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1 **Historical trophic ecology of some divergent shark and skate species in the Dutch**  
2 **coastal North Sea zone.**

3

4 Suzanne S.H. Poiesz<sup>1,2</sup>, Tomas van Elderen<sup>1</sup>, Johannes IJ. Witte<sup>1</sup>, Henk W. van der Veer<sup>1</sup>

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6 ORCID record corresponding author: 0000-0003-1396-3618

7

8 <sup>1</sup>NIOZ Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research, Department of Coastal Systems, P.O.  
9 Box 59, 1790 AB, Den Burg, Texel, The Netherlands

10 <sup>2</sup>Faculty of Science and Engineering, Groningen Institute of Evolutionary Life Sciences,  
11 University of Groningen, P.O. Box 11103, 9700 CC Groningen, the Netherlands

12

13 **Abstract**

14

15 Over the last century the fish community of the Dutch coastal North Sea zone has  
16 lost most its shark and skate species. Whether their disappearance has changed the trophic  
17 structure of these shallow waters has not been properly investigated. In this study  
18 historical dietary data of sharks and skates, being in the past (near)-residents, juvenile  
19 marine migrants and marine seasonal visitors of the Dutch coastal North Sea zone were  
20 analyzed for the period 1946 - 1954. Near-resident and juvenile marine migrant species  
21 were demersal while all marine seasonal visitors species were pelagic. Based on stomach  
22 content composition, the trophic position of four of the various shark and skate species  
23 could be reconstructed. The (near)-resident species, the lesser spotted dogfish, the marine  
24 juvenile migrant, the starry smooth hound, and the benthopelagic marine seasonal visitor,  
25 the thornback ray, had a benthic/demersal diet (polychaetes, molluscs and crustaceans),  
26 while the pelagic marine seasonal visitor, the tope shark, fed dominantly on cephalopods  
27 and fishes. Diet overlap occurred for fish (tope shark and lesser spotted dogfish), for hermit  
28 crabs (lesser spotted dogfish and starry smooth hound) and for shrimps (thornback ray  
29 and starry smooth hound). Trophic position ranged from 3.2 for thornback ray preying

1 exclusively on crustaceans to 4.6 for the tope shark consuming higher trophic prey  
2 (crustaceans and fish). The analysis indicates that most of the shark and skate species  
3 were generalist predators. The calculated trophic positions of shark and skate species  
4 indicate that those species were not necessarily at the top of the marine ecosystem food  
5 web, but they might have been the top predators of their particular ecological assemblage.

6

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## 15 **Consent to participate**

16 All authors declare that they give consent to participate.

## 17 **Consent for publication**

18 All authors declare that they give consent for publication.

## 19 **Availability of data, material and code.**

20 All data, materials used, and code will be available on request.

## 21 **Authors' contributions**

	SP	TvE	JW	HvdV
<b>Conceptualization</b>	X		X	X
<b>Data collection</b>	X	X	X	
<b>Data analysis</b>	X	X		
<b>Writing</b>	X			X

22

23

## 24 **1. Introduction**

25

1 Worldwide, major structural and functional changes have occurred in coastal  
2 ecosystems due to overfishing (Pauly et al 1998; Jackson et al 2001; Lotze 2005). Pauly  
3 et al (1998) state that this so-called "fishing down the marine food web" reflects the  
4 removal of long-lived, high trophic level, piscivorous fish, including sharks and skates. It  
5 is unclear what effect the removal of top predators can have on the stability of a community  
6 (Shurin et al 2002), because for instance the relationship between food chain stability and  
7 food chain length is unclear (Sterner et al 1997). While it is easy to predict that carnivores  
8 have a high trophic position and exert a degree of top-down effects, these effects are still  
9 very poorly understood (Cortés 1999). Consequences of the removal of top predators could  
10 have a cascading effect down the food web, through to lower trophic positions such as  
11 bivalves and polychaetes (Hussey et al 2015). These cascades potentially could extend to  
12 the level of the primary producers (Myers et al 2007). Considering these possible  
13 consequences, eliminating larger predators carries more risks of broader ecosystem  
14 degradation than previously thought. Top down effects must be widely expected whenever  
15 entire groups of predators are eliminated or removed.

16 The loss of top predators will cause a reduction of the mean trophic level in fish  
17 communities (Estes et al 1998; Worms & Myers 2003; Dulvy et al 2004; Frank et al 2005;  
18 Myers et al 2007), but the impact can vary across niches and communities (Borer et al  
19 2005; Frank et al 2007). Predator reductions can also cause a shift in niche availability,  
20 which can subsequently alter the niche of other predatory species (Frid et al 2007). As top  
21 predatory species, sharks and skates might play pivotal roles in the regulation of lower  
22 trophic level organisms and, therefore, of marine ecosystems (Myers et al. 2007). For  
23 instance, model studies on the impact of shark depletion in different ecosystems showed  
24 differences in the response of prey species and a larger increase in the abundance of minor  
25 prey species compared to major prey species (Stevens et al 2000).

26 Whereas sharks and skates used to be more common in the North Sea and  
27 surrounding coastal areas, nowadays these species are one of the most vulnerable groups  
28 of marine fishes (Dulvy et al. 2004; Stevens et al. 2000) and are under pressure and either  
29 absent or occurring in low densities (de Vooy et al 1991; Walker & Heessen 1996; Walker

1 & Hislop 1998; Heessen et al 2015; Bom et al 2020). For instance, the thornback ray *Raja*  
2 *clavata* was a common species in Dutch coastal waters, but has disappeared from the late  
3 1950s onwards (Walker & Heessen 1996). The trophic position of the species that are still  
4 present in the North Sea indicate also a relatively high trophic position (Jennings et al  
5 2002).

6 Sharks and skates were common in Dutch coastal waters and estuaries in the past  
7 (Egmond 2005). These waters also have been subject to pervasive human disturbance for  
8 centuries (Lotze 2005, 2007). A compilation of available information by Witte & Zijlstra  
9 (1983) listed ten shark and skate species that were components of the coastal fish  
10 community in the past but were already considered extremely rare by the 1970s. For one  
11 of the species, the common smooth-hound *Mustelus mustelus* doubt occurred about the  
12 taxonomic identification. Heessen et al (2015) state that species identification between the  
13 common smooth-hound and the starry smooth-hound (*Mustulus asterias*) has been quite  
14 problematic and that the common smooth-hound is not as common as suggested or may  
15 not even occur in the North Sea, implying that all identification in the past of *M. mustulus*  
16 would have been *M. asterias*. In an update, Wolff (2005) and Bom et al (2020) concluded  
17 that nowadays, additional rare species had become extinct in or near Dutch coastal waters.  
18 Conversely, recently commercial catches have recorded the re-occurrence of some shark  
19 species in the Dutch coastal zone (source: Sportvisserij (Dutch fishing society); The  
20 Netherlands).

21 FishBase (Froese & Pauly 2019) provide average trophic positions of individual  
22 sharks and skates, but these might not correspond with local observations as a recent  
23 analysis of the Wadden Sea coastal fish food web by Poiesz et al (2020) has shown.  
24 Therefore, the past role and trophic position of these lost sharks and skates in the Dutch  
25 coastal zone fish food web is unknown. Recent isotope studies showed that the trophic  
26 ecology of shark and skate species is potentially very complex (Hussey et al 2015; Bird et  
27 al 2018; Flowers et al 2020).

28 The aim of this study is to reconstruct the trophic position for shark and skate  
29 species listed by Witte & Zijlstra (1983) in the past food web of the Dutch coastal North

1 Sea zone. This information on the trophic position of these lost ecosystem components is  
2 important with respect to our perspective regarding past food web structure and  
3 functioning. The reconstruction is based on information on stomach content composition  
4 of fish species in the Dutch coastal zone and estuarine Wadden Sea, dating back to the  
5 1930's (de Vooy et al 1991). The data were extracted from the archive of the Royal  
6 Netherlands Institute for Sea Research (NIOZ). These reconstructions of the trophic  
7 position of different shark and skate species was done in line with a recent analysis of the  
8 present fish food web structure in the western Wadden Sea by Poiesz et al (2020).

9 First, the various shark and skate species were listed according to their mode of life  
10 (pelagic, benthopelagic or demersal) following FishBase (Froese & Pauly 2019) and their  
11 functional group [marine seasonal visitors, (near)-residents or juvenile marine migrants]  
12 after Zijlstra (1983) and Elliott & Dewailly (1995). Next, stomach content and ontogenetic  
13 shifts in diet were analyzed and described for the various species. Subsequently, the  
14 trophic positions of shark and skate species were reconstructed based on the stomach  
15 composition. Since the historical data set only contained information on prey species found,  
16 trophic position was estimated based on the average trophic position of the various prey  
17 species, ignoring differences in mass between the various prey species. The potential bias  
18 of ignoring differences in prey mass was investigated with a recent data set of stomach  
19 content data of fish community of the Wadden Sea collected between 2010 and 2018  
20 (Poiesz et al 2020). Lastly, the relative degree of specialization in the diet of the various  
21 shark and skate species was reconstructed and dietary overlap among species was  
22 quantified and the niche type for each species was determined.

23

## 24 **2. Materials and methods**

25

### 26 2.1. The NIOZ archive

27

28 In the period from 1930 until 1969, trained staff of the Royal NIOZ registered  
29 landings of rare fish and invertebrate species. Specimens were delivered at the port of Den

1 Helder, mainly by local fishermen from Wieringen, Texel and Den Helder and were paid for  
2 with a price slightly above the auction value at the local market. Most of the landings  
3 originated from Dutch coastal North Sea waters and the rest from inside the Dutch Wadden  
4 Sea.

5 All elasmobranchs were identified to the species level. All information about species,  
6 date of catch, catch location and depth, size of the fish and stomach content was stored.  
7 A detailed description of the NIOZ archive can be found in de Vooy et al (1991, 1993).

8

## 9 2.2. Stomach content analysis

10

11 Prey items were in most cases identified and registered to species level. When prey  
12 items were (partly) digested, identification was made to a higher taxonomic level. Almost  
13 all prey items (total of 364) could be identified at least at the class level. In only a few  
14 cases unidentified prey items were registered. These were removed from further analysis.  
15 For prey species belonging to fishes, shrimps and crabs, total length was also registered.  
16 Incomplete specimens, often from species that were eaten in pieces such as *Alitta virens*  
17 or *Ensis leei* or when species were in part such as the *Crangon crangon*, were counted only  
18 by the number of 'heads'. Nine classes were identified (worms, sea stars, bivalves,  
19 gastropods, crabs, shrimps, lobsters, cephalopods and fishes).

20 For each prey item percentage of occurrence was calculated (= number of stomachs  
21 containing a prey species divided by total number of stomachs examined) as measure of  
22 diet composition following Baker et al (2014).

23

### 24 2.2.1. Trophic position (TP)

25

26 For each prey species, the mean trophic position was taken for their class, order  
27 and family as taxonomic group (see Suppl Mat Table A1). FishBase (Froese & Pauly 2019)  
28 was used as it provided dietary information of over 800 mostly peer-reviewed references.

1 Trophic position ( $TP_j$ ) for each individual skate or shark  $j$ , was calculated in line with  
2 a previous study of the trophic structure of the Wadden Sea fish fauna (Poiesz et al 2020).  
3 as 1 + the mean value of the trophic positions of the different prey species found in a  
4 stomach:

$$5 \quad TP_j = 1 + \sum(\overline{TP}_{i1} + \overline{TP}_{i2} + \overline{TP}_{i3} \dots) \quad [1]$$

6 where

7  $TP_j$  being the calculated trophic position of the individual predator  $j$ ;

8  $TP_{i1}$  the mean trophic position of the first prey species  $i1$ .

9  $TP_{i2}, TP_{i3} \dots$  the mean trophic position of the second and third etc. prey species.

10

### 11 2.2.2. Potential bias in trophic position

12

13 From the data set of stomach content data of fish community of the Wadden Sea  
14 collected between 2010 and 2018 (Poiesz et al 2020), all individual fishes with at least two  
15 different prey species were selected. For these individuals ( $n = 5300$ ), trophic position was  
16 estimated in two different ways:

17 Estimate 1: Based on mean trophic position of the prey items in line with this study.

18 Trophic position was calculated as 1 + the mean trophic position of the various  
19 prey species according to FishBase.

20 Estimate 2: Based on weighted mean trophic position of the different prey masses. First,

21 the contribution of the various prey item to the total diet was determined on  
22 the basis of back-calculated consumed fresh biomass, reconstructed by means  
23 of length-weight relationships, whereby for small prey items a mean wet mass  
24 was taken. Next the trophic position of the predator was estimated as 1 + the  
25 weighted average of the trophic positions of the various food items.

26 The potential bias associated with not taking prey mass into account was assessed by  
27 constructing a linear regression between both estimates.

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### 29 2.3. Niche overlap

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To determine the relative degree of specialization in diet and to compare the diets between the different shark and skate species, the Levins' index of niche breadth was used (Levins 1968). For this analysis the contribution of each different prey species within a stomach was used and calculated according to:

$$P_{ij} = \frac{N_{ij}}{N_{jtot}} \quad [2]$$

where  
 $P_{ij}$  being the proportion of each prey species  $i$  in the diet of each individual predator  $j$ ;  
 $N_{ij}$  the number of individuals of the species  $i$  in the stomach of the predator  $j$ ;  
 $N_{jtot}$  the total number of preys counted of each individual predator  $j$ .

Next, the average proportion ( $P_{ij}$ ) of each prey species was taken for each predatory species.

In order to compare the different diets, the average proportion of the different prey items ( $p_{ij}$ ) were classified up to the highest taxonomic level (order) level. Next, Levins' standardized measure of niche breadth ( $B_j$ ) was calculated according to:

$$B_j = \frac{1}{\sum p_{ij}^2} \quad [3]$$

Levins' measure of niche breadth can range from 1 (indicating a highly specific diet with only one prey species) to  $<1$  (indicating a less specific diet with more prey species).

To quantify dietary overlap, the MacArthur-Levins' method was used (MacArthur & Levins 1967; Feinsinger et al 1981). It estimates the extent to which the prey of consumer species  $K$  overlaps with that of species  $J$ . For instance, if species  $J$  specializes on a certain type of food source which is also eaten by a more generalist species  $K$ , then from species  $J$ 's viewpoint its niche overlaps completely with the other species, but from species  $K$ 's viewpoint the niche only partially overlaps with the niche of species  $J$ . Therefore, the calculated values can differ between  $J$  and  $K$  and vice versa. The MacArthur-Levins' method is calculated using the following equation:

1 
$$M_{jk} = S \frac{\sum p_{ij} * p_{ik}}{\sum p_{ij}^2} \quad \text{and} \quad M_{kj} = S \frac{\sum p_{ij} * p_{ik}}{\sum p_{ik}^2} \quad [4]$$

2 where  $M_{jk}$  and  $M_{kj}$  are the degree of overlap on species  $j$  by species  $k$  and vice versa, and  
3  $p_{ij}$  and  $p_{ik}$  are the proportions that food resource  $i$  contributes to the diets of species  $j$  and  
4  $k$ , respectively (Ellis 1996; Sa-Oliveira et al 2014).

5

## 6 2.4. Data exploration and visualization

7

8 The data was explored using the protocol described in Zuur et al (2010).  
9 Ontogenetic shifts in diet and trophic position were explored with length as categorical  
10 variable. Local Polynomial Regression (LPR) were used by means of LOESS (span = 0.75)  
11 with the ggplot package (Wickham 2016).

12 Visualizations of the network data was made by the bipartite package in Dormann  
13 et al (2009) and Levins' index of niche breath calculation was made using the MicroNiche  
14 package (Finn 2020). All further data analysis and data manipulations were done in R (R  
15 Core Team 2019).

16

## 17 **3. Results**

18

### 19 3.1. Species composition

20

21 The NIOZ-archive contained information from nine shark and skate species (Table  
22 1). No records were found from the common smooth-hound. Therefore, all records have  
23 been considered to have been starry smooth-hound *Mustelus asterias*. One species, the  
24 lesser spotted dogfish, belonged to the (near)-resident species and three species were  
25 juvenile marine migrants: the thornback ray, the starry smooth-hound and the angelshark.  
26 All other species were marine seasonal visitors. (Near)-resident and juvenile marine  
27 migrants were demersal species, and all marine seasonal visitors were pelagic species.

1 Capture locations of individual sharks and skates could be grouped into wider  
2 geographical areas (e.g., banks, grounds and holes) in the North Sea and Wadden Sea (Fig  
3 1). The lesser spotted dogfish, starry smooth-hound, tope shark and thornback ray were  
4 captured at almost all locations. All other species were caught throughout the North Sea  
5 and Wadden Sea (Fig 1). The only species that did not occur in the Terschelling Bank was  
6 the common thresher shark, while only the starry smooth-hound and tope shark occurred  
7 in the eastern Wadden Sea.

8 Most stomach content data were collected between 1946 and 1954, therefore the  
9 analysis was restricted to this period. For five species (common thresher shark, basking  
10 shark, common sting ray, porbeagle and angelshark), the NIOZ archive contained very few  
11 data, i.e., information from less than ten stomachs (see Suppl Mat Table B1). Therefore  
12 these species were not included in subsequent analysis.

13

## 14 3.2. Stomach content and trophic position

15

### 16 3.2.1. Lesser spotted dogfish (*Scyliorhinus canicula*)

17

18 The size of the lesser spotted dogfish ranged from 10 to 83 cm total length and they  
19 were caught in depths between 2 and 77 meters. Suppl Mat Fig B2 shows the records at  
20 the various locations. Stomach data from 180 individuals were available: of these 19  
21 stomachs were empty (10.6%) and for 12 stomachs the information about total fish length  
22 was lacking. In total 29 different prey items were found (Suppl Mat Table B2), with only a  
23 few groups occurring frequently in the stomachs: Pisces and Malacostraca and to a lesser  
24 extent Caenogastropoda and Polychaeta. Pisces consisted mainly of Pleuronectiformes  
25 (flatfishes, flounder, sole), Ammoditidae (greater sandeel), and Trigiidae (gurnard).  
26 Malacostraca included mainly Crangonidae (shrimps), Anomura (hermit crabs) and  
27 Brachyura (crabs). Caenogastropoda comprised Buccinidae (whelks) and Polychaeta  
28 Annelidae (Nereididae) (Fig 2). About half (48.4%) of the prey items in the stomachs were  
29 crustaceans. With increasing fish size, the occurrence of Brachyura decreased. The

1 occurrence of Annelids (Nereididae) also decreased with size and they were absent above  
2 60 cm in size. Larger lesser spotted dogfish did also consume flatfishes (Fig 2). There was  
3 variability in the estimates of trophic position, but there was no significant relationship with  
4 fish size [ANOVA;  $F(3, 149) = 1.492, p = 0.22$ ] (Fig 6). Mean trophic position was 4.01  
5 ( $\pm 0.43$  SE).

### 6 7 3.2.2. Thornback ray (*Raja clavata*)

8  
9 All thornback rays were caught from water depths ranging from 3 to 49 meters and  
10 measured from 10 to 85 cm in total length. Suppl Mat Fig B3 shows the number of  
11 individuals caught at the various locations. From all thornback rays captured, 174  
12 individuals contained information about stomach content. Ten individuals (5.5%) had  
13 empty stomachs, and for 9 individuals no fish size was documented (Suppl Mat Table B3).  
14 The diet of thornback rays mainly consisted of Malacostraca and low percentages of Pisces  
15 and some Bivalvia and Polychaeta (Fig 3). The Malacostraca included mainly Crangonidae  
16 (shrimp species) and Brachyura (crab species) and the Pisces were Ammoditidae (greater  
17 sandeel). Nereididae were the dominant Polychaeta family. No trends between trophic  
18 position and size was found [ANOVA;  $F(3, 152) = 0.892, p = 0.447$ ], which might partly  
19 be due to the low number of observations of small (<30 cm) and large (>70 cm) fishes  
20 (Fig 6). Mean trophic position was 3.59 ( $\pm 0.14$  SE).

### 21 22 3.2.3. Starry smooth-hound (*Mustelus asterias*)

23  
24 Stomach content data of 276 starry smooth-hounds were available. Of these, five  
25 individuals (1.8%) had empty stomachs. The total length of the starry smooth-hounds  
26 ranged between 27 and 117 centimeters and they were caught at depths ranging between  
27 5 and 56 meters. Suppl Mat Figure B4 shows the number of individuals caught at each  
28 location. Almost all prey species were Malacostraca with in addition some Pisces,  
29 Polychaeta and Molluscs (Fig 4) (See Suppl Mat Table B4 for more detailed information).

1 The Malacostraca were Crangonidae (various shrimp species), Anomura (hermit crabs) and  
2 Brachyura (crabs). The few Pisces belonged to the Callionimidae (dragonets) and the  
3 Polychaeta were Nereididae. The prey species remained the same with increasing fish size,  
4 however frequency of occurrence did show some variability over the different size classes.  
5 Estimated trophic position showed some variability but was not related to the different size  
6 classes [ANOVA;  $F(3, 276) = 0.428, p = 0.73$ ] (Fig 6). Mean trophic position was 3.88  
7 ( $\pm 0.27$  SE).

8

#### 9 3.2.4. Tope sharks (*Galeorhinus galeus*)

10

11 The NIOZ archive contained stomach data of 508 tope sharks, but 29 individuals  
12 (5.7%) had an empty stomach and for 2 individuals, total length data was not recorded  
13 from prey (See Suppl Mat Table B5 for more detailed information). All tope sharks were  
14 caught at depths between 3 and 67 meters and the total length ranged from 25 to 166 cm.  
15 Suppl Mat Fig B5 shows the number of individuals caught at each location. Pisces were the  
16 most important prey item for all size classes (Fig 5). Smaller individuals (<40 cm) also had  
17 Malacostraca in their stomachs. Other groups were found infrequently: Polychaeta only  
18 occurred in the stomachs below 40 cm total length whereas Asteroidea and Ophiuridae  
19 were only present in fish with a total length above 120 cm. Cephalopods occurred in almost  
20 all size classes. Several families of Pisces were eaten: both demersal (Pleuronectidae,  
21 Solidae, Gobiidae) and pelagic (Clupeidae, Ammodytidae, Scrombidae, Trigiidae, Tadidae,  
22 Carangidae) species. Malacostraca were preyed on mainly by the smallest size groups,  
23 especially Anomura (hermit crabs) and Brachyura (crabs) and to a lesser extent  
24 Crangonidae (shrimp species). Trophic position showed a significant positive relationship  
25 with size [ANOVA;  $F(6, 470) = 15.36, p < 0.05$ ], however with some variability (Fig 6).  
26 Overall, mean trophic position was 4.37 ( $\pm 0.39$  SE).

27

#### 28 3.2.5. Other species

29

1 Five species (common thresher shark, basking shark, common stingray, porbeagle  
2 and angelshark) contained very few data (see Suppl Mat Table C1). The diet of the thresher  
3 shark consisted mostly of Pisces, while the diet of the basking shark only contained  
4 Crustacea. The porbeagle preyed upon Pisces and to a small extend on Cephalopoda. The  
5 diet of the common stingray was more variable and consisted of a mixture of Annelida and  
6 Crustacea and some Pisces. The angelshark preyed mainly on Pisces, and in addition on  
7 Crustacea and Cephalopoda (Suppl Mat Table C2). Suppl Mat Fig C1-C5 shows the number  
8 of individuals caught at the various locations for these five species.

### 9 10 3.2. Potential bias in TP estimate

11  
12 The data set of stomach content data of fish community of the Wadden Sea collected  
13 between 2010 and 2018 contained 2876 stomach content records about 54 prey fish  
14 species and 72 different prey taxa. For all individual stomachs, the relationship between  
15 the two methods (Estimate 1: based on mean trophic position of the prey items; Estimate  
16 2: based on the weighted mean trophic position of the different prey masses) was highly  
17 significant ( $R^2 = 0.98$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) over a range in trophic positions from 2.0 to 4.7 (Fig 7).  
18 A selection of stomachs containing only fish and crustaceans, corresponding with the main  
19 prey items of the sharks and skates in this study, resulted in a similar significant  
20 relationship ( $R^2 = 0.91$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ; Fig 7), with an estimated intercept of 0 and slope 95  
21 confidence limits that overlapped with 1. As such, we concluded that no mass-based  
22 correction of TP estimates used in this study was required.

### 23 24 3.3. Niche overlap

25  
26 The four shark and skate species appeared to be generalists, feeding on a variety  
27 of different prey items (Fig 8) with differences between the species. The lesser spotted  
28 dogfish, the starry smooth hound and thornback ray showed a benthic/demersal diet  
29 (polychaetes, molluscs and crustaceans), while the tope shark fed dominantly on

1 cephalopods and fishes. Most diet overlap occurred for three groups of prey: Pisces,  
2 Crustacea and Cephalopoda (Fig 8).

3 Niche overlap occurred for fish (tope shark and lesser spotted dogfish), for hermit  
4 crabs (lesser spotted dogfish and starry smooth hound) and for shrimps (thornback ray  
5 and starry smooth hound). A niche overlap analysis (Table 2) showed that the lesser  
6 spotted dogfish had a significant diet overlap with the other species. The tope shark showed  
7 no significant diet overlap with other predatory species (Table 2).

8

#### 9 **4. Discussion**

10

11 We used historical dietary data to examine the trophic ecology of four species of  
12 sharks and skates which have disappeared from Dutch coastal and North Sea waters. Our  
13 results show that the four species were generalist feeders and had trophic positions  
14 between 3.2 and 4.6. Three species, the (near)-resident lesser spotted dogfish, the marine  
15 juvenile migrant starry smooth hound, and the benthopelagic marine seasonal visitor  
16 thornback ray had a benthic/demersal diet feeding especially on polychaetes, molluscs and  
17 crustaceans. The pelagic marine seasonal visitor tope shark fed dominantly on cephalopods  
18 and fishes. The diet of the different species overlapped: for fish (tope shark and lesser  
19 spotted dogfish), for hermit crabs (lesser spotted dogfish and starry smooth hound) and  
20 for shrimps (thornback ray and starry smooth hound).

21 The catch data of the various species illustrate that the records of most sharks and  
22 skates from the NIOZ archive originated from Dutch coastal waters. These shark and skate  
23 species can be considered part of the wider Dutch coastal and Wadden Sea food web as  
24 they have also been registered inside the Wadden Sea (Witte & Zijlstra, 1983). Tagging  
25 experiments also indicate that the data may be representative for the Dutch Wadden Sea.  
26 Tagging of the tope shark and the starry smooth-hound has shown migration of these  
27 species from the south coast of England and the north coast of Wales to the Bay of Biscay  
28 in Portugal (Holden & Horrod 1979; Farrell et al 2010). Also, thornback rays move over  
29 several hundred kilometers (Walker et al 1997) and the lesser spotted dogfish have shown

1 movement up to 30 kilometres (Rodríguez-Cabello et al 1998, 2004; Sims et al 2001). The  
2 movement of the common stingray has not yet been studied, but the dispersion of this  
3 species as shown in de Vooy et al (1991), indicates a population that lived close to or in  
4 the Dutch Wadden Sea.

5

#### 6 4.1. Diet composition

7

8 The taxonomic identification of the stomach contents in this study was not always  
9 made to species level but to higher taxonomic groups (class and order). More detailed  
10 information may have resulted in more detailed information about segregation and overlap  
11 in prey items between species. Also, elasmobranchs quickly digest and break down their  
12 prey (Córtes et al 2008; Wieczorek et al 2018), which might have meant that soft-bodied  
13 prey were under-represented.

14 Due to the limited data available for five species (the common thresher shark,  
15 porbeagle, basking shark, the angelshark and the common stingray), it is questionable  
16 whether these species are really generalist or specialist feeders. At least for the angelshark,  
17 the focus on crustaceans and (flat)fishes in the Irish Sea (Ellis et al 1996) suggest that this  
18 species is a specialist feeder. The other four shark and skate species in the Dutch coastal  
19 zone appeared to be generalist predators consuming a variety of polychaetes, mollusks,  
20 crustaceans and teleosts, as also found for the North-eastern Atlantic by Ellis et al (1996).  
21 In generalist predators, spatial differences in diet composition might be expected reflecting  
22 local variability in prey availability.

23

24 In the Dutch coastal zone, the diet of the lesser spotted dogfish contained a wide  
25 variety of other taxonomic groups but about half of the prey items were crustaceans,  
26 similar to reports from other parts of the North Sea (Pinnegar 2014) and elsewhere (Lyle  
27 1983; Ellis et al 1996; Wieczorek et al 2018). The diet of thornback rays in the Dutch  
28 coastal zone mainly consisted of crustaceans and low percentages of Pisces and some  
29 Bivalvia and Polychaeta. The diet composition of the starry smooth-hound contained Pisces

1 and Crustacea and to a lesser extent Caenogastropoda and Polychaeta. The focus of both  
2 species on mainly crustacean species is comparable with feeding patterns in other parts of  
3 the North Sea (Daan 1993; Pinnegar 2014). Other studies reported similar diet composition  
4 for the common stingray, but also included additional benthic invertebrate species (Yeldan  
5 et al 2009; Saglam et al 2010; Šantić et al 2011). The diet composition of the starry  
6 smooth-hound also corresponded with the findings of Ellis et al (1996) for the Irish Sea,  
7 but the NIOZ archive data showed an additional consumption of shrimps in the early life  
8 stage. The results for the tope shark found in this study are in line with the those described  
9 for sharks by Cortés (1999).

10 In this study, ontogenetic shifts in diet were only found the lesser spotted dogfish  
11 and the tope shark whereby the prey size and diet composition differed with total length  
12 and life stage, in line with other studies (Lyle 1983; Ellis et al 1996; Henderson & Dunne  
13 2002; Lucifora et al 2006; Martinho et al 2012). In the lesser spotted dogfish, the  
14 occurrence of crab and polychaeta worms decreased with size while in the tope shark  
15 smaller individuals (< 40 cm) had crustaceans in their stomachs and larger individuals had  
16 a wider variety of fish species (Pleuronectiformes, Gadidea). Ontogenetic shifts in diet have  
17 also been described for the thornback ray in contrast to this study. In other areas, young  
18 individuals prey on small crustaceans such as shrimps, while larger individuals consume  
19 larger crustaceans, such as swimming crabs (Holden & Tucker 1974; Ellis et al 1996; Farias  
20 et al 2006). In this study, only large thornback rays > 70 cm showed a higher preference  
21 for Pisces.

22

#### 23 4.2. Trophic position

24

25 Estimates of trophic position might to some extent depend on the methodology  
26 used. In a previous analysis of stomach contents of the lesser spotted dogfish from the  
27 west coast of Ireland, Wieczorek et al (2018) found mainly hard-bodied prey or  
28 vertebrates, such as decapods or fish with a relatively higher trophic level. However, a  
29 simultaneous stable isotope analysis resulted in a lower estimate of the trophic position of

1 the lesser spotted dogfish (Wieczorek et al 2018). Apparently, elasmobranchs digest soft-  
2 bodied prey items very quickly and therefore their contribution is underestimated by  
3 stomach content analysis. Conversely, comparable trophic positions estimated from  
4 isotope composition were found by Jennings and van der Molen (2015) for the two species  
5 in this study (the thornback ray and the starry smooth-hound). This suggests that  
6 estimates of trophic position based on historical stomach content data may be biased due  
7 to missing digested soft prey items. In this study stomachs with a record of only a single  
8 prey item resulted in some cases in an estimate of a very low or high trophic position of  
9 the predator. Most likely other less important prey items were not registered or identified  
10 in these stomachs and as such, estimates of trophic position based on these data are  
11 invalid. However, stomach content analyses remains a simple and valuable tool to  
12 reconstruct the historic trophic position of predators, including predator-prey relationships  
13 and niche overlap. For future studies, it is highly desirable that stomach content analysis  
14 and stable isotope analysis should be combined to unravel the complex trophic ecology of  
15 these elusive predators (Cortés 1999; Flowers et al 2020).

16 The shark and skate species from the Dutch coastal zone also occurred in large  
17 parts of the North Sea (Heessen et al 2015) and included species from different functional  
18 groups (Zijlstra 1983; Elliott & Dewailly 1995). One species, the lesser spotted dogfish,  
19 belonged to the (near)-resident species and three species were juvenile marine migrants:  
20 the thornback ray, the starry smooth-hound and the angelshark. All other species were  
21 marine seasonal visitors. (Near)-resident and juvenile marine migrants were demersal  
22 species, and all marine seasonal visitors were pelagic species. Most niche overlap occurred  
23 among the benthic/demersal species for hermit crabs (lesser spotted dogfish and starry  
24 smooth hound) and for shrimps (thornback ray and starry smooth hound). There was no  
25 evidence for overlap between the lesser spotted dogfish, starry smooth-hound and  
26 thornback ray. The pelagic tope shark had some overlap for fish with the benthic/demersal  
27 lesser spotted dogfish.

28 Estimates of trophic position ranged from 3.2 for thornback ray preying exclusively  
29 on crustaceans to 4.6 for the tope shark consuming higher trophic prey (crustaceans and

1 fish) over the period 1946 - 1954. The calculated trophic position for the shark and skate  
2 species in the Dutch coastal zone in this study corresponds closely with that found in other  
3 parts of the North Sea by Jiming (1982). The calculated trophic positions of shark and  
4 skate species indicate that some species fed at the top of the marine food web, but others  
5 fed at a lower trophic level, but may be top predators of their ecological assemblage.

6

#### 7 4.3. Past role in the food web

8

9 Common thresher, porbeagles, basking and angel sharks have been extremely rare  
10 for a long period in the Dutch Wadden Sea and coastal area (Witte & Zijlstra 1983; Heessen  
11 et al 2015). As such, predation pressure and potential food competition from these species  
12 will have been low for decades. Commercial landings of skates and rays in the past  
13 (Heessen et al 2015; Bom et al 2020) indicate substantial densities in the Dutch coastal  
14 zone at that time and imply that they were an important component of the past food web  
15 and that their disappearance might have caused changes in the community through  
16 competitive release as stated by Stevens et al (2000).

17 The effects of removing large numbers of these top predators on the marine  
18 ecosystem is still largely unknown (Stevens et al 2000), but might be substantial for Dutch  
19 coastal waters. For instance, Lynam et al (2017) suggest that top-down exploitation of  
20 predators has an important effect on the dynamics of other fish populations and can initiate  
21 complex cascading effects. In the North Sea especially planktivorous (top) predators should  
22 play such a central role (Lynam et al 2017).

23 A recent analysis of contemporary food web structure of the Dutch coastal fish  
24 community based on stomach content analysis resulted in trophic positions between 2.0  
25 and 4.7, with most trophic positions above 3.0. Until a few decades ago, (near)-resident  
26 species were the most abundant functional group in spring and juvenile marine migrants  
27 in autumn (Poiesz et al 2020). Part of the shark and skate species analyzed in the study  
28 also belonged to (near)-residents and marine juvenile migrants. Therefore, coastal zone

1 habitats were likely more important for (near)-residents and marine juvenile migrants in  
2 the past than nowadays.

3         The various shark and skate species differ with respect to their prey location, prey  
4 depth, prey size and feeding times (Young et al 2010). Mouth dimensions of skates  
5 correlate with their diet and prey specialization (Walker 1998; Scharf et al 2000). This  
6 trophic or behavioral separation also causes niche segregation. Our work has shown that  
7 these now rare species likely played important trophic roles in Dutch coastal waters.  
8 However, to what extent these species can be considered as top predators within their  
9 own ecological assemblage (Pusineri et al 2008; Young et al 2010), is still unknown. For  
10 instance, some reportedly “top-predator” species such as skates (thornback ray), feed at  
11 a relatively low trophic position and prey to other species with a higher trophic position  
12 (Flowers et al 2020).

13

14

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21

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