
Spatial analysis of the trophic interactions between two juvenile fish species and their preys along a coastal–estuarine gradient

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Abstract:

Coastal and estuarine systems provide nursery grounds for many marine fish species. Their productivity has been correlated with terrigenous inputs entering the coastal–estuarine benthic food web, thereby favouring the establishment of fish juveniles. Studies in these ecosystems often describe the nursery as a single large habitat without verifying nor considering the presence of contiguous habitats. Our study aimed at identifying different habitats based on macrozoobenthic communities and morpho-sedimentary characteristics and assessing the trophic interactions between fish juveniles and their benthic preys within these habitats. It included 43 sampling sites covering 5 habitats in which we described taxonomically and quantitatively the invertebrates and fish communities with stable isotopes and gut contents. It suggested that the benthic common sole *Solea solea* displayed feeding plasticity at the population level, separating the juveniles (G0) from the older fish (G1) into different “feeding sub-populations”. Size-based feeding plasticity was also observable in the spatial occupancy of that species in the studied bay. The demersal pouting, *Trisopterus luscus*, equally used the different habitats but displayed low feeding plasticity across and inside each habitat. Stable isotopes proved to be powerful tools to study the spatial distribution of trophic interactions in complex ecosystems like the bay of Vilaine and to define optimal habitats for fish that use the coastal–estuarine ecosystem as nursery grounds.

Highlights

► Identification of habitats based on benthic macrofauna and morpho-sedimentary data. ► Assessment of trophic interactions between juveniles fish and their preys. ► Juveniles of sole displayed size-based feeding plasticity according to habitats. ► Juveniles of pouting equally used the different habitats.

Keywords: Stable isotopes ; Gut content ; Food web ; Nursery ground ; *Solea solea* ; *Trisopterus luscus*

44 1. Introduction

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46 Located at the sea-continent interface, coastal ecosystems are known as productive areas
47 (Costanza et al., 1997). They foster high primary and secondary production (Largier, 1993)
48 and sometimes tertiary production as they are inhabited by marine species at various stages of
49 their life cycle (Beck et al., 2001). Coastal zones are characterized by local production and
50 inputs of organic matter originating from different sources (e.g. detritic, algal, planktonic)
51 which vary greatly in time and space. These inputs may considerably boost up the coastal and
52 marine production (Maslowski, 2003) and may significantly modify ecosystem functioning
53 (Baird et al., 2004). For instance, seasonal river floods result in an increase in input of
54 macronutrients leading to an increase in plankton production (Nielsen and Richardson, 1996).
55 Benthic production also varies at various temporal scales via the cycling of nutrients between
56 the sediments at the bottom and the overlying water column (Josefson and Conley, 1997).
57 Nutrient enrichment and eventually eutrophication resulting from the pelagic-benthic
58 coupling has a noticeable impact on food availability to the benthic fauna (Darnaude et al.,
59 2004a). The impact of nutrient enrichment on the fluctuation of species abundance in coastal
60 marine communities can be of prime importance in the functioning of these ecosystems
61 (Salen-Picard et al., 2002). Thus terrestrial organic matter has been shown to play a
62 significant role in the dynamics of coastal macrobenthic communities and on the productivity
63 of commercial fish species and fisheries (Darnaude et al., 2004b).

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65 Research on essential coastal habitats, such as nurseries, often describes them as a single large
66 habitat without considering that it is composed of a mosaic of habitats (i.e. seascape) that
67 provides resources for a diversity of species (Ray, 2005). Generally, when more than one
68 habitat is studied, these are examined separately so that little is known about how they interact

69 and function together. The complexity of the spatial organisation of these habitats and the
70 multiplicity of potential organic matter sources that support secondary and tertiary consumers,
71 make fairly challenging the study of the nursery functioning (Deegan and Garritt, 1997).

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73 Stable isotopes tracking is a powerful tool to apprehend the functional aspects of a nursery's
74 spatial organisation, yet allowing the definition of optimal habitats for fish species that use the
75 coastal-estuarine ecosystem as nursery grounds. Basic rationale of the stable isotopes
76 approach is that the isotopic composition of consumer tissues reflects this of their diet, which
77 in turn depends on the relative proportions of prey species assimilated over a specific time
78 period (De Niro and Epstein, 1978; Minagawa and Wada, 1984; Peterson and Fry, 1987).

79 Stable isotopes of carbon and nitrogen are commonly used to examine consumers' trophic
80 ecology providing a time-integrated measure of trophic position and energy sources. Nitrogen
81 stable isotope ratios in consumers are typically enriched in the heavier (^{15}N) isotope by from 2
82 to 4‰ per trophic level (Minagawa and Wada, 1984; Peterson and Fry, 1987), making $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
83 values useful in defining trophic positions of consumers (Post, 2002). The carbon isotope
84 ratios fractionate to a lesser extent (0 to 1‰) and are typically used to define diet
85 compositions or sources of energy (De Niro and Epstein, 1978).

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87 In estuarine-coastal gradients, the natural variations of stable isotopes allow to distinguish
88 coastal from marine areas either on $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ or $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Terrestrial and estuarine waters traditionally
89 present ^{13}C -depleted values compared to marine waters because carbon in materials originated
90 by photosynthesis (e.g. fixed carbon in terrestrial plants or phytoplankton) is depleted in ^{13}C
91 compared to atmospheric CO_2 . Seawater $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is supposedly at equilibrium with atmospheric
92 CO_2 (Oana and Deevey, 1960). In the same way, terrestrial waters have traditionally lower
93 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ than marine waters (France, 1995), but nowadays, higher values in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ are often

94 observed in coastal waters in comparison to marine waters, as coastal ecosystems receive ¹⁵N-
95 enriched sewage discharges (anthropisation, agriculture and industries) with river run-offs
96 (Gartner et al., 2002; Schlacher et al., 2005). According to McClelland et al. (1997),
97 wastewater with high NO₃⁻ derived from human and animal wastes is ¹⁵N enriched (+10 to
98 +20‰) and elevates the overall δ¹⁵N signatures of water entering the trophic chain in coastal
99 areas. These variations of stable isotope signatures along seaward gradient, make stable
100 isotopes useful in the identification of the primary sources of organic carbon in the diet of
101 organisms. In such conditions, the isotopic approach has been successfully used to trace the
102 transfer of organic matter through estuarine and coastal food webs (Islam and Tanaka, 2006;
103 Vinagre et al., 2008) and identify aspects of life history or movement patterns of species in
104 nursery habitats (Fry, 2008). Stable isotope ratios (δ¹⁵N or δ¹³C) were recently used in coastal
105 areas to infer on the relative contribution of different resources use among juveniles of flatfish
106 species (Vinagre et al., 2008; Kostecki et al., 2010; Le Pape et al., 2012) and to quantify the
107 relative contribution of estuarine and coastal production in supporting juveniles fish (Leakey
108 et al., 2008b). They have also proved to be powerful tools to assess ontogenetic size-based
109 shift in fish diet and associated feeding plasticity (e.g. Leakey et al., 2008a for age 1+, 2+ and
110 3+ common sole; Ho et al., 2009).

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112 The present study aimed to answer the following questions: Do juveniles of benthic and
113 demersal fish species use the bay of Vilaine as one large habitat or as multiple habitats? If so,
114 do these habitats display the same trophic interactions? In order to answer these questions, we
115 defined and assessed the spatial organization of habitats along the estuarine-coastal gradient
116 of the bay of Vilaine nursery ground. More precisely, we (i) identified different habitats based
117 on macrozoobenthic communities and morpho-sedimentary characteristics, (ii) described and
118 tested the biological and ecological differences of these biosedimentary habitats using stable

119 isotope analyses and fish stomach contents, and (iii) assessed the trophic interactions within
120 these habitats. We hypothesized that benthic species would be more constrained in their use
121 of habitats due to their close relationships with the substrate and associated fauna compared to
122 demersal fish. In the same way we expected that age-0 fish (G0), due to a high site fidelity,
123 would present lower feeding plasticity than older individuals (G1).

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125 **2. Material and methods**

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127 *2.1. Study area and sampling protocol*

128 The study was conducted in the bay of Vilaine located on the French Atlantic coast, south
129 Brittany (Fig. 1). The bay covers a surface area of 230 km² and is characterized by an open
130 shallow muddy estuarine area, under the influence of freshwater inflows. Surveys were
131 carried out at the end of August 2008 using a stratified sampling design relying on a 5-stratum
132 scheme (Fig. 1), in which each stratum was identified by depth range and sediment type.
133 Depths ranged from 5 to 35 m and the sediment types varied from coarse-grained sand and
134 gravel to fine sand and/or coarse silt. Sampling was conducted using a 2.9 m wide and 0.5 m
135 high beam trawl, with a 20-mm-stretched mesh net in the cod-end. Each haul lasted 15 min
136 and covered a mean surface of 4500–5000 m². A total of 43 hauls were performed (Fig. 1, see
137 Table 1 for the number of hauls by habitat).

138 All fish were identified at the species level and weighted. This study focused however on two
139 of the most abundant species in the bay of Vilaine: the benthic common sole and the demersal
140 pouting. Individuals from these two species were aged according to their length-frequency
141 distributions. The two size-classes corresponded respectively to the young-of-the-year group
142 (G0) and age one group (G1): common sole (G0: 9.09 ± 0.76 cm, G1: 16.45 ± 1.25 cm) and
143 pouting (G0: 7.88 ± 0.96 cm, G1: 11.49 ± 0.93 cm). These size classes were consistent with

144 our own database of otolith measures (unpublished data) and other studies (Merayo and
145 Villegas, 1994; Mérigot et al., 2007). As several studies have highlighted the nursery function
146 of the bay of Vilaine for these two species (Le Pape et al., 2003b), yet only the two size
147 classes associated with the juvenile phase were studied. Individuals of the two species were
148 frozen (-24°C) prior to isotopic and gut content analyses.

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150 Concurrently, the benthic fauna was sampled at the same sites (43 sampling sites with 4
151 replicates per site) using a Van Veen grab (0.1 m²). Sediments from the grab were sieved in a
152 cubic screen (1 mm mesh size). Retained fraction (sediments and macro-invertebrates) of 3 of
153 the 4 replicates was fixed and preserved in 10% seawater buffered formaldehyde. The
154 remaining grab replicate was frozen (-24°C) for isotopic analyses. In the laboratory,
155 invertebrates were sorted from the sediments and identified to the lowest taxonomic level,
156 before counting and weighing. Analyses of the benthic fauna were conducted on the summed
157 biomass of the 3 replicates by site. Benthic invertebrate macrofauna was categorized into
158 trophic guilds for the comparison between the habitats: carnivores, detritivores, deposit- and
159 suspension-feeders (Fauchald and Jumars, 1979; Rosenberg, 1993; Hily and Bouteille, 1999;
160 Appeltans et al., 2011). Bottom water was sampled using a Niskin bottle and filtered until
161 clogged through precombusted Whatman GF/F filters (0.5 µm) immediately after sampling.
162 Filters were kept frozen until their extraction to obtain particulate organic matter (POM).

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164 *2.2. Stable isotope analyses (SIA)*

165 A sample of white dorsal muscle of the fish was dissected and used for SIA (Pinnegar and
166 Polunin, 1999). All samples were frozen individually at -80°C before freeze-drying. Each
167 dried sample was then ground into a homogeneous powder using a mixer mill. Approximately
168 0.2 mg of sample was accurately weighed into small tin cups, and stable isotope ratios of

169 carbon and nitrogen were analysed in a Carlo Erba NC2500 elemental analyser coupled to a
170 Thermo Finnigan Mat Delta XP isotope ratio mass spectrometer. Isotope ratios were reported
171 in delta notation as per international standards: Pee Dee belemnite carbonate for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and
172 atmospheric nitrogen for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. Data were corrected using working standards (bass muscle,
173 bovine liver, nicotinamide; $\text{SD} < 0.2\text{‰}$ for both $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) that were previously
174 calibrated against International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) standards.

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176 Benthic invertebrates selected for SIA were those considered as potential preys for the
177 benthic-demersal fish species and dominant in terms of abundance and biomass in the Vilaine
178 coastal-estuarine ecosystem. Isotope analyses were conducted on the muscle of large benthic
179 organisms (i.e. >1 cm), whereas analyses were done on the remaining tissues once the
180 digestive tracts, jaws and cerci were removed for small organisms. Remaining tissues were
181 then washed with distilled water in order to prevent any contamination by sediment
182 carbonates. Samples of small invertebrates (e.g. bivalve juveniles, crustaceans, ophiurids)
183 were divided into 2 subsamples: 1 subsample, for carbon isotope analysis, was acidified with
184 1% HCl solution to remove carbonates and rinsed with distilled water as carbonates present
185 higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values than organic carbon (De Niro and Epstein, 1978). The other subsample, for
186 nitrogen isotope analysis, was not acidified since acidification results in enrichment of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
187 (Pinnegar and Polunin, 1999). In many cases, several individuals of the same species at a
188 given site had to be pooled to have sufficient biomass for SIA (0.2 mg of dried tissue). Preys
189 were classified in the same trophic guilds as those used for the grab-sampled benthic
190 macrofauna (Fauchald and Jumars, 1979; Rosenberg, 1993; Hily and Bouteille, 1999;
191 Appeltans et al., 2011). Whatman GF/F filters containing particulate organic matter (POM)
192 were oven-dried and subsequently exposed to HCl vapour for 4 hours in order to remove the
193 carbonates (Lorrain et al., 2003). All stable isotope analyses were performed at the Stable

194 Isotopes in Nature Laboratory, University of New Brunswick, Canada. Number of samples
195 analysed for SIA are given in Fig.2.

196

197 For invertebrate tissues, the observed C:N ratios were sometimes greater than 3.5, the value
198 above which lipid normalization is recommended (Post et al., 2007). To account for the
199 influence of lipid content on the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, mathematical delipidation was performed after analysis
200 using the following equation (Post et al., 2007):

$$201 \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{normalized}} = \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{untreated}} - 3.32 + 0.99 \times \text{C:N}$$

202 As $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values provide indication of the trophic position (TP) of a consumer, TP for all prey
203 and fish were calculated following Post equation (Post, 2002):

$$204 \text{TP} = (\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{consumer}} - \delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{base}}) / \Delta$$

205 where Δ is the assumed trophic-enrichment factor for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, estimated at 3.4‰
206 (Minagawa and Wada, 1984). In each habitat, the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ base referred to the lowest available
207 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ value, i.e. that of the particulate organic matter.

208

209 2.3. Gut content analyses

210 To assess the composition of fish diet, the gut contents of 89 common soles and 132 poutings
211 were analysed. All prey items were identified to the highest possible taxonomic level, sorted
212 and counted under a binocular microscope. The use of prey counts instead of prey biomass
213 was preferred to avoid the bias (i.e. overestimation) potentially induced by preys that are
214 partially ingested by juvenile fish (e.g. bivalve siphons). Prey items in gut contents were
215 classified in the same trophic guilds as those used for the grab-sampled benthic macrofauna
216 and SIA. Numbers of analysed gut contents are given in Fig.3.

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218 2.4. *Statistical analysis*

219 A common approach to cope with biotic patterns is to select sampling sites along explicit
220 gradients, such as depth and substrate gradients. That strategy is very much like using a
221 stratified sampling in which the strata define habitat patches, and multiple samples within
222 them are treated as approximate replicates, meaning, in practice, that samples within habitat
223 patches are expected to be more similar than samples from different patches. This is the
224 strategy that we have used to identify and characterize the spatial patterns of the benthic
225 demersal community in the bay of Vilaine. We identified habitat patches using Ward's
226 hierarchical clustering analyses (Ward Jr, 1963) calculated on the Bray Curtis dissimilarity
227 coefficient of the sites-species matrix. The latter was composed of macrobenthic biomass and
228 morpho-sedimentary data (bathymetry, sediment type and organic matter). The Bray Curtis
229 coefficient was chosen as it is acknowledged to be a good measure of ecological distance for
230 species data (Faith et al., 1987). The number of clusters (i.e. habitat patches) was visually
231 assessed and confirmed using the simple structure index SSI (Dolcinar et al., 1999).

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233 Quantitative description of each habitat was done by estimating and comparing diverse
234 indices (biomass, Simpson's diversity index, guild biomass) and isotopic signatures ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$,
235 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) of the POM, benthic preys, and fish. As the number of grabs slightly differed between
236 habitats, we preferred the inverse Simpson's index over other measures of diversity:
237 Simpson's index being less vulnerable to sampling effort (Buckland et al., 2005; Colwell,
238 2009). That index estimates the likelihood that two species selected randomly from the
239 different habitats would be different species. We defined $p_{ij} = d_{ij} / \sum_i d_{ij}$ to be the proportion of
240 individuals present in site j that belong to species i . Simpson's index (D) for site j is then $D_j =$
241 $\sum_i p_{ij}^{-2}$. For convenience, we used the transformed Simpson's index $-\ln D_j$ such that high values
242 of the index indicate high values of diversity.

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The indices and the isotopic signatures of the POM and benthic preys were compared between (previously defined) habitat patches using non-parametric permutation-based one-way ANOVA using habitat as a fixed factor. Permutation procedures were used as the assumption of the normality of residuals was almost always violated. As isotopic signatures may vary according to fish size (Brischoux et al., 2010), comparison of the fish isotopic signatures was conducted using two-way permutation-based analyses of variance with habitat and fish size classes as fixed factors. The interaction of the habitat and fish size was also tested. Yet, the sole and pouting were classified in young-of-the-year (G0) and age-one group (G1). When significant differences were found, multiple comparison tests (i.e. Conover-Inman non-parametric multiple pairwise comparison test) were conducted (Conover, 1999). Comparison of the fish gut contents between the different habitats was done using distance-based multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) with permutations (Anderson, 2001). A two-way design was used, testing the effect of habitat and fish size classes as well as the habitat*size interaction. Distance-based MANOVA is highly similar to its parametric univariate counterpart (ANOVA) in that it uses a multivariate analogue to the Fisher's F-ratio calculated directly from any distance or dissimilarity matrix. In practice, preys abundance from the gut contents of the sole and the pouting were grouped and summed in trophic guilds (i.e. invertebrate carnivores, detritivores, deposit- and suspension-feeders). Matrices of prey guilds were then transformed in distance matrices using Bray-Curtis pairwise distance (double-root transformation). The test was done using unrestricted permutation of raw data (Gonzalez and Manly, 1998) with 4999 random permutations on the full model. Data analyses and statistical tests were implemented using R software (2008) and a significant threshold of 0.05 was used.

268 3. Results

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270 3.1. Habitats along the coastal-estuarine gradient

271 Cluster analyses computed on the biomass of the benthic macrofauna combined with morpho-
272 sedimentary data detected five groups of sites along the coastal-estuarine gradient (Fig. 1),
273 hereafter defined as Habitat 1 (H1) to Habitat 5 (H5). These habitats differed in terms of
274 biotic (i.e. species assemblages, relative and total biomass, and species diversity; Table 1) and
275 abiotic conditions (bathymetry, organic matter; Table 2).

276 3.1.1. Biotic characteristics

277 The habitat nearest to the mouth of the estuary, H1, was the habitat displaying the lowest
278 mean biomass ($F_{(4,38)} = 6.13$; $p = 0.001$). It was however the one displaying the highest
279 Simpson's diversity index (although marginally significant) along with the *Haploops* habitat
280 (H4). It was dominated by the suspension-feeder *Cerastoderma edule* (23% of the total
281 biomass; Table 1). H2 displayed mean values of biomass in comparison to other habitats. Its
282 macrobenthic assemblage was mainly dominated by the polychaete *Owenia fusiformis* and the
283 deposit-feeders (69% of the total biomass). H3 was similar to H2 in terms of functional
284 assemblage, i.e. dominated by a polychaete deposit-feeder, *Sternaspis scutata*, that accounted
285 for almost 30% of the total biomass. The mean biomass in H3 was among the lowest with H1.
286 The habitat H4 was quite different compared to the other four habitats of the bay. It was
287 largely dominated by suspension-feeders and mainly the species *Haploops* sp. (Table 1), a
288 tubicolous and gregarious amphipod considered as an autogenic engineer. It was also the
289 habitat displaying the greatest average biomass (113.55 g/m²). The fifth habitat (H5) was a
290 marine-influenced habitat that displayed relatively high values of biomass (average: 95.47
291 g/m²). It was dominated at 48% by the bivalve *Abra alba*, a facultative suspension- and
292 deposit-feeder. The analyses of the benthic assemblages of the five habitats clearly showed

293 the dominance of species belonging to the deposit- and suspension-feeder trophic guilds: H1
294 and H4 being dominated by suspension-feeders whereas the other three habitats being mainly
295 characterized by deposit-feeders.

296 3.1.2. Abiotic conditions

297 The comparison of the abiotic environment of the habitats suggested the importance of
298 bathymetry (adjusted $R^2 = 0.734$, $p < 0.001$) and organic matter (OM; adjusted $R^2 = 0.319$, $p <$
299 0.001) as forcing variables (Table 2). The distribution of the five habitats was closely related
300 to the bathymetric gradient: H1 located near the mouth of the estuary was the shallower
301 habitat (mean bathymetry = 5.9 m) whereas H5, located far from the estuary was the deeper
302 habitat (mean bathymetry = 24 m). The *Haploops* (H4), located almost in the middle of the
303 bathymetric gradient displayed a significantly larger amount of organic matter (mean OM =
304 5.9% dry weight) in comparison to the other habitats (Table 2).

305

306 3.2. Habitat distinctiveness using $\delta^{13}C$

307 The $\delta^{13}C$ values for most of the studied compartments (POM, invertebrate guilds, fish)
308 increased gradually from the river mouth (H1) to the marine habitats (H5), yet confirming the
309 spatial influence of the terrigenous enrichment in the bay of Vilaine (Fig. 2). That increasing
310 relationship was observable for the $\delta^{13}C$ POM signatures except for the *Haploops* habitat (H4)
311 which was ^{13}C -depleted. Deposit-feeders showed significant differences in their $\delta^{13}C$
312 signatures among habitats ($F_{(4,102)} = 18.26$; $p = 0.001$) and these differences were attributed to
313 H1 and H2 (habitats closest to the estuary) where deposit-feeders were ^{13}C -depleted compared
314 to the marine habitats H3, H4 and H5 (Fig. 2). Suspension-feeders also showed clear
315 distinction among habitats that somehow followed the bathymetric gradient ($F_{(4,64)} = 8.60$; $p =$
316 0.001). Suspension-feeders from H1, H2 and H3 were ^{13}C -depleted and significantly different
317 from those in H4 and H5 which displayed slightly enriched carbon signatures (Fig. 2).

318 Carnivores showed significant differences in their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures among habitats ($F_{(3,20)} =$
319 4.27; $p = 0.027$) and these differences could be attributed to H1 where carnivores were
320 carbon-depleted compared to the marine habitat H5 (Fig. 2).

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322 The fish signatures varied respectively with the species (sole vs pouting) and the size class
323 (G0 vs G1 sole). The range of variability of the sole $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures was larger than for the
324 pouting (Fig. 2). Pouting $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures showed a decreasing relationship with depth. The
325 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values ranged from -15.7 to -16.3 for G0 and from -15.61 to -15.90 for G1. We believe
326 that the decreasing trend is statistically significant probably due to an over power of the test
327 (sample size= 228 for G0 and 122 for G1). Ecologically speaking, the trend represents less
328 than 0.6‰ variation. Young sole were only captured in H1, H2 and H3 and differences were
329 found in their $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures ($F_{(2,42)} = 4.95$; $p = 0.009$). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in H1 was 1‰ on average lower
330 than in H2 ($p = 0.062$, very close to the significant threshold of 0.05). That confirms that the
331 spatial distribution of that species age class is influenced by shallow depth. For G1
332 individuals of common sole, a significant difference among habitats was observed ($F_{(3,158)} =$
333 7.85; $p = 0.002$): $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature increased with depth in the same way that fish prey signature
334 increased due to the enhanced influence of marine inputs in deeper waters. The only exception
335 to these sole trends was the signatures in H3 which displayed similar values to H1.

336

337 3.3. Trophic interactions

338 3.3.1. Nitrogen signatures and trophic levels

339 In general, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures of the benthic preys and fish were enriched at the mouth of the
340 river and depleted gradually moving towards the sea (Fig. 2). Interestingly, one compartment
341 did not follow that general pattern: G0 sole displayed similar stable $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (average =
342 14.6) notwithstanding the habitat in which they were captured.

343
344 Isotopic $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures of POM displayed no significant difference between the five habitats,
345 ($F_{(4,5)} = 8.23$; $p = 0.059$). Deposit-feeders displayed significant differences in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ among
346 habitats ($F_{(4,102)} = 12.73$; $p = 0.001$) and three groups of habitats could be distinguished. The
347 habitat close to the estuary (H1) which displayed N-enriched signatures, the habitats far from
348 the estuary (H3 and H5) which signatures were slightly lower than the ones in H1, and the
349 habitats H2 and H4 which displayed intermediate values of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. The suspension-feeders also
350 showed differences among habitats ($F_{(4,64)} = 15.01$; $p = 0.001$) as well as carnivores ($F_{(3,20)} =$
351 9.74 ; $p = 0.001$): $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ significantly decreased with increasing distance to the estuary. Using
352 the results of stable isotopes, we can well discriminate carnivores from suspension- or
353 deposit-feeders. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures of carnivores are one trophic level higher than the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
354 signatures of the other two invertebrate trophic guilds (mean $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of carnivores = 13.66;
355 mean $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of suspension-feeders = 10.42, mean $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of deposit-feeders = 10.45). The stable
356 isotope analyses did not allow to discriminate suspension- from deposit-feeders, as their food
357 resources (e.g. suspended or sediment organic matter) probably display the same range of
358 isotopic signatures and/or some species (e.g. *Abra alba*, *Owenia fusiformis*, ...) from these
359 two trophic guilds may display a great feeding plasticity between suspended and sediment
360 organic matter.

361 As fish go through ontogenetic changes during their life and thus change their feeding habits,
362 we tested the difference in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values between the habitats for the two fish species by
363 looking at the Size*Habitat interaction (see Section 2.4 for details). The two-way ANOVAs
364 on fish $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures showed a significant interaction for the common sole, suggesting that
365 the species likely fed in the different habitats on different food sources and that this
366 relationship was influenced by the size of the fish ($F_{(2,176)} = 4.33$; $p = 0.015$). Sole G0
367 displayed enriched $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values in habitats H2 and H3 in comparison to G1 in the same

368 habitats (Fig. 2). G0 presented similar $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values in all the sites where they were caught, and
369 a signature equivalent to those observed for sole of G1 in H1 (Fig. 2). In opposition to the
370 findings for the sole, no interaction was found for the pouting, meaning that the species fed on
371 the same variety of preys in all the habitats whatever the size ($F_{(3,262)} = 1.28$; $p = 0.28$).

372

373 Calculation of the trophic position of the common sole and pouting confirmed the previous
374 findings on the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values. G0 and G1 soles displayed a different trophic level in H1, the G0
375 belonged to 2nd consumers whereas G1 belonged to 3rd consumers. The two size classes had
376 the same trophic position in H2 and H3 (the habitats in which the G0 are found). G0 and G1
377 individuals of pouting presented the same trophic position notwithstanding the habitats in
378 which they were captured (Fig. 2).

379

380 3.3.2. Gut contents

381 Gut content analyses confirmed the trophic position results for the two studied species (Fig.
382 3). The common sole displayed a different diet in H1 compared to the other habitats. The diet
383 of that species also differed accordingly with its size in H1 (habitat*size: $F_{(2,63)} = 2.44$; $p =$
384 0.009). Sole G0 preyed upon detritivores (e.g. *Gammarus* sp.) whereas sole G1 mainly preyed
385 upon deposit-feeders. In the other habitats, common sole fed on carnivores (mainly *Philine*
386 *aperta*) and suspension-feeders (e.g. *Ampelisca* sp. and small *Acanthocardia echinata*)
387 notwithstanding its size. Pouting fed on similar preys notwithstanding the habitat in which
388 they were sampled (Fig. 3), yet no difference was found in their diet in relation to habitats and
389 size ($F_{(4,98)} = 1.47$; $p = 0.098$).

390

391 4. Discussion

392

393 This study showed that the bay of Vilaine functions as a mosaic of benthic habitats used by
394 the fish. Isotopic values ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) of the organisms within each habitat contributed to
395 identify the spatial extent of the estuarine influence on the bay of Vilaine benthic food web,
396 thereby suggesting the presence of potential spatial food web subsidies in that ecosystem. The
397 large number of contiguous sampling sites allowed us to address the spatial relationships and
398 the connectivity along the coastal-estuarine gradient.

399 Isotopic values of organisms common to all the habitats of the estuary showed a strong
400 gradient from river to coastal habitats. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature of benthic organisms varied
401 accordingly to POM signature (except in H4): increasing gradually from the river mouth to
402 the marine habitats. The spatial heterogeneity was in part due to the terrigenous-derived
403 organic matter which uptake was noticeable in several habitats, notably in the areas located at
404 the river mouth. Numerous studies from estuarine ecosystems have highlighted estuarine
405 signal in terms of organic matter supply in the benthic food web of coastal nursery grounds in
406 Europe (Darnaude et al., 2004a; Vinagre et al., 2008; Kostecki et al., 2010), America
407 (Simenstad and Wissmar, 1985; Deegan and Garritt, 1997) and Australia (Abrantes and
408 Sheaves, 2008). In these studies, the magnitude of such $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ depletion in the fish and
409 invertebrate tissues reached values of 0.5‰ and >1.5‰ in systems under low and high river
410 discharge influence respectively (Darnaude, 2005; Connolly et al., 2009). In our study, the
411 shift observed in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in the fish and invertebrate tissues captured close to the mouth of the
412 estuary and in the marine habitats were characteristic of large rivers (>4‰). The increasing
413 enrichment gradient in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from river to shelf was well reflected for species with low
414 mobility (invertebrate carnivores, deposit- and suspension- feeders) and to a certain extent for
415 benthic fish species strongly related to the substrate (e.g. common sole).

416 It is interesting to note that in H4, the habitat dominated by the ecosystem engineer *Haploops*
417 sp., POM $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures did not follow the gradient observed in the other habitats and

418 harboured the lowest value. This might be explained by the geochemical process performed
419 by ecosystem engineers that affect the flux and fate of carbon in estuaries (D'Andrea and
420 DeWitt, 2009). Indeed, benthic communities displaying active tube- or burrow-dwelling
421 infauna are often associated with elevated rates of carbon and nutrient remineralization and
422 increased advection of dissolved inorganic carbon and nitrogen from sediments (Kristensen,
423 2008). Physical engineers oxygenate sediments and mix labile organic matter into sediments,
424 thereby stimulating the activity of microbial communities responsible for recycling of carbon
425 and nutrients (Kristensen, 2008; D'Andrea and DeWitt, 2009). As we did not measure
426 biochemical fluxes in the *Haploops* habitat, these are of course hypothetical mechanisms that
427 remain to be verified.

428

429 Mean values of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ for the benthic macrofauna and the fish (other than the sole G0)
430 displayed a coastal-estuarine gradient where highest values were found close to the river
431 mouth and declined as we move towards the shelf. This gradient disagrees with what is
432 commonly found in the literature: a $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ depletion from estuarine to marine waters (Wada,
433 1993; France, 1994). However, according to France (1995), $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ can vary substantially as a
434 result of anthropogenic inputs and biogeochemical processes (Owens, 1985). Thus agriculture
435 and/or industries may all contribute to enrich terrestrial waters in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. It has been
436 demonstrated that coastal ecosystems receiving sewage discharges display particularly high
437 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (Gartner et al., 2002; Schlacher et al., 2005). Since the isotopic composition of
438 nitrogen can propagate throughout a local food web, organisms feeding in areas with high
439 anthropogenic nitrogen inputs can exhibit distinctive $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (Hansson et al., 1997). The
440 bay of Vilaine receives the waters of a 10 800 km² river watershed conveying inputs from
441 industry, urbanisation and agriculture. The annual flow of nutrients into the bay, evaluated to
442 16000 tonnes of nitrogen and 1030 of phosphorus (Le Bris and Glemarec, 1995), might

443 explain the high nitrogen values found in the POM and in the organisms close to the river
444 mouth.

445

446 Nitrogen rich effluents from the river might enhance the primary production, the productivity
447 of invertebrate preys and be favourable to fish that use the areas as nursery ground (Darnaude
448 et al., 2004a). Using stable isotopes in the bay of Vilaine, Kostecki et al. (2010) aimed to
449 determine the potential mechanisms of the “wet year nursery expansion” hypothesis stated
450 earlier by (Le Pape et al., 2003a). According to that hypothesis, benthic macrofauna would
451 benefit from the nitrogen-enriched terrestrial material sinking from plumes during years of
452 high river flow. By food web propagation, the benthic productivity would enhance fish
453 productivity and provide suitable food for young fish and notably the juveniles of common
454 sole. In that context, the larger the volume of river discharge (i.e. observed in wet years) the
455 further distance the terrestrial material will be carried out, thereby increasing the spatial extent
456 of productive areas (Connolly et al., 2009). Kostecki et al. (2010) showed that during the wet
457 years $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures of the G0 sole were typical to those influenced by terrestrial inputs in
458 the habitat that spatially corresponded to H1 (our habitat near the mouth of the estuary). We
459 corroborated their result and hypothesized that the spatial effect of the Vilaine terrestrial
460 inputs can be observable far beyond Kostecki’s outer estuary sampling sites, that is up to our
461 H3 (muddy habitat with depth $\leq 20\text{m}$). That extent also corresponds to the limit at which no
462 young-of-the-year of the sole was captured and to recent habitat suitability models developed
463 for the juvenile soles (Trimoreau et al. submitted).

464

465 Studies on coastal food webs often ignore the size structure within species. However, fish
466 may undergo three to four ontogenetic changes during their life cycle and these size-specific
467 changes are frequently associated with habitat changes corresponding to a change in prey

468 availability (Werner and Gilliam, 1984). The combined use of stable isotopes, gut content
469 analyses and calculation of the trophic position have provided a detailed picture of the
470 spatialized productivity and trophic interactions that likely occur in the bay of Vilaine. This
471 was notably observed in the habitat near the mouth of the estuary which displayed a
472 supplementary trophic level in comparison to the other habitats. The isotopic signatures and
473 gut content analyses in that habitat (H1) revealed that the common sole displayed size-based
474 diet changes eating prey from different trophic guilds. Juveniles of that species preyed
475 primarily upon detritivore species (mainly *Gammarus* sp.). In the Gironde, another French
476 estuary, Pasquaud et al. (2008) found that polychaetes and *Gammarus* were the main food
477 items of the common sole. These authors did not account however for the potential change of
478 diet according to the size of the individuals. In our study, as the sole grew up, dietary changes
479 occurred involving increased contributions of depositivore preys. Sole G1 displayed similar
480 patterns to G0 but with less variability in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures ($< 1.5\text{‰}$ for G1 in comparison to $>$
481 2‰ for G0), thereby suggesting an increased in habitat connectivity (or habitat use) as the
482 sole grew older.

483 The absence of any spatial structure in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures of the G0 common sole confirms our
484 precedent findings with the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and suggests strong feeding plasticity and opportunism for
485 that age class. Opportunistic feeding was also supported by the gut content analyses which
486 clearly show a large prey spectrum in the habitats they use (H1 vs H2 and H3). Studies of the
487 feeding ecology of juvenile flatfishes highlighted opportunistic feeding by many species
488 including the common sole (Lasiak and McLachlan, 1987; Beyst et al., 1999; Cabral, 2000).
489 Feeding flexibility in estuaries and coastal zones allows to exploit peaks of available preys
490 when fishes often need to share resources (Ley et al., 1994). Our conclusions regarding the
491 feeding flexibility of the common sole is in agreement with Leakey (2008a, 2008b) who also
492 found such feeding characteristic at the population level. According to these authors, G0 of

493 sole consumed both estuarine and coastal preys whereas older fish mainly consumed marine
494 food items.

495 The diet of the sole mimics the abundance distribution of the species across the estuarine-
496 coastal gradient: G0 remaining in coastal habitats during their first year and move towards
497 offshore habitats at the end of their first year (Costa et al., 2002). This marine intrusion may
498 indeed explain the carbon isotopic signatures of the G1 sole, reflecting the use of marine
499 sources. Gut content analyses revealed that in H2 and H3, common sole fed predominantly on
500 carnivorous preys. However, as the isotopic signatures of these preys were similar to those of
501 the soles, no such trophic interaction could be confirmed. This result might be explained by
502 the fact that the carnivore prey observed in sole gut contents were mainly composed of
503 *Philine aperta* (respectively 89% and 96% in H2 and H3) but unfortunately no isotope
504 samples of this species could be obtained in the present study. $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures of *P. aperta*
505 were assessed in another study conducted in the bay of Vilaine (in habitats corresponding to
506 H2 and H3) and in another French nursery (the bay of Concarneau) by Houssin (2010).
507 Signatures of these species were close to 10‰, a value coherent to those expected here.

508 As opposed to common sole, pouting did not show any size-based feeding plasticity (i.e. low
509 variability in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures for two age classes). The G0 and G1 of that species used
510 indifferently the different habitats (as displayed by the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values) but showed low feeding
511 plasticity across and within each habitat (as displayed by the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values). These results
512 suggest that this species easily moves across the habitats, thereby integrating the various $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
513 signatures of low mobile preys belonging to these habitats. Similar findings were described in
514 the Thames estuary (Leakey et al., 2008a) where estuarine-caught whiting (another gadid
515 species) had intermediate $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures ($\approx -18\text{‰}$), suggesting that whiting moved and fed
516 on preys from estuarine and coastal waters. Similar results were also observed in Netherlands
517 where juveniles of pouting used both estuarine and coastal habitats as nursery grounds

518 (Hamerlynck and Hostens, 1993). According to Power et al. (2002), salinity would be the
519 major forcing factor explaining the variability of pouting abundance and to a lesser extent
520 food resources. For Gadidae in general, environmental factors such as temperature and
521 salinity seem to have the strongest influence on the species distribution (Power et al., 2002).
522 These comparisons of our results with those from other coastal areas (Gironde and Thames
523 estuaries, South-west of Netherlands, bay of Concarneau) or other functionally similar benthic
524 and demersal species (i.e. senegalese sole or whiting) make us confident that our findings
525 might be generalized to other temperate coastal areas and species that present similar life
526 strategies.

527

528 Our study was conducted during summer time, when the influence of the river flow is the
529 least. The strength of the terrestrial signal in coastal food webs increases after periods of high
530 river flow i.e. during autumn and winter for the present study (Bănanu et al., 2007). At this
531 period, trophic subsidies of benthic compartments by river discharge are expected to be firmly
532 installed. In that context, we believe that it is very unlikely that the season of our study
533 influence the spatial patterns that we observed in here. Indeed, the seaward $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ gradient in
534 the bay of Vilaine during winter is also apparent, only its amplitude differ (Mortillaro et al.,
535 unpublished data). In another ecosystem, França et al. (2011), observed similar results when
536 studying two estuarine systems of the Portuguese coast. They concluded that seasonal
537 differences were not pronounced enough to produce significant dissimilarities in the species
538 isotopic signatures and the estuarine functioning between the two seasons.

539

540 Beside the *Haploops* habitat, the macrozoobenthic habitats defined in our study are generally
541 common to all open shallow muddy estuarine area under the influence of freshwater inflows
542 (e.g. Seine: Elkaim et al., 1982; Dauvin et al., 2006). We are confirming the general pattern

543 observed in these ecosystems, that terrestrial inputs are structuring coastal and estuarine food
544 webs. Given that the bay of Vilaine offers different habitats for the G0 of several species,
545 including the common sole (Le Pape et al., 2003b) and that strong environmental changes are
546 actually occurring in these habitats (+1.5°C in temperature and +2 in salinity; Kopp et al.,
547 Submitted), our study raises important questions: Are all the habitats close to the river mouth
548 equivalent in terms of G0 production? Will the environmental changes affect the species
549 distribution? What is the relative importance of the trophic interactions versus the physical
550 environment in all the described habitats? Do species inhabiting these habitats display similar
551 growth rates? In the context of multiple coastal uses and coastal management, these are
552 crucial questions that remain to be answered.

553

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555

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761

761 **Table 1.** Summary of the different biotic variables in each habitat. Mean values and standard
 762 deviations (in brackets) are given.

	Habitat 1	Habitat 2	Habitat 3	Habitat 4	Habitat 5
Dominant species (in biomass)	<i>Cerastoderma edule</i>	<i>Owenia fusiformis</i>	<i>Sternaspis scutata</i>	<i>Haploops</i> sp.	<i>Abra alba</i>
Total biomass (g/m ²)	14.22 (20.79)	78.87 (53.89)	32.33 (14.63)	113.55 (72.45)	95.47 (39.17)
Inverse Simpson' index	2.63 (2.23)	1.74 (0.72)	1.63 (0.81)	3.30 (2.94)	1.83 (0.59)
Guild relative biomass (%)					
Carnivores	8.80	12.56	11.95	1.94	5.78
Detritivores	0.050	0.01	0.04	0.00	0.00
Deposit- feeders	40.44	69.43	50.21	7.38	79.66
Suspension-feeders	46.82	17.99	37.47	90.68	14.35
Scavengers	3.89	0.01	0.33	0.00	0.21

763

764

764 **Table 2.** Summary of the different abiotic variables in each habitat. Mean values and standard
 765 deviations (in brackets) are given.

	Habitat 1	Habitat 2	Habitat 3	Habitat 4	Habitat 5
Bathymetry (m)	5.91 (0.61)	9.30 (1.79)	13.64 (3.80)	18.55 (1.95)	24.00 (6.46)
Organic matter (% dry weight)	5.81 (2.63)	5.80 (2.37)	7.92 (2.21)	10.46 (0.87)	6.60 (1.22)
Sediment type	Mud	Mud and sand	Mud	Consolidated mud	Mud and sand
Number of hauls	7	10	9	5	12

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768 Figure captions

769

770 **Fig. 1.** Bathymetric map of the bay of Vilaine in the northern Bay of Biscay and geographic
771 position of the sampling sites. 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 = habitats. Habitats were defined using a
772 hierarchical cluster analysis on a matrix of invertebrates biomass combined with morpho-
773 sedimentary data.

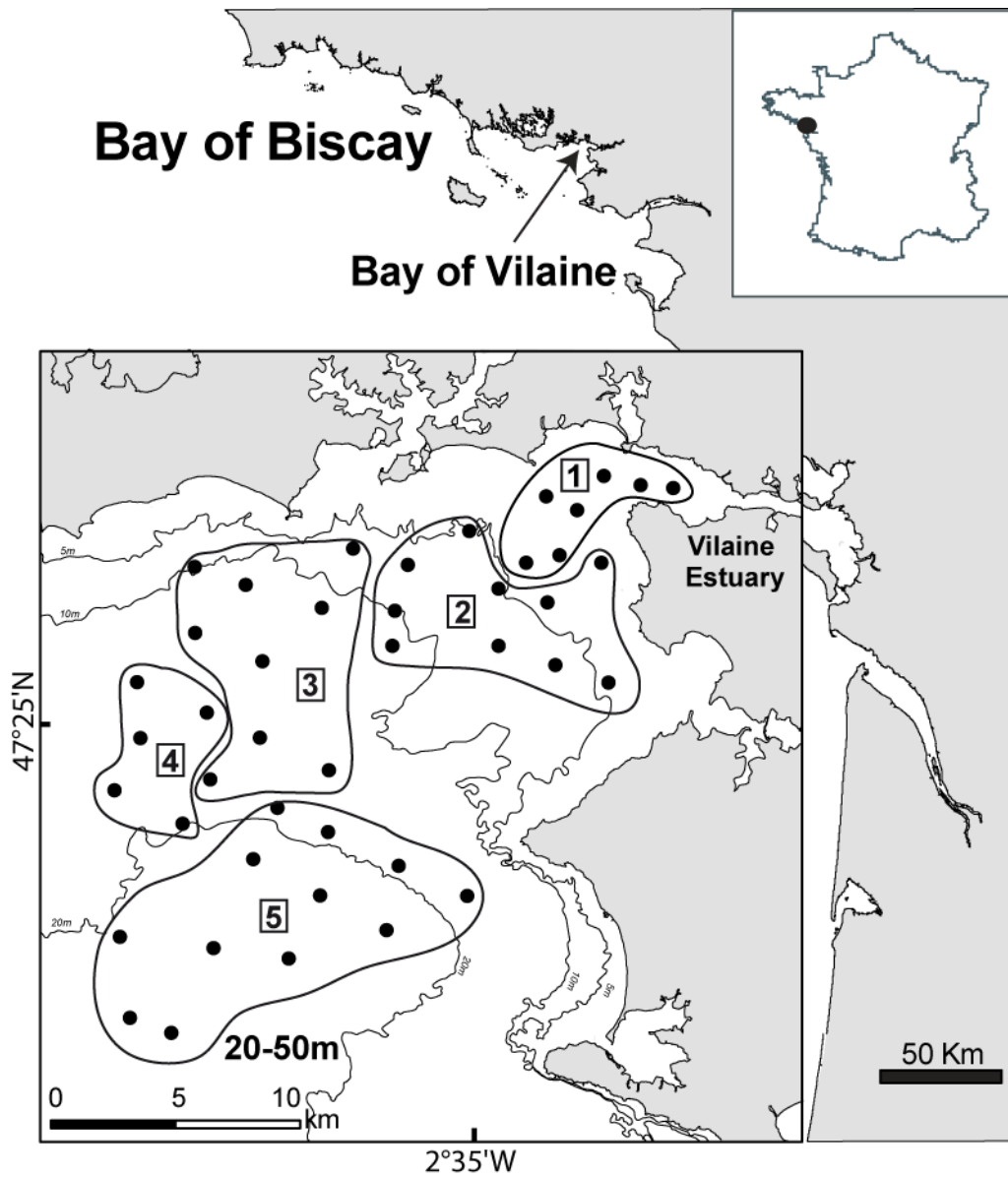
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775 **Fig. 2.** $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (mean \pm SD) for POM, carnivores, deposit- and suspension-
776 feeders, and fish in the five described habitats. The fish were separated in two age classes (G0
777 for the young-of-the-year and G1 for age 1 individuals; see Material and Methods for details).
778 Prey were classified in trophic guilds. Number of individuals of fish and preys in the different
779 habitats are indicated (N).

780

781 **Fig. 3.** Relative abundance (%) of the different trophic guilds in the gut contents of common
782 sole and pouting in the 5 studied habitats (0: G0, 1: G1). No sole was captured in the
783 *Haploops* habitat (H4), nor any sole G0 was observed in the deeper habitat (H5). Prey items
784 in gut contents were classified in trophic guilds, only scavengers are absent from gut contents.
785 Numbers of gut contents analysed are given above the barplot.

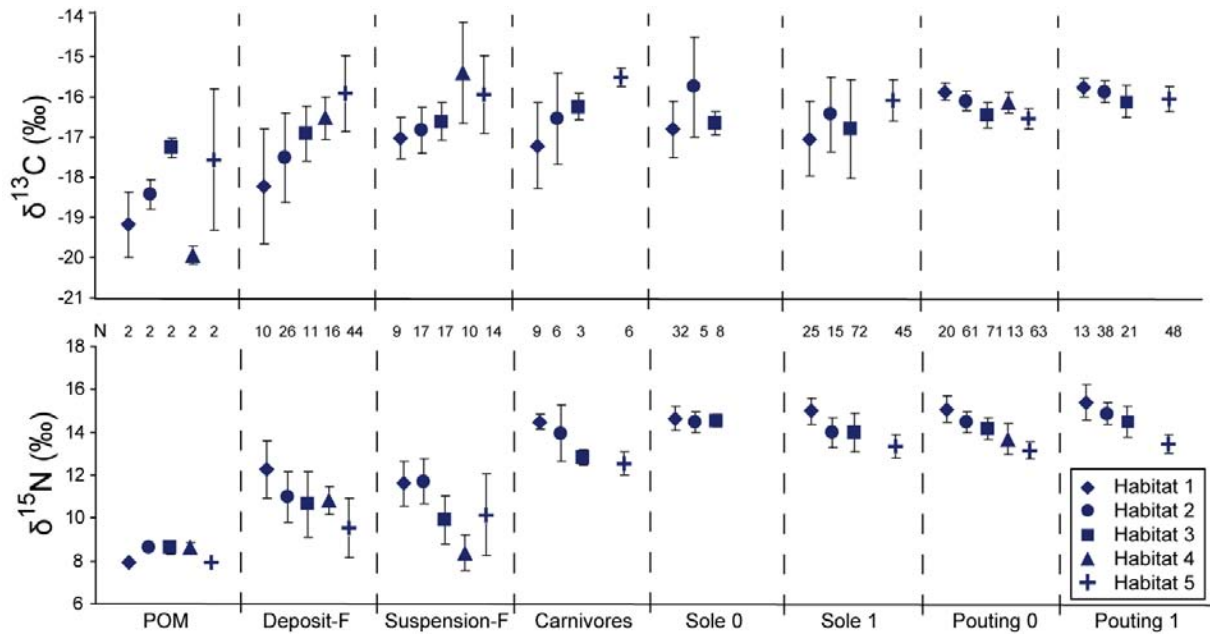
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787 Figure 1

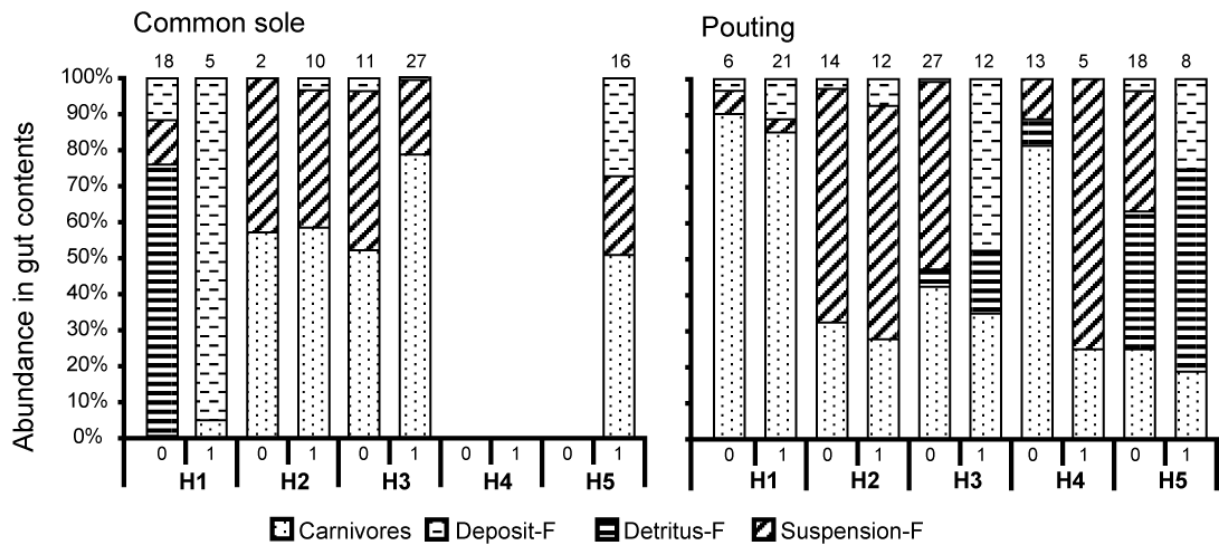
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789 Figure 2

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791 Figure 3