# 1 PROPAGULE DISPERSAL AND LARVAL PATCH COHESIVENESS IN A

### 2 MEDITERRANEAN COASTAL FISH

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13 ABSTRACT

14 The assessment of fish dispersal has a fundamental importance for both conservation and management of fisheries resources as it can provide crucial information for the establishment of 15 16 effective marine protected areas (MPAs) and networks of MPAs. In this study we investigated 17 otolith elemental composition in early life stages of the saddled sea bream Obalda melanura 18 (Linnaeus, 1758) (Perciformes: Sparidae) in order to obtain information on its propagule (egg -19 larva) dispersal in the south-western Mediterranean Sea. Specifically, considering late stage larvae 20 and early post-settlers, we investigated: (1) number of potential natal sources; (2) propagule 21 dispersal distances and (3) larval patch cohesiveness during the last phase of the larval life. Seven 22 natal sources were found to replenish, with different proportions, almost all the sampling sites along 23 a stretch of coastline of ~180 km. This outcome suggests that propagule dispersal can take place at 24 least up to ~90 km. We show also that different larval patches can merge in the pelagic environment 25 after having travelled separately for some days. This information can provide important insights for

the understanding of fish dispersal process and support the correct establishment of spatially
explicit conservation strategies such as MPAs and MPA networks in the south-western
Mediterranean sea.

- 29
- 30 KEYWORDS: propagule dispersal, natal origins, patch cohesiveness, saddled sea bream,
- 31 Mediterranean Sea

### 32 INTRODUCTION

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34 Dispersal is the process by which organisms expand actively or passively the space where they live affecting patterns of connectivity (i.e. the link between sub-populations through the exchange of 35 36 individuals), meta-population dynamics and ultimately species persistence (Shima & Swearer 2010) 37 (Cote et al. 2010). The study of dispersal patterns is thus of paramount importance for marine 38 biodiversity conservation and fisheries management as it provides fundamental information for the 39 establishment of effective marine protected areas (MPAs) and networks of MPAs (Grüss et al. 2011) 40 (Green et al. 2014). In many coastal fish with a bipartite life cycle (i.e. composed by a larval and a 41 juvenile/adult phase), the life stages after settlement (i.e. when the pelagic larval phase ends with 42 the metamorphosis into juvenile) are relatively sedentary, so that species dispersal potential is 43 mostly determined by the propagule (i.e. egg and larva) phase (Leis 2015). Despite the huge effort being currently accomplished, the empirical measure of propagule dispersal is still extremely 44 45 challenging for fish ecologists due to several issues, such as the difficulty to mark small planktonic 46 larvae and/or to recapture them (given the high mortality rates) (Barbee & Swearer 2007, Fontes et 47 al. 2009).

In recent years, a number of studies have been conducted using natural environmental markers for 48 49 investigating fish natal origins and evaluate species dispersal capacity (Leis et al. 2011, Calò et al. 50 2013 for reviews). Otoliths are particularly useful for their unique feature of recording the chemical 51 characteristics of the surrounding environment experienced by fishes at all the life stages (Barbee & 52 Swearer 2007). Otoliths grow by a continuous deposition of layers of calcium carbonate, mainly 53 aragonite, in a protein matrix (Campana 1999). During the deposition, trace-elements from the 54 ambient water can substitute for calcium remaining permanently in the matrix (Campana 1999). The 55 physical and chemical characteristics of the environment (primarily temperature, salinity and trace-56 elements concentration) influence the incorporation rates of some specific elements (e.g. Sr and Ba)

57 into the otolith matrix (Campana 1999, Walther & Thorrold 2006, Barnett-Johnson et al. 2008, 58 Muhlfeld et al. 2012). Variations in otolith elemental composition can be used to discriminate larval 59 groups that experienced different environmental conditions and obtain information on important 60 early life history traits such as the number of potential natal sources, larval dispersal distances and 61 pathways (Hamilton et al. 2008, Fontes et al. 2009, Di Franco et al. 2012, Shima & Swearer 2010, 62 Miller et al. 2014, Shima et al. 2015, but see also Berumen et al. 2010). The analysis of the 63 chemical composition of otolith cores (i.e. the inner portion of otoliths that forms during the 64 embryogenesis) allows to assess the number of potential sources of propagules that supply different settlement sites along a stretch of coastline (Ruttenberg et al. 2008). From this information it is 65 66 possible to infer the spatial scale over which propagule dispersal takes place, considering the 67 distance between settlement sites replenished by the same natal sources (sensu Di Franco et al. 2012). The analysis of the chemical profile from the otolith edge toward its core provides 68 information on the different environmental conditions faced by a larva backwards in time (Sandin et 69 70 al. 2005). The comparison of otolith chemical profiles of larvae coming from the same patch (i.e. an aggregation of larvae) can be used to investigate the consistency of the patch during the pelagic 71 72 phase (i.e. cohesiveness), that is, if larvae travelled together to the sampling site or experienced 73 different dispersal pathways, that would result in different individual otolith chemical profiles 74 (Shima & Swearer 2009, Ben-Tzvi et al. 2012). The knowledge of the ontogenetic cohesiveness of a 75 larval patch can provide important insights on post-settlement demographic dynamics (Shima et al. 76 2015) as different larval trajectories, potentially shaped by a variable dispersal environment, can 77 have crucial implications on the post-settlement persistence of the larval patch (Shima & Swearer 78 2009, Shima & Swearer 2010, Shima et al. 2015).

In this study we investigated geochemical signatures in the otoliths of early life stages of the saddled sea bream *Obalda melanura* (Linnaeus, 1758) (Perciformes: Sparidae) in order to obtain information on its propagule dispersal characteristics in the south-western Mediterranean Sea. This

82 fish was chosen as a model species as it is widely distributed and generally abundant in 83 Mediterranean coastal ecosystems (Bauchot & Hureau 1986, García-Charton et al. 2004) and for its 84 relatively high commercial value for artisanal and recreational fisheries (Harmelin-Vivien et al. 1995, Lloret et al. 2008, Félix-Hackradt et al. 2014). Specifically, considering early post-settlers and 85 86 late stage larvae of O. melanura, we investigated: (1) the number of potential natal sources 87 replenishing our study area; (2) propagule dispersal distances and (3) the cohesiveness of larval 88 patches during the last phase of the larval life. This information, can provide important insights for 89 the understanding of fish dispersal process and support the correct establishment of spatially 90 explicit conservation strategies such as MPAs and MPA networks.

#### 91 MATERIALS AND METHODS

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### 93 Study area and sampling design

94 The study was conducted along the south-east Spanish coast (SW Mediterranean Sea). This sector is
95 particularly relevant from a conservation perspective hosting an important biodiversity hotspot
96 (Calvin Calvo et al. 1999).

97 With the aim to investigate the number of potential natal sources and propagule dispersal distances 98 of O. melanura in the study area, early post-settlement individuals were sampled in July 2013 after the peak of settlement (Calò et al. submitted). Post-settlers were collected in 17 sites (stretches of 1 99 100 km of coastline), scattered within 3 zones (stretches of 30 km of coastline), as follows, from North 101 to South: southern Alicante province (SAP, 6 sites), central Murcia region (CMR, 5 sites) and 102 western Murcia region (WMR, 6 sites) (Fig 1). SAP and CMR host 2 of the most effective MPAs of 103 the Western Mediterranean Sea, Tabarca MPA and Cabo de Palos e Islas Hormigas MPA (Di Franco 104 et al. 2014a) (Fig 1). In each site 11 to 15 post-settlers (i.e. individuals of 1.1-1.8 cm in total length) 105 were collected during snorkeling using a hand net. Specimens were sampled in shallow water 106 habitats (i.e. <2m of depth) characterized by shadowed overhangs and steep rocks, as these are 107 considered to be the main habitat requirements of O. melanura early post-settlers (Bussotti & 108 Guidetti 2011, Félix-Hackradt et al. 2014) for evidence from our study area). All the specimens 109 were firstly euthanized, by immersing them in a sea water solution with few drops of 96% alcohol 110 for minimizing their suffering (Leary et al. 2013) and, after cessation of opercular movements, 111 preserved in 70% ethanol.

Larval patch cohesiveness was investigated considering late stage larvae (pre-settlers) of *O*. *melanura*. Specimens were caught using light-traps that were deployed during the period of larval supply to the coast in July 2013 (Calò et al. submitted). Six light-traps were deployed in 2 sites (S1 in the SAP zone and S2 in the WMR zone, Fig. 1) and placed on an imaginary line parallel to the

116 coast using a buoy moored at 20 –30 m depth, depending on how close the sampling site was to the 117 coast (distance ranging 0.3 –0.8 km). Three light-trap samples from site S1 (here named T1, T2 and 118 T3), sampled during the same night, and one light-trap sample from site S2 (T4) contained from 8 119 to 11 pre-settlers each, and thus were processed in the laboratory. All the other light-trap samples 120 were not included in the successive analyses, because they contained only 1-2 individuals and thus 121 it was impossible to investigate any inter-individual variability in dispersal, in order to assess patch 122 cohesiveness.

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#### 124 Otolith preparation and analysis

In the laboratory, the right sagittal otolith was removed from each pre-settler and post-settler, cleaned of soft tissue using plastic pins and rinsed with ultra-pure water ( $18.2M\Omega cm^{-1}$ ). Then, otoliths were mounted sulcus side up onto a glass slide using Crystalbond<sup>TM</sup> thermoplastic adhesive. Otoliths were polished with 3 µm and 1 µm Imperial lapping film through the nucleus. After polishing, otoliths were rinsed with an ultrasonic bath for 10 minutes in ultra-pure water in order to remove surface contamination.

Elemental analysis was performed using a Thermo Elemental X7 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) coupled to a New-Wave Research UP213 with aperture imaging laser ablation (LA) system. Otolith sections were viewed remotely on a computer screen where the area for ablation was selected. The laser was focused on the sample surface and fired through the microscope objective lens. Helium gas was flushed into the ablation cell to reduce the deposition of ablated aerosols and to improve signal intensities. The ablated aerosol was then mixed with Argon before entering the ICP torch.

138 Otoliths of post-settlers were used for obtaining information on the number of potential natal origins 139 and larval dispersal distances of *O. melanura*. Post-settler otoliths were analysed in 2 different 140 regions: the core and the edge. The core elemental composition was investigated to obtain

information about natal origins and was analysed through three vertical pits with a diameter of 30 141 µm (approximate size of the core) and 10 µm deep each. The otolith edge was investigated to 142 143 quantify recent elemental incorporation (i.e. material laid down just before capture) that was later tested for site discrimination (see Data analysis) and to account for within otolith variability (Di 144 Franco et al. 2012, Di Franco et al. 2014b). Edge portion was analysed by three horizontal pits 145 using the same laser spot dimensions as specified before. Each spot run consisted of 62 s 146 147 acquisition: 25 s blank to correct for background which was subtracted from each sample, 2 second 148 of pre-ablation to remove surface contamination (laser at 30% power), 10 s ablation and 25 s for washout. Otoliths were placed in the ablation chamber in groups of 6, randomly selected from the 149 150 17 sampling sites, to prevent sample batch bias.

151 Otoliths of pre-settlers were analysed for the investigation of larval patch cohesiveness. Specifically, we compared the variability of otolith chemical profiles among individuals coming 152 from the same light-trap sample (here considered as a larval patch). Pre-settlers otoliths were 153 analysed through a series of 7 laser spots, following the major axis of the sagitta, and positioning 154 each spot on a different daily growth ring from the edge of the otolith (corresponding to the otolith 155 156 ring laid down during the sampling day) to the seventh last growth ring. In this way, for each presettler, we obtained the chemical profile of the last 7 days of larval life. We chose not to analyse the 157 first days after hatching to avoid biased interpretation of chemical composition variability. In fact, 158 159 the consideration of the earliest larval stages could have added an additional source of variation 160 (ontogenetic) hiding or confounding the spatial variability of otolith chemical signatures, on which 161 the patch cohesiveness analysis is based (see Data analysis for the complete rationale of the 162 statistical method). The mean pelagic larval duration of *O. melanura* individuals sampled by light traps is ~11 days (Calò et al. submitted), thus we reasonably excluded from the analysis the first 3-4 163 164 days after hatching, corresponding to the yolk sack phase of the species (Antolović et al. 2010). 165 Spot size was set to 15 µm in order to fit it with the daily rings width. Each spot run consisted of 42

s acquisition: 10 s blank to correct for background, 2 second of pre-ablation, 10 s ablation and 20 sfor washout.

168 For both post-settlers' and pre-settlers' otoliths, instrumental precision was maintained by analysing solid glass standard material from the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST 610 169 170 and NIST 612) every 6 samples, carrying out a linear interpolation between the 2 consecutive sets 171 of standards. Calcium was used as internal standard to take into account variation in ablation and aerosol efficiency. All the 7 elements analysed (7Li, <sup>24</sup>Mg, <sup>45</sup>Mn, <sup>66</sup>Zn, <sup>88</sup>Sr, <sup>138</sup>Ba, <sup>208</sup>Pb) were 172 expressed as ratios relative to <sup>44</sup>Ca. Detection limits were calculated from the concentration of 173 analyte yielding a signal equivalent to 3× the standard deviation of the blank signal for each of the 174 elements (Tab. 1). Recoded values of Li, Mn, Zn and Pb were consistently below the detection 175 176 limits and thus were excluded from the analysis.

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178 Data analysis

179 Otolith elemental concentration data were converted to molar concentrations and log (x+1)180 transformed.

181 The number of post-settler potential natal origins was investigated analysing otolith core elemental 182 concentrations (as a proxy for identifying the existence of single or multiple areas of origin (Di Franco et al. 2012) for a total of 230 individuals. No Mn:Ca spike, generally considered as an 183 indicator of the core location (Brophy et al. 2004, Ruttenberg et al. 2005), was recorded in almost 184 185 all the otolith cores analysed. For this reason the centroid of the three core pits for each otolith was 186 considered for the subsequent analysis, as it has been done in other species where no Mn:Ca spike 187 seems to not be an effective "core localizer" (Papetti et al. 2013, Guidetti et al. 2013). The 188 SIMPROF ('clustsig' package, R software) test was carried out on the output of a cluster analysis 189 (based on Euclidean distance) to determine which clusters were significantly different at the 5% 190 level. Similarity percentage (SIMPER, 'vegan' package, R software) was used to assess which

191 Elemental/Ca ratios mainly contributed to the differences among the significant clusters identified by the SIMPROF. Because homogeneity in otolith chemical composition may simply reflect 192 193 environmental similarity, we used permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) to test for differences between the 17 sampling sites by analysing the otolith edge of post-settlers 194 (i.e. post-settlement portion laid down just before capture) (Di Franco et al. 2012). 'Site' (Si) was 195 treated as a random factor (17 levels), 'Otolith' (Ot) was treated as a random factor nested in (Si) 196 197 (11-15 levels). There were three replicate ablations for each otolith (total n=690). Once different 198 natal origins were identified (see Results), we tested for possible differences in zone and site replenishment for each identified natal source with a univariate two-way PERMANOVA using natal 199 origin number as a variable. 'Zone' (Zn) was treated as a random factor (3 levels); 'Site' (Si) was 200 201 treated as a random factor (5 to 6 levels) nested in (Zn). Finally, a Mantel test (based on 10<sup>4</sup> 202 permutations, 'ade4' package, R software) was performed to assess if closer sites were more likely to be replenished by the same natal origin. Thus, we measure the correlation between the abundance 203 204 of post-settlers coming from the same natal origin and the geographic distance between pairs of 205 sites. The distance matrix of abundances was created considering the 17 sites as observations and the major natal sources identified as variables. Thus, each site was associated to n values of 206 207 abundance, corresponding to the number of post-settlers coming from each of the n major natal 208 sources.

Larval patch cohesiveness was investigated analysing the within patch (i.e. light-trap) variability of pre-settler otolith chemical profiles. In particular we compared the chemical composition of otoliths day by day, grouping together chemical data from chronologically homologous rings of different otoliths (i.e. rings corresponding to the same day of life for all the fish). Based on the proviso that the chemical composition of otoliths is similar for individuals that experienced the same environmental conditions, we assumed that for individuals caught in the same light-trap, the variability of the chemical composition would have increased moving from the first ring analysed

(i.e. the ring laid down immediately before the sampling) toward the last ring analysed, in the case 216 in which fish travelled different pathways (i.e. starting from different sites and then reaching the 217 218 same light-trap). Otherwise, if pre-settlers travelled together to the site where we collected them (light-trap), a similar variability would have been found between edge and the previous rings (days 219 220 of larval life) of the otolith. In order to perform the analysis, otolith chemical data were normalised and grouped by ring analysed (i.e. day of life) from the last (1, the edge of the otolith) to the seventh 221 222 last (7) and considering the different light-traps samples separately. Then, individual deviations from the centroids for each otolith ring, across individuals coming from the same light-trap, were 223 calculated using PERMDISP. Centroid distances were finally analysed through a PERMANOVA in 224 which 'light-trap' (LT) was treated as a random factor with 4 levels, 'specimen' (SP) was treated as 225 226 random factor with 8-11 levels, nested within LT and 'otolith ring' (OR) was treated as a fixed factor with 7 levels, crossed to SP. This model, considering OR as a factor crossed to SP, was adopted as a 227 solution to repeated measures (the repeated measure effect is removed by fitting it as a factor). For 228 229 each light-trap, a means plot of distance from centroid per each otolith ring was used to show the variation in fingerprints variability passing from day 1 to day 7. PERMANOVA analyses were run 230 231 using Primer 6 PERMANOVA+ software package. All the other analyses were run using R software (R core development team). 232

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234 RESULTS

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236 SIMPROF test segregated 7 statistically different clusters, i.e. core chemical 'finger-prints' potentially corresponding to seven different post-settler natal sources (Fig. 2). The five major natal 237 238 sources (A, C, D, E and G) accounted together for the 92.3% (212 individuals) of all the postsettlers with single contribution ranging from 12.2% to 32.3%. The remaining natal sources, B and 239 240 F, consisted, respectively of 5 (2.1%) and 13 (5.6%) individuals. SIMPER analysis indicated that Mg:Ca ratio contributed, on average, for ~50% to the total dissimilarity in pairwise comparisons 241 among five major natal sources identified, while Ba:Ca and Sr:Ca contributed with similar 242 243 proportion to the remaining 50% of dissimilarity. Cluster 'G' (that included 1/3 of all the post-244 settlers) was characterized by a 2 times higher concentration of Mg:Ca than the remaining clusters. 245 Cluster 'A' and 'D' showed lower values of Ba:Ca than C, E and G. Sr:Ca ratios resulted different in 246 all the 5 groups (Fig. 3).

Post-settlement replenishment from the natal origins identified was found to be statistically different 247 among the 3 zones (PERMANOVA p<0.01), with the southernmost zone (WMR) highly different 248 249 from the northernmost zone (SAP) (pairwise comparison p<0.01) and weakly different from the 250 central zone (CMR) (pairwise comparison p<0.05). No significant differences were found between SAP and CMR. No differences were detected at the scale of site. The 5 major natal sources 251 252 replenished, with different proportions, almost all the sampling sites. Post-settlers from source 'G' were mainly found in the WMR zone, with similar, lower, abundances recorded in the other two 253 zones. Source 'A' similarly replenished north (SAP) and central (CMR) sites. Source 'C' was mainly 254 255 composed by individuals from sites of SAP (north of the study area). Individuals from source 'E' 256 were mainly sampled in CMR, while a comparable number of post-settlers coming from the source 257 'D' was found in each site (Fig. 1 and 4). Regarding the last two natal sources, individuals from 'F' 258 were found in WMR, CMR and the southernmost site of SAP. Source 'B' replenished five sites (1, 2,

5, 13 and 14) with one individual. The abundance of post-settlers sharing the same natal origin and 259 the geographic distance between sites were significantly positively correlated (Mantel test, r=0.38 260 261 and p=0.0001), this indicating that geographically closer sites had, on average, higher abundances of post-settlers coming from the same natal origin, than distant sites. Focusing on natal sources G, A 262 263 and C (the three major natal sources clustered, representing more than 2/3 of all post-settlers), the two higher values of abundance were recorded in pairs of adjacent and less distant sites (17-16 for 264 source 'G', 7-8 for source 'A' and 3-4 for source 'C' (Fig. 4). The chemical composition of the 265 juvenile portion of post-settlers was significantly different among the sampling sites 266 (PERMANOVA, p<0.01). Significant differences among otoliths were also found (p<0.01) 267 268 suggesting within-site differences among individuals.

269 Regarding the analysis of pre-settlers' patch cohesiveness, a significant difference between otolith rings (days of life) was recorded (PERMANOVA, p<0.01), with an increasing variability moving 270 from day 1 to day 7 (Fig. 5) for all the 4 light-trap samples. Pairwise comparisons between days 271 272 indicated that statistically significant increments in chemical fingerprint variability were not simultaneous across light-traps samples (i.e. did not happen between the same pair of days across 273 light-traps), resulting in a significant interaction Lt x OR (p<0.05): for pre-settlers from light-trap 274 T4 the first significant increment was recorded between the 2<sup>nd</sup> and the 3<sup>rd</sup> ring, in T1 between the 275 4<sup>th</sup> and the 5<sup>th</sup> ring, while in T2 and T3 a significant increment was recorded between the 1<sup>st</sup> and the 276  $2^{nd}$  ring (Fig. 5). 277

278 DISCUSSION

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For the most of marine fish, the pelagic phase before settlement represents a fundamental period of dispersion shaping connectivity patterns between populations (Burgess et al. 2014). Knowledge on species dispersal characteristics (e.g. number of natal origins, dispersal distances) is crucial for understanding fish populations dynamics and connectivity and ultimately helping the design of effective marine protection strategies (Green et al. 2014). In this study we analysed otolith chemical composition of early life stages of *O. melanura* in order to provide information on the dispersal characteristics of its propagule pelagic phase in the south-western Mediterranean Sea.

287 The analysis of post-settler core elemental composition indicate the presence of multiple sources of 288 propagules, replenishing several sampling sites with different proportions along the south-eastern 289 coast of Spain. In recent works carried out in the Eastern Atlantic and in the Mediterranean Sea 290 similar results were recorded, with a high diversification of natal sources in early post-settler 291 individuals sampled in coastal sites (Fontes et al. 2009, Di Franco et al. 2012). The significant 292 spatial variability in the chemical composition of the juvenile portion (i.e. otolith edge) of post-293 settler otoliths highlight the ability of the method to discriminate spatially distinct chemical 294 signatures, allowing us to reasonably draw inferences on the core portion. The segregation of different core chemical signatures is very likely to be related to spatial differences in chemical-295 physical characteristics of the water masses where the spawning took place. Different chemical 296 297 fingerprints in otolith cores could be associated also to a temporal variability in water masses 298 characteristics associated to temporally distinct spawning events. In 2013 the study area was 299 replenished by simultaneous spawning events that took place in a temporal window of 2 weeks 300 (Calò et al. submitted), so we can reasonably assume that the different chemical fingerprints 301 recorded are unlikely to be a consequence of a temporal variation.

302 The methodology we used does not allow to geographically locate the natal origins identified,

impeding to have the exact range and the frequency distribution (i.e. kernel) of larval dispersal 303 304 distances. On the other hand, we can have an estimation of the spatial scale over which dispersal 305 can take place in the area. All the sites were supplied by more than one natal source. Two sources replenished the extreme sites of the study area, spaced ~180 km from each other. This information 306 307 allows us to infer that the most conservative value of maximum dispersal distance is ~90 km (i.e. 308 half of the study area). In fact, supposing the case in which two of the natal sources identified were adjacent and in the centre of the study area, propagules would have travelled at least 90 km. In all 309 310 the other cases, the dispersal distance would be greater. This estimate of propagule dispersal distance is in accordance with the results of other studies conducted in the Mediterranean Sea on 311 other sparid species, using otolith natural tags (Di Franco et al. 2012, Di Franco et al. submitted) 312 313 and, in general, in the range of propagule dispersal suggested for other temperate fish species (Anadón et al. 2013). 314

Even though it is not possible to locate the natal sources, the results suggest that the pattern of larval 315 316 supply to the sampling sites has a certain spatial dependence. Post-settlers from the same natal origin were more likely to be found in closer sites with the highest abundances recorded in pairs of 317 318 adjacent sites and lower values both in northernmost and southernmost sites. This output was 319 consistent among almost all the major natal origins identified. Moreover, although the major natal origins supply almost all the sampling sites, significant differences in post-settlers replenishment 320 was recorded a the scale of zone suggesting that post-settler demographic composition can change 321 322 at the scale of 50-100 km. A similar result was found by (Fontes et al. 2009) analysing otolith core 323 composition of the temperate wrasse *Coris julis* in the Azores. The spatial difference in natal source 324 composition between the northernmost and the southernmost zones of the study is also in 325 accordance with the difference in pelagic larval duration of *O. melanura* between the same zones 326 (Calò et al. submitted). This concordant results could indicate that the geographic origin of 327 propagules and early life history traits (e.g. the duration of the larval phase) could have a common

328 source of variability or be non-independent. Patterns of post-settlers distribution along the coast are 329 likely to be a consequence of both pre- and/or post-settlement processes as well as both physical 330 (i.e. current dynamics during the larval dispersal phase) or biological ones (e.g. behaviour, inter-331 and intra-specific competition for food and space, mortality). From this perspective the different 332 natal origin composition found between the southernmost zone (WMR) and the other two zones of 333 the study area (SAP and CMR) could be a consequence of the mesoscale oceanographic pattern that 334 characterizes the region. In a recent work, Rossi et al (2014) pointed out that the separation between 335 the Alboran sea and the rest of the Mediterranean sea, generally thought to have place along the Almeria-Oran front, could actually have its Spanish coastal extreme around Cartagena, that in our 336 337 study separate the CMR zone from the WMR zone. The presence of this oceanographic boundary, 338 already suggested to be a biogeographic barrier in the Western Mediterranean sea (Pérez-Ruzafa 339 2010), could reduce the dispersal of propagules from the WMR zone toward the northernmost zones 340 and vice versa. However, it is very hard to draw conclusions on the forces that determined the 341 spatially dependent outcomes recorded in this study, as no further information are available to 342 elucidate them, especially considering the lack of information on fish spawning grounds. From this 343 perspective, further investigation are to be conducted using other methodologies that would permit to directly track the movements of propagules from their source to the settlement site. These 344 methods (e.g. otolith artificial tagging or genetic parentage analysis), although undoubtedly 345 346 powerful, have been rarely or never applied so far in the Mediterranean context given the lack of 347 data about spawning ground locations and the huge sampling effort needed for obtaining representative results (Calò et al. 2013). 348

The analysis of larval patch cohesiveness suggests that groups of larvae can merge in the pelagic environment after having travelled separately for some days. In recent works a similar larval patch formation was evidenced in a small triplefin fish of New Zeland reef, using otolith chemical analysis (Shima & Swearer 2009, Shima et al. 2015). However, cases of protracted larval patch

353 cohesiveness were also documented, with larvae experiencing the same dispersal pathway during 354 the entire pelagic phase (Ben-Tzvi et al. 2012, Bernardi et al. 2012). In our study, in two light-traps, 355 an increasing otolith chemical variability was recorded between the sampling day and the day immediately before, suggesting that, during the sampling night two or more discrete groups of 356 larvae were attracted toward the same trap, after having travelled different dispersal pathwavs. In 357 358 other two light-traps, a stable chemical composition between the sampling day and the previous 359 ones was observed, suggesting that the aggregation of distinct patches can take place in different 360 moments of the larval phase. It is difficult to establish if this aggregation tendency is a result of larval behaviour or particular oceanic features (e.g. gyres) that can mix together patches previously 361 362 separated. Kiparissis et al (2008) found evidences of aggregation behaviour in post-settlement 363 individual of *O. melanura*, differently from other Mediterranean sparid fishes (Harmelin-Vivien et 364 al. 1995). In particular, post-settlers arrive in small shoals and then actively aggregate in larger shoals with increasing fish size after various aggregation steps (Kiparissis et al. 2008). From this 365 366 perspective, the same aggregation behaviour could characterize the larval phase, determining a mix of distinct larval patches, potentially coming from different natal sources, during the pelagic phase. 367 368 This patch mixing tendency could be an adaptive strategy that would guarantee a higher genetic 369 diversity, and thus higher survival probability, when facing the environmental uncertainty of the settlement habitat and the high mortality rates associated to it (Nanninga & Berumen 2014, Shima 370 et al. 2015). In the light of these considerations, it resulted evident that post-settler natal sources 371 372 diversity recorded here in each sampling site could be a consequence of multiple aggregation steps 373 that can occur both during the propagule dispersal phase and early after the settlement process and 374 would contribute together to demographic heterogeneity, fundamental in driving meta-population 375 dynamics and the persistence of species (Kritzer & Sale 2004).

To conclude, with the present study we provided insights on the propagule dispersal traits of a temperate coastal fish. This is the first study aimed to estimate dispersal distances in the south-

western Mediterranean Sea and, to our knowledge, the first to provide information on larval patch 378 dispersal cohesiveness during the pelagic phase of a Mediterranean coastal fish. Information on 379 380 propagule dispersal patterns are fundamental for the correct planning of MPAs and networks (Planes et al. 2009, Gaines et al. 2010). From this perspective, our results are particularly relevant 381 382 considering the environmental value of the region and the strong effort that is being accomplished 383 to build an effective network of MPAs in the sector of Mediterranean sea considered. Certainly, the study of one species is not sufficient for drawing conclusions on the effective MPAs spatial 384 385 arrangement, but it represents an important piece of knowledge, that together with information on other species and/or using different approaches, can provide the fundamental background for 386 387 correct marine spatial conservation actions.

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Figure 1. Map of the study area. Black dots indicate post-settlers sampling sites (numbers represent
site names); dashed line rectangles represents zones: south Alicante province (SAP), central Murcia
region (CMR) and west Murcia region (WMR). Black squares represent pre-settlers sampling sites.
Pie charts indicate, for each zone, the proportion of post-settlers belonging to the five major natal
sources clustered (see results).

Element ratio	NIST 610 %RSD	NIST 612 %RSD	NIST 610 %Accuracy	NIST 612 %Accuracy	LOD mmol/mol
Mg:Ca	9.8	11.1	84	92	0.03852
Sr:Ca	7.8	8.3	115	98	0.00148
Ba:Ca	7.1	9.4	91	89	0.00066
Element ratio	NIST 610 %RSD	NIST 612 %RSD	NIST 610 %Accuracy	NIST 612 %Accuracy	LOD mmol/mol
Mg:Ca	6.6	14.4	98	106	0.04568
Sr:Ca	7	9.3	98	93	0.01441
Ba:Ca	6.1	7	98	82	0.00076

Table 1. Estimates of precision, accuracy and limits of detection (LOD) for post settlers' otoliths
(upper table) and pre settlers' otoliths (lower table). Values for %RSD (% relative standard
deviation) and % accuracy are dimensionless.



Figure 2. Cluster (based on Ward's approach) of post-settlers otolith cores into groups considering
Mg:Ca, Sr:Ca and Ba:Ca elemental concentrations. Black branches indicate statistically significant
groups resulted from SIMPROF (arbitrarily named from left to right). Grey branches indicate nonsignificant differences.



531 Figure 3. Average (± standard error) element/calcium ratios in the core region of the five major
532 clusters identified by SIMPROF (see Figure 2).



Figure 4. Total number of post-settlers, for each sampling site, coming from the five major natal sources. Different colors represent the five major groups identified by SIMPROF. Sites are numbered progressively from the northernmost to the southernmost (See Fig. 1). Vertical dashed lines separate the three zones considered. Source B and F (minor sources) were omitted for enhance readability.



539 Figure 5. Plots of average distance (± standard error) from group centroid per each otolith ring (day 540 of life) analysed, as calculated by PERMDISP. Each plot represent a light-trap sample: T1 (10 541 specimens), T2 (8 specimens), T3 (11 specimens) and T4 (11 specimens). Dashed segments 542 represent statistically significant increments in chemical fingerprint variability between pairs of 543 consecutive rings.