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8 **Individual and spatial variation are as important as species-level variation to the trophic**
complexity of a lentic food web

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27

28 **Abstract**

29 Ecological complexity may improve ecosystem function, stability, and adaptability to
30 natural and anthropogenic disturbances. Intraspecific trophic variation can represent a
31 significant component of total community variation and can influence food web structure and
32 function. Thus, understanding how trophic niches are partitioned between intraspecific and
33 interspecific processes could improve our understanding of food web dynamics. We examined
34 gut contents, fatty acids, and stable isotope ratios in round goby (*Neogobius melanostomus*) and
35 yellow perch (*Perca flavescens*) across six sites in Lake Michigan, USA, to determine patterns in
36 intra- and interspecific trophic composition (*i.e.*, mean gut or fatty acid composition) and
37 diversity (*i.e.*, the diversity of gut items or fatty acids). We also examined relationships between
38 fatty acid diversity and gut content characteristics to understand potential mechanisms shaping
39 individual trophic phenotypes. There was significant variation in both trophic composition and
40 diversity among sites, and individual and spatial variation was as important to total trophic
41 variation as species identity. Round goby that consumed dreissenid mussels had more diverse
42 fatty acid profiles than those that consumed other benthic invertebrates, whereas yellow perch
43 fatty acid diversity was not related to gut content composition. Our results confirm that
44 intraspecific variation in resource use can be as important to trophic dynamics as interspecific
45 variation, and that spatial variation in lower level food web processes or habitat may strongly
46 structure local food web dynamics. Individual-level examination of trophic diversity, in concert
47 with trophic composition, could provide additional information about the resilience, function,
48 and adaptability of local food webs.

49

50 **1 | INTRODUCTION**

51 Food web complexity, defined as the number of linkages of energy pathways in an
52 ecosystem, may promote ecosystem stability by increasing the density of trophic linkages
53 between food web components, coupling disparate habitats or energetic pathways, and increasing
54 the functional overlap of niches, allowing for ecosystem function to be maintained even if
55 species are lost (Hubbell, 2005; Layman et al., 2007; Schindler et al., 2010; McMeans et al.,
56 2016). However, trophic complexity is most often considered at an interspecific level and
57 regards species or populations as functionally homogenous, even though recent evidence
58 suggests that intraspecific (i.e., within-species) complexity arising from spatial, seasonal, or
59 ontogenetic variation in trophic niche use can represent a significant proportion of overall
60 community functional variability (Violle et al., 2012; Faulks et al., 2015; Siefert et al., 2015).
61 Such intraspecific variability in trophic niche size and position can alter community composition
62 by influencing niche partitioning among functionally similar species (Pool et al., 2016; Allgeier
63 et al., 2017) and facilitating occupancy of otherwise unfilled trophic niches (Eklöv & Jonsson,
64 2007; Quevedo et al., 2009). Not accounting for intraspecific trophic variation may therefore
65 lead to biologists missing a major source of functional adaptability in food webs (Violle et al.,
66 2012; Allgeier et al., 2017).

67 The extent of intra- and inter-specific trophic complexity can be driven not only by
68 inherent foraging behaviors, but also by individual responses to environmental factors, such as
69 spatial or temporal heterogeneity in resource availability (Crowder & Cooper, 1982; Svanbäck &
70 Eklöv, 2006; Larson et al., 2015; Eloranta et al., 2017). The importance of individual niche
71 variation to total community trophic complexity remains poorly understood, but there is some
72 evidence that individual responses to environmental conditions can influence food web structure
73 (Svanbäck & Eklöv, 2003; Quevedo et al., 2009). For example, individuals inhabiting large,
74 deep lakes may exhibit increased specialization on littoral or pelagic resources, decreasing
75 within-individual trophic complexity (Snorrason et al., 1994; Eloranta et al., 2017) with the
76 overall effect of decreasing connectivity between benthic and pelagic energy pathways (Quevedo
77 et al., 2009). Understanding broad-scale spatial patterns in the responses of individuals and
78 species to environmental variation could help predict food web adaptability to major
79 anthropogenic stressors, providing a foundation for understanding the importance of underlying
80 energy pathways in shaping food web complexity.

81 Measures of trophic niche, such as gut contents, fatty acid composition, and stable
82 isotope ratios, can be considered components of an expanded trophic phenotype (Houle,
83 Govindaraju & Omholt, 2010). These metrics have been primarily used to understand the
84 average trophic position of consumers (e.g., Jackson *et al.*, 2011; Happel *et al.*, 2015; Foley *et*
85 *al.*, 2017), but there is increasing interest in using these metrics to understand how trophic
86 diversity is partitioned among individuals, populations, and species (Price & Guglielmo, 2009;
87 Bolnick *et al.*, 2011). Understanding variability in individual-level trophic diversity (Bolnick *et*
88 *al.*, 2002, 2014) could also provide insights into the impacts of resource use on individual fitness.
89 Fatty acid diversity has been linked to measures of performance like peak metabolic rate in birds
90 (Price & Guglielmo, 2009) and swimming speed and cardiac output in fish (Chatelier *et al.*,
91 2006) whereas diet mixing improved growth and fecundity in an amphipod (Cruz-Rivera & Hay,
92 2000). At the community level, treating trophic characteristics as complex traits could enable
93 partitioning of trophic complexity across levels of organization (Marion *et al.*, 2015), allowing
94 for the quantification of energy flows through food webs and improved assessments of true
95 community functional diversity (Hubbell, 2005; Bolnick *et al.*, 2011).

96 We used a set of observations from six spatially distinct sites in Lake Michigan, USA, to
97 investigate patterns in the trophic composition (i.e., the abundance and types of resources used)
98 and trophic complexity (i.e., the distribution of different resources used, regardless of identity) of
99 two fishes that occupy similar nearshore habitats: invasive round goby (*Neogobius*
100 *melanostomus*) and native yellow perch (*Perca flavescens*). We did so by evaluating the
101 composition of gut contents, fatty acids, and stable isotopes using multivariate comparison and
102 ordination, and by using a complexity-as-diversity approach to quantify gut content and fatty
103 acid complexity in terms of Shannon's effective diversity (Marion, Fordyce & Fitzpatrick 2015).
104 Round goby and yellow perch are highly abundant in nearshore Lake Michigan and serve
105 important ecological roles in the nearshore food web (Marsden & Robillard, 2004; Truempel &
106 Lauer, 2005; Houghton & Janssen, 2015). Round goby are restricted to the substrate and thus
107 prey most heavily on benthic resources while yellow perch are highly mobile and able to prey on
108 both planktonic and benthic resources (Happel *et al.*, 2015; Foley *et al.*, 2017). Yellow perch
109 and closely related Eurasian perch (*P. fluviatilis*) have demonstrated considerable plasticity in
110 foraging strategies and morphology in response to environmental conditions (Svanbäck & Eklöv,
111 2003, 2006; Olsson *et al.*, 2007; Roswell *et al.*, 2013). However, less is known about the

112 plasticity of round goby. Comparing spatio-temporal patterns in the trophic niches exploited by
113 these two species with potentially different abilities to respond to resource variation allowed us
114 to address several questions about how trophic niches are partitioned in complex aquatic food
115 webs, including 1) Does trophic composition vary spatially, and how is it partitioned among
116 seasons, sites, and species?; 2) Does trophic diversity vary spatially, and how is it partitioned
117 among individuals, seasons, sites, and species?; and 3) Does diet drive fatty acid diversity in
118 individuals? Examining the trophic composition and diversity of these species across three
119 trophic markers allowed us to elucidate the importance of individual, spatial, and taxonomic
120 differences in trophic niche construction in a large and complex freshwater food web.

121

122 **2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS**

123 **2.1 | Study sites**

124 Fish and benthic invertebrate samples were collected in July and September 2010 at six
125 nearshore sites around Lake Michigan: Fox Point, WI (FP); Highland Park, IL (HP); Calumet, IN
126 (CA), Saugatuck, MI (SA), Arcadia, MI (AR), and Sturgeon Bay, WI (SB) (Figure 1). While
127 these sites were all considered to have hard substrate, they varied in the specific habitat types
128 available. Fox Point is Devonian mudstone/shale bedrock with pockets of cobble, and Highland
129 Park and Calumet are Niagaran bedrock with cobble-filled glacial grooves and depressions.
130 Saugatuck and Arcadia are dominated by loose cobble and located near primarily sandy
131 substrate, whereas Sturgeon Bay is loose cobble with nearby Niagaran bedrock. In addition,
132 eastern sites (Arcadia and Saugatuck) receive riverine inputs from multiple large watersheds,
133 whereas southern and western sites have limited riverine inputs and Sturgeon Bay receives tidal
134 cycle influxes of water from the warmer and more productive Green Bay. The northern basin of
135 Lake Michigan is primarily forested while the southern basin is dominated by agriculture and
136 urban watersheds (NOAA CSC, 2013).

137 **2.2 | Fish and invertebrate collection**

138 The yellow perch, round goby, and invertebrate samples used in this study were collected
139 as part of a larger study to examine the nearshore Lake Michigan food web, and all relevant

140 sampling protocols are detailed in previous studies (Happel et al., 2015; Foley et al., 2017). Fish
141 were collected via experimental micromesh gill nets. At Wisconsin sites and SA, we used 60-m
142 long nets with two panels of 6 and 8 mm bar mesh, whereas all other sites were sampled with 40-
143 m long nets with four panels of 6, 8, 10, and 12 mm bar mesh. Nets were set parallel to shore at
144 3, 7 to 9, and 12 to 15 m depth contours and allowed to fish either for two hours or overnight.
145 We only kept living fish for analysis, which were euthanized via overdose of MS-222. We
146 collected benthic invertebrate samples via either ponar grab sampling, benthic scrapes, or diving
147 lifts, depending on the substrate at each site. All samples were immediately frozen on dry ice,
148 then stored at -80 °C until processing.

149 In the lab, all fish were thawed and measured to the nearest 1 mm total length (TL; Table
150 1). Either the stomach (from yellow perch) or entire digestive tract (for round goby) was
151 removed from each fish and stored in 95% ethanol until processing. Following gut removal, we
152 homogenized whole fish for stable isotope and fatty acid analysis. We analyzed gut contents by
153 first removing all prey items from the digestive tract of each fish, identifying each item to the
154 lowest possible taxon, and enumerating their abundance (for further details, see Happel *et al.*,
155 2015; Foley *et al.*, 2017). We developed a standardized set of 17 prey items from the taxa
156 present in the guts of both species for use in comparing between-species patterns in gut content
157 diversity and composition (Table S1). We classified prey items in terms of taxonomic (primarily
158 family or order), functional (e.g., trophic position, metabolism), and behavioral (e.g., feeding,
159 habitat use, position in the water column) traits as accurately as possible given limitations in
160 identifying often partially digested organisms (Czesny *et al.*, 2011; Feiner *et al.*, 2018a). For
161 example, we distinguished between Chironomidae larvae and pupae because of evidence that
162 metabolic processes during metamorphosis lead to distinct fatty acid and isotopic signatures in
163 each (Hanson *et al.*, 1985; Doi *et al.*, 2007). These gut content categorizations therefore
164 represent the scope of potential gut content diversity on an ecologically relevant scale, allowing
165 us to investigate how diversity and composition of diets potentially influence diversity and
166 composition of biochemical markers.

167 The fatty acid composition of each fish was determined by extracting lipids from
168 homogenized tissue (Folch *et al.*, 1957), transmethylating fatty acids (Metcalfe & Schmitz,
169 1961), and analyzing the abundance of 28 fatty acids using gas chromatography/mass

170 spectrometry (Agilent 7890A GC and 5975C inert XL EI/CI/ MSD, Agilent Technologies, Inc.,
171 Santa Clara, CA, USA), as described in previous studies (Turschak et al., 2014; Happel et al.,
172 2015; Foley et al., 2017). We quantified fatty acid relative abundance as the proportion by mass
173 of all fatty acids detected (Table S2).

174 We performed stable carbon and nitrogen isotope analyses by freeze-drying homogenate
175 samples for 48 h and measuring isotope ratios using a mass spectrometer (Finnigan MAT delta S
176 SIR-MS, with elemental analyzer front end and ConFlo II interface, Bremen, Germany). Results
177 are reported in relation to Pee Dee Belemnite and atmospheric nitrogen reference standards using
178 the conventional $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ notation (Turschak et al., 2014; Happel et al., 2015; Foley et al.,
179 2017). Carbon isotope ratios were corrected for lipid content in each fish as reflected in C:N
180 ratios using species-specific equations developed for yellow perch and round goby in Lake
181 Michigan (Turschak et al., 2014).

182 Benthic invertebrate samples (whole bodies for Arthropoda, foot muscle for Gastropoda
183 and Dreissenidae) were dried, ground, and analyzed for stable isotope signatures using the same
184 methods as fish samples. Isotopic signatures of abundant taxa (quagga mussel [*Dreissena*
185 *rostriformis bugensis*], Chironomidae larvae, Gastropoda, Amphipoda, and Isopoda) were then
186 used to determine the benthic and pelagic isotopic baselines for each site. We used the most ^{13}C -
187 depleted values for filter-feeding quagga mussel (since filter-feeding mussels have been shown
188 to act as a reliable primary consumer of pelagic production; Post, 2002) as a pelagic baseline and
189 the most ^{13}C -enriched chironomid, gastropod, amphipod, or isopods as a benthic baseline to
190 completely encapsulate the full potential isotopic range of the food web at each site. We used
191 the most ^{15}N -depleted mussels as a pelagic baseline and the most ^{15}N -depleted benthic
192 invertebrates as a benthic baseline (Table S3).

193 We estimated benthic reliance as the proportion of carbon individuals derived from
194 benthic sources using a two-member mixing model based on the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature of each fish and
195 baseline consumer values at each respective site (Equation 1; Post, 2002; Ives et al., 2013)

196 (1)
$$\alpha = 1 - \frac{(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{fish}} - \Delta - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{benthic}})}{(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{pelagic}} - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{benthic}})}.$$

197 The parameter Δ is a correction factor for trophic enrichment in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Equation 2),

198 (2)
$$\Delta = 0.4 \left[\frac{(\delta^{15}\text{N}_{fish} - \delta^{15}\text{N}_{benthic})}{3.4} + 1 \right],$$

199 where 0.4 and 3.4 are the assumed mean per mil fractionation per trophic position for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and
200 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, respectively (Minagawa & Wada, 1984; Vander Zanden & Rasmussen, 2001). We then
201 determined the relative trophic position of each individual fish at each site (Equation 3; Vander
202 Zanden et al., 2000):

203 (3)
$$\text{Trophic position} = 2 + \frac{\delta^{15}\text{N}_{fish} - [\delta^{15}\text{N}_{benthic} \times \alpha + \delta^{15}\text{N}_{pelagic} \times (1-\alpha)]}{3.4},$$

204 assuming a primary consumer trophic position of 2 and a $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ enrichment of 3.4‰ per trophic
205 transfer (Minagawa & Wada, 1984). Two round gobies (out of $N = 95$) were more $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ enriched
206 or depleted than the baselines and were corrected by setting α to one and zero, respectively. We
207 did not assess isotopic niche metrics at site AR because no baseline data were collected from that
208 site for either species.

209 **2.2 | Data analysis**

210 **2.2.1 | Spatial variation and partitioning of in trophic composition**

211 We used a series of analyses to investigate individual, seasonal, spatial, and interspecific
212 patterns in trophic composition in this study (see Table 2 for a summary of methods and general
213 conclusions). Site-level differences in the multivariate composition of gut content, fatty acid,
214 and isotopic niche (in benthic reliance – trophic position space) within each species were
215 assessed using PERMANOVA (999 permutations, R package ‘vegan’, v. 2.4-1; Oskansen *et al.*,
216 2013) with site as the explanatory factor and fish length as a covariate. We did not consider
217 seasonal variation in this analysis because seasonal variation was limited in other tests in this
218 study and in previous research using these samples (Foley *et al.*, 2017). We used Euclidean
219 distances in analysis of fatty acid and stable isotope data and Bray-Curtis distances to analyze
220 gut content data due to the increased incidence of zeroes. When the overall PERMANOVA
221 indicated significant differences in a given trophic metric, we used post hoc pairwise
222 PERMANOVA on all combinations of sites to test for specific significant differences after
223 correcting for multiple comparisons (Holm-corrected $P < 0.05$; Aickin & Gensler, 1996).

224 We used species-specific principal components analysis (PCA, R package ‘vegan’) on
225 gut content and fatty acids to visualize site-level differences and to generate simplified,
226 orthogonal diet composition axes for use in subsequent analyses. All data were centered and
227 scaled, and fatty acid data were further natural log + 1 transformed to meet the assumptions of a
228 PCA. We identified and retained significant and interpretable principal components using a
229 randomization test based on eigenvalues (λ_k) for each of the k possible principal components
230 (PCs). The data were randomized 1000 times, a PCA was performed on each randomized
231 dataset, and the proportion of randomized λ_k that were larger than the observed λ_k served as a test
232 statistic significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ (R package ‘PCDimension’; Peres-Neto et al., 2005; Coombes &
233 Wang, 2018). Based on this test, the first two and one (although two were retained for
234 visualization purposes) out of 11 gut content PCs explained 44% and 21% of round goby and
235 yellow perch diet content variation, and the first two and three (out of 28) fatty acid PCs
236 explained 50% and 62% of the variation in round goby and yellow perch fatty acid composition
237 (Figure 2, Tables S4, S5). We visualized the isotopic niches of each species at each site in
238 bivariate benthic reliance – trophic position space.

239 We were interested in determining how trophic composition and diversity were
240 partitioned across individual, site, season, and species levels (Table 2). To do so, we compared
241 trophic metrics of individuals of both species captured at the same sites and seasons (sites FP,
242 HP, CA, SA, and AR for gut contents and fatty acids, and FP, HP, CA, and SA for stable
243 isotopes; Figure 1). To determine variance partitioning of trophic composition, we used
244 PERMANOVA with season, site, their interaction, and species as explanatory factors and either
245 fatty acid, gut content, or stable isotopic composition as the response variables, and determined
246 the explanatory power (R^2) and significance (χ^2) of each factor.

247 2.2.2 | Spatial variation and partitioning of in trophic diversity

248 We used the complexity-as-diversity approach to evaluate trophic diversity in gut
249 contents and fatty acids (Marion et al., 2015). Briefly, the diversity of gut contents or fatty acids
250 was described in terms of Shannon’s effective diversity qD (Equation 4):

251 (4)
$${}^qD = \left(\sum_{i=1}^K p_i^q \right)^{1/(1-q)},$$

252 where p_i is the proportional abundance of gut item or fatty acid i across all K items or acids
253 examined. Note that this index of diversity can be weighted by the abundances of each
254 component by varying the parameter q , where $q = 0$ means weights are disregarded (and
255 therefore 0D represents richness), and the abundance of components becomes increasingly
256 important as q increases. We assessed spatial variation in gut content and fatty acid diversity at
257 two levels of q : first, we represented general diversity with weak abundance weighting by using
258 $q = 1$ (for which the limit represents the exponentiated Shannon's diversity). Second, we
259 emphasized the diversity of abundant (and therefore potentially more ecologically important)
260 components by using diversity at $q = 4$ (diversity metrics also largely stabilized at $q > 4$). After
261 determining trophic diversity using this method, we could then summarize and partition diversity
262 using three metrics common in community ecology: α diversity, the mean "local" diversity
263 observed within a hierarchical level (e.g., the mean number of diet components or fatty acids
264 observed within individuals at a site); γ diversity, the total "regional" diversity observed across a
265 hierarchical level (e.g., the total number of diet components or fatty acids observed across
266 individuals at a site); and additive β diversity, the amount of excess diversity observed
267 "regionally" that was not observed "locally" (e.g., the additional number of diet components or
268 fatty acids observed across individuals at a site not present within the average individual; $\beta = \gamma -$
269 α) (also see Marion et al., 2015).

270 We tested for differences in gut content and fatty acid diversity among sites by
271 determining α diversity at each site and using a bootstrap approach to estimate uncertainty in
272 site-level means. We conservatively interpreted sites-level estimates of fatty acid and gut
273 content diversity to be significantly different when bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals did
274 not overlap. We determined isotopic niche size among sites estimating standard ellipse areas
275 using Bayesian inference (SEA_B) encapsulating approximately 80% of the data in bivariate
276 benthic reliance – trophic position space using R package 'SIBER' following the
277 recommendations of Jackson et al. (2011). We compared SEA_B among sites within each species
278 determining whether 95% credible intervals overlapped. For visualization of stable isotope niche
279 size and position, we used small sample size corrected standard ellipse areas (SEA_C) also
280 calculated in 'SIBER'.

281 We used the group-wise partitioning method to investigate the partitioning of trophic
282 diversity across levels of organization (Marion et al., 2015). Using the ‘hierDiversity’ package,
283 we estimated gut or fatty acid α , γ , and β diversity at five hierarchical levels. We first estimated
284 α and β diversity within each combination of species, season, and site and averaged α and β
285 diversity across groups to determine the mean individual diversity observed (e.g., the mean
286 diversity of individuals of each species collected from one site and season) and the mean
287 information gained by grouping individuals by sampling event (e.g., the mean excess diversity
288 observed among individuals of the same species captured at the same site and season). We then
289 estimated mean β diversity at each hierarchical level using the same process: species and site-
290 specific β diversity (i.e., mean excess diversity observed across seasons for each species and
291 site); mean species- and season-specific β diversity (i.e., mean excess diversity observed across
292 sites within species and seasons), mean species-specific β diversity (i.e., mean excess diversity
293 observed across seasons and sites within each species), and finally between-species β diversity
294 (i.e., excess diversity observed between species). We then calculated the proportion of overall
295 diversity (γ) contributed by each grouping. To understand how diversity partitioning varied with
296 increasing component abundances, we performed partitioning at levels of q from $q = 0$ to $q = 6$.

297 2.2.3 | Mechanisms driving fatty acid diversity

298 We tested for relationships between fatty acid diversity and gut contents using linear
299 mixed-modeling fit with maximum likelihood (R package ‘lme4’; Bates *et al.*, 2015) with
300 individual fatty acid diversity ($q = 1$) as the response, fish total length as a covariate, and either
301 gut content diversity ($q = 1$) or gut content composition (significant principal components of the
302 diet PCA for each species) as continuous explanatory variables with random intercepts and
303 slopes among sites,

304 (5)
$$y_{ij} = (\beta_0 + u_{0j}) + (\beta_1 + u_{1j})X_{ij} + \beta_2 TL_{ij},$$

305 where y_{ij} represents the fatty acid or gut content diversity of fish i and site j , β_0 is the mean
306 intercept, β_1 is the mean effect of the respective response variable (gut content diversity, PC 1, or
307 PC 2), and β_2 is the fixed effect of fish total length (TL_{ij}). u_{0j} and u_{1j} are the random intercept
308 and slope coefficients accounting for variation in mean fatty acid diversity or the relationships
309 between fatty acid diversity and predictors among sites j . Random slopes were evaluated for

310 significance using χ^2 tests comparing the full model (Equation 5) with a reduced model
311 excluding random slopes (Equation 6) and dropped from the model when not significant to
312 simplify interpretation of the effect of response variables:

313 (6)
$$y_{ij} = (\beta_0 + u_{0j}) + \beta_1 X_{ij} + \beta_2 TL_{ij}.$$

314 The significance of the effects of total length and the indicator of trophic composition (gut
315 content diversity and gut content PCs) were evaluated using bootstrapped 95% confidence
316 intervals.

317 **3 | RESULTS**

318 **3.1 | Spatial variation and partitioning of trophic composition**

319 Round goby gut contents varied significantly among sites (pseudo- $F_{5,67} = 5.22$, $R^2 = 0.26$,
320 $P = 0.001$) and with fish length (pseudo- $F_{1,67} = 5.51$, $R^2 = 0.06$, $P = 0.001$). After accounting for
321 length variation, sites FP and HP were significantly different from sites CA, SA, and AR; site
322 CA was different from AR and SB; and AR and SB differed from one another (Table S6). These
323 differences were occurred largely along an axis trading off consumption of dreissenid mussels at
324 sites CA, SA, and AR versus consumption of benthic arthropods (including chironomid larvae,
325 pupae, and chydorid microcrustaceans) at sites FP and HP (Figure 2a, Tables S1, S4). Round
326 goby fatty acids exhibited similar significant spatial variation (PERMANOVA site effect:
327 pseudo- $F_{5,67} = 14.23$, $R^2 = 0.48$, $P = 0.001$) and variation with fish length (PERMANOVA
328 length effect: pseudo- $F_{1,67} = 9.76$, $R^2 = 0.07$, $P = 0.001$). After accounting for variation in fish
329 size, post hoc analyses revealed that round goby fatty acid composition at sites FP and HP was
330 significantly different from that at every other site, and site SA was significantly different from
331 CA and SB (site $R > 0.14$, $P < 0.05$ for all pairs; Table S7). Round goby at sites FP and HP
332 exhibited higher levels of fatty acids attributable to benthic energy sources, like C16:0, C16:1n-
333 7, and C18:1n-7 (Czesny et al., 2011), whereas other sites exhibited higher levels of long-chain
334 polyunsaturated fatty acids often attributed to pelagic sources like C22:5n-3, C22:5n-6, and
335 C22:6n-3 (Figure 2c, Table S2).

336 Yellow perch diet and fatty acid variation followed somewhat similar spatial patterns to
337 those for round goby. Yellow perch gut contents demonstrated significant spatial variation

338 (pseudo- $F_{4,31} = 2.38$, $R^2 = 0.21$, $P = 0.002$) and varied with length (pseudo- $F_{1,31} = 5.79$, $R^2 = 0.12$, $P = 0.001$), where sites CA and SA were significantly different after accounting for length
339 differences ($R = 0.23$, $P = 0.04$; Table S6). Sites were effectively organized along two axes
340 exhibiting primary predation on fish (FP), a mix of benthic invertebrates and zooplankton prey
341 (HP and CA), or entirely zooplankton prey (SA and AR) (Figure 2b; Tables S1, S4). Yellow
342 perch fatty acids exhibited significant variation in fatty acid composition among sites (pseudo-
343 $F_{4,31} = 4.22$, $R^2 = 0.30$, $P = 0.002$) and with length (pseudo- $F_{1,32} = 7.89$, $R^2 = 0.14$, $P = 0.005$).
344 After accounting for length, FP was significantly different from CA, and HP was significantly
345 different from CA and AR (site $R > 0.24$, $P < 0.05$; Table S5, S7). Yellow perch fatty acid
346 variation was similar to that observed in round goby – sites FP and HP were high in C16:0,
347 C16:1n-7, and C18:2n-6, often associated with benthic production, whereas the other sites
348 exhibited higher abundances of C22:6n-3, C22:5n-6, and C20:4n-6 (Figure 2d, Table S2).
349

350 Stable isotopes revealed relatively consistent spatial variation in trophic niches between
351 species, but the spatial patterns differed from those identified with fatty acids or gut profiles.
352 Round goby niches differed in multivariate space across sites and with length, where site
353 explained 66% of the variation in isotopic niche position (pseudo- $F_{4,60} = 17.19$, $P = 0.001$) and
354 fish length explained 5.5% (pseudo- $F_{1,60} = 7.47$, $P = 0.007$). Trophic niches varied significantly
355 among all sites ($R > 0.2$, $P < 0.05$) except for FP and CA; CA and SB; and SA and SB (Table
356 S8). Round goby at FP and HP fed at a lower trophic position and were more reliant on benthic
357 production compared to those at SA, where they spanned a wide range of benthic reliance at
358 while feeding at low trophic position, and SB and CA, where they fed at an elevated trophic
359 position (Figures 3a, S1; Table S3). In yellow perch, length explained 50.7% (pseudo- $F_{1,24} = 42.73$,
360 $P = 0.001$) of the variation in isotopic niche and site explained an additional 20.9%
361 (pseudo- $F_{3,24} = 5.88$, $P = 0.001$), where site FP differed from HP and SA after accounting for
362 length differences (Table S8). Fish at SA and HP fed at low trophic position and had higher
363 benthic reliance compared to CA, where there was a wide range of trophic position, and FP,
364 where, contrary to round goby or evidence from diets and fatty acids, yellow perch exhibited
365 elevated trophic position and reduced benthic reliance (Figures 3b, S1; Table S3).

366 Partitioning trophic composition across levels of organization (from within-individual to
367 between species) revealed surprising patterns. Variance in gut content composition was evenly

partitioned between site (pseudo- $F_{4,91} = 4.06$, $R^2 = 0.12$, $P = 0.001$) and species levels (pseudo- $F_{1,91} = 15.17$, $R^2 = 0.11$, $P = 0.001$), with lessened (although significant) explanatory power of season (pseudo- $F_{1,91} = 7.08$, $R^2 = 0.05$, $P = 0.001$) and the interaction of season and site (pseudo- $F_{2,91} = 2.14$, $R^2 = 0.03$, $P = 0.002$). Variance in fatty acid composition followed a similar pattern to that of gut contents, with roughly equal explanatory power of site (pseudo- $F_{4,91} = 11.36$, $R^2 = 0.21$, $P = 0.001$) and species (pseudo- $F_{1,91} = 61.82$, $R^2 = 0.29$, $P = 0.001$), with little contribution from between-season variability (pseudo- $F_{1,91} = 14.82$, $R^2 = 0.07$, $P = 0.001$) or the interaction between season and site (pseudo- $F_{2,91} = 0.99$, $R^2 = 0.01$, $P = 0.382$), and 42.3% of the variation in individual fatty acid composition was unexplained. Like diet and fatty acid composition, variation in isotopic niche was largely reflective of variation among sites. Site identity explained almost half of the isotopic variation across species (pseudo- $F_{3,81} = 21.46$, $R^2 = 0.38$, $P = 0.001$). The interaction of site and season (pseudo- $F_{3,81} = 4.58$, $R^2 = 0.08$, $P = 0.002$) and species identity (pseudo- $F_{1,81} = 8.41$, $R^2 = 0.05$, $P = 0.003$) contributed considerably less to isotopic variation. Temporal variation among seasons had almost no power to explain variation in isotopic niches and did not contribute significantly to the model (pseudo- $F_{1,81} = 1.20$, $R^2 = 0.007$, $P = 0.261$).

3.2 | Spatial variation in trophic diversity and niche size

Gut content diversity exhibited essentially no spatial variability for either species – round gobies generally had 2 to 4 types of diet items in their guts, whereas yellow perch had generally consumed 1 to 2 types of diet items across sites (Figure 4a, c). Individuals of both species captured at FP and HP exhibited relatively lower fatty acid diversity at $q = 1$ than those at sites CA, SA, AR, and SB, with significant differences between those groups (Figure 4b,d). When examining the diversity of abundant fatty acids ($q = 4$), however, this spatial pattern held true for round goby but not yellow perch, as yellow perch fatty acid diversity was roughly equal across all sites (Figure 4d). Between species, round goby fatty acid diversity was higher than that of yellow perch at all sites, but these differences were only significant at site AR. Stable isotopes revealed variation in trophic niche size among sites. Round goby at sites FP, CA, and SA occupied significantly larger niches than gobies at HP or SB, which were not different from one another. Yellow perch isotopic niche size did not vary among sites, although yellow perch at site CA occupied a marginally larger niche compared to all other sites (Figure S2).

397 In partitioning trophic diversity, relatively little gut diversity variation was attributable to
398 within-individual variation due to the relatively low diversity of individual gut contents (~15%).
399 Instead, the largest contributors to gut content diversity were observed at the species (i.e., round
400 goby and yellow perch were eating relatively dissimilar items; ~32%) and the site levels (i.e.,
401 individuals of either species were eating relatively dissimilar items at different sites; ~21%)
402 (Figure 5a). Within season and site (~10%), within species (~15%), and seasonal (~7%)
403 variation contributed less to overall diet diversity. The proportional contribution of each level to
404 gut content diversity remained relatively unchanged across levels of q . Fatty acid diversity was
405 almost entirely contained within individuals (~80% of total observed diversity) (Figure 5b). As
406 q increased, the contribution of within-individual variation decreased from a high of 99% ($q = 0$)
407 to 79% ($q = 6$) of total fatty acid diversity. The remaining fatty acid diversity was roughly
408 evenly divided among within-season and site (0.6 – 5.7%), within site (0.4 – 5.4%), and between
409 species (0 – 6.4%). The contribution of seasonal variation in diversity was limited (~1%).

410 3.3| Drivers of fatty acid diversity

411 Accounting for variation among sites and with fish length, round goby fatty acid diversity
412 was negatively related to diet PC 1 (representing a gradient between consuming dreissenid
413 mussels to consuming benthic arthropods), but not related to gut content PC 2 or gut content
414 diversity (Table 3; Figure 6, S3). Yellow perch fatty acid diversity was not related to any
415 indicator of gut content composition or diversity (Table 3, Figure S3).

416

417 4 | DISCUSSION

418 Variation in the trophic structure of food webs can have important implications for their
419 stability (Paine, 1966; Layman et al., 2007; Faulks et al., 2015). By evaluating patterns in
420 trophic composition and diversity in two species, we found that sites where fish were more
421 reliant on benthic energy pathways exhibited reduced fatty acid diversity and isotopic niche size,
422 potentially driven by differences in prey consumption. This suggests that underlying resource
423 availability can have strong influences on these traits in individuals and populations. In addition,
424 we found that intraspecific spatial variability in resource use can match or even exceed trophic
425 variation observed among different species. Lastly, we determined that indices of trophic

426 diversity may not incorporate similar information on the diversity of resources utilized by
427 individuals or populations. Rather, diet composition (not diet diversity) appears to drive
428 variation in fatty acid diversity. These results offer further support for the thesis that individual
429 behavior can influence the realized trophic niche of a population, and that individual variation in
430 trophic phenotypes can play a significant role in determining overall food web structure
431 (Hubbell, 2005; Allgeier et al., 2017).

432 **4.1 | Spatial variation in trophic diversity and niche size**

433 Variation in habitat and resource use can have strong effects on local food web structure
434 (Hessen & Leu, 2006; Lau et al., 2012; Galloway & Winder, 2015; Larson et al., 2015). We
435 observed strong concordance in the spatial patterns of trophic composition and trophic diversity
436 between round goby and yellow perch in Lake Michigan. Two sites on the west side of the lake
437 exhibited lower fatty acid diversity and increased reliance on benthic invertebrates compared to
438 all other sites even after accounting for differences in fish size. These western sites are
439 dominated by bedrock and large cobble while generally experiencing weaker water currents,
440 whereas other sites are composed of a mixture of rocky and sandy habitats and experience
441 stronger water currents (Beletsky & Schwab, 2001; Janssen et al., 2005). Thus, rocky but calmer
442 western habitats may have increased the availability of interstitial spaces for benthic
443 invertebrates and improved searching ability of fish predators (Crowder & Cooper, 1982; Kuhns
444 & Berg, 1999; Tierney et al., 2011). Dreissenid beds occupying rocky areas may also provide
445 refuge for other macroinvertebrates, increasing their abundance and availability to fish predators
446 (Ward & Ricciardi, 2007). Supporting this, a pattern of increased benthic reliance on the western
447 side of Lake Michigan has been observed previously, meaning such differences in resource use
448 are stable over time and may result from consistent spatial patterns in habitat and resource
449 availability (Czesny et al., 2011). The consistency of these patterns in two different species after
450 considering ontogenetic differences among sites suggests that spatial variance in available
451 resources can play a substantial role in structuring fish niches (Robinson & Wilson, 1998).

452 Spatial variation in lower food web processes can also exert strong influences on spatial
453 heterogeneity in food web structure in aquatic systems (Crowder & Cooper, 1982; Sass et al.,
454 2006; Rude et al., 2016). The southwest portion of the lake receives relatively little
455 allochthonous nutrient input from different land use types (forested versus urban and agriculture)

456 compared to other sites, which may affect fatty acid availability by changing primary production
457 pathways from bacterial and detrital sources to phytoplankton production (Lau et al., 2012;
458 Larson et al., 2013; Scharold et al., 2015; Rude et al., 2016). Similar west-to-east spatial patterns
459 have been observed in the microbial communities, nitrogen cycling dynamics, and nearshore
460 primary productivity in Lake Michigan (Gardner et al., 2004; Hutton Stadig, 2016; Turschak et
461 al., 2018). The consistency of spatial patterns between both species suggests that these dynamics
462 are likely shaping local variation in food web structure, with implications for whole food web
463 function and, potentially, habitat quality (MacPherson et al., 2015; McMeans et al., 2016).
464 Increased individual trophic diversity may potentially improve individual fitness (e.g., parasite
465 loads, the composition of gut biota, and response to stress or exertion; Merrick, Chumbley &
466 Byrd, 1997; Chatelier *et al.*, 2006; Ahlgren, Vrede & Goedkoop, 2009; Locke, Marcogliese &
467 Valtonen, 2014; Bolnick *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, increased trophic diversity could be a potential
468 indicator of habitat and resource quality for consumers, as sites exhibiting decreased trophic
469 diversity may be less resilient to ecological change or represent lower quality sites compared to
470 others representing a wider range of potential resources (Ghomi *et al.*, 2014).

471 Although spatial patterns in trophic niches were similar between species, round goby
472 exhibited greater consistency between metrics across sites than yellow perch (Fig. 2), which may
473 be rooted in taxonomic differences in foraging behavior and fatty acid regulation. Round goby
474 are highly territorial, less vagile, and largely limited to feeding on benthic prey compared to
475 yellow perch, which can utilize benthic and planktonic prey and thereby potentially homogenize
476 spatial variance in lower food web processes (Ray & Corkum, 2001; Feiner & Höök, 2015;
477 Houghton & Janssen, 2015). However, round goby exhibited generally more diverse gut
478 contents and fatty acids across sites than yellow perch, which suggests that, despite having
479 access to a broader resource base, yellow perch individuals tend to specialize on variable local
480 resources, which has been demonstrated in both yellow and Eurasian perch (Svanbäck & Eklöv,
481 2006; Roswell *et al.*, 2013; Eloranta *et al.*, 2017). Fatty acid assimilation and metabolism also
482 likely differ between the two species – round goby contained relatively lower levels of
483 polyunsaturated fatty acids and higher abundances of monounsaturated and saturated fatty acids
484 than Eurasian perch in one study (Ghomi *et al.*, 2014), and yellow perch have highly conserved
485 fatty acid profiles in response to their thermal environment (Feiner *et al.*, 2016, 2018b). This

486 suggests that some species-specific variation in the composition and diversity of fatty acids is
487 possible.

488 **4.2 | Partitioning variance in trophic composition and diversity**

489 We expected species identity to play a strong role in differentiating trophic composition
490 and diversity between yellow perch and round goby, as species-specific differentiation in fatty
491 acid profiles is often so extensive that fatty acids have been suggested as a potential method for
492 species fingerprinting (Iverson et al., 2002; Czesny et al., 2011; Lau et al., 2012; Galloway &
493 Winder, 2015). Instead, spatial variation in trophic metrics explained up to 50% of the total
494 variation in composition or diversity (e.g., combining the red “season/site” and yellow “site”
495 components in Fig. 5a), equal to or exceeding variation due to species, suggesting that
496 intraspecific niche variation may play a significant role in food web structure and should not be
497 ignored. Other studies across terrestrial and aquatic systems have found that trait variation
498 within species can contribute as much to the total community variation as interspecific variation,
499 and that taxonomic diversity or composition does not necessarily correlate well with trophic
500 diversity among communities (Hubbell, 2005; Bolnick et al., 2011; Siefert et al., 2015; Pool et
501 al., 2016; Allgeier et al., 2017). For example, individual trophic behavior in a complex
502 parrotfish community accounted for a substantial amount of the total niche variation in the
503 community and drove niche partitioning among species (Allgeier et al., 2017), habitat
504 complexity influenced inter- and intraspecific niche partitioning in two percids (Eloranta et al.,
505 2017), and variability in community structure was highest at local scales and varied among
506 habitat types in coastal boulder fields (Leclerc, 2018). We note, however, that differences in
507 resource availability among systems may influence the extent to which taxonomy and spatial
508 heterogeneity influence niche partitioning. Lake Michigan is a large, diverse ecosystem
509 presenting a range of potential prey to our study species (Garza & Whitman, 2004; Vanderploeg
510 et al., 2012), potentially reducing interspecific interactions and niche partitioning (Svanbäck &
511 Persson, 2004). Species inhabiting smaller systems with more limited resources may exhibit
512 stronger taxonomic partitioning as a result of increased interspecific interactions (Griffin et al.,
513 2008; Cardinale, 2011; Correa & Winemiller, 2014). Thus, understanding how individuals vary
514 in their behavior across sites and systems could help to quantify the resilience of food webs to
515 ecosystem change (Paterson et al., 2014; MacPherson et al., 2015; McMeans et al., 2016) and

516 predict changes in ecosystem function (e.g., trophic cascades, Carpenter, Kitchell & Hodgson,
517 1985; Finke & Denno, 2004).

518 While variation in gut content diversity was strongly linked to spatial variation, virtually
519 all fatty acid diversity was observed at the individual level – that is, a random fish sampled at
520 any site could be expected to contain 80 to 90% of the total fatty acid diversity observed. Many
521 essential fatty acids serve important roles in neural development, energy storage, and
522 reproductive success, and therefore may be strongly regulated owing to fitness costs when fatty
523 acid composition is sub-optimal (Bell et al., 1986; Ahlgren et al., 2009). Freshwater fishes are
524 able to catabolize and synthesize important fatty acids to some extent, allowing individuals to
525 modulate fatty acid variation based on available dietary fatty acids (Ahlgren et al., 2009),
526 effectively homogenizing potential variability in diversity. Despite this, we were able to detect
527 subtle differences in fatty acid diversity, especially between western and northern and eastern
528 sites (Fig. 4b,d). As some fatty acids are metabolized preferentially and others require certain
529 precursors for endogenous synthesis (Bell et al., 1986; Sawyer et al., 2016), locations exhibiting
530 low fatty acid diversity could represent poor habitats or stressed populations (Merrick et al.,
531 1997; Brown et al., 2005; Chatelier et al., 2006; Ahlgren et al., 2009). Further research
532 investigating the potential fitness costs of reduced fatty acid diversity and potential
533 environmental causes could offer insights into the use of fatty acid diversity as an indicator of
534 habitat quality or individual health.

535 **4.3 | Drivers of fatty acid diversity**

536 We expected to observe a relationship between gut content diversity and fatty acid
537 diversity among individuals; however, no such relationship was apparent in either species. This
538 suggests that diets and fatty acids are relaying somewhat different information about the trophic
539 diversity of individuals. One likely explanation, as previously mentioned, is that fatty acid
540 diversity is more tightly regulated due to physiological constraints and therefore somewhat
541 unresponsive to diet (Ahlgren et al., 2009; Sawyer et al., 2016). In addition, gut contents are
542 snapshots of recent (<12 h) consumption, whereas fatty acids integrate diet composition over
543 multiple days or weeks (Happel et al., 2016). Because we lack multiple diet samples over time,
544 it is unclear how consistent diet specialization and individual diet diversity are in these species
545 (although it may be extensive in other species; Bryan & Larkin, 1972), and therefore fatty acid

546 signatures could be integrating a more diverse range of resources than what is reflected in the
547 observed gut contents.

548 Variability in the fatty acid diversity of diet items, in addition to our limited ability to
549 identify them with high taxonomic resolution, could also have led to the lack of an observable
550 relationship between gut content and fatty acid diversity. For example, our diet item groupings
551 of fish and Copepoda contain multiple species that we were unable to consistently differentiate
552 due to digestion, but that may have disparate fatty acid profiles (Smyntek et al., 2008; Happel et
553 al., 2017). Fatty acid analyses were not performed on the benthic invertebrates in this study.
554 Instead, we relied on earlier observations of invertebrate fatty acid composition (e.g., Czesny et
555 al., 2011) to make inferences about probable fatty acids available to our focal fish species.
556 Deeper investigations into the fatty acid diversity of prey items and true diversity of predator gut
557 contents (e.g., via genetic analysis of diets; King et al., 2008; Carreon-Martinez et al., 2011)
558 could yield a more complete picture of the resource heterogeneity experienced by aquatic
559 predators.

560 Rather than being linked to gut content diversity, round goby fatty acid diversity was
561 instead related to dreissenid mussel consumption. The invasion of dreissenid mussels into the
562 Great Lakes has caused severe ecological impacts (Hecky et al., 2004; Bunnell et al., 2009;
563 Paterson et al., 2014; Turschak et al., 2014), and round goby are one of relatively few species
564 that regularly consume dreissenid mussels (Foley et al., 2017). Our study suggests that the
565 inclusion of dreissenids in round goby diets provides a highly diverse suite of fatty acids - in one
566 study, dreissenids contained 17 different fatty acids at more than 2% relative abundance, while
567 zooplankton had 13 fatty acids reach this threshold, and amphipods only 11 (Czesny et al.,
568 2011). Many of these were long chain mono or polyunsaturated fatty acids (C20:1n-9, C18:4n-3,
569 C22:5n-3, and C22:5n-6) important for a wide range of physiological functions in fish (Bell et
570 al., 1986; Ahlgren et al., 2009; Czesny et al., 2011). By consuming dreissenids, round goby may
571 be making these valuable fatty acids available to their predators, including important species like
572 lake whitefish (*Coregonus clupeaformis*) and lake trout (*Salvelinus namaycush*) (Dietrich et al.,
573 2006; Pothoven & Madenjian, 2013). Thus, round goby, though invasive, may represent an
574 important re-linking of benthic and pelagic energy pathways that were decoupled through
575 dreissenid benthification (Johnson et al., 2005; Almqvist et al., 2010; Turschak et al., 2014).

576 **4.4 | Conclusions**

577 We have shown congruent spatial patterns in the trophic composition and diversity of two
578 sympatric freshwater fishes. As both species are highly locally abundant, they likely play a key
579 role in food web interactions as both predator and prey. Therefore, intra- and interspecific
580 variation in their trophic function can have significant impacts on the connectivity of benthic and
581 pelagic production pathways (Happel et al., 2015; Foley et al., 2017). Our data suggest that
582 spatial heterogeneity in habitat, resource availability, and other environmental conditions have a
583 significant role in determining the feeding behavior of individuals, to the extent that trophic
584 niches may be more a function of environment than of species identity (Paterson et al., 2014;
585 Pool et al., 2016; Allgeier et al., 2017). Our results support the notion that elucidating functional
586 diversity is at least as important to understanding food web structure as taxonomic diversity
587 (Hubbell, 2005; Pool et al., 2016). As trophic diversity is potentially important for both niche
588 partitioning and population resilience (Paterson et al., 2014; McMeans et al., 2016; Allgeier et
589 al., 2017), variation in trophic diversity could be a useful indicator for understanding the impacts
590 of environmental change on ecosystem function (Layman et al., 2007; MacPherson et al., 2015;
591 Pool et al., 2016).

592

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922

923 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT

924 Conceived and designed the investigation: ZSF, TOH, RKS. Performed field and/or laboratory
925 work: CJF, TOH, JJ, HB, SC, JR. Analyzed the data: ZSF, CJF. Contributed materials, reagents,
926 and/or analysis tools: TOH, JR, JJ, SC, HB. Wrote the paper: ZSF. Revised the paper: ZSF, CJF,
927 RKS, HB, SC, JJ, JR, TOH

928 TABLES

929 **TABLE 1** Sample size (N) and mean \pm standard deviation (SD) of total length (TL, mm) of
930 round goby and yellow perch collected at six sites during two seasons in Lake Michigan that
931 were used for gut content, fatty acid, and stable isotope analyses. Note that, due to lack of
932 isotopic baseline data, no isotopic information was used from site AR in either species.

Site	N		Mean \pm SD TL	
	Summer	Fall	Summer	Fall
			Round Goby	
FP	4	6	87.8 \pm 20.5	65.4 \pm 4.8
HP	7	6	86.4 \pm 22.3	59.2 \pm 5.9
CA	5	25	65.4 \pm 3.6	76.6 \pm 15.4

SA	2	6	90.0 ± 45.3	92.3 ± 31.1
AR	0	8	--	84.8 ± 24.2
SB	2	3	66.3 ± 4.5	66.0 ± 1.5
Yellow perch				
FP	8	0	247.2 ± 55.4	--
HP	3	3	96.1 ± 5.6	117.8 ± 13.7
CA	3	6	89.0 ± 15.1	106.7 ± 84.0
SA	2	4	238.5 ± 23.3	74.3 ± 2.2
AR	0	8	--	91.7 ± 23.0
SB	0	0	--	--

934 **TABLE 2.** Summary schematic of study focal questions, data uses (gut contents – GC, fatty acids – FA, stable isotopes – SI),
 935 analytical methods, general conclusions, and relevant tables and figures for investigations of patterns and relationships in trophic
 936 composition (i.e., mean abundances of identified components) and trophic diversity (i.e., diversity of components, measured using
 937 Shannon's effective diversity qD) in round goby and yellow perch across six sites in Lake Michigan, USA.

Question	Data	Analysis	General Conclusions	Relevant section
Does trophic composition vary among sites?	GC, FA, SI	Species-specific PERMANOVA for differences in sites; visualization via PCA (GC, FA) or biplot (SI)	Yes - southwestern sites reliant on benthic energy, eastern sites reliant on pelagic energy	Tables S4-S8; Figures 2, 3, S1
How is trophic composition partitioned among seasons, sites, and species?	GC, FA, SI	Combined PERMANOVA with site, season, season \times site, and species as predictors	Site-level variation equal to species-level variation, minor variation by season	Results Section 3.1
Does trophic diversity vary among sites?	GC, FA, SI	GC and FA: Bootstrapped site-level qD ; SI: Comparison of Bayesian standard ellipse areas among sites	Yes/No - FA diversity lower at southwestern sites; no differences in GC diversity; inconsistent differences in SI niche size	Figures 4, S2
How is trophic diversity partitioned among individuals, seasons, sites, and species?	GC, FA	Group-wise partitioning of qD	Site-level variation equal to species-level variation, different contributions of individual variation (high in FA, low in GC)	Figure 5

Does diet drive fatty acid diversity?	GC, FA	Random effects regression between FA diversity and GC diversity or composition	Round goby fatty acid diversity related to diet content, no relationship in yellow perch	Table 3; Figures 6, S3
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939 **TABLE 3** Linear mixed-modeling results for relationships between fatty acid diversity and
 940 either diet diversity ($q = 1$) or gut content composition (significant principal components) for
 941 round goby and yellow perch sampled at six sites in Lake Michigan. Models with random
 942 intercepts for site and random slopes for the effect of the explanatory gut content variable within
 943 site were tested first; if random slopes were not significant (NS), a model including only random
 944 intercepts were fitted. Mean and bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals (CI) are given for the
 945 standard deviation of random intercepts ($\sigma_{\text{intercept}}$) and slopes (σ_{slope} ; when significant), the effect
 946 of the given predictor variable (β_X), and the effect of total length (β_{TL}). Bold values indicate
 947 significant fixed effects (95% CI did not overlap zero).

Species	Parameter	Diet diversity	Diet PC 1	Diet PC 2
Round goby	$\sigma_{\text{intercept}}$	1.3913	1.2645	1.4132
	CI	(0.5226 - 2.2681)	(0.4777 - 2.0446)	(0.5655 - 2.3046)
	σ_{slope}	NS	NS	0.3377
	CI	NS	NS	(0.0198 - 0.7136)
	β_X	-0.1222	-0.1496	-0.0958
	CI	(-0.2742 - 0.0333)	(-0.2618 - -0.0198)	(-0.4558 - 0.2544)
	β_{TL}	0.0085	0.0099	0.0088
Yellow perch	$\sigma_{\text{intercept}}$	0.3246	0.49	
	CI	(0 - 0.9565)	(0 - 1.1198)	
	σ_{slope}	NS	NS	
	CI	NS	NS	
	β_X	-0.5543	-0.0225	
	CI	(-1.2867 - 0.2872)	(-0.3218 - 0.2747)	
	β_{TL}	-0.0047	-0.0033	
948	CI	(-0.0103 - 0.0014)	(-0.0099 - 0.0029)	

949

FIGURES

950 **FIGURE 1** Sample sites where round goby, yellow perch, benthic invertebrates, and
951 zooplankton were collected in summer and fall 2010 in Lake Michigan, USA, including Fox
952 Point, WI (FP); Highland Park, IL (HP); Calumet, IN (CA), Saugatuck, MI (SA), Arcadia, MI
953 (AR), and Sturgeon Bay, WI (SB). Darkened area represents the extent of Lake Michigan
954 watershed.

955 **FIGURE 2** Principal components analysis biplots demonstrating spatial patterns in gut content
956 (a,c) and fatty acid composition (b,d) of round goby (a,b) and yellow perch (c,d) sampled from
957 Lake Michigan at six sites (FP: black points, HP: red circles, CA: green squares, SA: blue
958 diamonds, AR: orange upward triangle, SB: pink inverted triangle; abbreviations for site names
959 in Figure 1). Points represent individual fish and ellipses represent one standard deviation. Text
960 indicates loadings of gut items and fatty acids multiplied by 6 and 15, respectively, for clarity.

961 **FIGURE 3** Small sample size-corrected standard ellipse areas (SE_{AC}) corrected for spatial
962 variation in baseline $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ for a) round goby and b) yellow perch collected from six
963 Lake Michigan sites (FP: black points, HP: red circles, CA: green squares, SA: blue diamonds,
964 SB: pink triangles; abbreviations for site names in Figure 1). Points are individual fish and
965 ellipses encompass 80% of the data.

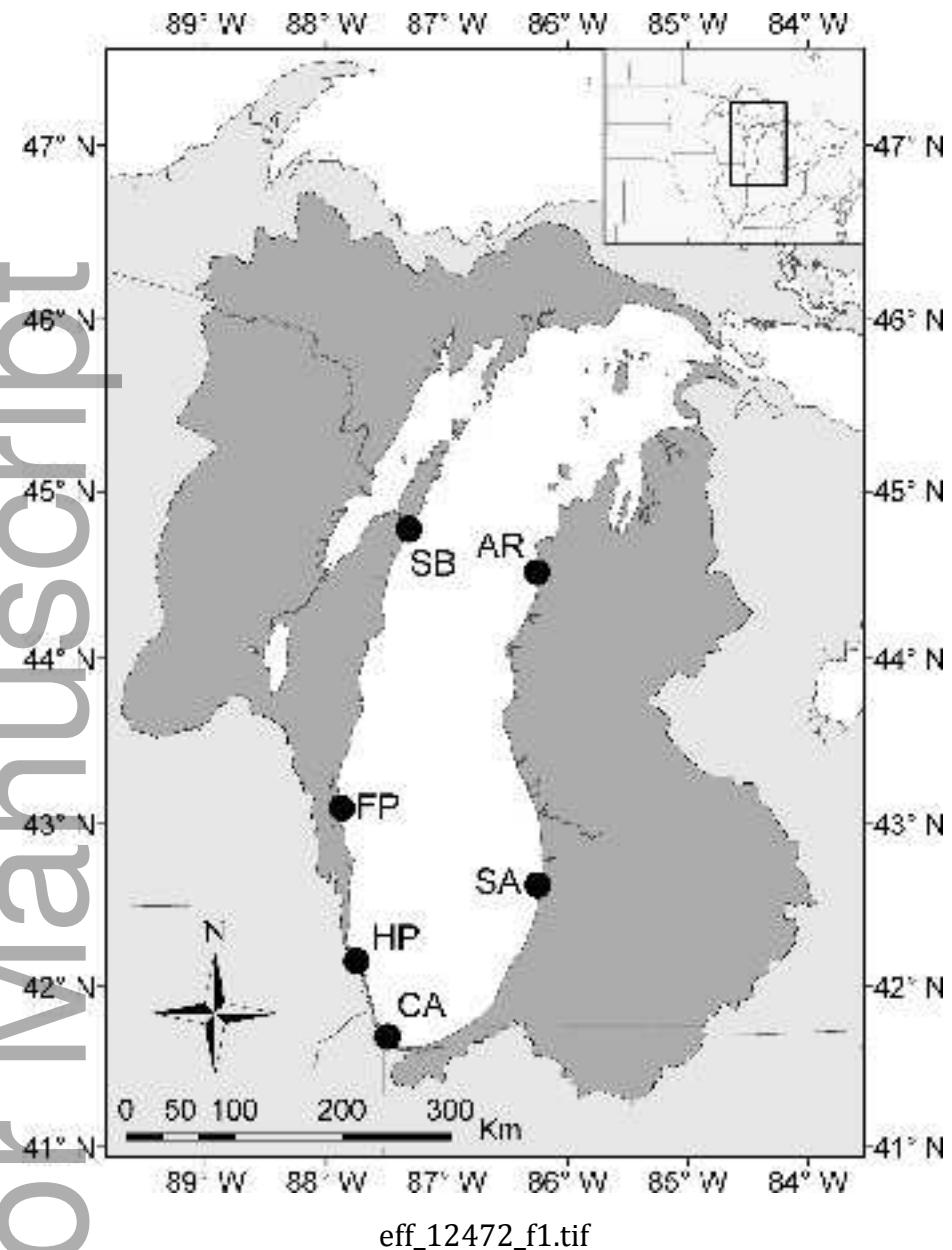
966 **FIGURE 4** Variation in mean individual (α) diversity of gut contents (a, c; black and hatched
967 bars) and fatty acids (b, d; gray and white bars) with low weighting ($q = 1$; a, b) and high
968 weighting ($q = 4$; c, d) of component abundance for round goby (gray, black) and yellow perch
969 (white, hatched) sampled at six sites in Lake Michigan. Error bars represent 95% confidence
970 intervals, where non-overlapping intervals indicate significant differences denoted by different
971 letters (A and B for round goby, C and D for yellow perch). No letters signify that there were no
972 significant differences across all sites for that species.

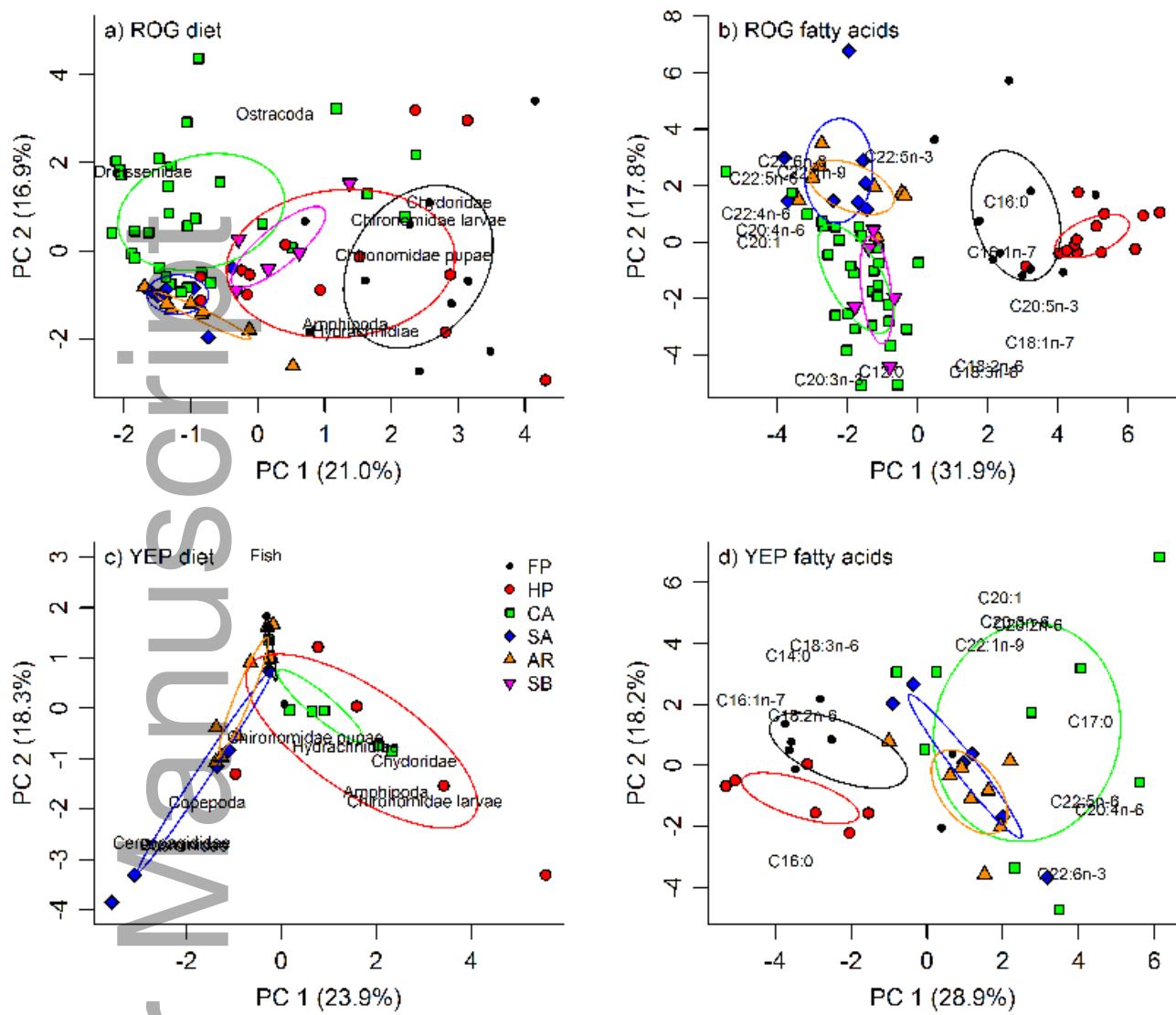
973 **FIGURE 5** Partitioning of total observed (γ) diversity in gut contents (a) and fatty acids (b)
974 detected in round goby and yellow perch across six sites in Lake Michigan. Diversity was
975 measured at six levels of abundance weighting (q ; different stacks of bars) and partitioned among
976 levels of organization, from bottom to top: within-individual diversity (gray), among individuals
977 within a sampling event (site/season; red), among seasons within sites (green), among sites
978 within seasons (yellow), within species across all sites (blue), and between species (orange).

979 **FIGURE 6** Relationship between round goby fatty acid diversity ($q = 1$, corrected for fish total
980 length), and the first principal component of round goby gut content composition, representing a
981 gradient between consumption of Dreissenidae mussels and non-molluscan benthic invertebrates.
982 Points represent fish collected at six sites around Lake Michigan (FP: black points, HP: red
983 circles, CA: green squares, SA: blue diamonds, AR: orange upward triangle, SB: pink inverted
984 triangle; abbreviations for site names in Figure 1).

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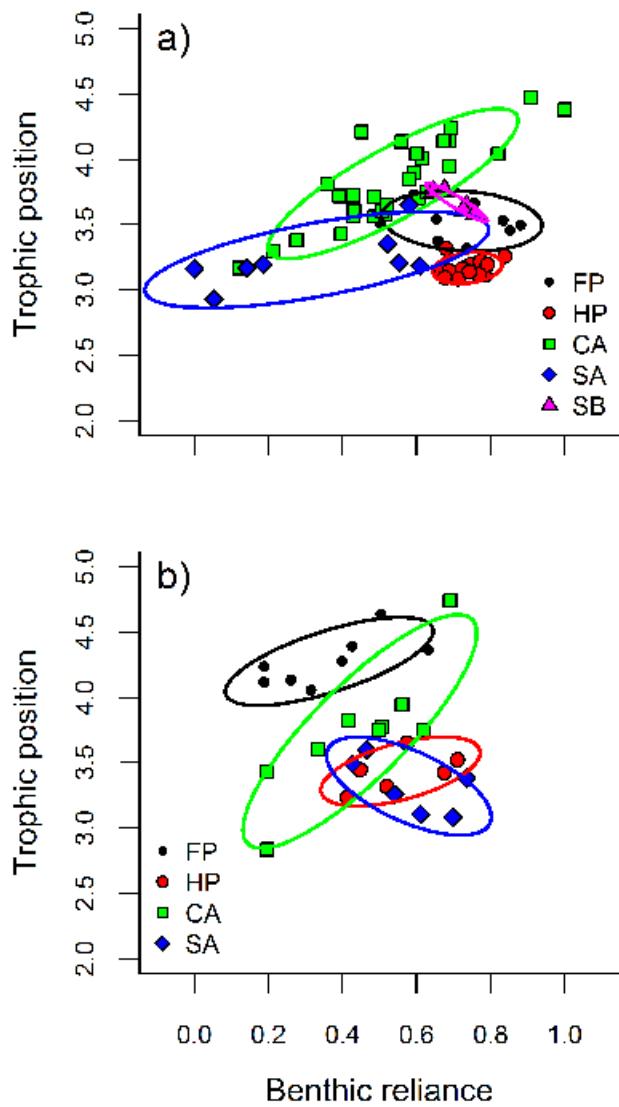
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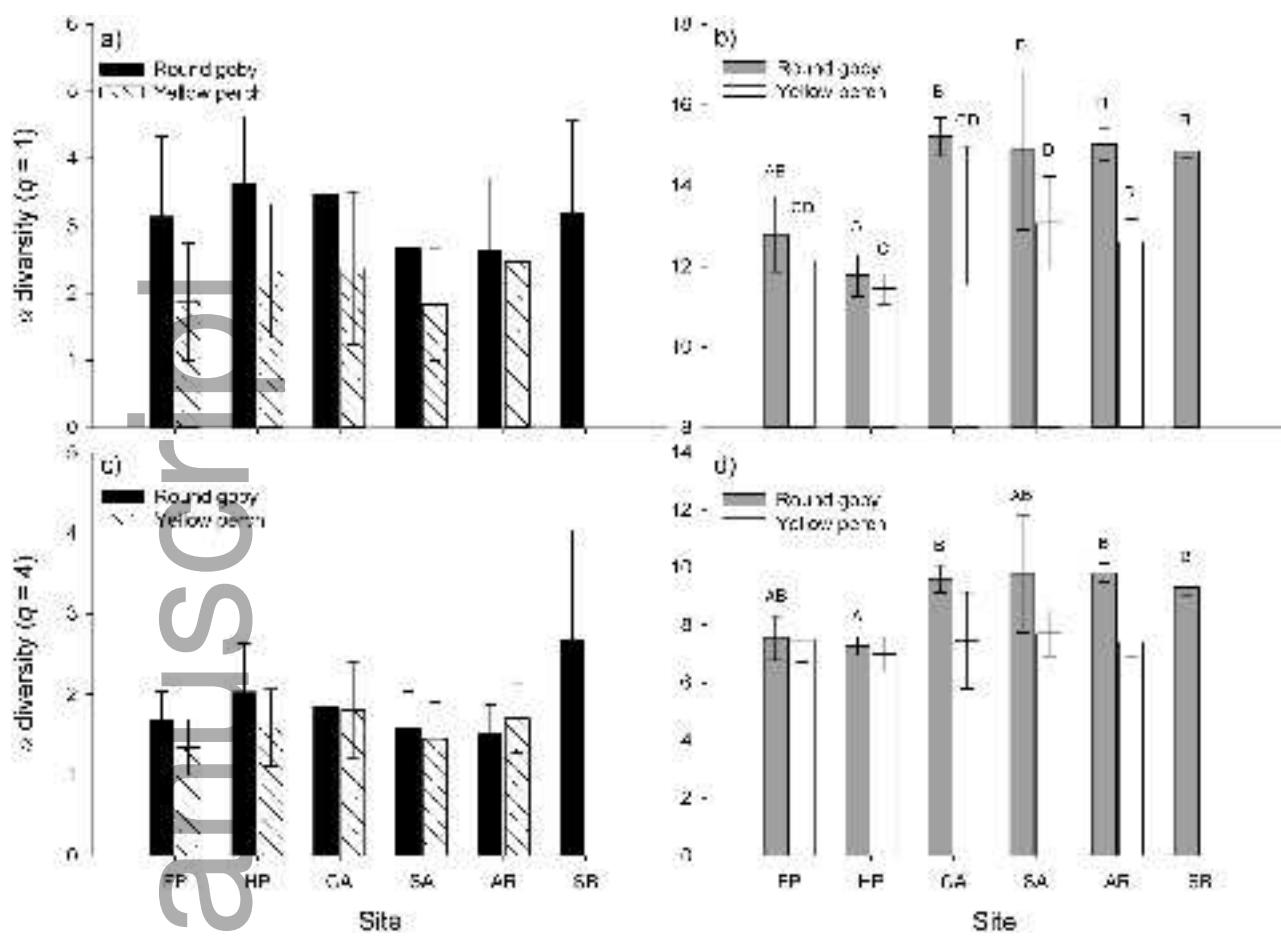


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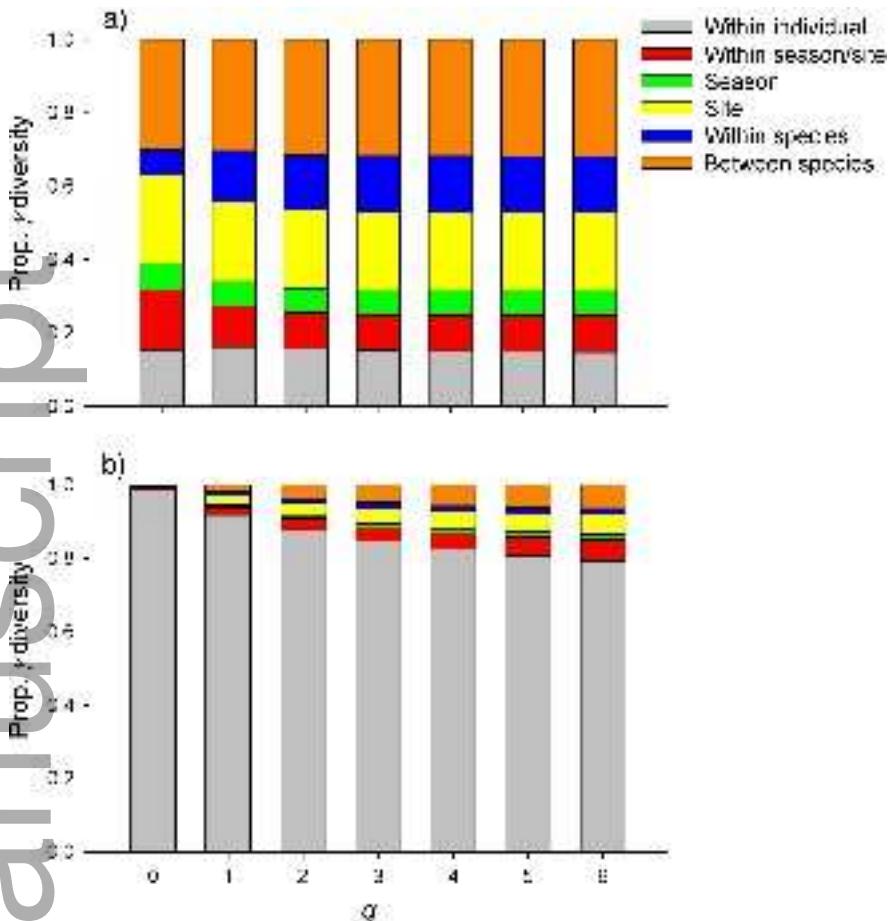
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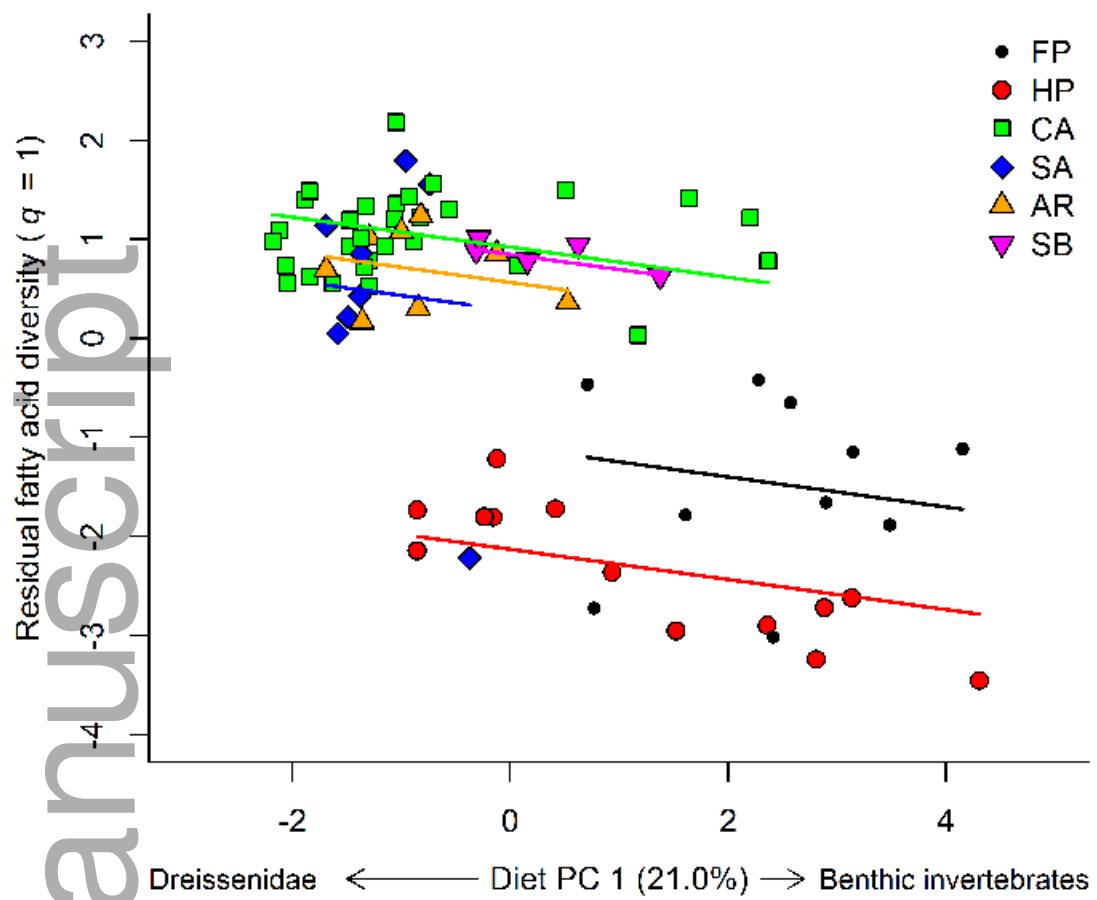
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