Similar to the  
387 bluefish, other native and exotic warm-adapted species might have taken the advantage of changing  
388 environmental conditions (Lasram & Mouillot, 2009) and latitudinal and longitudinal gradients  
389 reflect their spatial dynamics. Whilst native fishes comprised a large number of species mentioned  
390 by a large number of fishers, non-indigenous taxa were entirely represented by *Lessepsian* fishes,  
391 entering the Mediterranean from the Red Sea through the Suez Canal. Lessepsians are typically  
392 very common in the eastern Mediterranean sectors but may be rare or even absent in other  
393 geographical sectors, such as the eastern Adriatic, the north Aegean and the most of the North  
394 western Mediterranean Sea (Golani *et al.*, 2018). Here GAM highlighted a latitudinal and a

395 longitudinal effect over the number of reported NIS, and the change of the NIS pool across  
396 longitude reflect the geographical structure of the Lessepsian bio-invasion, whose importance  
397 progressively declines when we move to the west and to the north of the basin (Golani *et al.*, 2018).

398 While the picture provided by NES and NIS shows coherent responses over entire  
399 geographical subsectors, confirming the influence of large scale drivers, the increase of the  
400 remaining species (OIS) can be mostly attributed to local causes, or to the finding of  
401 rare/uncommon species perceived as ‘new’ by the respondents. This conclusion is supported by the  
402 large number of OIS, by the widespread disagreement on their increase and by the lack of any clear  
403 latitudinal effect in GAM. Nevertheless, we acknowledge that some OIS, like *S. aurata* were cited  
404 by many respondents from distant locations thus suggesting the existence of a real increase of this  
405 species over large geographical areas. The increase of *S. aurata* all over the Mediterranean can be  
406 explained by its recent intensive and widespread mariculture and associated unintentional escapees  
407 (Dempster, Arechavala-Lopez, Barrett, Fleming, Sanchez-Jerez *et al.*, 2018), which might act as  
408 inadvertent but continuous restocking of this species over large areas of the basin.

409 Spatial patterns are well illustrated by the nMDS (Fig. 3) and the plotted distances of  
410 reported observations shows that respondents from different subsectors of the Mediterranean might  
411 hold different experiences. For example, Levantine and Adriatic fishers did not overlap in term of  
412 cited species, and this is primarily explained by the great differences held by these sectors in terms  
413 of community composition.

414

#### 415 *Temporal dynamics and their spatial variation*

416 The breakpoint analysis identified critical changes in both spatial and temporal dynamics of  
417 cited species. For example, the arrival of *F. commersonii* was extremely sudden at lower latitudes

418 around year 2000 and then positively increased towards 2010 with lower strength, matching the  
419 strength and rates of its invasion history, as reconstructed through published observations (Azzurro,  
420 Soto, Garofalo & Maynou, 2013). On the other hand, the expansion of *P. saltatrix* was mostly  
421 reported from the North-West of the Mediterranean Sea, whilst any significant breaks and/or  
422 arrivals were recorded in the South-East sectors of the Mediterranean, where the species historically  
423 occurs (Sabatés, Martín & Raya, 2012).

424 Overall, the first evidences on the northward expansion of warm-water species were  
425 provided in the 1990s (e.g., Bianchi, 2007; Bianchi, Morri, Chiantore, Montefalcone, Parravicini *et*  
426 *al.*, 2012; Francour, Boudouresque, Harmelin, Harmelin-Vivien & Quignard, 1994), whilst a clear  
427 increase in sea temperature and important changes in the water circulation of the Mediterranean Sea  
428 are visible since the 1980s (Boero *et al.*, 2008). The critical changes illustrated by our temporal  
429 reconstructions and breakpoints confirm and describe the increase of warm-water species at higher  
430 latitudes. For example, the dynamic of the bluespotted cornetfish *F. commersonii* agrees with the  
431 onset of its Mediterranean invasion (in 2000) and most interestingly, the strength of the breaks  
432 (jumps) was particularly great at higher latitudes, mirroring the rapid demographical explosion of  
433 this species in the Easternmost sectors of the Mediterranean (Golani *et al.*, 2018). A similar pattern  
434 of rapid population explosions, was reconstructed for the silver cheeked toadfish *L. sceleratus*,  
435 which showed very strong breaks in the Easternmost sectors of the Mediterranean, since 2003,  
436 hence, immediately after its detection.

437

#### 438 *Strengths and weaknesses of a large-scale LEK survey*

439 The not-structured approach of our interviews allowed each respondent to spontaneously mention  
440 new or increasing species in each fishing area, so each interview may be considered as an

441 independent replicate in our design. The high degree of coherence among respondents from the  
442 same geographical subsector improved the confidence in the fact that trends reflect real patterns in  
443 the environment, with promising outcomes for large scale investigations. Indeed, the logic of  
444 focusing on a regional change is analogous to that for global or climate changes itself. As  
445 highlighted by (Parmesan & Yohe, 2003), surveying for large scale fingerprints does not require that  
446 any single species is driven by a large-scale determinant with 100% certitude. Rather, it seeks some  
447 defined level of confidence in the whole signal. Also, the extent of our geographical scale makes  
448 our findings relatively robust against cognitive biases, framing effects and memory recall issues,  
449 that are likely to affect detailed and punctual records in space and time, rather than overall, coarse,  
450 estimates (Vaske, 2008). Clearly, information obtained from interviews about fish distribution and  
451 abundance can be influenced by the attitude of respondents and limited access to particular depths  
452 or areas (e.g., Beaudreau & Levin, 2014). Certainly, the influence of factors such as climate change  
453 and fisheries on the observed dynamics, were not specifically tested in this study. To this regard, we  
454 might note that, only a restricted subset of Mediterranean NIS were mentioned, representing only  
455 the most recent invasions. Other invaders were not cited by the respondents, because not perceived  
456 as new or increasing in their fishing area. This is particularly evident in the Levantine sectors,  
457 where several invasive fishes settled in historical times, attaining commercial relevance and  
458 declining afterwards under the pressure of intense fishing (M. Bariche *pers. comm.*). These potential  
459 interactions with fishery and other potential drivers could be a subject for future cross-cultural  
460 investigations across the large spectrum of social, economical and ecological conditions of the  
461 Mediterranean region.

462

## 463 **Conclusions**

464 Accessing the knowledge of Mediterranean fishers, provided us with an improved understanding on  
465 the recent spatio-temporal dynamics of species “on the move”, mainly represented here by warm-  
466 adapted fishes expanding across the basin. The resulting picture helps to fully appreciate the  
467 Mediterranean dimension of species redistributions, which will leave “winners” and “losers” in  
468 their wake (Pecl *et al.*, 2017). As other participatory efforts, our action is expected to empower the  
469 observational potential of local communities for adaptive management (Allen, Fontaine, Pope &  
470 Garmestani, 2011; Bennett, Roth, Klain, Chan, Christie *et al.*, 2017; Berkes, 2004; McGeoch,  
471 Genovesi, Bellingham, Costello, McGrannachan *et al.*, 2016) and to support robust and effective  
472 conservation policies in the Mediterranean region (Katsanevakis *et al.*, 2017). Advancing the use of  
473 LEK across large geographical scales allows bringing together the voices of people from different  
474 countries, ultimately preparing for a world of global ecological change. We believe that this  
475 beneficial partnership, which was here demonstrated to provide tangible results at the regional  
476 scale, could be extended to assessments at the global scale, if properly designed and organized.

477

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480 monitoring program *CIESM Tropical Signals* (funded by the Albert II of Monaco Foundation) and  
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482 Sea Protection, IPA Adriatic Cross-Border Cooperation Programme; *FAO-AdriaMed* and *FAO-*  
483 *MedSudMed*. This action was recently supported by the Interreg Med Programme (Grant number Pr  
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488 researchers which adopted the LEK protocol, contributing to foster the use of this methodology at  
489 the Mediterranean level.

490 We would like to thank all the researchers and field technicians, who were involved in data  
491 collection.

492

### 493 **Ethical statement**

494 Data collection was confidential, as interviewers did not record any sensitive personal  
495 information about respondents. At the beginning of the interview, respondents were informed about  
496 the purposes of the study and gave informed consensus to use the provided information for  
497 scientific purposes.

498

### 499 **Author Contributions**

500 EA conceived and designed the LEK protocol, the experiments and the local trainings with the help  
501 of PM and NM; CA, MB, FP, GV, LG, GB, JBS, FG, PM, ETI, FG, LL, YSR, JT, SC, CM, JK, EA  
502 collected the data; JC and VS, analysed the data, EA, JC and VS wrote the paper.

503

504

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707 **Table 1** – Species-specific modelling results for the year of break and jump respect to  
708 latitude and longitude. Each model is represented together with the R squared adjusted  
709 values ( $R^2$  Adj), the amount (%) of deviance explained (Dev), the generalized cross  
710 validation (GCV), the effective degrees of freedom (edf), the F statistics values (F) and the  
711 corresponding  $p$  values for the smoothing term ( $p$ ).  
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Species	model	$R^2$ Adj.	Dev.	GCV	edf	F	$p$
<i>F. commersonii</i>	Break ~ s(Lat)	0.82	84.1	2.41	5.67	33.56	< 0.001
	Jump ~ s(Lat)	0.56	73.2	1.03	4.61	19.46	< 0.001
	Arrival ~ s(Lat)	0.65	65.0	6.66	3.05	25.93	< 0.001
	Break ~ s(Long)	0.47	53.3	6.88	4.69	8.11	< 0.001
	Jump ~ s(Long)	0.65	82.4	0.82	4.76	36.04	< 0.001
	Arrival ~ s(Long)	0.47	49.2	10.03	2.62	15.46	< 0.001
<i>P. saltatrix</i>	Break ~ s(Lat)	0.12	16.0	46.34	5.40	4.01	< 0.01
	Jump ~ s(Lat)	- 0.06	15.1	0.81	5.28	3.78	< 0.01
	Arrival ~ s(Lat)	0.10	13.3	51.82	3.47	3.86	< 0.01
	Break ~ s(Long)	0.07	8.1	48.18	3.13	2.28	0.056
	Jump ~ s(Long)	- 0.45	0.2	1.06	1.00	0.31	0.636
	Arrival ~ s(Long)	0.07	9.9	53.19	3.09	2.73	< 0.05
<i>S. viridensis</i>	Break ~ s(Lat)	0.32	33.6	37.45	1.00	23.25	< 0.001
	Jump ~ s(Lat)	0.41	41.9	0.57	4.77	5.18	< 0.001
	Arrival ~ s(Lat)	0.33	35.5	37.96	1.92	10.27	< 0.001
	Break ~ s(Long)	0.33	36.2	39.95	4.88	3.95	< 0.01
	Jump ~ s(Long)	0.28	34.8	0.71	5.35	3.80	< 0.01
	Arrival ~ s(Long)	0.17	22.8	49.74	4.72	2.07	0.100

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## 716 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

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718 **Table S1:** Species that contributed the most to retrospective abundance estimates, in  
 719 each sector of the Mediterranean Sea. Similarities were measured with the Bray-Curtis  
 720 index

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Sub-sector	Species	Average	Average	Sim/	Contribution	Cumulative
Levantine (average similarity = 44.79)	<i>Lagocephalus sceleratus</i>	0.84	39.74	1.19	88.70	88.70
	<i>Fistularia commersoni</i>	0.32	4.32	0.32	9.64	98.34
Adriatic (average similarity = 34.31)	<i>Pomatomus saltatrix</i>	0.74	30.75	0.88	89.60	89.60
	<i>Caranx crysos</i>	0.16	1.02	0.14	2.97	92.56
Thyrrhenian (average similarity = 13.72)	<i>Pomatomus saltatrix</i>	0.41	6.83	0.39	49.79	49.79
	<i>Sphyraena viridensis</i>	0.26	2.27	0.24	16.57	66.36
	<i>Caranx crysos</i>	0.16	0.88	0.14	6.40	72.75
	<i>Stephanolepis diaspros</i>	0.13	0.76	0.12	5.52	78.28
	<i>Sparisoma cretense</i>	0.14	0.70	0.13	5.13	83.40
	<i>Pomadasys incisus</i>	0.11	0.48	0.09	3.49	86.89
	<i>Sardinella aurita</i>	0.09	0.30	0.08	2.20	89.09
	<i>Lichia amia</i>	0.09	0.27	0.08	1.98	91.06
Algero-Provencal (average similarity = 35.11)	<i>Sphyraena viridensis</i>	0.79	21.19	0.99	60.34	60.34
	<i>Balistes caprisus</i>	0.42	5.19	0.41	14.78	75.12
	<i>Epinephelus marginatus</i>	0.47	4.83	0.50	13.75	88.87
	<i>Pomatomus saltatrix</i>	0.32	2.57	0.30	7.33	96.20
Aegean (average similarity = 14.70)	<i>Sparisoma cretense</i>	0.32	5.70	0.31	38.78	38.78
	<i>Coryphaena hippurus</i>	0.24	2.90	0.22	19.73	58.50
	<i>Sardina pilchardus</i>	0.20	2.89	0.18	19.65	78.16
	<i>Sardinella aurita</i>	0.20	1.99	0.18	13.53	91.69
Ionian (average similarity = 26.57)	<i>Balistes caprisus</i>	0.58	13.33	0.67	50.19	50.19
	<i>Thunnus thynnus</i>	0.33	4.75	0.31	17.87	68.06
	<i>Lagocephalus lagocephalus</i>	0.33	3.69	0.31	13.88	81.94
	<i>Sparisoma cretense</i>	0.33	3.69	0.31	13.88	95.82
Strait of Sicily (average similarity = 32.41)	<i>Sphyraena viridensis</i>	0.71	13.83	0.89	42.67	42.67
	<i>Caranx crysos</i>	0.57	7.30	0.61	22.53	65.20
	<i>Sparisoma cretense</i>	0.43	3.97	0.39	12.24	77.44
	<i>Diplodus sargus</i>	0.29	1.90	0.22	5.88	83.32
	<i>Diplodus vulgaris</i>	0.29	1.90	0.22	5.88	89.19
	<i>Siganus luridus</i>	0.29	1.36	0.22	4.20	93.39

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724 **Table S2.** Table showing whether each species was perceived as increasing or not, in  
725 each Mediterranean subregion: Adr = Adriatic; Aeg = Aegean; AIP = Algero Provençal;  
726 Ion = Ionian; Lev = Levantine; StT = Strait of Sicily and Tunisia; Thy = Thyrrhenian.  
727 Values equal to '1' indicated that at least one respondent mentioned the species as  
728 increasing  
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Species Group	Species	Mediterranean sub-regions						
		Adr	Aeg	AIP	Ion	Lev	StT	Thy
NES	<i>Balistes capriscus</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	<i>Caranx crysos</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	<i>Coryphaena hippurus</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	<i>Epinephelus aeneus</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>Epinephelus costae</i>	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
	<i>Epinephelus marginatus</i>	0	0	1	0	1	1	1
	<i>Lichia amia</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	<i>Lobotes surinamensis</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	<i>Mycteroperca rubra</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	<i>Pomadasys incisus</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	<i>Pomatomus saltatrix</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	<i>Sardinella aurita</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	<i>Scomber colias</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	<i>Seriola dumerili</i>	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
	<i>Sparisoma cretense</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	<i>Sphoeroides pachygaster</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>Sphyraena viridensis</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	<i>Talassoma pavo</i>	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
<i>Trachinotus ovatus</i>	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	
NIS	<i>Fistularia commersonii</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	<i>Hemiramphus far</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	<i>Lagocephalus lagocephalus</i>	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
	<i>Nemipterus randalii</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	<i>Plotosus lineatus</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	<i>Pterois miles</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	<i>Sargocentron rubrum</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	<i>Saurida lessepsianus</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	<i>Scomberomorus commerson</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	<i>Siganus luridus</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	<i>Siganus rivulatus</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
OIS	<i>Stephanolepis diaspros</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	<i>Aulopus filamentosus</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	<i>Boops boops</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>Chelidonichthys lucerna</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>Chromis chromis</i>	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
	<i>Coris julis</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	<i>Dactylopterus volitans</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
	<i>Dentex dentex</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
	<i>Dentex gibbosus</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	1	0	0	0	1	0	1
	<i>Diplodus sargus</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	<i>Diplodus vulgaris</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
<i>Gymnothorax unicolor</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	

	<i>Labrus viridis</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
	<i>Lagocephalus sceleratus</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	<i>Lampris guttatus</i>	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
	<i>Macroramphosus scolopax</i>	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
	<i>Merlangius merlangus</i>	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
	<i>Muraena helena</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>Oblada melanura</i>	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>Pagellus erythrinus</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	<i>Pagrus pagrus</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>Regalecus glesne</i>	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
	<i>Sarda sarda</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	<i>Sardina pilchardus</i>	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>Sarpa salpa</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	<i>Sciaena umbra</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
	<i>Scomber scombrus</i>	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	<i>Serranus cabrilla</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
OIS	<i>Serranus scriba</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	<i>Sparus aurata</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	<i>Spicara maena</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	<i>SpondylIOSoma chantarus</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>Sprattus sprattus</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	<i>Synodus saurus</i>	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	<i>Tetrapturus belone</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
	<i>Thunnus thynnus</i>	1	0	1	1	0	0	1
	<i>Trachurus mediterraneus</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	<i>Trachurus trachurus</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	<i>Tylosurus acus imperialis</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>Umbrina cirrosa</i>	1	0	0	0	1	0	1
	<i>Xiphias gladius</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	<i>Xyrichthys novacula</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	<i>Zu cristatus</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0

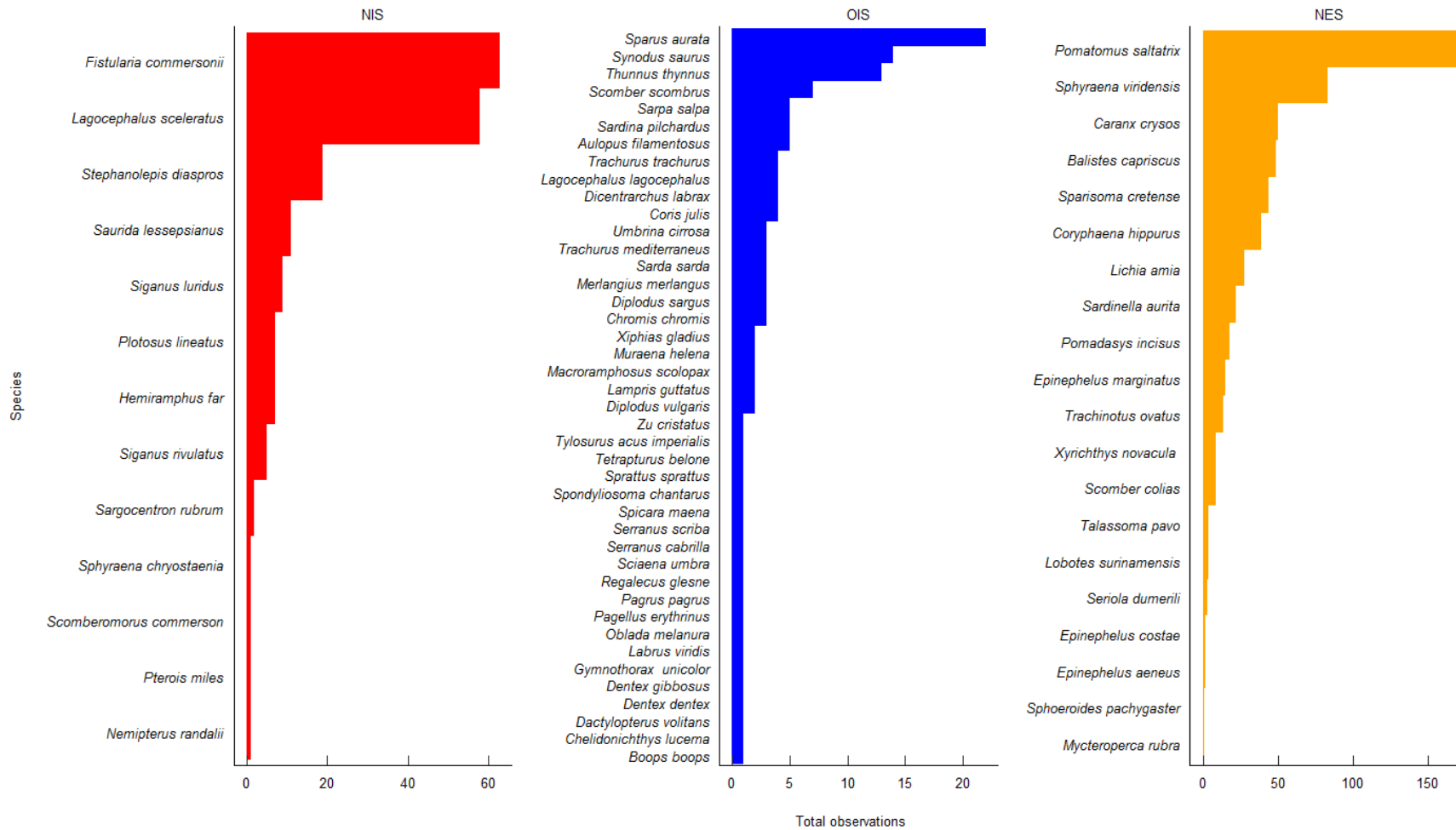
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733 **Table S3** – Modelling results on the total amount of increasing species respect to latitude and  
 734 longitude. Increasing species were classified in three different groups, according to their origin  
 735 and spatial trend. We distinguished non-indigenous species (NIS), other-indigenous species  
 736 (OIS), and native North expanding species (NES). Each model is represented together with the R  
 737 squared adjusted values ( $R^2$  Adj), the amount (%) of deviance explained (Dev), the Un-Biased  
 738 Risk Estimator (UMBRE), the effective degrees of freedom (edf), the  $\chi^2$  statistic values and the  
 739 corresponding  $p$  values for the smoothing term ( $p$ ).  
 740

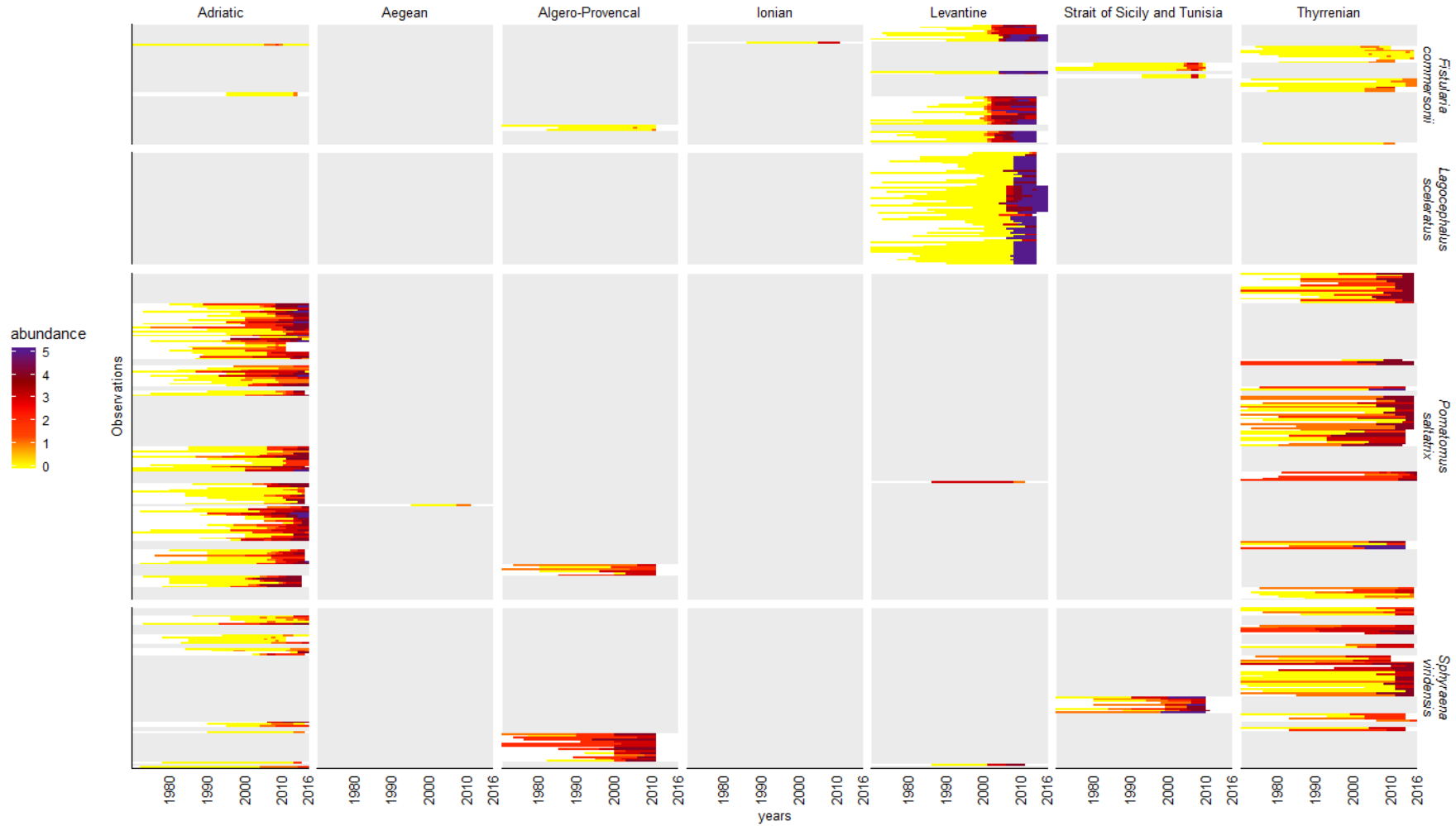
model	$R^2$ Adj.	Dev.	UMBRE	Smooth terms	edf	$\chi^2$	$p$
Species ~ s(Lat, k=6) + s(Long, k=6)	0.54	33.5%	0.267	Lat-NIS	1.00	18.18	< 0.001
				Lat-OIS	1.00	0.17	0.667
				Lat-NES	1.67	11.20	< 0.001
				Long-NIS	1.00	1.46	0.227
				Long-OIS	1.00	16.06	< 0.001
				Long-NES	2.82	18.32	< 0.001

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743 **Figure S1.** Distribution of the 886 observations across 75 species increasing species. These included 13 NIS, 46 OIS and 20 NES



745 **Figure S2.** A complete reconstruction of historical abundances according to fisher's knowledge for four species (*Fistularia commersoni*,  
 746 *Lagocephalus sceleratus*, *Pomatomus saltatrix* and *Sphyræna viridensis*) in the seven geographical sectors presented here.



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