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9	Title: Stable isotopes and morphology reveal spatial and annual patterns in trophic reliance of an
10	invertivorous juvenile fish
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20	Running Title: Trophic variation of yellow perch in Saginaw Bay
21	
22	Abstract
23	Ecological studies have traditionally treated fish species or populations as homogenous groups;
24	however, numerous studies have shown that intrapopulation variation in resource use is
25	widespread. Within-species diet differences are evident in small and large freshwater systems,
26	and may influence trophic and population dynamics. In a previous study of young yellow perch,
27	spatial intrapopulation diet variation was observed for stomach contents, a relatively short-term
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28 diet indicator. In the current study, we build upon the earlier study of yellow perch in Saginaw 29 Bay, Lake Huron, and assess patterns of long-term diet indicators (stable isotopes and 30 morphology) to assess consistency of diet variation over time and improve characterization of trophic differences among sites. Specifically, we analyzed soft tissue samples for carbon (δ^{13} C) 31 32 and nitrogen (δ^{15} N) isotope ratios, and used geometric morphometrics to describe morphological variation of young yellow perch. While both isotopes displayed significant spatial differences, 33 34 δ^{15} N values demonstrated a much clearer separation among sites, with greater δ^{15} N values for yellow perch collected closer to the mouth of the Saginaw River. Morphological variation also 35 36 was more apparent among sites rather than between years or months, with more streamlined 37 vellow perch morphologies evident at sites where they consumed high proportions of 38 zooplankton relative to benthic invertebrates. Somewhat unexpectedly, soft tissue δ^{13} C values varied strongly between the two study years; however, the ultimate cause of such inter-annual 39 variation in δ^{13} C is unclear. These long-term indicators showed consistent spatial differences, 40 41 which suggests that individual fish are using resources at a particular site long enough to reflect a 42 stable isotope or morphological signal. Yellow perch production at different locations seemingly 43 relies on different prey resources, suggesting that annual variation in dominant trophic pathways 44 may alter the performance of yellow perch at each location.

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Keywords: trophic ecology, intrapopulation variation, yellow perch, stable isotope, morphology,
Saginaw Bay_____

47 Sagillaw Day

48 Introduction

49 Traditionally, ecological studies have described resource use patterns at the species or population level, with the assumption that individual differences are relatively unimportant. 50 51 However, numerous studies, including those summarized by Bolnick et al. (2003), have shown 52 that treatment of conspecifics as homogenous groups is inappropriate and intrapopulation 53 variation in resource use is widespread. Individual differences in ecological attributes (e.g., prey 54 preferences, foraging strategies, and susceptibility to predation) may strongly influence population dynamics (e.g., Araújo, Bolnick, & Layman, 2011). Such individual differences occur 55 56 in a wide range of taxa (Bolnick et al., 2003), with fish being one of the most studied taxonomic 57 groups (see review in Araújo et al., 2011).

58 Fish resource use patterns have commonly been generalized at the population level (e.g., Madenjian et al., 2002), but several studies have examined intrapopulation variation (e.g., 59 60 Quevedo et al., 2009). Within-species diet differences of fish occur in both large and small 61 freshwater systems, and often exhibit spatial patterns within a waterbody. For example, within glacial lakes, diets of age-0 largemouth bass *Micropterus salmoides* varied spatially and were 62 influenced by local (e.g., vegetation) characteristics (Middaugh, Foley, & Höök, 2013). Diets of 63 64 Eurasian perch Perca fluviatilis in a small Swedish lake varied between littoral and pelagic 65 habitats (Svanbäck & Persson, 2004). In larger systems, such as the Laurentian Great Lakes, similar patterns have emerged. Yellow perch Perca flavescens and round goby Neogobius 66 67 *melanostomus* diets varied along a broad spatial gradient in Lake Michigan, where fish consumed more benthic prey items along the western shoreline and relied more on pelagic prey 68 69 and pelagic trophic pathways in the east (Foley et al., 2017; Happel et al., 2015).

70 As an example of within-population trophic variation, Roswell et al. (2013) observed 71 interindividual diet variation of age-0 yellow perch in Saginaw Bay, Lake Huron in 2009 and 72 2010. These authors demonstrated clear spatial diet variation (likely related to prey availability), 73 and also documented spatially variable selectivity and specialization on either zooplankton or 74 benthic prey (Figure 1). Though available prey densities (zooplankters and benthic invertebrates) 75 varied among years, patterns of spatial diet variation remained consistent (Roswell et al., 2013). It is, however, unclear if these spatial intrapopulation diet differences are consistent when 76 77 considering diet indicators that reflect more long term resource use by individual fish. Roswell et 78 al. (2013) examined stomach contents, which is a commonly used index of diet (Hyslop, 1980) 79 that allows for detailed identification and enumeration of diet items. However, stomach content analysis is a short-term indicator of diet and may not reflect long-term feeding. Moreover, this 80 81 index may not accurately reflect prev assimilated by fish and may be biased by variable digestion rates of hard and soft tissues (e.g., Brush et al., 2012; Kionka and Windell, 1972; MacDonald et 82 al., 1982). In short, stomach content analysis only reflects a "snapshot" of trophic utilization, and 83 it is plausible that Roswell et al.'s (2013) observations of spatial differences reflect individuals 84 feeding at a particular location for a short period of time and then moving. That is, observations 85 86 by Roswell et al. (2013) may not reflect different groups of fish relying on distinct resources for 87 extended periods of time.

88 In contrast to stomach content analysis, several other measures of trophic reliance, such as stable isotopes, reflect assimilated diet and resource use on a longer timescale (Peterson & 89 90 Fry, 1987). Isotopic turnover rates vary depending upon various factors (e.g., growth rate and 91 environmental conditions), but generally provide dietary information on a scale of weeks to 92 months as opposed to days (Weidel, Carpenter, Kitchell, & Vander Zanden, 2011). Since isotopic values are predictably transferred from diet to consumer (Budge et al., 2008), stable 93 94 isotopes in soft tissues, like carbon (δ^{13} C) and nitrogen (δ^{15} N), are commonly used to study 95 foraging ecology (Post, 2002). Specifically, isotope values are typically standardized and 96 reported as δ values; ratios of heavy to light isotopes relative to international measurement 97 standards. δ^{13} C values of soft tissues in part reflect sources of primary production (i.e., carbon 98 source) assimilated by a consumer (DeNiro & Epstein, 1978; Peterson & Fry, 1987; Post, 2002). While δ^{15} N values of soft tissues are often used to estimate trophic position due to consistent 99 100 isotopic discrimination between trophic levels (Deniro & Epstein, 1980; Post, 2002), they also 101 can reflect source of nitrogen. For example, agricultural inputs, which often have distinct 102 isotopic values, were found to be strongly influential on δ^{15} N values of aquatic consumers in 103 receiving water bodies (Larson, Richardson, Vallazza, & Nelson, 2013). Thus, in large lakes, 104 spatial differences in allochthonous inputs (e.g., increasing distance from rivermouth) in $\delta^{15}N$ values may be reflected in the soft tissues of fish. 105

106 Intrapopulation diet variation also may result in morphological variation. Morphology 107 can be considered a foraging and habitat indicator because habitat and resource use may 108 influence the body form of fish, in particular, young, developing fish (Skulason & Smith, 1995; 109 Svanbäck & Eklöv, 2003). Morphological variation is well documented in Eurasian perch and 110 both habitat and differential foraging appear to influence morphology of this species (Hjelm & 111 Johansson, 2003; Svanbäck & Eklöv, 2002, 2003). In several lakes, Eurasian perch residing in 112 the littoral zone typically feed on benthic macroinvertebrates, while fish in the pelagic zone are 113 zooplanktivorous or piscivorous. Variation along the littoral-pelagic axis is similarly reflected in 114 morphology. Eurasian perch in littoral habitat are deeper-bodied and thus better suited for 115 maneuverability in structurally complex habitat. In contrast, the fusiform body of fish in pelagic 116 habitat reduces drag in an open environment (Hjelm, Svanback, Bystrom, Persson, & 117 Wahistrom, 2001; Svanbäck & Eklöv, 2002, 2003). In addition, Eurasian perch in littoral habitats 118 often exhibit mouths directed downwards, opposite the terminal or upturned mouths of perch in

pelagic habitats (Svanbäck & Eklöv, 2002). While not as well-studied as congeneric Eurasian
perch, morphologies of young yellow perch also appear to respond to habitat and foraging
differences (Malinich, 2019). Thus, prolonged utilization of resources in a specific area may be
reflected by these long-term diet indicators.

123 In addition to spatial differences, temporal patterns (e.g., seasonal, annual) may also 124 contribute to differences in consumer morphologies and stable isotope ratios. Seasonal shifts in 125 prey availability (e.g., Roswell et al., 2013) and consumption patterns (e.g., Hrycik et al., 2018) 126 may influence not only isotope composition, but also foraging behavior and morphological 127 variation. Variation in δ^{13} C values of producers is partially attributable to taxonomic composition 128 and differences in how producers incorporate different C isotopes (Bernasconi, Barbieri, Simona, 129 & Dec, 1997; Cifuentes, Sharp, & Fogel, 1988; Hodell & Schelske, 1998). The relative 130 abundance of primary producers typically varies seasonally and may vary annually, and such 131 temporal shifts can lead primary and secondary consumers to rely on different primary producers and reflect different δ^{13} C values over time. δ^{15} N values are influenced by N uptake, nitrification, 132 133 denitrification, and degradation of organic matter (Brandes & Devol, 1997; Mariotti et al., 1981; 134 Teranes & Bernasconi, 2000), all of which vary over time. Carbon and nitrogen stable isotope 135 ratios of plankton may also change during decomposition, with δ^{13} C decreasing by about 1.6 ‰ 136 over 110 days and δ^{15} N values cumulatively changing by +0.2 ‰ and -2.8 ‰ under oxic and 137 anoxic conditions, respectively (Lehmann, Bernasconi, Barbieri, & McKenzie, 2002). Since 138 decomposition patterns and oxygen conditions may vary temporally, these processes can 139 contribute to seasonal and annual differences in stable isotope ratios of consumers. Temporally 140 variable loading of carbon and nitrogen to aquatic systems, as well as shifts in the magnitude of 141 primary production, can contribute to seasonal and annual differences in stable isotope ratios. 142 The magnitude of autochthonous primary production, and its contribution relative to 143 allochthonous production, is often higher in the summer, resulting in higher δ^{13} C values (e.g., 144 Lehmann et al., 2004). Lacustrine nitrogen isotopic composition is strongly influenced by external nitrogen loading (Ostrom, Long, Bell, & Beals, 1998; Teranes & Bernasconi, 2000), and 145 146 increased relative contribution of allochthonous inputs in winter increases $\delta^{15}N$ values (e.g., 147 Lehmann et al., 2004). Finally, many of these processes that may contribute to temporal 148 differences in consumer stable isotope ratios and morphologies may also differ across space, and

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thereby simultaneously influence spatial and temporal variation in consumer stable isotope ratiosand morphologies.

151 Yellow perch is an ecologically and economically prominent fish species in the 152 Laurentian Great Lakes. Recruitment of yellow perch in Saginaw Bay was poor in the early 153 2000s (Ivan et al. 2011; Fielder & Thomas, 2014) and may have been partially attributed to diet leading to low growth rates and increased susceptibility to size-selective predators (Roswell et al. 154 155 2014). In examining early life dynamics of yellow perch in Saginaw Bay, Roswell et al. (2013) 156 documented spatial intrapopulation variation of yellow perch stomach contents and speculated 157 that such differences could temper population-wide variability in survival and recruitment of age-0 yellow perch. However, given the short time horizon reflected by stomach contents and the 158 potential of fish to move among locations, it is unclear to what extent these findings reflect 159 160 different groups of fish relying on distinct resources for extended periods of time. Diet indicators 161 that reflect longer term foraging patterns and trophic assimilation may be more appropriate for 162 assessing the consistency of trophic variation over time (Vinson & Budy, 2011). To this end, we 163 employed two long-term diet and habitat-use indicators, stable isotopes of soft tissue and 164 morphology, to reexamine age-0 yellow perch collected concomitant with individual yellow 165 perch collected by Roswell et al. (2013) in 2009 and 2010 and elucidate the consistency of 166 spatiotemporal variation of their diets. While a variety of processes may contribute to spatio-167 temporal variation of consumer morphologies and stable isotope ratios (as described above), our 168 primary aim was to evaluate the extent of spatio-temporal variation of consumer morphologies 169 and stable isotope ratios and not explicitly evaluate the mechanisms leading to such potential 170 variation. Nonetheless, because the sites in this study differed in distance from the Saginaw 171 River input and Roswell et al. (2013) documented yellow perch feeding on different prey items 172 at these sites, we expected spatial variation in both isotopic values and morphology. 173 Furthermore, we anticipated moderate annual variation in both indicators consistent with annual 174 changes in observed relative prey densities (zooplankton to benthic invertebrates) between 2009 175 and 2010 (Roswell et al., 2013).

176

177 Methods

178 Fish collection

179 We collected age-0 yellow perch in August and September of 2009 and 2010. We 180 sampled three sites (SB-2, -10, -14) in Saginaw Bay, Lake Huron, which differed in terms of 181 depth, substrate, relative availability of different invertebrate prey, and consumption patterns of 182 age-0 yellow perch (Table 1; Figures 1 and 2). Detailed methods can be found in (Roswell et al., 183 2013; Roswell, Pothoven, & Höök, 2014). In brief, we towed a 7.6-m semi-balloon bottom trawl 184 with 13-mm stretched-mesh cod-end for 10 min at approximately 1.3 ms⁻¹ (1-5 trawl tows per 185 site-date sampling event). During each month, we collected samples from all sites within a 3-day 186 period. After collection, we placed fish in coolers with ice and then stored samples at -20°C. 187 Age-0 yellow perch were differentiated from all other age classes through clear divisions in 188 length frequency data (C. Roswell, unpublished data). In the laboratory, we thawed, weighed and 189 measured fish for total length. Roswell et al. (2013, 2014) analyzed stomach contents of yellow 190 perch collected during 2009 and 2010. We subsequently analyzed morphology and stable isotope 191 ratios of individuals collected concomitantly (i.e., in the same trawl tows), but these were 192 different individuals than those analyzed for stomach contents. All research presented in the 193 manuscript was conducted in accordance with all applicable laws and rules set forth by 194 governments and institutions and all necessary permits were acquired when the research was 195 conducted, including a Scientific Collector's Permit from the State of Michigan. This work was 196 approved under Purdue Animal Care and Use Committee's Protocol 1112000400.

197 Morphology

198 After thawing fish, we captured images for morphological analysis. We placed individual 199 fish on a bed of beads, oriented them facing to the left, and refrained from moving the camera 200 setup between photographs. We captured photographs with a Panasonic TS5 camera and placed 201 15 digital landmarks (J. Olsson & Eklöv, 2005; Jens Olsson, Svanbäck, & Eklöv, 2006) on the 202 images using tpsDIG2w64, a software program for digitizing landmarks on images (Figure 3; 203 Adams, Rohlf, & Slice, 2004). We analyzed fish images with MorphoJ, a program that employs 204 geometric morphometrics to quantify shape variation (Klingenberg, 2011). We performed a 205 Procrustes fit on the landmarks to remove influence of size, orientation and rotation on the true 206 shape of the image (Adams, Rohlf, & Slice, 2013). To account for allometric effects, we 207 regressed Procrustes coordinates against individual centroid size, and we used the resulting 208 regression residuals for all subsequent analyses (Klingenberg, 2011).

209 We performed permutational multivariate analysis of variance (perMANOVA) with 210 10,000 permutations on centroid size-Procrustes coordinate regression residuals to examine 211 morphological variation among all sites. We lacked samples from site SB-14 during September 212 of 2010 (see Table 1). Senegal (2019) demonstrated that due to significant month effects, it was 213 inappropriate to group samples across months. Therefore, to maintain a balanced design, we 214 conducted three separate perMANOVAs: a) excluding SB-14, b) excluding 2010, and c) 215 excluding September. Site was a factor in each of these perMANOVAs, while month (a and b) 216 and year (a and c) were a factor in two out of the three perMANOVAs.

217 In addition, we analyzed shape differences (Mahalanobis distance, MD) between site pairs (i.e., SB-10 vs SB-14, SB-10 vs SB-2, and SB-2 vs SB-14) with discriminant function 218 219 analysis (DFA) based on centroid size - Procrustes coordinate regression residuals (Hirsch, 220 Eklöv, & Svanbäck, 2013; Jens Olsson et al., 2006). We created wireframe plots associated with 221 DFA results to visualize morphological variation between site pairs. While we also visualized 222 morphological differences between years and months (Supporting Information Figure S1), we 223 focused on site differences since we expected these differences to be greatest based upon diet differences (Figure 1). 224

225 Stable Isotopes

226 After removing stomachs, we dried whole fish at 70 °C and placed samples in individual vials. Samples were ground by mortar and pestle, and then analyzed for carbon and nitrogen 227 228 stable isotope ratios with an NC2500 elemental analyzer plumbed into a Thermo Delta V isotope 229 ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS). Tissue samples had a consistently low C:N ratio (mean 230 1.9 ± 0.17) and we intended to use isotope ratio values to estimate contributions of coarse prev categories (i.e., benthic or pelagic), so we did not perform a mathematical lipid correction on 231 232 values (Post et al., 2007). We measured C and N isotope values relative to the Vienna Pee Dee 233 belemnite and atmospheric N₂ standards, respectively, via two-point calibration using the CBT 234 (an animal standard) and KCRN (a plant standard) reference materials. Soft tissue isotopic 235 analysis occurred at the Cornell University Stable Isotope Laboratory. We report stable isotope ratios as delta (δ) values, or per mil (∞) = (($R_{sample}/R_{standard}$)-1) x10³, where $R_{standard}$ is one of the 236 237 international standards previously mentioned.

238 We plotted the mean \pm SE δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N of soft tissues in a stable isotope biplot. Initial inspection of the data showed distinct site differences for $\delta^{15}N$ and temporal differences for $\delta^{13}C$. 239 240 In addition, individual size can have strong influence on isotopic composition. Thus, we 241 performed univariate tests using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) with individual length as a 242 covariate. Similar to morphological analyses, we lacked samples from SB-14 during September 243 2010 and thus we conducted three separate analyses: a) excluding SB-14, b) excluding 2010, and 244 c) excluding September. For each ANCOVA, we initially included all relevant factors (including 245 site, year, month, and length), as well as all two-way interaction terms. For final models, we 246 subsequently excluded insignificant interaction terms. All statistical analyses were performed in R (R Core Team, 2019). 247

- 248
- 249 Results
- 250 Fish collection

In total, we collected and analyzed 139 age-0 yellow perch for morphology (n = 139) and stable isotope ratios (n = 80; Table 1). However, no fish were available for September of 2010 at SB-14. Yellow perch total length ranged from 41-75 mm (average = 57.4 mm).

254 *Morphology*

255 Again, due to lack of samples from SB-14 during September of 2010 we conducted three separate perMANOVAs to compare morphologies across sites. The perMANOVA excluding 256 257 SB-14 was the only such test that identified significant factors; both site ($R^{2}_{1,110}=0.03$, P=0.008) 258 and year ($R^{2}_{1,110}=0.03$, P=0.024) were significant. When excluding 2010 or September data, no 259 factors in the perMANOVAs were significant (Table 2). DFA results displayed significant 260 morphological differences between fish from SB-10 and SB-2 (MD=2.68, P<0.001), and between fish from SB-10 and SB-14 (MD=3.89, P<0.001). In contrast, fish from SB-2 and SB-261 262 14 had no significant morphological difference (MD=1.58, P=0.079). DFA wireframe plots of 263 average shape differences also suggested morphological distinction of fish from SB-10. SB-10 264 fish appeared deeper-bodied, while fish from SB-2 and SB-14 were more fusiform (Figure 4). 265 Stable Isotopes

- 266 Biplots of yellow perch isotope ratios showed relatively high δ^{13} C values in 2010 and 267 relatively low δ^{15} N values at sites further from the Saginaw River input (Figure 5). Again, we 268 conducted three separate ANCOVAs to account for the lack of data from SB-14 in September 269 2010. Though δ^{13} C values were significantly influenced by site, year, month, and length and δ^{15} N values were significantly influenced by site and month among analyses (Table 3), year 270 271 consistently had the strongest effect on δ^{13} C values and site consistently had the strongest effect 272 on δ^{15} N values. In the analysis excluding SB-14, month had an interactive effect with site $(F_{1.62}=10.89, P=0.002)$ and year $(F_{1.62}=13.97, P<0.001)$ on δ^{13} C values. When September was 273 removed, there was a significant interaction between year and length ($F_{1,34}$ =12.98, P=0.001) on 274 δ^{15} N values. 275
- 276

277 Discussion

278 Long-term habitat and trophic indicators, stable isotopes and morphology, displayed 279 intrapopulation variation among age-0 yellow perch in Saginaw Bay. As expected, spatial 280 variation was evident in stable isotope values and morphology. While both isotope ratios 281 displayed significant spatial differences, $\delta^{15}N$ values demonstrated a much clearer separation 282 among sites. Morphological variation also was more apparent among sites rather than between 283 years or months. Somewhat unexpectedly, however, yellow perch $\delta^{13}C$ values displayed much 284 greater inter-annual variation than spatial variation.

285

286 Spatial Patterns

287 Stable isotopes and morphology spatial patterns were generally consistent with stomach 288 content patterns observed by Roswell et al. (2013). Yellow perch from SB-2 and SB-14 had 289 stomach contents primarily consisting of zooplankton, while fish from SB-10 had a greater 290 proportion of benthic macroinvertebrates in their stomach contents (Figure 1). Despite variable zooplankter and benthic macroinvertebrate densities between years, these stomach content 291 292 spatial patterns remained generally consistent (Roswell et al., 2013). The same spatial 293 differences were reflected by stable isotopes and morphology, with yellow perch collected at SB-294 10 distinguished from those at the other two sites. These consistent spatial patterns across both

short- and long-term diet indicators suggest that fish likely remain and forage in the samelocation for prolonged periods.

297 Potential drivers of spatio-temporal differences in prey densities and diet variation 298 include spatially and temporally variable riverine discharge and water current patterns within 299 Saginaw Bay. The Saginaw River is the primary tributary flowing into Saginaw Bay, delivering approximately 78% of total phosphorous to the bay and producing a river plume that typically 300 301 travels counter-clockwise in the bay (Sesterhenn et al., 2014; Stow & Höök, 2013). Total 302 phosphorus and chlorophyll *a* concentrations are relatively high in the river plume and generally 303 have a stronger effect on the southeast side of inner Saginaw Bay, where sites SB-2 and SB-14 304 are located. In contrast, SB-10 is located near the outer bay and may be subject to influences in 305 addition to the Saginaw River. The Au Gres River discharges northeast of SB-10 into the outer 306 bay and circulation models suggest this riverine input may affect this site (Stow & Höök, 2013). 307 Moreover, influxes from outer Saginaw Bay and Lake Huron proper may intermittently influence this location. 308

309 Yellow perch from sites closer to the Saginaw River mouth had higher δ^{15} N values. This 310 pattern may be related to increased contribution and influence of allochthonous input for these 311 more inner bay sites (Lehmann, Bernasconi, McKenzie, et al., 2004). Tributaries containing agricultural or urban runoff are typically enriched in ¹⁵N (Larson et al., 2013), which is reflected 312 313 in fish δ^{15} N values (Vandermyde & Whitledge, 2008). The drainage basin of Saginaw Bay 314 encompasses over 22,000 km² of industrial, urban, and agricultural land (Millie et al., 2006), of 315 which about half is predominantly agricultural (Fales et al., 2016). Considering the southeastern 316 position of SB-2 and SB-14 and the general counter-clockwise flow of the Saginaw River plume 317 (Stow & Höök, 2013), observed spatial patterns of age-0 yellow perch δ^{15} N values are consistent 318 with expectations based upon the assumed influence of a large, agriculturally-dominant 319 watershed. Decomposition of settled plankton may also affect the $\delta^{15}N$ values of particle-feeding 320 invertebrates. Decomposition occurring under anoxic conditions can lead to greater decreases in 321 particulate δ^{15} N than decomposition under oxic conditions (Lehmann et al. 2002). Plausibly, the 322 combination of greater depth, thermal stratification and silt substrate at SB-10 may have 323 contributed to anoxic decomposition at this site which may be reflected in relatively low consumer δ^{15} N values. 324

Differences in δ^{13} C of organic matter can be attributed to long-term variation in 325 326 phosphorous availability and primary productivity (Schelske & Hodell, 1991). Saginaw Bay has 327 a relatively large phosphorus reservoir within bottom sediments. The inner bay is subject to 328 strong winds and heavy mixing, which causes resuspension of inorganic phosphorus and the 329 possibility of conversion to soluble reactive phosphorous (Hawley et al., 2014). Furthermore, 330 primary production may be influenced by variable water clarity, and thus light penetration, 331 caused by variable discharge or resuspended sediments (Hawley et al., 2014; Turschak et al., 332 2018). In short, spatial and temporal heterogeneity in environmental conditions may impact 333 dominant primary production and energy pathways contributing to growth of young yellow 334 perch.

335 Stable isotope values have frequently been used to distinguish between allochthonous and 336 autochthonous inputs (Carpenter et al., 2005; Solomon, Carpenter, Cole, & Pace, 2008). For 337 example, Lehmann et al. (2004) observed variation in isotopic composition in Lake Lugano, a 338 large eutrophic lake on the border of Switzerland and Italy. Increased primary productivity and 339 phytoplankton biomass was associated with higher δ^{13} C values of surface water particulate 340 organic carbon and dissolved inorganic carbon; carbon isotope values subsequently decreased 341 with lower primary productivity (Lehmann, Bernasconi, McKenzie, et al., 2004). Within each 342 year, the range of δ^{13} C values overlapped substantially among sites, but on average we observed 343 that δ^{13} C was lower for yellow perch from SB-10 (Figure 5). This site is closer to outer Saginaw 344 Bay, less influenced by the Saginaw River and consistently experiences lower primary 345 productivity than the two more inner bay sites.

In freshwater environments, δ^{13} C values can be used to differentiate between littoral, 346 347 benthic and pelagic production because primary producers in the littoral and benthic zones (e.g., 348 algae, detritus) are typically enriched in ¹³C compared to producers in the pelagic zone (e.g., 349 France, 1995; Hecky & Hesslein, 1995). However, soft tissue δ^{13} C values in the present study 350 did not reflect this pattern. Site SB-10 is deeper than SB-2 and SB-14 and is characterized by silt 351 substrate, whereas SB-2 and SB-14 is characterized by cobble and sand, respectively. While SB-352 2 and SB-14 contained relatively high densities of Dreissena spp. mussels, SB-2 contained 353 relatively high densities of benthic invertebrates preferred by yellow perch, such as chironomids, 354 and these prey were actively selected and consumed by yellow perch at SB-10 (Figure 1; 355 Roswell et al. 2013). Based on these patterns, we expected yellow perch δ^{13} C values to be

relatively high at SB-10. While δ^{13} C values overlapped among sites, they were on average lower for yellow perch from SB-10 (Figure 5). We did not design our study to evaluate mechanisms contributing to this unexpected pattern. However, it is possible that within year spatial differences in δ^{13} C are primarily related to spatial differences in allochthonous inputs, the influence of Lake Huron proper, and dominant primary producers, rather than differences in the type of prey consumed across sites. In fact, differences in the type of prey consumed among sites may have served to temper differences in observed yellow perch δ^{13} C among sites.

363 Morphological variation of fish between benthic and pelagic habitats is well documented 364 (e.g., Eurasian perch, Hjelm and Johansson, 2003; Svanbäck and Eklöv, 2003, 2002). Yellow 365 perch with more benthivorous diets (i.e., SB-10) were deeper-bodied, which is consistent for fish 366 foraging on the bottom. In contrast, yellow perch with more pelagic diets (i.e., SB-2 and SB-14) were more fusiform with a thinner caudal peduncle, which allows for more efficient cruising. 367 368 Mouth position, which is associated with foraging strategy, was inconsistent with previous 369 studies (e.g., Langerhans et al., 2003; Parker et al., 2009). Yellow perch from SB-10 had 370 upturned mouths, which is typically indicative of a pelagic diet; fish collected at SB-2 and SB-14 371 had downturned mouths, indicative of benthic foraging. Despite disagreement between mouth 372 position and feeding mode, mouth position may be influenced by unknown characteristics of 373 habitat structure (Olsson & Eklöv, 2005) or growth rate (Olsson et al., 2006).

374

375 Interannual Patterns

376 In our study, yellow perch soft tissue δ^{13} C values increased approximately 2‰ from 2009 to 2010. Unlike clear seasonal patterns of δ^{13} C values (e.g., Lehmann et al., 2004b), annual 377 378 patterns are not necessarily as straightforward to interpret. δ^{13} C values of particulate organic 379 carbon often do not directly correlate with annual primary productivity because of variable inputs of terrestrial organic matter (e.g., Lehmann et al., 2004a). Estimated total phosphorus 380 381 loading from the Saginaw River decreased from 2009 to 2010, but total phosphorus 382 concentrations in the inner bay remained relatively stable (Stow & Höök, 2013). Thus, the 383 annual increase of δ^{13} C values observed in our study is not consistent with changes in 384 phosphorous concentrations. However, greater chlorophyll a concentrations were observed in 385 2010 (Stow & Höök, 2013) and suggest increased autochthonous production, which typically

results in higher δ^{13} C values (Post, 2002; Vander Zanden, Chandra, Park, Vadeboncoeur, & Goldman, 2006).

388 Annual differences in internal and external nutrient loading also could favor the 389 differential production of benthic invertebrates and zooplankters. Available densities of benthic 390 invertebrates in Saginaw Bay generally increased from 2009 to 2010 (Roswell et al., 2013). This 391 was especially true at site SB-10, where yellow perch fed primarily on benthic invertebrates. In 392 contrast, peak late summer zooplankton densities decreased from 2009 to 2010 (see SB-2 and 393 SB-14 in Figure 1). Diets consisting of a greater proportion of benthic invertebrates typically 394 have relatively high δ^{13} C values (Post, 2002), and thus the increase in yellow perch δ^{13} C values 395 from 2009 to 2010 are consistent with changes in available prey. However, this shift was 396 generally not reflected in stomach content of age-0 yellow perch (Figure 1; Roswell et al., 2013). 397 Stomach contents were fairly similar between the two years. Moreover, even at sites SB-2 and 398 SB-14, where yellow perch fed overwhelmingly on zooplankton, the annual shift in δ^{13} C values 399 was still evident. In short, while the increased availability of benthic prey may be reflective of a 400 similar system driver as the annual shift in yellow perch δ^{13} C values, the mechanisms leading to 401 this shift in prev availability and the ultimate cause of increased yellow perch δ^{13} C values in Saginaw Bay are unclear. 402

403

404 *Conclusion*

405 Consistent spatial variation of long-term foraging indicators (i.e., stable isotopes and 406 morphology), together with stomach content analysis, supports the notion that age-0 yellow 407 perch consistently foraged in a relatively local area (Roswell et al., 2013). Realized yellow perch 408 stable isotope ratios and morphologies were likely partially attributable to different foraging 409 strategies among sites and partially responsive to variable allochthonous inputs and differential 410 primary production pathways. The use of different resources (i.e., benthic or pelagic) in different 411 areas of Saginaw Bay may suggest yellow perch groups are somewhat distinct. Yellow perch 412 display inter-annually variable recruitment success in Saginaw Bay (Ivan, Höök, Thomas, & 413 Fielder, 2011). However, year to year variation in allochthonous input, autochthonous production 414 and the relative availability of benthic and pelagic prey in different areas of the bay may allow 415 spatially distinct groups of young yellow perch to differentially thrive across years and temper 416 bay-wide recruitment variation. In addition to spatial patterns, we observed a pronounced shift in

417 yellow perch δ^{13} C values among years. We speculate that this shift may be related to annual 418 variation in the relative importance of bay-wide production pathways. Yellow perch production 419 at different locations seemingly relies on different production pathways, suggesting that annual 420 variation in dominant production pathways may alter the relative contribution of yellow perch 421 from different locations.

422

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- 431

432 Conflict of Interest

- 433 The authors declare no conflict of interest.
- 434

435 Author Contributions

- 436 Conceived and designed the investigation: TMS, SAP, TOH. Performed field and/or laboratory
- 437 work: TMS, CRR, SAP. Analyzed the data: TJS, TMS, TOH. Contributed materials, reagents,
- 438 and/or analysis tools: TJS, TMS, SAP, TOH. Wrote the paper: TJS, TMS, CRR, SAP, TOH.
- 439

440 Data Availability Statement

- 441 Fish sampling data and statistical results are available from the corresponding author.
- 442
- 443
- 444 References
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- 647
- 648 Table 1. Yellow perch collection overview with site, site characteristics (depth, substrate [Sub]),
- 649 year, month, and day-of-year (DOY). Abundances (*n*) for stable isotope (SI) and morphological650 (Morpho) analyses.

Site	Characteristics	Year	Month	DOY	SI (<i>n</i>)	Morpho (<i>n</i>)
	Depth: 3.9 m	epth: 3.9 m		216, 217, 222	7	9
SB-2	Sub: Rocky/ large cobble	2009	September	244, 245	14	24
		2010	August	222, 223	8	19
			September	266	6	29
	Depth: 12.2 m		August	216, 217, 222	4	4
SB-10	Sub: Silt/ muck	2009	September	244, 245	5	6
		2010	August	222, 223	6	10

			September	266	9	10		
	Depth: 3.8 m	2000	August	216, 217, 222	9	12		
	SB 14	2009	September	6	7			
		2010	August 22	222, 223	6	9		
		2010	September	266	0	0		
651	\overline{O}							
652	Č							
653								
654	Table 2. perMANOVA results for morphometric analyses. Results from three separate analyses							

a) excluding SB-14, b) excluding 2010, and c) excluding September. Factors include: site, year,
and month. Significant results (P<0.05) in bold. Excluded data represented by "--".

			Site	Year	Month
2		\mathbb{R}^2	0.03	0.03	0.02
	a)	Р	0.008	0.024	0.108
0		df	1,110	1,110	1,110
		R ²	0.08		0.01
	b)	Р	0.063		0.397
5		df	3,70		1,70
		R ²	0.05	0.01	
	c)	Р	0.130	0.414	
		df	2,62	1,62	

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657

659 Table 3. ANCOVA results for yellow perch carbon (δ^{13} C) and nitrogen (δ^{15} N) stable isotopes.

- 660 Results from three separate analyses: a) excluding SB-14, b) excluding 2010, and c) excluding
- 661 September. Factors include: site, year, month, length, site-month interaction, year-month

represented by "---".

663

662 interaction, and year-length interaction. Significant results (P<0.05) in bold. Excluded data

			Site	Year	Month	Length	Site:Month	Year:Month	Year:Length
		F	5.93	193.89	21.74	0.54	10.89	13.97	
	$\delta^{13}C$	Р	0.018	<0.001	<0.001	0.466	0.002	<0.001	
a)	C	df	1, 62	1, 62	1,62	1, 62	1, 62	1, 62	
	- 2	F	58.23	0.71	2.87	1.18			
	$\delta^{15}N$	Р	<0.001	0.402	0.095	0.281			
		df	1,64	1,64	1,64	1,64			
		F	4.98		31.78	0.94			
	$\delta^{13}C$	Р	0.012		<0.001	0.339			
b)		df	2, 40		1, 40	1, 40			
,	5	F	11.80		8.31	0.36			
	$\delta^{15}N$	Р	<0.001		0.006	0.552			
	Ċ	df	2, 40		1,40	1,40			
		F	2.12	183.49		6.478			
	$\delta^{13}C$	Р	0.136	<0.001		0.016			
c)		df	2,35	1,35		1,35			
-)		F	12.42	2.54		3.00			12.98
	$\delta^{15}N$	Р	<0.001	0.121		0.092			0.001
		df	2, 34	1, 34		1, 34			1, 34

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667 Figure legends

- 668 Figure 1. Prey densities of zooplankton (*top row*) and benthic macroinvertebrates (*middle row*),
- and yellow perch stomach contents by proportional dry mass (*bottom row*). Stomach content
- 670 categories include: calanoid copepods, Chironomidae larvae, epibenthic Chydoridae, Daphnia
- 671 spp., other, other zooplankton (e.g., Bosmina, Cyclopoida), and predatory zooplankton (e.g.,
- 672 Bythotrephes spp., Leptodora spp.). Note that benthic diet items were far more important at site
- 673 SB-10 than SB-2 and SB-14, while pelagic prey, especially *Daphnia* spp., were more important
- at SB-2 and SB-14. Data adapted from Roswell et al. (2013).
- Figure 2. Sampling sites in Saginaw Bay, Lake Huron. Figure adapted from Roswell et al.(2013).
- 677 Figure 3. Landmark locations on image of yellow perch for geometric morphometrics.
- 678 Figure 4. Wireframe plots from discriminant function analysis (DFA) displaying shape
- 679 differences in average shape between site pairs. Sites denoted by color: (a) SB-10 (black) vs SB-
- 680 14 (gray); (b) SB-10 (black) vs SB-2 (gray); (c) SB-2 (black) vs SB-14 (gray).
- **Figure 5.** Mean \pm SE carbon (δ^{13} C) and nitrogen (δ^{15} N) stable isotope ratios of yellow perch soft tissues. Site denoted by symbol and year denoted by color.

Autho





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