

Predicting the contributions of novel marine prey resources from angling and anadromy to the diet of a freshwater apex predator

Journal:	Freshwater Biology
Manuscript ID	FWB-P-Jan-19-0010.R1
Manuscript Type:	Standard Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	13-Mar-2019
Complete List of Authors:	Nolan, Emma; Bournemouth University, School of Conservation Sciences Gutmann-Roberts, Catherine; Manchester Metropolitan University, ; Bournemouth University, Britton, Rob; Bournemouth University, School of Conservation Sciences
Keywords:	Fisheries < Applied Issues, Running water / rivers / streams < Habitat, Predation < Process / Approach / Methods, Stable isotopes < Process / Approach / Methods, Fish < Taxonomic Group / Assemblage
	1



2 3 4	1	Predicting the contributions of novel marine prey resources from angling and
5 6	2	anadromy to the diet of a freshwater apex predator
7 8 9	3	
10 11	4	Emma T. Nolan; Catherine Gutmann Roberts; J. Robert Britton
12 13 14	5	
15 16	6	Department of Life and Environmental Sciences, Faculty of Science and Technology,
17 18 19	7	Bournemouth University, BH12 5BB, United Kingdom
20 21	8	
22 23 24	9 10	Running head: Marine derived prey in freshwater
25 26	10	Keywords: Esox lucius; individual specialisation; isotopic niche, marine derived
27 28 20	12	nutrients; stable isotope analysis
29 30 31	13	
32 33 34	14	Corresponding author: Robert Britton. Department of Life and Environmental
35 36	15	Sciences, Faculty of Science and Technology, Bournemouth University, BH12 5BB,
 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 	16	United Kingdom. Email: rbritton@bournemouth.ac.uk
45 46		
47 48 49 50 51		
52 53 54 55		

17 Abstract

 Anadromous fishes can be important prey resources for piscivorous fauna in lowland rivers. Freshwater anglers exploiting large-bodied cypriniform fishes use high quantities of pelletized marine fishmeal baits that can contribute substantially to fish diets. This marine-derived energy pathway also potentially provides a marine prey resource for freshwater piscivores. However, large-bodied cypriniform fishes are often in a size refuge against predation due to their large sizes.

2. Stable isotope ($\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$) analysis assessed how novel marine prev resources influenced the diet of a freshwater apex predator, Northern pike Esox lucius, in an impounded river basin (lower River Severn, Western England). Up to three groups of prey resources were present: anadromous European shad (Alosa spp.), cypriniform fishes with dietary specialisms based on marine fishmeal baits, and freshwater prey. The availability of these prey resources to E. lucius varied according to river connectivity and levels of angling exploitation in different river reaches.

3. Where the three prey groups were present, *E. lucius* were more enriched in δ^{13} C values (range: -24.74 to -16.34 ‰) compared to river reaches where aspects of the marine prey groups were absent. (range: -28.30 to -21.47) In all reaches, δ^{13} C increased as *E. lucius* length increased. In the reach where all prey groups were present, the isotopic niches of three *E. lucius* size categories

Freshwater Biology

 were strongly partitioned; this was not apparent in reaches where the marine pathways were unavailable.

44
4. Stable isotope mixing models suggested that freshwater prey were the most
45 important prey item, contributing between 42 and 96 % to the diet of
46 individual *E. lucius*. However, where present, anadromous fishes and
47 cypriniform fishes specialising on marine fishmeal baits were also important
48 prey items, contributing substantially to the diet of larger *E. lucius* (length >
49 650 mm). The total dietary contributions of the marine resources varied
50 considerably among the individual larger fish (22 to 58 % of total diet).

52 5. The presence of two marine resource pathways in a lowland river thus
53 strongly influenced the diet of an apex predator, but with contributions being a
54 function of their spatial availability, *E. lucius* body size and individual trophic
55 specialisations. These results emphasise how the anthropogenic activities of
56 river engineering and human subsidies can affect the trophic dynamics of apex
57 predators.

58 Introduction

Allochthonous resource subsidies can substantially alter food web and community
dynamics of the receiving systems through, for example, increased primary and
secondary productivity (Polis, Anderson & Holt, 1997; Marcarelli et al., 2011).
Although the response of food-webs to allochthonous subsidies can vary (Marczak,
Thompson & Richardson, 2007), these subsidies are increasingly recognised as
important drivers of the behaviour and abundance of many consumer species
(Newsome et al., 2014, 2015).

In freshwater ecosystems, the transfer of nutrients from allochthonous resource subsidies can play a primary role in food-web structuring (Takimoto, Iwata & Murakami, 2002; Samways, Soto & Cunjak, 2018). The benefits to freshwater nutrient budgets via marine derived nutrient (MDN) transfer from anadromous salmonid fishes (via excretion, gamete release and carcass decomposition) have been well established (e.g. Wipfli et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2003; Schindler et al., 2005; Richardson et al., 2016). However, anadromous fishes can also play an important role in the transfer of MDN to freshwaters via their direct consumption by freshwater apex predators (MacAvoy et al., 2000; Guillerault et al., 2017). Where the upstream migration of anadromous fishes is impeded by blockages such as weirs and dams (Ovidio & Philippart, 2002; Clavero, Blanco-Garrido & Prenda, 2004), their downstream aggregations potentially provide important foraging opportunities for piscivorous fauna (Sorel et al., 2016).

Page 5 of 51

Freshwater Biology

Fishery management activities often enhance freshwater angling experiences by diversifying the species available through the release of large-bodied invasive species, such as carp Cyprinus carpio and European barbel Barbus barbus (Hickley & Chare, 2004). To target these fishes, catch-and-release anglers can release large amounts of 'groundbait' to attract fish (Jackson et al., 2013), with the quantities used often exceeding 1 kg of bait per day (Niesar et al., 2004). These baits are increasingly based on marine fishmeal, with the intensive use of pelletised marine fishmeal now common in freshwater angling in Western Europe (Arlinghaus & Mehner, 2003; Bašić et al., 2015; Gutmann Roberts et al., 2017). This MDN subsidy can alter the trophic interactions between consumers (Bašić et al., 2015), assist invasions (Jackson et al., 2013), and are increasingly recognised as an important dietary resource to benthivorous and omnivorous fishes (Gutmann Roberts et al., 2017; Mehner et al., 2018). Where high concentrations of marine fishmeal have been released into freshwaters, it can be traced through food webs using stable isotope analyses (SIA), with $\delta^{13}C$ differentiating between freshwater (depleted $\delta^{13}C$) and marine energy sources (enriched δ^{13} C) (Grey, Waldron & Hutchinson, 2004; Jardine et al., 2005; Rasmussen, Trudeau & Morinville, 2009).

100 The presence of both anadromous fishes and freshwater fishes with diets comprising 101 mainly of marine fishmeal thus potentially provide apex predators in lowland rivers 102 with additional prey resources to freshwater prey. However, the ability of these 103 predators to exploit these marine derived resources will at least partially depend on 104 their ability to consume large bodied prey. This is because anadromous fishes entering 105 freshwater to spawn tend to be relatively large, with even the smallest *Alosa* spp. 106 migrants to European rivers generally being above 300 mm body length (Aprahamian,

Freshwater Biology

> 1988). Cypriniform fishes that have diets specialising on pelletised fishmeal also tend to be relatively large (> 380 mm) (Amat Trigo, Gutmann Roberts & Britton, 2017; Gutmann Roberts et al. 2017). Given that freshwater apex fish predators, such as Northern pike *Esox lucius*, are gape-limited in their prev selection (Craig, 2008; Nilsson & Brönmark, 2000) then these marine derived resources might only be available to the larger individuals in their populations. This influence of predator body size on their prey sizes is important, as apex predator populations often couple multiple energetic pathways in aquatic food webs through their exploitation of a wide range of prey resources (e.g. Rooney, McCann, & Moore, 2008). Thus, traits that influence prey size in apex predators will influence their ability to couple these energy pathways (Nilsson & Brönmark, 2000; Rooney et al., 2008).

Correspondingly, the aim here was to quantify how spatial variation in the availability of marine prey resources (large bodied anadromous fish and cypriniform fishes consuming MDN angler baits) influenced the diet of a gape-limited apex predator in a lowland river. Where present, the exploitation of marine energy pathways by a freshwater apex predator should lead to enriched δ^{13} C values and distinct population dietary niches versus those fish that forage where the marine energy pathways are absent (MacAvoy et al., 2000; Samways et al., 2018). The apex predator was E. lucius, with their populations studied in the River Severn basin, Western England (Fig. 1), where individuals grow to relatively large sizes (body lengths > 1 m; mass >12 kg). In this basin, there is considerable spatial variation in the availability of marine prey resources. Impoundments affect the upstream access of migrating anadromous fishes (mainly Alosa spp.; Aprahamian, 1988); inputs of MDN based angling bait are affected by spatial differences in fish community structure and

Page 7 of 51

Freshwater Biology

varying levels of angling activity (Gutmann Roberts et al., 2017). Using SIA to test the influence of the presence/ absence of these MDN subsidies on E. lucius diet, the objectives were to (1) assess the spatial variability in stable isotope data of the marine and non-marine prev resources; (2) quantify the relationships between E. lucius body length (as a proxy of gape size) and their stable isotope data; (3) determine the influence of the marine prev resources on E. lucius trophic niche sizes (as isotopic niches); and (4) assess how the diet composition of E. lucius at individual and population levels are influenced by differences in the spatial availability of the marine

prey resources.

Methods

Study area

The presence of impoundments (weirs, sluices) in the area of study in the lower River Severn basin enabled its split into three study reaches based on longitudinal connectivity (Fig. 1c). These included two contiguous reaches of the River Severn (one immediately upstream of the other but separated by a weir), and a reach of the Warwickshire Avon. The lower River Severn reach (hereafter referred to as the downstream Severn reach) was located between Diglis Weir (upstream limit) and Upper Lode Weir (downstream limit) (52.1819°, -2.2241° to 51.9943°, -2.1735°; Fig. 1(c)). Although a relatively long river reach (> 20 km), most of the *E. lucius* were sampled within the initial 1 km downstream of Diglis Weir where river widths were to 40 m and depths to at least 5 m. The upstream River Severn reach was located on the River Severn above Diglis Weir, Worcester (52.1819°, 2.2241° to 52.3728°, -2.3086°; Fig. 1c). In this reach, river widths were to 30 m and depths to 4 m. The

lower reach of the Warwickshire Avon ('Warwickshire Avon'; 51.9955°, -2.1579° to
52.1152°, -2.0702°; Fig. 1c) was up to 20 m wide, with depths to 4 m and is separated
from the Severn by the presence of flow regulation structures (two separate weirs).

162 Sampling of Esox lucius

The habitat characteristics of the study reaches resulted in fish sampling by traditional methods (electric fishing, seine netting, fyke netting) being inefficient or unfeasible, other than within limited off-channel areas provided by boat marinas. Consequently, sample collection of *E. lucius* was primarily via catch and release angling. This was facilitated by the Environment Agency, the inland fishery regulatory body of England, who established an *E. lucius* angling network within the Severn catchment. Within this network, participating anglers recorded their catches and were trained in collecting scale samples. Whilst the primary purpose of scale collection was for fish age determination for management purposes, they concomitantly provided material suitable for stable isotope analysis in this study (Hutchinson & Trueman, 2006; Bašić & Britton, 2015). Scales tend to have a longer stable isotope half-life than muscle and fin tissue (Busst & Britton, 2017). Consequently, between August 2014 and July 2017, anglers collected scales from captured E. lucius and recorded the location and date of capture and fish fork length (Supplementary material, Table S1). Note, angling effort for E. lucius was variable between reaches, being highest in the downstream Severn reach and lowest in the upstream Severn reach, resulting in spatial variation in E. lucius sample sizes. Due to this method of sample collection, there was no opportunity for the collection of complementary data, such as stomach contents via stomach flushing or gape size measurements. Angling for E. lucius is also not

Freshwater Biology

permitted on the river between mid-March and mid-June, a period covering themajority of the *Alosa* spawning season.

185 Spatial and temporal variation in the availability of putative prey of Esox lucius

Upper Lode weir is passable by anadromous *Alosa* spp. that enter the river each year to spawn between April and June, generally at lengths between 300 and 450 mm (Aprahamian, 1988). Diglis weir and the weirs leading into the River Warwickshire Avon are, however, considered impassable to *Alosa* spp. Therefore, the downstream Severn reach was considered as the only reach within the study where this anadromous energy pathway was present for *E. lucius*. Although anadromous Atlantic salmon Salmo salar adults also enter the River Severn to spawn they are not resident in the study reaches or available as a prey resource as they can ascend all weirs on the main river during their upstream migration to spawning grounds located in the upper catchment. The Warwickshire Avon is inaccessible to migrating S. salar due to impassable engineering structures in the lower river (Tewkesbury weir). Quantification of the levels of use of pelletized marine fishmeal baits by anglers within each reach could not be assessed directly (e.g. by creel census). However, large-bodied cypriniform fishes (mainly *B. barbus*, but also chub *Squalius cephalus*) in the downstream Severn reach have already been identified as specialising on pelletised fishmeal (Gutmann Roberts et al., 2017). Correspondingly, all reaches could potentially contain prey resources that include cypriniform fish specialising on marine fishmeal baits, but with the downstream Severn reach the only reach where both marine prev resource groups could be present (i.e. *Alosa* spp. and cypriniform fishes specialising on fishmeal baits). Note that throughout the catchment, whilst B.

 barbus populations were present and targeted by anglers, they were invasive, having

been introduced in 1956 (Wheeler & Jordan, 1990; Antognazza et al., 2016).

209 Sampling for putative prey species of Esox lucius

Samples for stable isotope analysis of the putative prey species of E. lucius were collected throughout the study period from the downstream Severn and Warwickshire Avon reaches only, as logistical constraints prevented the collection of comparative putative prey species from the upstream Severn reach. The putative prey samples from the downstream Severn and Warwickshire Avon reaches were small cypriniform fishes (< 400 mm; R. rutilus, S. cephalus, B. barbus), and macro-invertebrates (Gammaridae, Chironomidae and Asellidae), as macro-invertebrates can be important prey resources for *E. lucius*, especially where individuals are less than 600 mm (Chapman, Mackay & Wilkinson, 1989; Venturelli & Tonn, 2005; Pedreschi et al., 2015). Fish were sampled by angling in the main river channels and by seine netting in boat marinas, while macroinvertebrates were sampled by sweep netting in littoral areas. Samples of larger (> 400 mm) B. barbus and S. cephalus were collected via angling (Gutmann Roberts et al., 2017), ensuring that the putative prev resources of E. lucius included larger cypriniform fish that can specialise on pelletised fishmeal (Gutmann Roberts et al., 2017). In addition, scale samples of Alosa spp. in the downstream Severn reach were collected opportunistically and non-invasively during their spawning periods (April to June), such as by collecting scales from carcasses from otter Lutra lutra predation. For all putative prey fish, identification was to species, with measurement (fork length, nearest mm) and the collection of 3 to 5 scales from the body area between the dorsal fin and lateral line. For macro-invertebrates, identification was to family.

232	Stable isotope analysis
233	For SIA, all captured <i>E. lucius</i> from the upstream Severn reach were analysed ($n = 8$;
234	lengths 420 to 901 mm). At the Warwickshire Avon reach, higher numbers of angler-
235	captured fish enabled analysis of 19 E. lucius across their length range (455 to 1020
236	mm). At the downstream Severn reach, 30 E. lucius were analysed (508 to 1060 mm).
237	Scale decalcification was not performed prior to their SIA. Whilst comparisons of
238	acidified versus non-acidified scales have revealed significant differences in their
239	isotopic data, the actual changes tend to be minor with, for example, Ventura &
240	Jeppesen (2010) showing that the process produced mean changes in $\delta^{13}C$ (± SD) of
241	0.18 ± 0.12 and in δ^{15} N of -0.21 ± 0.24 ; conclusions were that these changes were not
242	biologically relevant. Scale preparation for SIA thus focused on cleaning scales
243	(distilled water) prior to the removal of the outer portion of the scale only. This
244	process ensured the analysed tissue was only from the most recent growth of each fish
245	(generally, the last full year of growth; Hutchinson & Trueman, 2006; Bašić &
246	Britton, 2015). For the majority of fish analysed, only one scale was used per
247	individual, as this provided enough material for analysis. For smaller prey fishes (<
248	120 mm), up to three scales had to be used. For macro-invertebrates, three replicate
249	samples were used per family, where a sample comprised of between one and three
250	individuals (dependent on their body sizes). All samples were then dried to constant
251	mass at 60 °C prior to their analysis at the Cornell Isotope Laboratory, New York,
252	U.S.A. Stable isotope analytical details were as per (Busst & Britton, 2017), with lipid
253	correction not necessary as C:N ratios indicated very low lipid content (< 3.5; Post et
254	al., 2007).
255	

Data analyses

As samples were collected across years, data were first subject to analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test for differences in *E. lucius* δ^{15} N and δ^{13} C values among years at each reach. As these results did not show consistent significant differences within reach (Supplementary material, Table S2), the stable isotope data were combined across all years without correction. The relationship between E. lucius body length and $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ were determined for each reach using linear regression. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was then used to test for independent and interactive effects of both reach and fish length on $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$. Both models included reach as a factor (fixed, 3 levels: Warwickshire Avon, upstream Severn, downstream Severn) and fish length as a covariate, together with their interaction. Thus, a significant ($\alpha =$ 0.05) interaction term would indicate that the relationship between the respective isotope value and body length varied according to reach. Where there was a significant main effect of reach, Tukey's post-hoc tests were used for pairwise comparisons between factor levels. In addition, differences in the SI data of all putative prey were tested between the downstream Severn and Warwickshire Avon reaches using t-tests. Prior to analyses, normality and homoscedasticity of data were assessed by visual inspection of the residual plots

The *E. lucius* stable isotope data were then analysed in two ways. First, the isotopic niche of *E. lucius* was estimated using metrics based on standard ellipses obtained by applying the data within a Bayesian framework, completed within the package 'Stable Isotope Bayesian Ellipses in R' (SIBER; Jackson et al., 2011). Niche metrics were first assessed for all *E. lucius* at each reach and then, for the downstream Severn and Warwickshire Avon reaches where sample sizes were highest by three distinct size

Freshwater Biology

categories: $\geq 400 < 650$ mm; $\geq 650 < 850$ mm; and ≥ 850 mm. SIBER metrics were only calculated for sample sizes greater than or equal to five (Table 2). Isotopic niche sizes were calculated as standard ellipse areas (SEA), with these representing the core 40 % of the isotopic data (Jackson et al., 2011). This bivariate measure of the distribution of individuals in isotopic space thus is a representation of a population's typical resource use (Jackson et al., 2011; Jackson et al., 2012). Additional calculations were the total area of the convex hull encompassing the data points (TA), the correction applied to SEA to account for small sample sizes (SEA_C), and the Bayesian standard ellipse areas (SEA_B) and their 95% credible intervals. For SEA_B, significant differences in the size of isotopic niches were identified when $\geq 95\%$ of posterior draws for one area were smaller than the other. The area of niche overlap between two or more ellipses was also calculated where appropriate.

Then, for E. lucius at the downstream Severn and Warwickshire Avon reaches, their SI data were applied to Bayesian mixing models to predict the relative proportions (as posterior probability distributions) of the putative prey resources that contributed to their diet. This was not completed for the upstream Severn due to the low E. lucius sample size (n < 5) and lack of SI data on their putative prey. The mixing models were completed in the package 'Mixing Models for Stable Isotope Analysis in R' (MixSIAR; Stock et al., 2018). MixSIAR was used to assess the proportional prey contributions to *E. lucius* diet in the two reaches according to the three size categories outlined above for the niche metrics (to assess group level contributions), and then individually, by including individual as a covariate to explain variability in mixture proportions. This enabled assessment of differences in individual level contributions versus group level contributions. All models were run using 'normal' run length

> (chain length: 100,000 iterations with burn-in of 50,000, with posterior thinning (thin: 50) and 3 chains). Model diagnostics were based on Gelman-Rubin and Geweke, with sufficient convergence to accept the results (Stock & Semmens, 2016). The isotopic fractionation values between the prev resources and E. lucius ($\delta^{15}N$ 3.35 ± 0.25 ‰; δ^{13} C 3.49 ± 0.25‰) were based on values obtained for other piscivorous fish through controlled feeding experiments (Barnes et al., 2007), with correction for scales from dorsal muscle (Heady & Moore, 2013; Busst, Bašić & Britton, 2015; Busst & Britton, 2016). Mixing model outputs were reported as means of all feasible solutions with standard deviation and the 5th to 95th credible intervals of the distribution ranges.

Before the mixing models were run, there was consideration of how the putative prey data were entered. For the larger bodied (> 380 mm) cypriniform prey (*B. barbus* and S. cephalus), there was considerable range in their δ^{13} C isotope values (-28.4 to -19.4 ‰), with individuals with enriched δ^{13} C the result of their dietary specialisation on pelletised fishmeal released by anglers (Gutmann Roberts et al., 2017). Due to this considerable δ^{13} C range, this 'Cypriniform' prev resource was split into two groups ('marine' and 'freshwater'). This grouping was based on the Bayesian stable isotope mixing model results of Gutmann Roberts et al. (2017), where cypriniform prev resources with δ^{13} C of -22.90 to -19.40 ‰ had relatively high predicted proportions of MDN to their diet (predicted mean \pm SE MDN contribution to diet: 0.50 \pm 0.17; Supplementary material, Table S3). These fish were thus grouped as 'Cypriniform-marine' in the mixing models. Cypriniform prev resources with δ^{13} C of -28.04 to -23.04 ‰ had relatively low proportions of MDN in their diet (mean ± SE MDN contribution to diet: = 0.24 ± 0.11 ; Table S3). These fish were then grouped as 'Cypriniform-freshwater' in the mixing models. The differences in MDN dietary

Freshwater Biology

contributions between the two groups were significant (t-test; t = -5.66, P < 0.001; Supplementary material. Table S3). Smaller bodied (< 380 mm) cypriniform fishes (R. rutilus, B. barbus and S. cephalus) were then all assigned to the appropriate group based on their isotope value and thus were incorporated within the 'Cypriniformfreshwater' group. This was due to the high similarity of their SI data with the larger non-MDN cypriniforms. Importantly, this also reduced the overall number of prev resources used in the mixing models, enhancing model performance and reducing prediction uncertainty (Phillips & Gregg, 2003; Phillips, Newsome & Gregg, 2005).

The putative prey resources that could be entered into each mixing model were thus macro-invertebrates (combined data for Gammaridae, Chironomidae and Asellidae, due to similarity of SI data; cf. Results), Alosa spp., 'Cypriniform-freshwater' fish and 'Cypriniform-marine' fish, with the prey resources analysed separately for each reach. However, the use of all of these resources in the models for each E. lucius size category was not appropriate. This was because of the *E. lucius* size-specific gape limitations, where smaller individuals are limited in their ability to consume larger-bodied prey items (Nilsson & Brönmark, 2000). The use of angler-captured fish meant the gape sizes of *E. lucius* could not be measured directly. Therefore, for each individual E. lucius analysed, their maximum ingestible prey size (MP) was estimated as a function of their fork length (FL) (MP = (0.13FL)+0.40; Nilsson & Brönmark, 2000). To incorporate these maximum prey lengths into the analysis, mixing models were run for three size categories of *E. lucius* outlined earlier. The mean MP was determined for each reach and size category, and only prey resources under the mean MP were entered into their mixing model (Table 1). Although this meant that the mixing models differed between the size categories, it ensured the final models were

356 parsimonious and ecologically realistic.

All statistical analysis and graphical outputs were performed using R (Version 3.5.2;

359 R Development Core Team 2018). Where error is expressed around the mean, it 360 represents \pm 95% confidence limits unless otherwise stated.

- **Results**

364 Stable isotope relationships with length in Esox lucius

There was a significant increase in $\delta^{13}C$ with increasing length for *E. lucius* within reaches (Fig. 2; Table 2; Warwickshire Avon: $R^2 = 0.34$, $F_{1,17} = 10.08$; P < 0.01, upstream Severn: $R^2 = 0.71$, $F_{1.6} = 17.76$, P < 0.01; downstream Severn: $R^2 = 0.47$, $F_{1,28} = 24.75$, P < 0.001). This increase was also independent of reach (ANCOVA: $F_{1,51} = 75.21, P < 0.001$). The δ^{13} C values also differed significantly between reaches (ANCOVA: $F_{2,51} = 33.24$, P < 0.001), where *E. lucius* from the Warwickshire Avon had depleted δ^{13} C versus both the downstream Severn (-3.49 ‰, *t* = -7.87, *P* < 0.001) and upstream Severn (-1.80 %, t = -2.91, P = 0.01). Fish from the downstream Severn reach also had significantly enriched δ^{13} C values versus the upstream Severn reach (+1.70 ‰, t = 2.84, P = 0.02). The interaction between length and reach was not significant (ANCOVA: $F_{2,51} = 2.86, P = 0.06$).

The relationship between $\delta^{15}N$ and fish length was not significant in the Warwickshire Avon (R² = 0.04, $F_{1,17}$ = 0.29; P = 0.60) and downstream Severn (R² = 0.01, $F_{1,28}$ = 1.29, P = 0.28) (Fig. 2; Table 2). There was, however, a significant increase in $\delta^{15}N$ with fish length at upstream Severn (Fig. 2; Table 2; R² = 0.51, $F_{1,6}$ = 6.12, P = 0.04).

Freshwater Biology

The relationship between $\delta^{15}N$ and fish length was not significant independent of reach (ANCOVA: $F_{1,51} = 1.78$, P = 0.19), but $\delta^{15}N$ did differ significantly between reaches (ANCOVA: $F_{2,51} = 63.38$, P < 0.001). Fish in the Warwickshire Avon had significantly higher $\delta^{15}N$ than at the other reaches (downstream Severn +2.81 ‰, t =10.27, P < 0.01; upstream Severn +3.06 ‰, t = 8.04, P < 0.01).

387 Isotopic niche of Esox lucius

The isotopic niche size (as SEA_B) of *E. lucius* was largest for the Warwickshire Avon, followed by downstream Severn and was smallest at upstream Severn (Table 3). The position, size and location of the ellipses varied in niche space, where *E. lucius* isotopic niche from the Warwickshire Avon occupied more space on the δ^{15} N axis and less space on the δ^{13} C axis compared with the downstream Severn reach that showed the opposite pattern (Fig. 3).

Isotopic niche sizes (as SEA_B) by the three size categories of *E. lucius* revealed that in the Warwickshire Avon, the largest niche was in fish of 651 to 850 mm and the smallest niche for fish > 850 mm (Table 3; Fig. 4). These niches also showed a high degree of overlap across all size categories with, for example, the niche of the largest size category (> 850 mm) sitting entirely within the niche for fish of 651 to 850 mm (Fig. 4). By contrast, the isotopic niches by size category in the downstream Severn reach had greater separation along the δ^{13} C axis (Table 3; Fig. 4). The niche size for fish of 400 to 650 mm was relatively small compared to the two larger size categories and did not overlap (Table 3; Fig. 4). The isotopic niche for fish of > 850 mm was the largest within the downstream Severn reach and was considerably $\delta^{13}C$ enriched,

resulting in it sharing only 40 % of its niche space with that for fish of 651 to 850 mm(Table 2; Fig. 4).

408 Spatial and temporal variation in $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$ of putative prey resources

The δ^{13} C values of macro-invertebrates did not differ between reaches (Warwickshire Avon: -30.23 ± 0.46 ‰; downstream Severn: -29.67 ± 0.39 ‰; *t-test*: t = -0.92, d.f. =17. P = 0.37; Table 1; Fig. 4). There was, however, significant δ^{13} C enrichment in the putative prey resources between the reaches (*t-test*: t = 7.82, d.f. = 168.67, P < 0.001; Table 1; Fig 4). This significant $\delta^{13}C$ enrichment was thus due to significant differences in the fish prev resources (Warwickshire Avon: -26.48 ± 0.31 ; downstream Severn: -22.78 ± 0.34 ; *t-test*: t = -8.01, *d.f.* = 145.62, P < 0.001; Table 1; Fig. 4).

The putative prey resources were significantly enriched in δ^{15} N in the Warwickshire Avon (16.02 ± 0.24 ‰) versus the Severn (12.28 ± 0.13 ‰) reaches (*t-test*: *t* = -7.81, *d.f.* = 168.67, *P* < 0.001; Table 1; Fig. 4). Differences were in both macroinvertebrates and fish prey resources (macroinvertebrates: *t-test*: *t* = 12.64, *d.f.* = 15.10, *P* < 0.001; prey fish: *t-test*: *t* = - 8.0, *d.f.* = 145.62, *P* < 0.001; Table 1; Fig. 423 4).

425 Stable isotope mixing model predictions of Esox lucius diet composition

426 At both the Warwickshire Avon and downstream Severn reaches, *E. lucius* isotopic
427 niches across all size categories were positioned between the putative prey resources
428 (Fig. 4). At the Warwickshire Avon, whilst the cypriniform fishes specialising on
429 marine fishmeal baits were present, the gape limitations in the size range of the

Freshwater Biology

430 analysed *E. lucius* meant none were considered as available prey in mixing models. 431 Thus, all dietary contributions in this reach were of freshwater origin (Table 1), with 432 predictions that macro-invertebrate prey resources were contributing substantially to 433 the diet of *E. lucius* < 650 mm (Table 4). Freshwater fishes and macroinvertebrates 434 were then important prey items at sizes > 650 mm (Table 4).

In the downstream Severn reach, whilst freshwater fish were predicted as the most important prey resource in all size categories, the two marine prey resources were increasingly important prey items as *E. lucius* body length increased. Overall, the proportions dietary contributions of *Alosa* spp. increased from 0.05 ± 0.04 in fish < 650 mm to 0.13 ± 0.06 in fish of length > 850 mm (Table 4). Whilst gape limitations precluded cypriniform fishes specialising on marine fishmeal bait from diet predictions for E. lucius < 650 mm, in the larger size categories, the predicted contributions were 0.24 ± 0.13 for 650 to 850 mm and 0.20 ± 0.14 for fish > 850 mm ·~~. (Table 4).

When predicted at the individual level, there was less dietary variability in *E. lucius* in the Warwickshire Avon than in the downstream Severn reach (Table 4; Fig. 5). At the downstream Severn reach, individual variability in diet increased with increasing gape size, with the highest individual variability apparent for fish > 850 mm (Table 4). For these fish, the 'Cypriniform-freshwater' prey had an estimated range of between 0.37 and 0.71 contribution to individual diet, Alosa spp. between 0.06 and 0.25 and cypriniform fishes specialising on marine fishmeal bait between 0.18 and 0.33 (Table 4; Fig. 5b). The highest mean proportional contribution of marine resources to the diet of an individual fish was 58 % (Fig. 5b).

456 Discussion

Stable isotope analysis revealed the presence of marine subsidies within an impounded lowland river resulted in their substantial contribution to the assimilated diet of large-bodied E. lucius. Results showed considerable dietary niche partitioning between E. lucius size categories when anadromous Alosa spp. and cypriniform fish specialising on marine fishmeal bait were available as prev. Where these resources were not available, this niche partitioning was not evident. Stable isotope mixing models revealed that in the downstream Severn reach, up to 33 % of E. lucius population diet could be attributed to the marine subsidies at the population level, with the greatest proportion of this marine resource contributed by cypriniform fishes (20 % of total population diet). There was, however, considerable variation among individuals, with between 22 and 58 % of individual diets consisting of the two 12. marine resources.

These results are consistent with studies on individual specialisation that suggest long term differences in the diet of consumers can result in considerable variation of $\delta^{13}C$ within populations (Matthews & Mazumder, 2004). Other apex predators have also been reported to couple distinct energetic pathways within complex food webs. For example, Matich, Heithaus & Layman (2011) revealed that two pelagic shark species coupled distinct food webs through dietary variations resulting from one species being dietary specialists and the other being generalists. Individual specialisation in E. lucius has also been previously documented (Beaudoin et al., 1999; Kobler et al., 2009). It has been hypothesised as a potentially important mechanism in reducing

Page 21 of 51

Freshwater Biology

intraspecific competition, with Kobler et al., (2009) showing substantial behavioural diversification in individual E. lucius that helped to reduce intra-specific competitive interactions. Here, the diet diversification in the larger E. lucius was through their specialisation on the marine prev subsidies that were all lengths >280 mm. Although it could not be tested whether the fish specialising on these subsidies had different behavioural traits to those that primarily consumed freshwater prey, they did require functional traits that enabled the capture and handling of large prey. Whilst it could also not be tested whether the consumption of these larger prev was a response to intra-specific competition, the exploitation of marine subsidies by these individuals resulted in higher intrapopulation variation and individual specialisation, as has been shown elsewhere (e.g. Beaudoin et al., 1999; Bolnick et al., 2002; Araújo, Bolnick & Layman, 2011). In doing so, the two marine energy pathways present in the downstream Severn reach were coupled with those from non-marine sources at the apex of this riverine food web.

The δ^{13} C of *E. lucius* differed significantly between the reaches, but with the effect of the interaction of reach and fish length on δ^{13} C not being significant. There was, however, high variability in δ^{13} C of larger *E. lucius* in the downstream Severn reach that could potentially have strongly influenced this non-significant result. There was also considerable variability in the contribution of marine resources to the diet of the larger fish in the downstream Severn reach. Nevertheless, within this reach, the dietary contributions of the two marine subsidies did increase with E. lucius body length, explained by their prey selection being dependent on gape size, with this a function of their body length. This finding is important, as in the dietary analyses of E. lucius, individual diets tend to primarily consist of smaller prey (e.g. < 200 mm

Freshwater Biology

length), irrespective of whether that fish can consume larger prey (Craig, 2008; Sandlund, Museth & Øistad, 2016). This results from both a limited availability of larger prey and larger prey having higher handling times that incurs an increased risk of kleptoparasitism (Nilsson & Brönmark, 2000; Craig, 2008). Here, the stable isotope data suggested that individual E. lucius over 650 mm could consume relatively large fishes, with, for example, the approximate sizes of *Alosa* spp. in the River Severn during their spawning period being > 300 mm (Aprahamian, 1988). Moreover, the MDN prey resource from angling bait comprised of fishes of only above 380 mm length. The presence of anadromous Alosa spp. in diet was also interesting given they are only available for a relatively short period each year, generally April to June, a period coincident with the post-spawning period of *E. lucius* (Craig, 2008). Utilisation of these gape dependent resources resulted in isotopic niche differences between populations with and without MDN pathways. This finding is also consistent with Samways et al. (2018), who found that whilst the total ecological niche space did not always increase in river communities following spawning of anadromous fishes, this niche space did show consistent movement toward the marine-nutrient source.

Apex predators are often associated with exerting top-down forces that can initiate trophic cascades within food webs (Brett & Goldman, 1996; McIntosh & Townsend, 1996; Ritchie et al., 2012). However, bottom-up forces, such as prey availability, can also influence predator behaviour and dietary preferences, resulting in prey switching and altering predator-prey relationships (Newsome et al., 2014, 2015). For example, human-influenced food subsidies have altered natural predator-prey relationships in terrestrial systems via bottom-up processes (Ripple et al., 2013; Newsome et al.,

Page 23 of 51

Freshwater Biology

2014, 2015). These anthropogenic subsidies have been sufficient to maintain the abundance and richness of numerous terrestrial predators, including species of birds, mammals and reptiles (Ripple et al., 2014; Newsome et al., 2015). Here, the provision of an anthropogenic prev subsidy in an aquatic system was via the release of large amounts of angling baits that contained high proportions of MDN. The population benefits of this subsidy for E. lucius might have been limited, as it can only be exploited at relatively large sizes. It was beyond this study to determine if there were reproductive and fitness benefits for individuals exploiting these marine prey resources. Nevertheless, the relatively distinct δ^{13} C signal of the angler bait subsidy, located between the freshwater and anadromous prey δ^{13} C signal, enabled these nutrients to be traced through successive trophic levels in the food web. Previously, MDN subsidies from aquaculture and angling have only been detected as being assimilated directly by freshwater fishes (Jackson et al., 2013; Bašić et al., 2015; Gutmann Roberts et al., 2017). Thus, a novel outcome of this study was the demonstration that this anthropogenic marine subsidy was transferred to higher trophic levels in the freshwater food web via piscivory. Notwithstanding, this result was detected in only one river reach. Given the characteristics of the study system, this was unavoidable, as the two marine prey pathways were only present in the downstream Severn reach. Although sample sizes were often small in some reaches, these were not considered to have been a major impediment to data analysis and interpretation due to some of the considerable differences in the stable isotope data of both prey and E. lucius. However, it would be beneficial to identify whether this transfer of angling MDN though riverine food webs is apparent elsewhere, especially in reaches where they are released in high quantities.

Freshwater Biology

Angling baits have been argued as acting as a very strong allochthonous subsidy compared to inputs of, for example, terrestrial invertebrates (Bašić et al., 2015; Mehner et al., 2018). Here, their use in the River Severn basin created a novel MDN energy pathway involving cypriniform consumers and the piscivorous *E. lucius*. The dietary contribution of this MDN pathway was generally predicted to be higher than that of the anadromous MDN pathway. This anadromous prey resource was, however, still an important dietary component. Its presence was also consistent with a large body of research that demonstrates the importance of anadromous fishes for maintaining the productivity, diversity, and community structure of many freshwater systems (e.g. Schindler et al., 2005; Richardson et al., 2016). Indeed, apex predatory fishes have been shown to regularly predate upon anadromous fishes when they enter freshwaters to spawn (MacAvoy et al., 2000; Guillerault et al., 2017).

In summary, the diet composition and isotopic niches of *E. lucius* populations was influenced by the spatial variation of novel marine prey resources. Whilst body size had a strong influence on the ability of *E. lucius* to exploit these marine prey resources, there was considerable variability in the MDN dietary contributions to larger fish. Notwithstanding, that angling bait based on marine resources could be traced through successive trophic levels is a novel finding and highlights how human subsidies can affect the trophic dynamics of apex predators.

575 Acknowledgments

577 We thank the anglers of the Severn Basin Predator study for their assistance in the
578 collection of scale samples. We also thank Brecht Morris and Laura Bullock of the
579 Environment Agency for their help in establishing the angler network and for field

Page 25 of 51

Freshwater Biology

2		
3 4	580	assistance. EN was supported by a studentship funded by the Severn Rivers Trust, the
5 6	581	Environment Agency and Bournemouth University. Permission for sampling of fish
7 8	582	was given by the Environment Agency. Regulated procedures on live fish were
9 10	583	completed only by licenced individuals under UK Home Office licence 70/8063.
11 12	584	
13 14 15	585	References
16 17		
18	586	
19 20	587	Amat Trigo F., Gutmann Roberts C. & Britton J.R. (2017) Spatial variability in the
21 22	588	growth of invasive European barbel Barbus barbus in the River Severn basin,
23 24 25	589	revealed using anglers as citizen scientists. Knowledge & Management of
25 26 27	590	Aquatic Ecosystems, 17.
28 29	591	Antognazza C.M., Andreou D., Zaccara S. & Britton R.J. (2016) Loss of genetic
30 31	592	integrity and biological invasions result from stocking and introductions of
32 33	593	Barbus barbus: insights from rivers in England. Ecology and Evolution 6,
34 35 36	594	1280–1292.
37 38	595	Aprahamian M.W. (1988) The biology of the twaite shad, Alosa fallax fallax
39 40	596	(Lacépède), in the Severn Estuary. Journal of Fish Biology 33, 141–152.
41 42		
42	597	Araújo M.S., Bolnick D.I. & Layman C.A. (2011) The ecological causes of individual
44 45	598	specialisation. Ecology Letters 14, 948–958.
46 47	599	Arlinghaus R. & Mehner T. (2003) Socio-economic characterisation of specialised
48 49 50	600	common carp (Cyprinus carpio L.) anglers in Germany, and implications for
50 51 52	601	inland fisheries management and eutrophication control. Fisheries Research
53 54	602	61 , 19–33.
55	001	
56 57		
58		
59		

2		
3 4	603	Barnes C., Sweeting C.J., Jennings S., Barry J.T. & Polunin N.V.C. (2007) Effect of
5 6	604	temperature and ration size on carbon and nitrogen stable isotope trophic
7 8	605	fractionation. Functional Ecology 21, 356–362.
9 10 11	606	Bašić T. & Britton J.R. (2015) Utility of fish scales from stock assessment surveys in
12 13	607	stable isotope analysis for initial assessments of trophic relationships in
14 15	608	riverine fish communities. Journal of Applied Ichthyology 31, 296–300.
16 17	609	Bašić T., Britton J.R., Jackson M.C., Reading P. & Grey J. (2015) Angling baits and
18 19 20	610	invasive crayfish as important trophic subsidies for a large cyprinid fish.
21 22	611	Aquatic Sciences 77, 153–160.
23 24	612	Beaudoin C.P., Tonn W.M., Prepas E.E. & Wassenaar L.I. (1999) Individual
25 26 27	613	specialization and trophic adaptability of northern pike (Esox lucius): an
28 29	614	isotope and dietary analysis. Oecologia 120, 386–396.
30 31	615	Bolnick D.I., Svanbäck R., Fordyce J.A., Yang L.H., Davis J.M., Hulsey C.D., et al.
32 33 34	616	(2002) The ecology of individuals: incidence and implications of individual
35 36	617	specialization. The American Naturalist 161, 1–28.
37 38	618	Brett M.T. & Goldman C.R. (1996) A meta-analysis of the freshwater trophic
39 40	619	cascade. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 93, 7723–7726.
41 42 43	620	Busst G. & Britton J.R. (2017) Comparative trophic impacts of two globally invasive
44 45	621	cyprinid fishes reveal species-specific invasion consequences for a threatened
46 47	622	native fish. Freshwater Biology 62, 1587–1595.
48 49 50	623	Busst G.M.A., Bašić T. & Britton J.R. (2015) Stable isotope signatures and trophic-
51 52	624	step fractionation factors of fish tissues collected as non-lethal surrogates of
53 54	625	dorsal muscle: Non-lethal tissue surrogates for fish isotope studies. Rapid
55 56 57	626	Communications in Mass Spectrometry 29, 1535–1544.
58		
59 60		

Freshwater Biology

2		
3 4	627	Busst G.M.A. & Britton J.R. (2016) High variability in stable isotope diet-tissue
5 6	628	discrimination factors of two omnivorous freshwater fishes in controlled ex
7 8	629	situ conditions. The Journal of Experimental Biology 219, 1060–1068.
9 10 11	630	Chapman L.J., Mackay W.C. & Wilkinson C.W. (1989) Feeding flexibility in
12 13	631	northern pike (Esox lucius): fish versus invertebrate prey. Canadian Journal
14 15	632	of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 46, 666–669.
16 17	633	Clavero M., Blanco-Garrido F. & Prenda J. (2004) Fish fauna in Iberian
18 19 20	634	Mediterranean river basins: biodiversity, introduced species and damming
21 22	635	impacts. Aquatic Conservation: Marine and Freshwater Ecosystems 14, 575–
23 24	636	585.
25 26 27	637	Craig J.F. (2008) A short review of pike ecology. <i>Hydrobiologia</i> 601, 5–16.
27 28 29	638	Grey J., Waldron S. & Hutchinson R. (2004) The utility of carbon and nitrogen
30 31	639	isotope analyses to trace contributions from fish farms to the receiving
32 33	640	communities of freshwater lakes: a pilot study in Esthwaite Water, UK.
34 35 36	641	Hydrobiologia 524 , 253–262.
37 38	642	Guillerault N., Bouletreau S., Iribar A., Valentini A. & Santoul F. (2017) Application
39 40	643	of DNA metabarcoding on faeces to identify European catfish Silurus glanis
41 42 43	644	diet. Journal of Fish Biology 90, 2214–2219.
44 45	645	Gutmann Roberts C., Bašić T., Amat Trigo F. & Britton J.R. (2017) Trophic
46 47	646	consequences for riverine cyprinid fishes of angler subsidies based on marine-
48 49 50	647	derived nutrients. Freshwater Biology 62, 894–905.
50 51 52	648	Heady W.N. & Moore J.W. (2013) Tissue turnover and stable isotope clocks to
53 54	649	quantify resource shifts in anadromous rainbow trout. Oecologia 172, 21-34.
55 56	650	Hickley P. & Chare S. (2004) Fisheries for non-native species in England and Wales:
57 58 59 60	651	angling or the environment? Fisheries Management and Ecology 11, 203–212.

652	Hutchinson J.J. & Trueman C.N. (2006) Stable isotope analyses of collagen in fish
653	scales: limitations set by scale architecture. Journal of Fish Biology 69, 1874-
654	1880.
655	Jackson A.L., Inger R., Parnell A.C. & Bearhop S. (2011) Comparing isotopic niche
656	widths among and within communities: SIBER - Stable Isotope Bayesian
657	Ellipses in R: Bayesian isotopic niche metrics. Journal of Animal Ecology 80,
658	595–602.
659	Jackson M.C., Allen R., Pegg J. & Britton J.R. (2013) Do trophic subsidies affect the
660	outcome of introductions of a non-native freshwater fish? Freshwater Biology
661	58 , 2144–2153.
662	Jackson M.C., Donohue I., Jackson A.L., Britton J.R., Harper D.M. & Grey J. (2012)
663	Population-level metrics of trophic structure based on stable isotopes and their
664	application to invasion ecology. <i>PLoS ONE</i> 7, e31757.
665	Jardine T.D., Gray M.A., McWilliam S.M. & Cunjak R.A. (2005) Stable isotope
666	variability in tissues of temperate stream fishes. Transactions of the American
667	Fisheries Society 134 , 1103–1110.
668	Kobler A., Klefoth T., Mehner T. & Arlinghaus R. (2009) Coexistence of behavioural
669	types in an aquatic top predator: a response to resource limitation? Oecologia
670	161 , 837–847.
671	MacAvoy S.E., Macko S.A., McIninch S.P. & Garman G.C. (2000) Marine nutrient
672	contributions to freshwater apex predators. Oecologia 122, 568-573.
673	Marcarelli A.M., Baxter C.V., Mineau M.M. & Hall R.O. (2011) Quantity and
674	quality: unifying food web and ecosystem perspectives on the role of resource
675	subsidies in freshwaters. Ecology 92, 1215–1225.

676	Marczak L.B., Thompson R.M. & Richardson J.S. (2007) Meta-analysis: trophic
677	level, habitat, and productivity shape the food web effects of resource
678	subsidies. <i>Ecology</i> 88 , 140–148.
679	Matich P., Heithaus M.R. & Layman C.A. (2011) Contrasting patterns of individual
680	specialization and trophic coupling in two marine apex predators:
681	Specialization in top marine predators. Journal of Animal Ecology 80, 294-
682	305.
683	Matthews B. & Mazumder A. (2004) A critical evaluation of intrapopulation variation
684	of δ^{13} C and isotopic evidence of individual specialization. <i>Oecologia</i> 140 ,
685	361–371.
686	McIntosh A.R. & Townsend C.R. (1996) Interactions between fish, grazing
687	invertebrates and algae in a New Zealand stream: a trophic cascade mediated
688	by fish-induced changes to grazer behaviour? Oecologia 108, 174–181.
689	Mehner T., Rapp T., Monk C.T., Beck M.E., Trudeau A., Kiljunen M., et al. (2018)
690	Feeding Aquatic Ecosystems: Whole-Lake Experimental Addition of Angler's
691	Ground Bait Strongly Affects Omnivorous Fish Despite Low Contribution to
692	Lake Carbon Budget. <i>Ecosystems</i> , 1–17.
693	Newsome T.M., Ballard GA., Fleming P.J., van de Ven R., Story G.L. & Dickman
694	C.R. (2014) Human-resource subsidies alter the dietary preferences of a
695	mammalian top predator. Oecologia 175, 139-150.
696	Newsome T.M., Dellinger J.A., Pavey C.R., Ripple W.J., Shores C.R., Wirsing A.J.,
697	et al. (2015) The ecological effects of providing resource subsidies to
698	predators. Global Ecology and Biogeography 24, 1-11.
699	Niesar M., Arlinghaus R., Rennert B. & Mehner T. (2004) Coupling insights from a
700	carp, Cyprinus carpio, angler survey with feeding experiments to evaluate
	 677 678 679 680 681 682 683 684 685 686 687 688 689 690 691 692 693 694 695 696 697 698 699 699

Freshwater Biology

- 5 -	701	composition, quality and phosphorus input of groundbait in coarse fishing.
; ;	702	Fisheries Management and Ecology 11, 225–235.
, }	703	Nilsson P.A. & Brönmark C. (2000) Prey vulnerability to a gape-size limited
0 1	704	predator: behavioural and morphological impacts on northern pike piscivory.
2 3	705	Oikos 88, 539–546.
4 5	706	Ovidio M. & Philippart JC. (2002) The impact of small physical obstacles on
6 7	707	upstream movements of six species of fish. In: Aquatic Telemetry, Thorstad
8 9 20	708	E.B., Fleming I.A., Næsje T.F. (eds). pp. 55-69. Springer.
21 22	709	Pedreschi D., Mariani S., Coughlan J., Voigt C.C., O'Grady M., Caffrey J., et al.
23 24	710	(2015) Trophic flexibility and opportunism in pike Esox lucius. Journal of
25 26 27	711	Fish Biology 87 , 876–894.
28 29	712	Phillips D.L. & Gregg J.W. (2003) Source partitioning using stable isotopes: coping
50 51	713	with too many sources. <i>Oecologia</i> 136 , 261–269.
32 33 34	714	Phillips D.L., Newsome S.D. & Gregg J.W. (2005) Combining sources in stable
5 6	715	isotope mixing models: alternative methods. Oecologia 144, 520-527.
57 18	716	Polis G.A., Anderson W.B. & Holt R.D. (1997) Toward an integration of landscape
9 0 1	717	and food web ecology: the dynamics of spatially subsidized food webs.
2 3	718	Annual review of ecology and systematics 28, 289–316.
4 5	719	Post D.M., Layman C.A., Arrington D.A., Takimoto G., Quattrochi J. & Montana
6 7	720	C.G. (2007) Getting to the fat of the matter: models, methods and assumptions
18 19 50	721	for dealing with lipids in stable isotope analyses. Oecologia 152, 179–189.
51 52	722	R Core Team. 2018. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R
53 54	723	Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL https://www.R-
5 6 7	724	project.org/.
58 59		

2		
3 4	725	Rasmussen J.B., Trudeau V. & Morinville G. (2009) Estimating the scale of fish
5 6	726	feeding movements in rivers using $\delta^{13}C$ signature gradients. Journal of animal
7 8	727	<i>ecology</i> 78 , 674–685.
9 10 11	728	Richardson D.P., Kohler A.E., Hailemichael M. & Finney B.P. (2016) The fate of
12 13	729	marine-derived nutrients: tracing δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N through oligotrophic
14 15	730	freshwater and linked riparian ecosystems following salmon carcass analog
16 17	731	additions. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 74, 41–55.
18 19 20	732	Ripple W.J., Estes J.A., Beschta R.L., Wilmers C.C., Ritchie E.G., Hebblewhite M.,
20 21 22	733	et al. (2014) Status and ecological effects of the world's largest carnivores.
23 24	734	Science 343 , 1241484.
25 26	735	Ripple W.J., Wirsing A.J., Wilmers C.C. & Letnic M. (2013) Widespread
27 28	736	mesopredator effects after wolf extirpation. <i>Biological Conservation</i> 160 , 70–
29 30 31	737	79.
32	757	12.
33 34	738	Ritchie E.G., Elmhagen B., Glen A.S., Letnic M., Ludwig G. & McDonald R.A.
35 36	739	(2012) Ecosystem restoration with teeth: what role for predators? Trends in
37 38	740	Ecology & Evolution 27, 265–271.
39 40 41	741	Rooney N., McCann K.S. & Moore J.C. (2008) A landscape theory for food web
42 43	742	architecture. Ecology Letters 11, 867–881.
44 45	743	Samways K.M., Soto D.X. & Cunjak R.A. (2018) Aquatic food-web dynamics
46 47	744	following incorporation of nutrients derived from Atlantic anadromous fishes.
48 49 50	745	Journal of Fish Biology 92, 399–419.
50 51 52	746	Sandlund O.T., Museth J. & Øistad S. (2016) Migration, growth patterns, and diet of
53 54	747	pike (Esox lucius) in a river reservoir and its inflowing river. Fisheries
55 56	748	<i>Research</i> 173 , 53–60.
57	740	Research 173, 55-00.
58 59		
60		

2 3 4	749	Schindler D.E., Leavitt P.R., Brock C.S., Johnson S.P. & Quay P.D. (2005) Marine-
5 6	750	derived nutrients, commercial fisheries, and production of salmon and lake
7 8 9	751	algae in Alaska. Ecology 86, 3225–3231.
9 10 11	752	Sorel M.H., Hansen A.G., Connelly K.A., Wilson A.C., Lowery E.D. & Beauchamp
12 13	753	D.A. (2016) Predation by Northern Pikeminnow and Tiger Muskellunge on
14 15	754	Juvenile Salmonids in a High-Head Reservoir: Implications for Anadromous
16 17 18	755	Fish Reintroductions. Transactions of the American Fisheries Society 145,
19 20	756	521–536.
21 22	757	Stock B.C., Jackson A.L., Ward E.J., Parnell A.C., Phillips D.L. & Semmens B.X.
23 24 25	758	(2018) Analyzing mixing systems using a new generation of Bayesian tracer
25 26 27	759	mixing models. PeerJ PrePrints, e5096.
28 29	760	Stock B.C. & Semmens B.X. (2016) Unifying error structures in commonly used
30 31	761	biotracer mixing models. <i>Ecology</i> 97, 2562–2569.
32 33 34	762	Takimoto G., Iwata T. & Murakami M. (2002) Seasonal subsidy stabilizes food web
35 36	763	dynamics: balance in a heterogeneous landscape. Ecological Research 17,
37 38	764	433–439.
39 40 41	765	Ventura M. & Jeppesen E. (2010) Evaluating the need for acid treatment prior to $\delta^{13}C$
41 42 43	766	and $\delta^{15}N$ analysis of freshwater fish scales: effects of varying scale mineral
44 45	767	content, lake productivity and CO2 concentration. Hydrobiologia 644, 245-
46 47	768	259.
48 49 50	769	Venturelli P.A. & Tonn W.M. (2005) Invertivory by northern pike (Esox lucius)
50 51 52	770	structures communities of littoral macroinvertebrates in small boreal lakes.
53 54	771	Journal of the North American Benthological Society 24, 904–918.
55 56 57		
57 58		
59 60		

Wheeler A. & Jordan D.R. (1990) The status of the barbel, Barbus barbus (L.)
(Teleostei, Cyprinidae), in the United Kingdom. Journal of Fish Biology 37,
393–399.
Wipfli M.S., Hudson J.P., Caouette J.P. & Chaloner D.T. (2003) Marine subsidies in
freshwater ecosystems: salmon carcasses increase the growth rates of stream-
resident salmonids. Transactions of the American Fisheries Society 132, 371-
381.
Zhang Y., Negishi J.N., Richardson J.S. & Kolodziejczyk R. (2003) Impacts of
marine-derived nutrients on stream ecosystem functioning. Proceedings of the
Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences 270, 2117–2123.
Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences 270, 2117–2123.

Freshwater Biology

Table 1. Prey resources included in mixing models for each reach and *E. lucius* size category, including their length range (mm) and carbon and nitrogen stable isotope ratios (‰).Cypriniform fishes as prey resources are separated to include those with a freshwater diet and those

River reach	<i>E. lucius</i> size category	Prey resource	n	Prey Length range (mm)	Mean $\delta^{13}C$ (‰)	Mean $\delta^{15}N$ (‰)
L. W. Avon	≥400 < 650 mm	Macroinvertebrates	10		-30.23 ± 1.47	15.90 ± 1.33
		Cypriniforms – freshwater	18	77 to 330	-26.69 ± 2.10	15.09 ± 1.69
	≥650 < 850 mm	Macroinvertebrates	10		-30.23 ± 1.47	15.90 ± 1.33
		Cypriniforms – freshwater	21	77 to 420	-26.50 ± 2.08	15.08 ± 1.85
	≥850 mm	Macroinvertebrates	10		-30.23 ± 1.47	15.90 ± 1.33
		Cypriniforms – freshwater	22	77 to 510	-26.45 ± 2.04	15.08 ± 1.81
Downstream Severn	≥400 < 650 mm	Macroinvertebrates	9		-29.67 ± 1.19	9.59 ± 0.81
		Cypriniforms – freshwater	15	60 to 316	-26.08 ± 1.38	12.49 ± 1.30
		Cypriniforms – marine	NA			
		Alosa spp.	9		-13.30 ± 0.62	12.52 ± 0.90
	≥650 < 850 mm	Macroinvertebrates	9		-29.67 ± 1.19	9.59 ± 0.81
		Cypriniforms – freshwater	20	60 to 401	-25.94 ± 1.36	12.84 ± 1.37
		Cypriniforms – marine	5	380 to 450	-22.26 ± 0.19	11.88 ± 0.88

specialising on marine fishmeal bait

Freshwater Biology

1 2				
3 4 5 <i>Alosa</i>	<i>i</i> spp. 9		-13.30 ± 0.62	12.52 ± 0.90
6	oinvertebrates 9		29.67 ± 1.19	9.59 ± 0.81
8	iniforms – freshwater 32	60 to 570	-25.56 ± 1.34	12.85 ± 1.21
9 10	iniforms – marine 21	380 to 565	-21.80 ± 0.98	11.73 ± 0.61
13 14	a spp. 9		15.50 - 0.02	12.52 - 0.50
15 16				
17				
18 19				
20				
21 22				
23 24				
25				
26 27				
28				
29 30				
31				
32 33				
34				
35 36				
37				
38 39				
40				
41 42				
42				
42 43 44				

Table 2. Mean (\pm SD) carbon and nitrogen stable isotope ratios of *Esox lucius* by reach and size category, including the number of individuals analysed and their length range (mm).

River reach	Size category	Length range (mm)	n	Mean δ13C (‰)	Range $\delta^{13}C$ (‰)	Mean $\delta^{15}N$ (‰)	Range $\delta^{15}N$ (‰)
Warwickshire Avon	≥400 < 650	455 to 640	7	-26.23 ± 1.24	-28.30 to -25.15	19.08 ± 1.36	16.58 to 21.24
	≥651 < 850	680 to 840	6	-24.83 ± 1.82	-26.63 to -21.47	18.25 ± 1.71	15.67 to 19.78
	≥850	860 to- 1020	6	-24.96 ± 0.22	-25.39 to -24.81	19.23 ± 0.30	18.76 to 19.49
Upstream Severn	≥400 < 650	420 to 480	2	-24.48 ± 0.35	-24.73 to -24.23	15.02 ± 0.55	14.63 to 15.41
	≥651 < 850	660 to 774	3	-23.80 ± 0.53	-24.33 to -23.28	15.66 ± 0.55	15.14 to 16.24
	≥850	880 to 901	3	23.24 ± 0.29	-23.49 to -22.93	16.43 ± 0.57	15.99 to 17.07
Downstream Severn	≥400 < 650	508 to 635	5	-24.35 ± 0.46	-24.74 to -23.69	15.80 ± 0.58	14.86 to 16.28
	≥651 < 850	660 to 838	10	-21.51 ± 1.44	-23.64 to -19.45	16.13 ± 0.56	15.41 to 16.92
	≥850	864 to 1060	15	-19.96 ± 2.02	-22.49 to -16.34	16.18 ± 0.61	15.03 to 16.96

 Table 3. Isotopic niche metrics for *Esox lucius* by reach and size categories, where TA: the total area of the convex hull encompassing the data points, SEA: the Standard Ellipse Area containing 40% of the data, SEA_C: Correction applied to SEA to account for small sample sizes, SEA_B. The Bayesian estimate and 95% credible intervals.

14.21 1.45	4.21	4.45	4.21	
1 45			4.21	2.63, 6.85
1.45	1.06	1.24	1.03	0.51, 2.35
11.79	4.09	4.23	3.96	2.77, 5.82
5.28	3.59	4.31	3.57	1.59, 8.68
9.07	7.18	8.98	5.41	1.76, 13.93
0.22	0.19	0.23	0.11	0.05, 0.31
0.58	0.54	0.72	0.29	0.11, 0.89
4.49	2.52	2.83	2.18	1.09, 4.31
7.29	3.87	4.17	3.07	2.01, 5.88
		2		
	 5.28 9.07 0.22 0.58 4.49 	5.28 3.59 9.07 7.18 0.22 0.19 0.58 0.54 4.49 2.52	5.283.594.319.077.188.980.220.190.230.580.540.724.492.522.83	5.283.594.313.579.077.188.985.410.220.190.230.110.580.540.720.294.492.522.832.18

Table 4. Estimated dietary prey contributions from MixSIAR models to *Esox lucius* by reach and size category, group mean $\% \pm$ SD with 5% and 95% Bayesian credible intervals in parentheses and individual mean $\% \pm$ SD with predicted % contribution range in parentheses. Cypriniform fishes as prey resources are separated to include those with a freshwater diet and those specialising on marine fishmeal bait

River reach	MixSIAR	Resource	$\geq 400 < 650 \text{ mm}$	≥650 < 850 mm	≥850 mm
Warwickshire Avon Group		Macroinvertebrates	0.73 ± 0.14 (0.47, 0.95)	0.43 ± 0.20 (0.13, 0.78)	0.57 ± 0.13 (0.35, 0.78)
		Cypriniforms – freshwater	0.27 ± 0.14 (0.05, 0.52)	0.57 ± 0.20 (0.22, 0.88)	0.43 ± 0.13 (0.22, 0.65)
	Individual	Macroinvertebrates	$0.73 \pm 0.02 \ (0.66 \text{ to } 0.84)$	$0.45 \pm 0.05 \ (0.25 \text{ to } 0.58)$	0.58 ± 0.01 (0.56 to 0.59
		Cypriniforms – freshwater	$0.27 \pm 0.02 \ (0.16 \text{ to } 0.33)$	$0.54 \pm 0.05 \ (0.42 \text{ to } 0.75)$	0.42 ± 0.01 (0.40 to 0.44
Downstream Severn	Group	Macroinvertebrates	0.33 ± 0.13 (0.11, 0.53)	0.15 ± 0.13 (0.04, 0.44)	0.06 ± 0.05 (0.01, 0.15)
		Cypriniforms – freshwater	0.62 ± 0.14 (0.39, 0.85)	0.54 ± 0.11 (0.36, 0.71)	0.61 ± 0.09 (0.46, 0.75)
		Cypriniforms – marine	NA	0.24 ± 0.13 (0.04, 0.44)	$0.20 \pm 0.14 \ (0.02, \ 0.46)$
		Alosa spp.	0.05 ± 0.04 (0.01, 0.13)	0.07 ± 0.05 (0.01, 0.17)	$0.13 \pm 0.06 \ (0.03, \ 0.23)$
	Individual	Macroinvertebrates	$0.29 \pm 0.01 \ (0.26 \text{ to } 0.33)$	0.13 ± 0.01 (0.09 to 0.20)	0.06 ± 0.01 (0.04 to 0.09
		Cypriniforms – freshwater	0.66 ± 0.01 (0.63 to 0.69)	$0.52 \pm 0.02 \ (0.41 \text{ to } 0.62)$	0.55 ±0.03 (0.37 to 0.71
		Cypriniforms – marine	NA	$0.29 \pm 0.02 \ (0.19 \text{ to } 0.41)$	0.27 ± 0.01 (0.18 to 0.33
		Alosa spp.	$0.04 \pm 0.01 \ (0.04 \ \text{to} \ 0.04)$	$0.05 \pm 0.01 \ (0.03 \text{ to } 0.07)$	$0.12 \pm 0.02 \ (0.06 \ \text{to} \ 0.23)$

Figure captions

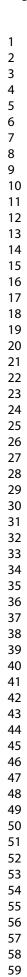
Figure 1. Western Europe showing the position (inset) of the study area (a), the location of the main rivers (inset) within the Severn River basin (b) and locations of the study reaches within the lower River Severn basin (c), where the areas of river covered by the reaches are represented as the areas between solid lines.

Figure 2. Relationship between length (mm) and (a) δ^{13} C and (b) δ^{15} N of *Esox lucius* from all reaches showing linear fit for the Warwickshire Avon (open circle, short-dashed line); Upstream Severn (cross, long-dashed line); Downstream Severn (solid circle, solid line) with 95% confidence intervals shown around the fitted values.

Figure 3. *Esox lucius* δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N stable isotope bi-plots and the 40% standard ellipse area (SEAc) for the Warwickshire Avon (open circle, short- dashed line), Upstream Severn (cross, long-dashed line) and Downstream Severn (solid circle, solid line).

Figure 4. Stable isotope bi-plots for (a) the Warwickshire Avon and (b) Downstream Severn showing prey resources as invertebrates (cross), cypriniforms with freshwater diet (x), cypriniforms with marine diet (open square) and *Alosa* spp. (solid square). The *E. lucius* isotopic niche for the sample population (solid grey line) and by size categories (400 - 650 mm (dashed line), 651 - 850 mm (dotted line) and > 850 mm (solid line) enclosing the 40% standard ellipse area (SEAc) are also shown. Mean \pm SD of resource points are displayed with symbols corresponding as above. Figure 5. Estimated dietary prey contributions (0 - 1) from MixSIAR models to the diet of individual *Esox lucius* by body length at (a) the Warwickshire Avon and (b) downstream Severn. Prey resources are represented as overall means in a stacked bar plot for *Alosa* spp (dark grey), 'Cypriniform-marine' (light grey), 'Cypriniform-freshwater' (white) and Invertebrates (black).

Cool of Review



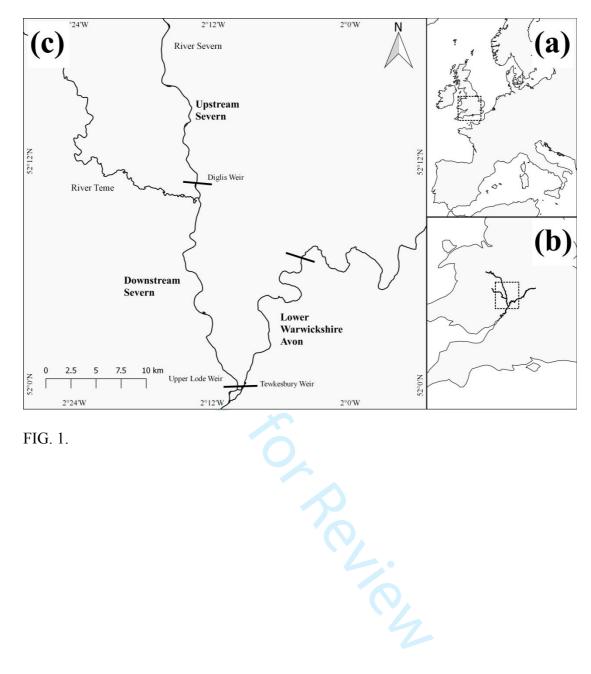
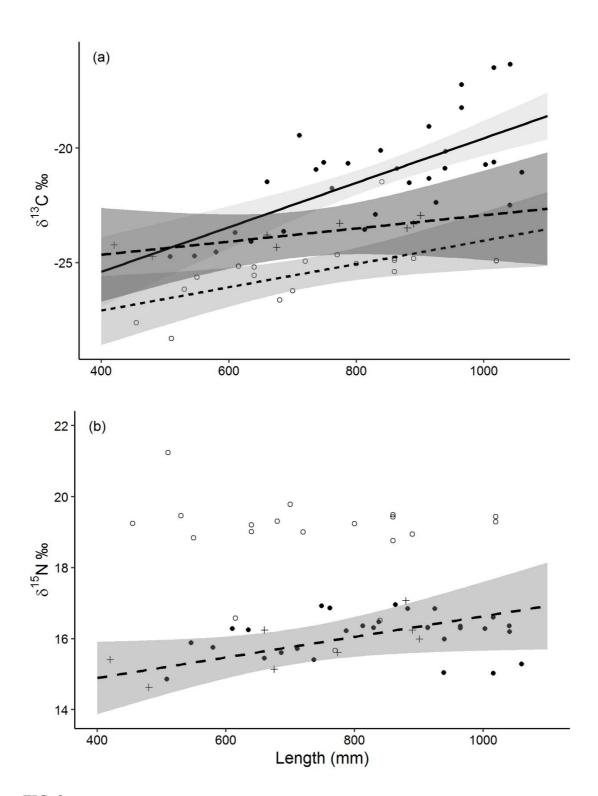
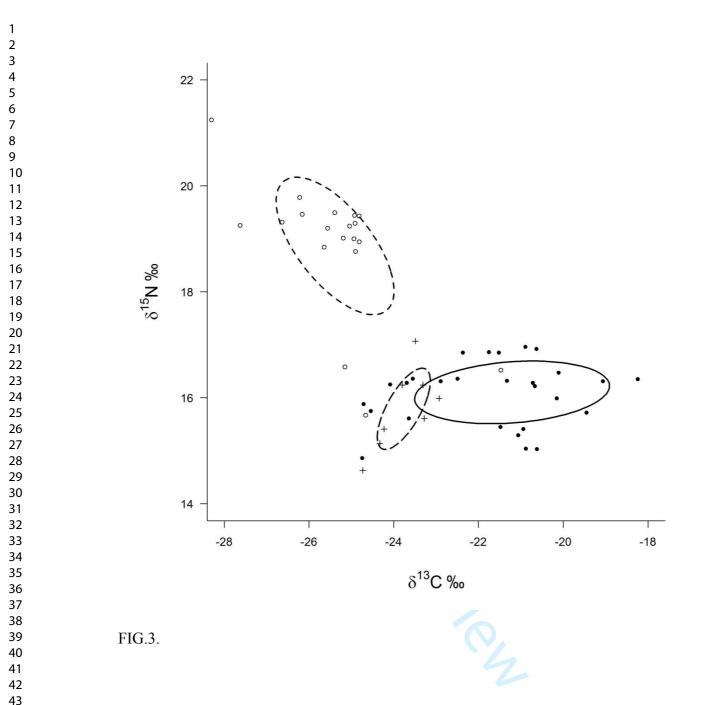


FIG. 1.







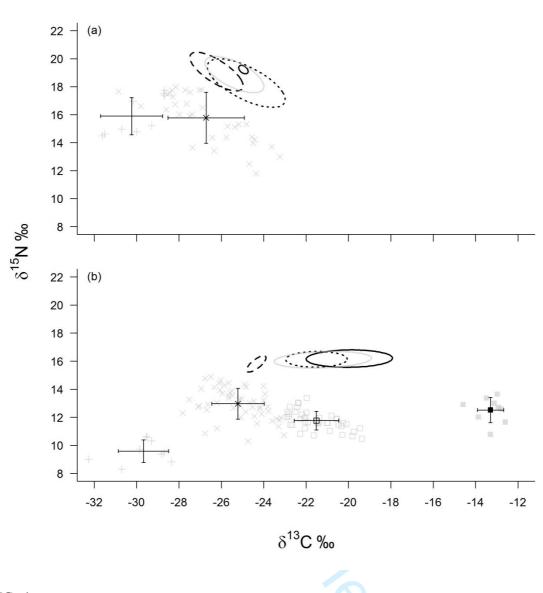


FIG. 4

R

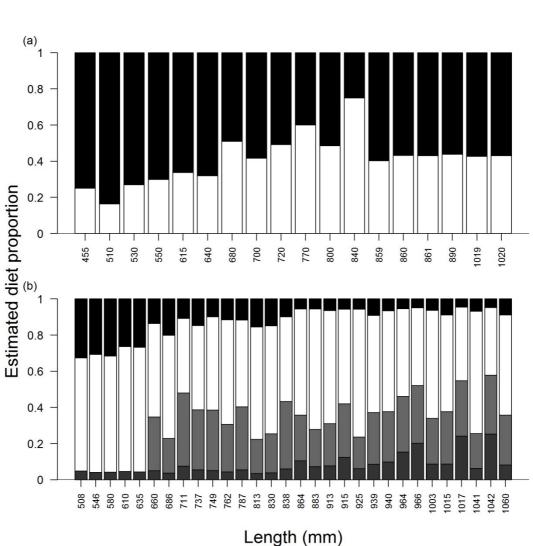


FIG. 5.



Supplementary material

Table S1. Individual E. lucius sample data including date sampled, location, fork

1	1 1	()	• 1 / /	``	1 1	1	•,	4 1 1	• ,	pe ratios ($(\mathbf{n} / \mathbf{v})$	
	lonath	(mm)	Waight ($\alpha \mid \alpha n $	1 corhon	and	nitrogan	otohla	100101	na ratina l	Vac	4
	ICHEIN		WUISHILL	מות	гдандон	ани	THEORET	STADIC	150101	ו מנוטא ו	/00	
		(10000		,,	/

Date Sampled	Location	Length (mm)	Weight (g)	δ ¹⁵ N (‰)	δ ¹³ C (‰
27/01/2015	Warwickshire Avon	890	7730	18.94	-24.81
06/02/2015	Warwickshire Avon	700	2320	19.78	-26.22
02/03/2015	Warwickshire Avon	1020	9090	19.44	-24.92
04/03/2015	Warwickshire Avon	770	5200	15.67	-24.66
11/03/2015	Warwickshire Avon	1020	9099	19.29	-24.91
03/07/2015	Warwickshire Avon	860	4750	19.43	-24.81
14/07/2015	Warwickshire Avon	720	3300	19	-24.94
20/07/2015	Warwickshire Avon	640	1400	19.01	-25.19
22/07/2015	Warwickshire Avon	550	960	18.84	-25.64
24/07/2015	Warwickshire Avon	860	5500	19.49	-25.39
22/08/2015	Warwickshire Avon	680	1525	19.31	-26.63
24/08/2015	Warwickshire Avon	530	960	19.46	-26.16
14/11/2015	Warwickshire Avon	860	7260	18.76	-24.9
20/02/2016	Warwickshire Avon	510	1400	21.24	-28.3
20/02/2016	Warwickshire Avon	840	5950	16.52	-21.47
27/02/2016	Warwickshire Avon	615	1632	16.58	-25.15
22/06/2017	Warwickshire Avon	455	NA	19.25	-27.62
20/07/2017	Warwickshire Avon	640	NA	19.2	-25.56
25/07/2017	Warwickshire Avon	800	NA	19.24	-25.04
20/09/2014	Downstream Severn	925	5981.7	16.85	-22.37
30/10/2014	Downstream Severn	838	5103	16.47	-20.11
28/11/2014	Downstream Severn	830	5900	16.31	-22.89
05/12/2014	Downstream Severn	737	2948.4	15.41	-20.94
24/01/2015	Downstream Severn	864	6577	16.96	-20.89
24/01/2015	Downstream Severn	940	8278	15.99	-20.15
24/01/2015	Downstream Severn	965	8165	16.3	-17.23
15/02/2015	Downstream Severn	508	1247	14.86	-24.74
15/02/2015	Downstream Severn	711	4649	15.72	-19.45
05/03/2015	Downstream Severn	686	3430.3	15.61	-23.64
05/03/2015	Downstream Severn	914	6463.7	16.31	-19.06
06/03/2015	Downstream Severn	635	1899.4	16.25	-24.08
06/03/2015	Downstream Severn	939	6633.8	15.04	-20.88
10/03/2015	Downstream Severn	660	3459	15.45	-21.48
12/03/2015	Downstream Severn	610	3345.2	16.28	-23.69
12/03/2015	Downstream Severn	1060	9043.5	15.29	-21.06
02/08/2015	Downstream Severn	787	4876	16.22	-20.67
07/09/2015	Downstream Severn	813	3799	16.36	-23.55
	Derror of the second Comment	546	1247		
04/10/2015	Downstream Severn	540	124/	15.88	-24.71

31/10/2015	Downstream Severn	1016	9072	15.03	-20.62
31/10/2015	Downstream Severn	1041.4	9724	16.2	-16.34
05/11/2015	Downstream Severn	1041	12105	16.36	-22.49
13/11/2015	Downstream Severn	580	2070	15.75	-24.54
23/01/2016	Downstream Severn	965	7541	16.35	-18.24
22/02/2016	Downstream Severn	762	3742	16.86	-21.75
01/03/2016	Downstream Severn	1016	9525	16.6	-16.49
02/03/2016	Downstream Severn	749	3515	16.92	-20.63
17/03/2016	Downstream Severn	883	6861	16.85	-21.52
13/11/2016	Downstream Severn	1003	8391.5	16.28	-20.72
31/08/2014	Upstream Severn	774	3160	15.61	-23.28
16/09/2014	Upstream Severn	480	880	14.63	-24.73
29/11/2014	Upstream Severn	420	460	15.41	-24.23
29/11/2014	Upstream Severn	880	5750	17.07	-23.49
29/11/2014	Upstream Severn	901	4280	15.99	-22.93
03/12/2014	Upstream Severn	660	3650	16.24	-23.8
20/12/2014	Upstream Severn	890	3680	16.24	-23.31
24/02/2015	Upstream Severn	675	2420	15.14	-24.33

ream Severn

2
2
3
4
5
6
7
, Q
0
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
10
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
21
3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 7 8 9 10 11 23 24 25 26 27 28 9 30 1 32 33 4 35 6 7 8 9 10 11 22 23 4 25 26 27 8 9 30 13 23 34 35 36 37 8 9 30 31 23 34 35 36 37 8 9 30 31 23 34 35 36 37 30 37 37 37 37 37 37 37 37 37 37 37 37 37
55
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
43 44
44 45
45

1

Table S2. Carbon and nitrogen stable isotope ratios (mean $\% \pm$ SD) for *E. lucius* at each reach and year showing analysis of variance statistics

Year	n	Mean δ^{13} C (‰) ± SD	Mean δ^{15} N (‰) ± SD	ANOVA
2015	13	-25.32 ± 0.17	18.95 ± 0.29	δ^{13} C (‰) F _(2,16) = 0.49, P = 0.61
2016	3	-24.97 ± 1.97	18.11 ± 1.56	δ^{15} N (‰) F _(2,16) = 0.64, P = 0.54
2017	3	-26.07 ± 0.79	19.23 ± 0.02	
2014	4	-21.58 ± 0.64	16.26 ± 0.31	δ^{13} C (‰) F _(2,27) = 1.28, P = 0.29
2015	20	-21.53 ± 0.54	15.91 ± 0.12	δ^{15} N (‰) F _(2,27) = 4.81, P = 0.02*
2016	6	-19.89 ± 0.85	16.64 ± 0.11	
2014	7	-23.68 ± 0.23	15.88 ± 0.29	δ^{13} C (‰) F _(1, 6) = 0.95, P = 0.37
2015	1	-24.33	15.14	δ^{15} N (‰) F _(1, 6) = 0.82, P = 0.40
	2015 2016 2017 2014 2015 2016 2014	2015 13 2016 3 2017 3 2014 4 2015 20 2016 6 2014 7	2015 13 -25.32 ± 0.17 2016 3 -24.97 ± 1.97 2017 3 -26.07 ± 0.79 2014 4 -21.58 ± 0.64 2015 20 -21.53 ± 0.54 2016 6 -19.89 ± 0.85 2014 7 -23.68 ± 0.23	2015 13 -25.32 ± 0.17 18.95 ± 0.29 2016 3 -24.97 ± 1.97 18.11 ± 1.56 2017 3 -26.07 ± 0.79 19.23 ± 0.02 2014 4 -21.58 ± 0.64 16.26 ± 0.31 2015 20 -21.53 ± 0.54 15.91 ± 0.12 2016 6 -19.89 ± 0.85 16.64 ± 0.11 2014 7 -23.68 ± 0.23 15.88 ± 0.29

Section S2. Rationale of putative prey resources in mixing models

At the upstream and downstream Severn reaches, the SI data for S. cephalus and invasive B. barbus were highly similar and so they were combined as a single prey resource in mixing models ('Cypriniforms'). However, in their combined data, δ^{13} C had high variation (-19.37 to -27.04 ‰) resulting from some individuals specialising on MDN baits and others on macro-invertebrates (Gutmann Roberts et al., 2017). Thus, this 'Cypriniform' prey resource was split into two groups based on their δ^{13} C data: (1) -19.37 to -22.9 ‰; where diets comprised of a relatively high proportion of MDN ('Cypriniform marine'; mixing model: mean \pm SE = 0.50 \pm 0.17; Table S3); and (2) -23.04 to -27.04 ‰; where diets were relatively low in MDN ('Cypriniformfreshwater'; mean \pm SE = 0.25 \pm 0.11; Supplementary material, Table S3). The two groups were entered as separate prev resources in the mixing models. The differences in MDN dietary contributions between these two groups were significant (t-test; t = -Review 5.66, P < 0.001).

Table S3. Individual carbon and nitrogen stable isotope ratios, lengths and marine derived nutrient contributions for cypriniform fish *S. cephalus* and *B. barbus* used as resources 'Cypriniform freshwater' and 'Cypriniform marine' in Bayesian mixing models as derived from Gutmann-Roberts et al. (2017)

	Cypr	iniform Freshwa	ter	Cypriniform Marine					
Species	δ ¹³ C (‰)	δ ¹⁵ N (‰)	Length (mm)	MDN (%)	Species	δ ¹³ C (‰)	δ ¹⁵ N (‰)	Length (mm)	MDN (%)
B. barbus	-27.04	12.82	510	0.089	B. barbus	-22.89	12.37	740	0.359
B. barbus	-26.5	14.88	397	0.11	B. barbus	-22.81	12.24	690	0.396
B. barbus	-26.09	14.42	364	0.151	B. barbus	-22.74	11.47	520	0.514
B. barbus	-26.03	14.65	660	0.094	B. barbus	-22.43	12.71	680	0.411
B. barbus	-25.66	13.54	520	0.375	B. barbus	-22.27	11.89	529	0.285
B. barbus	-25.65	13.38	800	0.148	B. barbus	-22.04	12	520	0.583
B. barbus	-25.49	13.89	401	0.169	B. barbus	-21.98	12.35	670	0.457
B. barbus	-25.41	12.67	580	0.185	B. barbus	-21.91	11.65	591	0.607
B. barbus	-25.11	12.81	660	0.231	B. barbus	-21.5	11.61	520	0.1
B. barbus	-25.04	13.34	580	0.212	B. barbus	-21.4	11.67	630	0.582
B. barbus	-24.85	12.4	770	0.275	B. barbus	-21.02	11.61	565	0.584
B. barbus	-24.66	13.03	750	0.215	B. barbus	-20.88	11.03	557	0.614

						ey.			
Mean ± SE	-24.83 ± 1.09	12.78 ± 1.17		0.25 ± 0.11	Mean ± SE	-21.46 ± 1.06	11.75 ± 0.66		0.50 ± 0.17
S. cephalus	-23.04	10.73	190	0.417	R				
S. cephalus	-23.6	11.75	300	0.333					
S. cephalus	-24.74	10.3	104	0.463	S. cephalus	-19.82	10.66	510	0.65
B. barbus	-23.25	11.81	545	0.329	S. cephalus	-20.8	12.12	540	0.37
B. barbus	-23.37	11.89	698	0.371	S. cephalus	-22.09	11.92	400	0.42
B. barbus	-23.81	12.76	480	0.226	B. barbus	-22.36	13.01	450	0.33
B. barbus	-24	13.22	593	0.335	B. barbus	-19.37	10.48	790	0.77
B. barbus	-24.1	12.24	630	0.328	B. barbus	-20.1	11.51	602	0.83
B. barbus	-24.31	11.56	530	0.177	B. barbus	-20.29	10.75	800	0.6
B. barbus	-24.46	13.14	620	0.241	B. barbus	-20.55	11.88	800	0.5