
Understanding the response of the Western Mediterranean cephalopods to environment and fishing in a context of alleged winners of change

Veloy Carlos ^{1,*}, Coll Marta ¹, Pennino Maria Grazia ², Garcia Encarnación ³, Esteban Antonio ³, Ruiz Cristina García- ⁴, Certain Gregoire ⁵, Vaz Sandrine ⁵, Jadaud Angelique ⁵, González María ³, Hidalgo Manuel ⁶

¹ Institute of Marine Science (ICM-CSIC), Passeig Marítim de La Barceloneta, N° 37-49, 08003, Barcelona, Spain

² Instituto Español de Oceanografía (IEO-CSIC) (Madrid), Calle del Corazón de María, 8, 28002, Madrid, Spain

³ Instituto Español de Oceanografía (IEO-CSIC) (Murcia), Calle el Varadero, 1, 30740, San Pedro del Pinatar, Spain

⁴ Instituto Español de Oceanografía (IEO-CSIC) (Málaga), Puerto Pesquero, s/n Aptdo. 285, 29640, Fuengirola, Spain

⁵ MARBEC, Univ. Montpellier, CNRS, Ifremer, IRD, Sète, France

⁶ Instituto Español de Oceanografía (IEO-CSIC) (Balears), Ecosystem Oceanography Group (GRECO), Moll de Ponent, 07015, Palma, Spain

* Corresponding author : Carlos Veloy, email address : veloy@icm.csic.es

Abstract :

Increasing impacts of both fisheries and climate change have resulted in shifts in the structure and functioning of marine communities. One recurrent observation is the rise of cephalopods as fish recede. This is generally attributed to the removal of main predators and competitors by fishing, while mechanistic evidence is still lacking. In addition, climate change may influence cephalopods due to their high environmental sensitivity. We aim to unveil the effects of different anthropogenic and environmental drivers at different scales focusing on the cephalopod community of the Western Mediterranean Sea. We investigate several ecological indicators offering a wide range of information about their ecology, and statistically relating them with environmental, biotic and fisheries drivers. Our results highlight non-linear responses of indicators along with spatial differences in their responses. Overall, the environment drivers have greater effects than biotic and local human impacts with contrasting effects of temperature across the geographic gradient. We conclude that cephalopods may be impacted by climate change in the future while not necessary through positive warming influence, which should make us cautious when referring them as generalized winners of current changes.

Highlights

► Effects of environmental, biotic and human drivers were investigated for ecological indicators of cephalopods. ► Dynamics of this taxon are mainly influenced by sea temperature, explaining geographical gradients in several metrics. ► Relationships with biotic variables could hint at the decrease of high trophic fishes. ► Fishing has little effect on cephalopods with β -diversity being the only indicator influenced by this variable. ► Potential negative effects of warming on indicators challenge the idea of cephalopods as a climate change winners.

Keywords : Cephalopods, ecological indicators, fishing, climate change, anthropogenic impact, β -diversity

39 Global change causes several negative impacts reported worldwide on marine ecosystems,
40 while it can favour some taxonomic groups. Numerous studies on different areas and species
41 have identified cephalopods as potential winners in the marine environment, while the
42 generalization of this pattern is still pending of conclusive proofs. This trend, observed at both
43 regional (Keller et al., 2016; Veloy et al., 2022) and global scales (Doubleday et al., 2016), may
44 be largely influenced by the favouring conditions of climate change (such as warming) and
45 interspecific relationships with other diminishing and competing taxa such as fishes of higher
46 trophic level. Cephalopods have a great ecological importance for their top-down control

47 mechanisms due to their strong predatory role and high trophic levels (Anderson et al., 2011;
48 Eddy et al., 2017). Therefore, an understanding of the factors that affect the cephalopod
49 community, as well as the increase of dominance in the ecosystem, can aid to better understand
50 of the current state and expected changes of marine ecosystems.

51 The overexploitation of fishes, as one of the main predators of cephalopods (Caddy and
52 Rodhouse, 1998; Hastie et al., 2009; Staudinger et al., 2013), has been proposed as an important
53 factor in the increase of this taxonomic group. Indeed, the decrease of fish production results in
54 fishing fleets switching from declining fish stocks towards invertebrates, including cephalopods.
55 In fact, the landings on cephalopods is rising worldwide (FAO, 2020; Ospina-Alvarez et al., 2022).
56 The south of Europe, particularly Spain, is among the countries with more local cephalopod
57 supply available per capita alongside Republic of Korea, Japan and Taiwan (Hunsicker et al.,
58 2010; Ospina-Alvarez et al., 2022), which makes south European stocks potentially more at risk.
59 In the Mediterranean Sea, while many assessed fish stocks are already heavily exploited the lack
60 of generalized assessment of cephalopods limit the capacity to assess their current health status
61 (FAO, 2022). Furthermore, for these invertebrates, metrics such as the Maximum Sustainable
62 Yield (MSY) are not well adapted to them compared to fishes. This is mainly due to poor data as
63 well as the problems their short life-strategy poses to modelling (Arkhipkin et al., 2021), which
64 represent a long-lasting challenge for the current and future management..

65 It is also known that cephalopods are highly sensitive to environmental factors (e.g. Arvanitidis
66 et al., 2002; Forsythe, 2004; Pierce et al., 2008) (see list of references and associated
67 mechanisms and observations reviewed and shown in the Supplementary Material Table S1).
68 They also have a great degree of plasticity observed through their different life cycles and
69 species (Arvanitidis et al., 2002; Otero et al., 2009; Pierce et al., 2008). This plasticity results in
70 unexpected responses to certain environmental factors that vary by both taxa and study area
71 with, for instance, differential responses in adult body size to warming across taxa and regions.
72 Both increase in body size and younger maturation and, therefore, smaller adult size and shorter
73 lifespan, have all been reported to be favoured by warming conditions (Forsythe, 2004; Hatfield,
74 2000; Pecl and Jackson, 2008). High sea surface temperatures (SSTs) generally benefits
75 cephalopods at a population level allowing them to increase their abundance and even their
76 spatial distribution range in some cases (van der Kooij et al., 2016). Primary production also plays
77 a similar role benefitting cephalopod populations mostly related to upwelling processes,
78 particularly in early life stages, allowing higher survival rates due to the associated increase in
79 secondary production (Bakun and Csirke, 1998; Lauria et al., 2016; Otero et al., 2009; Puerta et
80 al., 2016b). However, in some systems there is a negative relationship between certain species
81 of cephalopods and primary production, mostly due to lagged responses, as paralarva are
82 released during the less intense periods of upwelling (i.e. less productive) to ensure they remain
83 near the coast (Otero et al., 2009), in agreement with the 'optimal environmental window'
84 hypothesis (Cury and Roy, 1989).

85 The Mediterranean Sea is a semi-enclosed sea, characterized by oligotrophic nature and
86 warming increasing temperatures (Coll et al., 2010). It is an important region as biodiversity
87 hotspot (Coll et al., 2010; Costello et al., 2010), but with many marine resources still
88 overexploited by fishing (FAO, 2022). The local marine ecosystem is also subjected to quick
89 changes due to climate change (Hidalgo et al., 2018; Lejeusne et al., 2010), increased sensitivity
90 to natural variability in primary production (Fu et al., 2018; Hidalgo et al., 2022a), the effects of
91 invasive alien species such as the Lessepsian fauna (Galil et al., 2017) and of pollution (Danovaro,
92 2003; Pennino et al., 2020). Recent studies analysing marine biodiversity changes in space and

93 time have shown divergent patterns according to the taxonomic groups investigated in this
94 semi-enclosed sea (Carmezim et al., 2022; Pennino et al., 2024; Veloy et al., 2022). One example
95 of these differences is the case of fishes and cephalopods: while the former have been shown
96 to decrease with time, likely related to fisheries activity impacts (Farriols et al., 2020),
97 cephalopods have been shown to be a prolific group (Ciércoles et al., 2018; Keller et al., 2017a;
98 Puerta et al., 2016b; Quetglas et al., 2016).

99 In the Mediterranean Sea, some relationships between the different environmental drivers, the
100 bathymetric gradient, and the cephalopod community have been already confirmed. For
101 instance, the bathymetric pattern of species richness gradient has been shown to peak nearing
102 the continental shelf break (Keller et al., 2017b). Environmental factors such as SST and primary
103 production can have a positive relationship with species richness as well as biomass
104 (Supplementary Material Table S1). In contrast, human impacts have been shown to have a
105 negative influence on the cephalopod richness in non-target species, while a non-linear
106 response (increasing richness at low and upper levels of exploitation) also observed (Navarro et
107 al., 2015; Vilas et al., 2019). These findings are in line with reported higher biomass of
108 cephalopods with lower levels of predators and higher levels of fishing (Coll et al., 2013), and in
109 areas with relative warmer waters (Navarro et al., 2015). However, the responses of
110 cephalopods to direct and indirect variables have been shown to differ depending on the studied
111 species and region (Keller et al., 2017b; Puerta et al., 2016a, 2016b, 2015), in part due to short
112 life cycle and their high capacity to adapt to local and regional environmental conditions
113 (Moreno et al., 2002; Pierce et al., 2008).

114 Most of past and recent research has focused on direct quantitative approaches to study
115 cephalopod populations taking biomass and abundance as main metrics (Hastie et al., 2009;
116 Hatfield, 2000; Otero et al., 2009; Puerta et al., 2016b) (Supplementary Material Table S1), while
117 little is known about other community and biodiversity indicators, or other indicators informing
118 on their function on the ecosystems. In addition, the analyses of drivers causing variation on β -
119 diversity or other community and trophic-based indicators have not been widely investigated.
120 The combination of these indicators may provide valuable information regarding the geographic
121 and temporal evolution of this taxon, the mechanisms of change and potential implications on
122 the ecosystem functioning attending to environmental and anthropogenic drivers in given areas.

123 Our hypothesis is that cephalopods, being short-lived organisms, respond more profoundly to
124 the environment than to other drivers, although they can be influenced by local human activities
125 such as fishing (Navarro et al., 2015; Nieblas et al., 2014; Puerta et al., 2016b). Furthermore,
126 these factors could influence competition as well as food availability represented by the
127 predatory fishes and crustaceans, respectively (Puerta et al., 2016a). Thus, the main objective
128 of this study is to investigate local and regional scale drivers of spatial change in the cephalopod
129 community of the West Mediterranean Sea in terms of a set ecological indicators and relate
130 them to environmental, human and biotic drivers. This study follows the results of a regional
131 analysis that showed important increases of cephalopods indicators in the region (Veloy et al.,
132 2022), selecting those indicators that have shown most significant spatial variation.

133

134 **2. Materials and Methods**

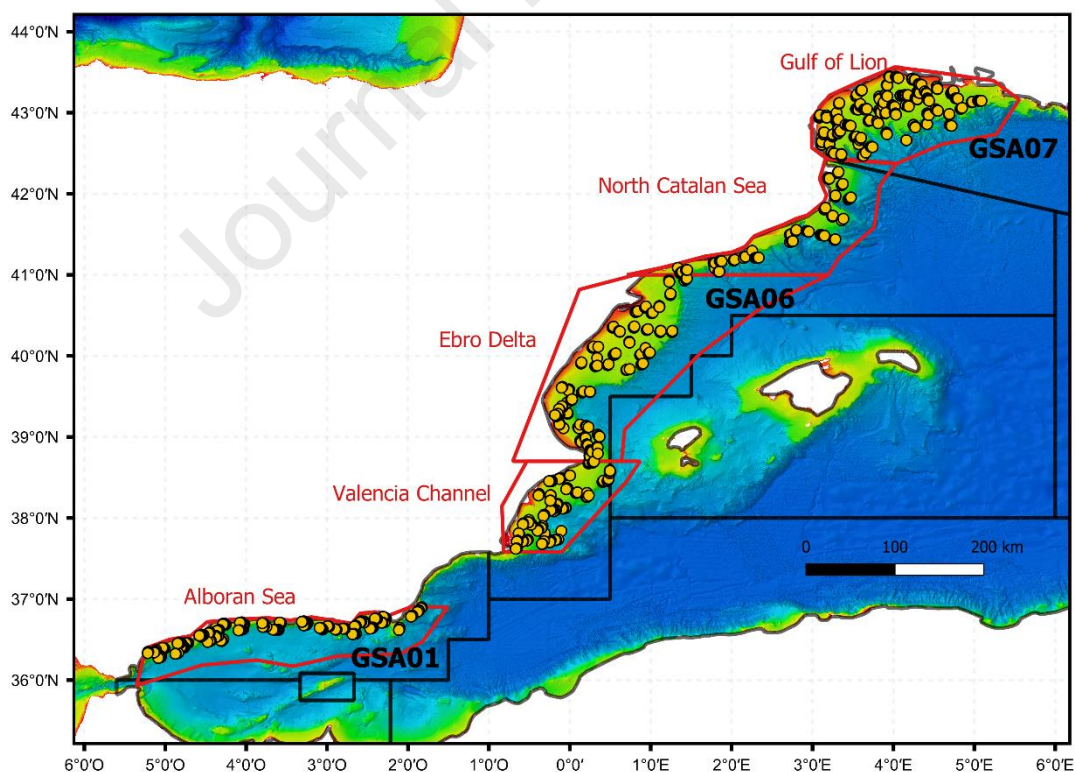
135 **a) Sampling and study area**

136 We used cephalopods data collected from annual trawling surveys performed within the
137 Mediterranean International Trawl Survey (MEDITS) program between 2013 and 2019 with 1296

138 unique sampling points (Supplementary Material Table S2), as this period allowed us to get a
 139 complete time series of the forcing variables of interest. A common sampling protocol was used
 140 in the entire study area, standardizing duration of the hauls as well as gear type and its
 141 specifications (Bertrand et al., 2002; Spedicato et al., 2020).

142 The General Fisheries Commission of the Mediterranean (GFCM) adopted several divisions of
 143 the surveyed area denominated Geographical Sub-Areas (GSAs). We focused on continuous area
 144 of the Western Mediterranean, ranging from the Alboran Sea to the Gulf of Lion, corresponding
 145 to GSA1 (Northern Alboran Sea), GSA6 (Northern Spain) and GSA7 (Gulf of Lion) (Fig. 1). These
 146 three areas display a continuous geographic area with contrasting hydrographical
 147 characteristics: i) the northern Alboran Sea is an area influenced by the influx of Atlantic waters
 148 and thus has a high and variable primary production; ii) the Northern Spain, including Valencia
 149 Channel, Ebro Delta and North Catalan Sea, is characterized by low values of chlorophyll-a
 150 concentration (although the Ebro Delta receives nutrients from continental sources) and high
 151 temperature but differ in the width of their continental shelves; and iii) the Gulf of Lion, a
 152 shallow area with an extended continental shelf as well as lower SST characterized by variable
 153 but high productivity due to its local oceanography (Rhône river input and wind induced coastal
 154 upwelling) (Bosc et al., 2004; Estrada, 1996; Nieblas et al., 2014). These subareas division have
 155 been used in previous studies (Veloy et al., 2022). Because the depth range between 25 and 500
 156 m is the one with most diversity of taxa, only sample points from those depth ranges
 157 (corresponding to the continental shelf and upper slope area) were considered.

158



159

160 *Figure 1: Western Mediterranean area with the considered subregions (in red), GSA areas (in black)*
 161 *and sampling points of the MEDITS trawling survey used in this study.*

162

163 b) Indicators and drivers of change

164 We used three groups of indicators: (a) traditional biodiversity indicators such as species
165 richness and β - diversity (Jaccard index); (b) community indicators such as biomass, mean size
166 (both of these transformed into logarithm in this study) and relative biomass of predators within
167 the cephalopods (B_{pred}); and (c) trophic level indicators as $TL_{3,25}$ and TL_4 (Table 1). These
168 indicators were selected based on criteria used in previous studies (Veloy et al., 2022) and the
169 Indiseas project (Coll et al., 2016; Shannon et al., 2014; Shin et al., 2018), such as measurability
170 and data availability (must be estimated routinely and have time-series available), ecological
171 significance and sensitivity to different drivers.

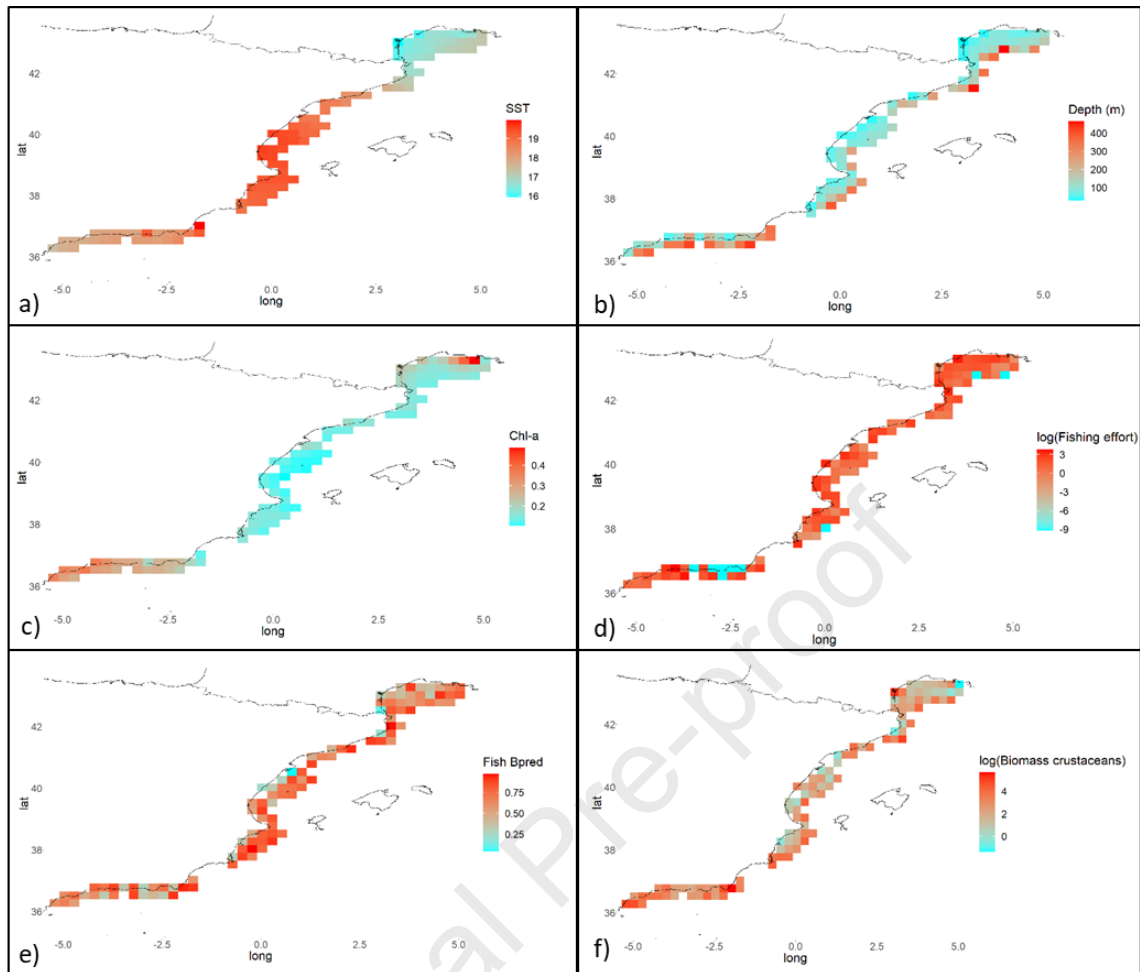
172 To calculate B_{pred} we labelled as “predator” those species of cephalopods with Trophic Level (TL)
173 above 3.5 that were reported as having maximum sizes larger than 20 cm of total length or
174 equivalent measurements. Trophic levels were obtained from different online databases (Froese
175 and Pauly, 2021; Palomares and Pauly, 2021). After assigning this trait data, those species
176 present in less than 80% of the temporal series were discarded from the study (Supplementary
177 Material Table S3).

178 The drivers (independent variables) (Table 2, Fig. 2) were classified into four categories
179 depending on the information they provided: (a) depth as a structural and static driver (note
180 that geographic smoother were explicitly avoided; see explanation below) (b) dynamic
181 environmental variables (Sea Surface Temperature (SST), and Chlorophyll-a (Chl-a), (c) dynamic
182 human drivers (Fishing effort) and (d) dynamic biotic variables (Relative biomass of predatory
183 fishes (Fish B_{pred}) and crustacean biomass as a prey indicator). These independent variables were
184 selected because they have shown to be very influential on cephalopod populations, as well as
185 they allow to explore different types of change (anthropogenic and natural) (Supplementary
186 Material Table S1).

187 Environmental and human drivers were obtained from reanalysis data of physic and
188 biochemistry parameters of the Mediterranean provided by COPERNICUS (2021) with a
189 resolution of 0.04 degrees and from Global Fishing Watch (2019) data with a resolution of 0.01
190 degree, respectively. The study period selected within the databases is between 2013 to 2019.
191 In the case of the environmental drivers, data was used to calculate yearly means per sample
192 point (i.e. grid cell), while for fishing effort the daily data was processed to get the yearly sum of
193 the total fishing hours per grid cell using previously established methods (Taconet et al., 2019).
194 While the use of lagged variables, specially for the environmental ones, have been featured in
195 other studies (Keller et al., 2017a), we only used data from the same year because the focus of
196 the study was to understand the spatial variation of the community and adding a temporal
197 dimension could complicate the interpretation of the results attending to the spatiotemporal
198 dependence of processes and data.

199 Lastly, biotic data was extracted from the data available in a previous study (Veloy et al., 2022).
200 The Fish B_{pred} considered a similar criterion of predator as it was described previously for
201 predatory cephalopods (i.e., *Octopus vulgaris*, *Loligo forbesii*). Both fishing effort and the
202 biomass of crustaceans was transformed using the logarithm.

203 The biotic data derived from MEDITS and the drivers investigated were interpolated into a grid
204 with a resolution of 0.25 degrees over the study area (Fig. 2).



205

206 *Figure 2: Spatial variation of the different independent variables considered for this study. Values represent the*
 207 *mean of the time period. a) SST (°C), b) Depth (m), c) Chl-a (mg/m³), d) log (Fishing Effort), e) Fish B_{pred}, f) log*
 208 *(Biomass crustaceans).*

209

210 c) Data analysis

211 Firstly, correlation matrices were used to preliminary check the correlation between drivers and
 212 all the ecological indicators. The final selection of independent variables (Table 2) featured
 213 indicators of each category (environment, human or biological) that were complementary: SST,
 214 Chl-a, Fishing Effort, Fish B_{pred} and Biomass of crustaceans.

215 Secondly, we applied General Additive Modelling (GAM) (Wood, 2006) to each indicator to
 216 evaluate the regional influence of environmental and anthropogenic drivers as univariate
 217 smoother along with depth as a structural variable (i.e. persistent influence). GAM models were
 218 considered for the study due to their premise of non predefined functional form of the effect
 219 and their capacity to determine non-linear effects, allowing a more complete understanding of
 220 the effects and the response capacity of all the indicators. We also took into account the ease
 221 of interpretation of the relationships between each indicator and the drivers on an individual
 222 level as well as the efficiency to study the residuals, as opposed to other methods. One-
 223 dimensional non-parametric smoothing functions used included cubic splines with up to a
 224 maximum of 3 degrees of freedom (i.e. 4 knots) to avoid model overfitting and obtain
 225 meaningful functional forms of the effects. All the models were calculated using Gaussian

226 distribution with the exception of the Richness model, where a Poisson distribution was used.
 227 Model selection was done comparing the models with all the independent variables with those
 228 where the non-statistically significant variables were sequentially removed (Supplementary
 229 Material Table S5). An important element in our modelling approach is that we explicitly avoided
 230 the use of a geographic bi-variate smoother (latitude, longitude) to allow environmental factors
 231 to capture the potential spatial variability.

232 To distinguish whether the drivers investigated were geographically structured or whether they
 233 represented a larger scale impact at the scale of the studied region, we investigated the partial
 234 residuals of all covariates and models according to the five distinct sub-regions continuously
 235 spread over the three contiguous GSAs: GSA1, GSA6 and GSA7. We indicate in the results when
 236 it is meaningful based on the overlapping of the residuals of different sub-regions. Finally, we
 237 present the spatial predictions of the models using the independent variables as predictors.

238 All indicators and analysis were calculated with R version 4.2.2 (R Core Team, 2022). Jaccard
 239 index and its components were calculated using the R package betapart (Baselga and Orme,
 240 2012) and the GAM models were obtained using mgcv (Wood, 2011).

241 Table 1. Dependent variables used in the study and information they provide about the state of
 242 cephalopods and the communities they are part of.

Indicators	Information about cephalopods/ecosystem	Data source	Indicator source
Biodiversity indicators			
Richness	Number of cephalopod species present	MEDITS data; Velay et al., 2022	McIntosh, 1967
B-diversity (Jaccard index)	Temporal change of the cephalopod subset of the ecosystem	MEDITS data; Velay et al., 2022	Blowes et al., 2019; Dornelas, 2014
Biomass and size			
Total biomass of cephalopods (Biomass)	Weight of all cephalopods (transformed to logarithm)	MEDITS data; Velay et al., 2022	Coll et al., 2016
Relative predatory cephalopod biomass (B_{pred})	Fraction of cephalopods that are considered predators	MEDITS data; Velay et al., 2022	Coll et al., 2016
Mean Size	Weight of the average cephalopod as a proxy for size (transformed to logarithm)	MEDITS data; Velay et al., 2022	Shin et al., 2018; Forsythe, 2004
Trophic level indicators			
TL _{3.25}	Mean trophic level of cephalopods above 3.25	MEDITS data; Velay et al., 2022	Shannon et al., 2014
TL ₄	Mean trophic level of cephalopods above 4	MEDITS data; Velay et al., 2022	Shannon et al., 2014

243

244

245 Table 2. Independent variables used in the study and sources of origin.

Variable	Definition	Data source	Variable source
Structural driver			
Depth	Depth at sea bottom	MEDITS data	
Environmental drivers			
SST	Sea Surface Temperature	COPERNICUS, 2021	COPERNICUS, 2021
Chl-a	Primary production	COPERNICUS, 2021	COPERNICUS, 2021
Human impact drivers			
Fishing effort	Number of yearly hours that vessels spent fishing on an area, (human pressure) (transformed to logarithm)	Global Fishing Watch 2021	Anderson et al., 2011; Caddy and Rodhouse, 1998
Biotic drivers			
Fish B_{pred}	Fraction of fishes that are considered predators (competitors and predators of cephalopods)	MEDITS data; Veloy et al., 2022	Coll et al., 2016; Veloy et al. (2022)
Crustacean biomass	Weight of all sampled crustaceans from the order Malacostraca, excluding amphipods and isopods (cephalopod main prey) (transformed to logarithm)	MEDITS data; Veloy et al., 2022	Puerta et al., 2015; Veloy et al. (2022)

246

247 **3. Results**248 **Biodiversity indicators**

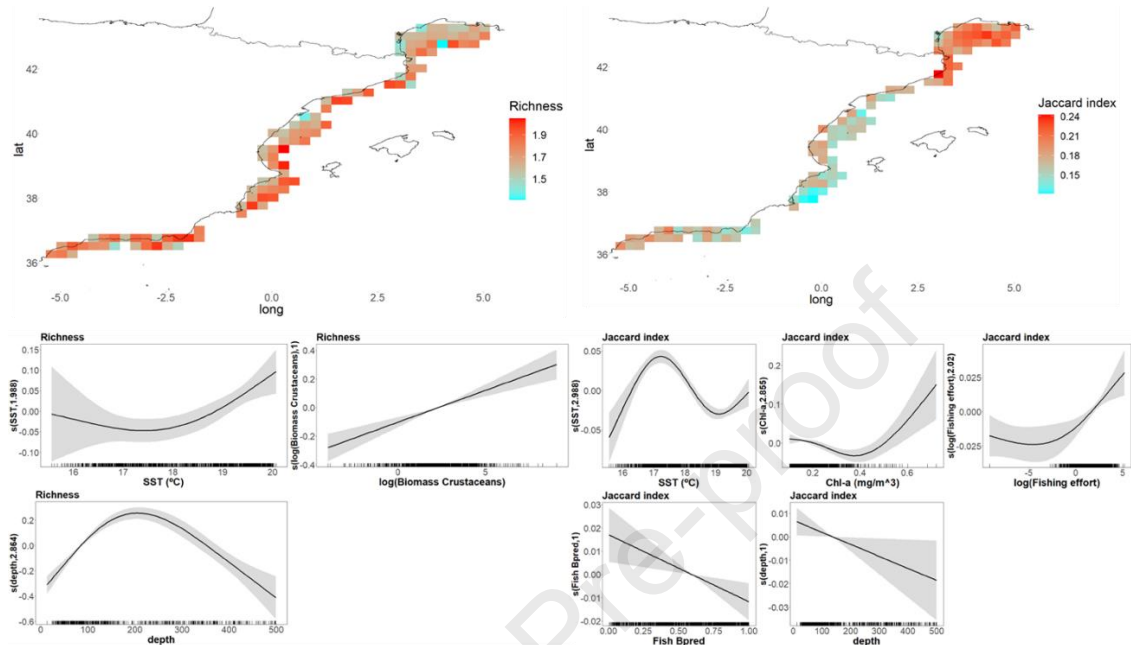
249 Cephalopods' richness showed positive relationships with SST above 18 °C, a linear influence of
 250 the biomass of crustaceans, as well as a maximum of species at depths of 150-300 m (Fig. 3,
 251 Table 3). Spatially, it presented lower values in northern areas, characterized by low
 252 temperatures and low values of crustacean biomass. Richness showed maximum values on the
 253 southernmost area of GSA6, where all those drivers show higher values. Interestingly, SST
 254 displayed a spatial segregation of partial residuals while the other drivers showed a regional
 255 effect (i.e. overlapping distribution, Supplementary Material Figure S2). Maximum species
 256 richness values were observed south the Ibiza Channel and a heterogeneous pattern emerged
 257 in the Alboran Sea and the Ebro delta.

258 β -diversity showed a nonlinear relationship with SST with a maximum value around 17 °C
 259 followed by a decrease (Fig. 3, Table 3). It showed a negative relationship with Chl-a until 0.4
 260 mg/m³ from which β -diversity increased. It also showed a positive non-linear relationship with
 261 fishing effort and a negative relationship with fish B_{pred} and depth. Spatial patterns were roughly
 262 opposite to the ones found for richness, with the highest values found in the northern areas and
 263 the lowest on the south of GSA6 on the Valencia Channel. The partial residuals of the effects

264 showed the highest values of this index in the Gulf of Lion and North Catalan Sea, which are
 265 areas with the lowest SST (Fig. 4).

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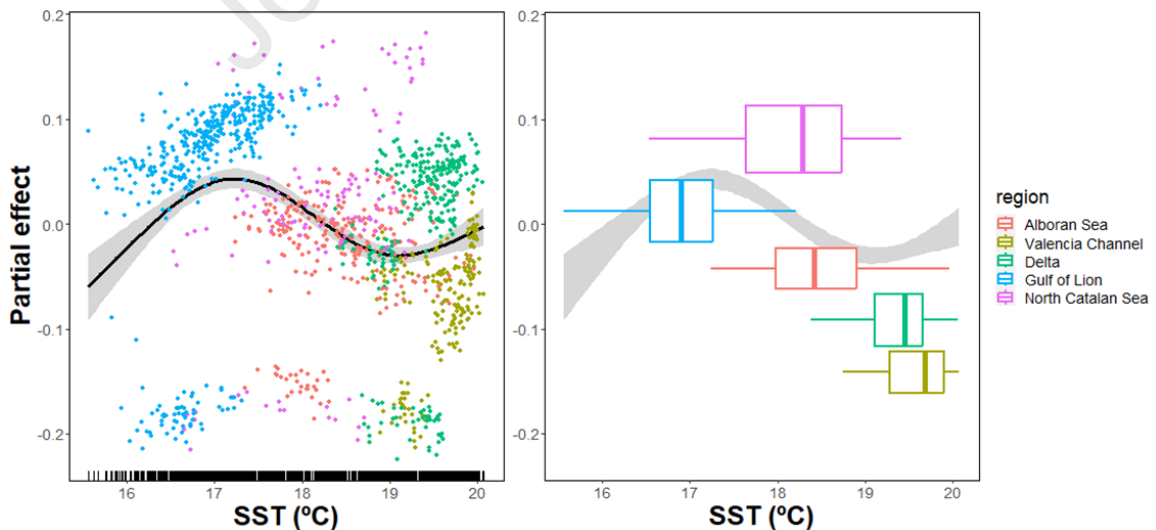
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269 *Figure 3: Spatial variation and smoothing effect of species richness (left) and β -diversity (right). Dashed areas*
 270 *indicate the 95% confidence intervals and the Y axis indicates degrees of freedom of the smoother.*

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274

275 *Figure 4: Residuals (left) and boxplots (right) of the partial effect of SST on the Jaccard index. The shaded areas of*
 276 *the partial plot indicate the 95% confidence interval.*

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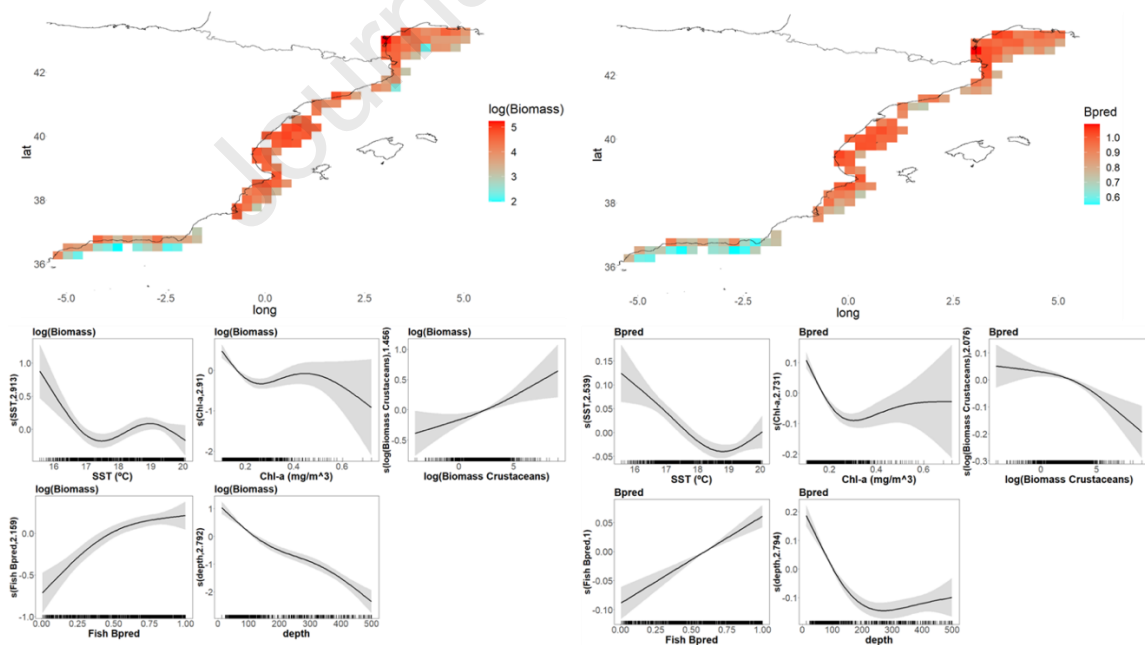
278 **Biomass and mean size**

279 A decreasing trend was found between total cephalopods biomass and SST, reaching a minimum
 280 between 17 °C and 18 °C and a small increase at 19 °C (Fig. 5, Table 3). It also showed a non-
 281 linear increasing trend with biomass of crustaceans and with Fish B_{pred} , with a maximum value
 282 at ratios stabilized around 0.5 in the latter case. On the other hand, cephalopods biomass
 283 decreased with Chl-a and particularly with depth. The highest values were found in the shallow
 284 areas of the Gulf of Lion and the deep areas in central Northern Spain (i.e. Ebro Delta). The
 285 partial residuals of the effects of SST showed that the Catalan Coast and the Gulf of Lion areas
 286 were associated with the highest values of the indicator as well as the decrease on cephalopods
 287 biomass (Fig. 6).

288 SST had a negative effect on B_{pred} until 18.5 °C and of Chl-a until 0.3 mg/m³ (Fig. 5, Table 3).
 289 Residuals on the SST model showed a geographical pattern of this effect (Fig.6), where the Gulf
 290 of Lion and the Catalan Sea were associated to higher values of B_{pred} and the residuals of the rest
 291 of the independent variables were more homogenously distributed (Supplementary Material
 292 Figure S5). B_{pred} showed a nonlinear decreasing trend with depth and biomass of crustaceans,
 293 while fish B_{pred} had a positive linear relationship with this metric. Areas from the north had higher
 294 ratios of predators than southern areas such as the Alboran Sea (GSA1) showing a gradient
 295 between the former and the Gulf of Lion (Fig. 5).

296 Mean Size (Fig. 7, Table 3) had a negative nonlinear relationship with Chl-a and depth, and a
 297 dome-shaped relationship with SST with a maximum at 18 °C. It also had a clear positive
 298 relationship with fish B_{pred} . Highest mean sizes appeared in GSA6 areas, on grid cells where
 299 primary production was low and the ratio of predatory fishes was high.

300

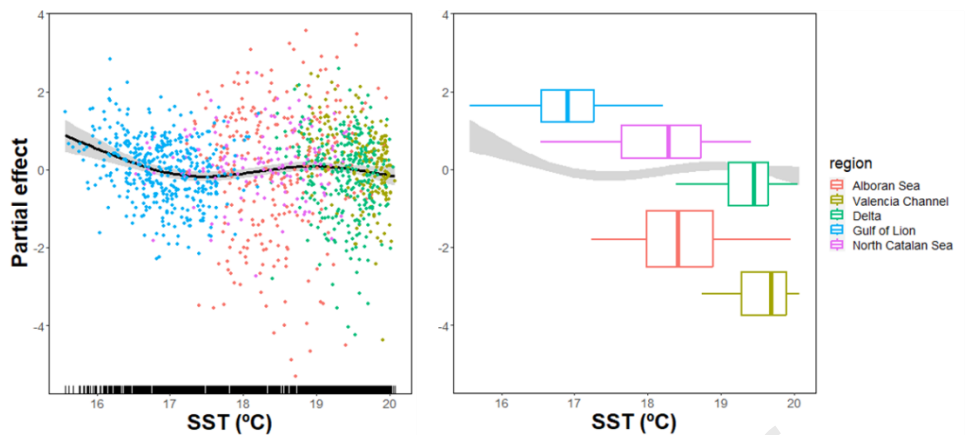


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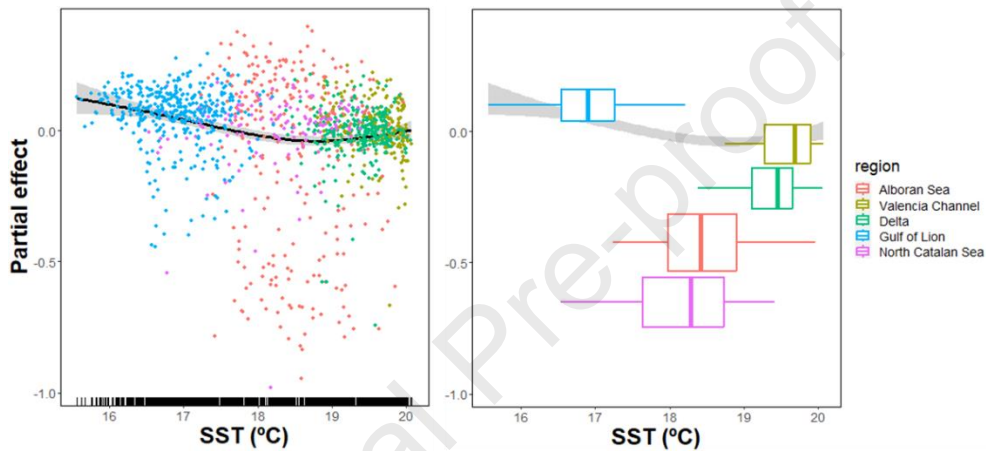
302 *Figure 5: Spatial variation and smoothing effect of the of Biomass (log scale, left) and B_{pred} (right). Dashed areas*
 303 *indicate the 95% confidence intervals and the Y axis indicates degrees of freedom of the smoother.*

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305



306



307

308 *Figure 6: Residuals (left) and boxplots (right) for SST of the Biomass (log scale, upper row) and B_{pred} (lower row)*
 309 *models. The shaded areas of the partial plot indicate the 95% confidence interval.*

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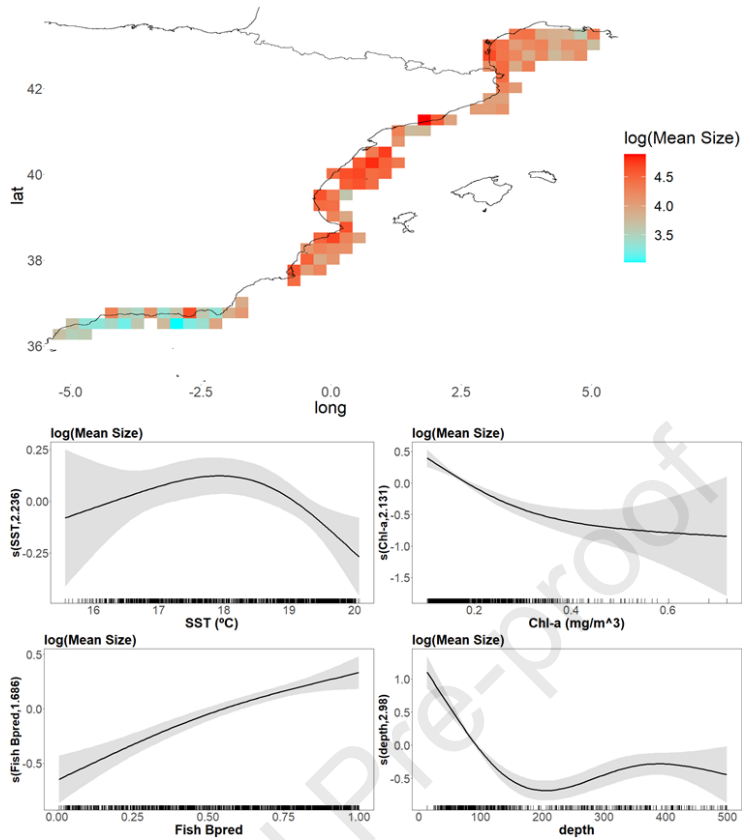
311 Trophic level indicators

312 $TL_{3.25}$ presented a linear negative relationship with biomass of crustaceans (Fig. 8, Table 3).
 313 Meanwhile, for SST and depth, these relationships were positive but non-linear. The highest
 314 values of $TL_{3.25}$ were found within the cells of GSA6, an area with generally high SST and biomass
 315 of crustaceans (Fig. 8). Partial residuals seem to confirm this trend as the values of the residuals
 316 of the regions of the Valencia Channel and Ebro delta are higher than the other regions
 317 (Supplementary Material Figure S6).

318 For TL_4 , Chl-a also showed a dome-shaped influence with a maximum near 0.4 mg/m^3 . SST
 319 showed a positive relationship with TL_4 , while the biomass of crustaceans and depth had a
 320 negative relationship. The highest values of TL_4 were found in the shallow waters and
 321 comparatively in the south, being associated with high productivity, intermediate values of SST
 322 and low values of biomass of crustaceans (Fig. 8). Some high values of TL_4 were also found on
 323 sparse cells corresponding to temperate shallow waters in the Gulf of Lion.

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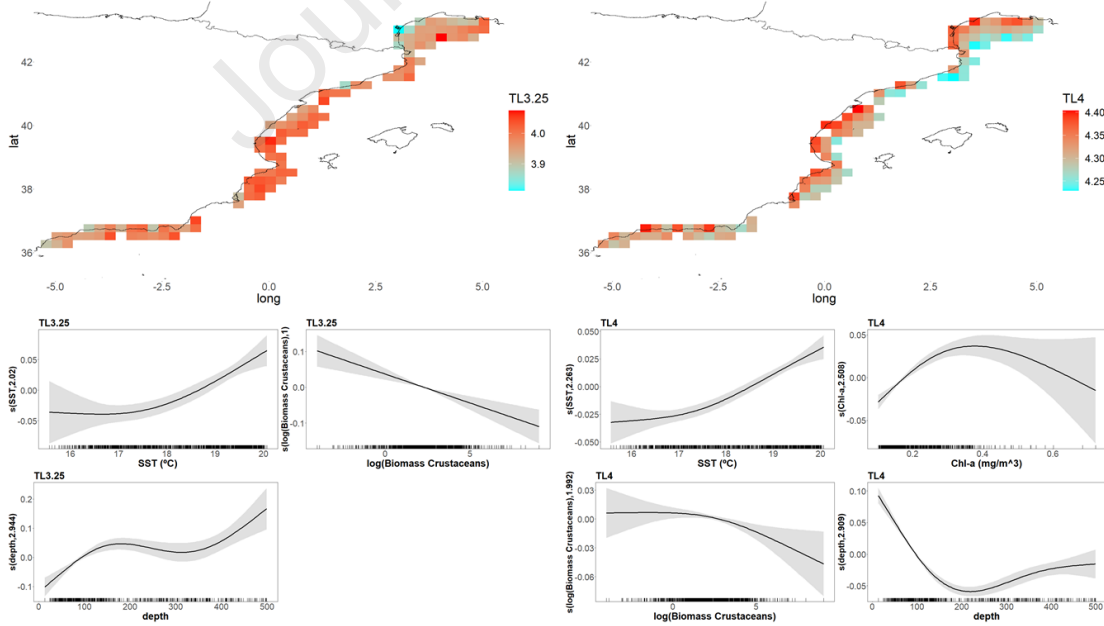
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327 *Figure 7: Spatial variation and smoothing effect of the Mean Size (log scale). Dashed areas indicate the 95%*
 328 *confidence intervals and the Y axis indicates degrees of freedom of the smoother.*

329



330

331 *Figure 8: Spatial variation and smoothing effect of mean trophic level above 3.25 (left) and 4 (right). Dashed areas*
 332 *indicate the 95% confidence intervals and the Y axis indicates degrees of freedom of the smoother.*

333

334 Table 3: GAM models summary for each ecological indicator. *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.
 335 edf = Estimated degrees of freedom of univariate smoothers; %DV = Deviance explained
 336 (percentage).

Indicator	Drivers	Intercept	edf	%DV
Richness	SST Log(Biomass Crustaceans) Depth	1.697 ± 0.012	1.988*** 1*** 2.864***	23.6
B-diversity (Jaccard index)	SST Chl-a Log(Fishing effort) Fish B_{pred} Depth	0.183 ± 0.002	2.988*** 2.855*** 2.020*** 1** 1 *	10.9
Log(Biomass)	SST Chl-a Log(Biomass crustaeans) Fish B_{pred} Depth	3.988 ± 0.312	2.913*** 2.910*** 1456 ** 2.159*** 2.792 ***	25
B_{pred}	SST Chl-a Log(Biomass crustaeans) Fish B_{pred} Depth	0.878 ± 0.005	2.539*** 2.731*** 2.076*** 1*** 2.794 ***	27.5
Log(Mean Size)	SST Chl-a Log(Fishing effort) Fish B_{pred} Depth	4.079 ± 0.031	2.236* 2.131*** 1.442 1.686*** 2.980***	10.02
$TL_{3.25}$	SST Log(Biomass crustaceans) Depth	3.977 ± 0.005	2.020*** 1*** 2.944***	8.82
TL_4	SST Chl-a Log(Fishing effort) Log(Biomass crustaceans) Depth	4.328 ± 0.002	2.263*** 2.508*** 2.706 1.992 ** 2.909***	34.5

337

338 Overall trends

339 In most of the dependent variables, SST showed a change of trend between 17 °C and 19 °C,
340 corresponding mostly with the transition area of the Catalan coast between the Gulf of Lion and
341 the Ebro delta broad shelf (Fig. 1). Values on the indicators switched from a descending curve to
342 an ascending one and were associated with the spatial gradient of this variable, corresponding
343 to three thermal areas. Chl-a showed a similar pattern, with an inflection point that indicated a
344 change in response between 0.3 and 0.4 mg/m³, which is mainly associated to the extreme areas
345 in the Gulf of Lion and the Alboran Sea (Supplementary Material Figures S3 and S4). The effects
346 on cephalopods' indicators were mainly associated with the geographic pattern of these two
347 covariates, although in the case of Chl-a it seems to show a reduced geographical component in
348 some indicators unlike SST, where a large geographic effect is apparent. These shifts in trends
349 experienced between the Alboran Sea must be taken with caution, since the effects and the
350 mechanisms behind them are not the same as those found in the Gulf of Lion-Catalan Coast
351 area. This is due to its particularities as a transitional zone between the Atlantic and the Western
352 Mediterranean and the influence of the ocean in its oceanography and the high turnover of
353 species in this ecosystem. Those indicators showing a larger influence by environmental
354 variables were β -diversity and B_{pred} , which revealed gradients alongside the Western
355 Mediterranean coast. When looking at the partial residuals of β -diversity and B_{pred} , the spatial
356 effect responsible for these gradients was visible and associated to SST, as values from each
357 region are structured in differentiated clusters along the thermal gradient (Supplementary
358 Material Figures S1 to S5).

359 Those indicators most influenced by other types of variables, both biotic and human, showed
360 less clear spatial patterns in the effects, likely indicating regional impacts. This was revealed by
361 the partial residuals of all the regions, which were distributed in a more homogenous way along
362 the curve of the smoothing effect with no differences between the regions. This would
363 correspond to more heterogeneous effects on the indicators selected going beyond regional
364 environmental gradients. Examples of these effects are fishing effort on β -diversity or Biomass
365 of crustaceans on Richness.

366 Overall, GSA1 had lower values in most indicators than the ones in the rest of the study area,
367 except for TL₄. GSA6 area presented intermediate or high values for the different indicators, with
368 the exception of the areas adjacent to the Ebro delta (e.g. Biomass, B_{pred}) and Valencia channel
369 (e.g. β -diversity). Grid cells within the Valencia channel area tended to have lower values than
370 those in the rest of the GSA6 region. GSA7 showed high values for many indicators compared to
371 the rest of the Western Mediterranean, like Biomass or B_{pred} .

372

373 4. Discussion

374 This study provides a multidimensional perspective of the cephalopod community to further
375 comprehend their ecology and role in marine ecosystems. Previous studies examined the
376 interactions between this taxon and drivers at a species level (Miyahara et al., 2005; Moreno et
377 al., 2014; Otero et al., 2009; Xavier et al., 2016; among others) or considered different types of
378 cephalopods such as squids and octopus represented by a single species (e.g. Puerta et al., 2015)
379 (see Supplementary Material Table S1 for further details in a summarized review performed for
380 the present study). While others studies have focused on the community analysing the variation

381 of species composition (Keller et al., 2017a), we here investigated the cephalopod community
382 from a different perspective: using a set of complementary ecological indicators that offer a
383 wider picture about this diverse group along with their response to both environmental drivers
384 and anthropogenic pressures. Our study brings novel elements to the spatial nature of the
385 impacts of both environmental and human drivers, whether they present regionally
386 heterogeneous or geographically effects structured in gradients. In fact, while spatial patterns
387 of the indicators were already hinted in a recent study (Veloy et al., 2022), we here identify the
388 main responsible drivers of the known regional patterns including those observed at a finer
389 scale. For instance, values of the biomass of predatory cephalopods display a positive south-
390 north gradient (mainly due to the effect of SST), while $TL_{3,5}$ displays maximum values on the
391 southern parts of GSA6 and intermediate ones on the northern areas. On the other hand, β -
392 diversity, which was not showing any significant spatial effects when looking at a regional scale
393 in past studies, revealed a positive south-north gradient in our study, mainly driven by the SST
394 gradient.

395 Species richness has been suggested to follow large geographical gradients, with particular
396 latitudinal variation along the Mediterranean Sea (Coll et al., 2010; Navarro et al., 2015; Veloy
397 et al., 2022). However, at a regional scale, our study did not show marked geographical trends,
398 highlighting maximum values around the Valencia Channel. This is consistent with recent
399 unpublished studies evidencing a regional southern displacement of the demersal community
400 in the Iberian Peninsula following sub-regional pathways of climate velocity (Sanz-Martín et al.,
401 2024). These could increase local responses of diversity in southern regions of GSA6 associated
402 to local displacements to avoid sub-optimal thermal habitats. In fact, richness and β -diversity
403 appear to have complementary patterns, with cells showing high values of β -diversity generally
404 having low species richness and vice versa (Pennino et al., 2024). This is especially apparent in
405 GSA6 and GSA7. Some areas with the lowest values of richness tended to be associated with low
406 biomass of crustaceans and low SST, similarly to what was found in recent studies (Keller et al.,
407 2016; Oesterwind et al., 2022; Vilas et al., 2019), which are likely related to lower food
408 availability .

409 Fishing impact was only observed to have a significant effect on β -diversity, which is consistent
410 with previous studies suggesting the erosion of the spatial structure of communities with a
411 consequent decreases in connectivity between putative meta-communities (Hidalgo et al., 2017;
412 Shackell et al., 2012). The exploitation pressure, especially in large species with more fecundity
413 and mobility, could trigger the destabilization of northern ecosystems and also explain a smaller
414 number of species at a local and regional level. This mechanism has been particularly observed
415 in the GSA6 (Hidalgo et al., 2022b; Pennino et al., 2024; Veloy et al., 2022).

416 The biomass of the cephalopod community was found to be very influenced by environmental
417 drivers, which had a marked geographical effect likely driven by SST. Our results show that SST
418 displays a generally negative relationship with cephalopod biomass, with the colder areas of the
419 Western Mediterranean having more biomass than warmer ones consistent with recent studies
420 (Schickele et al., 2021). Interestingly, in areas such as the Portugal shelf the trend is inverse to
421 our observations, yet it shares a similar threshold of change at 17 °C in surface waters for *L.*
422 *vulgaris* (Moreno et al., 2014). In the Mediterranean area, differences in responses between
423 cephalopod taxa were also noted with some species associated to cooler waters, while others
424 thrive on warmer environments (Keller et al., 2017b; Puerta et al., 2014). These variations in the
425 non-stationary environmental effects among species could affect the response of the overall
426 group related with the variation of species composition of cephalopods community in different

427 areas, and ultimately limiting a regional global response of the cephalopods community to
428 warming.

429 Cephalopod biomass appears to be positively influenced by crustacean biomass, showing a close
430 link between cephalopods population and prey availability. It is consistent with species-specific
431 relationships of cephalopods in our study area (Puerta et al., 2015), being notable that prey and
432 predators have similar spatial patterns as it can be seen as well in GSA7. Biomass of predators
433 (fishes) also result in higher biomass of cephalopods, reaching an optimum at intermediate
434 values, which could suggest that higher values could keep stable cephalopod biomass likely due
435 to high pressure from predators (Bakun and Csirke, 1998). Although we here considered
436 crustaceans as the prey item of cephalopods, larger species (specially squids) may also tend to
437 prey more on fishes in oceanic ecosystems (Lordan et al., 1998). However, at a Mediterranean
438 scale, previous studies supports that even on relatively large species, crustaceans are present to
439 some degree on their diet (Puerta et al., 2015). Previous research and the smaller sizes of the
440 cephalopod species found in the study area may support that the proportion of piscivory might
441 not be high enough to alter the results and their interpretation in the present study.

442 The biological and environmental drivers on mean size, meaning the high biomass of
443 crustaceans, high B_{pred} of fishes and low primary productions, are similar to those observed in
444 the Eastern Mediterranean (Arvanitidis et al., 2002). However, it is possible that the negative
445 relationship between mean size and Chl-a could be due to an indirect effect of fishes over
446 cephalopods. As observed at species level, it could be a consequence of the competition with
447 other fishes during paralarval phases (Keller et al., 2017b; Puerta et al., 2015), decreasing food
448 availability and therefore limiting survival and growth. This would also be especially notable in
449 areas with high SST, which increases growth rates on hatchlings at the cost of shortening
450 maturation and lifespan (Hatfield, 2000; Pecl and Jackson, 2008). On such systems and with
451 reduced food availability, paralarvae do not benefit from the faster metabolic rates resulting in
452 a smaller size at adulthood (Pecl and Jackson, 2008; Pierce et al., 2008; Xavier et al., 2016). At a
453 community level, lower mean size seems to suggest that there are more small-sized species in
454 those areas, where fish B_{pred} is lower. Small cephalopods, such as sepiolids or the genus
455 *Allotheutis*, are present on the diet of more fish species than larger cephalopods, thus fish
456 predation or its reduction would play a bigger role in their dynamics (Daly et al., 2001; Velasco
457 et al., 2001). We can also remark the possible contribution that recruits may have on our
458 selected indicators. As seasonal recruitment peaks of some species occur during the sampling
459 season, between May and June (Pierce et al., 2010; Tursf et al., 1995) and also has shown spatial
460 variability between areas due to regional environmental conditions (Puerta et al., 2016b).

461 $TL_{3.25}$ was found to be associated to low biomass of crustaceans as well as areas with low ratios
462 of predator fishes. The trophic level of TL_4 was also related to low biomass of crustaceans. The
463 reason behind could be the competition with fishes as well as their possible predation pressure.
464 The observed decline of fishes due to high exploitation levels would indirectly favour higher
465 trophic levels in cephalopods, especially as seen with $TL_{3.25}$ (Caddy and Rodhouse, 1998; Coll et
466 al., 2010; Hastie et al., 2009; Pennino et al., 2017). This may support the hypothesis of the
467 cephalopod replacement in response to the removal of fishes, especially at high trophic levels.

468 Out of all drivers, fishing effort was the least influential driver as it only showed significant
469 effects on the β -diversity. In general, cephalopods seem to be less sensitive to direct human
470 local impacts than to environmental ones, which may be linked to their short life strategy that
471 also make them less susceptible to be affected by the continuous pressure of fishing (Quetglas
472 et al., 2016). The biology of this group becomes both an advantage and a hindrance, as this

473 greater dependence on environmental factors can make them more susceptible to climate
474 variations. One example could be warming, which has been shown to affect cephalopods at
475 species level (Forsythe, 2004; Georgakarakos et al., 2002; Xavier et al., 2016), and at a
476 community level in this study. The response observed to an increasing SST is either negative for
477 some of the key indicators, such as the total biomass of cephalopods or the biomass of predatory
478 cephalopods, or becomes negative after reaching certain temperature threshold like in mean
479 size. It is worth to acknowledge, however, that in the case of this last indicator it could be also
480 caused by peaks in recruitment of species like *Eledone cirrhosa* (Tursf et al., 1995), which are
481 also fairly abundant in our data. This is especially relevant in our study area, as northward
482 migrations and expansions in response to increasing SST (i.e. meridionalization) are limited by
483 landmass on the Gulf of Lion region.

484 The selection of indicators shown in this manuscript also responds to the need of the EU's
485 Marine Strategies Framework Directive (MSFD) to assess the state of marine communities.
486 These ecological metrics were complementary to some of the proposed descriptors within the
487 framework, specifically for D1 and D4 related to both biodiversity as well as trophic ecology (IEO
488 and MAGRAMA, 2012a, 2012b). This study takes into account some indicators not considered in
489 the current MSFD work, such as the β -diversity, that can be useful to better understand the
490 different components of biodiversity from local to regional scales. Other chosen indicators
491 correspond to already established metrics and objectives. For instance, B_{pred} is equivalent to the
492 descriptor 4.2 (proportion of species on high levels of the trophic chain). Meanwhile, trophic
493 level indicators help to assess the state of the trophic chain of the taxa of study. Overall, the use
494 of various indicators highlights the relevance of our study to inform future policy
495 recommendations.

496 Our results also call for caution when referring to cephalopods as general winners to expected
497 warming. While they have been thriving compared to other taxa such as fishes, and in spite of
498 their opportunistic lifestyle, the observed responses of indicators to SST suggest that
499 detrimental effects could be expected, particularly in geographically localized areas with higher
500 warming. Based on our results lower values of biomass, mean size and ratio of predator species
501 could be observed in the aforementioned areas. It is also important to consider that this study
502 reflects the mean response for the entire Cephalopoda class, therefore differences between
503 species sometimes turn into opposite responses to the same environmental pressures attending
504 to their life history characteristics (e.g. benthopelagic or benthic habitat), as it is the case of *Illex*
505 *coindetii* and *Eledone cirrhosa* (Puerta et al., 2014). On the Western Mediterranean basin, the
506 squid was associated with colder waters while the aforementioned octopod was seen to displace
507 towards warmer environments. This is also relevant in terms of fisheries management as the
508 increase in fishing effort might affect cephalopod communities by changing their relative species
509 composition with a differential effect of those inhabiting in the benthic or the pelagic realm.

510 It is worth noticing that our results may represent a snapshot of the community since the
511 MEDITS data samples are only from one season (in the summer, between May and June). Some
512 of the considered factors have shown different effects during summer and winter on some
513 cephalopod species. For example, significant effects of primary production were reported on
514 warmer seasons for two cephalopod species while fisheries played a significant role in their
515 winter distribution (Lloret-Lloret et al., 2021). Thus the spatial distribution of the indicators could
516 vary along the year showing seasonal patterns of migration due to some species tend to move
517 towards northern regions during summer (Lloret-Lloret et al., 2021; Vilas et al., 2019), while it is
518 also possible that the seasonal turnover of species may maintain the community properties and

519 indicators stable (Moranta et al., 2008). Changes in community composition have not been
520 studied as this work only aimed to analyze the cephalopod community as a whole. Despite this,
521 the results might still hint at some changes in the composition of this subset of the Western
522 Mediterranean community. Forecasts of future scenarios would be difficult as other possibly
523 influential drivers (such as stratification of the water column), as well as the potential adaptive
524 processes of the different species have not been taken into account (Hidalgo et al. 2018).

525 In summary, we have been able to describe relationships between key aspects of the
526 cephalopod ecology with environmental, human and biotic drivers of change. Our results
527 highlight that the cephalopod community of the Western Mediterranean will likely continue to
528 change, mainly due to changes in environmental conditions related to climate change, such as
529 an increase in sea warming or changes in primary production. However, these changes will not
530 necessary result in boosted cephalopod populations. Drivers related to the structure of the
531 biotic community, such as prey availability and the concurrence of competitors, can also
532 influence cephalopods future dynamics, illustrating that this taxon is highly dependent to
533 different ecosystems compartments and the whole ecosystem structure and functioning. We
534 conclude that to ensure a sustainable fisheries management of the cephalopods community
535 within the study area an ecosystem-based approach is needed, considering the subregional
536 differences within larger regions.

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549

550 **Data Availability statement**

551 The data underlying this article were provided by IEO under licence / by permission. Data can be
552 shared on request to the IEO.

553

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Highlights

- Effects of environmental, biotic and human drivers were investigated for ecological indicators of cephalopods
- Dynamics of this taxon are mainly influenced by sea temperature, explaining geographical gradients in several metrics
- Relationships with biotic variables could hint at the decrease of high trophic fishes.
- Fishing has little effect on cephalopods with β -diversity being the only indicator influenced by this variable
- Potential negative effects of warming on indicators challenge the idea of cephalopods as a climate change winners.

Journal Pre-proof

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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