

1 **Title:**

2 Individual trophic specialisation in juvenile European seabass: Implications for the
3 management of a commercially important species

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10 **Author Contributions:**

11 MRDC and AJ conceptualised the study, MRDC and WS collected and processed samples,
12 MRDC conducted statistical analyses and wrote first manuscript draft, and all authors
13 contributed equally to study development and manuscript review and editing.

14

15 **Abstract:**

16 The importance of individual trophic specialisation, where individuals use reduced and
17 differing subsets of a population's overall resource base, has been increasingly
18 recognised for its ecological implications, but has been little studied in a fisheries
19 context. Stocks of the commercially important European seabass, *Dicentrarchus labrax*,
20 have declined in recent years, and national and international policy has focused on
21 increasing the minimum conservation reference size and restricting fishing effort in
22 order to increase standing stock biomass. Inshore nursery grounds represent a critical
23 habitat for this species in terms of recruitment to standing stocks, therefore additional
24 management strategies at the local (and national) level, aimed at maximising survival
25 and growth of juvenile seabass will complement recovery efforts. However a lack of

26 understanding of the ecology of seabass at the level of the individual may limit the
27 development of effective policy. To address this knowledge gap, we quantified levels of
28 individual trophic specialisation in juvenile seabass from a common nursery area using
29 stomach contents and stable isotope analyses applied to fish sampled at monthly
30 resolution over an annual cycle. We found strong evidence for individual specialisation
31 in stomach contents beyond seasonal and age effects on diet, and that the strength of
32 specialisation exhibited seasonality, being absent in the spring. This was corroborated
33 by stable isotope analyses, which showed significantly higher variance in seabass
34 compared to two other concurrently sampled, sympatric benthopelagic predators. Our
35 findings suggest that juvenile seabass form trophic-generalist populations composed of
36 specialised individuals which may be driven by intraspecific competition within the
37 nursery ground. This study emphasises the importance of incorporating individual
38 specialisation into management strategies aimed at protecting the vulnerable life stages
39 of this commercially important species.

40

41 ***Introduction:***

42 The functional roles of different species within ecosystems are often quantified by
43 parameters that capture typical or 'average' behaviours at the population level (Bolnick
44 et al., 2003). However even when differences due to sex and ontogeny are accounted
45 for, such descriptions miss a growing body of evidence showing that individuals within
46 populations often exhibit differences in resource use, known as intraspecific niche
47 variation or individual specialisation (reviewed by Araujo et al., 2011). For example, at a
48 local scale a population observed to have a generalist diet may be composed of
49 individuals consuming a similar, diverse suit of prey (cosmopolitan foraging) or from

50 individuals consuming different but limited subsets of prey drawn from the broader
51 population prey-base i.e. individual trophic specialisation.

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53 Individual specialisation may be response to density-dependent limitation of resources,
54 or may arise due to variation in behavioural traits such as boldness, as differential
55 behaviours expose individuals to different ecological opportunities (reviewed by
56 Toscano *et al.*, 2016). Such specialisation is also a potential mechanism through which
57 levels of intra- and interspecific competition, as well as predation, can be modulated
58 (Araújo *et al.*, 2011). It is important to note however that the contributions of such
59 mechanisms to individual specialisation are context dependent (Evangelista *et al.*,
60 2014). Nevertheless, among other ecological implications, the degree of individual
61 specialisation influences the stability of populations (Bolnick *et al.*, 2011). Despite its
62 potential importance for conservation and management (Bolnick *et al.*, 2003;
63 Hammaerschlag-Peyer & Layman 2010), there has been surprisingly limited
64 appreciation of individual-level niche variation in commercially exploited species or in a
65 fisheries context (but see Cucherousset *et al.*, 2011).

66

67 The European seabass, *Dicentrarchus labrax* (Linnaeus, 1758, hereafter seabass) has
68 been, until recently, an important resource for inshore recreational and commercial
69 fisheries in the southern UK. DEFRA, the UK governmental department for environment,
70 food and rural affairs, reports that 897t of seabass were landed into the UK in 2012
71 (mostly into England by the UK commercial fleet) with a first sale value of £5.6million
72 (MMO, 2013). It is further estimated that an additional 230-440t of seabass were
73 retained by recreational anglers in England in the same year (DEFRA, 2013) with an
74 uncertain but likely significant economic benefit to local communities. However a large

75 decline in seabass stocks has occurred since 2010 (*circa* 18kt in 2010 to below 7kt in
76 2017) and stocks are now identified as below B_{lim} , the limit reference point for
77 spawning stock biomass (ICES, 2017). Since 2018, strict EU fishing regulations have
78 come into force in an effort to improve seabass stock levels (MMO, 2018). Coupled with
79 these EU-wide regulations, localised management strategies within England are
80 currently being reviewed in conjunction with marine protected area (MPA) designation
81 and the conservation of other species of interest. However it has been highlighted that
82 uncertainties in seabass ecology, particularly at the individual level, are impeding policy
83 development for the protection of this species (López *et al.*, 2015).

84

85 In light of this paucity of data and because of the migratory nature of the species, recent
86 research efforts have focused on the individual movements of adult seabass using
87 various tagging techniques (Doyle *et al.*, 2017; de Pontual *et al.*, 2018; O’Niell *et al.*,
88 2018) and retrospective geochemical tracers (Cambrie *et al.*, 2016) in order to better
89 delineate stocks. Juvenile fish represent a vulnerable but also vital ontogenetic stage in
90 terms of stock management as their successful recruitment directly increases standing
91 stock biomass. Nursery grounds are therefore considered critical habitat and processes
92 influencing juvenile survival rates, such as feeding behaviours, are important to
93 consider within a management context (Le Pape & Bonhommeau, 2015). Current
94 knowledge on the diet of seabass is focused towards young of the year (Aprahamian &
95 Barr, 1985; Laffaille *et al.*, 2001; Cabral & Costa, 2001; Martinho *et al.*, 2008) and mature
96 adults (Kelley, 1987; Spitz *et al.*, 2013). However the consensus is that seabass are
97 typically opportunistic, generalist predators with diets reflecting the locally abundant
98 prey that are available to the given life history stage and season (Pickett & Pawson,
99 1994; Rogdakis *et al.*, 2010). Despite the breadth of dietary studies, none to date have

100 explored feeding behaviours at the individual level within seabass populations.
101 Anecdotal evidence suggests that individual specialisation does occur in seabass
102 populations: local differences in habitat preferences have been noted, with individuals
103 occupying different microhabitats within estuaries (Kelley, 1986; O’Niell et al., 2018)
104 and differential feeding patterns have been reported within young of the year cohorts
105 (Fonseca *et al.*, 2011). Given its potential importance for the management of seabass,
106 the lack of information on the dietary strategies at the individual-level for this
107 commercially-relevant species including measures of individual specialisation should be
108 addressed.

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110 Here, we assess the level and nature of individual trophic specialisation of juvenile
111 seabass, including young of the year, one year and two year aged cohorts across a
112 seasonal cycle within an estuarine nursery ground. Individual specialisation in the diet
113 can be quantified using stomach content data (Bolnick *et al.*, 2002; Araújo *et al.*, 2008;
114 Zaccarelli *et al.*, 2013), stable isotope analyses (Layman *et al.*, 2007a; Dermond *et al.*,
115 2018) or a combination of both (Araújo *et al.*, 2009). Stomach content analyses offer
116 high taxonomic resolution, however the information provided reflects a narrow time
117 window of up to several hours prior to capture and may not record the true, time-
118 averaged diet (Nielsen *et al.*, 2018), potentially biasing inferences towards higher levels
119 of individual specialisation. Stable isotope analyses provide indirect information on the
120 diet composition over a time frame of up to several weeks in the case of muscle tissue,
121 as incorporation into the body occurs through tissue turnover and somatic growth (Fry
122 & Arnold, 1982) but at the cost of reduced dietary resolution. High levels of individual
123 specialisation in diet, where individuals utilise narrow subsets of the population’s
124 overall prey-base, increases dispersion of the population within isotopic space.

125 Providing that potential diet items have distinct isotopic compositions, relative levels of
126 specialisation can be inferred from the isotopic variance, with higher variances being
127 associated with higher levels of individual specialisation (Layman *et al.*, 2012). Using
128 stomach content and stable isotope data, we test the hypothesis that the resident
129 juvenile seabass population consists of specialised individuals rather than individuals
130 with cosmopolitan foraging behaviours. We then explore whether levels of individual
131 trophic specialisation, if any, vary on a seasonal basis and between age cohorts.

132

133 ***Materials and Methods:***

134 *Study Area, Sample Collection and Processing:*

135 Sampling was conducted in Southampton Water; a partially mixed estuary located in
136 southern England (50°52'N, 01°22'W). Southampton Water is 1.96km wide at its mouth
137 and approximately 10km in length. It has an artificially deepened channel for much of
138 its length, maintained by periodic dredging, and large areas have been extensively
139 modified for industrial activity. The estuary is fed by three rivers, the Test, Itchen and
140 Hamble, which have a catchment area of approximately 1500km², and is hypernutrified
141 with relatively low turbidity: suspended particulates average 40mg l⁻¹ at the mouth
142 falling to 5-10mg l⁻¹ at the head, making it a highly productive environment (Townend,
143 2008).

144

145 Physical sampling of seabass (and other fish species) was conducted opportunistically
146 as part of an ongoing, licensed, environmental monitoring survey of Southampton
147 Water. Individual fish were sampled via a fish-return system linked to a cooling-water
148 intake pipe within Southampton Water. A 10mm mesh collection net was used on the
149 fish-return system over a 24-hour period (one 18-hour overnight collection and six

150 hourly collections) on a monthly basis from November 2015 through to January 2017.
151 Catches were sorted, identified, counted and measured, and all available seabass
152 collected. Samples were supplemented from quarterly trawls (part of the same survey),
153 all of which fell within 3km of the intake pipe and within Southampton Water. A 10m-
154 bottom otter trawl was used with a 10mm mesh cod end, trawled for 10 minutes with
155 up to 10 trawls per quarter. As part of the survey's consent and/or exemption from the
156 MMO (Marine Management Organisation) for scientific surveys, and with the
157 cooperation of the Southampton harbour authority, all fish were treated as humanely as
158 possible and only specimens deemed to stand no chance of survival were retained.
159 Individual survivability within the nets is likely to be influenced by body condition, and
160 therefore past feeding behaviour, potentially biasing results. However most individuals
161 sampled came from the overnight net collection period, where prolonged capture
162 resulted in limited viable live returns (approximately 90% retention of total seabass
163 caught). All sampled fish were frozen post-collection until subsequent analysis.

164

165 For dietary analyses, seabass specimens were defrosted, standard length and wet-mass
166 measured, and stomachs excised. Stomach contents were weighed separately, contents
167 identified and sorted into 12 broad trophic categories under a binocular microscope
168 (pelagic copepods, amphipods, isopods, mysids, shrimps, crabs, polychaetes, bivalves,
169 gastropods, fish, algae and detritus). For each category, numeric counts were taken and
170 volume estimated following the method described by Hellawall & Abel (1971).

171

172 For stable isotope analyses, small plugs of muscle (*circa* 0.5cm³) were taken from below
173 the second dorsal fin, with skin removed, and stored in eppendorf tubes and refrozen.

174 For small individuals, whole fillets were taken, with skin, bone and spines removed to

175 avoid isotopic disparity between tissue types. Samples were freeze-dried at -55°C for 24
176 hours (Heto Power dry LL3000) then stored in sealed containers at room temperature.
177 Dehydrated tissue samples were homogenised and weighed using a Sartorius
178 microbalance with a precision of 0.001mg. Samples of 1.9mg ± 0.1mg were weighed out
179 into tin capsules and were analysed at NERC Life Sciences Mass Spectrometry Facility,
180 SUERC, using an Elementar vario Pyrocube (Hanau, Germany) coupled to an IsoPrime
181 (now Elementar) VISION Mass Spectrometer (Cheadle, UK). All isotopic values are
182 reported relative to their respective international standards: Pee Dee Belemnite (PBD)
183 for carbon, atmospheric air for nitrogen and Cañon Diablo Troilite (CDT) for sulphur.
184 Isotopic compositions are expressed as delta (δ) per mille (‰) notation, given by:

$$185 \quad \delta X = \left[\frac{R_{sample}}{R_{standard}} - 1 \right] \times 1000$$

186 where X is either ^{13}C , ^{15}N or ^{34}S and R is the ratio of $^{13}\text{C}:^{12}\text{C}$, $^{15}\text{N}:^{14}\text{N}$ or $^{34}\text{S}:^{32}\text{S}$.
187 Equipment calibration and compensation for drift over time was corrected for by
188 internal standards run between every 10 samples, with analytical measurement errors
189 (s.d.) of 0.1‰, 0.2‰ and 0.6‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ respectively. As sample C:N
190 ratios were relatively low and similar across all samples and species (mean of 3.22
191 ranging from 3.08 to 3.51), lipid correction was not deemed necessary and raw $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
192 values were used throughout the study (Skinner *et al.*, 2016).

193

194 *Dietary Analyses:*

195 Seabass were assigned an age class determined by size cohorts of standard length and
196 month of capture following Claridge and Potter (1983). Two dietary indices were
197 calculated to describe trophic behaviour for each seasonal age class following Rosecchi
198 *et al.* (1988):

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$$I_{RI} = p_F \times (p_N + p_V)$$

$$I_{MF} = \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{p_V \times (p_N + p_F)}{2} \right\}}$$

where p_F is the proportional frequency of occurrence of prey categories across stomachs containing food, p_N is the proportional numerical abundance of prey categories and p_V is the proportional volume of each prey category. The index of relative importance, I_{RI} , was first described by Pinease *et al.* (1971) whereas the main food item index, I_{MF} , was described by Zander (1982). While Zander (1982) originally used percentage dry weight, we used percentage wet volume (following Rosecchi *et al.*, 1988) and normalised each index to its total sum within each seasonal age group to allow comparisons between different age classes and seasons. The vacuity index, I_V , was also recorded as the proportion of empty stomachs for each group.

Statistical Analyses of Individual Trophic Specialisation:

Since individual-level diet variation can be confounded with other sources of intra-population diet variation (Araújo *et al.*, 2011), we first tested for differences in diet associated with ontogeny and season. We utilised the proportional similarity index, PS , (Schoener, 1968):

$$PS_{ij} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \sum_k |p_{ik} - p_{jk}|$$

where p_{ik} and p_{jk} are the proportions of prey category k (by numerical abundance) in the diets i and j respectively. PS_{ij} is a measure of the overlap in the diets i and j , ranging from 0 (no overlap) to 1 (complete overlap). We calculated PS between each individual and the average diet of the whole population, age class, season, and age class by season (average diet taken as the mean of individual proportional diets for a

222 grouping). Increasing mean *PS* values within group comparisons compared to the
223 whole population suggests that the grouping explains some of the variation in
224 individual diet. To test whether any explained diet variation was due to a random
225 grouping effect, we randomly permuted across age classes and seasons and compared
226 observed values to those from 10,000 draws to obtain approximate p-values. Results
227 indicated that the increase in average proportional similarity from 0.287 for the whole
228 population to 0.439 for age class by season was not due to a random grouping effect (p
229 ≈ 0.0049). Seabass were therefore grouped in age classes by season for subsequent
230 analyses (average proportional similarity for age class and season were 0.360 and 0.349
231 respectively). Seasons were defined as November to January, February to April, May to
232 July and August to October for winter, spring, summer and autumn respectively.

233

234 To quantify the strength of individual specialisation based on stomach content data we
235 calculated the *E* index, which is based on average pair-wise individual overlap (Araújo
236 *et al.*, 2008) given by:

237
$$E = 1 - \frac{2 \times \sum_{pairs} PS_{ij}}{n(n-1)}$$

238 where diets *i* and *j* are those of two individuals from a group of size *n* and where *E*
239 ranges from 0 (no individual specialisation) to 1 (maximum individual specialisation).

240 $\sum_{pairs} PS_{ij}$ is the sum across all possible *ij* pairs, the number of which is equal to
241 $n(n-1)/2$. The *E* index may be biased towards higher values when individuals
242 consume low numbers of prey items, therefore the observed index (E_{obs}) is adjusted
243 based on a null value calculated from Monte Carlo resampling methods to allow direct
244 comparison between groups (Zaccarelli *et al.*, 2013):

245
$$E_{adj} = \frac{E_{obs} - E_{null}}{1 - E_{null}}$$

246 where E_{null} is the mean value from the null distribution.

247

248 The statistical significance of E was tested and the value of E_{null} derived using a Monte
249 Carlo approach to generate a null diet distribution (n=9999), based on creating datasets
250 were individuals sample stochastically from a shared prey distribution (the average diet
251 by numerical abundance of the group). For each simulation, individuals draw prey items
252 equal to the number that each individual was observed to contain within their
253 stomachs. This approach assumes that each prey item within a stomach represents an
254 independent feeding event which may not hold if prey are patchily distributed. Further,
255 the null model does not incorporate stomach fullness or differences in prey
256 contributions to satiation and therefore assumes relatively equal sized prey items. We
257 limited the calculation of the E index to those groups with $n \geq 5$ (individuals with
258 empty stomachs were excluded from analyses). In addition to the seasonal age groups,
259 we calculated E for the combined 2+ cohort from winters 2015 and 2016 (n = 5 and 7
260 respectively) to make sample sizes comparable to other groups for which it was
261 calculated (n ranging from 10 to 13). Mean proportional diets are taken as the average
262 proportional diet of individuals (i.e. not the proportional diet of summed prey items
263 across all individuals).

264

265 For populations feeding across the same isotopic baseline, higher levels of individual
266 specialisation can be inferred from increasing isotopic variance as the tissues of
267 individuals equilibrate to different, isotopically distinct subsets of the population's
268 overall prey base (Layman *et al.*, 2012). Suitable sampling of the seasonally varying
269 isotopic baseline represents a considerable logistical effort that was beyond the scope
270 of this study. We therefore instead calculated the dispersion of individual seabass in

271 isotopic space compared to two sympatric, concurrently sampled, generalist benthopelagic fish predators: pout, *Trisopterus luscus* (Linnaeus, 1758), and whiting, *Merlangus merlangus* (Linnaeus 1758) in order to gauge levels of relative individual trophic specialisation among these three species. Juvenile pout and whiting occur within estuaries, exhibit limited movements and predate on a variety of invertebrate and fish prey (Heessen *et al.*, 2015) making them suitable candidates for comparison.

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278 Due to logistical constraints, subsamples of seabass, pout and whiting that were representative of the size and temporal distribution within Southampton Water were selected for isotopic analysis by random draws from monthly size-frequency averages (using seven years of survey abundance data). The size ranges of pout and whiting represent a similar range of ontogenetic stages to those of sampled seabass (see Fig. 1). Pout are a fast growing gadoid that typically attain lengths of up to 18cm after their first year and up to 27cm after their second year at which point they mature (Heessen *et al.*, 2015). Therefore data represented here encompass a majority of 0-group and a smaller proportion of 1-group juveniles. The growth of whiting is variable across their distribution (Heessen *et al.*, 2015) however data from southern England suggest that whiting typically attain lengths of 17cm after their first year of growth, up to 25cm during their second and approximately 32cm after their third (Potter *et al.*, 1988). As a majority of whiting typically mature after their second year of growth (Heessen *et al.*, 2015), data here likely represent a mix of 0 and 1-group juveniles and recently matured adults (~2). Note that for seabass, the age of 50% maturity varies from 4-7 years across their distribution, with an increasing trend with decreasing water temperature (Heessen *et al.*, 2015).

295

296 Isotopic variance was compared graphically by constructing standard ellipses, a two
297 dimensional equivalent of standard deviation containing approximately 40% of the
298 data, and differences in dispersion tested for using Euclidean distances of individuals
299 from the population centroids following Anderson (2006). Prior to analyses, isotope
300 values were normalised to their observed range across all species so that distances in
301 each isotope dimension were weighted equally. Post-hoc pair-wise comparisons using a
302 Tukey test followed significant differences in dispersion.

303

304 All statistical analyses were conducted in R 3.3.2 (R Core Team, 2016) with individual
305 specialisation metrics calculated using the package “RInSp” v1.2 (Zaccarelli *et al.*, 2013),
306 dispersion tests using the package “vegan” v2.4-5 (Oksanen *et al.*, 2017) and Bayesian
307 standard ellipses constructed using the package “SIBER” v2.1.1 (Jackson *et al.*, 2011).
308 Priors used to calculate the posterior distribution of standard ellipse areas were the
309 inverse Wishart distribution with 2 degrees of freedom and a normal prior around the
310 mean with a precision of 10^{-3} . Two chains of 10,000 iterations were run with a burn in
311 of 1000 and thinned by a factor of 10.

312

313 **Results:**

314 *Dietary Analyses:*

315 The number of individual seabass collected are summarised in table 1, totalling 115
316 individuals over the whole period. As only one individual was collected during the
317 summer of 2016, this period was excluded from further analyses. The age class 2+
318 includes all individuals estimated to be 2 years or older: only two individuals were
319 estimated to be 3 years of age and one individual as 4.

320

321 Although there were moderate levels of stomach vacuity, there was generally broad
322 agreement between I_{RI} and I_{MF} , table 1. Briefly, polychaetes appear to be a highly
323 important food source for seabass across all age classes and seasons. Amphipods were a
324 key resource for young of the year throughout the entire seasonal cycle, however they
325 were only important for the year 1 cohort in winter 2015 and absent in all but one
326 individual from the 2+ age class. Copepods were only present in the diet of the young of
327 the year in the autumn, where they were the dominant food source, but absent in all
328 other seasons and age classes. Prey fish showed a similar pattern for age class 2+, being
329 the main food source in autumn but only making minor contributions to the diet during
330 other seasons and practically absent in other age classes. Shrimp and crabs contributed
331 to the diet of all age classes, although more so for the 2+ seabass, with contributions
332 shifting over seasons. Over the winter period, bivalves were a considerable component
333 of the diets of the young of the year and the 2+ age class. Other prey categories made
334 only minor contributions to the diet of seabass.

335

336 *Individual Trophic Specialisation:*

337 For the six age class by season groups tested, four showed significant levels of
338 individual specialisation as determined by E_{adj} , see table 2 (null distributions are
339 provided in the supplementary materials). Through time, significant individual trophic
340 specialisation was expressed in juvenile seabass during the autumn and winter seasons,
341 however was absent in the diet during the spring. Results also indicate that the degree
342 of individual trophic specialisation differed between age groups, with the 2+ cohort
343 consisting of more specialised individuals, as expressed by larger E_{adj} values, compared
344 to the young of the year during the winter.

345

346 A total of 42, 53 and 44 individual bass, pout and whiting respectively were analysed for
347 their stable isotope compositions. The individual size distributions are shown in Fig. 1
348 and are relatively similar across species, although whiting were larger on average
349 (mean length of 127mm, 121mm and 215mm for seabass, pout and whiting
350 respectively). The three isotope biplots for carbon, nitrogen and sulphur are shown in
351 Fig. 2. Seabass show greater variance in isotopic space compared to pout and whiting,
352 indicated by the large standard ellipses whose posterior distributions were greater
353 across all three stable isotope biplots, Fig. 2. This was confirmed by significant
354 differences in dispersion distances ($F_{2,135} = 14.5, p < 0.001$), with post-hoc testing
355 indicating that seabass were more dispersed compared to pout (difference in mean
356 distance from centroid of 0.929, $p < 0.001$) and whiting (difference of 1.091, $p < 0.001$).
357 Pout and whiting showed no significant difference in dispersion (difference of 0.161, $p =$
358 0.719).

359

360 ***Discussion:***

361 The research presented here, to the best of our knowledge, is the first quantitative study
362 on the extent of individual dietary behaviour of juvenile seabass. We hypothesised that
363 seabass within Southampton Water, an important nursery ground for this species,
364 exhibited individual trophic specialisation and this hypothesis was confirmed using two
365 complementary sources of evidence: stomach content data and stable isotope analyses,
366 which capture short and longer term dietary behaviours respectively. The *E* index of
367 individual trophic specialisation from stomach content data yielded significant results
368 for the majority of cohorts after accounting for seasonal and ontogenetic changes in
369 diet. Similarly, stable isotopes analyses revealed that seabass had greater isotopic
370 variation compared to pout and whiting, suggesting comparatively higher levels of

371 individual trophic specialisation compared to two sympatric species with similar
372 population-level feeding behaviours. Previous dietary studies have concluded that
373 seabass exhibit opportunistic feeding behaviours based on the observation that the diet
374 typically varies in relation to regional differences in the availability of potential prey
375 (Pickett & Pawson, 1994). For example, seabass in south east England predominantly
376 feed on the readily available Nereididae spp., amphipods and *Carcinus maenas* (Fonseca
377 et al., 2011), whereas in the Wadden Sea the abundant brown shrimp, *Crangon crangon*,
378 dominates the diet (Cardoso et al., 2015). However here we explicitly tested for the
379 presence of individual specialisation within a single locality, Southampton Water,
380 within which juvenile seabass are presumably exposed to the same potential prey base,
381 and found that the population consists of specialised individuals.

382

383 Individual specialisation has been documented in a variety of other species (e.g. Tinker
384 et al., 2012; Rosenblatt et al., 2015), but most notably fishes, although it is unclear
385 whether this is a true reflection of prevalence across taxa or due to research bias
386 (Araújo et al., 2011). Multiple mechanisms may give rise to individual specialisation,
387 however increasing density levels, a proxy for intraspecific competition, has been
388 shown to be a key driver of specialisation in fishes both in the field (Svanbäck &
389 Persson, 2009; Frédérick et al., 2010; Evangelist et al., 2014) and through mesocosm
390 experiments (Huss et al., 2008). As the system carrying capacity for a population is
391 approached and individuals readily compete for finite resources, dietary specialisation
392 may confer increased fitness due to increased profitability from different prey
393 (Newsome et al., 2015). For example, a study on individual specialisation within a
394 population of European eels found increased body condition in individuals that
395 specialised on either invertebrate or fish prey compared to individuals that consumed

396 both (Cucherousset et al., 2011). While estuarine and coastal nursery grounds are
397 highly productive, they typically represent food-limited environments for juvenile fish
398 due to high population densities (Le Pape & Bonhommeau, 2015). Although abundances
399 of juvenile seabass were not explicitly estimated in this study, an ongoing regional
400 seabass survey of Southampton Water and the surrounding areas suggests that
401 recruitment into the nursery was particularly strong in 2016 compared to the preceding
402 20 years (Brown, 2017). High densities may therefore explain the observed incidence of
403 individual trophic specialisation in seabass during this study, but whether individual
404 trophic specialisation is consistently expressed on an interannual basis as the
405 abundance of juvenile fish fluctuates remains unclear.

406

407 Variability in the local environment has also been suggested as a potential mechanism
408 giving rise to individual specialisation: brown trout, *Salmo trutta*, have been shown to
409 express higher levels of individual specialisation in hydrographically-stable rivers
410 compared to less stable rivers (Dermond *et al.*, 2018). The reasoning is that
411 environmental variability imparts variability in available resources and therefore
412 increased specialisation on a small subset of resources becomes a less favourable trade
413 off as resource abundance is less predictable (Dermond et al., 2018). In this study, we
414 compared dietary specialisation through the use of stable isotopes between populations
415 of sympatric predators exposed to the same environmental dynamics over the course of
416 a year, and therefore environmental variability alone cannot explain the differences in
417 specialisation observed among seabass, and pout and whiting.

418

419 Although variable across the year, changes in prey abundance express strong but
420 predictable seasonality in temperate systems. Despite this, stomach data showed

421 seasonal differences in the level of individual trophic specialisation in seabass, with the
422 *E* index only being significant during the autumn and winter. The role of seasonality in
423 individual-level specialisation, or indeed of temporal trends in general, has so far
424 received relatively little attention in the literature (but see Hammerschlag et al., 2010),
425 but could potentially help in identifying key drivers. This study was conducted towards
426 the northern limits of known seabass nursery grounds, making the winter and
427 associated cold temperatures a critical period for juvenile survival. Loss rates can be
428 high for seabass in nursery areas in southern England, with near total juvenile mortality
429 during notable cold spells (Kelley, 2002), although the deeper channel within
430 Southampton Water likely offers refugia from such extremes. The abundance and
431 population density of juvenile seabass is therefore expected to be relatively low
432 emerging from winter into spring, and coupled with increasing levels of productivity
433 within the estuary, would result in reduced levels of intraspecific competition,
434 potentially explaining the relative lack of individual specialisation during spring. It is
435 interesting to note that during the spring, polychaetes dominated the diets of these two
436 cohorts ($I_{RI} = 0.60$ and 0.93 for young of the year and age 1 respectively, see table 1)
437 compared to other groups for which individual specialisation was quantified, suggesting
438 that polychaetes are a preferred prey. While reduced prey diversity, and therefore
439 reduced ecological opportunity, is also known to reduce individual specialisation in
440 predatory fish (Layman et al., 2007b), this appears not to be this case here as the
441 number of prey categories present in the stomachs of different groups is similar across
442 ages and seasons (tables 1 and 2).

443

444 It is important to note that, compared to other dietary studies on seabass, the total
445 number of seabass sampled here is relatively low (e.g. 404 in Spitz *et al.*, 2013 and 570

446 in Rogdakis *et al.*, 2010) and that suitable sample sizes were not available to test across
447 all combinations of age class and season. For statistical analyses, we used null models
448 based on Monte Carlo resampling that maintain data structure and therefore
449 incorporate small sample sizes when testing for significance (Zaccarelli *et al.*, 2013). For
450 stable isotope analyses, we included as balanced a design as possible, given the
451 available samples. Considering the agreement between stomach content data and stable
452 isotope analyses, we have confidence in the results presented and the conclusions that
453 are drawn despite the limited sampling.

454

455 The presence of individual trophic specialisation in juvenile seabass has implications for
456 management as it implies behavioural differences among individuals that may influence
457 the stability of the population (Bolnick *et al.*, 2011; Toscano *et al.*, 2016). This is
458 corroborated by behavioural observations in seabass showing phenotypic differences in
459 risk aversion (Millot *et al.*, 2009; Killen *et al.*, 2011), shoaling (Boulineau-Coatanea,
460 1969), and segregation along temperature and salinity gradients (López *et al.*, 2015).
461 Spatially, seabass have recently been shown to exhibit high but differing site fidelities
462 within an estuarine system (Doyle *et al.*, 2017). In terms of fisheries management, this is
463 important because (1) conservation actions should capture the range of individual
464 behaviours in order to best protect the population and its inherent diversity (Bolnick *et*
465 *al.*, 2003), and (2) such information is required to produce realistic species or
466 ecosystem models that are used to inform policy decisions (López *et al.*, 2015). For
467 juvenile seabass in particular, the expression of individual trophic specialisation
468 appears related to levels of intraspecific competition, although it is appreciated that
469 only one location was included in this study and therefore the regional extent of
470 specialisation is unclear. Management measures designed to maintain diverse habitats

471 facilitating individual specialisation and reducing levels of intraspecific competition will
472 therefore promote survival and population growth in juvenile seabass during early,
473 vulnerable life stages that are more susceptible to climatic fluctuations (Kelley, 2002; Le
474 Pape & Bonhommeau, 2015; Bento *et al.*, 2016) (Araújo *et al.*, 2011). Enhanced juvenile
475 survival will contribute to increasing standing stock biomass at a time when efforts are
476 required at multiple levels to the recovery of this commercially important species (ICES,
477 2017; MMO, 2018).

478

479 ***Acknowledgements:***

480 This research was funded by a NERC SPITFIRE PhD studentship (award number
481 1498909); a University of Southampton masters project; and a NERC LSMSF grant-in-
482 kind, number EK272-08/16. We would like to thank Robin Somes and co. for helping
483 with sample collections and Rona McGill for running stable isotope analysis of samples.
484 Thanks are also given to three anonymous reviewers for their thoughts and comments
485 on the manuscript.

486

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682

683 ***Figure and Table Legends:***

684 *Fig. 1:* Length-frequency distributions of seabass (top left, n = 42), pout (top right, n =
685 53), and whiting (bottom left, n = 44), for which stable isotopic signatures were
686 measured.

687

688 *Fig. 2:* Stable isotope biplots of individual sea bass, pout and whiting, with standard
689 ellipses plotted for each species. Bottom-right panel shows the Bayesian posterior

690 distributions of the standard ellipse areas for each species for each biplot, where CN is
691 carbon-nitrogen (top-left), SN is sulphur-nitrogen (top-right) and CS is carbon-sulfur
692 (bottom-left). Credible intervals are 50%, 75% and 95% with the mode of each
693 distribution indicated by a black circle.

694

695 *Table 1:* Dietary indices based on stomach content analyses of sea bass in age class by
696 season groups, see Materials and Methods for description of indices. Values of 0.1 or
697 greater (major components) highlighted in bold. N denotes the total number of
698 individuals sampled.

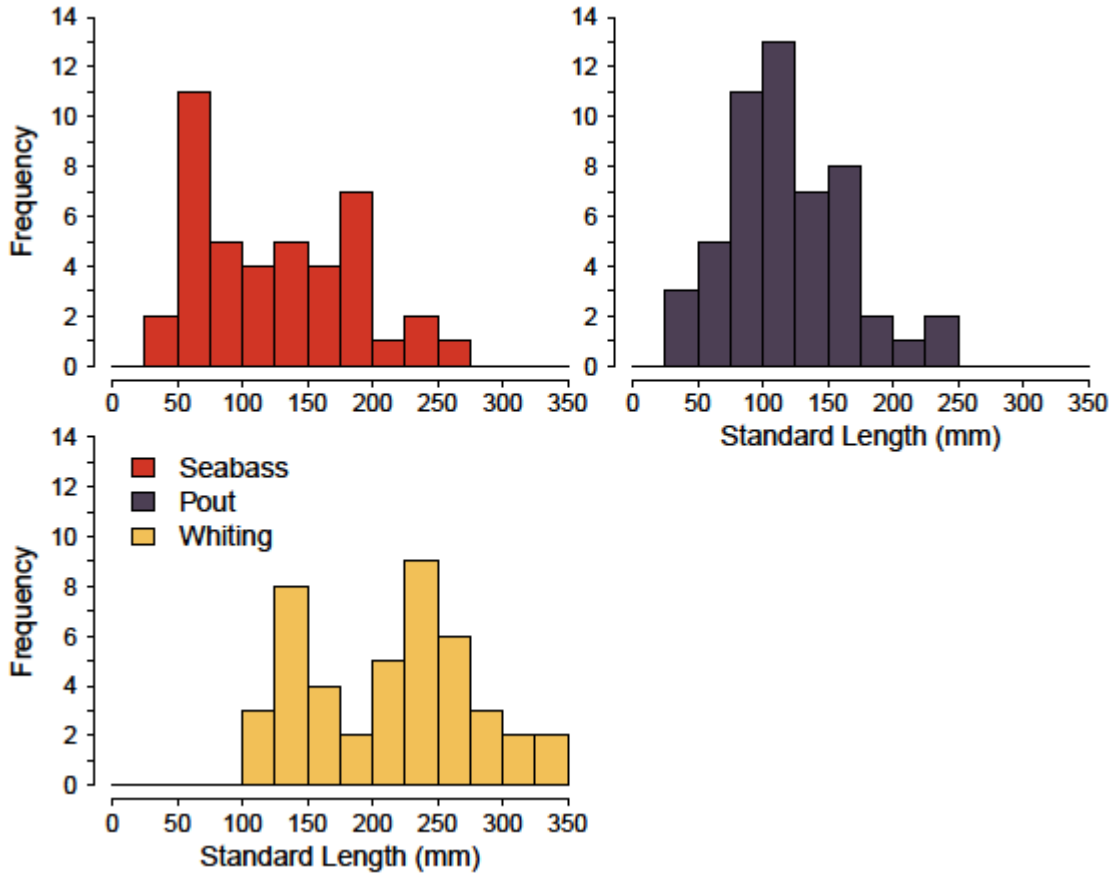
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700 *Table 2:* Metrics of individual specialisations for groups with 5 or more individuals with
701 non-empty stomachs, including age class 2+ pooled across both winters. Significance
702 levels denoted by asterisks (* = $p < 0.05$, ** = $p < 0.01$, *** = $p < 0.001$).

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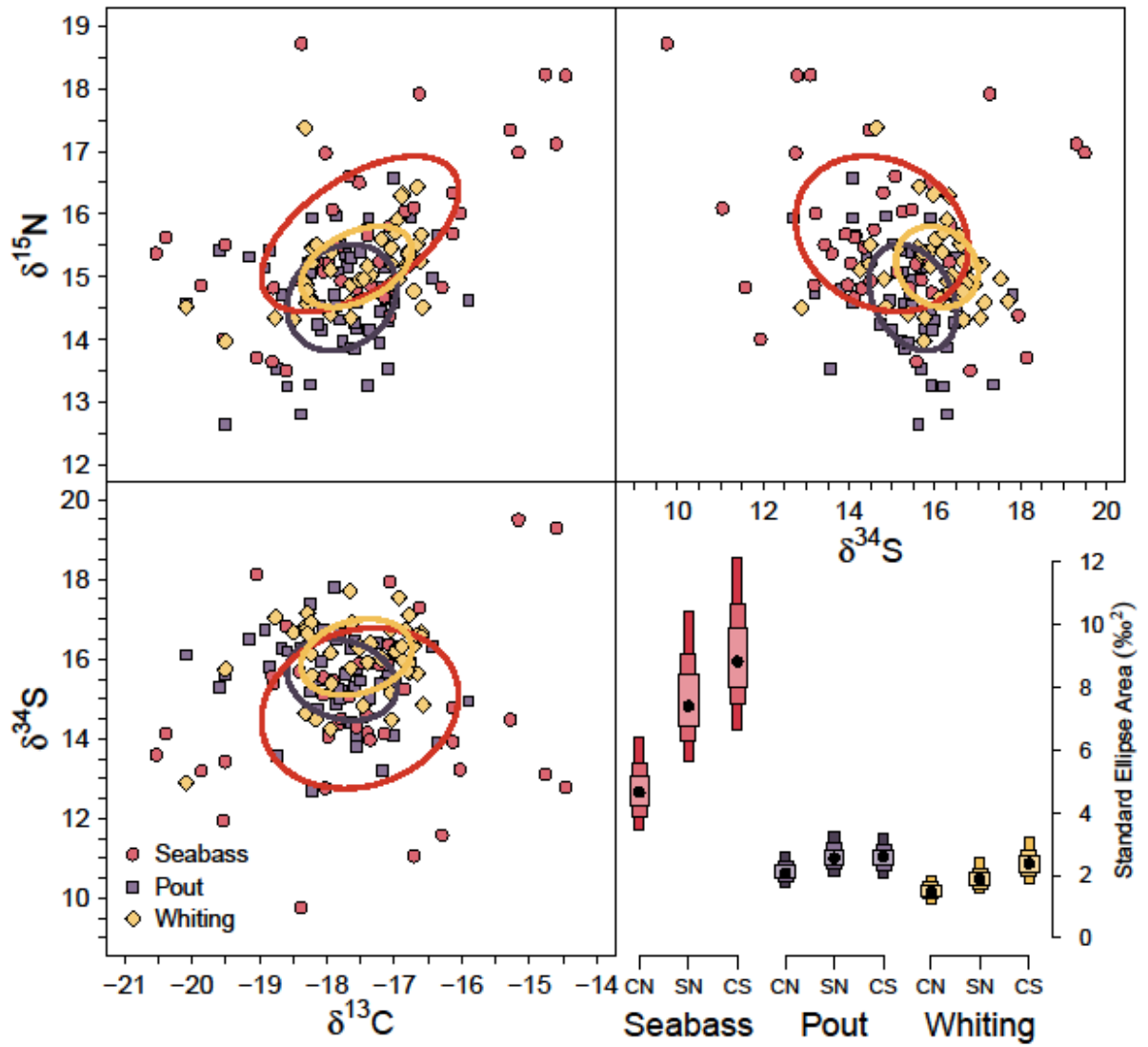
704 ***Figures and Tables:***

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	Age Class 0				Age Class 1				Age Class 2+			
	Winter 2015	Spring 2016	Autumn 2016	Winter 2016	Winter 2015	Spring 2016	Autumn 2016	Winter 2016	Winter 2015	Spring 2016	Autumn 2016	Winter 2016
N	7	14	17	19	7	15	0	7	9	5	4	10
Iv	0.57	0.29	0.29	0.42	0.43	0.13	-	0.86	0.44	0.4	0	0.3
Prey	IRI (IMF)											
Amphipods	0.53(0.38)	0.35(0.26)	0.22(0.22)	0.50(0.27)	0.51(0.54)	0.01(0.01)	-	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.01(0.01)	0 (0)
Copepods	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.68(0.39)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	-	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Isopods	0 (0)	0.04(0.12)	0.01(0.02)	0.03(0.07)	0 (0)	0.02(0.08)	-	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.01(0.03)
Mysids	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.11(0.13)	0 (0)	0 (0)	-	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Crabs	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.03(0.10)	0.03(0.10)	0.04(0.09)	0.01(0.04)	-	0 (0)	0.47(0.46)	0.01(0.03)	0.05(0.10)	0.55(0.40)
Shrimp	0.20(0.24)	0.01(0.05)	0.02(0.08)	0.05(0.11)	0 (0)	0.02(0.07)	-	0 (0)	0.03(0.07)	0.04(0.09)	0.20(0.22)	0.26(0.17)
Polychaetes	0.15(0.20)	0.60(0.51)	0.04(0.11)	0.28(0.30)	0.44(0.33)	0.93(0.70)	-	1.00(1.00)	0.40(0.28)	0.94(0.82)	0.16(0.14)	0.04(0.08)
Fish	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.02(0.08)	-	0 (0)	0.07(0.15)	0 (0)	0.53(0.43)	0.07(0.14)
Bivalve	0.12(0.17)	0 (0)	0.01(0.04)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	-	0 (0)	0.03(0.05)	0.02(0.06)	0.05(0.11)	0.06(0.14)
Gastropod	0 (0)	0.01(0.04)	0.01(0.04)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	-	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Algae	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.01(0.03)	0.01(0.05)	0.01(0.02)	-	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Detritus	0 (0)	0.01(0.02)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.01(0.01)	-	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.02(0.06)

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Age Class	Season	E_{adj}	Non-Empty Stomachs	Total number of prey categories present	Stomachs with only one prey type
0	Spring 2016	0.245	10	6	7
0	Autumn 2016	0.324**	12	8	6
0	Winter 2016	0.334*	11	7	5
1	Spring 2016	0.123	13	8	4
2+	Winter 2015	0.505*	5	5	2
2+	Winter 2016	0.664***	7	7	4
2+	Winter 2015/16	0.446***	12	7	6