

McMillan, Matthew N , Izzo, Christopher , Junge, Claudia , Albert, Ole Thomas , Jung, Armelle & Gillanders, Bronwyn M 2017, Analysis of vertebral chemistry to assess stock structure in a deep-sea shark, *Etmopterus spinax*, *ICES Journal of Marine Science*, vol. 74, no. 3, pp. 793-803

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<https://academic.oup.com/icesjms/article/74/3/793/2418183>

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/icesjms/fsw176>

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23 April 2018

16

Abstract

17 Deep-sea sharks play a valuable ecological role helping maintain food web balance, yet they
18 are vulnerable to commercial fishing due to slow growth rates and low reproductive capacity.
19 Overfishing of sharks can heavily impact marine ecosystems and the fisheries these support.
20 Knowledge of stock structure is integral to sustainable management of fisheries. The present
21 study analysed vertebral chemistry using laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass
22 spectrometry (LA ICP-MS) to assay concentrations of ^7Li , ^{23}Na , ^{24}Mg , ^{55}Mn , ^{59}Co , ^{60}Ni ,
23 ^{63}Cu , ^{66}Zn , ^{85}Rb , ^{88}Sr , ^{138}Ba and ^{203}Pb to assess stock structure in a deep-sea shark,
24 *Etmopterus spinax*, in Norwegian and French waters. Few studies have applied this technique
25 to elasmobranch vertebrae and the present study represents its first application to a deep-sea
26 shark. Three stocks were identified at the regional scale off Western Norway, Southern
27 Norway and France. At finer spatial scales there was evidence of strong population mixing.
28 Overall, the general pattern of stock structure outlined herein provides some indication of the
29 spatial scales at which stocks should be viewed as distinct fisheries management units. The
30 identification of an effective multi-element signature for distinguishing *E. spinax* stocks
31 utilising Sr, Ba, Mg, Zn and Pb and the methodological groundwork laid in the present study
32 could also expedite future research into stock structure for *E. spinax* and deep-sea
33 elasmobranchs more generally.

34

35 **Keywords:** stock structure, shark, deep-sea, vertebral chemistry, LA ICP-MS.

36 INTRODUCTION

37 Deep-sea sharks perform a valuable ecological function maintaining the balance of food webs
38 that support fisheries, however they are heavily impacted by sustained commercial fishing
39 pressure (Neiva et al., 2006; Xavier et al., 2012). These species are slow growing and late
40 maturing with low fecundities, limiting their capacity to rebound from population impacts
41 such as overfishing (Coelho and Erzini, 2008; Simpfendorfer and Kyne, 2009). Information
42 about their biology and habitat use would be useful to inform management, but is limited due
43 to logistical difficulties in studying live specimens associated with the great depths at which
44 they live (Neiva et al., 2006).

45 The reproductive capacity of deep-sea squalid sharks such as *Etmopterus spinax* is
46 often constrained by low fecundity and long reproductive cycles, making them particularly
47 vulnerable to population impacts such as overfishing and requiring effective management. A
48 prerequisite for effective management is to define stock boundaries to delimit harvestable
49 units and determine spatial scales at which fisheries can best be managed (Fowler et al.,
50 2005; Haddon, 2007; Secor, 2013). However, little is known about population structuring in
51 deep-sea sharks (Veríssimo et al., 2011). This information is important for fisheries
52 management where the delineation of stock boundaries provides a tool to distinguish groups
53 of fish affected by stressors like fishing pressure and which recognises stock boundaries may
54 not be contiguous units but rather comprise aggregations of spatially separated populations
55 connected by migration (Haddon, 2007; Secor, 2013).

56 Migration in marine species can be assessed using artificial, genetic or chemical tags
57 to trace movements between populations. Artificial tags are fastened to captured individuals
58 before release and reveal movements upon recapture or via transmission to receivers.
59 However, artificial tags are typically unsuitable for deep-sea species due to high mortality
60 arising from rapid temperature or pressure changes involved in capture and release (Kyne and

61 Simpfendorfer, 2007). Genetic tags have also been widely applied to assess population/stock
62 structure in marine species (e.g. Ovenden et al., 2015). However, genetic tags are more
63 informative for long term gene flow patterns across generations (genetic connectivity) than
64 movements of individuals at ecological timescales within generations (demographic
65 connectivity); the latter are more informative for stock management (Hellberg et al., 2002;
66 Thorrold et al., 2002).

67 Natural element and isotope tags (henceforth ‘natural tags’) are found in calcified
68 body parts of aquatic organisms (e.g. otoliths of bony fishes, statoliths of cephalopods, shells
69 of molluscs and vertebrae of elasmobranchs) (Campana, 1999). They comprise chemical
70 signatures absorbed from the ambient environment and are stored in concentrations that can
71 reflect environmental element loads (Thorrold et al., 2002; Gillanders, 2009). Differences in
72 elements between areas can result from differences in nutrient input emerging from variation
73 in tides, hydrology, underlying geology, precipitation, upwelling and terrestrial inputs
74 (Elsdon et al., 2008). By incorporating elements from the surrounding environment in
75 concentrations reflective of environmental exposure, natural tags can help identify groups of
76 fish that spend time in waters of similar chemistry and inform about population boundaries,
77 movements and population connectivity (Gillanders and Kingsford, 1996; Elsdon et al.,
78 2008).

79 In contrast to highly crystallised aragonitic teleost otoliths, elasmobranch vertebral
80 centra are composed of cartilaginous tissue surrounded by an extra-cellular matrix
81 mineralised by crystals of calcium phosphate hydroxyapatite (Dean and Summers, 2006). The
82 relatively poorly crystallised apatite of elasmobranch vertebral centra is not analogous to the
83 highly crystallised aragonite of otoliths and therefore can be expected to behave differently.
84 Nonetheless, apatite accretion of elasmobranch centra forms a permanently mineralised
85 marginal crust that remains metabolically inert and unaltered throughout an individual’s

86 lifetime (Doyle, 1968; Clement, 1992); and is thus suitable for elemental analysis. In this way
87 the apatite of elasmobranch centra differs from the transitional hydroxyapatite of teleost bone
88 that is reworked (Clement, 1992; Ashhurst, 2004). This chemical stability of elasmobranch
89 vertebrae is an important distinction, as earlier work suggested that elasmobranch centra do
90 not comprise a 'closed' system (Welden et al., 1987); inferring the potential for chemical
91 alteration through leaching etc. However, direct histological examination has found no
92 evidence of reworking of vertebral material in elasmobranch centra (Clement, 1992) and the
93 retention of vertebral bomb radiocarbon signatures throughout the lives of elasmobranchs
94 (Campana et al., 2002) support the closed system hypothesis and suggest the suitability of
95 these structures for elemental analyses (Hussey et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2013; Kerr and
96 Campana, 2014).

97 Elasmobranch vertebral centra can incorporate trace elements via substitution of
98 elements that are similar to calcium at concentrations that may reflect their abundance in the
99 ambient environment (Edmonds et al., 1996; Tillett et al., 2011), however the exact mode of
100 inclusion for particular elements requires further study. Studies involving synthetic
101 hydroxyapatites and apatite of other marine taxa suggest the principal mode of inclusion is
102 via direct substitution for Ca for elements including Ba (Wells et al., 2000), Cd (Bigi et al.,
103 1991; Wells et al., 2000), Fe (Pon-On et al., 2008), Li (Mayer et al., 1986), Mg (Aoba et al.,
104 1992), Mn (Pon-On et al., 2008), Pb (Bigi et al., 1991) and Sr (Schoenberg, 1963; Wells et
105 al., 2000), while Zn is included through entrapment in interstitial spaces (Tang et al., 2009).
106 Natural tags in elasmobranch vertebrae may be informative for assessing stock boundaries
107 when assayed at the growing vertebral edge, whose chemistry corresponds to site of capture
108 (Izzo et al., in press). Experimental evidence indicates such signatures may be accumulated in
109 elasmobranchs after as little as three weeks residency in a particular area (Werry et al., 2011).

110

111 *Ecology of E. spinax*

112 *Etmopterus spinax*, the velvet belly lanternshark, is a small, bioluminescent shark reaching
113 around 50 cm total length (TL) and 11 years in age and inhabits the continental slope and
114 shelf to depths of approximately 2200 m (Sion et al., 2004; Gennari and Scacco, 2007;
115 Aranha et al., 2009). Currently listed as Near Threatened in the Northeast Atlantic (Coelho et
116 al., 2009), *E. spinax* is a common bycatch species with the catch routinely discarded in
117 commercial deep sea trawl and longline fisheries targeting species such as northern prawn
118 (*Pandalus borealis*), Norway lobster (*Nephrops norvegicus*), red shrimp (*Aristeus*
119 *antennatus*) and European hake (*Merluccius merluccius*) (Coelho and Erzini, 2008; Aranha et
120 al., 2009). Commercial landings of velvet belly lanternshark have declined since the 2010 EU
121 regulation of zero total allowable catch (TAC) came into force; however it is likely that
122 discards have increased (ICES, 2014).

123 Little is known about the ecology or movements of *E. spinax* throughout its range.
124 Diet differs among regions, although crustaceans, teleost fishes and cephalopods appear to
125 form important components across the species range (Serena et al., 2006; Fanelli et al., 2009)
126 and ontogenetic shifts in diet from crustaceans to teleosts and cephalopods have been
127 reported (Neiva et al., 2006; Fanelli et al., 2009). Depth segregation is reported by size (and
128 to a lesser extent by sex), with size increasing with depth (Massutí and Moranta, 2003;
129 Serena et al., 2006). Juveniles are distributed in shallower waters that serve as nursery areas,
130 while gravid females undertake pupping migrations into shallower waters and mature males
131 and non-gravid females remain offshore (Sion et al., 2004; Coelho and Erzini, 2010).
132 Females have been reported to dominate depths >600 m (Coelho and Erzini, 2010).

133 Late term gravid females occur in summer months (Coelho and Erzini, 2008; Aranha
134 et al., 2009) and pups are born at around 9 cm TL with mean fecundity around 8 pups
135 (Coelho and Erzini, 2008). Length at maturity has been recorded to vary among regions from

136 25 to 28 cm TL for males and 30 to 34 cm TL for females (Coelho et al., 2010). While sex
137 ratio has been reported to favour females in the Atlantic (~2:1) (Coelho and Erzini, 2005;
138 Aranha et al., 2009), they have been reported approximately equal in the Mediterranean up to
139 30 cm TL after which females dominate and reach greater lengths than males (Sion et al.,
140 2004; Serena et al., 2006). The aplacental viviparous reproductive cycle may last 2 to 3 years
141 with breeding thought to occur in winter months (Coelho and Erzini, 2008), when sex
142 segregation could be expected to be less apparent as mature females mix with males in deep
143 water breeding grounds.

144

145 *Aims*

146 Elemental analysis of elasmobranch vertebrae to answer ecological questions is a relatively
147 novel technique, used to assess stock structure in only two known studies to date (Schroeder
148 et al., 2010; Izzo et al., in press), though it has been used more widely to investigate natal
149 signatures (Tillett et al., 2011; Lewis et al., 2016) and as an environmental tracer (Werry et
150 al., 2011; Scharer et al., 2012; Smith et al., 2013). The present study analysed vertebral
151 chemistry of *Etmopterus spinax* as a means of investigating stock structure in a deep-sea
152 shark for the first time, seeking to assess both temporal variation in elemental concentrations
153 over sampling years and spatial variation among sampling sites and regions.

154

155 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

156 *Specimen collection*

157 Specimens of *E. spinax* were collected as bycatch from annual demersal trawl surveys
158 assessing French fish stocks (two locations in October-November 2013) and the Norwegian

159 shrimp fishery (four locations in January-February 2014) (Fig. 1, Table 1). Additional
160 samples from Langesund (Norway) were obtained from annual recreational fishing
161 competitions in August 2012 and 2013 (Table 1). Samples obtained in these two years
162 provided an opportunity to assess temporal variation in vertebral chemistry and therefore
163 validate comparisons of elemental signatures collected over multiple years. A section ($n = 3$
164 to 6) of pre-dorsal vertebrae were dissected and stored in ethanol. Where possible specimen
165 total length (TL in cm) and sex (based on the presence of external sexual organs) were
166 recorded (Table 1). Environmental data were only recorded for samples from the Norwegian
167 shrimp survey and showed little variation (temperature ranged from 6 to 8°C and salinity was
168 constant at ~35 ppt).

169

170 *Vertebral preparation*

171 Vertebral centra were separated and cleaned of adjoining tissue before being oven dried at
172 50°C for 24 h (Fig. 2a). One vertebra per individual was embedded in an epoxy resin (Epofix,
173 Struers) spiked with 40 ppm indium (^{115}In), which was used as a resin indicator when
174 undertaking elemental analyses. Embedded vertebrae were sectioned sagittally into 500 μm
175 thick sections using a low speed diamond saw (Isomet, Buehler) (Fig. 2b). Sections were wet
176 polished using progressively finer grades of lapping film (30, 9 and 3 μm) before being
177 rinsed in ultrapure water and air dried. Sections were then mounted onto glass microscope
178 slides using In-spiked thermoplastic glue (Crystalbond™ 509). Slides were stored separately
179 in snap lock bags and cleaned with ethanol before elemental analysis.

180

181 *Elemental analysis*

182 Vertebral element composition was quantified using an Agilent 7500cs inductively coupled
183 plasma-mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) coupled to a New Wave Nd Yag 213 nm UV laser
184 (housed at Adelaide Microscopy). Laser operating parameters were maintained throughout all
185 ablations (see Supplementary materials Table S1). It was the intention of the present study to
186 relate elemental signatures to age and so investigate life time elemental histories and
187 population connectivity. However, vertebrae did not have visible age increments (Fig. 2),
188 which made it impossible to relate elemental profiles to age with confidence, despite many
189 efforts using various techniques in attempts to elicit age increments. Ablations therefore
190 consisted of discrete (40 μm) transects at the vertebral edge and were assumed to represent
191 the region of capture (Ashford et al., 2005).

192 Elements to be analysed were selected on the basis of use in previous studies
193 investigating both vertebral chemistry in elasmobranchs and otolith chemistry in deep-sea
194 bony fishes. Concentrations were measured for the following elements: ^7Li , ^{23}Na , ^{24}Mg ,
195 ^{55}Mn , ^{59}Co , ^{60}Ni , ^{63}Cu , ^{66}Zn , ^{85}Rb , ^{88}Sr , ^{138}Ba and ^{203}Pb . Concentrations of ^{43}Ca and ^{115}In
196 were also measured to provide the basis of element:Ca ratios for statistical analysis and to
197 exclude any non-vertebral material respectively.

198 National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) glass reference standard 612
199 (values given in Pearce et al., 1997) was ablated before, after and periodically throughout
200 each ablation session to measure instrument drift and precision. All elements were within
201 precision thresholds (coefficients of variation $< 10\%$), with the exception of Na and Mn
202 which were omitted from subsequent analyses. Raw count data were converted to elemental

203 concentrations (in ppm) using the Glitter software program Version 3.0 ([http://www.glitter-](http://www.glitter-gemoc.com/)
204 [gemoc.com/](http://www.glitter-gemoc.com/)) and normalised to Ca (in mmol mol⁻¹) in Microsoft Excel.

205

206 *Statistical analysis*

207 Data were quality filtered by removing outliers with elemental concentrations in excess of
208 three standard deviations from the mean (McCune et al., 2002). Such outliers are
209 commonplace in carbonate element analysis and may reflect instrumental noise rather than
210 ecologically relevant values (Smith et al., 2013). In total, 13 values were identified as outliers
211 and omitted. Element data were log($x+1$) transformed and fit to an Euclidean distance
212 resemblance matrix using the Primer software program Version 6 ([http://www.primer-](http://www.primer-e.com/)
213 [e.com/](http://www.primer-e.com/)). Element concentrations were analysed individually and as a multi-element signature
214 using single factor permutational univariate and multivariate analyses of variance (ANOVA)
215 respectively with site/region and gender as fixed factors (Anderson, 2001). For all tests, 4999
216 unrestricted permutations and Monte Carlo simulations of the data were performed.

217 Preliminary analyses indicated that vertebral chemistry did not differ among sharks
218 caught in Langesund in 2012 and 2013 (see Supplementary materials Table S2). Hence,
219 samples collected from all years were used in the spatial analyses (Table 1), with sampling
220 site as a fixed factor. Where significant differences were found among sampling sites, *post*
221 *hoc* pairwise *t*-tests were used to determine which sites differed. Although sex data were not
222 complete for all datasets (Table 1), sex was investigated as a cofactor in spatial analyses
223 where available ($n = 125$).

224 For the multi-element signature, stepwise discriminant function analysis (DFA) was
225 used to remove redundant elements contributing little discriminatory power using the SPSS

226 Statistics software package Version 20
227 (www.ibm.com/software/au/analytics/spss/products/statistics/). Canonical analysis of
228 principle coordinates (CAP, Anderson and Willis, 2003), using a leave one out data fitting
229 approach, was used to assess spatial discrimination among sampling sites. On the basis of
230 CAP classification success and pairwise comparisons between sites, broader spatial regions
231 sharing similar elemental signatures were identified. Spatial differences among regions were
232 assessed using the same multivariate analysis of variance and multivariate discriminant
233 analyses outlined above.

234 **RESULTS**

235 *Spatial variation among sampling sites*

236 The multi-element signature and the individual element:Ca ratios for Mg, Zn, Sr, Ba and Cu
237 differed significantly among sampling sites (Table 2). *Post hoc* canonical analysis of
238 principal coordinates (CAP) for the multi-element signature suggested the Brest (France),
239 Biscay (France) and Bergen (Norway) sites differed from the other sampling sites, which
240 generally overlapped (Fig. 3). Total correct classification of sites based on the multi-element
241 signature was only 39%, however classification success differed among sites ranging from
242 0% at Skagerrak East to 60% at Biscay.

243 Mean element:Ca ratios for each site suggested Sr as a potentially useful indicator for
244 spatial variation with high mean values for western Norwegian sites and lower concentrations
245 in eastern Norway and France (Fig. 4). Variance in Mg:Ca, Zn:Ca and Cu:Ca was high (Fig.
246 4). Mean concentrations for Ba appeared similar among all sites except Biscay (France) in the
247 far south of the study area, which had significantly lower Ba concentrations (Fig. 4).

248 *Post hoc* pairwise analyses revealed that Flekkefjord (Norway) differed from all other
249 sampling sites for the multi-element signature and Mg:Ca, while differences between
250 Flekkefjord and other sites for other elements were less uniform (see Supplementary
251 materials Table S3, Fig. 4). Bergen (western Norway) differed from most sites for Zn:Ca and
252 Sr:Ca. Langesund (eastern Norway) and both French sites were similar for Sr:Ca, however
253 they differed from each other and most other sites for Cu:Ca (only Skagerrak West and
254 Flekkefjord were similar to Langesund for Cu:Ca). In addition to Cu:Ca, the two French sites
255 differed from each other only for Ba:Ca, whereby Biscay differed from all other sites for
256 Ba:Ca.

257 There was no significant difference in the multi-element signature based on gender
258 ($F(1,113) = 0.4, p = 0.63$) or interactions between site and gender ($F(5,113) = 1.6, p = 0.15$),
259 indicating females had not spent more or less time within sites than males (i.e. they had taken
260 on similar signatures).

261

262 *Spatial variation among regions*

263 Based on results of fine scale spatial variation among sampling sites, three broad
264 geographical regions were identified: Western Norway (Bergen: $n = 17$), Southern Norway
265 (all other Norwegian sites (4): $n = 85$), and France (both French sites: $n = 43$). Element:Ca
266 ratios differed significantly among regions for the multi-element signature and for each of Zn,
267 Sr and Ba (Table 2, Fig. 5). Pairwise analyses indicated the multi-element signature and
268 Zn:Ca differed among all regions with the exception of Southern Norway and France, Sr:Ca
269 differed among all regions, and Ba:Ca differed between Southern Norway and France (Table
270 3, Fig. 5). At the regional scale the multi-element signature did not differ between sexes

271 ($F(1,119) = 0.4, p = 0.61$), nor was there a significant interaction between region and gender
272 ($F(2,119) = 2.4, p = 0.07$).

273 Stepwise omission of elements contributing no discriminatory power using DFA gave
274 rise to a refined multi-element signature comprising Sr, Ba, Mg, Zn and Pb concentrations
275 that accounted for 100% of modelled variation among samples. Total CAP classification
276 success for the multi-element signature was greater (64%) for sampling regions than for
277 individual sampling sites (39%), and overlap among sampling regions was reduced, though
278 still apparent (Fig. 3). Classification to region of capture was: Western Norway = 47%;
279 Southern Norway = 68%; France = 60%.

280

281 **DISCUSSION**

282 Knowledge of stock structure is integral to determining appropriate spatial scales for fisheries
283 management units (Compagno and Fowler, 2005; Haddon, 2007; Secor, 2013). Despite this,
284 shark stock structures remain poorly understood. The present study suggests that trace
285 element signatures in the vertebrae of *E. spinax* can be used to distinguish stocks of the
286 species at regional scales.

287

288 *Fine scale stock structuring*

289 Among sampling sites, the finest spatial scale assessed, sites that differed for the multi-
290 element signature also differed for Mg:Ca, suggesting that Mg:Ca was the principal driver of
291 differentiation at the fine scale. The multi-element signature was not powerful enough to
292 distinguish most sampling sites at such fine scales and low classification success suggested
293 considerable overlap among sampling sites within regions.

294 Magnesium is conservative in seawater, with its concentration varying with salinity
295 (Quinby-Hunt and Turehian, 1983). The very low Mg:Ca for samples from Flekkefjord
296 (Norway), which differentiated it from other sites, may thus result from its location at the
297 mouth of a deep river-fed fjord. Magnesium has been used to trace movements of
298 elasmobranchs along salinity gradients (Tillett et al., 2011; Werry et al., 2011) and is
299 generally higher in freshwater than in seawater (McMahon et al., 2013). Magnesium values at
300 Flekkefjord may therefore differ to other populations due to freshwater input from the nearby
301 fjord driving down ambient Mg concentrations. It was also the shallowest site (mean depth:
302 252 m) for which depth data were available. The small mean body length of individuals from
303 Flekkefjord (24 cm TL) and its relatively shallow depth may be suggestive of it being a
304 nursery area, since depth related segregation has been reported in the species, with adults
305 migrating to deeper waters and pregnant females moving into shallower waters to pup
306 (Coelho et al., 2010).

307 There was considerable evidence for population mixing among sampling sites. For
308 example, no individuals from Skagerrak East could be successfully classified to their location
309 of capture . Low classification success has been attributed to population mixing in fish
310 (Rooker et al., 2008; Geffen et al., 2011). Skagerrak East was the deepest Norwegian
311 sampling site (mean depth: 493 m) and had the largest mean body length (35 cm TL) of sites
312 sampled by trawl net for which a complete set of size data were available. The large mean
313 length, near sexual parity (M:F 14:11, Table 1), greater depth and evidence for population
314 mixing at Skagerrak East suggest that this may be a breeding area frequented by migrating
315 adults. This is supported by the fact that *E. spinax* are thought to breed during winter months
316 (Coelho and Erzini, 2008), which corresponds with the sampling period.

317 Sharks from Langesund had the largest mean body length (45 cm TL); however the
318 collection method (angling) may have given rise to a size bias favouring larger individuals as

319 has been recorded in comparisons of longline and trawl net sampling in related smooth
320 lanternsharks, *Etmopterus pusillus* (Xavier et al., 2012). Further sampling may therefore be
321 required to gain insights into demographic structure at Langesund that are representative of
322 the entire population. There were however a number of large pregnant females ranging from
323 45 to 50 cm TL containing embryos, some of which were aborted post-capture. Since
324 sampling at Langesund occurred in summer, when pupping may occur (Aranha et al., 2009),
325 Langesund may be a pupping ground or a pre-pupping aggregating site for pregnant females;
326 this is also a relatively shallow area (200-300 m) and gravid females have been found at
327 shallower depths, potentially related to pupping movements (Coelho and Erzini, 2010).

328

329 *Broad scale stock structuring*

330 Stock structure became more apparent at the broader regional scale. Previous studies have
331 indicated wide variability in the spatial scales at which elemental signatures in calcified
332 structures can be used to identify groups of fish (Gillanders, 2002; Bergenius et al., 2005;
333 Smith, 2013). This may arise from factors including local geochemistry, oceanography,
334 hydrology or terrestrial inputs influencing water chemistry in different ways at different
335 spatial scales (Bergenius et al., 2005). The extent of variation in water chemistry will
336 therefore determine the spatial scales at which elemental signatures differ, such that spatially
337 significant differences may become more apparent at broader scales in relatively homogenous
338 waters than in waters with steep chemistry gradients such as estuarine-marine transition
339 zones.

340 While the use of elemental signatures at fine scales may be useful for assessing stock
341 structure in sedentary, site-attached species, such as reef-dwelling fish (e.g. Bergenius et al.,
342 2005), assessment of elemental signatures at broader regional scales may be more

343 informative for stock structure in wider ranging species (Smith, 2013). In the present study,
344 total classification success for the multi-element signature increased considerably at the
345 regional scale compared to the fine scale among sampling sites. It was comparable to that
346 recorded in other studies involving predominantly marine fish including the investigation of
347 reef specific self-recruitment of neon damselfish (*Pomacentrus coelestis*) on the Great Barrier
348 Reef (Patterson et al., 2004), natal homing and population mixing in bluefin tuna (*Thunnus*
349 *thynnus*) during trans-Atlantic migrations (Rooker et al., 2008), and stock structure in adult
350 Australasian snapper (*Pagrus auratus*) in South Australia (Fowler et al., 2005), lending
351 support to the suitability of this method for assessing broad scale stock structure in *E. spinax*.

352 While it is not necessary to quantify the mineral sources and environmental influences
353 that give rise to spatial variation in natural tags (it suffices that they are distinctly different
354 among regions: Thorrold *et al.* 1998; Campana 2005), speculation on such drivers may be
355 informative. In the present study Sr followed a declining trend from Western Norway >
356 Southern Norway > France. Variation in Sr:Ca can indicate salinity gradients in estuarine-
357 marine transition zones (Scharer et al., 2012), however in strictly marine environments Sr
358 may be associated with deep water or upwelling (de Villiers, 1999). This stems from the life
359 cycle of protozoan *Acantharia*, which dwell in the upper water column depleting it of Sr in
360 the synthesis of celestite (SrSO₄) skeletons, with Sr remineralised at depth upon their decay
361 (De Deckker, 2004). High Sr:Ca in Western Norway may therefore reflect upwelling in the
362 exposed waters off western Norway driven by prevailing northerly winds (Helle, 1978;
363 Asplin et al., 1999) potentially transporting Sr lateral to the coast, while Southern Norway is
364 sheltered from these winds by land masses. Low Sr:Ca in French sharks may reflect low
365 ambient Sr concentrations possibly driven by prevailing downwelling in the Bay of Biscay
366 (Borja and Collins, 2004; Batifoulier et al., 2012).

367 High Ba concentrations have been associated with riverine plumes transporting
368 terrestrial sediments or upwelling from areas where Ba enriched sediments have settled at
369 depth (Kingsford and Gillanders, 2000; Elsdon and Gillanders, 2005). The high Ba:Ca in
370 South Norway may be driven by the Baltic Current discharging through the Skagerrak,
371 bringing brackish water from the Baltic Sea loaded with sediments of terrestrial origin from
372 the many rivers feeding this basin (Sætre and Ljøen, 1972). Conversely, the sampling sites
373 comprising the French region are exposed to a general poleward movement of warm slope
374 water at depth originating along the Portuguese and North African coasts (Pingree and Le
375 Cann, 1990; Pingree and Le Cann, 1992), which may contain less Ba of terrestrial origin than
376 the Baltic Sea with its high freshwater input and may explain the low Ba:Ca in French sharks.

377 The three regional stocks suggested here were supported by DFA which refined the
378 multi-element signature to five element:Ca ratios (Sr, Ba, Mg, Zn and Pb) describing 100%
379 of modelled variation among stocks. Defining the drivers for regional differences in
380 elemental signatures is complex due to the interaction of numerous environmental (e.g.
381 geology, oceanography, hydrology or pollution) and biological variables (e.g. genotype,
382 phenotype or condition) . Nevertheless, a pattern has emerged of three potential stocks
383 (Western Norway, Southern Norway and France) at the regional level with evidence for
384 juveniles showing a degree of site fidelity and considerable adult population mixing within
385 regions.

386

387 *Fisheries management implications*

388 In spite of a zero TAC management policy for *E. spinax* in French and Norwegian waters,
389 discards are thought to have increased in recent years (ICES, 2014). Given the Near
390 Threatened status of *E. spinax* in the Northeast Atlantic and its valuable ecological function,

391 it may be timely to develop strategies to manage fisheries bycatch impacts on this species.
392 The present study indicates stocks of *E. spinax* should be managed at the regional scale. In
393 Norwegian waters in particular there is evidence for two potential stocks, one centred
394 offshore from Bergen off Western Norway and one off Southern Norway, to which
395 consideration should be given for independent management. In the broader context, the
396 monitoring and management of *E. spinax* stocks at regional scales over hundreds of
397 kilometres could give rise to issues of transnational cooperation in the management of this
398 species (Curtin and Prellezo, 2010); however, more information is required about stock
399 structure throughout the range of the species, particularly in the intervening space between
400 Norway and France and further south into Portuguese and Mediterranean waters.

401

402 *Conclusion*

403 The present study has shown vertebral chemistry analysis to be a promising technique to
404 assess stock structure in the deep-sea elasmobranch, *E. spinax*. A multi-element signature
405 assaying vertebral concentrations of Sr, Ba, Mg, Zn and Pb can be employed to discriminate
406 stocks at regional scales with a relatively high degree of confidence comparable to that in
407 other studies of marine species. In particular, the existence of three stocks is suggested in the
408 area sampled: Western Norway, Southern Norway and France, suggesting that stocks should
409 be managed at broad regional scales. At finer spatial scales this technique was less effective
410 at distinguishing among sampling sites within these regions, potentially suggesting a high
411 degree of population mixing. Potential future applications such as the mapping of nursery and
412 breeding areas and assessment of their relative contributions to *E. spinax* recruitment could
413 also be of assistance to fisheries managers in conserving stocks of this ecologically valuable,
414 yet vulnerable species.

415

416 *Supplementary materials*

417 Supplementary material is available at the *ICESJMS* online version of the manuscript.

418

Acknowledgements

419 ‘Tusen takk’ to the fine people at the Institute of Marine Research in Norway who kindly
420 provided a place on their research vessel *Håkon Mosby* to collect samples. Special thanks to
421 Trude Thangstad, Heidi Gabrielsen and Lise Heggebakken. We thank the Norwegian Shark
422 Alliance (HAI Norge) for the provision of samples and resources, as well as Giovanni
423 Romagnoni, Veronica Ranza and Øyvind Kleiv for sampling. The EVHOE 2013 campaign
424 directors from Ifremer: Jean-Pierre Leauté, Lionel Pawlosky and Michèle Salaun, as well as
425 the crew of the French scientific vessel *Thalassa* are thanked for their contribution to the
426 sample collection. Thanks also to Aoife McFadden, Ben Wade and Ruth Williams at
427 Adelaide Microscopy for lending their assistance and expertise. Funding was provided via a
428 Playford Memorial Trust scholarship and an Australian Research Council (ARC) linkage
429 grant (LP120100652).

430

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641

642

643 **Table 1.** Summary of sampling information and biological data. Sampling site information includes: site name, site code (used herein), country,
 644 GPS coordinates, year of collection, mean depth (in m), and sample size (N). Biological data includes: sex ratio (Male:Female), mean total
 645 length (TL \pm standard deviation) and minimum and maximum total lengths (TL range).

Site	Code	Country	Latitude	Longitude	Year	Depth (m)	N	Sex ratio M:F	TL (\pm SD) (cm)	TL range (cm)
Bergen	Berg	Norway	59°40'48.00"N	4°6'30.00"E	2014	269	17	8:9	22.5 (\pm 7.3)	13–44
Flekkefjord	Flek	Norway	58°9'51.78"N	6°32'35.07"E	2014	252	9	5:4	24.3 (\pm 8.3)	14–41
Skagerrak West	SkaW	Norway	57°44'3.88"N	8°31'6.47"E	2014	298	14	10:4	32.1 (\pm 6.7)	19–43
Skagerrak East	SkaE	Norway	57°51'56.40"N	9°8'34.12"E	2014	493	25	14:11	35.2 (\pm 5.9)	24–48
Langesund	Lang	Norway	58°44'31.12"N	9°54'29.44"E	2012	264 [†]	17 (15)	7:8*	44.1 (\pm 4.7)*	39–51*
					2013	264 [†]	20 (8)	2:6*	46.8 (\pm 3.7)*	42–51*
Brest	Brest	France	48°11'45.88"N	8°25'86.64"W	2013	412	23 (17)	11/6	34.8 (\pm 3.7)*	26–41*
Biscay	Bisc	France	43°96'63.18"N	2°15'87.11"W	2013	496	20	9/11	31.1 (\pm 4.7)*	21–39*

646 [†] denotes depth data were unavailable and were acquired from <http://www.geoplaner.com/> using GPS data.

647 * denotes incomplete dataset (bracketed N indicates samples for which data were available).

648 **Table 2.** Single-factor permutational ANOVA results comparing element:Ca
649 concentrations in *E. spinax* vertebrae among sampling sites and regions. Multi = multi-
650 element signature, Res = residual, df = degrees of freedom, MS = mean square, and P =
651 probability. Significant differences are bolded.

Element	Site			Region		
	df	MS	P	df	MS	P
Multi	6	2.714	<0.001	2	2.538	0.014
Res	138	0.606		142	0.667	
Li:Ca	6	<0.001	0.253	2	<0.001	0.378
Res	138	0.001		142	<0.001	
Mg:Ca	6	2.056	<0.001	2	1.442	0.055
Res	138	0.422		142	0.477	
Co:Ca	6	<0.001	0.317	2	<0.001	0.398
Res	138	<0.001		142	<0.001	
Ni:Ca	6	<0.001	0.258	2	<0.001	0.61
Res	138	<0.001		142	<0.001	
Zn:Ca	6	0.295	0.004	2	0.675	<0.001
Res	138	0.077		142	0.077	
Rb:Ca	6	<0.001	0.123	2	<0.001	0.182
Res	138	<0.001		142	<0.001	
Sr:Ca	6	0.162	<0.001	2	0.263	0.001
Res	138	0.035		142	0.037	
Ba:Ca	6	<0.001	0.001	2	<0.001	<0.001
Res	138	<0.001		142	<0.001	
Pb:Ca	6	<0.001	0.721	2	<0.001	0.239
Res	138	<0.001		142	<0.001	
Cu:Ca	6	0.198	0.016	2	0.157	0.11
Res	138	0.007		142	0.074	

652

653 **Table 3.** Pairwise comparisons between sampling regions based on element:Ca ratios in
654 the vertebrae of *E. spinax* (refer to Fig. 5). Pairwise tests were conducted for the multi-
655 element signature and individual elements whose concentrations differed among sites.
656 Multi = multi-element signature, *t* = *t* value, and P = probability. Significant differences (P
657 < 0.05) in element:Ca ratios between regions are bolded. Regions are Western Norway
658 (WN), Southern Norway (SN), and France (F).

Element:Ca Regions	Multi		Zn:Ca		Sr:Ca		Ba:Ca	
	<i>t</i>	P	<i>t</i>	P	<i>t</i>	P	<i>t</i>	P
WN, SN	2.298	0.016	3.464	0.002	2.089	0.038	1.012	0.317
WN, F	2.737	0.003	3.44	<0.001	4.447	<0.001	1.502	0.14
SN, F	0.866	0.413	0.478	0.64	2.368	0.02	3.727	<0.001

659

660 **Figure 1.** Map showing sites where samples were collected in Norwegian and French waters.
661 Refer to Table 1 for detailed sampling information.

662 **Figure 2.** Whole vertebrae (A) were sectioned sagittally through the *centrum focus* for
663 elemental analysis (B). Short transects at the edge (circled “s”) were ablated to analyse
664 elemental signatures from areas of most recent growth before capture.

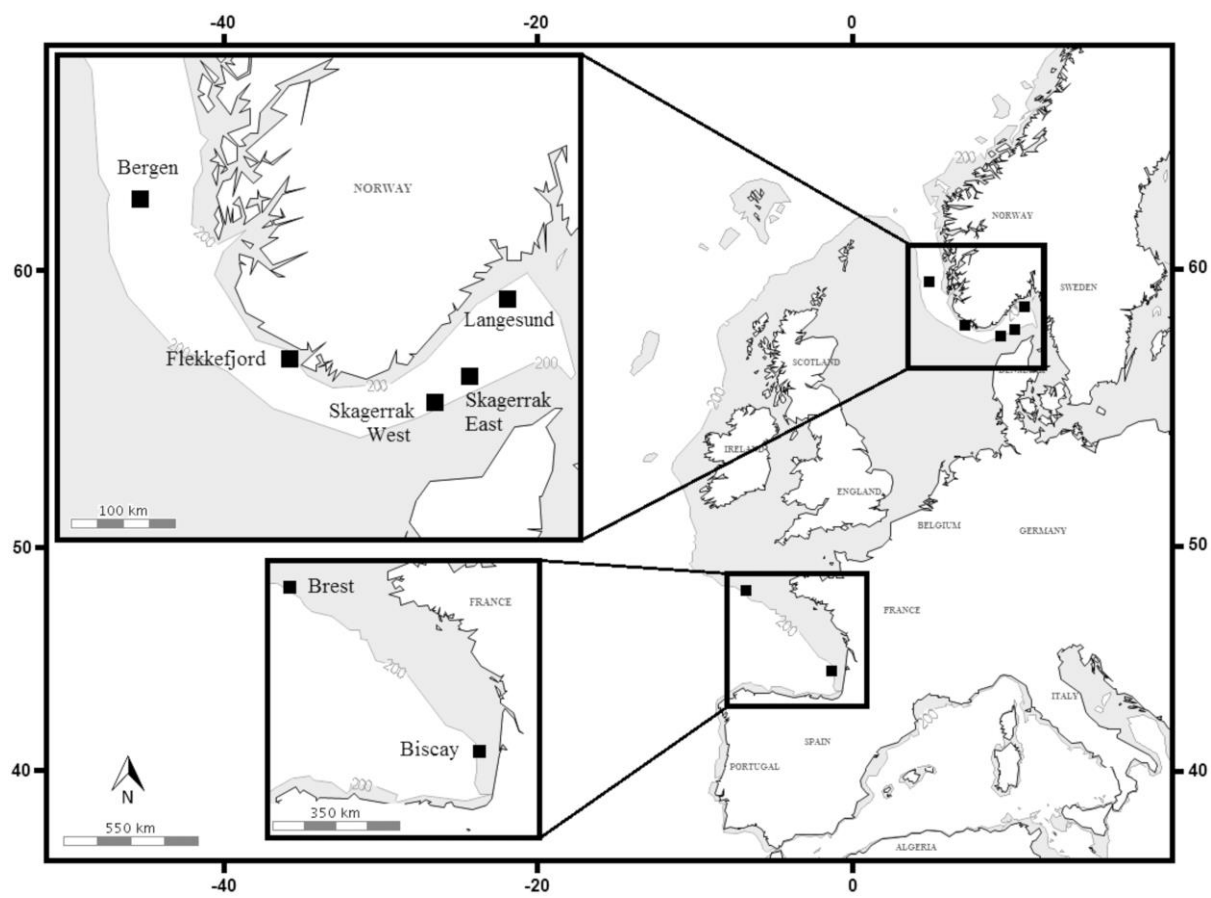
665 **Figure 3.** Canonical analysis of principle coordinates (CAP) plot showing dissimilarity
666 among sampling sites for the multi-element vertebral signature of *E. spinax*. French sites are
667 grey, Bergen is solid black and remaining Norwegian sites are open. Refer to Table 1 for site
668 codes.

669 **Figure 4.** Mean sampling site element:Ca ratios in the vertebrae of *E. spinax* (with standard
670 errors) for: Mg (A), Zn (B), Sr (C), Ba (D), and Cu (E). Bars below *x*-axis indicate regional
671 groupings. Letters above columns indicate similar means (*t*-test, $P < 0.05$) (Table S3). Note *y*-
672 axis differs among all panels.

673 **Figure 5.** Mean sampling region element:Ca ratios in the vertebrae of *E. spinax* (with standard
674 errors) for: Zn (A), Sr (B), and Ba (C). Letters above columns indicate similar means (*t*-test, P
675 < 0.05) (Table 3). Note *y*-axis differs among all panels.

676

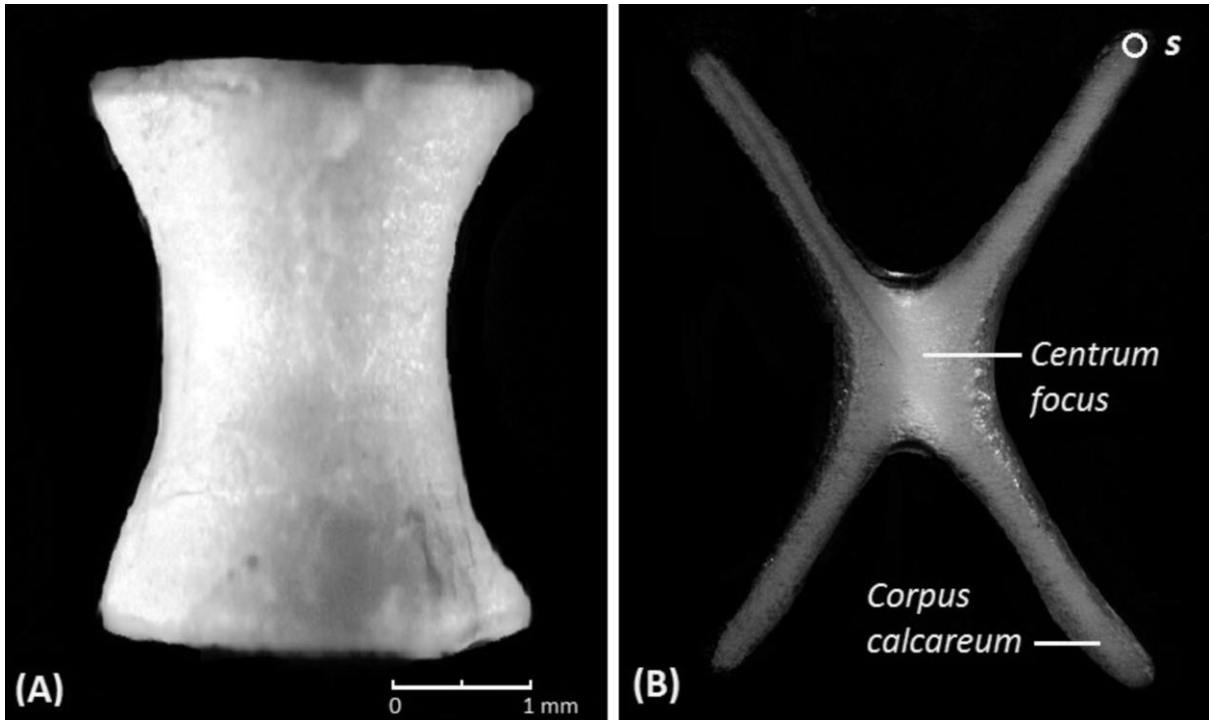
677 Fig. 1



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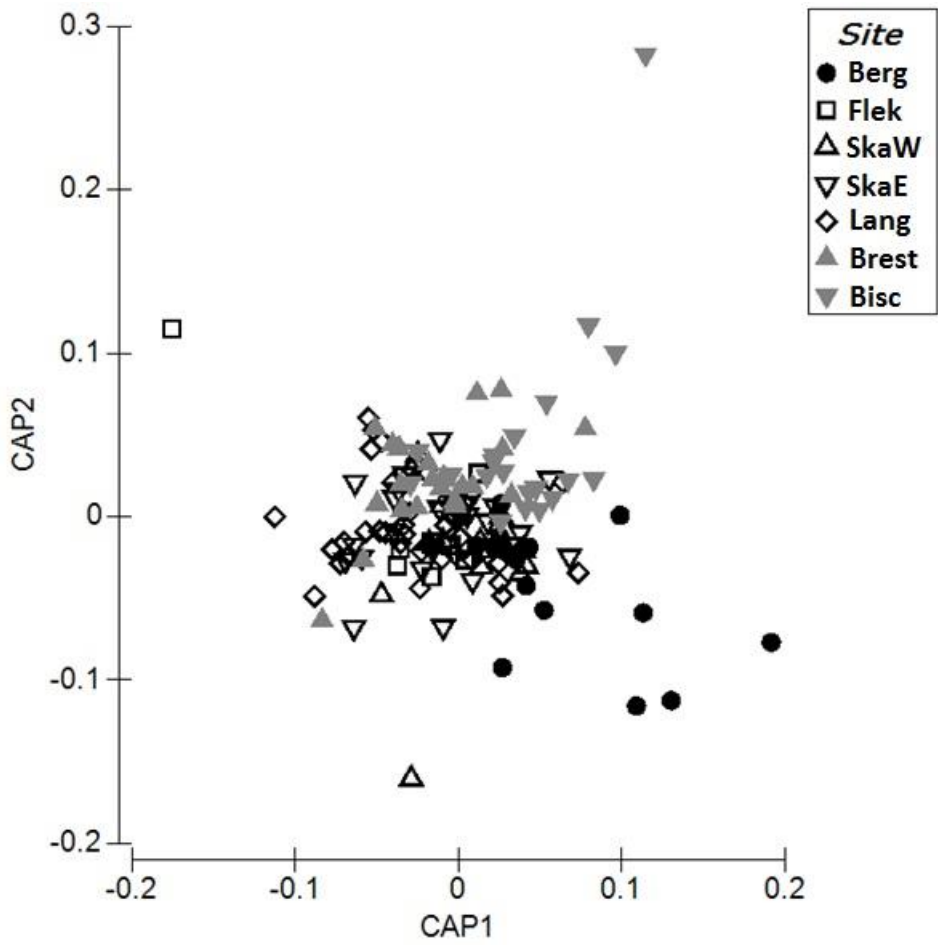
680 Fig. 2



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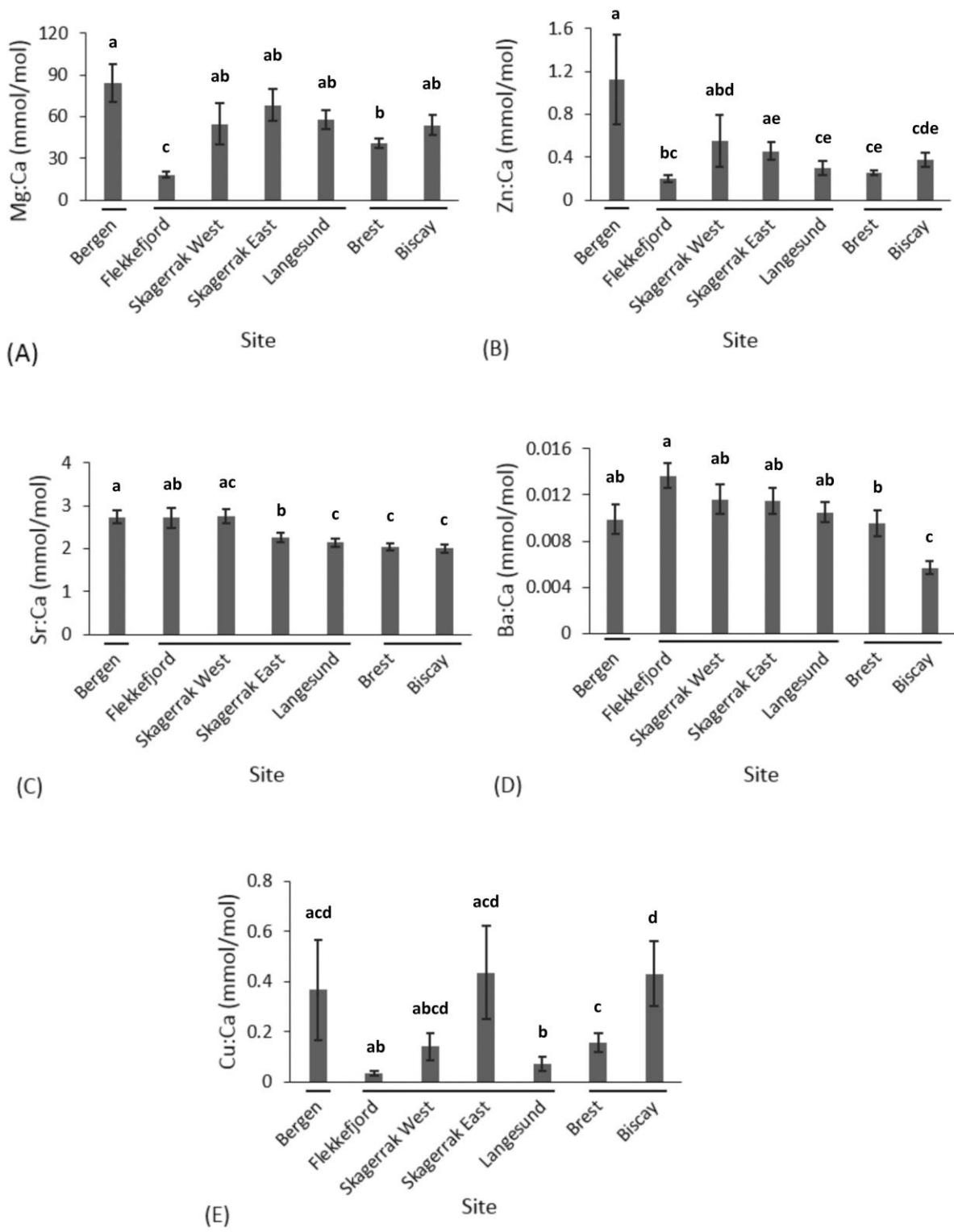
683 Fig. 3



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686 Fig. 4



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