Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom June 2010, Volume 90 (6) : Pages 1257-1262

http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0025315409991159 © 2009 Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom, Cambridge University Press

Sedentary behaviour establishment in 0-group common sole Solea solea: a laboratory video-tracking study

Eric D.H. Durieux^{1, 2, *}, Mathieu Le Duigou², Sandie Millot², Pierre Sasal^{3, 4} and Marie-Laure Begout²

¹ IFREMER, Laboratoire Ecologie et Modèles pour l'Halieutique, rue de l'Ile d'Yeu, BP 21105, 44311 Nantes, France

IFREMER, Laboratoire Ressources Halieutiques, Place du Séminaire, BP5, 17137 L'Houmeau, France ³ Laboratoire de Biologie et d'Ecologie Tropicale et Méditerranéenne, UMR 5244 CNRS–EPHE–UPVD, Université de Perpignan Via Domitia, 52 Avenue Paul Alduy, 66860 Perpignan, France ⁴ UMS 2978 CNRS–EPHE, CRIOBE, BP 1013 Moorea, French Polynesia

*: Corresponding author : E. Durieux, email address : edh.durieux@gmail.com

Abstract:

Spontaneous swimming activity of 0-group common sole (Solea solea) was evaluated using a videotracking system under laboratory conditions. An experiment was conducted during two consecutive days on individuals sampled in June, July, September and November (2004) in a coastal nursery ground (Pertuis Charentais, Bay of Biscay, France). The measured behavioural variables were: distance travelled and frequency of occurrence of burying, swimming and immobility. 0-group sole showed a relatively clear circadian activity in line with the artificial light conditions (day, twilight and night). Swimming activity of 0-group sole decreased drastically from June to July, thereafter remaining at a very low level in September and November. Such important changes reflect the transition between the exploratory behaviour of the post-colonization period and a well established sedentary behaviour remaining until the onset of winter. These results highlight the potential limitation in habitat use capacities of 0-group sole once settled in coastal nursery grounds.

Keywords: behaviour; flatfish; juvenile; swimming activity; video-tracking

35 Introduction

36 Juveniles of many marine fishes and especially flatfishes inhabit coastal areas (*e.g.* estuaries 37 and shallow water bays) where they find generally more abundant food, lower predation risks 38 and higher temperatures than in offshore areas (Gibson, 1994). However, in these essential 39 habitats, fish juveniles have also to face highly variable environmental factors and 40 superimposed anthropogenic activities that may jeopardize survival and influence recruitment 41 into the adult population (Beck et al., 2001). Fish habitat utilization reflects trade-offs 42 between spatial distribution of essential resources, the internal state of the organism, and 43 tolerance to ambient conditions (Huntingford, 1993). In order to achieve habitat conservation 44 and sustainable fisheries management, it is therefore critical to understand fish juveniles

45 behaviour in term of spatio-temporal dynamics within these coastal habitats (Rice, 2005).

46

47 Common sole, Solea solea (L.) is a widely distributed and most economically important 48 flatfish species of the North East Atlantic region. Most common sole stocks are reported to be 49 overexploited (ICES, 2005). Previous both field and laboratory studies have focused on the 50 behavioural processes occurring in 0-group juveniles during the short colonization phase 51 (Champalbert & Koutsikopoulos, 1995, Amara et al., 2000). Once settled in shallow coastal 52 areas individuals have to face a variety of natural and anthropogenic stressors that may impact 53 their survival. However, apart from field studies that have focused on their spatio-temporal 54 distribution till autumn (Dorel et al., 1991, Rogers, 1992, Jager et al., 1993) and some other 55 rare studies that have inferred indirectly about their movements capacities using conventional (Coggan & Dando, 1988) or natural (Vinagre et al., 2008) tags, little is known on 0-group 56 57 sole behavioural activities during the post-colonization period.

59 Therefore, the present study aimed at bringing new insights on 0-group sole swimming 60 behaviour during the sensitive post-colonization period in order to better understand 61 dynamics of individuals in shallow coastal areas. A laboratory video-tracking system was 62 developed to measure the spontaneous swimming and burying activity. Since behavioural 63 patterns in fishes generally vary on a diel cycle, experimental set up was designed to measure 64 behavioural activities during two consecutive days according to light period of the day (daytwilight-night). 0-group common sole were caught throughout four different months after 65 66 colonization until the onset of winter (i.e. June to November) in an Atlantic nursery ground 67 (Pertuis Charentais, Bay of Biscay, France). In this region, colonization is centred around May so that, it is likely that individuals belong to the same cohort. Therefore, it was 68 69 hypothesized that sampling month may be used as proxy of age / ontogenetic status. The 70 objectives were to establish the baseline levels of these natural activities in 0-group sole (*i.e.* 71 normal/spontaneous behaviour) and test the effect of the ontogenetic status (sampling month) 72 on these activities according to light periods under constant experimental conditions 73 throughout the post-colonization period.

74

75 Materials and methods

This study was conducted under the approval of the Animal Care Committee of France under
the official licence of M.L. Bégout (17-010).

78

79 Fish origin and maintenance

Thirty-one wild 0-group juveniles were caught in the Pertuis Charentais, a main sole nursery ground for the Bay of Biscay (Le Pape *et al.*, 2003), in June, July, September and November 2004 in a mussel pole-culture area (46° 15' 80"N, 1° 13' 40"W) using a push net to avoid 83 injuries to the fish (Durieux et al., 2007). At the video-tracking laboratory, fish were 84 maintained in aerated tanks (45x30x35 cm) with filtered sea water (temperature: 20 ± 1 °C; 85 salinity: 35 ± 1 ; oxygen concentration: 100 % air saturation) and a sand substratum (light colour). Both temperature and salinity were set to constant value as a mean of disconnecting 86 87 the experiment from field conditions in a consistent way for all the fish. Fish were fed daily 88 with frozen Tubifex. They were maintained under these conditions for at least 10 days 89 acclimatization prior experimentation in order to avoid tidal rhythm effects (Gibson, 1973, Burrows, 1994) that could eventually prevent comparisons between months. An artificial 90 91 photoperiod was applied: daylight period (8:00 - 21:00), a twilight transition period (7:00 - 21:00)92 8:00 and 21:00 - 22:00) and a night period (22:00 - 07:00).

93

94 Video-tracking set-up and experimental protocol

95 In the video tracking laboratory (isolated from external disturbances): three black circular 96 arenas of 60 cm diameter, with walls drilled regularly with 5 mm diameter holes to allow 97 water circulation, were placed individually in a 400 l tank with aeration and water filters that 98 maintained a continuous water flow around the arena. A 5 cm deep layer of black sand (100 99 to 300 µm) was placed on the bottom of the arena in order to allow sole to bury and to 100 provide an adequate colour contrast to allow fish detection by the image analysis system. 101 Water was maintained at temperature around 20 ± 1 °C (by an air conditioning system in the 102 laboratory); salinity at around 35 ± 1 psu (by regularly changing sea water and when needed 103 adjusting salinity with freshwater to compensate for evaporation); and oxygen concentration 104 at around 100% air saturation (using air aerator systems). The arenas were illuminated 105 laterally by artificial light with the same photoperiod used during maintenance of the fish: daylight period (8:00 – 21:00; white light: 0.3×10^{15} Q.cm⁻².s⁻¹), a twilight transition period 106 $(7:00 - 8:00 \text{ and } 21:00 - 22:00; \text{ white light: } 0.3 \times 10^{14} \text{ Q.cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1})$ and a night period $(22:00 - 22:00; \text{ white light: } 0.3 \times 10^{14} \text{ Q.cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1})$ 107

108 07:00; infrared light (PAR38 IR 175): 0.14×10^{14} Q.cm⁻².s⁻¹). Since fish are not sensitive to 109 infrared light (Douglas & Hawryshyn, 1990), nocturnal behaviour was considered un-altered 110 by the artificial lighting used to assess nocturnal swimming. Fish were not fed the day before 111 the experiment nor during the subsequent video recordings.

112 Above each arena, a digital black and white high sensitivity camera (Sony XCD-X700, XGA)

113 linked to a computer equipped with Visilog 6.2 software (NOESIS, France) was mounted.

114 Image acquisition proceeded with cyclic sub-sampling of each arena with 33 s duration

115 sequences of 1 image s⁻¹ and each image was saved in .jpeg format. Successive sequences

relative to a same arena were separated by a time lag of 2 min because of a 7 s delay between

117 each sequence acquisition. The resulting sub-sampling factor (SSF) was 1/3.6. For each

118 month, at 11:00, the day of the beginning of recording, one fish was introduced per arena, so

that three fish were recorded at a time. Videos were then recorded for 48 hrs duration. After

120 video recording, fish were individually measured (to 1 mm, standard length SL) (Table 1). To

121 complete each month group, successive recordings took up to 8 days.

Fish detection was based on the colour contrast between the fish (appearing in white) and the black sandy bottom using image analysis (Visilog 6.2). The XY coordinates (mm) of the barycentre of the detected fish shape were extracted for each image / time. An integrated VBA module to Visilog 6.2, developed by NOESIS for this experiment, allowed automation of the acquisition and image treatment process.

127

128 Data analysis

129 Five to ten individuals per month (June, July, September, November) *i.e.* around 1, 500 hrs of

130 video-tracking were analysed (Table 1). Based on XY coordinates, four behavioural

131 endpoints could be obtained: the distance travelled between consecutive images (D_i) and the

132 frequency of occurrence of three different activities: swimming (S_i), burying (B_i), and

immobility (I_i). When the fish was not detected, XY coordinates equalled 0, and the fish was considered buried. When fish was detected but distance travelled between two consecutive images was $\leq 5 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$ (limit of motion detection of distance travelled between two consecutive images) fish was considered immobile. Alternatively when distance travelled was > 5 mm s⁻¹ fish was considered swimming. Distance travelled were transformed in body length (Bl) to avoid any effect of size on swimming speed (Peck *et al.*, 2006). For each individual fish, hourly values of the four variables were calculated:

- $140 \qquad D_h = \frac{1}{SSF} \sum_{i=1}^n D_i$
- 141 $S_n = \frac{1}{n} \times 100 \sum_{i=1}^n S_i$
- 142 $\boldsymbol{B}_{h} = \frac{1}{n} \times 100 \sum_{i=1}^{n} \boldsymbol{B}_{i}$
- 143 $I_{h} = \frac{1}{n} \times 100 \sum_{i=1}^{n} I_{i}$

with SSF: sub-sampling factor; n: number of observations per hour; i: individual observationper sec.

146 D_h is expressed in Bl h⁻¹ and S_h, B_h and I_h are expressed in percentage.

147

148 Using all 48 hrs observations, individual data were averaged for specific light periods (day,

149 twilight and night) prior analysis. Given the nature of the data, *i.e.*, non-independent light

150 periods, one-way repeated measures ANOVAs was used to test differences for each

151 behavioural variable (D, S, B and I) between month groups (between-subject factor: June,

152 July, September, October) and light periods (within-subject factor: day, night, twilight) as

153 well was interaction of both factors. Data were tested for normality with a Shapiro-Wilk test

and for homoscedasticity with a Bartlett's test. Since data could not meet assumptions they

155 were ranked prior analysis (Kane *et al.*, 2004). Homogeneous groups were determined with

156 the *a posteriori* multiple comparisons Newman and Keuls tests. Results are given as averages

 \pm SE (Standard Error). Statistical tests were performed using XLStat software and Systat.

158 Tests were considered significant at p < 0.05.

159

160 For derived instantaneous swimming speeds, only values $> 5 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$ (limit of motion

161 detection of distance travelled between two consecutive images) were considered. Swimming

162 speed frequencies were calculated for the different month groups with individual speed

163 classes of 2 cm s⁻¹ and a range of 0.5 to 20 cm s⁻¹.

164 **Results**

Significant differences were detected for both factors (*i.e.* sampled months and light periods) 165 166 for all measured behavioural variables D, B, S and I (Table 2; Figure 1). Independently of the 167 light periods, D and S decreased significantly between June and July, while B increased 168 significantly. Between July and September, D, S and I decreased significantly, while B 169 increased significantly. The pattern observed for these four variables was independent from 170 the light periods. Between September and November, B decreased significantly and I 171 increased significantly independently of the light periods for both variables whereas no 172 difference was detected for D and S. D and S were significantly higher at night and twilight 173 than during the day, B was significantly lowest at night, intermediate at twilight and highest 174 during the day independently of sampled months. I was significantly highest at night independently of sampled months. 175

176 For fish sampled in June, swimming speed frequencies displayed a bimodal distribution

177 (Figure 2). The first mode for speed comprised between $0.5-2 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ (0.4 Bl s⁻¹) and a second

178 for speed of 8-10 cm s⁻¹ (2.2 Bl s⁻¹), each representing 25% of the overall swimming speeds.

For fish sampled in July, September and November, swimming speed frequencies displayed a
unimodal distribution with 50-60 % of swimming speeds between 0.5-2 cm s⁻¹.

181

182 **Discussion**

183 Our data were obtained under experimental conditions using a video tracking system at a 184 scale of observation enabling the assessment of daily spontaneous swimming activities 185 (levels, rhythms) of 0-group common sole for the first time. This method appears to be one of 186 the only non-harmful methods of quantifying free activity of 0-group sole. However, caution 187 should be applied in extrapolating these data to field observations. Swimming activity over 188 two days showed relatively high inter individual variability as often observed for fish (Bourke 189 et al., 1997, Salvanes & Hart, 1998, Mehner, 2006). Body size is well known to influence fish 190 swimming activity so that in our study we used relative distance travelled in proportion of 191 body size in order to minimize size effect within and between sampled months. Alternatively 192 it is important to consider that the low sample size routinely employed in behavioural studies 193 (here five to ten replicates per sampled month) and often due to technical constraints might 194 also have the effect of rising the variability. Nevertheless, some clear temporal trends in the 195 behavioural activities form the post-colonization period till autumn were observed.

196

0-group sole showed a relatively clear circadian activity in line with the artificial light
conditions of the experiment, with higher swimming activity at night and twilight than during
the day and alternatively more burying activity during the day than during the night. This
nocturnal activity pattern is consistent with previous studies on young 0-group sole
(Macquart-Moulin *et al.*, 1991, Champalbert & Marchand, 1994, Champalbert &
Koutsikopoulos, 1995), older 2-group (Lagardère *et al.*, 1988, Laffargue *et al.*, 2006) and in
general in other flatfishes (Gibson, 1973, Burrows, 1994, Hurst & Duffy, 2005). Champalbert

et al. (1991) demonstrated that sole > 30 mm were photonegative at most light intensities
except at twilight. In the field, in addition to circadian rhythms, flatfishes display tidal
rhythms in swimming activity which has been shown for juveniles to correspond to a tradeoff between foraging, predator avoidance and the selection of suitable environmental
conditions (Burrows, 1994, Gibson *et al.*, 1998). In our study, fish were acclimatize for ten
days prior experiment in order to prevent any confounding effect of tidal rhythms between
sampled months.

211

212 Burying behaviour represented 80% of the activity in autumn months (September and 213 November). This behaviour is linked to a strategy for predation avoidance (Gibson, 1997) but 214 also energy saving with lower basal metabolism while buried (Howell & Canario, 1987). Sole 215 from June and July buried clearly less than fish from September and November. The later 216 were often immobile at the surface of the substratum, especially at night. As burying capacity 217 of juvenile flatfish is a strong logistic function of body size relative to the sediment grain size 218 (Gibson & Robb, 1992), June and July fish, due to their relatively small size, are likely to 219 have been limited by the size of the sand grains used in the experiment (100-300 μ m).

220

221 The 0-group sole showed a strong decline in swimming activity from June to July (around 8 222 fold in distance travelled and 4 fold in % swimming), with very low activity remaining until 223 November. This drastic change was also observed in term of swimming speed frequency distributions. Individuals sampled in June displayed a high proportion of fast swimming 224 speeds (around 10 cm s⁻¹ or 2 Bl s⁻¹) that typically corresponds to off bottom swimming with 225 226 large scales movements (Champalbert & Koutsikopoulos, 1995, Hurst & Duffy, 2005) whereas from July onwards the majority of swimming speeds were lower than 2 cm s^{-1} which 227 228 is characteristic of the foraging behaviour of juvenile flatfish searching for benthic prev

229 (Lagardère et al., 1994, Hill et al., 2000, Hill et al., 2002). Both environmental (i.e. current, 230 salinity, light, and food availability) and endogenous factors are considered to play a 231 determinant role in nursery colonization (Champalbert & Koutsikopoulos, 1995). Here, 232 experimental conditions where the same for all sampled months so that we assume that our 233 observations reflect an ontogenetic change in swimming activity. 0-group sole juveniles in the 234 Bay of Biscay colonize nursery grounds around May (Amara et al., 2000). Around one month 235 post-colonization, 0-group sole juveniles still demonstrate a relatively high swimming 236 activity. This behaviour may be a relic of an exploratory behaviour associated with 237 colonization of new habitat (Hurst & Duffy, 2005). Low activity from July onwards may 238 reflect the transition to a well established sedentary behaviour. From an ecological point of 239 view, this behaviour may be interpreted as giving a relatively high resiliency of 0-group sole 240 in confined areas of the shallow coastal habitat. This is consistent with field observations of 241 potential 0-group sole movements in different nursery grounds based on density distributions 242 (Dorel et al., 1991, Rogers, 1992, Jager et al., 1993), recapture of tagged individuals (Coggan 243 & Dando, 1988) and use of natural tags (Vinagre et al., 2008).

244

In the field it has been reported that 0-group sole operate migration to deeper waters prior to winter in order to avoid very low water temperature occurring in shallow part of the habitat at this time (Dorel *et al.*, 1991, van der Veer *et al.*, 2001). Since we did not observed any increase in swimming activity at this time under constant experimental conditions, this suggest that such migratory behaviour prior to winter is mainly influenced by hydro climatic factors.

251

In conclusion, using a laboratory video-tracking system this study provides a quantified
spontaneous swimming activity baseline levels of 0-group common sole through their first

254 period of life in coastal shallow areas. 0-group sole showed a clear ontogenetic change in 255 swimming activity between June and July, demonstrating the transition between the 256 exploratory behaviour of late colonization and the well established sedentary behaviour till 257 the onset of winter. These results highlight the potential movements limitation of 0-group sole 258 in coastal areas during this highly critical period. 259 260 261 Acknowledgements IFREMER and the Conseil Régional Poitou Charentes funded the study. The VBA module 262

263 for image acquisition and treatment automation was developed in collaboration with D. Péral

264 (NOESIS). J. Grizon was the boat pilot for fish sampling in the field. P. Pineau, M. Prineau

and N. Lachaussée helped in the set-up and maintenance of the experimental infrastructures.

266 We are grateful to E. Hunter from the CEFAS Lowestoft laboratory and to anonymous

267 reviewers for valuable comments and corrections on the manuscript.

268 **References**

269	Amara R., Lagardère F., Désaunay Y. and Marchand J. (2000) Metamorphosis and
270	estuarine colonisation in the common sole, Solea solea (L.): implications for
271	recruitment regulation. Oceanologica Acta 23, 469-484.
272	Beck M.W., Heck K.L., Able K.W., Childers D.L., Eggleston D.B., Gillanders B.M.,
273	Halpern B., Hays C.G., Hoshino K., Minello T.J., Orth R.J., Sheridan P.F. and
274	Weinstein M.P. (2001) The identification, conservation, and management of
275	estuarine and marine nurseries for fish and invertebrates. Bioscience 51, 633-641.
276	Bourke P., Magnan P. and Rodriguez M.A. (1997) Individual variations in habitat use and
277	morphology in brook charr. Journal of Fish Biology 51, 783-794.
278	Burrows M.T. (1994) Foraging time strategy of small juvenile plaice: a laboratory study of
279	diel and tidal behaviour patterns with Artemia prey and shrimp predators. Marine
280	ecology progress series 115, 31-39.
281	Champalbert G. and Koutsikopoulos C. (1995) Behaviour, transport and recruitment of
282	Bay of Biscay sole (Solea solea): laboratory and field studies. Journal of the Marine
283	Biological Association of the United Kingdom 75, 93-108.
284	Champalbert G., Macquart-Moulin C., Patriti G. and Chiki D. (1991) Ontogenic
285	variations in the phototaxis of larval and juvenile sole Solea solea L. Journal of
286	Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 149, 207-225.
287	Champalbert G. and Marchand J. (1994) Rheotaxis in larvae and juvenile sole (Solea solea
288	L.): Influence of light conditions and sediment. Journal of Experimental Marine
289	Biology and Ecology 177, 235-249.
290	Coggan R.A. and Dando P.R. (1988) Movements of juvenile Dover sole, Solea solea (L.), in
291	the Tamar estuary, south western England. Journal of Fish Biology 33, 177-184.

- Dorel D., Koutsikopoulos C., Désaunay Y. and Marchand J. (1991) Seasonal distribution
 of young sole (*Solea solea* (L.)) in the nursery ground of the Bay of Vilaine (Northern
 Bay of Biscay). *Netherlands Journal of Sea Research* 27, 297-306.
- 295 Douglas R.H. and Hawryshyn C.W. (1990) Behavioural studies of fish vision: an analysis
- 296 of visual capabilities. In Douglas R.H. and Djamgoz M.B.A. (eds.) *The visual system*
- 297 *of fish*, London: Chapman and Hall, pp. 373-418.
- 298 Durieux E.D.H., Galois R., Bégout M.-L., Sasal P. and Lagardère F. (2007) Temporal
- 299 changes in lipid condition and parasitic infection by digenean metacercariae of young-
- 300 of-year common sole *Solea solea* (L.) in an Atlantic nursery ground (Bay of Biscay,
- 301 France). Journal of Sea Research 57, 162-170.
- Gibson R.N. (1973) Tidal and circadian activity rhythms in juvenile plaice, *Pleuronectes platessa. Marine Biology* 22, 379-386.
- Gibson R.N. (1994) Impact of habitat quality and quantity on the recruitment of juvenile
 flatfishes. *Netherlands Journal of Sea Research* 32, 191-206.
- 306 Gibson R.N. (1997) Behaviour and the distribution of flatfishes. *Journal of Sea Research* 37,
 307 241-256.
- 308 Gibson R.N., Phil L., Burrows M.T., Modin J., Wennhage H. and Nickell L.A. (1998)
- 309 Diel movements of juvenile plaice *Pleuronectes platessa* in relation to predators,
- 310 competitors, food availability and abiotic factors on a microtidal nursery ground.
- 311 *Marine ecology progress series* 165, 145-159.
- 312 Gibson R.N. and Robb L. (1992) The relationship between body size, sediment grain size
- and the burying ability of juvenile plaice, *Pleuronectes platessa* L. 40, 771-778.
- 314 Hill S., Burrows M.T. and Hughes R.N. (2000) Increased turning per unit distance as an
- 315 area-restricted search mechanism in a pause-travel predator, juvenile plaice, foraging
- 316 for buried bivalves. *Journal of Fish Biology* 56, 1497-1508.

- 317 Hill S., Burrows M.T. and Hughes R.N. (2002) Adaptive search in juvenile place foraging
 318 for aggregated and dispersed prey. *Journal of Fish Biology* 61, 1255-1267.
- Howell B.R. and Canario A.V.M. (1987) The influence of sand on the estimation of resting
 metabolic rate of juvenile sole, *Solea solea* (L.). *Journal of Fish Biology* 31, 277-280.
- Huntingford F.A. (1993) Can cost-benefit analysis explain fish distribution patterns? *Journal* of Fish Biology 43, 289-308.
- 323 Hurst T.P. and Duffy T.A. (2005) Activity patterns in northern rock sole are mediated by
- 324 temperature and feeding history. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and*
- *Ecology* 325, 201-213.
- 326 ICES (2005) Report of the ICES Advisory Committee on Fishery Management, Advisory
- 327 Committee on the Marine Environment and Advisory Committee on Ecosystems,

328 2005. Volumes 1 - 11. 1. In *ICES Advice*, pp. 418 pp.: ICES.

- 329 Jager Z., Kleef H.L. and Tydeman P. (1993) The distribution of 0-group flatfish in relation
- to abiotic factors on the tidal flats in the brackish Dollard (Ems Estuary, Wadden Sea). *Journal of Fish Biology* 43, 31-43.
- 332 Kane A.S., Salierno J.D., Gipson G.T., Molteno T.C.A. and Hunter C. (2004) A video-
- based movement analysis system to quantify behavioral stress responses of fish. *Water Research* 38, 3993-4001.
- 335 Laffargue P., M-L B. and Lagardère F. (2006) Testing the potential effects of shellfish
- 336 farming on the swimming activity and spatial distribution of sole (*Solea solea*) in a
- 337 mesocosm. *ICES Journal of Marine Science* 63, 1014-1028.
- 338 Lagardère J.-P., Bégout M.-L., Lafaye J.-Y. and Villotte J.-P. (1994) Influence of wind-
- 339 produced noise on orientation in the sole (Solea solea). Canadian Journal of Fisheries
- *and Aquatic Sciences* 51, 1258-1264.

341	Lagardère JP., Ducamp JJ., Frikha L. and Sperandio M. (1988) Ultrasonic tracking of
342	common sole juveniles (Solea vulgaris Quensel, 1806) in a saltmarsh: methods and
343	fish response to some environmental factors. Journal of Applied Ichthyology 4, 87-96.
344	Le Pape O., Chauvet F., Mahevas S., Lazure P., Guérault D. and Désaunay Y. (2003)
345	Quantitative description of habitat suitability for the juvenile common sole (Solea
346	solea, L.) in the Bay of Biscay (France) and the contribution of different habitats to
347	the adult population. Journal of Sea Research 50, 139-149.
348	Macquart-Moulin C., Champalbert G., Howell B.R., Patriti G. and Ravaivoson C.
349	(1991) La relation alimentation-fixation benthique chez les jeunes soles Solea solea L.
350	metamorphosées. Evidences expérimentales. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology
351	and Ecology 153, 195-205.
352	Mehner T. (2006) Individual variability of diel migrations in European vendace (Coregonus
353	albula) explored by stationary vertical hydroacoustics. Ecology of Freshwater Fish
354	15, 146-153.
355	Peck M., Buckley L. and Bengtson D. (2006) Effects of Temperature and Body Size on the
356	Swimming Speed of Larval and Juvenile Atlantic Cod (Gadus Morhua): Implications
357	for Individual-based Modelling. Environmental Biology of Fishes 75, 419-429.
358	Rice J.C. (2005) Understanding fish habitat ecology to achieve conservation. Journal of Fish
359	<i>Biology</i> 67, 1-22.
360	Rogers S.I. (1992) Environmental factors affecting the distribution of sole (Solea solea (L.))
361	within a nursery area. Netherlands Journal of Sea Research 29, 153-161.
362	Salvanes A.G.V. and Hart P.J.B. (1998) Individual variability in state-dependent feeding
363	behaviour in three-spined sticklebacks. Animal Behaviour 55, 1349-1359.

364	van der Veer H.W., Dapper R. and Witte J.I.J. (2001) The nursery function of the
365	intertidal areas in the western Wadden Sea for 0-group sole Solea solea (L.). Journal
366	of Sea Research 45, 271-279.
367	Vinagre C., Salgado J., Costa M.J. and Cabral H.N. (2008) Nursery fidelity, food web
368	interactions and primary sources of nutrition of the juveniles of Solea solea and S.
369	senegalensis in the Tagus estuary (Portugal): A stable isotope approach. Estuarine,
370	Coastal and Shelf Science 76, 255-264.
371	
372	

372	Fig. 1. Average distance travelled (Bl h^{-1}) (A) and frequency occurrence (%) for the three
373	different types of activity swimming (B), burying (C) and immobility (D) per sampled month
374	and light period for 0-group common sole Solea solea captured in 2004 in the Pertuis
375	Charentais area (France). Artificial light time period was set as: Day: 8:00 – 21:00; Twilight:
376	7:00 - 8:00 and $21:00 - 22:00$; Night: $22:00 - 7:00$. Values were calculated on the total 48
377	hours observation period.
378	
379	Fig. 2. Swimming speed (cm s ⁻¹) frequency distribution calculated on the total 48 hours

- 380 observation period for each sampled month of wild-caught individuals captured in the Pertuis
- 381 Charentais area (France). 10 cm s⁻¹ corresponds to 2.2, 2.0, 1.4 and 0.9 Bl s⁻¹ in June, July,
- 382 September and November respectively.



























393 Table 1. Sample size (n), mean standard length (SL \pm SE (mm)), and size range of 0-group

394 common sole, *Solea solea* sampled in 2004 in the Pertuis Charentais nursery ground (France)

Sampled month	n n	$SL \pm SE (mm)$	Range (mm)		
June	7	46.00 ± 1.23	41 - 50		
July	9	51.22 ± 1.97	44 - 63		
September	5	72.20 ± 1.43	69 - 76		
November	10	108.80 ± 3.21	96 - 125		

Table 2. Results of one-way repeated measures ANOVAs testing differences in mean behavioural variables (Distance travelled and Swimming,
Burying and Immobility occurrences; ranked transformed data) between months (between-subject factor), light periods (within-subject factor)
and interaction of both factors for 0-group common sole, *Solea solea* sampled in the Pertuis Charentais nursery ground (France). Multiple
comparisons Newman and Keuls tests posthoc Abbreviations are as follows: Jn: June, Jl: July, Sept: September, Nov: November; Twi: Twilight
period.

<i>Distance travelled</i> (Bl h ⁻¹)				Swimming occurrence (%)				
df	F	P > F	Newman and Keuls	df	F	P > F	Newman and Keuls	
3 - 27	10.48	< 0.001	Sept = Nov $<$ Jl $<$ Jn	3 - 27	12.37	< 0.001	Sept = Nov < Jl < Jn	
2 - 54	5.72	0.006	Day < Twi = Night	2 - 54	11.99	< 0.001	Day < Twi = Night	
6 - 54	1.14	0.354	ns	6 - 54	1.38	0.236	ns	
		Burying occur	rrence (%)			Immobility oc	currence (%)	
		Burying occur	rrence (%)			Immobility oc	currence (%)	
df	F	P > F	Newman and Keuls	df	F	P > F	Newman and Keuls	
3 – 27	7.33	0.001	Jn < Jl < Nov < Sept	3 - 27	5.11	0.006	Sept < Nov < Jl = Jn	
		.0.001	Night < Twi < Day	2 54	11.54	<0.001	Day – Twi – Night	
2 - 54	17.54	<0.001	$\operatorname{Night} < 1 \mathrm{wi} < Day$	2 - 54	11.54	<0.001	Day = 1 wi < Night	
	df 3 - 27 2 - 54 6 - 54 df 3 - 27	df F 3 - 27 10.48 2 - 54 5.72 6 - 54 1.14 df F 3 - 27 7.33 2 - 54 17.54	Distance travel df F $P > F$ 3 - 27 10.48 <0.001	Distance travelled (Bl h-1) $df F P > F Newman and Keuls$ $3 - 27 10.48 < 0.001 Sept = Nov < Jl < Jn$ $2 - 54 5.72 0.006 Day < Twi = Night$ $6 - 54 1.14 0.354 ns$ $Burying occurrence (%)$ $df F P > F Newman and Keuls$ $3 - 27 7.33 0.001 Jn < Jl < Nov < Sept$ $2 - 54 - 17.54 < 0.001 Night < Twi < Day$	Distance travelled (Bl h ⁻¹) df F P > F Newman and Keuls df 3 - 27 10.48 <0.001	Distance travelled (Bl h ⁻¹) df F P > F Newman and Keuls df F $3 - 27$ 10.48 <0.001	Distance travelled (Bl h ⁻¹) Swimming occ df F P > F Newman and Keuls df F P > F 3 - 27 10.48 <0.001	