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Temporal variations in scale cortisol indicate consistent local-and broad-scale constraints in a wild marine teleost fish

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Abstract:

Environmental changes can alter the nursery function of coastal areas through their impact on juveniles' growth and survival rates, an effect mediated by individuals' chronic stress response. Fish chronic stress can be quantified using scale cortisol but no study has yet been quantified the spatio-temporal variations in scale cortisol and its relationship with growth in wild nurseries. We collected wild sea bass juveniles (Dicentrarchus labrax, four years, three nurseries) and found that scale cortisol levels increased consistently with age and across cohorts in 2019 and 2020 probably due to greater stress history in older fish and/or heatwaves that occurred in summers of 2018 and 2019. Growth was impaired in fish with high scale cortisol in 2019 and 2020, confirming the usefulness of scale cortisol as a biomarker of broad and local constraints in wild fish; longer time series will enable us to identify environmental factors underpinning these temporal variations.

Highlights

► Environment's effect on individuals' growth is mediated by their chronic stress ► We measured scale cortisol in juvenile sea bass aged 1–4+ during 2017–2020 ► Scale cortisol increased substantially in 2019 and 2020 in all nurseries/age ► High scale cortisol was related to lower growth only in 2019 and 2020 ► Scale cortisol might reflect local to broad-scale environmental constraints

Keywords: Allostatic load, Chronic stress, Fitness, Fish, Growth, Nurseries

40 1. INTRODUCTION

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Global climate changes and ever-increasing anthropogenic activities threaten the functioning of key habitats such as nurseries. Indeed, coastal and estuarine areas often have high concentrations of juveniles of many marine species that feed on their rich benthic communities hereby sustaining juvenile growth (Beck et al., 2001). Nurseries' function, defined as their contribution to the recruitment of new individuals to adult populations (Beck et al., 2001), therefore depends on juveniles' density and their individuals' growth and survival rates. The expression of these two interdependent life history traits (e.g. in fish; Crossin, Cooke, Goldbogen, & Phillips, 2014; Gislason et al., 2010) is optimal within a range of environmental conditions (Stearns, 1992), and deviations from this range are perceived by individuals as threats to their homeostasis (i.e. equilibrium state) triggering a stress response (Greenberg et al., 2002; McEwen & Wingfield, 2003). While acute stress responses to short perceived challenges enable individuals to cope with environmental perturbations (Bonier et al., 2009), chronic stress responses to long-lasting stress factors can have detrimental effects on individuals' life history traits. Indeed, chronic stress affects multiple physiological processes and the energy allocated to the stress response can lead to reduced growth and reproductive investment and ultimately individuals' death (Barton, 2002; Bonier et al., 2009). Therefore, individuals' stress response can increase their fitness in the short-term but will become detrimental if sustained; as such intermediate stress responses (due to intermediate perception or intermediate reactivity) are expected to be optimal (Greenberg et al., 2002). Consequently, the increasing variation in environmental factors exposes juvenile fish to more and more frequent stressful environmental conditions that may affect their life history traits and hence alter nurseries' functioning.

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In fisheries science, physiological markers have primarily been used to reduce bycatch mortality (Farrell et al., 2001; Skomal, 2007) but their broader use as indicators of changes in stocks' states is only becoming more widely recognised (Brosset et al., 2021). Individual stress

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levels can be measured with a wide variety of biomarkers (Barton et al., 2002), generally based on glucocorticoids produced by the hypothalamic-pituitary-interrenal (HPI) axis (Mommsen et al., 1999). Cortisol, the dominant glucocorticoid in teleost fish, is a steroid secreted by steroidogenic cells located in the interrenal glands in response to stress factors (Barton et al., 2002; Das et al., 2018; Faught & Vijayan, 2016) but also under normal conditions (e.g. circadian rhythmicity). When released, cortisol induces changes in multiple physiological processes (e.g. metabolism, immunity, osmoregulation) and growth (Faught & Vijayan, 2016; Mommsen et al., 1999) either by regulating cell functions (Das et al., 2018) or by binding to glucocorticoid or mineralocorticoid receptors (Prunet et al., 2006). In particular, the primary action of cortisol is considered adaptive as it induces the release of glucose in the blood during acute stress response, but in case of chronic stress, it will have detrimental effects on for instance growth (Mommsen et al., 1999). Cortisol, released in the blood, is incorporated in growing scales through the capillaries vascularising the loose dermis separating scale pockets (Carbajal et al., 2019; Sire et al., 1997) and its measurement reflects individuals' overall stress history (Aerts et al., 2015; Laberge et al., 2019). Therefore, scale cortisol is probably the best suited parameter/tissue combination to investigate chronic stress, as this method provides a retrospective view on HPI axis (re)activity, enabling to quantify and understand long-term constraints exerted by the environment on individuals (Aerts et al., 2015; Hanke et al., 2019; Sadoul & Geffroy, 2019; Weirup et al., 2021). It has been demonstrated that scale cortisol is independent of acute stress responses and integrates the (re)activity of the HPI axis retrospectively over time (Aerts et al., 2015; Carbajal et al., 2019; Laberge et al., 2019; Samaras et al., 2021). Consequently, scale cortisol has been used to quantify fish welfare (e.g. Goikoetxea et al., 2021; Hanke et al., 2019, Weirup et al., 2021), and only recently have been used in the wild to study hierarchies in social fish (Culbert et al., 2021) or lake pollution (Carbajal et al., 2019). As the use of scale cortisol in the wild has yet been limited in scope (single years, few sites, limited sampling), there is a clear need for larger scale studies quantifying the effect of environmental variations on fish scale cortisol levels across multiple

ages and sites to determine its applicability as indicator of environmental constraints on wild teleost fish.

The European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*, Moronidae) sustains major commercial and recreative fisheries along western European coasts (Zarauz et al., 2015), but its stocks have been declining due to the conjunction of high harvest rates and poor recruitments (ICES, 2020). As sea bass juveniles grow in coastal and estuarine nurseries for *ca.* four years, declines in recruitment rates can be due to the degradation of their nurseries (Beck et al., 2001; Dahlgren et al., 2006). Estuaries are particularly favourable areas for the development of sea bass juveniles as they are rich in prey (e.g. small crabs, shrimps, and fish such as sprat; Aprahamian & Barr, 1985; Kelley, 1987) and/or hold multiple shelter opportunities favouring predator avoidance (Courrat et al., 2009). However, estuaries are also complex habitats with highly variable environments (e.g. oxygenation, salinity, turbidity, temperature, and hydrodynamics; Levin & Stunz, 2005). Species growing in estuarine nurseries are well-adapted to these variations (Elliott & Quintino, 2007), but strong anthropogenic pressures (e.g. pollution, acidification, hypoxia) can impair the growth and survival of sea bass juveniles (e.g. Breitburg et al., 2018; Vasseur et al., 2014) and might explain the decline in recruitments rates of this species.

In this framework, we sampled juveniles of the European sea bass to determine how environmental constraints impact this species using scale cortisol. Sea bass juveniles (aged 1 to 4 years) were sampled in four consecutive years in three major estuarine nurseries along France's Western coast (i.e. Gironde, Loire, and Seine estuaries). We first quantified the spatio-temporal variation in scale cortisol to determine whether scale cortisol levels differed among nurseries; we had no *a priori* expectation as these estuaries hold wide catchment areas, many large urban areas, and industries with high historical contamination levels. We also tested the hypothesis that scale cortisol levels increased with fish age. Two processes underpin this hypothesis: the accumulation of stressful experiences over time and/or juveniles

acclimation to habitats with increasing salinity (mediated by cortisol; McCormick, 2001) as they move downstream up to age 3-4 (Roy et al., 2022). We then quantified changes in scale cortisol concentrations within cohorts and nurseries to determine whether there are consistent changes across nurseries (suggesting broad scale environmental effects) or inconsistent across nurseries (suggesting local environmental effects). We finally tested the hypothesis that juvenile growth is related to their stress levels, but that only particularly high stress levels have a negative effect on growth. More specifically, we expected that the effect of cortisol on fish growth is dependent on individuals' age and sampling year as, for instance, young fish may be particularly sensitive to high stress levels and years with elevated cortisol levels might be those in which more deleterious effects of cortisol can be observed.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1 Data collection

Adult sea bass spawn mainly offshore between mid-January and June. After hatching, larvae drift towards the coasts and colonise estuaries or sheltered bays where juveniles grow (Le Goff et al., 2017). At *ca.* age four, sea bass juveniles leave nurseries to reach fattening and breeding areas. Sea bass juveniles were collected during the NOURDEM survey (Drogou et al., 2019) which aims at quantifying the abundance of juveniles of demersal fish in Loire (since 2016), Seine (since 2017), and Gironde (since 2019). The survey takes place every year in early-July (Loire), early August (Seine), and early-September (Gironde), with dates slightly varying to minimize tidal currents and changes in upstream salinity limits. In each estuary, *ca.* 70 tows were performed onboard of local professional trawlers from upstream salinity limits to estuaries' mouth. These boats were chosen to enable the sampling of foreshore areas at midtides (*ca.* 10 m long, draughts < 2 m; Le Goff et al., 2017). Tows lasted 15 min (+2 to -4 min) with a traction speed set at 3.5 knots with the Ifremer's 'NOURDEM GOV Trawling net'. This bottom otter-trawl was specifically designed to capture juveniles of demersal fish of a minimum size of 3 to 4 cm with its 7 m width, 2.40 m height and 18 mm terminal meshes (Le Goff et al.,

2017). We sampled fish throughout each estuary according to the limits of the known size distributions (ages 1: 15-23 cm, age 2: 23-30 cm, ages 3+: >30 cm) in 2017-2020 (Loire and Seine) and 2019-2020 (Gironde). After each tow, fish were sorted and sea bass juveniles with length consistent with target sizes were euthanized and stored frozen at -20 °C until further treatment in the laboratory (all other sea bass juveniles were released alive, major injuries being rare; Le Goff et al. 2017). We targeted a maximum of 20 individuals per size class in each size in each year, but the actual sample size in each age class differed once actual ages were determined. Authorization and ethical approval for fish sampling provided by national (DPMA) and regional authorities (Normandie, Pays de la Loire, Nouvelle Aquitaine); National & regional committees of professional fishermen (CNPMEM, CRPM Normandie; COREPMEM Pays de la Loire, CRPMEM Nouvelle Aquitaine) for 2017-2018 (Ref. 18/2 216 097 AVT1) and 2019-2020 (Ref. Osiris PFEA400018DM0310001; ref. Ifremer: 18/2216441).

2.2 Laboratory measurements

Once in the laboratory, fish were thawed and individuals' total body length (nearest 0.5 cm), total uneviscerated weight (± 0.2 g), and liver weight (± 0.01 g) were measured. Where possible, we recorded the sex of the fish and maturity stage (through visual inspection), and we sampled sagittal otoliths to determine fish age based on the number of growth rings. As there were only a few individuals aged 5 years in the dataset, these fish were combined with those aged 4 (Suppl. Table 1). Ontogenetic scales were sampled in a standardized manner on the left flank and dorsal to the lateral line, transported and stored at -20 °C. After removal of the mucus using Milli-Q water, scales were dried, weighted, and homogenized using PowerBead tubes (ceramic 2.8 mm, Qiagen) in a bead ruptor (PowerLyzer 24, Qiagen; see Aerts et al. 2015 for more details). Extraction, ultra-purification and subsequent ultra-performance liquid chromatography coupled to tandem mass spectrometry analysis (UPLC-MS/MS; Xevo TQS, Waters, Milford, USA) were performed as described in Aerts et al. (2015). Altogether, scale cortisol was quantified for 721 sea bass juveniles. We conducted a preliminary test of the method based on ca. 100 fish per site in 2019 and subsequently

measured cortisol concentrations for ca. 60 fish per site in 2017, 2018, and 2020 (the number of fish analysed per age differs in 2019 and 2020 as individuals' age were not known when we selected the samples to be analysed; Table A.1). On average, scale cortisol levels were quantified using 61.5 mg of dry scales per fish (sd: 32.7, range: 5.0-215.0) which consisted of 99 scales per fish on average (sd: 78.3, range: 22-493). None of the samples were observed to have a scale cortisol level below the detection limit (CCa = 0.0001 µg.kg⁻¹) of the UPLC-MS/MS method used (full technical details can be found in Aerts et al. 2015).

2.3 Data analyses

Scale cortisol concentrations were log-transformed (base 10) to account for the strong right skew of this variables' distribution (Shapiro-Wilk test, W = 0.421, P < 0.001, N = 721). We tested whether there were differences in scale cortisol between ages, years, nursery, and the interactions between age and year using a linear mixed model. The random effect of this model consisted in a compound variable combining cohorts' identity and nursery's identification code to account for the non-independence of cortisol levels measured in consecutive ages of the same cohort within each nursery. The model did not include a three-way interaction between age, nursery and year as the absence of data from Gironde in 2017 and 2018 led to rank deficiencies. We calculated the intra-class correlation to quantify the amount of variance explained by the within nursery correlation in the cortisol levels of the same cohort as:

$$\frac{d^2}{\hat{d}^2 + \hat{\sigma}^2}$$

where \hat{d}^2 is the variance explained by the random intercepts and $\hat{\sigma}^2$ the residual variance (Zuur et al., 2007). We estimated parameters using maximum likelihood and compared the relative performance of the models based on their Akaike Information Criterion for small sample size (AICc) using the r-package 'MuMIn' 1.43.17 (Barton, 2020). All mixed effect models were implemented in the r package 'nlme' (Pinheiro et al., 2021).

We then tested the hypothesis that high scale cortisol levels led to a decline in individuals' growth using generalised additive models. These models contained individuals' age, sampling year, and their interaction as cofactors to account for (i) year differences in length and scale cortisol levels, and (ii) the increase in length and scale cortisol with age (using age as a cofactor leads to the estimate of the effect of cortisol on individuals' length within each age category, and hence the effect of cortisol on individuals' growth). The smoothing function of scale cortisol was therefore estimated separately by age, year, and their interaction in different models. We set the maximum number of knots to 5 to limit the risks of over-parameterisation. We started from the most complex model with the interaction Age*Year as a cofactor and smoothing specific to each Age*Year category and simplified the terms of this model. We did not undertake this analysis in the 2017 age category 4+ as there were only 11 fish in this age-year class. We then compared the performance of these models using AlCs. We did not take into account differences in the scale cortisol levels among nurseries because of the lack of samples in specific age-year-site categories (Table A.1). All generalised additive models were implemented using the r-package 'mgcv' v1.8-31 (Wood et al., 2011, 2016).

3. RESULTS

Across all observations (N=721), the raw scale cortisol levels in sea bass juveniles ranged from 0.0008-14.751 μ g.kg⁻¹ with a median of 0.169 μ g.kg⁻¹ (IQR: 0.029-0.642 μ g.kg⁻¹). There was substantial variation in scale cortisol level (Table A.1) which were primarily explained by individuals' age and sampling year (Table 1). The second best model had a slightly lower performance than the best model (Δ AIC = 1.00) and included the sampling nurseries in addition to individuals' age and sampling year (Table 1). The performance of all other models was lower (Δ AICc > 14; Table 1; Table A.2). Therefore, scale cortisol increased with individuals' age, an effect consistent across nurseries and cohorts (Figure 1, Tables A.1 and A.2). The sampling year had also a strong influence on scale cortisol levels, with a very large increase between 2018 and 2019, an effect again consistent across ages and cohorts (Figure 1, Tables A.1 and

A.2). The difference in scale cortisol between nurseries was clearly weaker than age and year differences (Tables A.1 and A.2). Finally, the strong effect of the sampling year on the scale cortisol levels led to a low intra-class correlation (ICC = 0.046).

Table 1: Relative performance of models testing the effect of individuals' age, sampling year and nursery on their scale cortisol levels. Table entries: number of parameters (K), Log-likelihood (LogLik), Akaike's Information Criterion for small sample sizes (AICc), difference in AICc values relative to the best model (Δ AICc), model weight (w_i). Interaction terms are noted with ':' between two main effects.

Parameters	K	logLik	AICc	ΔAICc	Wi
Age+Year	9	-622.59	1263.40	0.00	0.62
Age+Year+Nursery	11	-621.03	1264.40	1.00	0.38
Age+Year+Nursery+Age:Year	20	-618.30	1277.80	14.36	0.00
Age+Year+Age:Year	18	-620.57	1278.10	14.68	0.00
Year	6	-649.44	1311.00	47.56	0.00
Year+Nursery	8	-648.73	1313.70	50.22	0.00
Age	6	-818.44	1649.00	385.56	0.00
Age+Nursery	8	-817.59	1651.40	387.95	0.00
Nursery	5	-900.22	1810.50	547.09	0.00
Null model	3	-904.36	1814.80	551.31	0.00

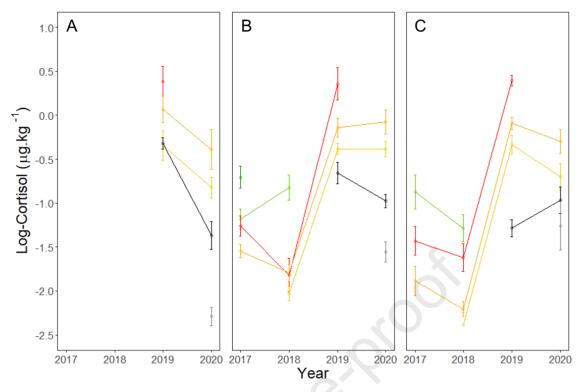


Figure 1. Changes in scale cortisol levels in sea bass juveniles sampled in three estuarine nurseries: Gironde (panel A), Loire (panel B), and Seine (panel C). Dots represent the averages of scale cortisol concentrations for each age within each nursery and their associated standard error. Lines connect the consecutive ages of each cohort that are represented with different colours (dark green: 2014, light green: 2015, red: 2016, orange: 2017, yellow: 2018, black: 2019, grey: 2020).

Individuals' scale cortisol concentrations influenced the growth of sea bass juveniles and this effect differed substantially among years and ages. Indeed, the two best models contained smoothing specific to each age and year category (Table 2) and year and age as cofactors or as an interaction for the second best model (Table 2). The adjusted R² and deviance explained by these two models are similar, but the model without the interaction is more parsimonious (Table 2). In this model, the effect of scale cortisol on fish growth differs substantially across ages and years (Table A.3), being significant in fish aged 1, 2, 3, and 4+ in 2019, and in fish aged 2 and 3 in 2020. Overall, increasing levels of scale cortisol levels were associated with higher growth (Fig. 2B, C, F) when scale cortisol was below *ca.* 1 µg.kg-1 (following back

transformation). Fish with scale cortisol levels beyond this level had a lower growth in some age-year combinations (Fig. 2A, D, E; Table A.3) but not others indicating a clear context dependence of this non-linear relationship.

Table 2. Relative performance of models testing the effect of individuals' scale cortisol concentration on their growth. Age and years were used as cofactors to account for systematic differences in length and cortisol. The smoothing parameters were estimated for each year, age and age-year combinations ('Age*Year'). Table entries: number of degrees of freedom (df), adjusted R-squared (Adj. R²), Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC), and differences in AICc values relative to the best model (ΔAIC).

Factors	Smoothing	Df	Adj. R²	Deviance	AIC	ΔΑΙC
Age+Year	Age*Year	33.44	0.878	0.884	6634.3	0.0
Age*Year	Age*Year	42.46	0.880	0.886	6636.0	1.8
Age	Age*Year	40.32	0.878	0.884	6645.0	10.8
Age*Year	Year	25.45	0.875	0.879	6645.7	11.5
Age+Year	Year	17.67	0.873	0.876	6651.2	17.0
Age*Year	Age	24.85	0.874	0.878	6652.0	17.8
Age+Year	Age	17.25	0.870	0.872	6668.0	33.7
Age	Year	15.75	0.862	0.865	6704.9	70.6
Year	Age*Year	52.30	0.859	0.869	6756.2	121.9
Age	Age	14.81	0.842	0.845	6800.4	166.2
Year	Age	16.01	0.422	0.434	7724.1	1,089.8
Year	Year	12.53	0.359	0.368	7794.7	1,160.5

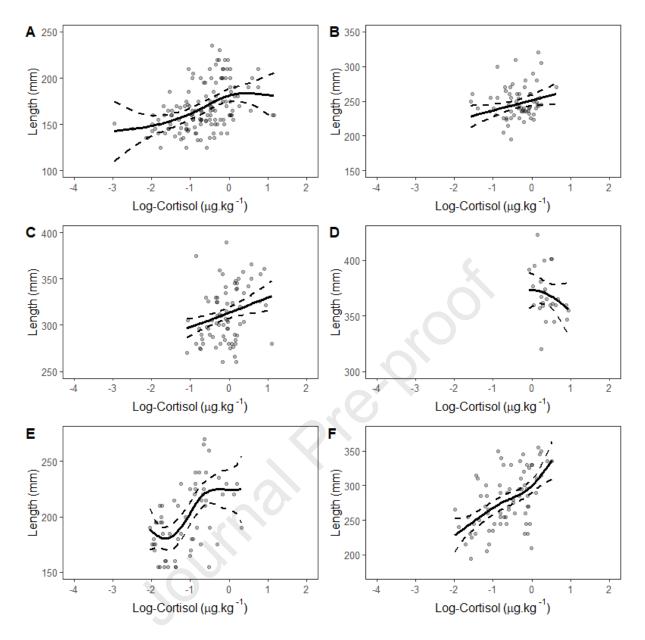


Figure 2. Estimated smooth curves of the effect of scale cortisol concentrations (log-transformed) on the growth of sea bass juveniles. Smooth curves were estimated across nurseries for each age in each year and are represented with their 95% confidence intervals. Panels present the age-year combinations with significant effects: Age 1 in 2019 (Panel A), Age 2 in 2019 (Panel B), Age 3 in 2019 (Panel C), Age 4+ in 2019 (Panel D), Age 2 in 2020 (Panel E), Age 3 in 2020 (Panel F). The same x-axes were used to facilitate the comparison of scale cortisol levels in the different age and year categories (y-axes differ to facilitate the representation of the effects).

4. DISCUSSION

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Several studies have validated the usefulness of scale cortisol as a quantitative biomarker of chronic stress in the lab (Aerts et al., 2015; Laberge et al., 2019; Samaras et al., 2021) but to date the application of this method to wild fish has been limited. In wild sea bass juveniles, we found that the sampling year had by far the greatest effect, scale cortisol levels being lowest in 2017 and 2018 but substantially higher in 2019 and remained high in 2020 (an effect consistent across ages and nurseries). Even though sea bass juveniles were not sampled in Gironde in 2017 and 2018, the high scale cortisol levels in all ages measured in 2019 and 2020 (significantly higher than those observed in Seine) in this nursery supports strongly the idea that sea bass juveniles responded to a very broad scale of stress factors. As the production of cortisol and its subsequent incorporation in growing ontogenetic scales can be due to a wide variety of environmental factors (e.g. salinity, oxygenation, temperature, illnesses, predation) it is not yet possible to directly test for a specific effect and, as such, we discuss three potential non-exclusive effects: chemical contaminations, river flow, and water temperature. Firstly, it is unlikely that pollution or chemical contaminants (i.e. trace metal elements or organic contaminants) would have led to such a consistent broad-scale increase in scale cortisol as each nursery has a specific contamination profile (Lebigre et al., 2022). For instance, Gironde is characterised by high levels of cadmium, DDTs, and dieldrin (Claisse, 1989; Lanceleur et al., 2011), Loire by high levels of lead and vanadium (Claisse, 1989; Couture et al., 2010), and Seine by high levels of silver and polychlorinated biphenyls (Chiffoleau et al., 2005). As these contaminants have different origins, it is unlikely that they would increase simultaneously in the three estuaries. Secondly, as cortisol mediates fish acclimation to salinity, changes in river flow (and salinity levels) might influence the variance in scale cortisol. This is however unlikely as the main flooding events in France occurred in May-June 2016 and February 2018. These floods would have influenced the scale cortisol levels of fish sampled in summer 2017 and 2018 but these had substantially lower scale cortisol levels than those collected in 2019 and 2020. Moreover, sea bass juveniles move along the estuary to adjust the salinity level of their habitat, a behavioural adjustment that they undertake daily with tides (Roy et al., 2022), which might explain that flooding is a relatively weak stress factor. Finally, rapid increases in water temperature and/or prolonged exposures to high (or low) temperatures are well-known stressors to fish (e.g. Hanke et al., 2019), and may explain the large-scale increase in scale cortisol that we observed. Indeed, two heatwaves took place in July-August 2018 (an intermediate intensity but long lasting; Bastos et al., 2020) and two very intense heatwaves took place in June and July 2019 (Vautard et al., 2020). These heatwayes might have induced a prolonged and chronic stress response, that were observed in samples collected in the following summers (2019 and 2020) due to the time needed for the growing scales to incorporate cortisol (days to weeks; Gormally & Romero, 2020). It has already been shown experimentally that scale cortisol can reliably reflect chronic thermal stress (Goikoetxea et al., 2021) and that fish exposed to mild and gradual increasing temperatures have an increase in scale cortisol levels (Hanke et al., 2019). Clearly, only a longer time series would enable to quantify the relative contribution of multiple stress factors to the variance in scale cortisol in the wild and enable us to identify the factors that might underpin such large temporal variation in sea bass scale cortisol.

The second most important factor explaining the variance in scale cortisol levels in sea bass juveniles was their age: scale cortisol increased in a consistent way across nurseries and cohorts from one age class to another. Even during the steep increase in scale cortisol during 2018-2019, the older age classes had consistently higher scale cortisol than their younger counterparts. This result can be explained by two non-exclusive processes: an accumulation of stressful events (and as such a longer period of cortisol production) with age and/or the gradual adaptation of older fish to seawater. Cortisol is progressively incorporated in growing scales and even though a previous study mentioned a potential clearance (Laberge et al., 2019) multiple studies have shown that scale cortisol accurately reflects medium to very long-term history of individuals' stress levels (Carbajal et al., 2019; Samaras et al., 2021). Estuaries are considered as naturally stressful areas because of the high variations of their

environmental characteristics relative to their neighbouring coastal and marine areas (e.g. oxygen, temperature, pH, turbidity, and salinity; Hughes et al., 2015; Le Guen et al., 2019; Vasconcelos et al., 2007). Species living in these habitats are however well-adapted to such variations and experimental studies have shown that fish stress responses can decline as they age and acclimate to the stress factors they are exposed to (Barton & Schreck, 1987; Maule & Schreck, 1991). Therefore, the increase in scale cortisol with age in sea bass juveniles suggests that older fish that have been gradually changing their habitat towards the estuaries mouth, did not really acclimate to stress factors, and that these changes in habitat might be associated with the encounter of new stress factors. Furthermore, sea bass juveniles progressively move towards the mouth of the estuaries and it is well established that cortisol mediates the acclimation of teleost fish to increasing salinity as it increases ions' secretion from gills by stimulating the proliferation and growth of gill chloride cells (McCormick, 2001). As changes in salinity also act as a stress factor, it might be difficult to disentangling the effect of more stressful events as fish age and changes in salinity but these results clearly show that understanding factors underpinning the variance in scale cortisol requires to account for ageand/or experience-specific effects.

Finally, we found a slight difference in scale cortisol levels between nurseries, with sea bass juveniles sampled in Gironde and Loire having slightly higher scale cortisol levels than those sampled in Seine. This effect is consistent with other studies showing that the productivity and quality of nurseries may differ (Amara, Meziane, Gilliers, Hermel, & Laffargue, 2007; Courrat et al., 2009; Hughes et al., 2015; Vasconcelos et al., 2007). For instance, the levels of anthropogenic activity was consistent with differences in key phenotypic parameters (growth, body condition) in common sole (*Solea solea*; Amara et al., 2007), contamination indices were related to species density and richness (Courrat et al., 2009), and climatic variations influenced nursery productivity (Hughes et al., 2015). A previous study has also shown that scale cortisol levels could differ substantially among sampling sites at a relatively small scale (Hanke et al., 2020). We do not yet have information regarding the productivity of these estuaries for sea

bass juveniles, measurements of juvenile abundances being currently developed (Le Goff et al., 2017; Roy, Lebigre, Drogou, & Woillez, 2022). As sea bass juveniles sampled in these estuaries have different contamination profiles (Lebigre et al., 2022), some of them could have acted as additional stress factors, while others would not (Bechshøft et al., 2012; Brodeur et al., 1997). Further studies are therefore clearly needed to identify the processes underpinning such differences among nurseries in fish chronic stress levels.

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The overall scale cortisol levels that we have measured are broadly consistent and in the lower range of previous studies measuring this biomarker in wild fish. With a median of 0.156 µg.kg⁻¹ 1, wild sea bass juveniles have similar scale cortisol levels to those of wild milkfish (Chano chano) across 4 sampling sites ca. 0.04-0.12 µg.kg⁻¹ (Hanke et al., 2020), but lower that those reported in Neolamprologus pulcher males and females (1.49 and 3.50 µg.kg⁻¹ across fish for which cortisol could be measured; Culbert et al., 2021), yellow-fin tuna (Thunnus albacares; 1.65 μg.kg⁻¹; Roque d'orbcastel et al., 2021), skipjack tuna (*Katsuwonus pelamis*; 4.75 μg.kg⁻¹ 1; Roque d'orbcastel et al., 2021) and two Catalan chub populations (Squalius laietanus; ca. 32 µg.kg⁻¹ and 30 µg.kg⁻¹ Carbajal et al., 2019). These interspecific differences can stem from many factors (e.g. life histories, stress histories, sampled ages, environmental variability, coping abilities), hence it might only be possible to understand these variations by measuring scale cortisol in other wild fish species. On a logarithmic scale, the greatest difference in scale cortisol levels between consecutive ages is 2.176 µg.kg⁻¹ (from -1.619 to 0.357 µg.kg⁻¹ between the ages 3 and 4+ in Loire 2018-2019 on a logarithmic scale of base 10; Table A.1). This increase represents an increase by 2 orders of magnitude in scale cortisol levels. It is not yet possible to compare this maximum rate of increase to other wild fish species as previous studies lacked longitudinal data to quantify temporal changes in scale cortisol levels within cohorts. The low detection limit of the UPLC-MS/MS method used in our study (0.0001 µg.kg⁻¹ 1) enabled us to measure very low scale cortisol levels for many sea bass juveniles, which in turns underpins to some extent the very large increase in scale cortisol levels that we have detected. Two experimental studies showed that fish exposed to warm temperatures had a 10fold increase in scale cortisol (Goikoetxea et al., 2021) and a 1.43-fold increase (Hanke et al., 2019). However, direct comparisons of these rates increases with our data is not really possible because (i) scale cortisol levels in the first experimental study were very high and might have dampened fish stress response to warm conditions (2,100 µg.kg⁻¹ for the control treatment in Goikoetxea et al., 2021), (ii) the second study aimed at measuring the effect of warming over very short periods (21 days, Hanke et al., 2019) and hence was unlikely to detect extremely high responses in scale cortisol levels, (iii) the acclimation of fish to laboratory conditions might have to changed in the regulation of their primary stress response, and (iv) we would need to measure in wild fish the effect of water temperature on the variance of scale cortisol levels while accounting for other stress factors (this would require longer time series).

The differences in scale cortisol among ages and years had a strong influence on the relationship between individuals' growth and their scale cortisol level. Indeed, there was no significant effect across the 8 age-year classes in 2017 and 2018 (Table A.1), suggesting that sea bass juveniles had stress levels that were probably too low to induce any deleterious effect during these years. Conversely, there were clear relationships between scale cortisol and the growth of sea bass juveniles in 2019 and 2020 in which fish with higher scale cortisol levels had higher growth (Fig. 2A, B, C, E, F) but this relationship declined when fish had particularly high scale cortisol levels (Fig. 2A, E), and eventually the relationship became negative (Fig. 2D). Obviously, there are many factors that influence fish growth (many of which cannot be estimated in the wild) and the absence of relationship in 2017 and 2018 suggests that external factors underpin substantially the magnitude (and shape) of this relationship. It is possible that during these particularly warm years, the metabolism of sea bass juveniles was accelerated leading faster growth but also higher stress. The plateau of this relationship probably reflects the deleterious effects of too high stress levels, consistent with the idea that there is an optimal stress level and that fish with elevated chronic stress levels do have lower growth (Korte, Koolhaas, Wingfield, & McEwen, 2005; McEwen & Wingfield, 2003). Such significant nonlinear relationships between scale cortisol and growth in years when the overall level of scale

cortisol was high is a good example of the year, site, and age dependency of the relationship between stress levels and fitness (Bonier et al., 2009). This context-dependence is often put forward to explain the large variation in effect sizes between studies and, for instance, no significant difference in scale cortisol and fish size was recently found in tunas (Roque d'orbcastel et al., 2021).

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There was no consistent decline in growth at very high cortisol levels suggesting that cortisol levels were either not yet high enough to induce a steep decline in growth or that the fish with very high cortisol levels have died further supporting the detrimental effect of long-term upregulated cortisol levels and subsequent increased mortality. As fish size is positively linked to their survival rate (Crossin, Cooke, Goldbogen, & Phillips, 2014; Gislason et al., 2010; Pauly, 1980), fish with very high stress levels and low growth may have died before sampling. When sequential fitness components are considered separately, viability selection at an early (unmeasured) stage can lead to substantial underestimates of the magnitude of selection (the 'missing fraction issue', e.g. Hadfield, 2008) and even change the direction observed selection gradients. Fully understanding the degree to which chronic stress is related to survival would therefore require estimating the chronic stress of tagged individuals and measure their short, medium and long-term survival rates. However, setting up such an investigation in a wild population would be very challenging, requiring a very large sampling effort, high recapture/recovery probability, and might prove impossible especially for the youngest age classes in which the decline in survival of highly stress fish might be the strongest. On the other hand, a large scale sampling campaign over an extended period would be more feasible. Similarly, cortisol production is often sex-specific (Idler & Freeman, 1968) but as gonads were not developed enough to enable us to accurately determine each individuals' sex, we cannot test the hypothesis that females have higher scale cortisol levels than males.

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5. CONCLUSION

Overall, the consistent increase in scale cortisol with age in all nurseries and years, and the consistent increase in cortisol with time in two nurseries separated by *ca.* 300 km clearly indicates that scale cortisol can be used as a quantitative biomarker for broad- and local-scale constraints (chronic stress) in wild fish. We observed clear non-linear effects of scale cortisol on juveniles' growth but only in years in which scale cortisol was particularly high. This effect suggests that when environmental conditions induce high levels of chronic stress, reflected in high scale cortisol levels, they might also impair fish growth and hence potentially other fitness components that we cannot yet measure (survival, reproductive investment). Longer-term data are clearly needed to enable us to quantify the relative contribution of various environmental variables to the variance in scale cortisol and pinpoint the environmental factor(s) causing chronic stress in juvenile sea bass.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS:

CL and JA conceived the ideas and designed methodology; MD and RLG led the overall data collection, CL, MW, HR, JM, MD, RLG, AS, JH, MV carried out scale cortisol analyses; CL, MW, and JM analysed

the data; CL and JA led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and
gave final approval for publication.
DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT
Datasets used in these analyses are available in the Archimer repository.
CONFLICT OF INTEREST:
None

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Table A.1. Summary table of the mean scale cortisol concentrations (log-transformed) per year, sampling site ('Nursery'), age, and cohorts. Standard deviations (SD) and standard errors (SE) are provided (sample sizes). Sea bass juveniles were sampled in three large nurseries of France's western coast (Gironde, Loire, and Seine). Fish aged over 4 years old were pooled in a single class and no survey took place in Gironde in 2017 and 2018.

Year	Nursery	Age	N	Cohort	Cortisol concentration	SD	SE
2017	Loire	1	19	2016	-1.544	0.325	0.075
2017	Loire	2	9	2015	-1.261	0.340	0.113
2017	Loire	3	20	2014	-1.180	0.509	0.114
2017	Loire	4+	11	2013	-0.707	0.415	0.125
2017	Seine	1	20	2016	-1.886	0.748	0.167
2017	Seine	2	20	2015	-1.431	0.715	0.160
2017	Seine	3	20	2014	-0.873	0.872	0.195
2018	Loire	1	19	2017	-2.029	0.356	0.082
2018	Loire	2	19	2016	-1.796	0.425	0.098
2018	Loire	3	5	2015	-1.818	0.426	0.190
2018	Loire	4+	14	2014	-0.822	0.542	0.145
2018	Seine	1	15	2017	-2.386	0.567	0.142
2018	Seine	2	15	2016	-2.206	0.308	0.082
2018	Seine	3	16	2015	-1.619	0.624	0.156
2018	Seine	4+	17	2014	-1.287	0.642	0.156
2019	Gironde	1	62	2018	-0.319	0.511	0.065
2019	Gironde	2	10	2017	-0.342	0.532	0.168
2019	Gironde	3	9	2016	0.069	0.446	0.149
2019	Gironde	4+	3	2015	0.387	0.293	0.169
2019	Loire	1	36	2018	-0.658	0.723	0.120
2019	Loire	2	32	2017	-0.382	0.349	0.062
2019	Loire	3	19	2016	-0.142	0.474	0.109
2019	Loire	4+	4	2015	0.357	0.368	0.184
2019	Seine	1	39	2018	-1.285	0.599	0.096
2019	Seine	2	23	2017	-0.336	0.521	0.109
2019	Seine	3	46	2016	-0.091	0.464	0.068
2019	Seine	4+	19	2015	0.396	0.261	0.060
2020	Gironde	1	3	2019	-2.291	0.178	0.103
2020	Gironde	2	22	2018	-1.370	0.738	0.157
2020	Gironde	3	27	2017	-0.825	0.629	0.121
2020	Gironde	4+	8	2016	-0.390	0.638	0.225
2020	Loire	1	11	2019	-1.555	0.380	0.114
2020	Loire	2	20	2018	-0.977	0.333	0.074
2020	Loire	3	25	2017	-0.383	0.439	0.088
2020	Loire	4+	4	2016	-0.076	0.273	0.136
2020	Seine	1	4	2019	-1.258	0.556	0.278
2020	Seine	2	18	2018	-0.966	0.645	0.152
2020	Seine	3	20	2017	-0.699	0.675	0.151
2020	Seine	4+	18	2016	-0.296	0.584	0.138

Table A.2. Output summary of the two best models explaining the variance in scale cortisol across sampling nursery, sampling years, and sea bass juveniles' age. These two models have Δ AICc below 2. Differences between levels of each of the categorical variables are also provided (β) with their associated standard error (SE), t-ratio (t), and their p-value (P)

Model	Variable	X^2	df	Р	Levels	β	SE	t	P
Age+Year	Age	174.8	3	< 0.001	-	-	-		-
					Age 1-Age 2	-0.308	0.062	-4.940	< 0.001
					Age 1-Age 3	-0.703	0.073	-9.704	< 0.001
					Age 1-Age 4+	-1.165	0.092	-12.656	< 0.001
					Age 2-Age 3	-0.395	0.064	-6.191	< 0.001
					Age 2-Age 4+	-0.857	0.084	-10.243	< 0.001
					Age 3-Age 4+	-0.462	0.076	-6.073	< 0.001
	Year	567.3	3	< 0.001	- (-	-		-
					2017-2018	0.567	0.079	7.197	< 0.001
					2017-2019	-0.981	0.075	-13.005	< 0.001
					2017-2020	-0.288	0.090	-3.195	0.008
					2018-2019	-1.548	0.069	-22.360	< 0.001
					2018-2020	-0.855	0.081	-10.532	< 0.001
					2019-2020	0.693	0.060	11.527	< 0.001
Age+Year+Nursery	Age	213.3	3	< 0.001	-	-	-		-
,	J				Age 1-Age 2	-0.315	0.061	-5.139	< 0.001
					Age 1-Age 3	-0.711	0.068	-10.525	< 0.001
					Age 1-Age 4+	-1.164	0.085	-13.742	< 0.001
					Age 2-Age 3	-0.396	0.062	-6.389	< 0.001
					Age 2-Age 4+	-0.849	0.079	-10.707	< 0.001
					Age 3-Age 4+	-0.453	0.075	-6.077	< 0.001
	Year	575.6	3	< 0.001	-	-	-		-
					2017-2018	0.553	0.078	7.120	< 0.001
					2017-2019	-0.985	0.073	-13.575	< 0.001
					2017-2020	-0.282	0.085	-3.303	0.006
					2018-2019	-1.538	0.069	-22.419	< 0.001
					2018-2020	-0.835	0.079	-10.532	< 0.001
					2019-2020	0.704	0.059	11.873	< 0.001
	Nursery	4.5	2	0.1051	_	-	-		-
	,				Gironde-Seine	0.135	0.093	1.447	0.343
					Gironde-Loire	-0.012	0.094	-0.125	0.991
					Seine-Loire	-0.146	0.074	-1.979	0.152
					23.110 20.110	00	3.0. 1		

Table A.3. Parameters of the smooth terms relating cortisol to fish growth for each age class and year (best generalised additive model). Table entries: edf, effective degrees of freedom; F, F-tests on the smooth terms; P, p-value (significance threshold: 0.05). An asterix denotes significant effects.

Smooth term	edf	F	Р
s(cortisol):Age1:2017	1.67	2.35	0.081
s(cortisol):Age2:2017	1.00	1.12	0.290
s(cortisol):Age3:2017	1.00	0.45	0.504
s(cortisol):Age4+:2017	2.21	3.62	0.020*
s(cortisol):Age1:2018	1.35	1.76	0.099
s(cortisol):Age2:2018	1.00	1.16	0.282
s(cortisol):Age3:2018	1.00	0.88	0.349
s(cortisol):Age4+:2018	1.00	1.89	0.170
s(cortisol):Age1:2019	2.78	8.07	< 0.001*
s(cortisol):Age2:2019	3.40	3.64	0.008*
s(cortisol):Age3:2019	1.00	12.45	< 0.001*
s(cortisol):Age4+:2019	1.88	5.52	0.004*
s(cortisol):Age1:2020	1.44	0.38	0.580
s(cortisol):Age2:2020	2.93	8.76	0.001*
s(cortisol):Age3:2020	3.12	14.24	< 0.001*
s(cortisol):Age4+:2020	2.59	1.33	0.252

Highlights

TEMPORAL VARIATIONS IN SCALE CORTISOL INDICATE CONSISTENT LOCAL- AND BROAD-SCALE CONSTRAINTS IN A WILD MARINE TELEOST FISH

Christophe LEBIGRE, Mathieu WOILLEZ, Hervé BARONE, Jennyfer MOUROT, Mickaël DROGOU, Ronan LE GOFF, Arianna SERVILI, Jana HENNEBERT, Marine VANHOMWEGEN, Johan AERTS

- Environment's effect on individuals' growth is mediated by their chronic stress
- We measured scale cortisol in juvenile sea bass aged 1-4+ during 2017-2020
- Scale cortisol increased substantially in 2019 and 2020 in all nurseries/age
- High scale cortisol was related to lower growth only in 2019 and 2020
- Scale cortisol might reflect local to broad-scale environmental constraints

SCALE CORTISOL TO QUANTIFY ENVIRONMENTAL CONSTRAINTS ON A WILD MARINE TELEOST FISH

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Dec	laration	of interests	
DEC	iaralion	Of Interests	

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