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2 **Discriminating nursery grounds of juvenile plaice (*Pleuronectes platessa*) in the south-**
3 **eastern Irish Sea using otolith microchemistry**

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15 **ABSTRACT:** Nursery grounds are valuable habitats providing sources of food and refuge
16 during early life stages for many commercially caught marine fish. Distinguishing between
17 different nursery grounds and identifying habitat origin using trace elemental concentrations
18 in aragonite structures of teleost fish have proved valuable in fish ecology and fisheries. This
19 study aimed to (1) compare chemical signatures (elemental fingerprints) within sagittal
20 otoliths of juvenile European plaice *Pleuronectes platessa* sampled from known nursery
21 habitats in the south-eastern Irish Sea and (2) assess their potential and robustness as natural
22 tags for identifying nursery grounds for the putative south-eastern Irish Sea plaice stock.
23 Otoliths from juvenile plaice ('1-group', 6 to 15 cm total length) were obtained from 8
24 nursery grounds in coastal areas off north-west England and north Wales (including
25 Anglesey) between June and August 2008. Solution-based inductively coupled plasma-mass
26 spectrometry determined the concentrations of 10 elements (Li, Na, Mg, K, Mn, Zn, Rb, Sr,
27 Sn, Ba), with significant differences in otolith element composition observed between all
28 nursery grounds. Cross-validation linear discriminant function analysis (CV-LDFA)
29 classified fish to their nursery ground of capture (46.2 to 93.3%), with a total group CV-
30 LDFA accuracy of 71.0%. CV-LDFA between regions (north-west England and north Wales)
31 classified fish with 82% accuracy. The discrimination of juvenile plaice from all 8 nursery
32 grounds within the south-eastern Irish Sea using otolith microchemistry offers significant
33 opportunities in the development of future effective fisheries management strategies through
34 understanding the supply of juveniles from specific nursery grounds and adult plaice in the
35 south-eastern Irish Sea.

36 **KEY WORDS:** Nursery grounds · Otolith microchemistry · Natural tag · Juvenile plaice ·
37 *Pleuronectes platessa*

38 **INTRODUCTION**

39 For many coastal fish species, the adult and juvenile life stages exhibit spatial segregation in
40 habitat (Gillanders et al. 2003), where juveniles are often recruited into near-shore nursery
41 habitats through entrainment into surface water currents and gyres (Dickey-Collas et al. 1997,
42 Hamilton et al. 2008) and where, depending on the species, residency can vary from months

43 to years (Vasconcelos et al. 2007, 2008) before fish migrate offshore to join adult populations
44 (Brown 2006a, Fodrie & Herzka 2008). The ability to understand and track movement
45 patterns of fish with complex life cycles is necessary if we are to estimate habitat 'value' in
46 the context of new recruits to sustain the adult population (Beck et al. 2001). Furthermore, the
47 importance of identifying which nursery areas are the most productive and their connectivity
48 through larval and juvenile exchange should be considered if effective management protocols
49 are to be implemented (Cowen et al. 2000, Vasconcelos et al. 2008, Cuveliers et al. 2010).
50 Although mark and recapture studies on juvenile fish have provided some insight (e.g.
51 Burrows et al. 2004, Pickett et al. 2004, Tupper 2007), these methods can be labour intensive
52 and logistically difficult to implement, with constraints including the small size of juveniles
53 in comparison to the tags, high rates of juvenile mortality, low recapture rates and the
54 requirement for large numbers of individuals to be tagged in order to yield meaningful results
55 (Gillanders 2005, Brown 2006b, Herzka et al. 2009). However, techniques used to study
56 natural tags such as trace-element chemistry in calcified structures in fish are providing a
57 wealth of information on population dynamics, movement patterns and early life history
58 strategies (see reviews by Elsdon et al. 2008, Sturrock et al. 2012).

59 The use of otolith microchemistry can be a valuable alternative to manual tagging in
60 distinguishing between the habitats of origin in juvenile marine fishes (Thorrold et al. 2001,
61 Gillanders 2005, Brown 2006b). Due to the nature and composition of otoliths, material
62 deposited within the aragonite matrix is metabolically inert, not susceptible to resorption and
63 remains unaltered after deposition (Thorrold et al. 1998, Campana 1999). Therefore, otoliths
64 of juvenile fish that have long residency times within a particular habitat or nursery ground
65 should reflect those physico-chemical characteristics of their surrounding environment and
66 record a chronological record within the otolith matrix (de Pontual & Geffen 2002, Fodrie &
67 Herzka 2008). Otolith microchemistry is proving to be a valuable natural tag in the study of
68 fish ecology in general (Elsdon et al. 2008, Sturrock et al. 2012), and in particular, it has been
69 successfully applied in identifying distinct otolith chemical signatures between different
70 nursery grounds and in studying connectivity and movement patterns for a range of flatfish
71 species (Geffen et al. 2003, Brown 2006a,b, Chittaro et al. 2009, Cuveliers et al. 2010, Nims
72 & Walther 2014, Bailey et al. 2015).

73 The European plaice *Pleuronectes platessa* is among the most commercially important
74 flatfish species landed by demersal fisheries in England and Wales, with populations along
75 the west coast of the UK currently managed as either single or multiple International Council
76 for the Exploration of the Sea divisions (ICES area VIIa and ICES areas VIIf and g, Dunn &
77 Pawson 2002, Ellis et al. 2012). However, there is strong evidence to suggest that separate
78 stocks exist within these divisions. Evidence of possible sub-stocks based on tagging studies
79 identified different migratory patterns, differences in reproductive biology (fecundity, age at
80 first maturity) and differences in growth patterns for the north-eastern and western Irish Sea
81 and within the south-eastern Irish Sea (including Cardigan Bay and a small migratory
82 contingent to the Bristol Channel and Celtic Sea; Dunn & Pawson 2002, Fox et al. 2007,
83 ICES 2014).

84 Within the south-eastern Irish Sea, the main nursery grounds for juvenile plaice have been
85 identified along the coastal waters of north-west England and north Wales (Dunn & Pawson
86 2002, Ellis et al. 2012), where the newly benthic-orientated juveniles spend between 1 and 3
87 yr before migrating offshore into deeper water (Nash et al. 1994, Dunn & Pawson 2002, Fox
88 et al. 2007). In light of the commercial importance of this species, it was therefore our aim to
89 identify whether the main plaice nursery grounds in the south-eastern Irish Sea exhibit
90 distinct otolith microchemical signals and whether these naturally occurring chemical tags
91 can be used to classify individual juveniles back to their nursery ground of origin.

92 MATERIALS AND METHODS

93 Sample collection

94 Juvenile plaice ('1-group') with a total length (TL) between 6 and 15 cm were collected from
95 8 sites identified as main nursery grounds along the coasts of north-west England and north
96 Wales (Dunn & Pawson 2002) during June and August 2008 (Fig. 1). We chose 1-group
97 plaice (as opposed to 0-group) to represent an integrated signal over 12 months and to
98 account for any possible seasonal fluctuations or movements made during the first year
99 within their chosen nursery ground. Sampling sites were selected due to their recognised
100 importance as major nursery grounds for juvenile plaice within the putative south-eastern
101 Irish Sea stock (Dunn & Pawson 2002, Fox et al. 2007). Fish were collected using 2
102 techniques: a push-net was used in water depths of <1 m, and a nylon beach-seine net (depth
103 2.2 m, cod end mesh 5 mm) was used in water >1 m in depth. On capture, juvenile plaice
104 were immediately euthanized using the Home Office Schedule 1 method [www.gov.
105 uk/government/ publications/the-humane-killing-of-animals-code-of-practice](http://www.gov.uk/government/publications/the-humane-killing-of-animals-code-of-practice)) and stored on
106 ice within a portable refrigeration unit for transportation back to the laboratory where fish
107 were frozen at -20°C until otolith extraction.

108 Otolith preparation

109 All equipment used in extracting, cleaning and storing the sagittal otoliths was non-metallic
110 and pre-acid-washed in analytical grade 10% HNO_3 (>69% HNO_3 , Sigma Aldrich), triple-
111 rinsed in ultra-pure 18 M Ω Milli-Q water (hereafter referred to as Milli-Q) and dried under a
112 laminar flow hood for 24 h prior to use. Similarly, analytical tubes were prepared as outlined
113 above with one minor alteration in that they were acid-cleaned using a solution of 1% HNO_3 /
114 0.5% HCl (both analytical grade). To prevent the possible risk of zinc contamination,
115 powder-free vinyl gloves (Shermond) were used during all procedures (Batley 1989, Friel et
116 al. 1996, Dugan et al. 2008).

117 A maximum of 15 fish were collected from each of the 8 nursery grounds for otolith
118 extraction and analysis. However, due to poor weather conditions at the time of collection,
119 only 6 plaice (1-group) were caught at Hoylake. Both left and right sagittal otoliths were
120 extracted using fine-tipped plastic forceps and cleaned of any adhering tissue using a fine-
121 bristled nylon brush. Left and right sagittal otoliths were stored separately in 1.5 ml
122 polypropylene micro-centrifuge tubes and dried under a laminar flow hood for 24 h. Otoliths
123 were immersed in a 3% hydrogen peroxide solution (30% H_2O_2 analytical grade) and
124 sonicated for 5 min to remove organics (Brophy et al. 2003), triple-rinsed in Milli-Q and
125 dried under a laminar flow hood for 24 h. Individual otoliths were weighed to the nearest
126 0.001 mg (Mettler Toledo MX/UMX series 5) and stored in micro-centrifuge tubes prior to
127 analysis.

128 Right sagittal otoliths were used for the chemical analysis and were dissolved in 0.1 ml of a
129 50% HNO_3 / 25% HCl solution and diluted to a volume of 5 ml with Milli-Q. Repeat samples
130 ($n = 12$) using the remaining left sagittal otolith were analysed to determine whether the
131 elemental composition between otolith pairs was similar, i.e. whether either otolith could
132 have been used.

133 Calibration solutions were prepared using a commercial multi-element standard (SPEX-
134 CertiPrep) diluted with Milli-Q to give concentrations of 100, 10 and 1 ng ml^{-1} for the multi-
135 element assessments. Elements observed at a higher concentration in otolith material, such as
136 Ca, Na and K, were measured using multi-element standards consisting of Ca levels
137 measured at 200, 100 and 50 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$, with additional measurement of Sr, Na and K at 2000
138 and 200 ng ml^{-1} to extend the calibration range for these more abundant elements. The use of

139 procedural blanks enabled limits of detection (LOD) tests to correct for instrument instability
140 and/or signal drift and any non-spectral interference caused by the matrix (Vanhaecke et al.
141 1992, Wells et al. 2003). Measurements of samples, repeat samples and blanks were
142 randomised to remove the possibility of systematic bias.

143 **Sample analysis**

144 Juvenile plaice otolith solutions were analysed using an Agilent Technologies 7500 series
145 inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) equipped with a quadrupole
146 reaction cell combined with an ASX 500 series auto-sampler. LOD for each element were
147 defined as the mean blank value plus 3× standard deviations (Gray 1989, Wells et al. 2003).
148 Twenty elements were determined: Li, Na, Mg, Al[#], K, Ca, Mn, Fe*, Cu[#], Zn, As*, Rb, Sr,
149 Cd[#], Sn, Cs[#], Ba, La[#], Pb[#], U[#]. Elements affected by polyatomic interferences (*) and those
150 falling below the LOD (#) were subsequently removed from any further analysis (Gray 1989,
151 Evans & Ebdon 1990). Additionally, 4 samples were excluded due to their concentrations (μg
152 g^{-1}) being observed at higher levels than expected for all elements measured and thus
153 believed to be contaminated. From the initial 20 elements measured, 11 were quantifiable and
154 were found to be above theoretical LOD at the 8 nursery grounds (Li, Na, Mg, K, Ca, Mn,
155 Zn, Rb, Sr, Sn, and Ba).

156 **Statistical analysis**

157 Elemental concentrations were expressed as $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ otolith and were transformed to an
158 element:Ca ratio (Forrester & Swearer 2002, Swearer et al. 2003, Brown 2006a,b). Data for
159 each element were analysed for univariate normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) and
160 homogeneity of variance (Levene's test) (Minitab v.14.0), with the assumptions being met
161 following \log_{10} transformation of all 10 elements. Prior to the analysis of elemental
162 concentrations observed in juvenile plaice otoliths between nursery grounds, an assessment of
163 both left and right sagittal otoliths was performed. Results showed no significant differences
164 in the elemental concentrations of the 10 elements between otolith pairs (paired *t*-test; all $p >$
165 0.05). A combination of both univariate and multivariate statistical techniques was used to
166 investigate single and multi-elemental fingerprints of the otoliths from each of the 8 nursery
167 grounds. To analyse and quantify the variation in elemental composition of juvenile plaice
168 otoliths within and between the 8 nursery grounds, a multivariate analysis of variance
169 (MANOVA) using Wilks' criterion was performed followed by pairwise comparisons
170 between nursery sites. Examination of the differences in otolith chemical composition for
171 each element between the 8 nursery grounds was conducted using a 1-way ANOVA. Where
172 the ANOVA indicated significant differences, pairwise comparisons (Bonferroni test) were
173 used to identify which sampling locations differed from the others. Cross-validation linear
174 discriminant function analysis (CV-LDFA, SPSS v.16.0) was used to determine the accuracy
175 with which juvenile plaice could be classified back to their nursery ground of capture and
176 through geographical separation by region, i.e. north-west England (NWE) and north-west
177 Wales (NWW), based on the element concentrations within their otoliths (Clarke et al. 2007,
178 Ramsay et al. 2011). Canonical score plots were used to provide a visual representation of the
179 classification of individual fish back to their nursery ground. To evaluate the chance-
180 corrected agreement between the actual and predicted site of capture, Cohen's kappa statistic
181 was calculated. Scores range between 0 and 1, with 0 indicating no improvement to that
182 achieved by pure chance and 1 indicating perfect agreement in classification to site (Titus et
183 al. 1984, Ramsay et al. 2011).

184

RESULTS

185 Observations of the elemental box plots (Fig. 2) indicated apparent differences between
186 nursery grounds. Some elements indicated elevated concentrations at some sites, most
187 notably Zn, Rb and Sn at Hoylake and Zn at Benllech Beach. Similarly, elevated peaks of Mn
188 and Ba were observed at Ainsdale on Sea. Conversely, decreased Zn concentrations were
189 detected at Penmaenmawr and Llandulas, and decreased concentrations of Mg, K and Rb
190 were observed at the 3 most westerly sites, Llandulas, Penmaenmawr and Benllech Beach.

191 Multi-elemental fingerprints of otolith chemistry were found to differ significantly between
192 the 8 nursery grounds (MANOVA: $F_{10, 96} = 6.64$, $p < 0.001$), with significant differences
193 observed for all pairwise comparisons between the 8 nursery grounds sampled (Table 1). In
194 addition, an ANOVA on the otolith concentrations for each of the 10 elements measured
195 indicated significant differences between the 8 nursery grounds (Table 2). For each element,
196 post hoc Bonferroni pairwise comparisons revealed significant differences between sites,
197 most notably in the elements Mn, Zn, Rb and Sn (Table 2). Sn exhibited the most variability
198 among the 8 sampling locations (16 out of 28 pairwise comparisons). Similarly, Rb showed
199 significant differences in elemental concentrations between sites in 12 out of 28 pairwise
200 comparisons (Table 2).

201 Using CV-LDFA, 71.0% of juvenile plaice were correctly classified back to their nursery
202 ground of origin based on their elemental composition, with classification results ranging
203 from 46.2% for Seascale to 93.3% for Penmaenmawr (Table 3). The first 2 canonical
204 discriminant functions of the CV-LDFA explained 73.2% of the total variance and were
205 based on the differences in Li, K, Mn, Sr and Sn amongst the nursery grounds. Cohen's
206 kappa statistic indicated the chance corrected CV-LDFA classification was 0.66 (± 0.1
207 confidence intervals, CIs) for all elements between sites. Classification results showed that
208 where incorrectly classified, many of the fish were assigned to an adjacent nursery ground
209 (Table 3). For example, for fish collected from Heysham, 2 juvenile plaice were assigned to
210 Seascale and 2 to Cleveleys, both adjacent sites to Heysham. Similarly, 2 juvenile plaice from
211 Cleveleys were assigned to the adjacent site at Heysham. Two sites along the North Wales
212 coast, Llandulas and Benllech Beach, both had 2 juvenile plaice assigned to Penmaenmawr
213 (Table 3). Differences among the 8 nursery grounds can be seen when the first 2 discriminant
214 functions are plotted (Fig. 3).

215 Graphical separation using the 8 nursery grounds within the first 2 discriminant functions is
216 more apparent in Fig. 3 when the multi-element fingerprints of the 107 juveniles sampled
217 were separated by region, with sites sampled from NWW becoming distinguishable from
218 those juvenile fish sampled from NWE. CV-LDFA results indicated high classification
219 accuracy of juvenile *P. platessa*, with 82.2% (NWE: 53/63; NWW: 35/44) of cases correctly
220 assigned to their regional location of capture for the NWE and NWW (Fig. 3). Cohen's kappa
221 statistic indicated the CV-LDFA classification was 0.64 (± 0.1 CI) for all elements between
222 regional boundaries.

223

DISCUSSION

224 The use of otolith microchemistry in the present study allowed for the accurate classification
225 of an inshore population of juvenile plaice collected from 8 nursery grounds along the north-
226 western coast of England and Wales. Using a multi-element approach (Li, Na, Mg, K, Mn,
227 Zn, Rb, Sr, Sn and Ba), significant differences were found among sites, indicating the
228 potential use of these natural tags in distinguishing between individual nursery grounds for a
229 coastal marine species (Rooker et al. 2001b, Forrester & Swearer 2002, Brown 2006b).
230 Similarly, using a multi-element approach (11 elements; Table 4), Geffen et al. (2003)
231 reported high classification success for post-juvenile plaice collected from 5 sites in the

232 eastern Irish Sea, with their results revealing separation between groups of plaice that related
233 to previously identified spawning grounds within the Irish Sea (Dunn & Pawson 2002). In
234 general, otolith microchemistry in flatfishes has been very successful at identifying both
235 individual fish back to site and between sites over differing geographical ranges, i.e. 10s to
236 100s of km (see Table 4). Furthermore, the results attained during this study are comparable
237 with classification rates observed in similar otolith microchemistry studies in flatfish (range
238 70–92%, see Table 4) over a similar spatial scale (100s of km, see Table 4).

239 A multi-element approach in discriminating between populations in different geographical
240 locations has been regularly used in fishes (see Table 4). However, otolith microchemistry
241 studies in fishes have adopted 2 approaches, where the discriminant function analysis used to
242 classify fish back to source has used all measured elements or has selected a reduced set of
243 elements which were found to be statistically significant in discriminating between areas. A
244 comparison between these 2 analytical approaches was conducted by Vasconcelos et al.
245 (2007), who obtained high classification accuracies using a multi-element approach (Li, Na,
246 Mg, K, Mn, Cu, Zn, Sr, Ba and Pb) that allowed discrimination between populations (Table
247 4). However, reducing the set of elements in their discriminant analysis failed to improve
248 classification success, and Vasconcelos et al. (2007) concluded that the best outcome was to
249 use the larger dataset in the discrimination model. Adopting a similar analytical approach, the
250 data from the present study were re-analysed to determine whether classification success
251 could be improved by analysing a reduced set of statistically significant elements (in our
252 case; Li, K, Mn, Sr, Sn). However, we also found no improvement in our classification
253 success (CV-LDFA: 65.4%) compared to our initial analysis using all 10 elements, which
254 provided the most accurate discrimination among the 8 marine nursery grounds.

255 Some studies using biogeochemical tags to discriminate between geographical locations have
256 tended to focus on a small suite of elements that have similar ionic radii and ionic charge to
257 calcium, e.g. Mn, Sr and Ba (Swearer et al. 2003, Hedges et al. 2004, Clarke et al. 2007) and
258 which substitute for Ca in the otolith matrix, e.g. Mg (Rooker et al. 2001a, Swan et al. 2006).
259 However, focusing solely on the use of those elements which are the primary drivers
260 determining classification in microchemistry studies of freshwater and diadromous fishes
261 (e.g. Sr and Ba, Table 4) may not be as robust for microchemistry analysis for fish sampled
262 from marine waters (e.g. Mg, Mn, Sr, Ba: CV-LDFA: 31.8% this study) (Brown & Severin
263 2009).

264 To determine which elements are the primary drivers of spatial discrimination using otolith
265 microchemistry in differing waterbodies is beyond the scope of this paper. However, a review
266 of the elements used in such studies (Table 4) suggests that certain metals may contribute
267 more to spatial discrimination within fresh, estuarine and marine waters. For instance, in
268 estuarine environments, Mg, Mn, Sr and Cd are significant in discrimination between sites
269 (Table 4), whilst studies identifying the movement between estuarine and coastal waters have
270 identified Li, Mn, Rb and Sc as being significant in discriminant analyses (Table 4). In the
271 marine environment, Mn, Mg, Sr, Ba, Li, K and Pb have been identified as significant in
272 discrimination (Table 4). Using elements such as Li (due to its fluvial inputs from continents)
273 and Rb (due to higher dissolved concentrations in marine waters) may be advantageous in
274 discriminating fish from coastal/marine habitats from fish collected from freshwater/estuarine
275 habitats (Brown 2006a,b, Leakey et al. 2009). Similarly, Mn (due to its elevated particulate
276 phase within the marine environment) may be beneficial in future studies in distinguishing
277 fish from other non-marine environments (Leakey et al. 2009). Additionally, Mn may be
278 particularly useful in discriminating flatfish habitats due to the nature of their benthic lifestyle
279 and their close proximity to the sediment. The resuspension of those sediments via

280 bioturbation (Geffen et al. 2003) and the heavy metals associated with them may allow
281 benthic fluxes of Mn to be reflected in their otolith chemistry (Leakey et al. 2009).

282 One of the main obstacles found to limit the use of otolith microchemistry to identify
283 movement patterns in marine fish appears to be the homogeneous distribution of the more
284 reliably identified elements (Sturrock et al. 2012). However, the use of a larger suite of
285 elements such as Na, Mg, K, Zn, Rb, Sr and Sn and those elements deemed likely to prove
286 reliable geographical markers, such as Li, Mn and Ba (Sturrock et al. 2012), may increase the
287 complexity of the otolith elemental signature and extend the scope of those spatially explicit
288 low-level elements to allow for better classification results for fish sampled from marine
289 environments (Geffen et al. 2003, Vasconcelos et al. 2007, Leakey et al. 2009, Sturrock et al.
290 2012, this study). This was apparent when looking at marine studies conducted within close
291 proximity of each other (≤ 500 km, Table 4), where a larger set of elements (between 5 and
292 11) was necessary to discriminate between sampling locations compared to studies conducted
293 over larger geographical ranges (> 500 km), where 4 to 6 elements were used. However,
294 caution must be taken in using the elements just described in future studies as primary drivers
295 and should only be used in the context of the results for individual sites where all elements
296 measured from natural and anthropogenic inputs have been taken into account.

297 As analytical costs decrease the application of a multi-tag approach, using a combination of
298 trace elements and stable isotopes to observe movement patterns and assign origin of fish
299 over geologically diverse environments is becoming increasingly used in migration studies.
300 Studies of this nature have tended to look at population connectivity to reconstruct migratory
301 movements using elements such as Sr and Ba in conjunction with stable isotopes of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and
302 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in freshwater environments (Walther & Thorrold 2008, Walther et al. 2008, Whitley
303 2009). However, more recent studies on marine fish (including flatfishes) have also adopted a
304 dual isotope ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and multi-element approach to investigate otolith chemistry (e.g.
305 Dierking et al. 2012, Kajajian et al. 2014, Wells et al. 2015).

306 One explanation for the high classification observed for the present study may be due to the
307 life history patterns observed for juvenile plaice with their prolonged residency times on
308 defined nursery grounds (Dunn & Pawson 2002) during their first years of growth. Juvenile
309 (0-group) plaice have been found to exhibit both site fidelity and homing behaviour for their
310 chosen nursery ground (Burrows et al. 2004, Gibson et al. 2011), with tag and release studies
311 indicating when displaced juvenile plaice will return to their site of capture (Riley 1973,
312 Burrows et al. 2004). Although it is known that both 0-group and 1-group plaice enter
313 relatively deeper water to avoid colder temperatures during October and November, they
314 return to shallower depths the following spring (Wennhage et al. 2007). In addition, Riou et
315 al. (2001) showed that 1-group plaice are more numerous close to shore during spring and
316 autumn. Total residency times on nursery grounds for juvenile plaice can range between 1
317 and 3 yr before juveniles migrate into deeper water as they enter the sub-adult phase and
318 begin the process of sexual maturity (Nash et al. 1994, Dunn & Pawson 2002, Fox et al.
319 2007).

320 Thus, the spatial distribution patterns of juvenile plaice, combined with their site fidelity
321 make them a perfect species to show spatial signals using otolith microchemistry. The
322 utilization of integrated chemical signals from the various trace metals within the juvenile
323 plaice otoliths along the north-west coast of England and north Wales (including Anglesey)
324 suggest that both 1-group (present study) and 2/3-group plaice (Geffen et al. 2003) move
325 little from their chosen sites. However, if juvenile plaice were found to move, evidence would
326 suggest they move to sites which are in close proximity of each other, e.g. within a chosen
327 region, and have similar geologies and therefore similar chemical signals, a factor which

328 seems evident when we take into account the high classification accuracy observed within the
329 regional areas for this study.

330 Thorrold et al. (1998) stated that in order to identify fish back to source, all source locations
331 need to be sampled. By way of explanation, within the context of the present study, to assess
332 which nursery areas contribute the greatest proportions of juvenile fish to the adult stock
333 requires the sampling of all possible sources of recruits. For the present study, it was not
334 possible to sample all sources of juvenile plaice in the southeast Irish Sea, as it is likely that
335 these are not known. In addition, licensing conditions restricted how many sites could be
336 sampled, and accessibility to some sites was difficult (e.g. within Morecambe Bay).
337 However, fish were sampled from the major nursery grounds identified by previous studies
338 (Dunn & Pawson 2002, Fox et al. 2007, Ellis et al. 2012) which are likely to produce the
339 majority of recruits for the putative south-eastern Irish Sea stock. It is possible that plaice
340 larvae derived from spawning grounds in the western Irish Sea may be transported onto
341 nursery grounds in the eastern Irish Sea (Fox et al. 2009). However, we targeted 1-group
342 plaice in our study to ensure that the dominant chemical signal measured in the otolith would
343 be derived from the residency period on the nursery ground itself and any signal derived from
344 the mother or the pelagic larval phase would be significantly diluted.

345 Determining the connectivity between juvenile nursery grounds is critical if we are to
346 understand recruitment patterns and the relative importance of different nursery grounds to
347 the adult stocks (see review by Gillanders et al. 2003). The use of a multi-elemental otolith
348 tag in the present study suggests that it may be possible to identify adults to nursery ground
349 or region of origin by looking at the juvenile portion of the adult otoliths (Forrester &
350 Swearer 2002, Cuveliers et al. 2010). Given the relative sizes of the otoliths derived from
351 juvenile and adult plaice, it is likely that solution-based ICP-MS would be used on juvenile
352 otoliths whilst laser ablation ICP-MS would be used to assess the otolith core of adults. The
353 former approach would be used to obtain an integrated 'signature' for the juvenile, whereas
354 the latter would be used to derive the juvenile 'signature' for that fish. However, one must be
355 cautious when using 2 different analytical techniques to determine otolith elemental
356 concentrations, as both methods will vary in their sensitivity and detection limits (see
357 Campana 1999, de Pontual et al. 2000, Ludsin et al. 2006), which may affect which elements
358 are available for inclusion in the discriminant analysis.

359 The understanding of a stock's structure, ecology and, more importantly, the exchange rates
360 between spatially separated sub-populations of both juvenile fish and adults is essential for
361 future management programmes if we are to continue sustainable fishing (Tanner et al.
362 2012). To effectively manage a species, a clear understanding of habitat importance and
363 therefore its productivity in maintaining the population has to be identified (Chittaro et al.
364 2009). The use of otolith microchemistry has helped in classifying juvenile plaice to
365 individual nursery grounds for this study and possibly identifying a regional split hitherto
366 unknown. Although the role of dispersal in marine population dynamics is still incomplete
367 (Cook 2011), the use of natural chemical tags has enabled researchers to quantify these
368 movements. Furthermore, the use of established baselines based on the elemental chemistry
369 of these otoliths would further the understanding of movement and connectivity between
370 nursery grounds. In doing so, future assessments of those nursery grounds combined with
371 changes over temporal scales may assist in the understanding of their relative importance to
372 adult stocks and assist in the prioritization of management and conservation of the more
373 productive nursery grounds.

374 The site fidelity observed in juvenile plaice suggests that they are likely to experience the
375 same physical and biological conditions since settlement, and this, combined with their

376 natural homing trait (Burrows et al. 2004), makes them an ideal model to study inter-annual
377 variability (i.e. temporal stability) of the elemental ‘tag’ for local nursery grounds using
378 otolith microchemistry. A recent study using otoliths extracted from juvenile plaice collected
379 from 2 sites in north Wales found that the elemental concentrations of Mg, Na, K, Sr and Ba
380 varied little over an inter-annual (3 to 4 yr) period (Marriott 2014), further strengthening the
381 use of plaice as a study species to assess elemental changes over temporal scales.

382 The identification of natal origin of south-eastern Irish Sea plaice will allow future
383 management and conservation efforts to be directed towards prioritizing the more important
384 nursery and juvenile habitats within this area (in the form of recruitment rates of juveniles to
385 the adult population) and assist in future fisheries and integrated coastal management
386 (Vasconcelos et al. 2007, Cuveliers et al. 2010).

387

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Fig. 1. Geographical locations of the 8 juvenile European plaice *Pleuronectes platessa* nursery grounds (recognised by Dunn & Pawson 2002) along the north-west coasts of England and north Wales sampled during the present study

Fig. 2. Ten elements measured ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) in otoliths of juvenile European plaice *Pleuronectes platessa* collected from the 8 nursery grounds located in the south-eastern Irish Sea (see Fig. 1). Nursery grounds are defined as Ss: Seascale (n = 13 fish sampled), He: Heysham (n = 15), Cl: Cleveleys (n = 15), As: Ainsdale on Sea (n = 14), Hl: Hoylake (n = 6), Lld: Llandulas (n = 15), Pen: Penmaenmawr (n = 15) and BB: Benllech Beach (n = 14)

Fig. 3. Allocation of juvenile European plaice *Pleuronectes platessa* to their sampling sites based on linear discriminant function analysis observed in Table 3 using the elements Li, Na, Mg, K, Mn, Zn, Rb, Sr, Sn and Ba

Table 2. ANOVA results (*F*-values) for comparisons of elemental concentrations in the otoliths of juvenile European plaice *Pleuronectes platessa* from the 8 nursery grounds sampled in the eastern Irish Sea. Post hoc pairs indicate the number of pairs of sites (out of a total of 28 pairs) which showed significant differences ($p < 0.05$) in element concentrations using Bonferroni post hoc comparisons. Sites that significantly differ from others are preceded by >, sites in **bold** indicate a significant difference at $p < 0.001$. Site codes (Ss, He, Cl, As, Hl, Lld, Pen and BB) are defined in Fig. 2

Element	Site effect $F_{7, 99} =$	p	Post hoc pairs	Between-site differences
Li	6.11	<0.05	6	As > He, Lld , Pen; Lld > Ss, Cl, BB
Na	8.75	<0.05	9	Pen > Ss , Cl, As , Hl , BB; As, Hl > He, Lld
Mg	6.77	<0.05	8	As > He, Lld , Pen , BB; Hl > Lld, Pen, BB; Pen > Cl
K	9.20	<0.05	7	Pen > Ss , He , Cl , As , Hl , BB; Lld > As
Mn	12.58	<0.05	11	Pen > He, Cl, As , Lld ; BB > Ss , He , Cl , As , Hl, Lld ; As > Ss
Zn	9.56	<0.05	10	Hl > Ss, He, As, Lld , Pen ; Lld > Cl, BB; Pen > Ss, Cl, BB
Rb	12.20	<0.05	12	Hl > He, Cl; Lld , Pen , BB; Lld > Ss, He, As; Pen > Ss , He, Cl, As
Sr	4.51	<0.05	4	He > Ss, As, BB; Ss > Lld
Sn	18.09	<0.05	16	Hl > ALL ; As >, Ss, Cl, BB ; Lld > Ss, Cl, BB ; Pen > Ss, Cl, BB
Ba	5.64	<0.05	5	As > Cl, Lld, Pen, BB; Cl > Ss

Table 3. Allocation of juvenile European plaice *Pleuronectes platessa* among nursery grounds by cross validation linear discriminate function analysis (CV-LDFA) using multi-elemental fingerprints (Li, Na, Mg, K, Mn, Zn, Rb, Sr, Sn and Ba; $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$). Numbers in **bold** indicate fish correctly classified to their nursery ground of capture, with percentage correct in parentheses. Total n = number of individuals analysed with total percentage of correctly classified fish in parentheses. Shaded panels indicate adjacent sites to the original site of capture to which fish were attributed

	Predicted nursery ground						
	Seascale	Heysham	Cleveleys	Ainsdale on Sea	Hoylake	Llandulas	Penmaenmawr
Actual nursery ground							
Seascale	6 (46.2%)	0	2	2	0	0	
Heysham	2	8 (53.3%)	2	0	0	3	
Cleveleys	2	2	10 (66.7%)	0	0	0	
Ainsdale on Sea	1	0	0	13 (92.9%)	0	0	
Hoylake	1	0	1	0	4 (66.7%)	0	
Llandulas	0	2	0	0	0	11 (73.3%)	
Penmaenmawr	0	1	0	0	0	0	14 (87.5%)
Benllech Beach	0	0	2	0	0	0	

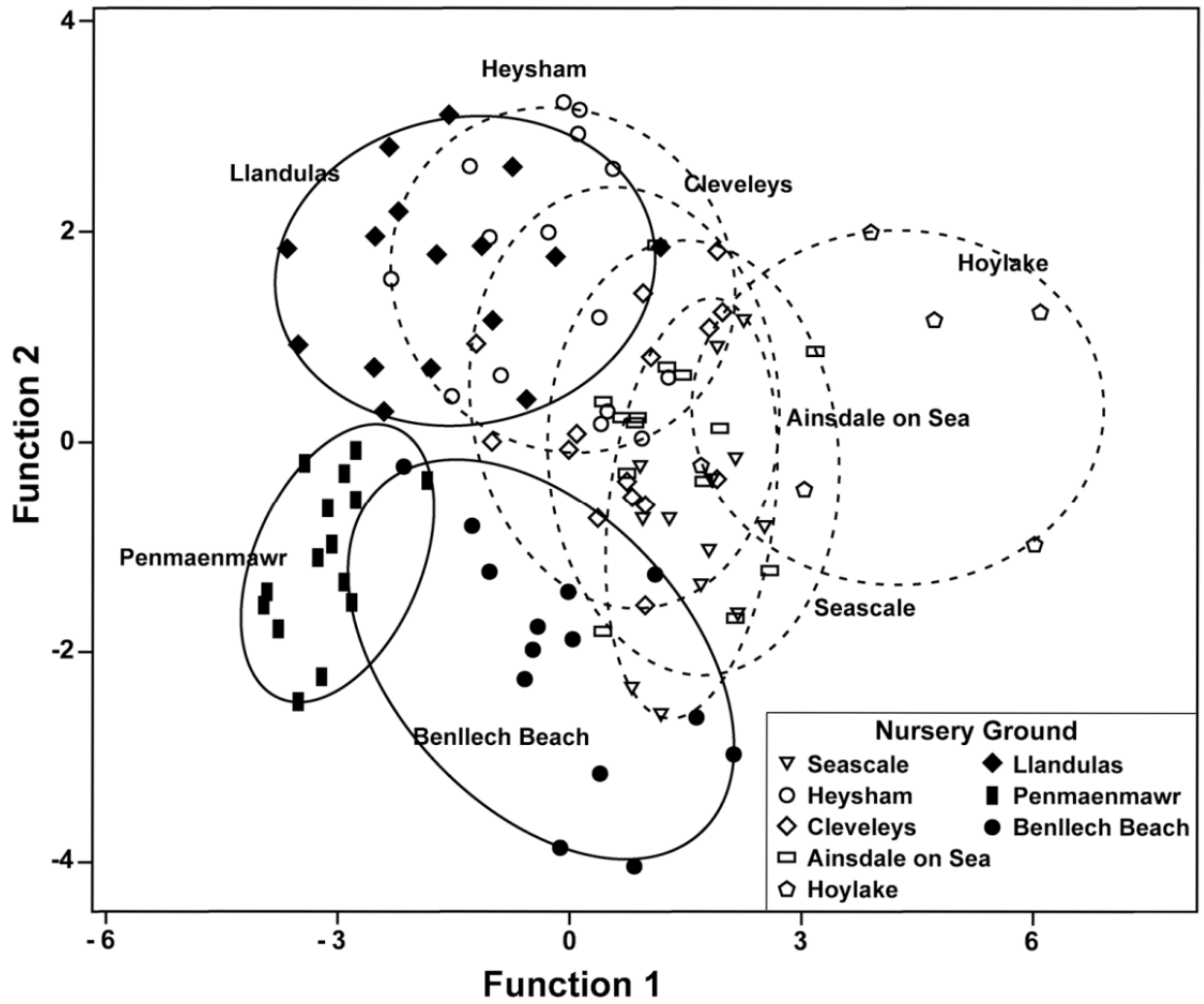


Fig. 3. Allocation of juvenile European plaice *Pleuronectes platessa* to their sampling sites based on linear discriminant function analysis observed in Table 3 using the elements Li, Na, Mg, K, Mn, Zn, Rb, Sr, Sn and Ba

Table 4. Summary of recently published data examining the number of elements used in otolith microchemistry, the number tested and those significant to discriminate between movement patterns of fish from fresh, estuarine, coastal and marine waters using inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). Data are organised by water bodies. Est-Coast: estuarine and coastal water, DFA: discriminant function analysis, OES/AES: optical/atomic emission spectrometry, LA: laser ablation, sb = solution based

Water	No. Sites	Distance (km)	Elements measured	Tested in DFA	Significant elements	Species	Classification to site (%)	ICP-MS	Author(s)
Fresh	8	100 ^a	Na, K, Mg, Mn, Sr, Ba	K, Mg, Mn, Sr, Ba	K, Mn, Sr, Ba	<i>Perca flavescens</i>	62–100	sb and AES	Brazner et al. (2004)
Fresh	4	130	Mg, Mn, Sr, Ba	All	Mg, Mn, Sr, Ba	<i>Salmo salar</i>	84–100	LA	Veinott & Porter (2005)
Fresh	4	170	Mg, Mn, Zn, Sr, Ba	All	Mg, Mn, Zn, Sr, Ba	<i>Salmo trutta</i>	95–97	LA	Veinott et al. (2012)
Fresh	9	600	Mg, Mn, Zn, Sr, Ba	All	Mn, Ba	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	91–96	LA	Veinott & Porter (2013)
Estuarine	2 2	200	Li, Mg, Mg, Al, Fe, Mn, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Cu, Zn, As, Rb, Mo, Cd, Sn, Ba, Hg, Tl, Pb, Th, U.	Mn, Sr As, Fe, Sr	Mn, Sr As, Fe, Sr	<i>Solea solea</i>	73 79	LA	de Pontual et al. (2000)
Estuarine	2 2	“	Li, Mg, Mg, Al, Fe, Mn, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Cu, Zn, As, Rb, Mo, Cd, Sn, Ba, Hg, Tl, Pb, Th, U.	Mg, Cd Li, Mg, Rb, Cd, Th	Mg, Cd Li, Mg, Rb, Cd, Th	<i>Solea solea</i>	89 91	sb	de Pontual et al. (2000)
Estuarine	7	500	Li, Mg, Mn, Cu, Sr, Ba, Pb	All	Mg, Mn ^b Mg, Ba ^b	<i>Solea solea</i> , <i>S. senegalensis</i>	71–81	LA	Tanner et al. (2012)
Est-Coast	9	165 ^a	Mn, Cu, Sr, Ba, Pb	Cu	Cu	<i>Paralichthys californicus</i>	76 and 86	sb	Forrester & Swearer (2002)
Est-Coast	9	“	Mn, Cu, Sr, Ba, Pb	Pb	Pb	<i>Paralichthys californicus</i>	68 and 87	sb	Forrester & Swearer (2002)
Est-Coast	9	“	Mn, Cu, Sr, Ba, Pb	Cu, Pb	Cu, Pb	<i>Paralichthys californicus</i>	81 and 84	sb	Forrester & Swearer (2002)
Est-Coast	18	500	Li, Mn, Sr, Ba	All	Li, Sr ^c	<i>Pleuronectes vetulus</i>	73–87	sb	Brown (2006b)
Est-Coast	18	“	Li, Mn, Sr, Ba	All	Sr ^c	<i>Citharichthys stigmaeus</i>	58–89	sb	Brown (2006b)
Est-Coast	10-10	300	Sr, Sc, P, Na, Y, Rb, Mn, Mg, Li	All	Li, Sc, Mn, Rb	<i>Solea solea</i>	100	sb	Leakey et al. (2009)

Est-Coast	10-10	^c	Cu, Ni, Sc, Na, Y, Rb, Mn, Li	All	Li, Sc, Mn, Rb	<i>Merlangius merlangus</i>	95	sb	Leakey et al. (2009)
Est-Coast	13-5	^c	Sc, Ba, Rb, Mn, Li	All	Li, Sc, Mn, Rb	<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	100	sb	Leakey et al. (2009)
Est-Coast	17	5000 ^a	Li, Ca, Mn, Sr, Ba	All	Ba	<i>Polydactylus macrochir</i>	Various	LA	Moore & Simpfendorfer (2014)
Marine	3	1000 ^a	Li, Mg, Mn, Ca, Sr, Ba	All	Li, Mg, Mn	<i>Thunnus orientalis</i>	75 and 100	sb	Rooker et al. (2001b)
Marine	5	7000 ^a	Li, Mg, Mn, Ca, Sr, Ba	All	Li, Mg, Mn, Sr	<i>Thunnus thynnus</i>	62–80	sb	Rooker et al. (2003)
Marine	5	100 ^a	B, Mg, Al, Sc, Ti, Cr, Mn, Ni, Cu, Sr, Ba	All	Mg, Al, Sc, Mn, Ni, Sr, Ba	<i>Pleuronectes platessa</i>	92	sb	Geffen et al. (2003)
Marine	8	500	Li, Na, Mg, K, Mn, Cu, Zn, Sr, Ba, Pb	All	Li, K, Mn, Zn	<i>Solea solea</i>	67–100	sb	Vasconcelos et al. (2007)
Marine	8	^c	Li, Na, Mg, K, Mn, Cu, Zn, Sr, Ba, Pb	All	Na, Mg, Mn, Cu, Sr	<i>Solea senegalensis</i>	75–100	sb	Vasconcelos et al. (2007)
Marine	8	^c	Li, Na, Mg, K, Mn, Cu, Zn, Sr, Ba, Pb	All	Li, Na, Mn	<i>Platichthys flesus</i>	80–100	sb	Vasconcelos et al. (2007)
Marine	8	^c	Li, Na, Mg, K, Mn, Cu, Zn, Sr, Ba, Pb	All	Li, K, Mn, Ba, Pb	<i>Diplodus vulgaris</i>	77–100	sb	Vasconcelos et al. (2007)
Marine	8	^c	Li, Na, Mg, K, Mn, Cu, Zn, Sr, Ba, Pb	All	Mg, Mn, Sr, Ba, Pb	<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	67–90	sb	Vasconcelos et al. (2007)
Marine	4	300 ^a	Na, Mg, Mn, Co, Cu, Zn, Rb, Sr, Ba, Pb	Na, Mg, Mn, Rb, Sr, Ba	Mg, Mn, Ba	<i>Solea solea</i>	72–100	LA	Cuveliers et al. (2010)
Marine	21	200	Mg, Mn, Zn, Sr, Ba, Ce, Pb	All	Mg, Zn, Sr, Ba, Ce, Pb ^d	<i>Stegastes partitus</i>	52–99	LA	Chittaro & Hogan (2013)
Marine	4	200	Mg, Mn, Sr, Ba, Pb	All	Mn, Ba	<i>Merluccius productus</i>	59–88	LA	Chittaro et al. (2013)
Marine	4	1100	Mg, Mn, Sr, Ba	All	Sr, Ba	<i>Gadus morhua</i>	66–78	LA	D'Avignon & Rose (2013)
Marine	8	200	Li, Na, Mg, K, Mn, Zn, Rb, Sr, Sn, Ba	All	Li, K, Mn, Sr, Sn	<i>Pleuronectes platessa</i>	46–93	sb	This study

^aDistances are approximate linear measurements and are taken from the 2 farthest sampling locations

^bData taken from the inter-annual variability observed from the 1st and 2nd canonical variations for both species

^cData taken from the region-reduced model for both species

^dData taken from the region-wide scale model