

1 **Otolith phenotypic variability of the blue jack mackerel, *Trachurus***  
2 ***picturatus*, from the Canary Islands (NE Atlantic): implications in its**  
3 **population dynamic**

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33 **Abstract**

34 Studies have described the presence of different population units of blue jack mackerel,  
35 *Trachurus picturatus*, in the NE Atlantic region. However, the hypothesis of several  
36 populations has been subtly questioned due to the high similarity in the otolith shape among  
37 some regions. It suggests the possibility of migrations processes connecting them, especially  
38 between Madeira, the Canary Islands and the African coast, being the Canary Islands the region  
39 with higher potential of mixing due to the oceanographic conditions. In order to explore this  
40 hypothesis, we quantified the phenotypic variability in the otolith contour of the blue jack  
41 mackerel from Canary Islands using wavelets as mathematical descriptor. Our findings revealed  
42 the presence of three otolith phenotypes (M1, M2 and M3) in similar proportions. They were  
43 not linked to sex, age and size, but showed temporal variations associated with spawning,  
44 recruitment and feeding seasons. The best model to explain the population structure of *T.*  
45 *picturatus* in the Canary waters was based on local migration triangles and the ‘contingent  
46 theory’, where migrants and residents compose the population. In addition, we estimated  
47 different somatic growth parameters linked to these phenotypes. These results suggest a  
48 complex population structure in the region with possibility of connectivity with the closest  
49 populations inhabiting the Madeira archipelago and the African coast. However, future studies  
50 are necessary including the whole Atlantic distribution of the species, with special attention to  
51 the seasonal variations in the frequency of these phenotypes to clarify the intraspecific  
52 polymorphism and the migratory processes.

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63 *Keywords: sagittae, contour analysis, somatic growth, population structure, small pelagic fish*

## 64 1. Introduction

65 The stock identification has become a crucial topic for fishery science and management  
66 programs (Cadrin *et al.*, 2014). A broad spectrum of techniques has been used for this purpose,  
67 tending to a holistic approach for increasing the likelihood of success (Begg and Waldman,  
68 1999; Higgins *et al.*, 2010; Marengo *et al.*, 2017). These techniques have included the  
69 estimation of life-history parameters (e.g., growth, mortality, spawning) (Begg *et al.*, 1999;  
70 Barrios *et al.*, 2017), the identification and analysis of natural tags (e.g., body and otolith  
71 morphometrics, genetics, parasites, otolith chemical composition) (Thorrold *et al.*, 1997;  
72 Campana *et al.*, 2000; Sturrock *et al.*, 2012; Tanner *et al.*, 2015), and the use of internal and  
73 external markers (i.e., electronic tags, chemical marking) (Nielsen, 1992; Jacobsen and Hansen,  
74 2004; Jepsen *et al.*, 2015). The combination of genetic and biological characteristics is currently  
75 the most recommended approach (Cadrin *et al.*, 2014), although the identification of  
76 morphological phenotypes is the most used (Campana and Casselman, 1993; Cardinale *et al.*,  
77 2004; Turan, 2006; Stransky *et al.*, 2008; Bacha *et al.*, 2014), likely because it is relatively easy,  
78 inexpensive and time-efficient tool.

79 In general, phenotypic analyses are often performed comparing the otolith (Campana and  
80 Casselman, 1993; Cardinale *et al.*, 2004; Stransky *et al.*, 2008) and body shapes (Turan, 2006;  
81 Vasconcelos *et al.*, 2017; Pérez-Quñonez *et al.*, 2018). The great advantage of otolith is the  
82 continuous incorporation of material and no reabsorption (Gauldie and Nelson, 1990), whereas  
83 the plasticity of fish body shape can be reversible through life (Meyer, 1987; Allendorf and  
84 Hard, 2009). In both cases, the phenotypic variability reflects an individual/population response  
85 to different environmental conditions (e.g., temperature, salinity, food availability, substrate  
86 type, depth) (Cardinale *et al.*, 2004; Mérigot *et al.*, 2007; Vignon and Morat, 2010) providing  
87 insight into events that influence life history of fishes (Campana, 2005; Thorrold *et al.*, 2007;  
88 Vignon, 2015). Nevertheless, phenotypic variability has a strong genetic component very  
89 dependent on the connectivity among populations (Swain and Foote, 1999; Hüssy, 2008;  
90 Reichenbacher *et al.*, 2009; Vignon and Morat, 2010; Mahé *et al.*, 2016). The most studies have  
91 been mainly focused on the quantitative analysis of populations defined at *a priori* spatial scale  
92 (local or regional), and the description of the average phenotype (Tuset *et al.*, 2003; Javor *et al.*,  
93 2011; Ider *et al.*, 2017; Vasconcelos *et al.*, 2018). This approach assumes that genetic  
94 expression of continuous traits (as the morphometry and shape of otolith and fish body) results  
95 in phenotypes following a unimodal distribution in each locality (Naish and Hard, 2008).  
96 However, a polymorphism may exist induced by fishing pressure (Kuparinen and Merilä, 2007;  
97 Allendorf and Hard, 2009; Enberg *et al.*, 2009, 2010; Hidalgo *et al.*, 2014; Ward *et al.*, 2016),

98 environmental influences (Pigliucci, 2005; Ramler *et al.*, 2014; Réveillac *et al.*, 2015), simply  
99 due to a natural process as feeding efficiency (Skulason *et al.*, 1989; Schluter, 1995; Chavarie  
100 *et al.*, 2016), or different somatic growth rates within population (Rodgveller *et al.*, 2017).

101 The blue jack mackerel, *Trachurus picturatus* (Bowdich, 1825), is a medium pelagic species  
102 with high economic value reaching depths beyond 500 m (Denda *et al.*, 2017) and inhabiting  
103 the central-eastern Atlantic waters, from the Bay of Biscay (France) southward to Mauritania  
104 (Jurado-Ruzafa *et al.*, 2011, 2019) including Azores, Madeira and the Canary Islands  
105 (Macaronesian archipelagos), and eastward into the Mediterranean Sea (Smith-Vaniz and  
106 Berry, 1981). Previous studies based on genetic (Zenkin and Ryazantseva, 1987), parasitology  
107 (Costa *et al.*, 2012, 2013; ICES, 2013, Vasconcelos *et al.*, 2017), otolith microchemistry  
108 (Moreira *et al.*, 2018), and otolith and fish-body shape analysis (Shaboneyev and Ryazantseva,  
109 1977; Vasconcelos *et al.*, 2018; Moreira *et al.*, 2019a) had concluded that the insular and  
110 continental populations were different. However, a recent study has revealed the lack of genetic  
111 differentiation between the whole Atlantic and Mediterranean populations (Moreira *et al.*,  
112 2019b). In fact, some authors had already suggested the possibility of mixed stocks (Moreira *et*  
113 *al.*, 2018, 2019a; Vasconcelos *et al.*, 2018). The European Commission is requiring establishing  
114 separate quotas in the Macaronesian Atlantic archipelagos (Council Regulation (EU) 2018/120)  
115 and, therefore, defining the structure of the entire population in the CE Atlantic is mandatory.  
116 In general, *Trachurus* spp. are characterized by a migratory behaviour related to the life cycle  
117 (Abaunza, et al., 2003, 2008; Ruas and Vaz-dos-Santos, 2017). To understand their populations  
118 structures two population models have been proposed: the ‘migration triangle’ of Harden Jones  
119 (1968) —which illustrates migration circuits throughout the life cycle (Arcos *et al.*, 2001;  
120 Abaunza *et al.*, 2008)—and the metapopulation concept (Levins, 1969, 1970)—with migratory  
121 sub-units with different levels of connectivity (Gerlotto *et al.*, 2012; Hintzen *et al.*, 2014;  
122 Bertrand *et al.*, 2016; Sassa *et al.*, 2016). *A priori* the population structure of *T. picturatus* of  
123 the North East Atlantic seems to be enclosed within local migration triangle model  
124 (Vasconcelos *et al.*, 2018; Moreira *et al.*, 2018, 2019a), where continental/islands shelf could  
125 function as nursery or growth zone, and offshore (seamount/bank) areas would act as feeding  
126 zones (Gomes *et al.*, 2001; Arkhipov *et al.*, 2002; Menezes *et al.*, 2006).

127 Small and medium pelagic stocks from the Canary Islands have recently been included in  
128 the annual assessment framework of the Fishery Committee for the Eastern Central Atlantic  
129 (CECAF) (FAO, 2016). It entails the knowledge on biology and ecology of the species and the  
130 correct delimitation of stock boundaries for an adequate status assessment of these populations.  
131 Although the population of blue jack mackerel completes its life cycle in Canary archipelago

132 (Jurado-Ruzafa *et al.*, 2011, 2013; Moyano and Hernández-León, 2011), some studies have  
133 suggested the possibility of connectivity with other closer populations. In particular, the  
134 presence of larvae has been occasionally detected into upwelling filaments from the African  
135 coast that reach the Canary Islands (Moyano *et al.*, 2009, 2014; Rodríguez *et al.*, 2009; Brochier  
136 *et al.*, 2011), which could represent a complementary source of individuals, making the  
137 population structure more complex (John and Zelck, 1997; Moyano and Hernández-León,  
138 2009). Also, some authors have suggested connectivity among the Macaronesian archipelagos,  
139 and also with the Portugal mainland due to the high similarity in the chemical composition and  
140 shape of otoliths (Vasconcelos *et al.*, 2018; Moreira *et al.*, 2018, 2019a). However, the possible  
141 processes of mixing/connectivity remain unknown. For those reasons, the main goal of the  
142 present study was the otolith shape analysis of *T. picturatus* from the Canary Islands (i) to  
143 determine the otolith phenotype variability; (ii) to establish if there are seasonal changes in the  
144 frequency of these morphotypes, which may indicate migratory process; and (iii) to establish  
145 the relationship between phenotypes and somatic growth. The initial hypothesis is that  
146 population might be composed of several phenotypes due to nearby with the African coast and  
147 Madeira archipelago.

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## 149 **2. Material and methods**

### 150 *2.1. Data sources*

151 The present study was performed using a biological database of blue jack mackerel of the  
152 Canary Oceanographic Centre of the Spanish Oceanographic Institute (IEO) in the Canary  
153 Islands (Spain). It was composed by 2,472 individuals monthly collected from the commercial  
154 landings between March 2005 and March 2006 in the Tenerife Island (NE Atlantic Ocean, Fig.  
155 1), where more than 70% of the annual landings of small pelagic fish in the Canary Islands are  
156 performed (EU, 2017). All the specimens were measured for total length (*TL*, 0.1 cm) applying  
157 a correction factor for avoiding a size loss by freezing process (Jurado-Ruzafa and Santamaría,  
158 2013). Sex was macroscopically assigned and categorized into three types: juvenile, male and  
159 female (Jurado-Ruzafa and Santamaría, 2013). The *sagittae* otoliths were extracted, cleaned,  
160 and storage dried in labeled vials for the ageing and morphological studies. However, only  
161 otoliths of 472 specimens with the clearest annuli deposition (from 0 to 6 years, see Jurado-  
162 Ruzafa and Santamaría, 2018) were considered for our purpose. Finally, the unique data of 6  
163 years-old age was eliminated from subsample to avoid biases.

164

### 165 *2.2. Otolith shape analysis*

166 The left otoliths were placed with the inner side (*sulcus acusticus*) downward and rostrum  
167 to the right (Fig. S1, Supplementary material). They were digitized against a black background  
168 using a digital camera coupled to a stereomicroscope at 10× magnification and NIS-Elements  
169 F<sup>©</sup> imaging software. ImageJ 1.50i (<http://imagej.nih.gov/ij>) was used for taking measurements  
170 of otolith length (*OL*, 0.01 mm).

171 The shape was analysed using wavelet functions whose advantage in relation to other  
172 contour analyses (i.e., Elliptic Fourier, Fast Fourier Transform or shape indices) is that they  
173 enable to identify single morphological points (landmarks) located on the x-axis along the  
174 contour, where the *rostrum* is the origin of the contour (Parisi-Baradad *et al.*, 2005; Lombarte  
175 *et al.*, 2006; Sadighzadeh *et al.*, 2012). A total of 512 equidistant Cartesian coordinates on each  
176 orthogonal projection of the otolith were extracted and analysed using the wavelet transformed  
177 (*WLT*; see Parisi-Baradad *et al.*, 2005). Image processing was performed using the image  
178 analysis software Age and Shape (version 1.0; Infaimon SL<sup>©</sup>, Barcelona, Spain). Each contour  
179 originated nine wavelets depending on the degree of otolith detail (Fig. 2). The 4<sup>th</sup> wavelet was  
180 used in the present study since it is the best scale for the discrimination of stocks (Sadighzadeh  
181 *et al.*, 2014), related to intraspecific differentiation of otolith phenotypes.

182

### 183 2.3. Statistical analysis

184 A principal component analysis (PCA) based on the variance–covariance matrix was  
185 performed to reduce the wavelet functions without losing information (Sadighzadeh *et al.*,  
186 2012, 2014; Tuset *et al.*, 2015, 2016). To detect the significant eigenvectors, the percentage of  
187 total explained variation of eigenvectors *versus* proportion of variance expected under the  
188 “broken stick model” was plotted (Frontier, 1976; Gauldie and Crampton, 2002). Intraspecific  
189 differences that might be attributed to allometry were tested using Pearson’s correlations  
190 between otolith length and the principal components (Stransky and MacLellan, 2005; Tuset *et*  
191 *al.*, 2015). The effect of otolith length was removed using the residuals of the common within-  
192 group slopes of the linear regressions of each component on otolith length, building a new PCA  
193 matrix (Tuset *et al.*, 2015, 2016). The new PCA components were tested for normality and the  
194 homogeneity using a permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA;  
195 Anderson, 2001) with 9,999 permutations and the Manhattan distance to detect differences  
196 sexes.

197 Clustering of otoliths was performed using the *k-means* algorithm with the package *NbClust*  
198 in R, a common method for partitioning a dataset into groups of patterns (Hartigan and Wong,  
199 1979). It divides data set into a pre-defined *k* number of clusters (here ranging between 2 to 10)

200 whereby each observation is assigned to the cluster that minimises the distance of that point to  
201 the cluster centroid. The most subjective element in *K*-means clustering is the requirement for  
202 the input of a predefined number of clusters into the algorithm (Hung *et al.*, 2005; Yao *et al.*,  
203 2013). To determine the number of clusters (also named ‘morphotypes’ or ‘M’) we used the  
204 ‘all’ criteria for obtaining the more common effective solution. To validate the optional  
205 solution, several internal and stability measures were obtained for the more probably options  
206 using the package *clValid* (Brock *et al.*, 2008).

207 A statistical test of independence ( $\chi^2$ ) was performed to determine the influence of sexes  
208 (males and females) on the type of morphotype and to examine possible variations of the  
209 frequency of juveniles and adults of each morphotype through the year. For that, the catch date  
210 was grouped in three periods following the life cycle proposed for *Trachurus murphyi* (Gerlotto  
211 *et al.*, 2012) and adapted for *T. picturatus* (Jurado-Ruzafa and Santamaría, 2011, 2013):  
212 breeding (January-April), feeding (May-July) and recruitment (August-December). The adult  
213 specimens were considered from age-1 since mature specimens were reported from this age  
214 (Jurado-Ruzafa and Santamaría, 2013, 2018).

215 The total length and age of fish were tested for the assumption of normality and homogeneity  
216 of variance using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (*K-S*) test for goodness-of-fit, and Bartlett’s test  
217 (Zar, 1996), respectively. Since variables were not normally distributed, the comparison of  
218 mean values among morphotypes was performed using a non-parametric test (Kruskall Wallis  
219 test) (Zar, 1996). To determine whether the fish age and length-frequency distributions differ  
220 between them, a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used. This test identifies differences between  
221 two observed frequency distributions and is particularly sensitive to deviations in skew and  
222 kurtosis: hence a Bonferroni correction was employed to account for multiple comparisons  
223 among them.

224 To analyse the disparities in the fish growth parameters among morphotypes, von  
225 Bertalanffy growth (VBG) model (Von Bertalanffy, 1938) was fitted:

226 
$$L_t = L_{inf}(1 - e^{-k(t-t_0)}) + \varepsilon$$

227 where  $L_t$  is the predicted mean length at age  $t$ ,  $L_{inf}$  is the asymptotic mean length,  $k$  is the growth  
228 rate,  $t_0$  is the theoretical age at which length is 0, and  $\varepsilon$  denotes the belief that residuals would  
229 be distributed normally about the expected growth line (Haddon, 2001). Starting parameters for  
230 the model were determined using a Ford-Walford plot. A Gauss-Newton’s algorithm for  
231 nonlinear least square procedure was used to estimate the growth parameters. Confidence  
232 intervals of growth parameters were calculated via bootstrapping with 1,000 iterations. The fish  
233 growth parameters were estimated with the package *FSA* (Ogle, 2016) in R. The comparison of

234 fish growth parameters among morphotypes was performed without fixed variables, fixing one,  
235 two or the three parameters and using Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) to investigate the  
236 robustness models. In particular, the  $\Delta AIC$  value was used ( $\Delta AIC = 0$ ) to find the 'best' model,  
237 which is the difference between the AIC value for each model and the lowest observed  $\Delta AIC$   
238 value. Moreover, models with AIC values differing by less than 2 were considered equally  
239 plausible (Burnham and Anderson, 2002).

240 All statistical analyses and graphical representations were conducted with the software R (R  
241 Core Team, 2016).

242

### 243 3. Results

#### 244 3.1. Otolith phenotypic variability

245 The first 27 principal components of the PCA analysis accounted for higher variance than  
246 expected by chance alone (93.1%), but only the first six components reached values above 5%  
247 of the variance (Table S1, Supplementary material). The PERMANOVA analysis did not  
248 indicate significant differences in the otolith shape between sexes ( $F_{1, 470} = 1.242, p = 0.217$ ).

249 The result of *K*-means analysis suggested the presence of 2 or 3 morphotypes as the best  
250 option interpreting the distribution data (Fig. S1, Supplementary material). However, the  
251 validation measures clearly showed that the best solution was the selection of 3 morphotypes  
252 (M1, M2 and M3) (Table S1, Supplementary material). Assuming this premise, the positive  
253 values of PC1 axis (20.4% of variance explained) represented a lanceolated shape (M2) *versus*  
254 a more elliptic pattern (M3) characterized by a wider and more concavity of dorsal-ventral  
255 margin (Figs. 3a, b) (Fig. S3, Supplementary material). The density distributions of the three  
256 morphotypes showed a skewed unimodal pattern linked to the standard phenotype described  
257 before. The negative records of PC2 axis (12.6% of variance) differentiated the otoliths with a  
258 peaked *antirostrum* (M2 and M3); whereas the positive values identified otolith with an  
259 *antirostrum* absent or few developed (M1) (Figs. 3a, b) (Fig. S3, Supplementary material). For  
260 this space, the density distribution of M3 exhibited a skewed unimodal pattern, whereas the M1  
261 and M2 displayed skewed bimodal patterns. These results indicated that the *antirostrum* size  
262 was different among the three phenotypes. In addition, the PC5 and PC6 axis discerned the  
263 posterior margin of otolith in angled or oblique (Fig. S3, Supplementary material).

264

#### 265 3.2. Seasonal variability of phenotypes

266 There was no difference in the frequency of males and females among phenotypes ( $\chi^2 =$   
267 3.189,  $df = 2, p = 0.203$ ). However, the adult/juvenile proportions in each morphotype were not



268 independent of the life cycle ( $\chi^2= 37.421$ ,  $\chi^2= 69.428$ ,  $\chi^2= 31.433$ ;  $df= 2$  and  $p < 0.001$  for M1,  
269 M2 and M3, respectively). Juveniles were mainly detected in the recruitment period, although  
270 they also predominated during the feeding period for the M1 and breeding season for M2 and  
271 M3 (Fig. 4). A high relative frequency of adult fish for the three morphotypes was observed  
272 during the feeding period (>55%), which noticeably decreased in the spawning time (Fig. 4).

273

### 274 3.3. Linking phenotypes with fish growth

275 Although there were no significant differences in the age and total length average among  
276 morphotypes (Table 1), significant variations were detected in the distribution of M1 *versus*  
277 M2 (K-S test,  $Z= 0.166$ ,  $p= 0.020$  for age;  $Z= 0.202$ ,  $p= 0.001$  for total length) and M3 (K-S  
278 test,  $Z= 0.194$ ,  $p= 0.007$  for age;  $Z= 0.239$ ,  $p < 0.001$  for total length) (Fig. 5). In contrast, the  
279 structure was similar for M2 and M3 (K-S test,  $Z= 0.208$ ,  $p= 0.003$  for age;  $Z= 0.068$ ,  $p= 0.877$   
280 for total length) (Fig. 5).

281 Three models of fish growth were selected on the basis of  $\Delta AIC$  value (Table S3). The best  
282 model ( $\Delta AIC= 0$ ) indicated a differential growth linked to the morphotypes described (Table  
283 2). In this case, the VBG parameters with the lowest growth rate ( $k=0.143$  years<sup>-1</sup>) and highest  
284 asymptotic length ( $L_{inf}= 40.95$  cm *TL*) were estimated for specimens with M2; whereas the  
285 fastest growth ( $k=0.321$  years<sup>-1</sup>) and lowest asymptotic length ( $L_{inf}= 29.94$  cm *TL*) were attained  
286 for individuals with M3. However, models fixing  $L_{inf}$  ( $\Delta AIC= 0.5$ ) or  $k$  ( $\Delta AIC= 1.6$ ) were also  
287 plausible, attaining smaller growth parameters the morphotypes M2 and M3 (Table 2).

288

## 289 4. Discussion

290 The present study demonstrated that *T. picturatus* from the Canary Islands present variability  
291 in the otolith shape. The analytical methods revealed the presence three phenotypes (M1, M2  
292 and M3), which were independent of sex and age. Their identification was based on well-  
293 defined features: the presence/absence of *antirostrum* and notch in the *excisura ostii*, and the  
294 type of curvature of the dorsal-posterior and ventral margins. However, the skewed  
295 (asymmetrical) distribution of morphotypes (see PC1 axis, Fig. 3) and the bi-modal distribution  
296 noted in the M1 and M2 (see PC2 axis, Fig. 3) might question the suitability of the results  
297 obtained. In this sense, the tails of distribution were related to contour irregularities, whereas  
298 the bi-modal pattern illustrated the morphological variability in the *antirostrum* zone (e.g., more  
299 pointed *versus* blunt, or the degree of convexity of margin when *antirostrum* is absent/present).  
300 This representation of specific details is a particular quality of wavelets (Parisi-Baradad *et al.*,

301 2005) *versus* Elliptic Fourier (Moreira *et al.*, 2019a), but these features are certainly  
302 inconsistent for the partitioning of patterns.

303 Although the phenotypic variability described in the present study has been already shown  
304 in other studies (Vasconcelos *et al.*, 2006; Moreira *et al.*, 2019a) and websites (AFORO;  
305 www.isis.cmima.csic.es/aforo/; Lombarte *et al.*, 2006), its frequency is unexplored for all the  
306 Atlantic and Mediterranean populations. For that reason, our findings open a new perspective  
307 on the population structure of *T. picturatus* and reinforce the idea that any fishing management  
308 scenario should require a more exhaustive phenotypic knowledge for a more precise  
309 understanding of the population dynamics. Besides, they may be useful to anticipate how  
310 populations respond to natural and anthropogenic processes (Ward *et al.*, 2016).

311

#### 312 4.1. Population structure

313 The seasonal variation of juveniles and adults through annual cycle suggested a population  
314 model based on local migration triangles (Gomes *et al.*, 2001; Arkhipov *et al.*, 2002; Menezes  
315 *et al.*, 2006). The low relative abundance of adults during the recruitment period would be due  
316 to a migratory behaviour towards deeper-waters for feeding. After, they would move into  
317 coastal waters for spawning and would remain feeding inshore before returning to seamounts.  
318 Juveniles would inhabit in coastal areas and be more abundant in the recruitment and breeding  
319 seasons since the peak spawning is around February (Jurado-Ruzafa and Santamaría, 2011,  
320 2013). However, juveniles with phenotype M1 showed an alternative pattern declining during  
321 the breeding season and noticeably increasing during the feeding period. One possible  
322 explanation of those specific differences may be the existence of behavioural groups with  
323 distinct circuits that mix during certain seasons and life history stages. Considering this  
324 hypothesis, the population structure of *T. picturatus* from the Canary Islands may be closer to  
325 the ‘contingent theory’ (Secor 1999, 2002, 2005), according to which, coexisting migratory and  
326 resident contingents (understood as a group of individuals) with different capabilities and life-  
327 cycle patterns (ICES, 2007) would coexist. In fact, secondary spawning and recruitment areas  
328 in oceanic waters are considered in *T. murphyi* (Gerlotto *et al.*, 2012), and aggregations of  
329 spawners have been observed offshore of the Azores in *T. picturatus* (Arkhipov *et al.*, 2002),  
330 as occur in other fish species (Keating *et al.*, 2014). The ‘contingent theory’ considers that a  
331 simple migration triangle only represents one contingent in a sympatric complex of contingents.  
332 Thus, the population contains several different sets of individuals with natal homing behaviours  
333 directed toward different natal locations. In this scenario, phenotypes M2 and M3 may  
334 correspond to a contingent developing its life cycle closer inshore (Jurado-Ruzafa and

335 Santamaría, 2011, 2013; Moyano and Hernández-León, 2011), whereas the phenotype M1 may  
336 represent a contingent with a more offshore life style with phases closer to the coast.

337

#### 338 4.2. Implications of phenotypic variability

339 The intraspecific variations in otolith shape (e.g., convexity) response to specific exogenous  
340 factors (Hüssy, 2008; Tuset *et al.*, 2015), whereas the *rostrum* and *antirostrum* size are linked  
341 to genetic variations (Reichenbacher *et al.*, 2009; Vignon and Morat, 2010; Radharkrishnan *et*  
342 *al.*, 2012; Reichenbacher and Reichard, 2014). Nevertheless, the presence of similar  
343 phenotypes in populations across the NE Atlantic and the Mediterranean (Lombarte *et al.*, 2006;  
344 Vasconcelos *et al.*, 2006; Moreira *et al.*, 2019a) is not consistent with a partial genetic isolation,  
345 which was recently rejected by Moreira *et al.* (2019b). Thus, the possibility of variations in the  
346 somatic growth related to differential behaviour may be an option more plausible as occurs in  
347 other fish species (Karlou-Riga, 2000; Tuset *et al.*, 2016; Rodgveller *et al.*, 2017). Moreover,  
348 the presence of *antirostrum* has been related to shallower coastal habitat and the formation of  
349 large fish aggregations with local movements (Vignon, 2012).

350 Theoretically, the slower growing individuals have larger (elongated) otoliths than faster  
351 growing fishes of the same size (Secor and Dean, 1989; Reznick *et al.*, 1989; Francis *et al.*,  
352 1993; Worthington *et al.*, 1995; Tuset *et al.*, 2004). From the three plausible models of fish  
353 growth obtained, only the non-fixing model perfectly correlated the fish and otolith growth:  
354 slower growing individuals (M2) would have elongated otoliths and faster growing individuals  
355 (M3) would present elliptic otoliths. Certainly, the fish and otolith growth depends on the prey  
356 availability and type. The slower growing individuals swim more efficiently increasing food  
357 availability leading to larger size and fitness avoiding adverse environmental conditions,  
358 whereas faster-growth fishes intake more prey reaching more quickly age/size at maturation  
359 and achieving higher recruitments (Chapman *et al.*, 2012a,b; Gillanders *et al.*, 2015).  
360 Specimens of *T. picturatus* with smaller mouth ingest mainly copepods and amphipods,  
361 whereas individuals with larger mouth capture more highly mobile prey as fish (Cuscó, 2015).  
362 However, the main problem of non-fixing model was the high value of  $L_{inf}$  for M2 (40.95 cm  
363 TL) since the largest fish was 28.9 cm TL, which also occurred in the Azores population (García  
364 *et al.*, 2014). Jurado-Ruzafa and Santamaría (2018) argued that larger specimens might be  
365 found in areas that are not exploited by the artisanal purse-seine fleet, which undertakes daily  
366 trips close to the coast around the Canary archipelago. We think that these morphotypes reflect  
367 variations in the fish growth rates, but the estimated von Bertalanffy growth parameters in the

368 present study should not be used for other purposes such as fishing assessment due to low  
369 number of specimens by case.

370

## 371 **5. Conclusions**

372 The phenotypic variability on the otolith shape of *T. picturatus* from the Canary Islands  
373 reveals a population composed by specimens, likely with different life history traits. The most  
374 plausible explanation to outline population structure is a spatial model based on the ‘contingent  
375 theory’; however, this model would require further analysis for its confirmation (i.e., telemetric  
376 techniques). Assuming this theory, the mechanisms underlying the migratory process should be  
377 understood both within the specific context of each island as in the whole Canary archipelago.  
378 In any case, we do not dismiss a regional connectivity by larvae transport or oceanic migration,  
379 as several authors have suggested (Vasconcelos *et al.*, 2018; Moreira *et al.*, 2019a). In fact,  
380 Vasconcelos *et al.* (2018) emphasized that an accurate assessment of *T. picturatus* in overall  
381 Atlantic area would be necessary to implement the knowledge on migratory processes (vertical  
382 and/or horizontal) for detecting the location and time of year when mixing of stocks occurs.  
383 Moreover, the comparative studies among regions should be careful in the sampling scheme  
384 and in the otolith age-interpretation. Therefore, the discrepancies found at a regional scale  
385 should be taken with caution. Finally, the possible presence of mixed populations in the  
386 artisanal small pelagic fishery in the Canary Islands constitutes a huge challenge to design an  
387 appropriate managing strategy, even more in the current climate change scenario. Besides, this  
388 kind of scientific studies should be performed for other exploited small pelagic fish inhabiting  
389 waters around the Canary Islands, due to it is more than probable that similar situations are  
390 occurring for other species. The results here presented open a wide range of opportunities for  
391 further studies which will need the coordinated work to clarify the dynamics of this species, not  
392 only at a local, but also at the regional scale.

393

394

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## 688 689 **Legends**

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691 **Fig. 1.** Geographical location of *Trachurus picturatus* sampled off the north-eastern Atlantic  
692 Ocean. Arrows indicates theoretical hypotheses on the stock mixing in the Canary Islands.

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694 **Fig. 2.** Decomposition of otolith contour using wavelet functions in *Trachurus picturatus* from  
695 the Canary Islands (NE Atlantic Ocean). X-axis is the 512 equidistant points of contour; Y-axis  
696 represents the mean normalized distance. The wavelets 4 were used for the identification of  
697 stocks following Sadighzadeh *et al.* (2014).

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699 **Fig. 3.** (a) Scatterplot of the first and second axes of the PCA and marginal density distribution  
700 plots of the three otolith phenotypes found in *Trachurus picturatus* from the Canary Islands  
701 (NE Atlantic Ocean); (b) Average decomposition of otolith contour of the three phenotypes  
702 showing the zones with higher intraspecific variability. Colour circles indicate the centroid of  
703 each morphotype.

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705 **Fig. 4.** Temporal and ontogenetic variability of the three otolith phenotypes found in *Trachurus*  
706 *picturatus* from the Canary Islands (NE Atlantic Ocean). Ad., adult; Juv., juvenile. Breeding,  
707 January-April; Feeding, May-July; Recruitment, August-December (Jurado-Ruzafa and  
708 Santamaría, 2011, 2013). The percentage and number of specimens (in parenthesis) by group  
709 are given.

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711 **Fig. 5.** Frequency distributions by fish age and size of the three otolith phenotypes found in  
712 *Trachurus picturatus* from the Canary Islands (NE Atlantic Ocean).

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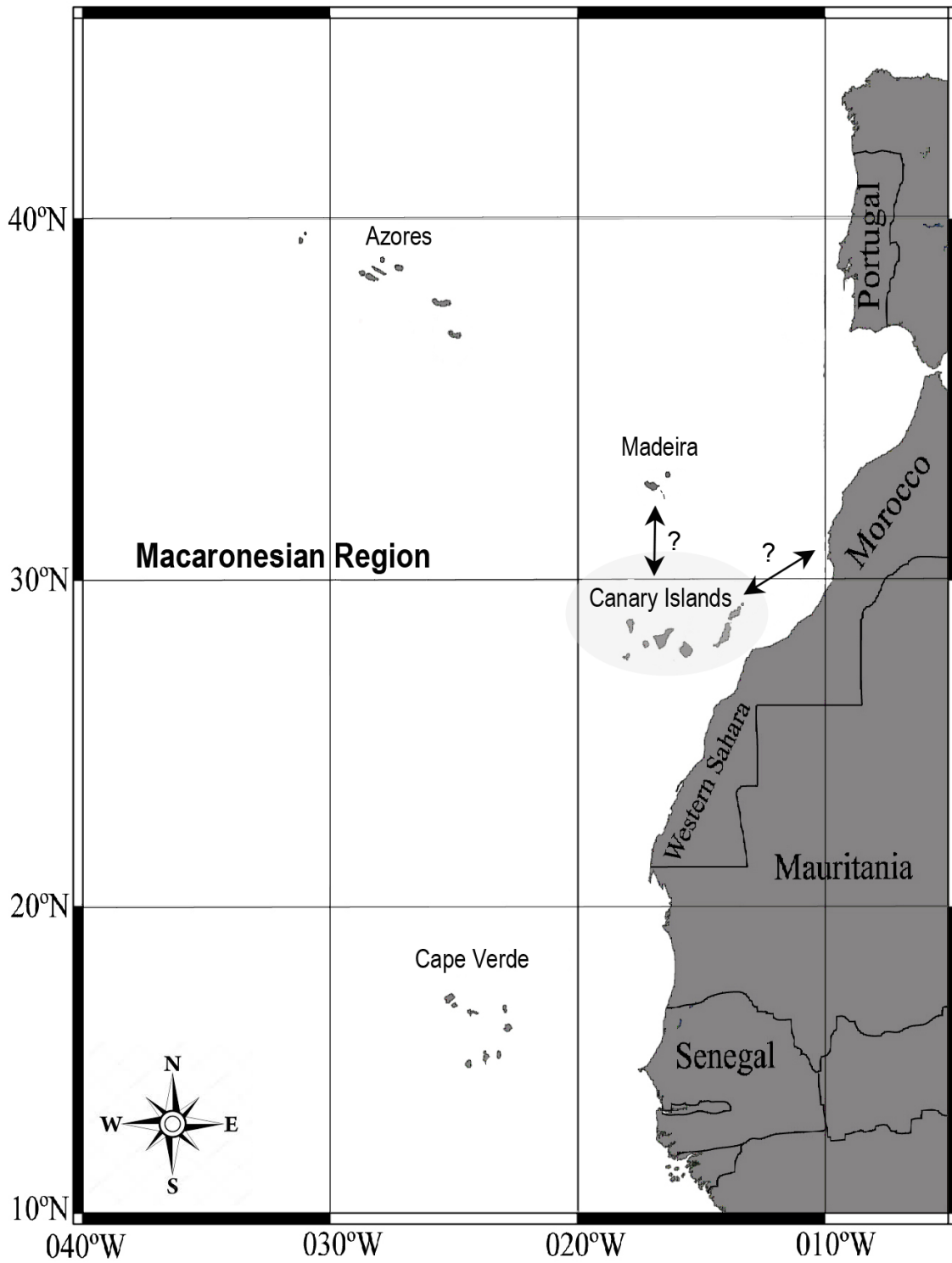
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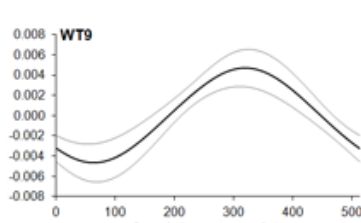
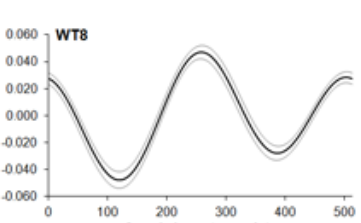
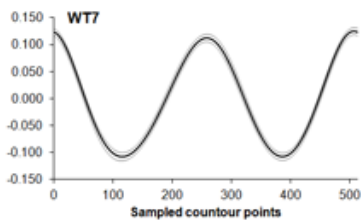
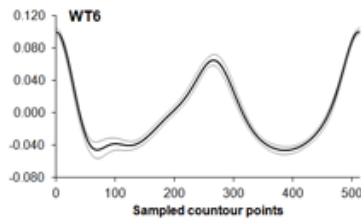
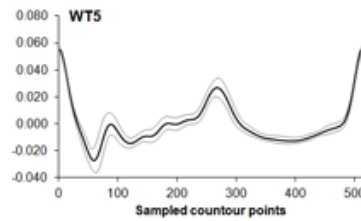
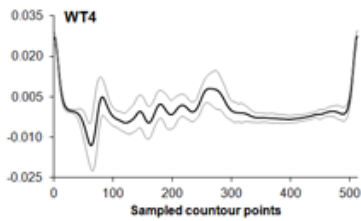
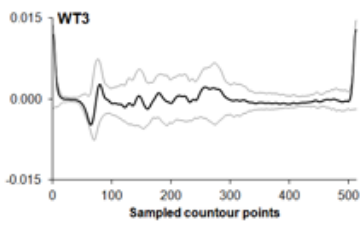
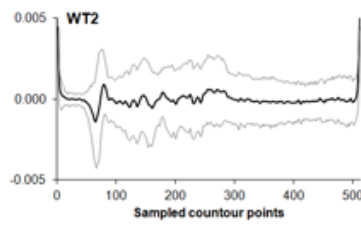
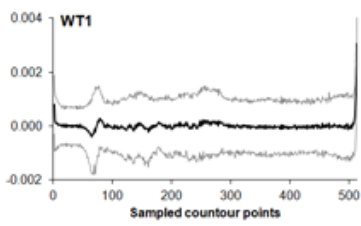
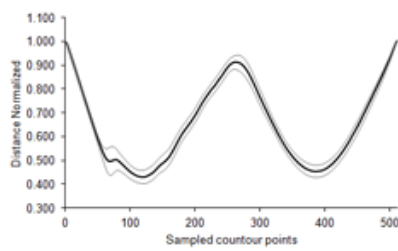
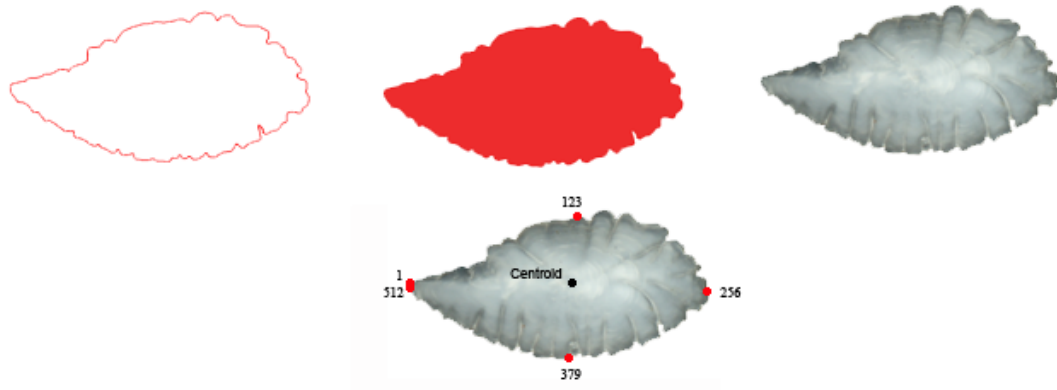
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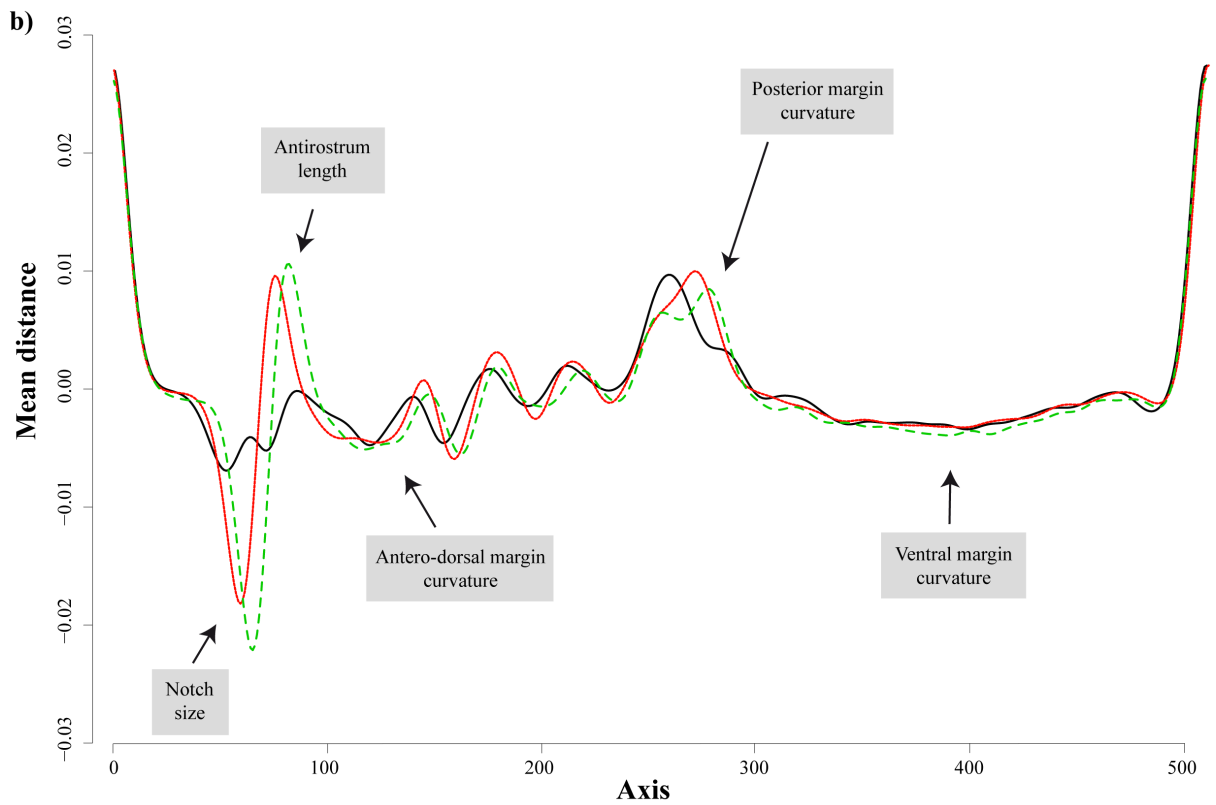
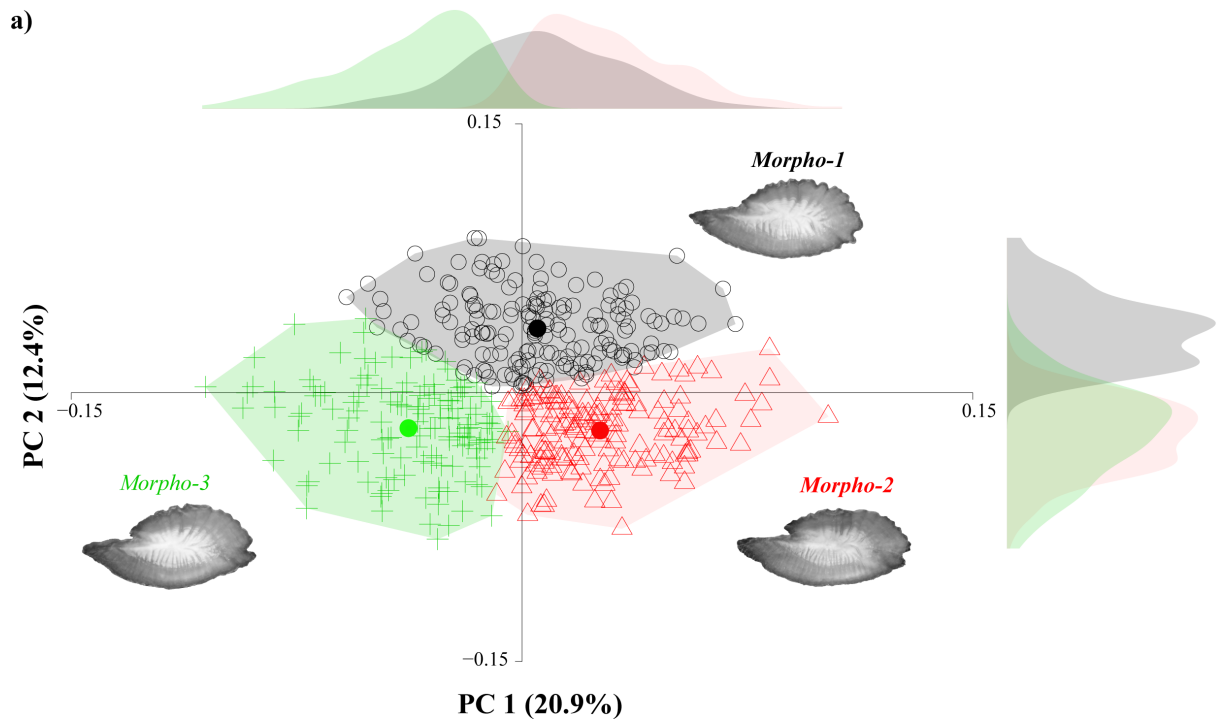
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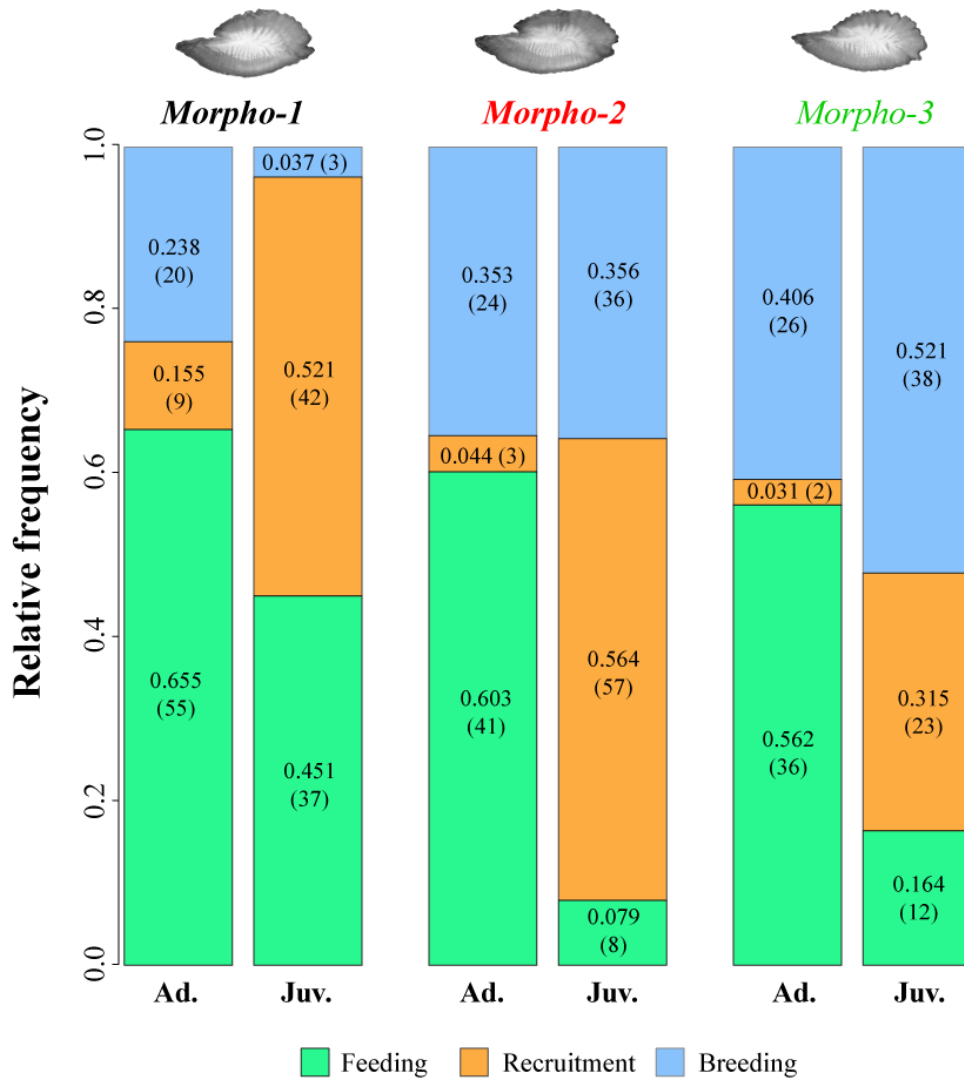
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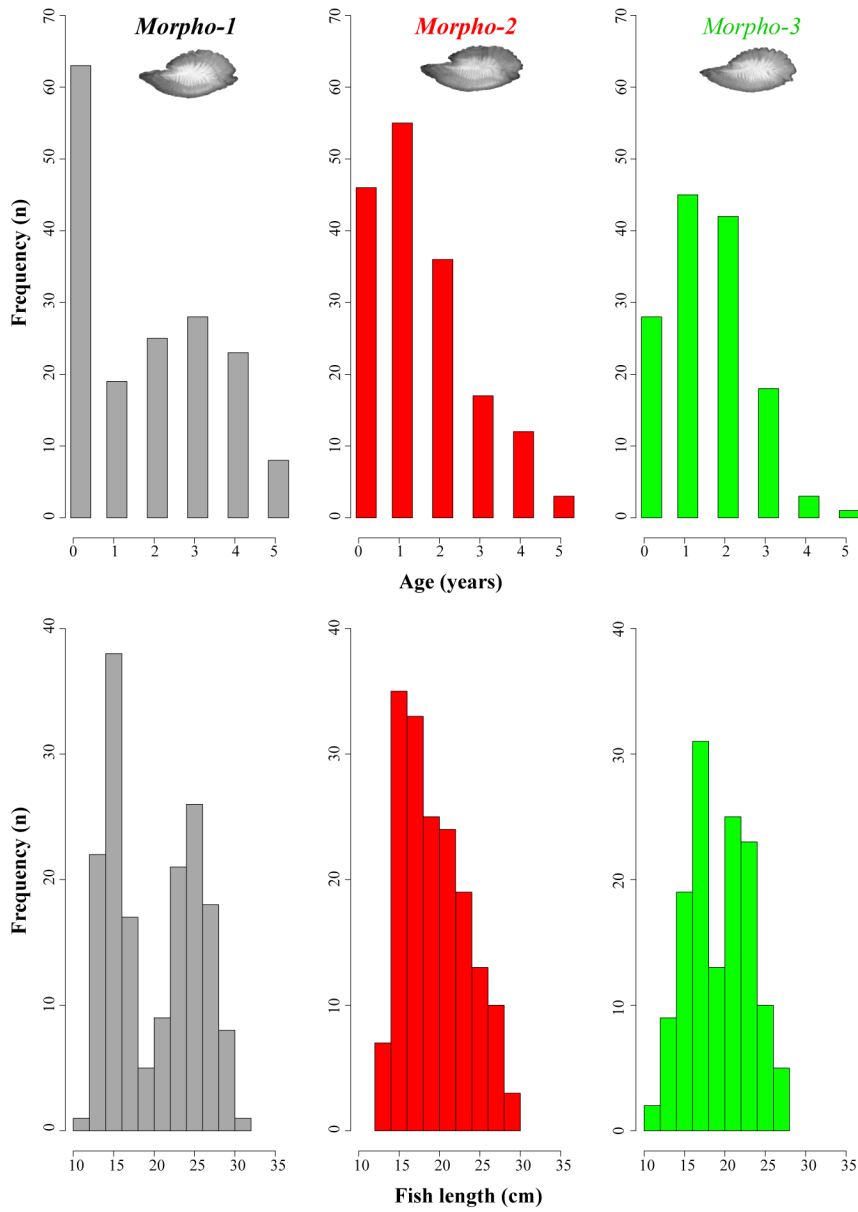
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**Table 1**

Mean comparison of the fish and otolith length and age between morphotypes of *Trachurus picturatus* from the Canary Islands (NE Atlantic Ocean). n, number of individuals; ns, non-significant; *OL*, otolith length; *TL*, total length.

Variable	<i>Morphotype 1</i> (n= 166)			<i>Morphotype 2</i> (n= 169)			<i>Morphotype 3</i> (n= 137)			Kruskall- Wallis test
	min.	max.	mean ± sd	min.	max.	mean ± sd	min.	max.	mean ± sd	
<i>TL</i> (cm)	11.3	32	20.01 ± 5.40	12.4	28.9	19.46 ± 4.00	10.4	27.2	19.29 ± 3.76	0.328 (ns)
<i>OL</i> (mm)	3.20	8.67	5.80 ± 1.44	3.93	8.53	5.79 ± 1.05	2.94	7.53	5.70 ± 0.97	0.158 (ns)
<i>Age</i> (years)	0	5	1.72 ± 1.65	0	5	1.43 ± 1.28	0	5	1.46 ± 1.07	0.375 (ns)

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**Table 2**  
 Estimation of the von Bertalanffy growth parameters using the otolith reading method for the morphotypes of *Trachurus picturatus* from the Canary Islands (NE Atlantic Ocean). C.I., confidence intervals;  $k$ , growth rate ( $\text{year}^{-1}$ );  $L_{inf}$ , asymptotic length (cm); n, number of individuals; ns, non-significant;  $t_0$ , time (year).

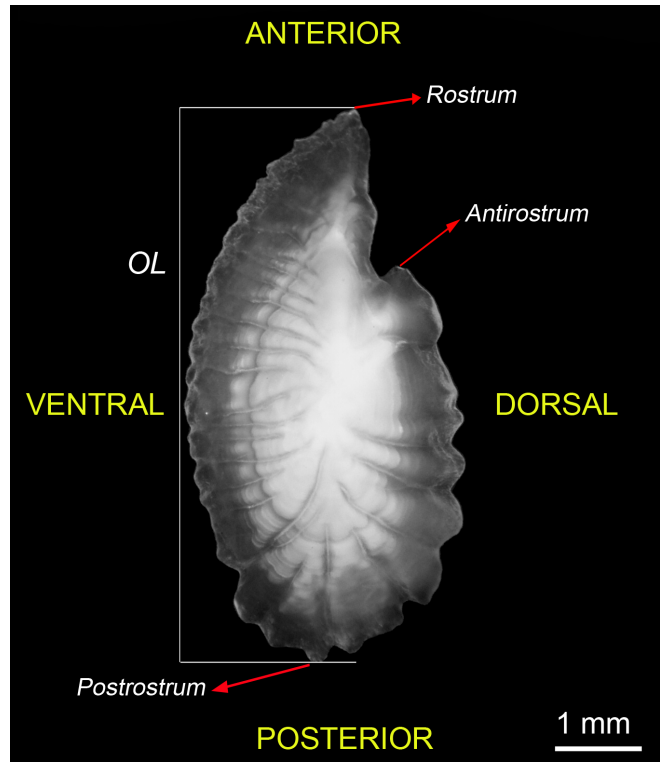
Parameters		Non-fixing			Fixing $L_{inf}$			Fixing $k$		
		Morphotype 1 (n=166)	Morphotype 2 (n=169)	Morphotype 3 (n=137)	Morphotype 1 (n=166)	Morphotype 2 (n=169)	Morphotype 3 (n=137)	Morphotype 1 (n=166)	Morphotype 2 (n=169)	Morphotype 3 (n=137)
$L_{inf}$	Estimate	32.46	40.95	29.64		33.25		34.03	32.54	32.55
	Standar error	1.84	7.19	2.38		1.56		1.63	1.57	1.74
	Lower 2.5% C.I.	28.85	27.05	24.96		30.16		30.83	29.45	29.17
	Upper 97.5% C.I.	35.94	54.04	34.35		36.31		37.23	35.63	36.00
$k$	Estimate	0.28	0.14	0.32	0.26	0.23	0.24		0.25	
	Standar error	0.05	0.05	0.08	0.04	0.03	0.03		0.03	
	Lower 2.5% C.I.	0.19	0.05	0.17	0.19	0.17	0.18		0.18	
	Upper 97.5% C.I.	0.38	0.25	0.47	0.34	0.29	0.29		0.30	
$t_0$	Estimate	-2.04	-3.21	-2.00	-2.11	-2.58	-2.36	-2.20	-2.47	-2.32
	Standar error	0.21	0.49	0.30	0.18	0.22	0.20	0.17	0.20	0.19
	Lower 2.5% C.I.	-2.44	-4.08	-2.59	-2.46	-3.00	-2.76	-2.53	-2.85	-2.69
	Upper 97.5% C.I.	-1.62	-2.24	-1.42	-1.76	-2.16	-1.96	-1.87	-2.08	-1.96

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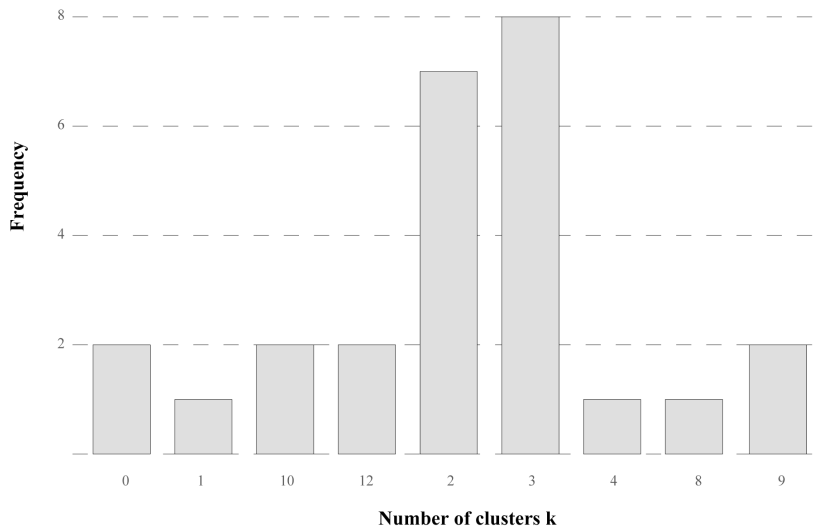
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### Supplementary material



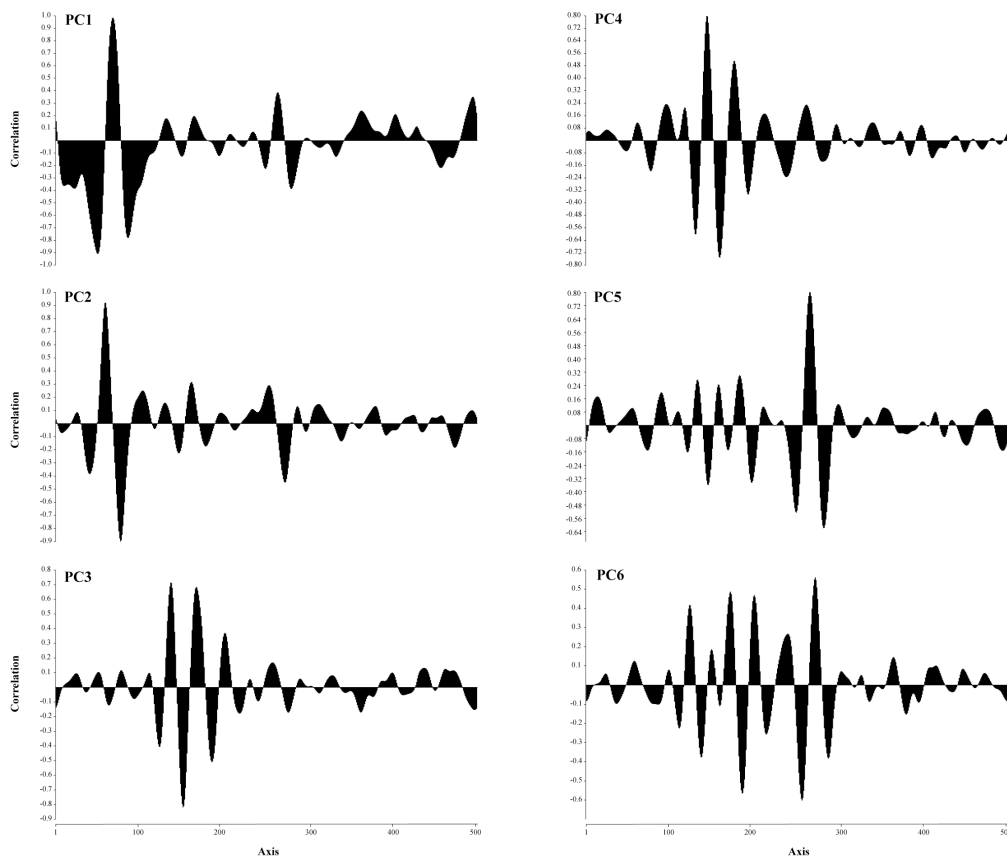
**Fig. S1.** Lateral surface of *sagittae* otoliths of *Trachurus picturatus* from the Canary Islands (NE Atlantic Ocean) illustrating features considered.



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**Fig. S2.** Determination of clusters obtained by K-means analysis.

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807 **Fig. S3.** Correlation values between the points of otolith contour (n= 512) and the first six PC  
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**Table S1**

Variance explained by Principal components (PC) derived from otolith shape analysis of *Trachurus picturatus* from the Canary Islands (NE Atlantic Ocean).

PC	Eigenvalue	Variance (%)
1	0.00195	20.38
2	0.00121	12.64
3	0.00065	6.81
4	0.00062	6.44
5	0.00059	6.13
6	0.00052	5.46
7	0.00046	4.81
8	0.00037	3.85
9	0.00026	2.71
10	0.00023	2.35
11	0.00022	2.28
12	0.00020	2.10
13	0.00018	1.87
14	0.00017	1.77
15	0.00016	1.65
16	0.00014	1.50
17	0.00013	1.36
18	0.00012	1.25
19	0.00011	1.18
20	0.00010	1.04
21	0.00009	0.97
22	0.00009	0.95
23	0.00009	0.92
24	0.00007	0.75
25	0.00006	0.68
26	0.00006	0.65
27	0.00006	0.58
Total		93.09

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