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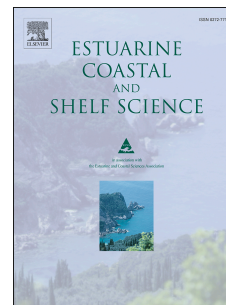
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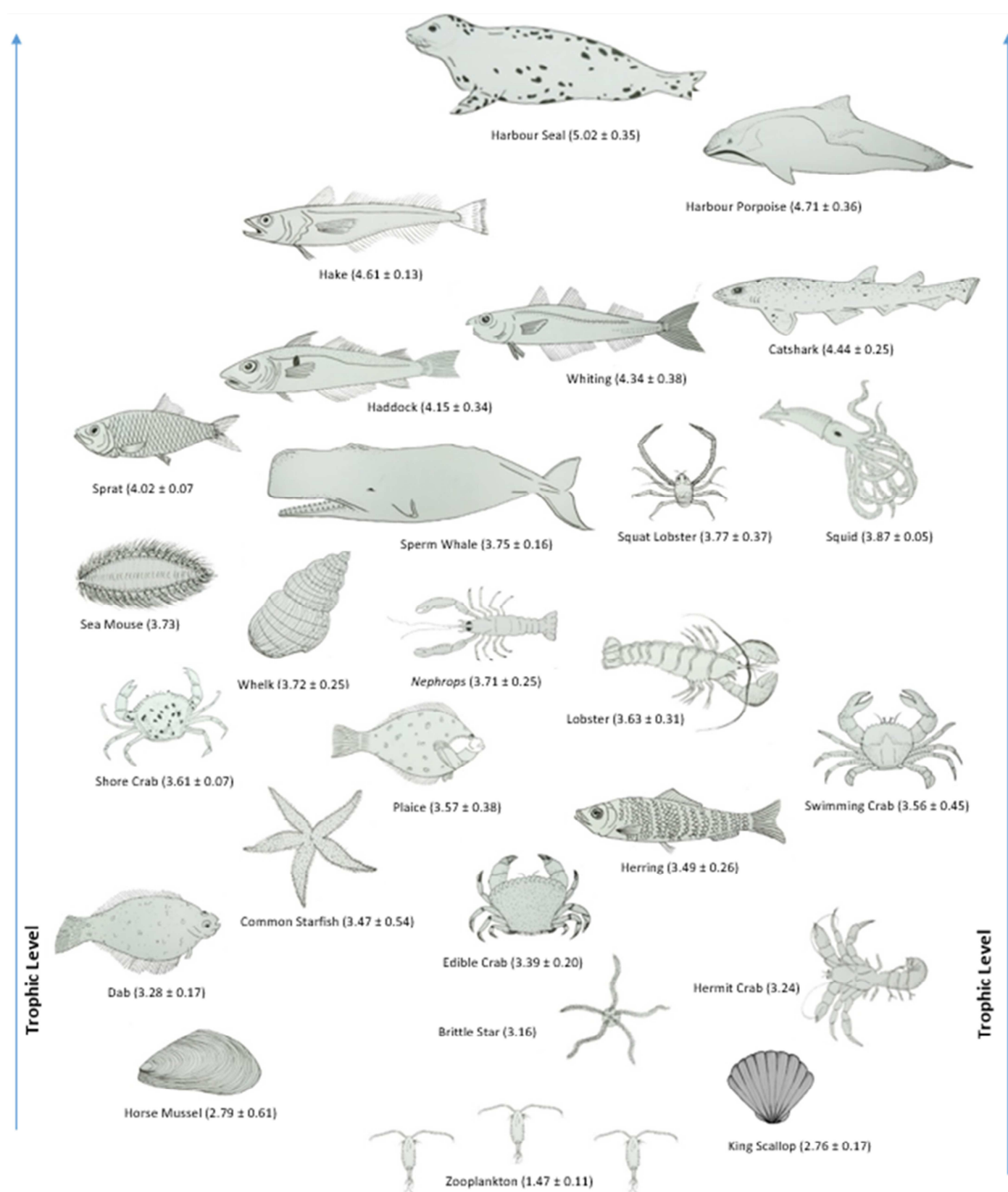
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Understanding Marine Food Web Dynamics Using Fatty Acid Signatures and Stable Isotope Ratios: Improving Contaminant Impacts Assessments across Trophic Levels

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Abstract

Scotland's marine food webs support a diversity of species and habitats. They contribute to maintaining the balance of the natural environment. Previous studies show that these ecosystems are contaminated by persistent organic pollutants and trace metals; with animals in higher trophic levels (e.g. cetaceans and pinnipeds) containing concentrations that are among the highest found in the ocean. Contaminants represent one of many pressures to which species and habitats are exposed. In assessing the contribution of contaminants to the overall pressure, measuring contaminants at a specific trophic level and then using trophic magnification factors (TMFs) to estimate concentrations at other trophic levels permits assessments across the food web, as well as allowing the adjustment of contaminant concentrations to a particular trophic level for comparison to assessment criteria. Fatty acid (FA) signatures and stable isotope (SI) ratios were used to develop a picture of Scottish marine food web ecology and reliably ascribe trophic levels to a wide range of species. Fatty acid trophic markers (FATMs) were used as trophic level indicators and with SI analysis, permitted identification of the mean trophic level of each species and determination of the feeding patterns and predator-prey relationships existing in the Scottish marine food web. Two hundred and eleven (211) samples comprising of seven fish species, one shark species, fourteen marine invertebrate species, three marine mammal species and two zooplankton species from different locations around Scotland were found to have mean trophic levels ranging from 1.47 ± 0.11 in zooplankton to 5.02 ± 0.35 in harbour seal. Fatty acid profile showed specific dietary information which differed between the eleven taxonomic classes and twenty-seven species. The organic and inorganic contaminant concentrations of the species for which trophic level has been determined, together with TMFs, will be reported in future papers.

37 **1. Introduction**

38 Habitats and species are exposed to a range of pressures, one of which is organic and inorganic
39 contaminants. Across the North-East Atlantic, Contracting Parties to the OSPAR Convention for the
40 Protection of the Marine Environment of the North-East Atlantic, including the United Kingdom, are
41 required to undertake monitoring and assessment of contaminants. The assessment utilises
42 assessment criteria, including Background Assessment Concentrations and Environmental
43 Assessment Criteria (Robinson et al., 2017). The species which meet the sampling criteria presented
44 in the OSPAR Coordinated Environmental Monitoring Programme (CEMP) Guidelines for Monitoring
45 Contaminants in Biota (OSPAR, 2018) include specific shellfish, flatfish and round fish, as well as
46 seabird eggs. Extending the assessment to other species has considerable merit, but such species
47 may, for example, be more difficult to sample. Estimating the contaminant concentration using
48 Trophic Magnification Factors (TMFs) permits an assessment of a wider range of species. However,
49 establishing impact on the wider marine food web requires an understanding of trophic level
50 structure, feeding patterns and nutritional relationships (Burkhard, 2003; MIME, 2016). There are
51 limited amounts of high-quality trophic level data available covering the diverse marine species
52 inhabiting Scottish waters for which detail inorganic and organic contaminant concentrations is also
53 available.

54 Food webs support groups of short and/or complex food chains composed of organisms at a variety
55 of trophic levels (Briand and Cohen, 1987). A food chain is a biotic interaction describing one
56 possible path that energy and nutrients may take as they move from primary producers
57 (autotrophs) who produce their own food and energy (photoautotrophs and chemoautotrophs) to
58 consumers (heterotrophs) that feed upon them, and on up to larger predators such as fish and
59 marine mammals (Jacob et al., 2011; Ashok, 2016). The trophic level describes the position that an
60 organism occupies in a food chain (Thompson et al., 2007). There will be natural within-species
61 variation in the trophic level as individuals may feed at more than one level and some species
62 occupy different trophic levels through progressive life stages (Giraldo et al., 2016; Davis et al.,
63 2012).

64 Previous studies on food web dynamics in the North Sea have incorporated limited diversity within
65 each trophic level. For example, a study by Frederiksen et al (2006) looked at the trophic
66 interactions present in a food chain (phytoplankton, zooplankton, sand eel larvae and seabirds) in
67 the North Sea.

68 Individual consumer dynamics (type and length of food chains) contribute to variability in
69 environmental impact assessments of environmental contaminants. For example, individuals of one

70 species may not be at a constant trophic level due to variation in age, sex, location and habitat,
71 seasonal and dietary differences (Kousteni et al., 2017). Contaminants such as polychlorinated
72 biphenyls (PCBs), polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs) and trace metals such as mercury enter
73 the marine environment primarily from anthropogenic sources (Del Vento and Dachs, 2007). Some
74 are resistant to metabolic biotransformation and can biomagnify up the food web (Copat et al.,
75 2013; Lavandier et al., 2019). Therefore, contaminant concentrations detected in marine organisms
76 can be strongly influenced by their trophic level. Theoretical or assigned trophic levels for species
77 are used to model and estimate biomagnification of persistent contaminants within food webs and
78 therefore should be both accurate and capture the diversity known to exist within species (Cardoso
79 et al., 2013; Reum, Williams and Harvey, 2017). Studies on food web characteristics can be used to
80 improve the understanding and modelling of contaminant transfer and to establish accurate
81 assessments of the impact of such contaminants on organisms at all trophic levels on a large scale
82 (Kim et al., 2016).

83 Lipids, including fatty acids (FAs), are an important source of energy in marine ecosystems and are
84 involved in several biochemical pathways (Ibarguren, et al., 2014). FA profiles in storage and
85 structural lipids are indicative of an organisms' likely prey (Galloway et al., 2013). FA profiles of
86 primary producers pass up the food chain and are modified at each trophic level through
87 metabolism and biosynthesis, however specific FAs are conserved (Sikorski, 1990). FA signatures
88 known as "fatty acid trophic markers" (FATMs) can therefore be used to provide information about
89 the trophic level and diet of an organism (Dalsgaard et al., 2003; Parrish et al., 2000). Connelly et al
90 (2014) found FATMs to be a powerful tool, predicting marine taxa with 99% accuracy.

91 Previous studies have used FAs as biomarkers for trophic level indication in marine mammals
92 (Guerrero et al., 2016; Budge et al., 2008), shark (Pethybridge, Daley and Nichols, 2011), fish
93 (Würzberg et al., 2011; Olsen et al., 2015), invertebrates (Allan et al., 2010; Rabei et al., 2018; Soler-
94 Membrives, Rossi and Munilla, 2011) and zooplankton (Deschutter et al., 2019; Gonçalves et al.,
95 2012). However, these biomarkers can be affected by an organism's ability to metabolise and
96 transform FAs which may vary within and between species at the same or similar trophic levels.
97 They should therefore be used with caution or in conjunction with other quantitative techniques for
98 identifying trophic level such as stable isotopes (SI) (Alfaro et al., 2006).

99 The SI ratios $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ are influenced by diet and are useful for identifying broad sources of
100 primary production and differentiating benthic and pelagic trophic pathways (Park et al., 2018).
101 When using SI ratios to analyse diet composition, there is typically a slight enrichment in the
102 heavier isotope between producer/prey and consumer due to preferential metabolism of the

103 lighter isotopic forms of carbon and nitrogen (Post, 2002; McCutchan et al., 2003; DeNiro and
104 Epstein, 1981). The $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) ratio enrichment between each trophic level (0–1‰) is too small
105 for precise determination of trophic level (Hobson et al., 2002) but can be used to establish diet and
106 general feeding habits; for example, phytoplankton tends to be more depleted in ^{13}C than benthic
107 primary producers such as eukaryotic algae and cyanobacteria (France., 1995). The ratio of $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$
108 ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) enriches by 3.4 - 3.8‰ (Fry and Sherr, 1984; Hobson and Welch, 1992) with each increasing
109 trophic level allowing more accurate identification of trophic position. A fixed value of 3.4‰ is
110 commonly used to estimate relative species trophic level and food web structure in additive food
111 web structure models. A study by Hussey et al (2014) suggests, however, that consumer
112 discrimination is not constant between trophic levels but decreases (narrows) with increasing
113 dietary $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. It is suggested that failure to take this into account using a 'scaled' model rather than
114 an additive model results in the underestimation of the trophic level of top predators and leads to
115 the compression of food web length contrary to field data. Despite this, the "narrowing effect" is
116 not currently considered in trophic level adjustments as more data is required to establish a
117 procedure which has the potential to alter the recalculated assessment concentration values
118 (European Commission, 2014). Current studies on contaminant transfer continue to use 3.4 ‰ as a
119 fixed value (Annette et al., 2018).

120 Although SI analysis of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is highly effective at trophic level determination, it can fail to
121 discriminate between isotopically similar sources and only provides two-dimensional discrimination
122 (Farias, 2014). To better understand the trophic ecology of marine biota, coupling both FA and SI
123 analysis will likely be more effective and provide more nuanced information (Couturier, 2013). A
124 study by Young et al (2018) found that the analysis of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ were limited in distinguishing
125 among a diverse group of prey species, as most of the prey had similar $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ranges. FA profiles
126 were able to resolve four separate prey groups with clarity, providing a temporal contrast to the
127 stomach content "snapshot".

128 In this study, we use a combination of FA signatures and SI ratios to identify the trophic level,
129 feeding patterns and nutritional relationships between a variety of species and classes within the
130 Scottish marine food web. Future work will present the inorganic and organic contaminant data and
131 the calculated TMFs for the species detailed in this paper. Comparisons of measured
132 concentrations will be made against recalculated assessment criteria.

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138 **2. Experimental Procedure and Data Analysis**

139 **2.1. Sample Collection and Preparation**

140 Seven fish species, one shark species and fourteen invertebrate species were collected from nine
141 locations around Scotland between 2015 and 2017, using the MRV *Scotia* and MRV *Alba na Mara*
142 (Figure 1), during December-February of each sampling year. Sampling was opportunistic during an
143 environmental assessment cruise. Areas were a mixture of urbanised and industrialised estuarine
144 locations (Clyde: Holy Loch, Pladda, Hunterston; Forth: Tancred Bank) and more offshore locations
145 (Moray Firth, Burra Haaf, Montrose Bank, Solway Firth, NE Dunbar). Fish, shark and invertebrates
146 were used for FA and SI analysis. King scallops were collected from different locations around
147 Scotland in 2018. They provided the baseline data for the SI calculation (Equation 1; section 2.5.2).

148 Bottom trawling was conducted using a BT 137 GOV 50 mm mesh net (wingspread: 20 m, headline
149 height: 5 m, length: 71 m) with attached blinder. Samples were collected in 40-135 m depth of
150 water. All individual fish, shark and invertebrates were dissected, pooled to ensure sufficient tissue
151 for analysis (depending on species, tissue type, size and sampling location), packaged and stored at
152 - 20 °C.

153 Preparation resulted in five tissue types (whole, muscle, liver, soft body, brown meat). Sample pools
154 composed of three to six individuals for fish, catshark, common starfish, king scallop and squid. The
155 remaining invertebrates ranged from twenty to one hundred individuals per pool with lengths of 4–
156 6 cm. (Table 1).

157 Marine mammal blubber samples were collected by the Scottish Marine Animal Strandings Scheme
158 (SMASS; Scotland's Rural College, Inverness, Scotland) from eight locations (green circles, Figure 1)
159 between 2012 and 2016. Sperm whale, harbour seal and harbour porpoise were selected due to
160 their differing diets and metabolic capabilities (Boon et al., 1997). A cross sectional strip of blubber
161 was removed from the cranial insertion of the dorsal fin to the ventral midline following
162 internationally standardised protocols (Kuiken and Garcia-Hartmann., 1991). Blubber and skin were
163 separated, and then blubber stored at -20°C prior to FA and SI analysis. Individuals were obtained
164 from different regions and varied in age and decomposition state (Table S2).

165 *Calanus finmarchicus/helgolandicus* and *Pseudocalanus minutus-elongatus* (zooplankton) were
166 collected from Stonehaven (Figure 1) in 2018 using the MRV *Temora*. A 1 m ring net, with a 350 µm
167 mesh and a non-filtering cod end was used to minimise damage to the animals which were stored in
168 15 L, plastic buckets out of wind and sunlight until arrival at the laboratory. The target herbivorous
169 species were isolated using a Zeiss Stemi-11 stereomicroscope and stored at -20°C prior to FA and SI
170 analysis.

171

172 **2.2. Lipid Extraction, Trans-esterification and Instrumental Analysis**

173 Lipid extraction and trans-esterification was carried out as reported in Webster et al (2014). Further
174 analytical details are provided in the supplementary information.

175 FAME extracts were diluted and vialled prior to analysis by gas chromatography-flame ionisation
176 detection (GC-FID) and gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) to give an approximate
177 FAME concentration of 1 mg/mL. Further analytical details are provided in the Supplementary
178 Information.

179 GC-FID analysis was carried out as reported in Stowasser et al (2009). Further details are provided in
180 the Supplementary Information.

181 GC-MS was used to analyse five fatty alcohol/fatty acid (FAI/FA) co-eluting peaks: FAI14:0/FA15:0,
182 FAI16:0/FA17:0, FAI18:0/FA18:3(n-3), FAI20:0/FA20:4(n-6), and FAI20:1(n-9)/FA20:3(n-3) to
183 establish whether the FAI or FA was present/dominating the peak observed in the FID
184 chromatogram. Samples with a significantly higher coeluting FA normalised area % for the above
185 peaks were identified and analysed using GC-MS. If the peak was identified as FAI, the normalised
186 area % was eliminated from the GC-FID profile. If the FAI and FA were both present, the ratio of the
187 peak area was determined and applied to the corresponding peak area from GC-FID and data re-
188 normalised.

189

190 Laboratory reference materials (LRMs) and procedural blanks were esterified and analysed with
191 each batch of samples as part of the internal quality control process for all determinants. Full details
192 of quality control procedures are provided in the Supplementary Information.

193

194 **2.3. Stable Isotope Analysis**

195 Analysis of the SI ratios $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ was carried out using the method described in Mayor et al
 196 (2013) utilising an Integra CN Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (Sercon Ltd, Crewe, UK). Full
 197 analytical details are provided in the Supplementary Information.

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202 **2.4. Trophic Level Determination**

203 **2.4.1. Fatty Acid Trophic Markers (FATMs)**

204 The trophic marker ratio 20:5(n-3)/22:6(n-3) can be used as an indication of the degree of carnivory
 205 (Dalsgaard et al., 2003; El-Sabaawi and Dower, 2009). The lower the 20:5(n-3)/22:6(n-3) ratio, the
 206 higher the indicative trophic level. The ratios of 18:1(n-7)/18:1(n-9) and 16:1(n-7)/16:0 can also be
 207 used as indicators of a more carnivorous diet. The lower the 18:1(n-7)/18:1(n-9) (<0.6) and 16:1(n-
 208 7)/16:0 ratios, the higher the trophic level (Stübing and Hagen, 2003).

209 **2.4.2. Stable Isotope Ratios**

210 Isotope ratios ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) were determined for the dried and de-lipified tissue of the various
 211 samples (Table 1 and Table 3). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is significantly more depleted in lipid relative to carbohydrates
 212 and proteins (Logan and Miller, 2009). Therefore, tissue with a higher lipid content such as liver,
 213 brown meat and blubber will not have SI ratios truly representative of diet and feeding patterns.
 214 De-lipified tissue or mathematical corrections are therefore used for SI analysis as it reduces the
 215 variation associated with lipid content (Clark, Horstmann and Misarti, 2019).

216 The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ from the baseline species (in this study, King Scallop) was used with the value for the test
 217 organism to give the trophic level (Equation 1; MIME, 2016). This method is currently
 218 recommended by OSPAR for the trophic adjustment of contaminant monitoring data (OSPAR
 219 Commission, 2016).

$$220 \text{ Trophic Level} = (\delta^{15}\text{N}(\text{species}) - \delta^{15}\text{N}(\text{baseline})) / 3.4 + \text{TL}_{\text{baseline}} \quad \text{(Equation 1)}$$

221 $\delta^{15}\text{N}(\text{species})$ is the measured nitrogen isotope ratio of the sample species; $\delta^{15}\text{N}(\text{baseline})$ is the
 222 measured nitrogen isotope ratio of the baseline species. The mean enrichment per trophic level of
 223 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ is 3.4‰ and $\text{TL}_{\text{baseline}}$ is the trophic level of the baseline species. King scallop (*Pecten maximus*)
 224 was used as the baseline species as they are likely to be part of the same food web as the other
 225 samples (Figure 1). King scallops are assumed to be herbivorous/detritivorous and consequently
 226 feeding at trophic level 2 which is assigned as the baseline value (Pinnegar et al., 2002).

227

228 2.5. Data Analysis

229 FAs profiles within class categories (Table 2) were investigated with principal component analysis
230 (PCA) in the R statistical environment (R version 3.1.2) and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) at the 95%
231 confidence level, with Tukey's pair-wise comparisons. Once factors influencing the FA profile were
232 identified, sub-categories were made within each class for analysis to minimise within-group
233 variation. ANOVA at the 95% confidence level, with Tukey's pair-wise comparisons was used to
234 establish significant differences in enrichment of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ between species and categories and
235 Pearson's correlation was used to measure the linear correlation between $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ with
236 potential influencing variables such as age, length and weight.

237

238 3. Results and Discussion

239 3.1. Fatty Acid Profiles

240 Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to study the inter- and intra-class variability of FA
241 profiles and to identify the FAs responsible for any differentiation. PCA was applied to the pooled
242 samples (fish, shark, invertebrates, zooplankton) and individuals (marine mammals). Due to the
243 large number of species present in the study, the taxonomic rank of class was initially selected for
244 grouping species to allow easier visualisation (Table 2). A clear dispersion of the samples was
245 achieved based on their taxonomic class (Figure 2b). There were differences in FA profiles between
246 classes and observable variation within classes. This dispersion suggested that a more specific
247 classification system was required to account for factors other than class likely to be influencing the
248 FA profile to reduce the FA variation.

249 The analysis of each class revealed that the FA profile was found to vary with tissue type and water
250 column feeding zone (benthic/demersal/pelagic feeding). Previous studies have found lipid class
251 and FA profiles to be tissue-specific due to the underlying physiological differences between tissue
252 types (Meyer et al., 2017; Aras et al., 2003).

253 As well as tissue type, species within each class were influenced by the water column zone
254 inhabited by organisms as feeding patterns vary between zones (benthic/demersal/pelagic). The
255 finalised categories and category mean normalised area % of each of the 31 FAMES, accounting for
256 tissue type and water column zone, are shown in Table S2. Classification was adapted to
257 incorporate these influencing factors.

258

259 3.1.1. Marine Mammals (mammalia)

260 Mammalia were more negatively correlated to the first principal component when samples were
261 grouped on the basis of class alone (Figure 2b) due to a higher proportion of monounsaturated FAs
262 (MUFAs) such as 16:1(n-7), 22:1(n-11), 18:1(n-9) and 14:1(n-5) and medium chain length PUFAs
263 such as 18:2(n-6). PCA was applied to the marine mammal samples on a species basis to study the
264 differences between the FA profiles of the three species (Figure 3a and b). Although sample
265 numbers are smaller in comparison to harbour porpoise and harbour seal, sperm whale possess the
266 least variable FA profile in this dataset (Figure 3b) and were separated from the other marine
267 mammals. Separation is due to the significantly higher proportion ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey) of
268 18:1(n-9) and lower proportion of 22:6(n-3) in comparison to harbour seal and harbour porpoise
269 blubber. Sperm whales are long lived odontoceti predators, inhabiting mesopelagic ecosystems and
270 have a variable diet dependent on geographical region, sex and age (Best, 1999). In some oceanic
271 areas, they feed primarily on bathypelagic and mesopelagic cephalopods (Ruiz-Cooley, 2004).
272 Previous studies on the lipid composition of sperm whales (male and female) collected from the
273 Azores, found the main FA profile contributors in blubber to be 18:1(n-9), 16:1(n-7) and 16:0
274 (Walton et al., 2008), which correlates with the data from this study; these three FAs account for
275 over 60% of the FAs present.

276 The three marine mammal species contained a significantly higher proportion of the FA marker
277 18:1(n-9) compared to other organisms ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey). The peak assigned as 18:1(n-9)
278 might include a small amount of 18:1(n-11), as these two isomers could not be separated. This
279 marker is reported to be an indicator of a carnivorous diet (Nelson et al., 2001) and the larger the
280 accumulation, the more carnivorous the organism.

281 Harbour seal and harbour porpoise are widely dispersed on PC1 (Figure 3b) but are generally
282 separated by species across PC1 and PC2 (Figure 3b). The degree of variation of 18:1(n-9), 16:0 and
283 24:1(n-9) was largest in harbour seals, each possessing a standard deviation (SD) of >5 , suggesting
284 that harbour seal diet is highly variable, although sampling location did not influence FA profiles.
285 Harbour porpoise are more negatively correlated to PC2 (Figure 3b) than the other mammalia
286 species. This is due to the higher proportion of MUFAs 16:1(n-7) and 14:1(n-5) and the dienoic acid
287 18:2(n-6), ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey), in their blubber, supporting findings from other studies on
288 harbour porpoise around Scotland where 16:1(n-7) and 18:1(n-9) were the most predominant FAs
289 (Learmonth., 2003). 16:1(n-7) is a diatom biomarker (Linder et al., 2010) indicating harbour porpoise
290 were likely feeding on pelagic fish or other planktonic feeding prey. There was significant variation

291 (SD >3) present for the FAs 14:0, 16:1(n-7) and 22:6(n-3). Potential influencing factors such as
292 sampling, year and age (all listed on Table S2) were investigated but were not found to influence
293 the data ($p>0.05$).

294 3.1.2. Fish (actinopterygii) and Catshark (chondrichthyes)

295 The actinopterygii class was separated into eight sub-categories: demersal roundfish muscle,
296 demersal roundfish liver, demersal roundfish whole (length < 120 mm), pelagic roundfish muscle,
297 pelagic roundfish liver, pelagic roundfish whole, flatfish muscle and flatfish liver. PCA (Figure 4a and
298 b) showed that the demersal roundfish muscle, flatfish muscle, pelagic roundfish liver and demersal
299 shark muscle were more negatively correlated to PC2 than other categories due to a higher
300 proportion of 22:6(n-3), 16:0 and 22:5(n-6). These categories possessed a significantly higher
301 proportion of 22:6(n-3) ($p<0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey) in comparison to the other categories. 22:6(n-3) is
302 a common dominant FA in marine species required for growth and development, particularly to
303 maintain the functional and structural integrity of cell membranes, (Scott et al., 2002). 22:6(n-3) is
304 therefore higher in demersal fish muscle than liver due to the larger proportion of structural lipids.
305 22:6(n-3) is also characteristically higher in fish associated with the pelagic environment due to the
306 predominant feeding on planktivorous prey (Cury et al., 2000).. Pelagic fish are likely to contain
307 greater proportions of PUFAs associated to structural lipids, in their liver and MUFAs, associated to
308 storage lipid, in their muscle tissue relative to the demersal species (Linder et al., 2010). Demersal
309 fish liver and pelagic muscle samples are positively correlated with PC2 (Figure 4b) due to a lower
310 proportion of 22:6(n-3), which again is consistent with their physiology (Njinkouéa et al., 2008).

311 Flatfish liver contained the highest degree of variation of the MUFAs 16:1(n-7) and 18:1(n-9) (SD >4)
312 and PUFA 22:6(n-3) (SD >9) in comparison to the other categories (Table S2). When flatfish liver was
313 investigated, dab had significantly higher average proportions of 18:1(n-9) (26.39 ± 2.22 %; $n=3$)
314 than plaice 18:1(n-9) (11.72 ± 5.30 %; $n=9$) ($p<0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey). 22:6(n-3) was significantly
315 higher in plaice liver than dab liver ($p<0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey) as observed in the PCA score plot
316 (Figure 4b). Sampling location (Table 1), average length (ranging from 198-350 mm), average weight
317 (ranging from 82.60-508.0 g) and average age (ranging from 3.4–10.0 years) did not significantly
318 influence the plaice FA data ($p>0.05$), suggesting the within species variation for 22:6(n-3) is purely
319 due to dietary differences. Flatfish are benthic organisms, feeding on a variety of zoobenthos
320 including small crustaceans, bivalves, sand eels and polychaetes (Picton and Morrow, 2005).
321 Although it has been reported that plaice and dab possess a similar diet of polychaetes and
322 amphipods, the FA profiles in this study suggest there can be sufficient differences in their diets
323 leading to a clear distinction in their tissue FA profiles (Gibson et al., 2015).

324 The FAs 22:1(n-11) and 22:6(n-3) within demersal roundfish liver showed the largest variation and
325 were influenced by the contributing species. Whiting liver has a significantly higher proportion of
326 22:1(n-11) and 22:6(n-3) compared to haddock liver and hake liver ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey),
327 suggesting dietary differences between the species. This is consistent with the pattern variation
328 observed using PCA (Figure 4b, PC1 = -5 to +5).

329 Pelagic roundfish muscle and liver (herring) is negatively correlated with PC1 (Figure 4b) due to a
330 higher proportion of MUFAs such as 20:1(n-9), 22:1(n-11) and 18:1(n-9). Monoenoic FAs are major
331 characteristic components of pelagic fish tissue, whose lipids originate from their planktonic prey.
332 20:1(n-9), 22:1(n-11) and n-3 FAs are recognised copepod markers and higher proportions can be
333 indicative of a copepod (zooplankton) enriched diet (Hiltunen, 2016). The dominant FA in pelagic
334 roundfish whole (sprat) was 18:1(n-9), consistent with previous studies in the Baltic Sea (Keinänen
335 et al., 2017).

336
337 3.1.3. Benthic (malacostraca, bivalvia, asteroidea, ophiuroidea, polychaeta, gastropoda) and
338 Demersal (cephalopoda) Invertebrates

339 PCA was applied to the benthic and demersal invertebrates FA data (Figure 5a and b) showing
340 considerable variation for the benthic invertebrates whole, muscle and soft body FA profiles (Figure
341 5b). The majority of benthic invertebrates whole (starfish and brittle star) are grouped together due
342 to a higher proportion of saturated FAs (SFAs) including 14:0 and 18:0, MUFAs such as 20:1(n-9) and
343 the PUFAs 20:4(n-6), 16:4(n-3) and 20:5(n-3) relative to demersal invertebrates. This corresponds
344 with other studies where echinoderms contain a unique FA composition, characterized by
345 proportionately higher 20:4(n-6) (Copeman and Parrish, 2003). 20:4(n-6) is indicative of benthic
346 feeding and is a lipid required to induce maturation in starfish oocytes (Russell and Nichols, 1999;
347 Meijer et al., 1984). The variation in the proportion of 20:1(n-9) in the benthic invertebrates whole
348 samples is due to the higher percentage in common starfish (asteroidea) (12.91 ± 3.99 %; $n=9$)
349 compared to the other contributing species - brittle star (ophiuroidea) (2.67 %) and sea mouse
350 (polychaeta) (0.16 %). Sargent et al (1983) reported that common starfish can synthesise their own
351 *de novo* 20:1 moieties (including 20:1(n-9)) which is required for bodily functions. Starfish and
352 brittle star are more likely to feed upon molluscs and detritus than copepods. Brittle stars are
353 significantly more enriched in 14:0 (12.86 %; $n=1$) than the other contributing species of whole
354 benthic invertebrates ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey). Previous studies have found saturated FAs such as
355 14:0 are ubiquitous among microalgae and are characteristic of calanoid species, suggesting brittle
356 star are less carnivorous than the other benthic invertebrates in this study (Kopprio et al., 2015).

357 A single sea mouse sample is separated from the others in the category and is grouped with the
358 benthic invertebrates muscle category. It is positively correlated to PC1 due to a lower proportion
359 of the characteristic echinoderm markers of 20:1(n-9) and 20:4(n-6). Two common starfish sample
360 pools are more negatively correlated to PC1 than the other common starfish pools. Starfish were
361 collected from the Moray Firth, Solway and from 3 sites in the Clyde (Hunterston, Pladda and Holy
362 Loch; Table 1). The two sample pools more negatively correlated to PC1 (Figure 5b) were collected
363 from Pladda (lower Clyde) and had a higher normalised area % of the copepod marker 20:1(n-9)
364 than the other starfish samples. This suggests that starfish in Pladda were consuming a higher
365 proportion of planktivorous feeding organisms compared to those in other sites, including those in
366 the upper Clyde (Hunterston and Holy Loch) and the North East which possessed a different FA
367 profile. Further influences such as average pool length (ranging from 161.7 – 396.0 mm) and
368 average pool weight (ranging from 35.0 – 298.0 g) were investigated and were not found to
369 influence the data ($p>0.05$).

370 Demersal invertebrates (cephalopoda/squid; n=2) are positively correlated to PC1 and negatively
371 correlated to PC2 (Figure 5b) due to the higher proportion of 22:6(n-3) and 16:0. 22:6(n-3) and 16:0
372 are the most characteristic FAs for squid (Phillips, Nichols and Jackson, 2002) due to the much
373 higher concentrations required for their rapid growth. For example, squid paralarvae require a high
374 quantity of 22:6(n-3) during their rapid development (Navarro and Villanueva, 2000). Squid was
375 found to have a significantly higher mean normalised area % (38.28 ± 0.16 %) of 22:6(n-3), than in
376 the other invertebrate categories ($p<0.005$ ANOVA, Tukey).

377 Benthic invertebrates soft body sample pools gave rise to the most dispersed category (Figure 5b)
378 and are spread across PC2 between -2 and +6. Whelk (gastropoda; n=7) contain very little variation
379 in the species FA profile and are more positively correlated to PC2 than the other samples in the
380 group. They have a higher proportion of the SFA 18:0 and PUFAs such as 20:2(n-6), 20:4(n-6) and
381 22:5(n-3). Gastropods (including whelk) are the most carnivorous in the category and are reported
382 to feed on other benthic molluscs, worms and crustaceans (Chase, 2002). The second group,
383 composed of horse mussel (n=2), swimming crabs (n=6) and shore crabs (n=2) is more negatively
384 correlated to PC2 and is widely dispersed, suggesting a range of feeding patterns.

385

386 3.1.4. Zooplankton (Hexanauplia)

387 Hexanauplia (zooplankton; n=5) contain significant quantities of odd chain length SFAs such as 15:0
388 and 17:0 and the PUFAs 20:5(n-3) and 18:4(n-3). 20:5(n-3) and 18:4(n-3) are reported to be diatom
389 and dinoflagellate phytoplankton markers, accumulating in the zooplankton primary consumer diet

390 (Linder et al., 2010). Hexanauplia are positioned in-between the benthic invertebrates (asteroidea
391 and malacostraca) and the more carnivorous actinopterygii category (Figure 2b), suggesting they
392 possess a similar feeding behaviour to these groups and have a more carnivorous feeding pattern
393 due to higher proportions of 18:1(n-9) and 22:6(n-3) (Table S2). *Pseudocalanus minutus* and *Calanus*
394 *finmarchicus* are reported to perform diurnal vertical migrations, remaining in deeper water during
395 the day and moving towards the surface at night to feed (Dale and Kaartvedt, 2000). There are
396 variations of this behaviour at species, individual and population level. The water column depth and
397 presence of predators might affect this behaviour and it has been found that predominantly
398 herbivorous species are often detritivores (similar to the diet of echinoderms) when present in the
399 benthopelagic environment (Mauchline et al., 1998). They have been found to feed on a range of
400 decomposing plants and animals which would classify the species as more carnivorous than a
401 secondary consumer.

402

403 **3.2 Fatty Acid Trophic Markers (FATMs)**

404 FATM analysis is based on the observation that the FA profiles of primary producers can be passed
405 up the food chain and retained at different trophic levels. Although modification of the profile
406 occurs due to processes such as metabolism, certain FAs and FA ratios can be used as biomarkers
407 for species with differing diets (Dalsgaard et al., 2003).

408 FATMs 20:5(n-3)/22:6(n-3) and 18:1(n-7)/18:1(n-9) were significantly higher in benthic
409 invertebrate whole samples indicating organisms in this category are at a lower trophic level than
410 the other categories (Table 3) ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey). This does not agree with other studies as
411 zooplankton is a primary consumer and therefore at a higher trophic level than invertebrates
412 (Schulz and Yurista, 1999). The FATM 16:1(n-7)/16:0 was significantly higher in harbour porpoise
413 blubber and sperm whale blubber ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey) due to the characteristically higher
414 proportion of diatom biomarker 16:1(n-7) in their profiles from their diet of pelagic fish or other
415 planktonic prey. Although 16:1(n-7)/16:0 clearly indicates a diatom-based diet for this food chain, it
416 is not appropriate as an indicator of trophic level due to the specific prey dietary characteristics.

417

418 **3.3. Stable Isotopes Ratios**

419 Sample pools (fish, shark, invertebrates and zooplankton) and individuals (marine mammals) were
420 segregated on the basis of their SI enrichment ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey). Isotopic enrichment varies
421 among tissue types (Lorrain et al., 2002) with the liver providing information on short-term diet due

422 to a faster metabolic turnover rate while muscle can provide information on the longer-term diet
423 (Stowasser et al., 2009). Contaminant accumulation differs between tissue types (with differing lipid
424 content) and the difference in dietary information can be used to study exposure (Webster et al.,
425 2014).

426 Using the sub-categories established by FA analysis, significant differences in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ between
427 groups of sample pools (fish, shark, invertebrates and zooplankton) and individuals (marine
428 mammals) were observed (Table 3 and Figure 6). At a species level, the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ranged from a mean of
429 $5.62 \pm 0.38 \text{ ‰}$ (n=5 pools) in zooplankton to $17.69 \pm 1.19 \text{ ‰}$ (n=10 individuals) in harbour seal
430 blubber. Mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values across the 19 designated categories ranged from $-19.37 \pm 0.02 \text{ ‰}$ in
431 demersal invertebrates muscle pools to $-14.48 \pm 2.99 \text{ ‰}$ in benthic invertebrates whole pools
432 (Table 3).

433 3.3.1. Marine Mammals

434 The mean and range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in harbour seal ($-16.36 \pm 2.02 \text{ ‰}$) and harbour porpoise (-16.48 ± 1.05
435 ‰) compared to sperm whale ($-14.60 \pm 0.46 \text{ ‰}$) (Table 3) suggests a more variable dietary pattern
436 and/or feeding location in the former two species than the latter. This agrees with the FA profile
437 data where harbour seal and harbour porpoise were highly dispersed on Figure 3b due to significant
438 variation of FAs such as 18:1(n-9), 16:1(n-7) and 22:6(n-3). Although harbour seal sample numbers
439 are low, variables such as geographic location of stranding, year, age, length and girth (Table S1)
440 had no significant influence on the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey). It can be concluded that the
441 harbour seals in this study have a significantly variable $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ purely due to a diverse diet.

442 Through analysis of harbour seal scat, Wilson and Hammond (2016) found that sand eel was an
443 important component in their diet in Shetland, Orkney, Moray Firth and South East Scotland.
444 Although sand eel populations were facing a rapid decline, they made up to 70% of the diet across
445 all seasons. Sand eel is a planktivorous primary consumer with a low enrichment of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Sarà et al.,
446 2010). The within species variation of harbour seal $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in this study ($-16.36 \pm 2.02 \text{ ‰}$) suggests
447 sand eel was not making up a majority of their diet. Seals enriched in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ could potentially be
448 feeding directly on $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ rich organisms such as echinoderms (common starfish and brittle star)
449 which have been found to contain a significantly higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ than the other categories (benthic
450 invertebrates whole, Table 3). Harbour seals have been reported to consume a mixture of benthic
451 invertebrates (Perrin et al., 2009).

452 Sperm whale blubber had a significantly less enriched $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ($13.36 \pm 0.53 \text{ ‰}$) and significantly more
453 enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ($-14.60 \pm 0.46 \text{ ‰}$) compared to harbour seal and harbour porpoise ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA,

454 Tukey). Sperm whale blubber shows the least variation in SI ratios (SD <1 of the mammal species
455 studied, suggesting little variation in the species feeding pattern, which is in agreement with the
456 sperm whale FA data. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ enrichment observed for cephalopods ($13.75 \pm 0.18 \text{ ‰}$) in this
457 study (demersal invertebrates muscle) was not significantly different when compared with the
458 sperm whale, but squid sample numbers were too low to state a predator-prey relationship and
459 perform a geographical comparison (Burra Haaf (Atlantic Ocean) n=1, Moray Firth (North Sea) n=1).
460 The sperm whale samples in this study were all male and SI ratio data from other studies in the
461 Pacific based on stomach content analysis found that adult males fed more frequently on fish and
462 dogfish where adult females fed on giant squid (Flinn et al., 2002). The significantly higher
463 enrichment of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in relation to the other marine mammals and other species has been reported in
464 the North East Atlantic in other tissues such as teeth (Borrell et al., 2013) and skin (Ruiz-Cooley,
465 Engelhaupt and Ortega-Ortiz, 2011). Other studies in the Pacific have found that sperm whales
466 (male and female) have a higher fish intake than squid in waters of high latitudes than those of low
467 latitudes (Rice, 1989) which would increase the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ratios.

468 3.3.2 Fish and Catshark

469 The pelagic fish in this study included sprat (n=3) and herring (n=2) recognised as prey species for
470 higher trophic level demersal fish such as cod (Köster et al., 2001). As strict consumers of plankton,
471 Sprat and herring compete for similar dietary resources (Casini et al., 2004). There is a difference in
472 diet between young herring and adult fish, young fish feeding on phytoplankton and adults feeding
473 primarily on holoplanktonic crustaceans (zooplankton). Pelagic roundfish whole (sprat) were found
474 to be more enriched in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ than pelagic roundfish (herring liver and muscle) and flatfish (dab liver
475 and muscle and plaice liver and muscle), suggesting a species/tissue influence on SI ratios.

476 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ was significantly lower in flatfish liver ($-19.01 \pm 0.78 \text{ ‰}$; n=12) than pelagic roundfish
477 whole ($-18.45 \pm 0.38 \text{ ‰}$; n=3), pelagic roundfish muscle ($-18.03 \pm 0.17 \text{ ‰}$; n=2), flatfish muscle ($-$
478 $18.03 \pm 0.40 \text{ ‰}$; n=12) and pelagic roundfish liver ($-17.65 \pm 0.28 \text{ ‰}$; n=2) ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey),
479 suggesting both a tissue and dietary influence. Analysis of different tissues has the advantage of
480 revealing the time scale of feeding patterns, where the slower turnover rate of SI ratios in muscle
481 provides a long-term dietary indicator compared to liver (Hesslein et al., 1993). The difference
482 between $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in flatfish muscle and liver suggests a relatively recent change to the diet of the
483 flatfish in this study. Average pool age (ranging from 3.4-10.0 years), length (198.0-350.0 mm) and
484 weight (82.6-410.0 kg) were not significantly correlated ($p > 0.05$) with $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ or $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in flatfish.
485 Although sample size was limited from each location, when contributing species were analysed,
486 plaice liver and muscle from Burra Haaf (n=4) were significantly less enriched in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (liver: $11.09 \pm$

487 0.39 ‰ (n=4); muscle: 11.93 ± 0.53 ‰ (n=4)) in comparison to those from the Moray Firth (liver:
488 13.13 ± 0.46 ‰ (n=3), muscle: 13.80 ± 0.45 ‰ (n=3)) and Solway (liver: 13.32 ± 0.36 ‰ (n=2);
489 muscle: 14.98 ± 0.22 ‰ (n=2)). This suggests plaice habituating in Burra Haaf have a less
490 carnivorous diet than those from the Moray Firth and Solway. When FATMs were investigated at a
491 species level only 20:5(n-3)/ 22:6(n-3) had a significant difference within plaice. Plaice muscle had a
492 significantly lower ratio in Burra Haaf (0.79 ± 0.18 ; n=4) and Moray Firth (0.91 ± 0.09 ; n=3) in
493 comparison to Solway (1.44 ± 0.25 ; n=2) ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey). Plaice liver had a significantly
494 lower 20:5(n-3)/ 22:6(n-3) for plaice in Burra Haaf (0.42 ± 0.15 ; n=4) than in Moray Firth ($0.67 \pm$
495 0.03 ; n=3) and Solway (0.80 ± 0.10 ; n=2) ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey). The FATM 20:5(n-3)/ 22:6(n-3)
496 indicates that plaice had a more carnivorous diet in Burra Haaf, supporting the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ data. There
497 were insufficient sample numbers of dab to carry out a comprehensive regional analysis (n=3 from
498 the same location).

499 Demersal shark and demersal roundfish sample pools were found to be significantly more enriched
500 in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey) than flatfish and pelagic roundfish (combined overall
501 matrices demonstrated in Figure 6). The small spotted catshark is reported as a mid-trophic level
502 predator (Caut et al., 2013) and is the most abundant shark species in the North Atlantic (Kousteni
503 et al., 2014). In the Mediterranean and East Atlantic, catshark was found to feed on demersal fish
504 and benthic crustaceans with diet appearing to vary spatially and ontogenetically (Barría, Navarro
505 and Coll., 2017). Forty-four catsharks (resulting in 12 sample pools; Table 1) were collected from
506 four locations from west Scotland: Solway and the Clyde (Pladda, Hunterston and Holy Loch; Figure
507 1). Sampling location was not found to influence the SI ratios. Average weight was found to
508 significantly influence the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in catshark muscle, ($p < 0.05$) where the heavier the catshark pool,
509 the more enriched the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, indicating that larger catshark are feeding higher up the food chain
510 than smaller catshark. Average pool length, another indicator of age, was found to significantly
511 influence the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in catshark liver ($p < 0.05$): the smaller the catshark, the less enriched the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$;
512 suggesting a different diet. When FATMs were investigated within the catshark species, only
513 20:5(n-3)/22:6(n-3) in catshark muscle was significantly influenced by length, where the larger the
514 catshark the lower the ratio ($p < 0.005$), supporting the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data showing larger catshark
515 larger are more carnivorous. Catshark liver sample pools taken in 2016 from Solway and Pladda
516 were significantly less enriched in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (-18.16 ± 0.47 ‰; n=4) than those collected in 2015 from
517 Holy Loch, Solway and Hunterston (-17.35 ± 0.23 ‰; n=6) and 2017 from Holy Loch and Pladda ($-$
518 16.86 ± 0.04 ‰; n=2) ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey). Collection year also influenced the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in muscle
519 tissue where catshark muscle sample pools collected in 2016 were significantly less enriched in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
520 (15.05 ‰ ± 0.52 ‰; n=4 pools) than those collected in 2015 (16.67 ‰ ± 0.43 ; n=6 pools) and 2017

521 (16.64 ± 0.54 ‰; n=2 pools) (p<0.001 ANOVA, Tukey). This suggests that the small spotted catshark
522 collected in the 2016 sampling exercises were feeding more on lower trophic level benthic
523 invertebrates with differing primary carbon sources in comparison to those collected during 2015
524 and 2017. None of the FATMs supported this data, with no significant differences found in catfish
525 liver between the three years (p>0.05 ANOVA, Tukey).

526 The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ enrichment of demersal roundfish muscle (15.42 ± 1.13 ‰) and liver (14.51 ± 1.15 ‰) in
527 this study was not significantly higher than the demersal shark isotope ratios which suggest that
528 there is unlikely to be any significant predator-prey relationship (p>0.05). This correlates with
529 previous studies on the small spotted catshark where diet was closer to that of mid-level predator
530 rajiformes (skates) than top predator selachiformes (sharks) (Valls et al., 2011). This is supported by
531 all three FATMs where no significant differences were present between demersal fish muscle and
532 liver and demersal shark muscle and liver.

533 For whiting there was a significant influence of age, length and weight on the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ for all tissue
534 types (p<0.05). The higher the average pool age, length and weight of the sample pool the more
535 enriched the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, indicating bigger, older fish feed at a higher trophic level. Unlike the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values,
536 there was no significant FATM variation present within the FA profile of demersal roundfish to
537 indicate species dietary differences. When sampling location was investigated on the overall
538 demersal roundfish category, it was found that species from the North East (Burra Haaf 14.68 ± 1.29
539 ‰; n=6) and Moray Firth (14.22 ± 0.67 ‰; n=4) were significantly less enriched (p<0.001 ANOVA,
540 Tukey) in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in their muscle tissue in comparison to those from the Clyde and West (Holy Loch
541 16.54 ± 0.50 ‰; n=4), Pladda (16.47 ± 0.82 ‰; n=7), Solway (16.32 ± 1.01 ‰; n=4) and further
542 South East (Outer Firth of Forth (15.08 ± 0.12 ‰; n=2) and Montrose Bank (14.98 ± 0.70 ‰; n=3). In
543 demersal roundfish liver, sample pools collected from the Moray Firth (13.07 ± 0.39 ‰; n=4) were
544 significantly less enriched in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ than sample pools collected from the other sampling points
545 (p<0.001 ANOVA, Tukey) suggesting a spatial influence on diet.

546

547 3.3.3. Benthic and Demersal Invertebrates

548 Benthic and demersal invertebrates (muscle, whole and brown meat from crustaceans) gave a
549 range of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (Figure 6). Benthic invertebrate's data was the most variable for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
550 (11.81 ± 1.90 ‰) due to the contributing bivalve species, king scallop (10.0 ± 0.58 ‰; n=10) and
551 horse mussel (10.09 ± 2.94 ‰; n=2). King scallops are long-lived primary consumers situated at
552 trophic level 2 and can grow to 150 mm or more (Ansell et al., 1991). Along with horse mussel, king
553 scallops were found to be significantly less enriched in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ than the other benthic invertebrate

554 species ($p < 0.005$ ANOVA, Tukey). They filter-feed on primary producers including bacteria,
555 phytoplankton and meso-zooplankton and do not reflect short term fluctuations in the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ due to
556 their fast tissue turnover rate (Lehane and Davenport, 2002; Lorrain et al., 2002). The SI ratio results
557 from this study position king scallop as the lowest trophic level benthic invertebrate in the Scottish
558 marine food web. This species was therefore used as the baseline for trophic level calculations.

559 Brittle star was significantly more enriched in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ than the other categories ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA,
560 Tukey), with a value of -6.26‰ , however there was only one pool of brittle star. This is higher than
561 previously reported $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in brittle star from around Britain (Scotland and the English
562 Channel) (McKenzie et al., 2000; Leroux et al., 2012) with values on average ranging from -17.00 to $-$
563 20.00‰ . When the species comprising only one pool were removed from the data set (brittle star,
564 sea mouse, lobster (brown and white meat) and hermit crab), common starfish was found to be
565 significantly more enriched with $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ than the other categories ($p < 0.001$ ANOVA, Tukey). Benthic
566 microalgae and kelp have a higher carbon isotopic ratio than phytoplankton which could be a
567 possible carbon source at the base of the echinoderm food chain (France, 1995). Bioturbation of
568 refractory organic matter (poorly biodegradable leftovers of organisms) in the sediment could also
569 cause an enrichment of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ if consumed by benthic primary consumers (Nadon and Himmelman,
570 2006), (Kang et al., 2015). It can be concluded that the more complex and pelagic the food web, the
571 more degraded material reaches the sea floor. In this study, common starfish had a significantly
572 higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ than other benthic species collected from the offshore Moray Firth, suggesting this
573 species feeds on organisms with a different primary carbon source.

574 When the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ was investigated within the starfish species, sample pools from Pladda (Clyde) had a
575 significantly lower average isotope ratio ($9.48 \pm 0.23\text{‰}$; $n=2$) than starfish from the other sites:
576 Moray Firth ($11.84 \pm 0.84\text{‰}$; $n=3$), Hunterston (12.76‰ $n=1$), Solway (13.91‰ $n=1$) and Holy loch
577 ($14.35 \pm 0.27\text{‰}$ $n=2$). This is supported by the FA analysis where starfish from Pladda were found
578 to have a different diet of planktonic feeding prey in comparison to the other starfish pools
579 collected from other sites.

580

581 3.3.4. Zooplankton

582 Zooplankton possessed a significantly lower $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ($5.62 \pm 0.38\text{‰}$) enrichment in comparison to the
583 other sample categories, positioning *Pseudocalanus minutus* and *Calanus finmarchicus* at the
584 bottom of the food web investigated (Figure 6; note: no phytoplankton were examined in this
585 study). This does not correspond with the FATM data as 20:5($n=3$)/22:6($n=3$) and
586 18:1($n=7$)/18:1($n=9$) positioned benthic invertebrates whole as the lowest trophic level category.

587 Many zooplankton are herbivorous and primarily feed on different forms of phytoplankton,
588 including diatoms and dinoflagellates (Nejstgaard et al., 1997). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of zooplankton was not
589 significantly different from a majority of the benthic invertebrate species, further suggesting that
590 most of the benthic consumers in this study have plankton as their primary carbon source at the
591 base of the food web.

592

593 **3.4. Trophic Level**

594 Trophic level was calculated using Equation 1 described in section 2.5. Based on the trophic level
595 data obtained for each species using the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, a Scottish marine food web diagram was
596 developed. The mean trophic level for each species (combining tissue type for an overall value) was
597 calculated using Equation 1. Trophic level ranges from 1.12 ± 0.11 in zooplankton to 4.66 ± 0.34 in
598 harbour seal (Figure 7). The majority of the species analysed sit between trophic level 3 and 4 with
599 very few significant differences between the categories at these levels. If the “narrowing effect”
600 mentioned in Hussey et al (2014) is incorporated in future trophic adjustment studies, the trophic
601 level of predators would have a lower calculated value.

602 When compared to the trophic level indicated by the FATMs; 20:5(n-3)/22:6(n-3) was the most
603 effective at predicting the trophic level of the lower trophic level organisms. Although not in the
604 trophic level order obtained by SI analysis, benthic invertebrates whole, benthic invertebrates soft
605 body, zooplankton whole and benthic invertebrates muscle were positioned at the bottom of the
606 food web (ratio > 1; Table 3) in agreement with the trophic level obtained using $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. The
607 positioning of higher trophic level organisms by FATM however were incorrect (on the basis of SI
608 data), with demersal shark muscle positioned as the highest trophic level category due to a higher
609 proportion of 22:6(n-3). A higher proportion of 22:6(n-3) is expected in muscle tissue due to the
610 presence of structural lipid. Marine mammals have a lower proportion of 22:6(n-3) due to MUFAs
611 dominating the FA profile (Table S2). The tissue-specific nature of FA profiles has been found to
612 influence trophic level indication. 18:1(n-7)/18:1(n-9) was more effective as an indicator of higher
613 trophic level species, positioning the three marine mammal species and pelagic roundish muscle as
614 the highest trophic level categories (ratio < 0.25; Table 3). This emphasises that care that must be
615 taken when interpreting the FA data.

616

617

618 **4. Conclusions**

619 A combined FA and SI analysis approach has further developed our understanding of trophic level
620 ecology in the Scottish marine food web. FA analysis was able to provide an indication of the
621 feeding patterns of many of the organisms sampled in this study and SI ratio analysis was able to
622 ascribe the trophic levels of twenty-six species collected between 2012-2018 from twenty-one sites
623 around Scotland. These calculated trophic levels are required to calculate TMFs for a range of
624 contaminants and perform a trophic level adjustment to normalise concentrations and allow the
625 comparison of different species in different locations to international environmental impact
626 assessment criteria.

627 211 samples were successfully categorised using FA chemotaxonomy into nineteen categories,
628 accounting for the FA profile influences of tissue type and water column zone. Trophic level was
629 calculated using the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and ranged from 1.47 ± 0.11 in zooplankton to 5.02 ± 0.35 in harbour seal
630 with samples from most species collected positioned between trophic level 3 and 4. Interpretation
631 of the FATMs, relative to the SI data, was complex with 20:5(n-3)/22:6(n-3) differentiating lower
632 trophic level species while and 18:1(n-7)/18:1(n-9) gave a better correlation with the SI data for
633 higher trophic level species.

634 This study has demonstrated the complexity of marine systems where FA profiles and SI ratios of
635 organisms at a single trophic level can have considerable variation due to factors such as species,
636 tissue type, location, sampling year and physiological features such as size and age. It is therefore
637 important not to use generic trophic levels and TMFs at the species level in trophic level adjustment
638 of contaminant concentrations. Trophic levels need to be calculated for each species (in each
639 location at an international scale) using SI analysis and not a theoretical or assigned trophic level
640 value (Fishbase), as that will increase the uncertainty of the assessment.

641
642 In the wider marine food web, trophic level classifications and terminology such as “top predator”
643 must be used with care. Furthermore, trophic level categorisation should use a multi-factorial
644 approach (both FATM and SI) especially when investigating ecological dynamics. When conducting
645 environmental assessments using TMFs, determinants such as species/class will not be consistent
646 across all of the categories due to regional and physiological influences. In order to conduct an
647 effective marine contaminant environmental impact assessment, influencing factors need to be
648 considered to fully understand the complex food chains existing within the marine food web. The
649 trophic level data from this study will permit the calculation of TMFs for a range of contaminants
650 which could be used in environmental status assessments and guide the management of human
651 activities impacting on marine systems.

652

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661

662

663 **6. Declaration of Interest**

664 Declaration of Interest: none

665

666 **7. References**

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Tables

Sampling Location	Species Collected	Number of Individuals Collected	Number of Sample Pools	Tissue Type
Tancred Bank	Shore Crab (<i>Carcinus maenas</i>)	27	2	Soft Body (n=2)
North East Dunbar	Haddock (<i>Melanogrammus aeglefinus</i>)	36	4	Muscle (n=2), Liver (n=2), Whole (n=2)
	Swimming Crab (<i>Liocarcinus depurator</i>)	68	2	Soft Body (n=2)
Montrose Bank	Haddock (<i>Melanogrammus aeglefinus</i>)	5	1	Muscle (n=1), Liver (n=1)
	Whiting (<i>Merlangius merlangus</i>)	10	2	Muscle (n=2), Liver (n=2)
	Edible Crab (<i>Cancer pagurus</i>)	14	1	Muscle (n=1), Brown Meat (n=1)
	Squat Lobster (<i>Munida rugosa</i>)	8	1	Muscle (n=1)
	Swimming Crab (<i>Liocarcinus depurator</i>)	31	1	Soft Body (n=1)
Moray Firth	Haddock (<i>Melanogrammus aeglefinus</i>)	20	4	Muscle (n=4), Liver (n=4)
	Plaice (<i>Pleuronectes platessa</i>)	15	3	Muscle (n=3), Liver (n=3)
	Squid (<i>Loligo forbesii</i>)	5	1	Muscle (n=1)
	Common Starfish (<i>Asterias rubens</i>)	16	3	Whole (n=3)
	<i>Nephrops</i> (<i>Nephrops norvegicus</i>)	28	1	Muscle (n=1)
	Brittle Star (<i>Ophiura ophiura</i>)	96	1	Whole (n=1)
Burra Haaf	Haddock (<i>Melanogrammus aeglefinus</i>)	5	1	Muscle (n=1), Liver (n=1)
	Whiting (<i>Merlangius merlangus</i>)	20	5	Muscle (n=5), Liver (n=5)
	Plaice (<i>Pleuronectes platessa</i>)	17	4	Muscle (n=4), Liver (n=4)
	Dab (<i>Limanda limanda</i>)	15	3	Muscle (n=3), Liver (n=3)
	Squid (<i>Loligo forbesii</i>)	5	1	Muscle (n=1)
	Hermit Crab (<i>Pagurus bernhardus</i>)	10	1	Muscle (n=1)
	<i>Nephrops</i> (<i>Nephrops norvegicus</i>)	53	1	Muscle (n=1)
Holy Loch	Catshark (<i>Scyliorhinus canicula</i>)	8	4	Muscle (n=4), Liver (n=4)

Sampling Location	Species Collected	Number of Individuals Collected	Number of Sample Pools	Tissue Type
	Haddock (<i>Melanogrammus aeglefinus</i>)	10	2	Muscle (n=2), Liver (n=2)
	Hake (<i>Merluccius merluccius</i>)	7	2	Muscle (n=2), Liver (n=2)
	Common Starfish (<i>Asterias rubens</i>)	10	2	Whole (n=2)
	Squat Lobster (<i>Munida rugosa</i>)	44	1	Muscle (n=1)
	<i>Nephrops</i> (<i>Nephrops norvegicus</i>)	73	2	Muscle (n=2)
	Whelk (<i>Buccinum undatum</i>)	12	4	Soft Body (n=4)
	Swimming Crab (<i>Liocarcinus depurator</i>)	64	2	Soft Body (n=2)
	Horse Mussel (<i>Modiolus modiolus</i>)	8	1	Soft Body (n=1)
Hunterston	Catshark (<i>Scyliorhinus canicula</i>)	10	2	Muscle (n=2), Liver (n=2)
	Common Starfish (<i>Asterias rubens</i>)	10	1	Whole (n=1)
	<i>Nephrops</i> (<i>Nephrops norvegicus</i>)	71	2	Muscle (n=2)
	Squat Lobster (<i>Munida rugosa</i>)	31	1	Muscle (n=1)
	Swimming Crab (<i>Liocarcinus depurator</i>)	34	1	Soft Body (n=1)
Pladda	Catshark (<i>Scyliorhinus canicula</i>)	13	3	Muscle (n=3), Liver (n=3)
	Haddock (<i>Melanogrammus aeglefinus</i>)	21	4	Muscle (n=1), Liver (n=1), Whole (n=3)
	Whiting (<i>Merlangius merlangus</i>)	25	6	Muscle (n=6), Liver (n=6)
	Herring (<i>Clupea harengus</i>)	10	2	Muscle (n=2), Liver (n=2)
	Common Starfish (<i>Asterias rubens</i>)	10	2	Whole (n=2)
	Lobster (<i>Homarus gammarus</i>)	4	1	Muscle (n=1), Brown Meat (n=1)
	Horse Mussel (<i>Modiolus modiolus</i>)	6	1	Soft Body (n=1)
	Whelk (<i>Buccinum undatum</i>)	4	1	Soft Body (n=1)
Solway Firth	Catshark (<i>Scyliorhinus canicula</i>)	13	3	Muscle (n=3), Liver (n=3)
	Haddock (<i>Melanogrammus aeglefinus</i>)	8	3	Muscle (n=3), Liver (n=3)
	Whiting (<i>Merlangius merlangus</i>)	15	2	Muscle (n=1), Liver (n=1), Whole (n=1)
	Plaice (<i>Pleuronectes platessa</i>)	8	2	Muscle (n=2), Liver (n=2)

Sampling Location	Species Collected	Number of Individuals Collected	Number of Sample Pools	Tissue Type
	Sprat (<i>Sprattus sprattus</i>)	149	3	Whole (n=3)
	Common Starfish (<i>Asterias rubens</i>)	3	1	Whole (n=1)
	Whelk (<i>Buccinum undatum</i>)	20	2	Soft Body (n=2)
	Edible Crab (<i>Cancer pagurus</i>)	14	1	Muscle (n=1), Brown Meat (n=1)
	Sea Mouse (<i>Aphrodita aculeata</i>)	33	1	Whole (n=1)

Table 1: Sample pools collected from each of the five environmental monitoring survey cruises from nine areas around Scotland. n = number of tissue specific sample pools associated to that particular species and sampling point. The specific locations are identified in Figure 1.

Class	Contributing Species						
Mammalia	Harbour Porpoise	Sperm Whale	Harbour Seal				
Chondrichthyes	Catshark						
Actinopterygii	Whiting	Haddock	Hake	Plaice	Dab	Herring	Sprat
Cephalopoda	Squid						
Malacostraca	Edible Crab	Lobster	Squat Lobster	Swimming Crab	Shore Crab	Hermit Crab	<i>Nephrops</i>
Asteroidea	Common Starfish						
Gastropoda	Whelk						
Ophiuroidea	Brittle Star						
Bivalvia	Horse Mussel	King Scallop					
Polychaeta	Sea Mouse						
Hexanauplia	<i>Calanus</i>	<i>Pseudocalanus</i>					

Table 2: The eleven sample classes their associated species.

Category	Species	Number of Samples	16:1(n-7)/16:0	18:1(n-7)/18:1(n-9)	20:5(n-3)/22:6(n-3)	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)
Harbour Seal Blubber	Harbour seal (n=10)	10	1.46 ± 0.67	0.23 ± 0.05	0.43 ± 0.12	17.69 ± 1.19	-16.36 ± 2.02
Harbour Porpoise Blubber	Harbour porpoise (n=18)	18	2.41 ± 0.78	0.13 ± 0.10	0.43 ± 0.15	16.62 ± 1.22	-16.48 ± 1.05
Sperm Whale Blubber	Sperm whale (n=5)	5	2.36 ± 0.69	0.10 ± 0.02	0.56 ± 0.30	13.36 ± 0.53	-14.60 ± 0.46
Pelagic Roundfish Whole	Sprat (n=3)	3	0.38 ± 0.02	0.44 ± 0.04	0.58 ± 0.09	14.26 ± 0.23	-18.45 ± 0.38
Pelagic Roundfish Muscle	Herring (n=2)	2	0.23 ± 0.04	0.19 ± 0.02	0.50 ± 0.08	13.37 ± 0.01	-18.03 ± 0.19
Pelagic Roundfish Liver	Herring (n=2)	2	0.10 ± 0.01	0.55 ± 0.06	0.38 ± 0.01	11.60 ± 0.00	-17.65 ± 0.28
Demersal Shark Muscle	Catshark (n=12)	12	0.23 ± 0.05	0.53 ± 0.11	0.32 ± 0.09	16.12 ± 0.86	-17.13 ± 0.57
Demersal Shark Liver	Catshark (n=12)	12	0.45 ± 0.08	0.55 ± 0.11	0.43 ± 0.07	15.26 ± 0.58	-17.53 ± 0.55
Demersal Roundfish Whole	Whiting (n=1), Haddock (n=5)	6	0.24 ± 0.07	0.53 ± 0.13	0.66 ± 0.23	15.65 ± 0.37	-17.58 ± 0.31
Demersal Roundfish Muscle	Whiting (n=14), Hake (n=2), Haddock (n=14)	30	0.23 ± 0.08	0.46 ± 0.17	0.55 ± 0.24	15.42 ± 1.13	-17.75 ± 0.57
Demersal Roundfish Liver	Whiting (n=14), Hake (n=2), Haddock (n=14)	30	0.40 ± 0.13	0.42 ± 0.15	0.80 ± 0.31	14.51 ± 1.15	-18.45 ± 0.65
Flatfish Muscle	Plaice (n=9), Dab (n=3)	12	0.30 ± 0.07	0.54 ± 0.13	0.90 ± 0.29	12.98 ± 1.21	-18.03 ± 0.40
Flatfish Liver	Plaice (n=9), Dab (n=3)	12	0.55 ± 0.18	0.52 ± 0.22	0.63 ± 0.18	12.03 ± 1.06	-19.01 ± 0.78
Demersal Invertebrates Muscle	Squid (n=2)	2	0.13 ± 0.01	0.54 ± 0.02	0.34 ± 0.01	13.75 ± 0.18	-19.37 ± 0.02
Benthic Invertebrates Whole	Common starfish (n=9), Brittle star (n=1), Sea mouse (n=1)	11	0.30 ± 0.13	4.48 ± 2.71	2.79 ± 1.93	12.22 ± 1.71	-14.48 ± 2.99
Benthic Invertebrates Muscle	Edible crab (n=2), Lobster (n=1), Squat lobster (n=3), Hermit crab (n=1),	13	0.44 ± 0.15	0.66 ± 0.59	1.34 ± 0.38	13.13 ± 1.01	-17.48 ± 0.49

Benthic Invertebrates Brown Meat	<i>Nephrops</i> (n=6) Edible crab (n=2), Lobster (n=1)	3	0.87 ± 0.30	0.63 ± 0.10	0.79 ± 0.03	11.63 ± 0.19	-18.93 ± 0.75
Benthic Invertebrates Soft Body	Swimming crab (n=6), Horse mussel (n=2), King Scallop (n=10), Whelk (n=7), Shore crab (n=2)	23	0.33 ± 0.16	1.12 ± 0.75	1.80 ± 0.61	11.66 ± 1.84	-17.68 ± 0.74
Zooplankton Whole	<i>Calanus</i> and <i>Pseudocalanus</i>	5	0.46 ± 0.03	0.42 ± 0.09	1.36 ± 0.05	5.62 ± 0.38	-19.01 ± 0.41

Table 3: Mean (\pm standard deviation) FATM ratios 16:1(n-7)/16:0, 18:1(n-7)/18:1(n-9) and 20:5(n-3)/22:6(n-3) and mean (\pm standard deviation) stable isotope ratios $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ analysed in the nineteen chemotaxonomical sample categories. (n= the number of individuals for mammals and the number of pools for all other categories).

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Figures



Figure 1: Sample Sites: Fish, catshark and marine invertebrate samples were collected by the MRV *Scotia* and MRV *Alba na Mara* between 2015 and 2017 from Tancred Bank, Montrose Bank, Moray Firth, Burra Haaf, Holy Loch, Hunterston, Pladda, North East (NE) Dunbar and Solway Firth (yellow circles). Marine mammal samples were collected from strandings between 2012-2016 and the individual stranded animals (small green circles) were collected from eight regions around Scotland (green text): Fife, Lothian, Tayside, Grampian, Highland, Orkney, Western Isles, and Strathclyde. King scallops were collected from ten offshore sites around Scotland (purple circles). Two zooplankton species were collected from the Scottish Observatory site off Stonehaven from the RV *Temora* in 2017 (red circle).

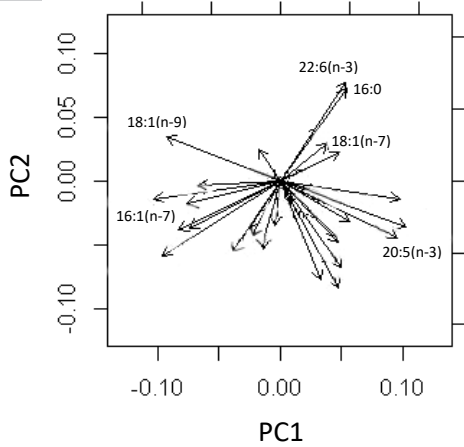


Figure 2a

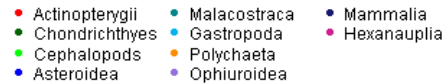
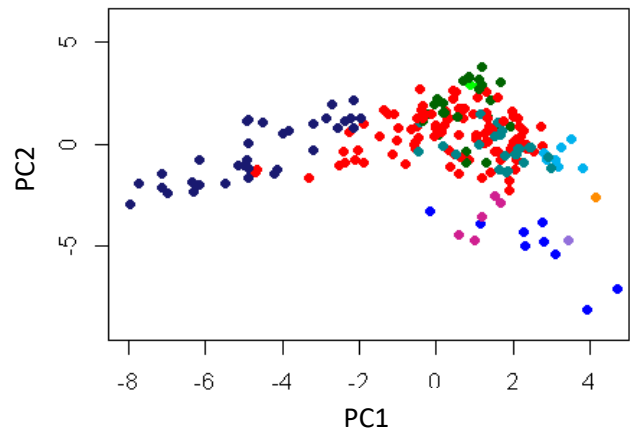


Figure 2b

Figure 2:(a) PCA loading plot demonstrating variation in the FA profiles (normalised area percentages) for the muscle, liver, homogenised whole, brown meat, soft body and blubber pools across the eleven identified classes. The plot shows the 6 most abundant FAs accounting on average for >72 % of the profile. (b) PCA score plot demonstrating variation in the FA profiles (normalised area percentages) for the muscle, liver, homogenised whole, brown meat, soft body and blubber pools across the eleven classes.

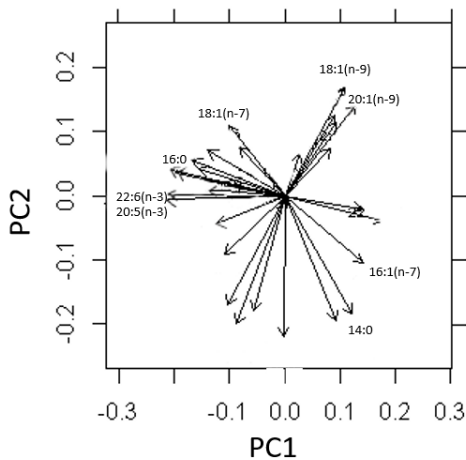


Figure 3a

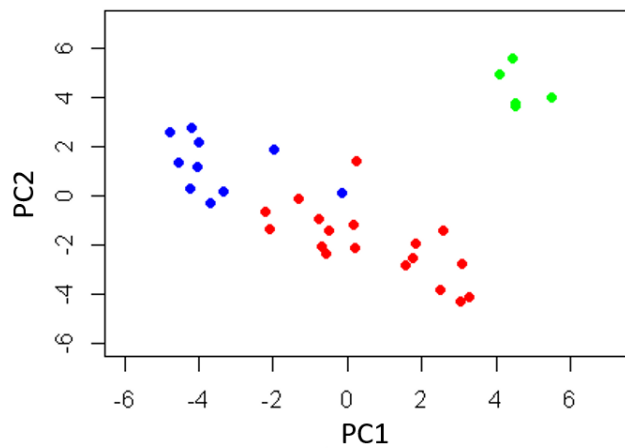


Figure 3b



Figure 3: (a) PCA loading plot demonstrating variation in the FA profiles (normalised area percentages) across the three marine mammal species. FAs labelled on the loading plot are those discussed in section 3.1.1. (b): PCA score plot demonstrating variation in the FA profiles (normalised area percentages) across the three marine mammal species. Sperm whale blubber is well separated from the harbour porpoise and harbour seal blubber with the latter also showing a good degree of separation. As such it is appropriate to report on these as separate categories (see Table S3).

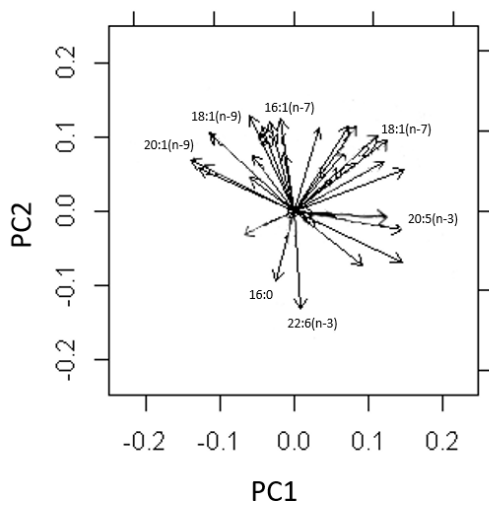


Figure 4a

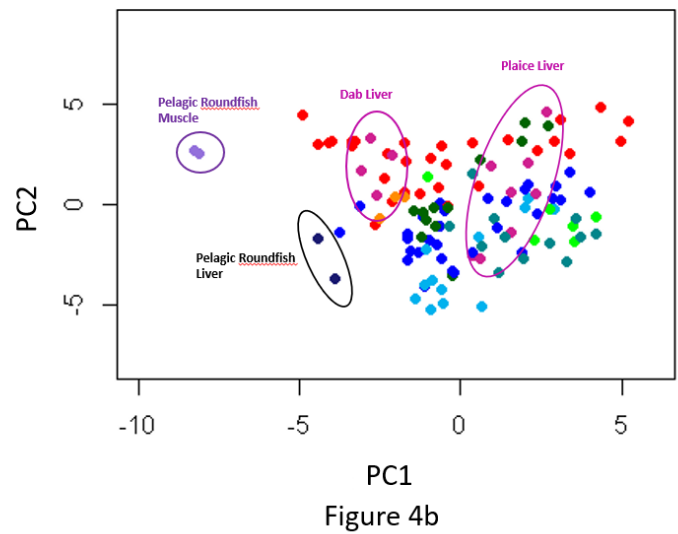


Figure 4b

- Demersal Roundfish Muscle
- Demersal Roundfish Liver
- Demersal Shark Muscle
- Demersal Shark Liver
- Demersal Roundfish Whole
- Flatfish Muscle
- Flatfish Liver
- Pelagic Roundfish Muscle
- Pelagic Roundfish Liver
- Pelagic Roundfish Whole

Figure 4: (a) PCA loading plot demonstrating variation in the FA profiles (normalised area percentages) across the ten categories of fish and shark highlighting the group separation of pelagic fish muscle and liver due to differing proportions of MUFAs and plaice liver and muscle due to differing proportions of 18:1(n-9). FAs labelled on the loading plot are those discussed in section 3.1.2. (b) PCA score plot demonstrating variation in the FA profiles (normalised area percentages) across the ten categories of fish and shark.

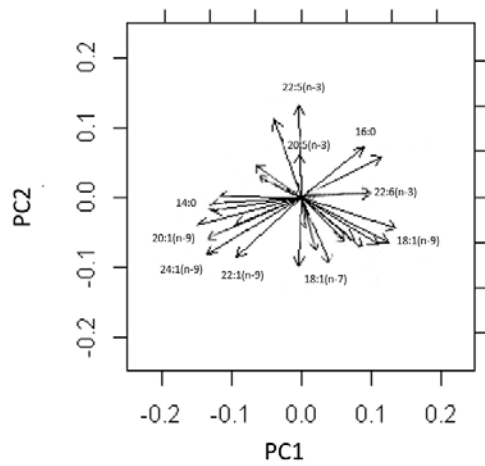


Figure 5a

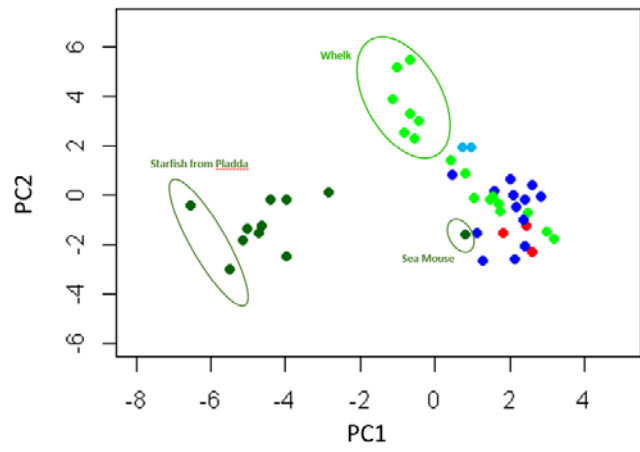


Figure 5b

- Demersal Invertebrates Muscle
- Benthic Invertebrates Muscle
- Benthic Invertebrates Whole
- Benthic Invertebrates Soft Body
- Benthic Invertebrates Brown Meat

Figure 5: (a) PCA loading plot demonstrating variation in the FA profiles (normalised area percentages) across the five categories of invertebrates highlighting the within-group separation of starfish collected from Pladda in comparison to the starfish group due to different proportions of 20:1(n-9) and the separation of the benthic invertebrates soft body category due to a contributing species FA profile influence. FAs labelled on the loading plot are those discussed in section 3.1.3. (b) PCA score plot demonstrating variation in the FA profiles (normalised area percentages) across the five categories of invertebrates.

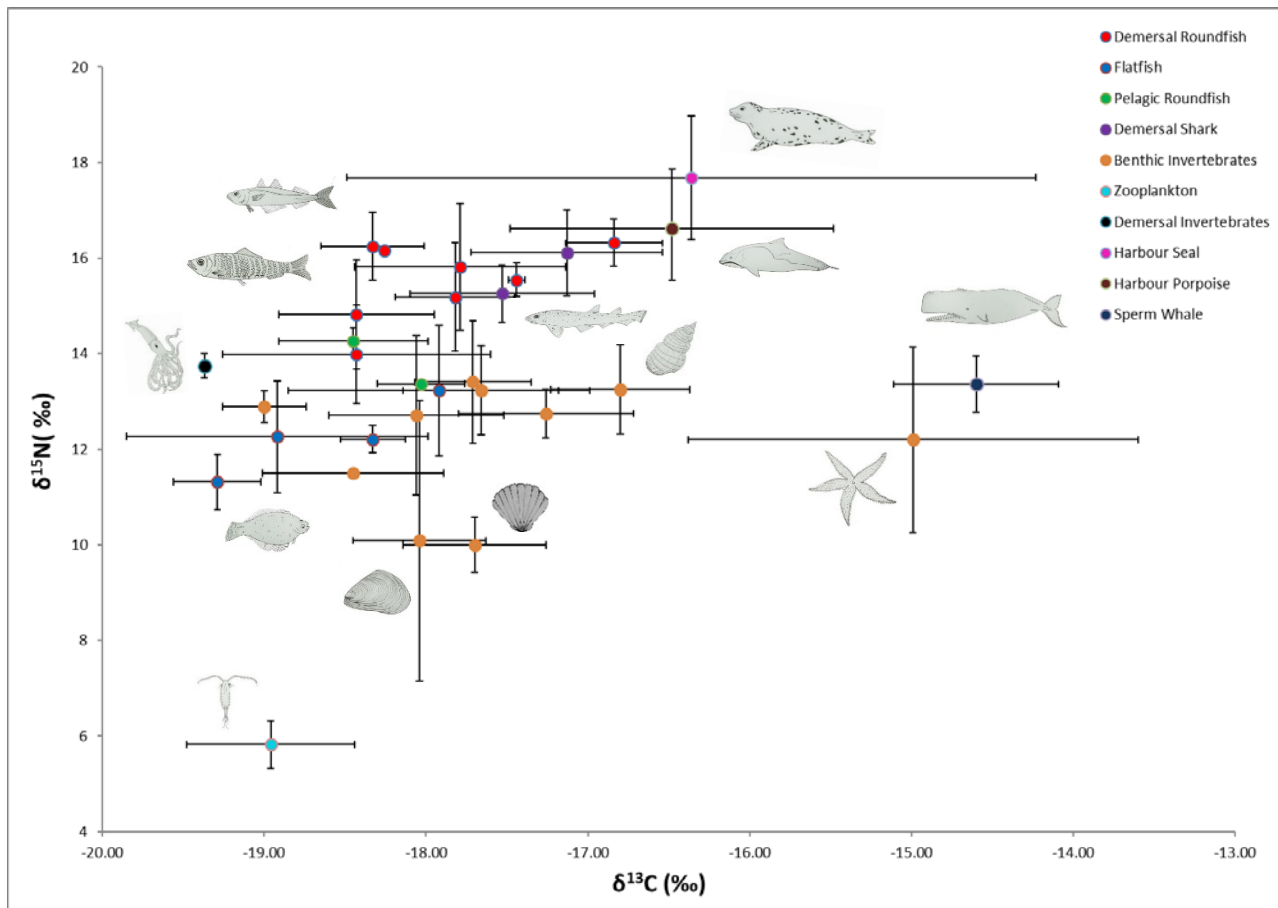


Figure 6: Scatter plot demonstrating the spread of mean stable isotope ratios $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ analysed in ten chemotaxonomical sample categories (not taking tissue type into account. Excluding n=1 samples). The greater the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ value the higher the trophic level. Differing $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values, indicate different carbon sources at the base of the food web (benthic vs pelagic photosynthesis).

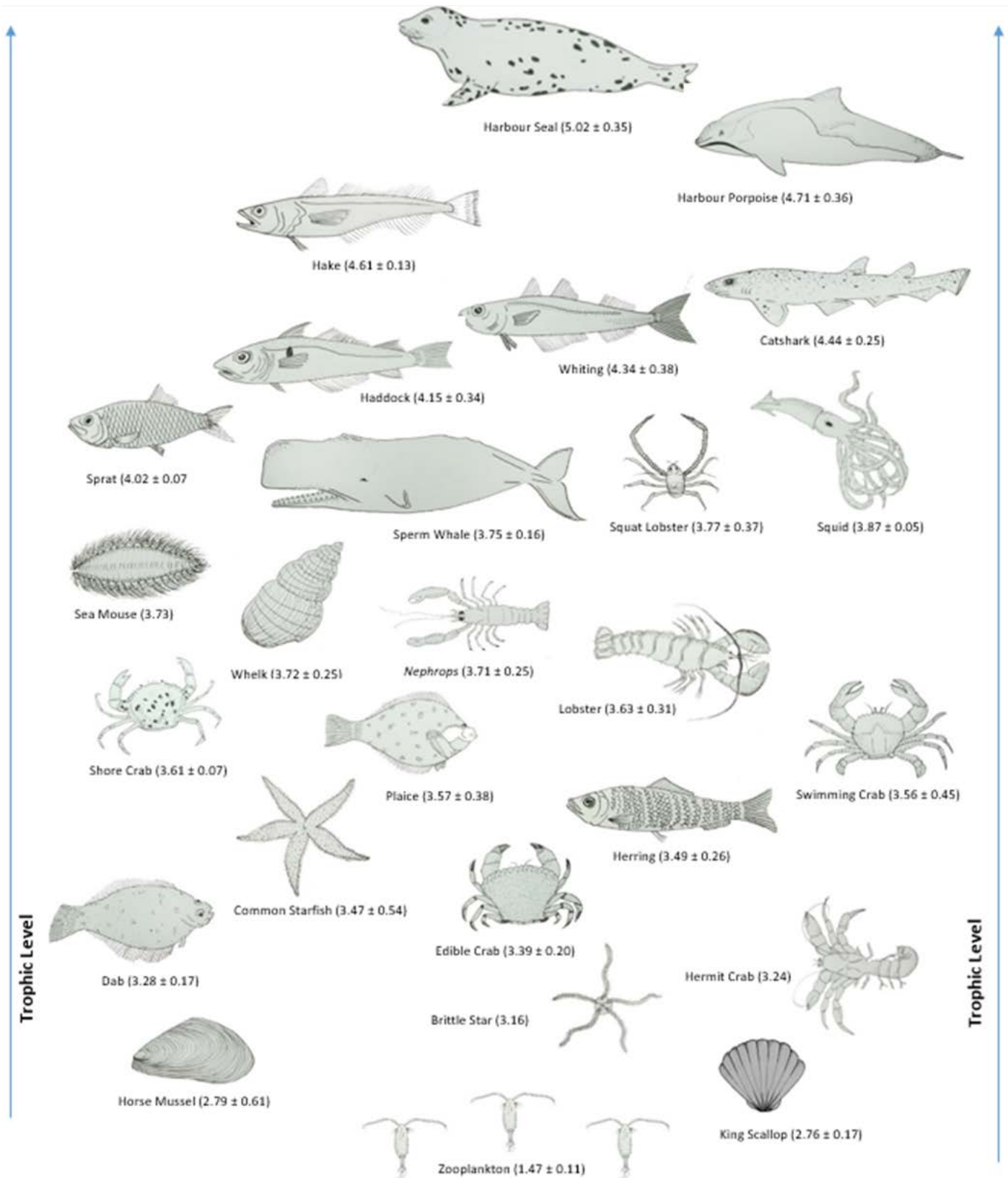


Figure 7: Scottish marine food web diagram showing the and mean trophic level (\pm standard deviation) calculated from $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ for each species using Equation 1. Matrices within species have been combined to give an overall species trophic level. Primary producers (e.g. phytoplankton) are not included in this food web diagram as they were not investigated as part of this study.

Highlights

- Trophic levels and feeding patterns within Scottish marine food webs were investigated
- The complexity in fatty acid profiles and stable isotope ratios is due to multiple influences
- Significant complexity can occur within a single trophic level
- Marine assessments must use a multi-factorial approach when investigating ecological dynamics
- Data will be used to determine contaminant trophic magnification factors