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[10.1111/EFF.12577](https://doi.org/10.1111/EFF.12577)

 diet indicator. In the current study, we build upon the earlier study of yellow perch in Saginaw Bay, Lake Huron, and assess patterns of long-term diet indicators (stable isotopes and 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 ($\delta^{13}C$) strate and interacts anong sites. Spectrocal
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 $\delta^{15}N$ values demonstrated a much clear 32 and nitrogen $(\delta^{15}N)$ isotope ratios, and used geometric morphometrics to describe morphological variation of young yellow perch. While both isotopes displayed significant spatial differences, ¹⁵N values demonstrated a much clearer separation among sites, with greater $\delta^{15}N$ values for yellow perch collected closer to the mouth of the Saginaw River. Morphological variation also was more apparent among sites rather than between years or months, with more streamlined yellow perch morphologies evident at sites where they consumed high proportions of 38 zooplankton relative to benthic invertebrates. Somewhat unexpectedly, soft tissue $\delta^{13}C$ values varied strongly between the two study years; however, the ultimate cause of such inter-annual 40 variation in $\delta^{13}C$ is unclear. These long-term indicators showed consistent spatial differences, which suggests that individual fish are using resources at a particular site long enough to reflect a 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 may alter the performance of yellow perch at each location.

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

Introduction

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

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., Quevedo et al., 2009). Within-species diet differences of fish occur in both large and small 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 influenced by local (e.g., vegetation) characteristics (Middaugh, Foley, & Höök, 2013). Diets of Eurasian perch *Perca fluviatilis* in a small Swedish lake varied between littoral and pelagic 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 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 and pelagic trophic pathways in the east (Foley et al., 2017; Happel et al., 2015).

 As an example of within-population trophic variation, Roswell et al. (2013) observed interindividual diet variation of age-0 yellow perch in Saginaw Bay, Lake Huron in 2009 and 2010. These authors demonstrated clear spatial diet variation (likely related to prey availability), and also documented spatially variable selectivity and specialization on either zooplankton or benthic prey (Figure 1). Though available prey densities (zooplankters and benthic invertebrates) 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 considering diet indicators that reflect more long term resource use by individual fish. Roswell et al. (2013) examined stomach contents, which is a commonly used index of diet (Hyslop, 1980) 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 index may not accurately reflect prey assimilated by fish and may be biased by variable digestion 82 rates of hard and soft tissues (e.g., Brush et al., 2012; Kionka and Windell, 1972; MacDonald et 83 al., 1982). In short, stomach content analysis only reflects a "snapshot" of trophic utilization, and it is plausible that Roswell et al.'s (2013) observations of spatial differences reflect individuals feeding at a particular location for a short period of time and then moving. That is, observations by Roswell et al. (2013) may not reflect different groups of fish relying on distinct resources for order and the systems, that divided by local (e.g., Eurasian perch *Perca flut* habitats (Svanbäck & Per similar patterns have emerged and pelagic trophic pathward consumed more benthic paradonic and pelagic trophic pathwa

88 In contrast to stomach content analysis, several other measures of trophic reliance, such 89 as stable isotopes, reflect assimilated diet and resource use on a longer timescale (Peterson $\&$ 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 continuous and signal continuous particles (Derivative matter). The mouth of the terminal or experimentation
(includes the terminal or the ter 92 months as opposed to days (Weidel, Carpenter, Kitchell, & Vander Zanden, 2011). Since 93 isotopic values are predictably transferred from diet to consumer (Budge et al., 2008), stable 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). 99 While δ^{15} N values of soft tissues are often used to estimate trophic position due to consistent 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 $\delta^{15}N$ 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 $\delta^{15}N$ 105 values may be reflected in the soft tissues of fish.

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 $\&$ Johansson, 2003; Svanbäck & Eklöv, 2002, 2003). In several lakes, Eurasian perch residing in 111 112 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

119 pelagic habitats (Svanbäck & Eklöv, 2002). While not as well-studied as congeneric Eurasian 120 perch, morphologies of young yellow perch also appear to respond to habitat and foraging 121 differences (Malinich, 2019). Thus, prolonged utilization of resources in a specific area may be 122 reflected by these long-term diet indicators.

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prey availability (e.g., Roswe 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 $\delta^{13}C$ 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 132 and reflect different $\delta^{13}C$ values over time. $\delta^{15}N$ values are influenced by N uptake, nitrification, 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 $\delta^{15}N$ 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 $\delta^{13}C$ values (e.g., 144 Lehmann et al., 2004). Lacustrine nitrogen isotopic composition is strongly influenced by 145 external nitrogen loading (Ostrom, Long, Bell, & Beals, 1998; Teranes & Bernasconi, 2000), and 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

149 thereby simultaneously influence spatial and temporal variation in consumer stable isotope ratios 150 and morphologies.

151 Yellow perch is an ecologically and economically prominent fish species in the Laurentian Great Lakes. Recruitment of yellow perch in Saginaw Bay was poor in the early Laurentian Great La
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assess 152 153 2000s (Ivan et al. 2011; Fielder & Thomas, 2014) and may have been partially attributed to diet 154 leading to low growth rates and increased susceptibility to size-selective predators (Roswell et al. 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 158 age-0 yellow perch. However, given the short time horizon reflected by stomach contents and the 159 potential of fish to move among locations, it is unclear to what extent these findings reflect 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 age-0 yellow perch (Table 1; Figures 1 and 2). Detailed methods can be found in (Roswell et al., 22 regression representations in registers and solution residues of the all subsequent and specified reduces for all simulated residuals for all simulated residuals for all simulated residuals for all simulated residuals 2013; Roswell, Pothoven, & Höök, 2014). In brief, we towed a 7.6-m semi-balloon bottom trawl with 13-mm stretched-mesh cod-end for 10 min at approximately 1.3 ms⁻¹ (1-5 trawl tows per site-date sampling event). During each month, we collected samples from all sites within a 3-day period. After collection, we placed fish in coolers with ice and then stored samples at -20°C. Age-0 yellow perch were differentiated from all other age classes through clear divisions in length frequency data (C. Roswell, unpublished data). In the laboratory, we thawed, weighed and measured fish for total length. Roswell et al. (2013, 2014) analyzed stomach contents of yellow perch collected during 2009 and 2010. We subsequently analyzed morphology and stable isotope ratios of individuals collected concomitantly (i.e., in the same trawl tows), but these were different individuals than those analyzed for stomach contents. All research presented in the manuscript was conducted in accordance with all applicable laws and rules set forth by governments and institutions and all necessary permits were acquired when the research was conducted, including a Scientific Collector's Permit from the State of Michigan. This work was approved under Purdue Animal Care and Use Committee's Protocol 1112000400.

Morphology

After thawing fish, we captured images for morphological analysis. We placed individual 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 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 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

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 of 2010 (see Table 1). Senegal (2019) demonstrated that due to significant month effects, it was inappropriate to group samples across months. Therefore, to maintain a balanced design, we conducted three separate perMANOVAs: a) excluding SB-14, b) excluding 2010, and c) excluding September. Site was a factor in each of these perMANOVAs, while month (a and b) and year (a and c) were a factor in two out of the three perMANOVAs.

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 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 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 224 differences (Figure 1).

Stable Isotopes

226 After removing stomachs, we dried whole fish at $70\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ and placed samples in individual 227 vials. Samples were ground by mortar and pestle, and then analyzed for carbon and nitrogen 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 \pm 0.17) and we intended to use isotope ratio values to estimate contributions of coarse prey categories (i.e., benthic or pelagic), so we did not perform a mathematical lipid correction on 232 values (Post et al., 2007). We measured C and N isotope values relative to the Vienna Pee Dee 233 belemnite and atmospheric N_2 standards, respectively, via two-point calibration using the CBT 234 (an animal standard) and KCRN (a plant standard) reference materials. Soft tissue isotopic analysis occurred at the Cornell University Stable Isotope Laboratory. We report stable isotope 236 ratios as delta (δ) values, or per mil $(\%$ = $((R_{sample}/R_{standard})$ -1) x10³, where $R_{standard}$ is one of the 212 of 2010 (see Tacht 1). Standard (2012) denotes and propriate to group samples across months

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238 We plotted the mean \pm SE δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N of soft tissues in a stable isotope biplot. Initial 239 inspection of the data showed distinct site differences for $\delta^{15}N$ and temporal differences for $\delta^{13}C$. 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 site, year, month, and length), as well as all two-way interaction terms. For final models, we 245 246 subsequently excluded insignificant interaction terms. All statistical analyses were performed in 247 R (R Core Team, 2019).

- 248
- 249 **Results**
- *Fish collection* 250

251 In total, we collected and analyzed 139 age-0 yellow perch for morphology ($n = 139$) and 252 stable isotope ratios ($n = 80$; Table 1). However, no fish were available for September of 2010 at 253 SB-14. Yellow perch total length ranged from 41-75 mm (average = 57.4 mm).

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SB-14. 255 Again, due to lack of samples from SB-14 during September of 2010 we conducted three 256 separate perMANOVAs to compare morphologies across sites. The perMANOVA excluding 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 $(\mathbb{R}^2_{1,110} = 0.03, \mathbb{P} = 0.024)$ were significant. When excluding 2010 or September data, no factors in the perMANOVAs were significant (Table 2). DFA results displayed significant 259 260 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 $\delta^{15}N$ 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 270 δ^{15} N values were significantly influenced by site and month among analyses (Table 3), year 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 273 (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 274 removed, there was a significant interaction between year and length $(F_{1,34}=12.98, P=0.001)$ on δ ¹⁵N values.
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277 **Discussion**

 Long-term habitat and trophic indicators, stable isotopes and morphology, displayed intrapopulation variation among age-0 yellow perch in Saginaw Bay. As expected, spatial variation was evident in stable isotope values and morphology. While both isotope ratios displayed significant spatial differences, $\delta^{15}N$ values demonstrated a much clearer separation 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 greater inter-annual variation than spatial variation.

286 *Spatial Patterns*

 Stable isotopes and morphology spatial patterns were generally consistent with stomach content patterns observed by Roswell et al. (2013). Yellow perch from SB-2 and SB-14 had stomach contents primarily consisting of zooplankton, while fish from SB-10 had a greater proportion of benthic macroinvertebrates in their stomach contents (Figure 1). Despite variable zooplankter and benthic macroinvertebrate densities between years, these stomach content spatial patterns remained generally consistent (Roswell et al., 2013). The same spatial differences were reflected by stable isotopes and morphology, with yellow perch collected at SB-294 296 10 distinguished from the symmetric method of the other two sites. The symmetric spatial patterns are the other two sites. The symmetric spatial patterns at the other two sites. The consistently had the strongest

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

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

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s 309 Yellow perch from sites closer to the Saginaw River mouth had higher $\delta^{15}N$ values. This pattern may be related to increased contribution and influence of allochthonous input for these 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 in fish δ¹⁵N values (Vandermyde & Whitledge, 2008). The drainage basin of Saginaw Bay encompasses over 22,000 km² of industrial, urban, and agricultural land (Millie et al., 2006), of which about half is predominantly agricultural (Fales et al., 2016). Considering the southeastern position of SB-2 and SB-14 and the general counter-clockwise flow of the Saginaw River plume (Stow & Höök, 2013), observed spatial patterns of age-0 yellow perch $\delta^{15}N$ values are consistent with expectations based upon the assumed influence of a large, agriculturally-dominant watershed. Decomposition of settled plankton may also affect the $\delta^{15}N$ values of particle-feeding invertebrates. Decomposition occurring under anoxic conditions can lead to greater decreases in particulate δ¹⁵N than decomposition under oxic conditions (Lehmann et al. 2002). Plausibly, the combination of greater depth, thermal stratification and silt substrate at SB-10 may have contributed to anoxic decomposition at this site which may be reflected in relatively low 324 consumer δ^{15} N values.

325 Differences in $\delta^{13}C$ of organic matter can be attributed to long-term variation in 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.

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 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.

346 In freshwater environments, δ^{13} C values can be used to differentiate between littoral, 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 $\delta^{13}C$ values to be

356 relatively high at SB-10. While $\delta^{13}C$ values overlapped among sites, they were on average lower 357 for yellow perch from SB-10 (Figure 5). We did not design our study to evaluate mechanisms 358 contributing to this unexpected pattern. However, it is possible that within year spatial 359 differences in δ^{13} C are primarily related to spatial differences in allochthonous inputs, the 360 influence of Lake Huron proper, and dominant primary producers, rather than differences in the 361 type of prey consumed across sites. In fact, differences in the type of prey consumed among sites 362 may have served to temper differences in observed yellow perch $\delta^{13}C$ among sites.

and the Homon Constitution in the superior of the superior of the superior of the Soginal and the Soginal and the Soginal and the stock of the Morphological variation of fish between benthic and pelagic habitats is well documented (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 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. Mouth position, which is associated with foraging strategy, was inconsistent with previous studies (e.g., Langerhans et al., 2003; Parker et al., 2009). Yellow perch from SB-10 had 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 position and feeding mode, mouth position may be influenced by unknown characteristics of 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 377 to 2010. Unlike clear seasonal patterns of δ^{13} C values (e.g., Lehmann et al., 2004b), annual 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 380 inputs of terrestrial organic matter (e.g., Lehmann et al., 2004a). Estimated total phosphorus 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

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

 Annual differences in internal and external nutrient loading also could favor the differential production of benthic invertebrates and zooplankters. Available densities of benthic about the recruitment ware the spatial patterns of the relation of the relation. In the received a pronounced shift in the recruitment, the recruitment is addition to expatially time at site SB-10, where yellow perch fed p invertebrates in Saginaw Bay generally increased from 2009 to 2010 (Roswell et al., 2013). This was especially true at site SB-10, where yellow perch fed primarily on benthic invertebrates. In contrast, peak late summer zooplankton densities decreased from 2009 to 2010 (see SB-2 and 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 from 2009 to 2010 are consistent with changes in available prey. However, this shift was generally not reflected in stomach content of age-0 yellow perch (Figure 1; Roswell et al., 2013). 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 $\delta^{13}C$ values 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 this shift in prey availability and the ultimate cause of increased yellow perch $\delta^{13}C$ values in Saginaw Bay are unclear.

Conclusion

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

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

Acknowledgements

- The authors thank the students and technicians involved with sample collection and analysis. The authors thank the staff at the Cornell University Stable Isotope Laboratory (COIL) for soft tissue analysis. Figure 1 was developed with the assistance of Carolyn Foley. Figure 3 was illustrated by Tim Malinich. This paper was greatly improved from comments from two anonymous reviewers. The project was funded by an award from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration's (NOAA) Center for Sponsored Coastal Ocean Research and Purdue University's Department of Forestry and Natural Resources. 444
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422 Acknowledgements
423 Acknowledgements
426 Adams, D. C., Rohlf, F. J., as eveloped with the assistance of Carolyn Foley, Figure 3 wa
425 authors thank the studies are comed University
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Conflict of Interest

- The authors declare no conflict of interest.
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Author Contributions

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

- Fish sampling data and statistical results are available from the corresponding author.
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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 morphological 650 (Morpho) analyses.

				September	266	9	10
		Depth: 3.8 m	2009	August	216, 217, 222	9	12
	$SB-14$	Sub: Sand		September	244, 245	6	7
			2010	August	222, 223	6	9
				September	266	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$
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654 **Table 2.** perMANOVA results for morphometric analyses. Results from three separate analyses: 655 a) excluding SB-14, b) excluding 2010, and c) excluding September. Factors include: site, year, 656

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659 **Table 3.** ANCOVA results for yellow perch carbon ($\delta^{13}C$) and nitrogen ($\delta^{15}N$) 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
- 662 interaction, and year-length interaction. Significant results (P<0.05) in bold. Excluded data

663 represented by "--".

Figure legends

- **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
- categories include: calanoid copepods, Chironomidae larvae, epibenthic Chydoridae, *Daphnia*
- spp., other, other zooplankton (e.g., *Bosmina*, *Cyclopoida*), and predatory zooplankton (e.g.,
- *Bythotrephes* spp., *Leptodora* spp.). Note that benthic diet items were far more important at site
- 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). **Figure 1. Pr**ey densities of zooplankton (*top row*) and bend and yellow perch stomach contents by proportional dry manuscription of 669 categories include: calanoid copepods, Chironomidae larve spp., other, other zo
- **Figure 3.** Landmark locations on image of yellow perch for geometric morphometrics.
- **Figure 4.** Wireframe plots from discriminant function analysis (DFA) displaying shape
- differences in average shape between site pairs. Sites denoted by color: (a) SB-10 (black) vs SB-
- 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

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