



## Inter- and intra-specific trophic niche partitioning, and cryptic speciation in three deep-sea predators in the Indian Ocean

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### ABSTRACT

Assessing the trophic interactions of marine predators is critical for understanding community structure and functioning but is rarely examined in deep-sea environments. Here, we investigated the trophic niches and interactions in three species of mesopelagic sharks in the southwestern Indian Ocean. For this, we used multiple dietary indicators including stomach contents, stable carbon ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) and nitrogen ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ) isotopes, and total mercury (THg). Because of the strong morphological convergence among deep-sea sharks, we also sequenced mitochondrial DNA to genetically identify all specimens. We found evidence of three distinct species, the smallfin gulper shark (*Centrophorus moluccensis*) and two undescribed dogfish sharks (genus *Squalus*). Trophic niches between the three species overlapped substantially based on stomach contents (Pianka's index 0.87-0.98), and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  isotope values in the liver (38.7-59.9% overlap), though isotopic niches inferred from muscle revealed some dietary segregation (12.1-25.9% overlap). Trophic niches overlapped between sexes on a short- (Pianka's index 0.78-0.99) and medium-term basis (20.1-57.2% overlap in liver), but not long-term (14.9-19.5% overlap in muscle). THg,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in both tissues showed significant ontogenetic shifts, suggesting dietary segregation by age. Overall, the combination of multiple dietary tracers revealed complex patterns in trophic niche dynamics within a deep-sea predator community, specifically that niche partitioning mechanisms can operate at both inter-specific and intra-specific scales.

### 1. Introduction

Understanding spatial and temporal dynamics of ecological niche partitioning is a central question in ecology (Grinnell, 1924; Pianka, 1974), and many efforts have been produced in the recent years to address this question, particularly within marine predator communities (e.g., Olson et al., 2016; Matich et al., 2017a,b; Belleggia et al., 2019; Murillo-Cisneros et al., 2019; Petalas et al., 2021; Marsaly et al., 2023). Taxonomically and/or morphologically similar species co-occurring within the same ecosystems or habitats may rely on similar food sources and would compete for food if/when resources are limited (Kiszka et al., 2011; Stewart et al., 2017; Dehnhard et al., 2020; Planque et al.,

2021; Estupiñán-Montaño et al., 2024). The degree to which species partition resources within communities is driven by inter-specific competition, itself driven by resource availability, the abundance of the competing species (Pool et al., 2017; Kaymak et al., 2023; Fernández-Corredor et al., 2025) and the capacity of predators to modify their diet during variable oceanic conditions that may impact the abundance of their prey (Fernández-Aguirre et al., 2022; Martínez-Ayala et al., 2025). Thus, resource partitioning becomes critical when food sources are limiting to avoid competitive interactions, as they may lead some consumer species to decline (Pianka, 1974; Schoener, 1974; Böhn et al., 2008; Juncos et al., 2015). Intra-specific variations of the diet of marine predators may also occur, and may lead to intra-specific trophic niche

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partitioning in addition to the inter-specific one. These variations may occur between individuals (Vander Zanden et al., 2010; Matich et al., 2011, 2019; Trystram et al., 2017), sexes (Hussey et al., 2011; Kernalguen et al., 2015; Barría et al., 2018b) or through ontogeny (Hussey et al., 2011; Carlisle et al., 2015; Kiszka et al., 2014), and may be driven by spatial sexual segregation (e.g., Sims, 2005; Mucientes et al., 2009; Braccini and Taylor, 2016), sexual dimorphism (Finotto et al., 2023) or the development of foraging skills (Martin et al., 2009; Newman et al., 2012).

Sharks (Selachii) occur from coastal to open ocean ecosystems, and from epi- to bathypelagic habitats (Kiszka and Heithaus, 2014). Most species are generalist mesopredators feeding on a range of prey, including teleosts, cephalopods, and crustaceans (e.g., Wetherbee et al., 2012; Martin and Mallefet, 2023). Limited knowledge is available on the trophic ecology of deep-sea sharks and on their ecological importance in these ecosystems (Martin and Mallefet, 2023). Furthermore, it is known that the diversity of sharks is underestimated, both due to difficulty in conducting comprehensive marine surveys and the high degree of morphological convergence among sharks, especially in deep-sea habitats. The advent of molecular tools for species identifications has led to the discovery of several cryptic species, which are spatially and morphologically indistinguishable but genetically distinct from more common taxa (Straube et al., 2011; Veríssimo et al., 2014). This has led to a rise in the rate of novel species descriptions, including within the gulper sharks (genus *Centrophorus*; e.g. White et al., 2008; Bellodi et al., 2022) and dogfish sharks (genus *Squalus*; e.g. Veríssimo et al., 2017; Daly-Engel et al., 2018; Pflieger et al., 2018; Ziadi-Künzli et al., 2020; Ferrari et al., 2021) in the twilight zone (Randhawa et al., 2015). Nevertheless, taxonomic uncertainties continue to hamper the study of the ecology of deep-sea sharks, as mistakenly pooling these species may induce false inferences of their trophic niche.

Various methods have been used to investigate the trophic interactions of marine predators. Stomach content analysis is a well-known method that provides both qualitative (ingested prey type or species) and quantitative (relative importance of prey species in the diet) data on the feeding ecology of marine predators (Hyslop, 1980; Amundsen and Sánchez-Hernández, 2019). Although such methods provide detailed information on ingested prey (i.e., high taxonomic identification of prey, individual prey body size and mass estimates), prey found and identified in stomachs reflects the diet of consumers over a relatively short period of time before capture (one to several days for sharks, Wetherbee et al., 2012). In addition, the proportion of empty stomachs can be high for deep-sea sharks because of their slow metabolism and the scarcity of resources leading to more infrequent feeding in the deep sea, and because regurgitation often occurs during capture (Stevens, 1973; Bowman, 1986; Martin and Mallefet, 2023). Bulk carbon ( $^{13}\text{C}$ ;  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) and nitrogen isotopic compositions ( $^{15}\text{N}$ ;  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ) in predator tissues result from the proportional mixing of stable isotope contents from the various food items assimilated and from the enrichment in heavy isotopes at each trophic levels, which results from the multiple chemical and physical processes linked to animal metabolism (DeNiro and Epstein, 1978, 1981; Vander Zanden and Rasmussen, 2001; Mill et al., 2007). Stable isotope values may provide longer-term dietary tracers, depending on the turnover rate of the tissue considered (Thomas and Crowther, 2015). Tissues with short turnover may provide information from previous weeks or months, allowing to assess seasonal variations in the trophic niche, while tissues with long turnover may provide integrated information for the whole year, thus providing a more general view of the predator's trophic niche (MacNeil et al., 2006; Logan and Lutcavage, 2010; Malpica-Cruz et al., 2012; MacNeil et al., 2005; Malpica-Cruz et al., 2013; Niella et al., 2021).  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values are generally used to determine the origin of primary sources of carbon in food webs or foraging habitats because of the differences of stable isotope composition between the different types of primary producers and of the low  $^{13}\text{C}$  enrichment in organisms relative to their diet (DeNiro and Epstein, 1978; France, 1995; Hobson, 1999; Michener and Kaufman,

2007).  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values are generally used to estimate the trophic position of consumers, as organisms are generally more enriched in  $^{15}\text{N}$  relative to their diet (DeNiro and Epstein, 1981; Michener and Kaufman, 2007). In addition, mercury (Hg), a non-essential metal released by natural and anthropogenic sources, can be used to identify the foraging habitats and relative trophic level of organisms (Kiszka et al., 2015; Sardenne et al., 2017; Murillo-Cisneros et al., 2018). Indeed, Hg concentrations can be correlated to foraging habitat, with higher Hg concentrations indicating foraging in mesopelagic or deeper waters (Choy et al., 2009; Madigan et al., 2018; Le Bourg et al., 2019), where increased methylation rates of inorganic Hg produce methylmercury (MeHg), which induce higher Hg bioavailability (Blum et al., 2013). Hg also biomagnifies with the trophic level of organisms, resulting in higher Hg concentrations in higher trophic level predators (Atwell et al., 1998; Lavoie et al., 2010; Murillo-Cisneros et al., 2018, 2019; Le Bourg et al., 2019).

Here, we investigated the trophic interactions among three deep-sea shark species from the oligotrophic southwestern Indian Ocean (an oceanic region stretching from South Africa to the Mascarene Islands), sampled near the island of La Réunion, and including two cryptic dogfishes identified with molecular tools for the first time. Their trophic ecology was assessed with a combination of short- (stomach contents, stable isotopes of carbon and nitrogen and Hg in liver tissues) and long-term dietary indicators (stable isotopes of carbon and nitrogen and Hg in muscle tissues), allowing us to assess the temporal variability of their trophic interactions. These indicators were also used to compare the trophic niches between species and sexes to assess inter- and intra-specific trophic niche partitioning. Stable isotopes of carbon and nitrogen and Hg were also measured to assess ontogenetic changes in diet that indicate intra-specific trophic niche partitioning between adults and juveniles. We hypothesize that trophic niche partitioning between species would be significant because oligotrophic marine ecosystems are resource limited and therefore should require species to use distinct food sources. We further hypothesize that we will see some degree of trophic partitioning between males and females due to differences in life history and physiological requirements, or spatial sexual segregation.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Sampling

Sharks were caught using longlines off the island La Réunion, in the southwestern Indian Ocean (ca 21° 05' S; 55° 14' E), in November 2011. Species, sex and fork length (i.e., length from the snout tip to the caudal fork) were recorded. Dissections were conducted to collect stomachs, white muscle (dorsal region), and liver samples, which were frozen at  $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  until further processing. For genetic analyses confirming species identification, additional small ( $<1\text{ cm}^3$ ) samples of fin or muscle tissue were collected and stored in 2 mL vials of  $>70\%$  ethanol. In the laboratory, muscle and liver samples were freeze-dried and grounded into a homogenous powder with a porcelain mortar and a pestle to allow stable isotope and Hg analyses. The tools were cleaned and decontaminated with  $90^{\circ}$  ethanol before grinding each sample.

### 2.2. DNA sequence analyses

We were able to identify the smallfin gulper shark (*Centrophorus moluccensis*) by visual examination, as this species is thought to be the only one that occurs in this region. There are thought to be multiple dogfish species, though, so for these we amplified approximately 765 base pairs of the NADH dehydrogenase 2 gene (ND2) using the universal primers tMetShkND2\_F (5'- CCC CAA CCA TGT TGG TTA AA-3') and tAlaShkND2\_R (5'- AAA GCA TCT GGG TTG CAT TC- 3') from O'Brien et al. (2013). We extracted DNA from muscle tissue stored in ethanol using a Dneasy Blood & Tissue Kit from Qiagen (Germantown, MD) and primers obtained from Integrated DNA Technologies, Inc. (Coralville, Indiana). PCR reactions consisted of 7  $\mu\text{L}$  BioMix Red from Bioline

(London, UK) at the recommended concentration, 1  $\mu\text{L}$  (3  $\mu\text{g}$ ) template DNA, and 1  $\mu\text{L}$  (1.0  $\mu\text{M}$ ) of each primer (10  $\mu\text{L}$  total PCR volume). PCR amplification on a T100 Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad; Hercules, California) consisted of an initial denaturation at 95  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 4 min followed by 36 cycles of 1 min at 95  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , followed by 30 s at 58  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and 30 s at 72  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  with a final extension at 72  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 20 min. PCR products were cleaned with the ExoFAP protocol (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and sequenced on an Applied Biosystems 3730XL DNA Analyzer at the University of Arizona Genetics Core. DNA sequences were trimmed in Geneious v9.1.4 (Kearse et al., 2012) and aligned using Mafft (Katoh et al., 2002). The mutational model was calculated using jModeltest (Posada, 2008). MrBayes v3.1.2 (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001; Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003) was used to construct a Bayesian inference phylogenetic tree with a burn-in phase of 10,000 steps and posterior clade probabilities. Genetic distance expressed as percent sequence divergence was calculated in MrBayes (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001). Representatives from each clade were compared to all other publicly available DNA sequences in the database GenBank (Benson et al., 2012) using the nucleotide BLAST search tool from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI).

### 2.3. Stomach content analysis

Stomach content analysis describes the diet in terms of prey occurrence and relative abundance, following a standard procedure for marine top predators (Pierce and Boyle, 1991; Spitz et al., 2011, 2013). The diagnostic prey items, whose shape allows the species to be identified and individuals to be estimated, were recovered from stomach contents. These prey remains were then stored dry for teleosts bones and otoliths or in 70% ethanol for cephalopod beaks, crustacean remains and any remains with flesh attached. The diagnostic prey items were identified to the lowest taxonomic level using published guides (Clarke, 1986; Smith and Heemstra, 1986; Rivaton and Bourret, 1999) and our reference collection of specimens caught around La Réunion. The total number of ingested prey individuals was estimated as the highest number, given by either the number of paired structures (e.g., otoliths, operculum, hyomandibular, dentary and premaxillary for teleosts, upper and lower beaks for cephalopods, and eyes for crustaceans) or unpaired structures (e.g., parasphenoid for teleosts, gladii for cephalopods, and carapace and telson for crustaceans). Prey were also grouped into their respective broad habitat (epipelagic, mesopelagic, benthodemersal), although the habitat of five unidentified prey could not be determined. The occurrence of a prey species was defined as the number of stomachs in which this species was observed. The relative abundance was defined as the number of individuals of that species found throughout the sample. These two indices were only calculated for non-empty stomachs, and were expressed as percentage frequencies: respectively, percentage of occurrence (%O) and percentage by number (%N), which were calculated as:

$$\%O_i = \frac{n_i}{N} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

where  $n_i$  is the number of stomachs where prey  $i$  was found, and  $N$  is the total number of stomachs.

$$\%N_i = \frac{x_i}{X} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

where  $x_i$  is the number of prey  $i$  found, and  $X$  is the total number of prey. The lack of relationships between the hard parts and the body size and mass of the prey species found in this study meant that we were unable to provide an index based on ingested biomass. Consequently, the weight percentage (%W) and the index of relative importance (IRI, Pinkas et al., 1971) and its transformation in percentage (%IRI, Cortés, 1997) could not be computed.

### 2.4. Stable isotope analysis

Lipids are highly depleted in  $^{13}\text{C}$  relative to other tissue components (DeNiro and Epstein, 1977), while trimethyl-amine oxide (TMAO) can affect  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values (Hussey et al., 2012). Consequently, lipids and TMAO were removed from samples by three successive extractions (1 h shaking in cyclohexane at room temperature and subsequent centrifugation) prior to stable isotope analysis as described by Chauvelon et al. (2011). This standardized data among individuals and across species within the food web (Hussey et al., 2012). After drying, lipid-free sub-samples (0.35 to 0.45  $\text{mg} \pm 0.01 \text{ mg}$ ) were weighed in tin cups for stable isotope analysis. Stable isotope measurements were performed with a continuous-flow isotope-ratio mass spectrometer (IR-MS, Delta V Advantage, Thermo Scientific, Germany) coupled to an elemental analyzer (Flash EA1112 Thermo Scientific, Italy). Reference gas were calibrated against International Reference Materials (IAEA-N1, IAEA-N2 and IAEA-N3 for nitrogen; NBS-21, USGS-24 and IAEA-C6 for carbon). Results are expressed in the  $\delta$  notation, relative to isotopic ratios in standards, according to the equation:

$$\delta X_{\text{sample}} = \left[ \frac{R_{\text{sample}}}{R_{\text{standard}}} - 1 \right] \times 1000 \quad (3)$$

where  $X$  is the heavy isotope ( $^{13}\text{C}$  or  $^{15}\text{N}$ ) and  $R$  are the isotope ratios ( $^{13}\text{C}:^{12}\text{C}$  or  $^{15}\text{N}:^{14}\text{N}$ ) for the sample ( $R_{\text{sample}}$ ) and the standard ( $R_{\text{standard}}$ ). Standards were carbonated rostrum of Vienna PeeDee Belemnite for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and nitrogen isotopic ratios in the air for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ . Replicate measurements of a laboratory standard (acetanilide) indicated that analytical errors were  $<0.10 \%$  for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ . Percent C and N elemental composition of tissues were obtained using the elemental analyzer and used to calculate the sample C:N ratio, indicating good lipid removal efficiency when  $\text{C:N} < 4$ .

### 2.5. Mercury analysis

Measurements of total Hg (hereafter Hg) were performed using a solid sample atomic absorption spectrometer AMA-254 (Advanced Mercury Analyser-254 from Altec©). At least two aliquots of 5 to 15  $\text{mg}$  of homogenized dry tissue subsamples for each individual were analysed. The analytical quality (i.e. accuracy and reproducibility) of the Hg measurements by the AMA-254 was assessed by the analyses of blanks and TORT-2 Certified Reference Material (CRM, Lobster Hepatopancreas Reference Material from the National Research Council of Canada) at the beginning and at the end of the analytical cycle, and by running it every 10 samples. Results of quality controls showed a satisfactory precision with a relative standard deviation of 6.0%. The recovery of the CRM was 93% of the assigned concentration ( $n = 14$ ). The detection limit of the AMA was 0.1  $\text{ng}$ . All Hg concentrations in tissues reported below are expressed in  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  dry weight (dw).

### 2.6. Data analysis

#### 2.6.1. Stomach contents

Some descriptive indexes were calculated to estimate and compare the characteristics of dietary niches based on stomach content analyses. The specific richness ( $R$ ) is the number of species found in the diet of a given predator. The biodiversity of prey was calculated by the Shannon-Wiener index ( $H'$ ) which considers both the specific richness and the number of specimens for each species and for each sex within each species.

$$H' = - \sum p_i \log_2 p_i \quad (4)$$

where  $p_i$  is the percentage by number of the prey  $i$  found in the diet.

The equitability ( $E$ ) gives the balance between the percentage by number of each prey. It varies from 0 to 1; 1 indicating that each prey

**Table 1**

Prey found in stomach contents of deep-sea shark species from La Reunion Island (%O, percentage of occurrence; %N, percentage by number).

	Shark species	<i>Centrophorus moluccensis</i> (n = 11)		<i>Squalus</i> sp. 1 (n = 39)		<i>Squalus</i> sp. 2 (n = 10)		
		%O	%N	%O	%N	%O	%N	
<b>EPIPELAGIC PREY</b>								
TELEOSTS	<b>Scombridae</b>	Unid. mackerels	18.2	7.1			10.0	3.4
CEPHALOPODS	<b>Ommastrephidae</b>	Unid. flying squids	18.2	7.1			10.0	3.4
<b>MESOPELAGIC PREY</b>			<b>72.7</b>	<b>89.3</b>	<b>86.4</b>	<b>87.2</b>	<b>80.0</b>	<b>82.8</b>
TELEOSTS	<b>Alepocephalidae</b>	Unid. slickheads			2.6	0.8		
	<b>Myctophidae</b>	<i>Bolinichthys</i> spp.	27.3	10.7	5.1	1.5		
		<i>Ceratoscopelus warmingii</i>	63.6	35.7	56.4	58.3	80.0	79.3
		<i>Dasyscopelus selenops</i>			12.8	4.5		
		<i>Diaphus</i> sp. A	18.2	7.1	10.3	3.0	10.0	3.4
		<i>Diaphus</i> sp. B	18.2	7.1	10.3	3.8		
		<i>Diaphus</i> sp. C	9.1	3.6	5.1	2.3		
		<i>Diaphus</i> sp. D	18.2	7.1				
		<i>Diaphus</i> sp. E	9.1	7.1				
		<i>Lamparyctus</i> sp.	9.1	3.6				
		Unid. lanternfish			12.8	4.5		
	<b>Bregmacerotidae</b>	<i>Bregmaceros</i> sp.			2.6	0.8		
	<b>Gempylidae</b>	Unid. snake mackerels			2.6	0.8		
	<b>Sternoptychidae</b>	<i>Argyropelecus</i> spp.			12.8	4.5		
CEPHALOPODS	<b>Cranchiidae</b>	Unid. glass squids			2.6	0.8		
	<b>Histioteuthidae</b>	<i>Histioteuthis</i> type A	9.1	3.6				
		<i>Histioteuthis</i> type B	9.1	3.6				
	<b>Onycoteuthidae</b>	Unid. hooked squids			2.6	0.8		
<b>BENTHODERMERSAL PREY</b>			<b>9.1</b>	<b>3.6</b>	<b>12.8</b>	<b>5.3</b>	<b>10.0</b>	<b>6.9</b>
TELEOSTS	<b>Acropomatidae</b>	Splitfin perches sp. A					10.0	3.4
		Splitfin perches sp. B	9.1	3.6				
	<b>Caproidae</b>	Unid. boarfish					10.0	3.4
	<b>Chlorophthalmidae</b>	Unid. greeneyes			2.6	0.8		
	<b>Diodontidae</b>	Unid. porcupinefish			2.6	0.8		
	<b>Macrouridae</b>	Unid. grenadiers			2.6	0.8		
	<b>Monacanthidae</b>	Unid. leatherjackets			2.6	0.8		
	<b>Moridae</b>	Unid. morid cod			2.6	0.8		
	<b>Sternoptychidae</b>	<i>Argyripnus</i> sp.			2.6	0.8		
CEPHALOPODS	<b>Sepiolidae</b>	Unid. bobtail squids			2.6	0.8		
<b>PREY WITH UNKNOWN HABITAT</b>					<b>25.6</b>	<b>8.3</b>	<b>20.0</b>	<b>6.9</b>
CHONDRICHTHYANS	<b><i>Incertae sedis</i></b>	Unid. small shark			2.6	0.8		
TELEOSTS	<b><i>Anguilliform</i></b>	Unid. eels			2.6	0.8		
	<b><i>Teleost species A</i></b>	Teleost species A			2.6	0.8		
CEPHALOPODS	<b><i>Incertae sedis</i></b>	Unid. cephalopods					10.0	3.4
CRUSTACEANS	<b><i>Incertae sedis</i></b>	Unid. shrimps			17.9	6.1	10.0	3.4

has the same percentage by number.

$$E = \frac{H}{\log_2 R} \tag{5}$$

Dietary overlaps by number (O) among the three deep-sea shark species, and among sex within each species, were calculated using the Pianka index (Pianka, 1974), which varies from 0 (no overlap) to 1 (complete overlap):

$$O = \frac{\sum p_{iA} p_{iB}}{\sqrt{\sum p_{iA}^2 \sum p_{iB}^2}} \tag{6}$$

where  $p_{iA}$  is the percentage by number of prey  $i$  found in the diet of shark A and  $p_{iB}$  is the percentage by number of prey  $i$  found in the diet of shark B. Pianka index values greater than 0.5 are considered to reveal a high overlap.

The package `vegan` in R was used to build a dissimilarity matrix, based on the Bray-Curtis index computed with proportions of each prey in each stomach, and to perform permutational analyses of variance (PERMANOVA) to test whether there were variations in stomach content depending on fork length, species and sex. Marginal probability values were computed, meaning that the effect of each variable is controlled after the effect of all other variables is accounted for. The PERMANOVAs were first performed for first order interactions, and then for the variables alone if none of the interactions had a significant effect. The second order interaction was not tested because of the low number of individuals in several groups ( $n < 10$ ). Species accumulation curves

were also generated for the three species.

### 2.6.2. Stable isotopes and mercury

Seven liver samples still had C:N ratios higher than 4 after lipid extraction (5 female *Centrophorus moluccensis*, 1 female and 1 male *Squalus* sp. 1). Data from these individuals were discarded from the analyses. Because liver has a faster turnover than the muscle, stable isotope values and Hg concentrations measured in muscle and liver provide long (from *ca* 2 months to *ca* 2 years of isotopic half-life in sharks, depending on the stable isotopes, the growth stage and the model considered, Logan and Lutcavage, 2010; Malpica-Cruz et al., 2012) and short-term (from *ca* 2 weeks to *ca* 1 month half-life for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values in ocellate river stingrays *Potamotrygon motoro*, MacNeil et al., 2006) information on the trophic ecology, respectively. Consequently, type III analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs) were performed in R 4.4.1 (R Core Team, 2024) for each tissue to assess the influence of the species and sex (as factors) and of the fork length (as covariate), as well as the first order interactions between these variables, on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values and Hg concentrations. The second order interaction was discarded because of the low number of individuals in several groups ( $n < 10$ ). For these models, no transformations were necessary for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  muscle and liver values and for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  muscle values. Hg concentrations were  $\log_{10}$ -transformed to obtain a normal distribution of residuals. Raw  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values from the liver were used as no transformation appeared to be suitable to obtain a normal distribution for residuals. Scheffe post-hoc analyses were conducted in case of significant influence of the species. Similarly, Pearson correlation tests were computed in case of significant

Table 2

Prey found in stomach contents of each sex in each species of deep-sea sharks from La Reunion Island (%O, percentage of occurrence; %N, percentage by number).

	Shark species	Prey found in stomach contents of each sex in each species of deep-sea sharks from La Reunion Island (%O, percentage of occurrence; %N, percentage by number).												
		<i>Centrophorus moluccensis</i> (n = 11)				<i>Squalus</i> sp. 1 (n = 39)				<i>Squalus</i> sp. 2 (n = 10)				
		Females (n = 7)		Males (n = 4)		Females (n = 14)		Males (n = 25)		Females (n = 7)		Males (n = 3)		
Sex		%O	%N	%O	%N	%O	%N	%O	%N	%O	%N	%O	%N	
<b>EPIPELAGIC PREY</b>			<b>28.6</b>	<b>10.5</b>								<b>14.3</b>	<b>4.8</b>	
TELEOSTS	<b>Scombridae</b>	Unid. mackerels										14.3	4.8	
CEPHALOPODS	<b>Ommastrephidae</b>	Unid. flying squids	28.6	10.5										
<b>MESOPELAGIC PREY</b>			<b>71.4</b>	<b>89.5</b>	<b>75.0</b>	<b>88.9</b>	<b>85.7</b>	<b>91.2</b>	<b>88.0</b>	<b>82.7</b>	<b>71.4</b>	<b>76.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
TELEOSTS	<b>Alepocephalidae</b>	Unid. slickheads							4.0	1.3				
	<b>Myctophidae</b>	<i>Bolinichthys</i> spp.	28.6	10.5	25.0	11.1	7.1	1.8	4.0	1.3				
		<i>Ceratoscopelus warmingii</i>	57.1	36.8	75.0	33.3	64.3	71.9	52.0	48.0	71.4	71.4	100.0	100.0
		<i>Dasyscopelus selenops</i>					14.3	3.5	12.0	5.3				
		<i>Diaphus</i> sp. A	14.3	5.3	25.0	11.1			16.0	5.3	14.3	4.8		
		<i>Diaphus</i> sp. B	14.3	5.3	25.0	11.1	7.1	1.8	12.0	5.3				
		<i>Diaphus</i> sp. C			25.0	11.1	14.3	5.3						
		<i>Diaphus</i> sp. D	28.6	10.5										
		<i>Diaphus</i> sp. E	14.3	10.5										
		<i>Lampanyctus</i> sp.			25.0	11.1								
		Unid. lanternfish						7.1	1.8	16.0	6.7			
	<b>Bregmacerotidae</b>	<i>Bregmaceros</i> sp.						7.1	1.8					
	<b>Gempylidae</b>	Unid. snake mackerels							4.0	1.3				
	<b>Sternoptychidae</b>	<i>Argyropelecus</i> spp.					14.3	3.5	12.0	5.3				
	<b>Cranchiidae</b>	Unid. glass squids							4.0	1.3				
	<b>Histioteuthidae</b>	<i>Histioteuthis</i> type A	14.3	5.3										
		<i>Histioteuthis</i> type B	14.3	5.3										
	<b>Onycoteuthidae</b>	Unid. hooked squids							4.0	1.3				
<b>BENTHODERMERSAL PREY</b>					<b>25.0</b>	<b>11.1</b>			<b>20.0</b>	<b>9.3</b>	<b>14.3</b>	<b>9.5</b>		
TELEOSTS	<b>Acropomatidae</b>	Splitfin perches sp. A									14.3	4.8		
		Splitfin perches sp. B			25.0	11.1								
	<b>Caproidae</b>	Unid. boarfish									14.3	4.8		
	<b>Chlorophthalmidae</b>	Unid. greeneyes							4.0	1.3				
	<b>Diodontidae</b>	Unid. porcupinefish							4.0	1.3				
	<b>Macrouridae</b>	Unid. grenadiers							4.0	1.3				
	<b>Monacanthidae</b>	Unid. leatherjackets							4.0	1.3				
	<b>Moridae</b>	Unid. morid cod							4.0	1.3				
	<b>Sternoptychidae</b>	<i>Argyripnus</i> sp.												
CEPHALOPODS	<b>Sepiolidae</b>	Unid. bobtail squids							4.0	1.3				
<b>PREY WITH UNKNOWN HABITAT</b>							<b>5.0</b>	<b>8.8</b>	<b>20.0</b>	<b>8.0</b>	<b>14.3</b>	<b>9.5</b>		
CHONDRICHTHYANS	<i>Incertae sedis</i>	Unid. small shark					7.1	1.8						
TELEOSTS	<b>Anguilliform</b>	Unid. eels					7.1	1.8						
	<i>Incertae sedis</i>	Teleost species A							4.0	1.3				
CEPHALOPODS	<i>Incertae sedis</i>	Unid. cephalopods									14.3	4.8		
CRUSTACEANS	<i>Incertae sedis</i>	Unid. shrimps					21.4	5.3	16.0	6.7	14.3	4.8		

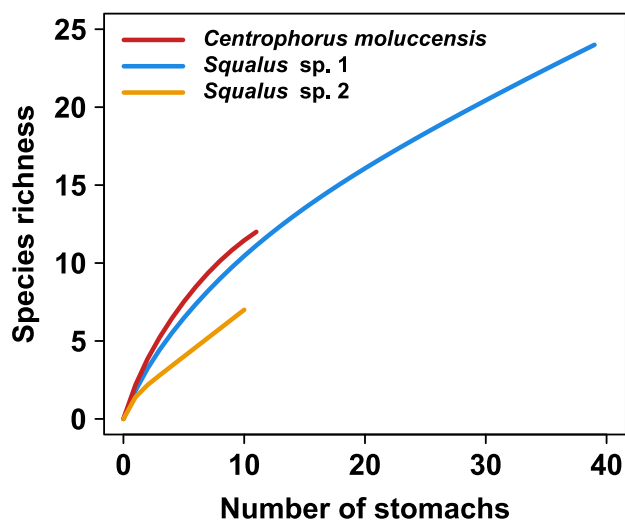


Fig. 1. Species accumulation curves showing the total number of species observed in a given number of stomachs for each deep-sea shark species sampled near La Réunion.

influence of the fork length or of its interactions with the factors.

Standard ellipses, which were developed to assess the isotopic and thus the trophic diversity within groups of organisms, are a bivariate representation of the standard deviation of both stable isotope values and thus are a proxy of the trophic niche (Jackson et al., 2011). Their area is an estimation of the trophic niche size of an organism group while the percentage of overlap between two ellipses provides indications about trophic overlap between two or more groups. A high overlap indicates similar foraging habitats and possible high resource overlap. For each species and each tissue, sample-size corrected ( $SEA_C$ ) and Bayesian (based on  $10^5$  successive iterations;  $SEA_B$ ) estimates of areas of the standard ellipses (SEA) generated with  $\delta^{13}C$  and  $\delta^{15}N$  values were computed with the SIBER package (Jackson et al., 2011). This procedure was also repeated by separating sexes in each species. Pairwise comparisons of  $SEA_B$  were done by calculating the percentage of the estimated SEA that differed between two ellipses. This percentage is the posterior probability (p) that a given ellipse has larger or smaller SEA than the other one. If this percentage exceeded 95% or was lower than 5%, the probability that two ellipses have different SEA is higher than 95

Table 3

Results of analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) assessing the impact of fork length, species, sex and their interactions on  $\delta^{13}C$  and  $\delta^{15}N$  values and Hg concentrations in a) the muscle and b) the liver of deep-sea sharks sampled near La Réunion. Bold results are significant at the  $P = 0.05$  level.

a) Muscle							
	df	$\delta^{13}C$ (‰)		$\delta^{15}N$ (‰)		$log_{10}[Hg]$ ( $\mu g \cdot g^{-1}$ dw)	
		F	P	F	P	F	P
Fork length	1,75	<b>19.411</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>	<b>50.936</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>	<b>78.085</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>
Species	2,75	4.420	0.015	2.547	0.085	<b>3.686</b>	<b>0.030</b>
Sex	1,75	1.921	0.170	3.458	0.067	0.891	0.348
Species:Sex	2,75	1.202	0.306	<b>5.007</b>	<b>0.009</b>	2.899	0.061
Fork length:Species	2,75	<b>6.702</b>	<b>0.002</b>	2.462	0.092	1.284	0.283
Fork length:Sex	1,75	2.144	0.147	<b>6.538</b>	<b>0.013</b>	2.281	0.135
b) Liver							
	df	$\delta^{13}C$ (‰)		$\delta^{15}N$ (‰)		$log_{10}[Hg]$ ( $\mu g \cdot g^{-1}$ dw)	
		F	P	F	P	F	P
Fork length	1,68	<b>13.983</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>	1.296	0.259	<b>31.731</b>	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>
Species	2,68	1.749	0.182	0.712	0.494	0.673	0.513
Sex	1,68	0.212	0.646	0.037	0.848	0.874	0.353
Species:Sex	2,68	2.036	0.138	0.090	0.914	1.196	0.309
Fork length:Species	2,68	0.851	0.432	0.694	0.503	0.917	0.405
Fork length:Sex	1,68	0.017	0.896	0.159	0.691	0.561	0.456

% and, then, the differences between the compared SEA were considered as meaningful (Jackson, 2023). The orderPvalue function in the agricolae package in R (de Mendiburu, 2020) was used to order the posterior probabilities p according to the  $SEA_B$  modes, which required that p values higher than 50 % had to be transformed into  $(1 - p)$  values (Le Bourg et al., 2021).  $SEA_B$  for which probability of difference was less than 95 % were attributed an identical symbol. Otherwise they get different symbols. For example, if  $SEA_B$  of the species A, B, C get the symbol a, b, c, respectively, they all differ from each other, with a probability higher than 95%. Species A, B, C getting the symbols a, a, b, respectively, means that species A and B have similar  $SEA_B$  while the  $SEA_B$  from species C differs from those of species A and B. Finally, species A, B, C getting the symbol a, ab, b, respectively, suggests that  $SEA_B$  of B is not different from  $SEA_B$  of A and  $SEA_B$  of C.

The percentages of ellipse overlap (%Ov) between two species and between sexes within species were calculated for each tissue. %Ov between two groups of sharks were expressed as the ratio between the area of overlap and the cumulative ellipse area:

$$\%Ov = \frac{Ov}{SEA_{CA} + SEA_{CB} - Ov} \quad (7)$$

where Ov is the overlapping area of the two ellipses,  $SEA_{CA}$  is the sample-size corrected ellipse area for shark A and  $SEA_{CB}$  is the sample-size corrected ellipse area for shark B.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Genetic identification

The molecular evolutionary model for the *Squalus* ND2 gene was estimated by jModeltest to be HKY (Aikake Information Criteria), and the Bayesian analysis returned an unrooted topology that identified two distinct clades among our samples with 100% posterior support. Within clade genetic distance ranged from 0 to 0.14%, while genetic distance between the two ranged from 5.20 to 5.92% sequence divergence, which exceeds the species-level differentiation identified between other closely-related species pairs in the genus *Squalus* (Ward et al., 2005; Daly-Engel et al., 2018; Pflieger et al., 2018). The nucleotide BLAST search returned no identical or near-identical sequences to either group in Genbank; the nearest neighbors to both were separated by over 1% sequence divergence. Though the dogfish from Reunion are colloquially called *Squalus megalops*, representative sequences from our two groups clustered most closely with sequences from the Atlantic Ocean identified

**Table 4**Mean  $\pm$  SD (and range) of lengths,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values, and Hg concentrations for each species, sex and tissue of deep-sea sharks sampled near La Réunion.

a) Muscle					
Sex	n	Fork length (cm)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰)	[Hg] ( $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ dw)
<i>Centrophorus moluccensis</i>					
Females	10	63.0 $\pm$ 18.8 (29.0, 77.5)	-16.6 $\pm$ 0.3 (-17.2, -16.0)	12.0 $\pm$ 0.4 (11.3, 12.6)	3.97 $\pm$ 2.33 (0.19, 6.55)
Males	6	48.5 $\pm$ 10.5 (31.5, 61.5)	-16.8 $\pm$ 0.4 (-17.4, -16.4)	12.2 $\pm$ 0.6 (11.2, 12.7)	2.33 $\pm$ 1.56 (0.32, 4.05)
<i>Squalus</i> sp. 1					
Females	23	55.1 $\pm$ 11.4 (35.0, 69.5)	-16.8 $\pm$ 0.2 (-17.1, -16.6)	12.5 $\pm$ 0.3 (11.7, 13.0)	7.79 $\pm$ 3.74 (1.43, 14.80)
Males	34	46.1 $\pm$ 10.5 (26.0, 64.0)	-17.0 $\pm$ 0.1 (-17.3, -16.8)	12.1 $\pm$ 0.6 (10.4, 13.3)	5.21 $\pm$ 3.74 (0.24, 15.35)
<i>Squalus</i> sp. 2					
Females	8	47.4 $\pm$ 13.8 (31.0, 64.0)	-16.9 $\pm$ 0.2 (-17.2, -16.8)	12.0 $\pm$ 0.6 (11.1, 12.7)	4.62 $\pm$ 3.58 (0.70, 8.65)
Males	4	48.3 $\pm$ 12.0 (36.0, 59.0)	-16.8 $\pm$ 0.2 (-17.0, -16.6)	12.4 $\pm$ 0.5 (11.8, 13.0)	8.02 $\pm$ 4.35 (2.26, 12.30)
b) Liver					
Sex	n	Fork length (cm)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰)	[Hg] ( $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ dw)
<i>Centrophorus moluccensis</i>					
Females	5	51.2 $\pm$ 21.1 (29.0, 73.5)	-17.1 $\pm$ 0.6 (-18.0, -16.4)	12.7 $\pm$ 1.0 (11.5, 14.1)	1.64 $\pm$ 2.04 (0.03, 4.48)
Males	6	48.5 $\pm$ 10.5 (31.5, 61.5)	-17.3 $\pm$ 0.6 (-18.3, -16.6)	13.0 $\pm$ 1.1 (11.6, 14.7)	0.56 $\pm$ 0.64 (0.04, 1.41)
<i>Squalus</i> sp. 1					
Females	22	55.2 $\pm$ 11.7 (35.0, 69.5)	-17.0 $\pm$ 0.3 (-17.6, -16.6)	12.7 $\pm$ 0.9 (11.6, 14.9)	1.11 $\pm$ 1.41 (0.05, 5.37)
Males	33	46.1 $\pm$ 10.6 (26.0, 64.0)	-17.1 $\pm$ 0.4 (-18.0, -16.2)	13.0 $\pm$ 1.2 (10.2, 15.4)	0.63 $\pm$ 0.93 (0.02, 3.84)
<i>Squalus</i> sp. 2					
Females	8	47.4 $\pm$ 13.8 (31.0, 64.0)	-17.1 $\pm$ 0.5 (-18.0, -16.4)	12.6 $\pm$ 0.7 (11.6, 14.0)	0.25 $\pm$ 0.34 (0.02, 1.06)
Males	4	48.3 $\pm$ 12.0 (36.0, 59.0)	-16.6 $\pm$ 0.6 (-17.1, -16.1)	12.6 $\pm$ 0.5 (12.0, 13.3)	0.75 $\pm$ 0.73 (0.07, 1.68)

as *Squalus blainville* (Accession # KY909812.1), with 100% query cover and 98.56% sequence similarity, and *Squalus clarkae* (Accession # PV651710.1), with 100% query cover and 98.83% sequence similarity, respectively. We denote these two groups as *Squalus* sp. 1 and 2 for the remainder of the manuscript (Accession numbers PX960991-PX961056). The results of the genetic sequence analysis showed that our sample set included 10 female and 6 male *C. moluccensis*, 23 female and 34 male *Squalus* sp. 1, and 8 female and 4 male *Squalus* sp. 2.

### 3.2. Stomach contents

*Centrophorus moluccensis*- Identifiable material was retrieved from 11 individuals (7 females and 4 males). A total of 28 prey items were found, accounting for a species richness R of 12 (9 teleosts and 3 squid species). Myctophidae (lantern fish) dominated the diet composition with more than 82% of the total number of prey items (Table 1). Warming's lantern fish (*Ceratoscopelus warmingii*, %N = 35.7%) and *Diaphus* spp. (combined %N = 32.1%) were the most important prey by number, followed by *Bolinichthys* spp. (%N = 10.7%). Cephalopods had a relative abundance of around 15%. Calculated Shannon-Wiener (H') and equitability (E) indexes were 2.92 and 0.82, respectively. H' indexes were 2.79 and 2.64 for females and males, respectively. Although females had a richer diet (R = 9) than males (R = 7), both sexes had similarly equitable diets (E = 0.88 for females and E = 0.94 for males). There is a slight degree of trophic segregation between females and males, as suggested by Pianka's index (O = 0.78), with 21.1% of prey consumed by females being cephalopods, including epipelagic ones (%N = 10.5), while males fed exclusively on teleosts (Table 2).

*Squalus* sp. 1- Identifiable material was retrieved from 39 stomachs (14 females and 25 males). A total of 132 prey items were found, belonging to a wide range of species (R = 24), including one small shark, teleosts, cephalopods and crustaceans (Table 1). *C. warmingii* was the most important prey (%N = 58.3%), other prey species accounted for a low part of the diet composition (%N < 5%) except shrimps which reached 6.1% in terms of relative abundance. Calculated H' and E indexes were 2.65 and 0.58, respectively. H' indexes were 1.74 and 3.01 for females and males, respectively. Males had a richer (R = 20) and more equitable diet (E = 0.71) than females (R = 11, E = 0.50), as only males occasionally consumed cephalopods (%N = 3.9) and benthodermersal prey (%O = 20.0, %N = 8.0, Table 2). Nevertheless, the

computed Pianka's index (O = 0.97) suggested high dietary overlap between sexes.

*Squalus* sp. 2- Identifiable material was retrieved from 10 individuals (7 females and 3 males). A total of 29 prey items were found from only 7 different prey species (Table 1). *C. warmingii* largely dominated the diet with close to 80% of the relative abundance. Other prey species accounted for a low part of the diet composition (%N < 5%) but belonged to a wide range of habitats. Calculated H' and E indexes were 1.27 and 0.45, respectively. All the prey species were found in females, for which H' and E were 1.60 and 0.57, respectively. These indexes could not be calculated for males as only one species (*C. warmingii*) was retrieved from their stomach (Table 2). Despite the richer and more equitable diet recorded in females, the computed Pianka's index (O = 0.99) suggested high dietary overlap between sexes.

Overall, the three species fed mostly on mesopelagic prey (%N from 82.3 to 89.3). Occasional consumption of benthodermersal prey was also observed, mostly in *Squalus* sp. 1 thanks to the higher number of full stomachs. Epipelagic prey, like two cephalopods in *C. moluccensis* and a mackerel in *Squalus* sp. 2, were also observed. Nevertheless, *C. warmingii* dominated the diet of the three species even if its relative abundance varied among species (from 35% for *C. moluccensis* to 80% for *Squalus* sp. 2). The first order interactions did not have any impact on stomach contents according to the PERMANOVAs. The fork length alone had an impact ( $F_{1,59} = 2.448$ ;  $P = 0.023$ ), but not the species ( $F_{1,59} = 1.527$ ;  $P = 0.085$ ) and the sex ( $F_{1,59} = 0.781$ ;  $P = 0.608$ ). Consequently, dietary niches inferred from stomach content analysis overlapped between species and sex, as shown by high Pianka's index values. The highest Pianka's index value is between the two species of *Squalus* (O = 0.98). *C. moluccensis* exhibited a slight degree of segregation from *Squalus* sp. 1 (O = 0.88) and *Squalus* sp. 2 (O = 0.87). Nevertheless, some differences could be identified among the diet of these three predators. The dietary niche of *C. moluccensis* appeared to be the most diversified and highly equilibrated, as shown by high Shannon-Wiener index and equitability values. On the opposite, the dietary niche of *Squalus* sp. 2 might really be centred on one prey, *C. warmingii*. In terms of prey type differences, crustaceans were exclusively found in the diet of *Squalus* spp., mainly in *Squalus* sp. 1, whereas cephalopods constituted a significant part of the diet only for the *C. moluccensis*. Finally, if we except *C. warmingii*, which is common to the three species, the composition of the teleost communities was relatively different between the diet of *C. moluccensis* and *Squalus* sp. 2. Nevertheless, species accumulation curves did not reach

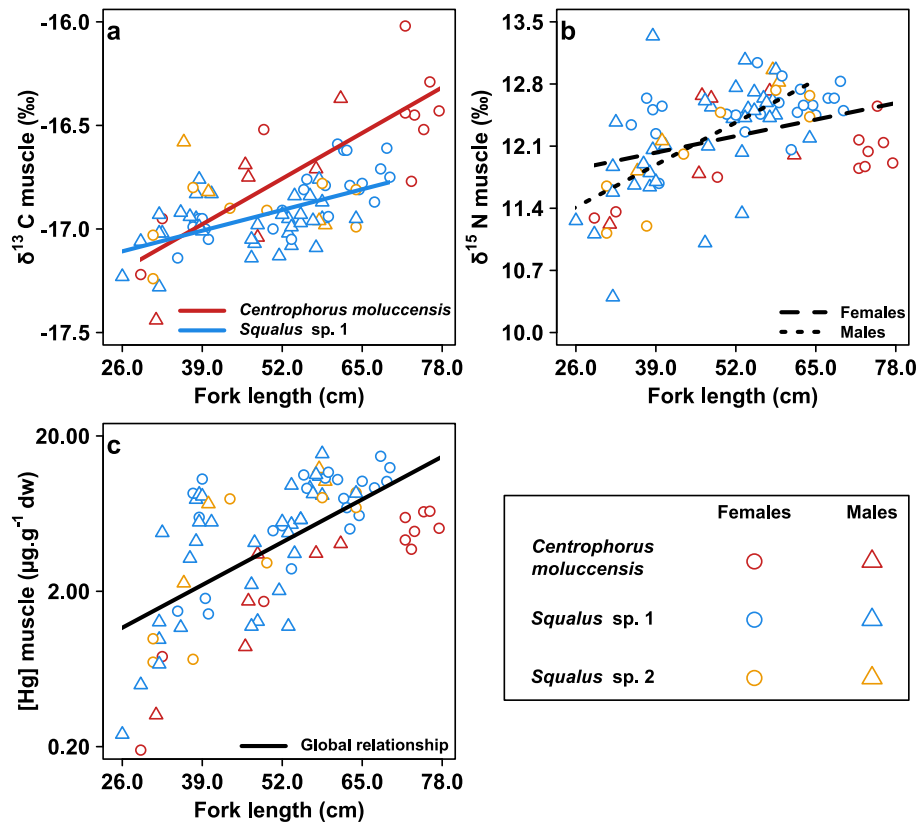


Fig. 2. Relationships between fork length and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (a),  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  (b) values, and Hg concentrations (log<sub>10</sub> scale, c) measured in the muscle in deep-sea sharks sampled near La Réunion. The linear relationships are shown by species (a), sex (b) and globally (c) according to the ANCOVA results shown in Table 3.

an asymptote for the three species (Fig. 1).

### 3.3. Stable isotopes and mercury

The results of the linear models (Table 3a) show that  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in the muscle increased with fork length ( $r = 0.643$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , slope = 0.011).  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values differed between species, with *C. moluccensis* ( $-16.7 \pm 0.4$  ‰) having higher and more variable values than *Squalus sp. 1* ( $-16.9 \pm 0.1$  ‰) and *Squalus sp. 2* ( $-16.9 \pm 0.2$  ‰, Table 4a). The significant interaction between fork length and species showed that the increase of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values with fork length was steeper in *C. moluccensis* ( $r = 0.807$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , slope = 0.017) than in *Squalus sp. 1* ( $r = 0.602$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , slope = 0.008), but did not occur in *Squalus sp. 2* ( $r = 0.098$ ,  $P = 0.762$ , Fig. 2a). Smaller sharks of the three species had similar  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values. There was a significant influence of the interaction between species and sex on  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values, with males having higher  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values than females in *C. moluccensis* and *Squalus sp. 2*, but lower values in *Squalus sp. 1* (Table 4a).  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values increased with fork length ( $r = 0.502$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , slope = 0.021, Table 3a), this relationship being stronger and steeper in males ( $r = 0.615$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , slope = 0.037) than in females ( $r = 0.439$ ,  $P = 0.004$ , slope = 0.014, Fig. 2b). The larger size of females than of males ( $55.5 \pm 14.6$  cm for females,  $46.6 \pm 10.4$  cm for males,  $t = 3.206$ ,  $P = 0.002$ ) may explain this pattern. Log<sub>10</sub>-transformed Hg concentrations in muscle increased with the fork length ( $r = 0.639$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , slope = 0.021, Table 4a; Fig. 2c). Hg concentrations also differed between species, with *C. moluccensis* having lower Hg concentrations ( $3.35 \pm 2.18$   $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  dw) than *Squalus sp. 1* ( $6.25 \pm 3.92$   $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  dw) while *Squalus sp. 2* had intermediate concentrations ( $5.75 \pm 4.02$   $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  dw).

The ANCOVA results for liver (Table 3b) indicated that  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values were only correlated with fork length ( $r = 0.482$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , slope = 0.017, Fig. 3a), but did not differ between species and sexes (Table 4b).

$\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in liver was not influenced by fork length (Fig. 3b) and was not significantly different between species and sexes (Table 4b). Lastly, Hg concentrations in the liver increased with the fork length ( $r = 0.651$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , slope = 0.033, Fig. 3c) but did not differ between species and sexes (Table 4b).

### 3.4. Isotopic niches

Isotopic niches were consistently larger in liver than in muscle, whether sexes are combined (Figs. 4 and 5) or separated (Figs. 6 and 7) for each species. In muscle, *C. moluccensis* had a larger niche than *Squalus sp. 1* while *Squalus sp. 2* had a niche of intermediate size (Fig. 4). The niche of *C. moluccensis* poorly overlapped with those of *Squalus sp. 1* (12.1%) and sp. 2 (25.9%) while strong overlap occurred between *Squalus sp. 1* and *Squalus sp. 2* (65.4%, Fig. 4a). In the liver, *C. moluccensis* had a larger niche than *Squalus sp. 1* and *Squalus sp. 2* (Fig. 5). Stronger overlap of the isotopic niche of *C. moluccensis* with those of *Squalus sp. 1* (59.9%) and sp. 2 (38.7%) occurred in the liver than in the muscle. Strong overlap also occurred between *Squalus sp. 1* and *Squalus sp. 2* in the liver (52.4% and Fig. 5a). Within each species, the percentage of isotopic niche overlap between sexes never exceeded 20% in muscle (14.9% in *C. moluccensis*, 19.5% in *Squalus sp. 1* and 15.2% in *Squalus sp. 2*, Fig. 6a). It was stronger in the liver (57.2% in *C. moluccensis*, 45.4% in *Squalus sp. 1*) except between male and female *Squalus sp. 2* for which it reached 20.1% (Fig. 7a).

## 4. Discussion

Previous studies on deep-sea shark communities reported variable level of trophic niche overlap depending on species communities, but also trophic niche partitioning between sexes and life stages in several species (e.g., Churchill et al., 2015; Valls et al., 2017; Barría et al.,

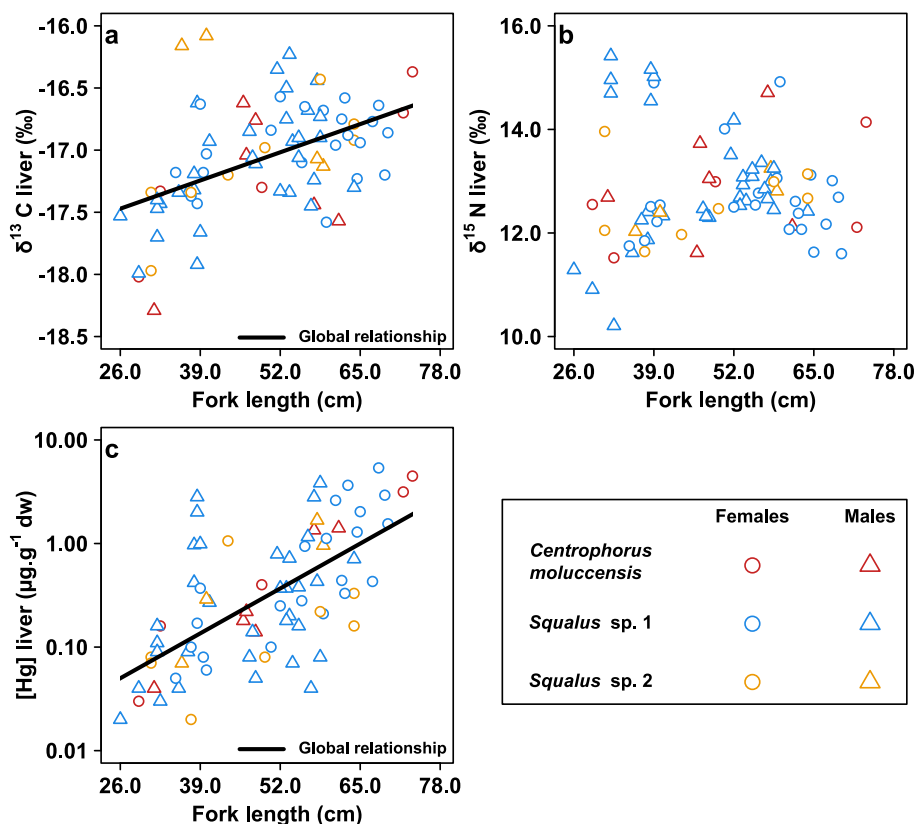


Fig. 3. Relationships between fork length and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (a),  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  (b) values, and Hg concentrations ( $\log_{10}$  scale, c) measured in the liver in deep-sea sharks sampled near La Réunion. The linear relationships are shown globally (a, c) or not (b) according to the ANCOVA results shown in Table 3.

2018a; Munroe et al., 2020). This partitioning can be related to resource availability in the considered community (Churchill et al., 2015; Valls et al., 2017). Here, we combined several dietary indicators to assess the trophic ecology and interactions of three deep-sea sharks from the oligotrophic southwestern Indian Ocean, including two cryptic species that have not yet been described using genetics. Although the sample size was low for several species and sexes, especially for stomach contents, the results highlight contrasting levels of trophic overlap between species depending on the dietary indicator (and therefore time scales). Furthermore, our results demonstrate that intra-specific trophic niche partitioning occurs at multiple levels, both between sexes, and across ontogeny. Such results highlight the necessity to take sex and ontogeny into account when investigating the trophic interactions between multiple species within a community.

#### 4.1. Identification of *Squalus* sp. 1 and *Squalus* sp. 2

The use of molecular tools highlighted the occurrence of two species of *Squalus* spp. in our samples. *Squalus* is a diverse genus with more than 30 species described. In the southwestern Indian Ocean, described dogfish species have included *Squalus acanthias*, *Squalus blainvillei*, *Squalus megalops* and *Squalus mitsukurii*. However, further investigations resulted in *Squalus megalops* being redescribed as *Squalus acutipinnis* (Viana and de Carvalho, 2016). Furthermore, other species have been described in the region since the redescription of *S. acutipinnis* (Viana et al., 2018; Fricke et al., 2023). *S. acutipinnis* has notably been observed in Mauritius, close to La Réunion (Viana and de Carvalho, 2016), while *Squalus longispinis* has been specifically described in La Réunion (Fricke et al., 2023). However, the description of these species did not include genetic identifications but relied on morphology alone, and morphological differences between sympatric species with strong convergence in body form may be difficult to distinguish for non-specialists. In the

case of *S. acutipinnis* and *S. longispinis*, both species are mostly distinguished by their dermal denticles (Fricke et al., 2023). In this context, the use of molecular tools prevented *Squalus* sp. 1 and *Squalus* sp. 2 to be considered wrongly as the same species. Further studies combining morphological and molecular tools should be conducted to assess the full diversity of the *Squalus* genus in the southwestern Indian Ocean.

#### 4.2. Trophic niche partitioning between species

Stomach contents provide short-term information on the diet of sharks because of quick gastric evacuation (one to several days, Wetherbee et al., 2012). Carbon and nitrogen stable isotope values, and Hg concentrations in the liver provide medium-term information because of the short tissue turnover in the liver (from two weeks to one month of isotopic half-life for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values, MacNeil et al., 2006). Stomach contents, stable isotope values and Hg concentrations in the liver overlapped among the three shark species.

Species accumulation curves for stomach contents did not reach an asymptote for each shark species, suggesting that sample size was limited and thus the whole diversity of prey consumed by sharks was not observed. Nevertheless, stomach contents still show that sharks feed predominantly on myctophids, with *C. warmingii* being the main prey species found of all the three shark species, and with the genus *Diaphus* being the second most consumed prey for *C. moluccensis*. Myctophids are an important component of mesopelagic teleost communities in most mesopelagic ecosystems (Vipin et al., 2012; Klevjer et al., 2020) and *C. warmingii* and *Diaphus* spp. are the most abundant myctophids in the southwestern Indian Ocean (Cherel et al., 2020). The predominance of *C. warmingii* in the diet of the three species is a likely driver of the high trophic niche overlap indexes computed with stomach contents. Nevertheless, minor differences of short-term trophic ecology between shark species were also apparent with *C. moluccensis* having a more

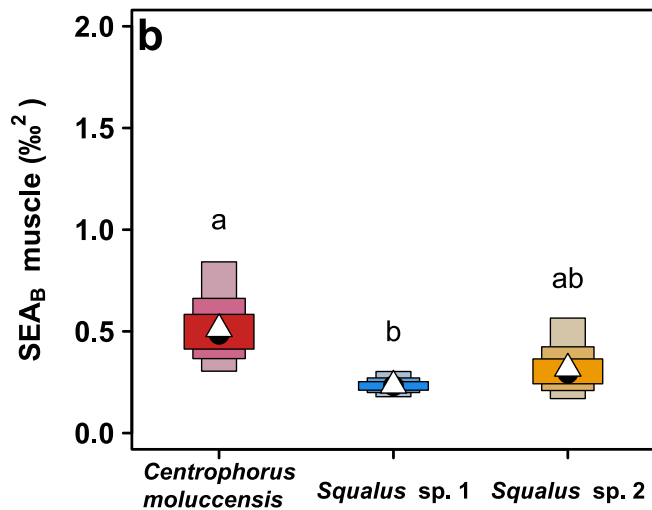
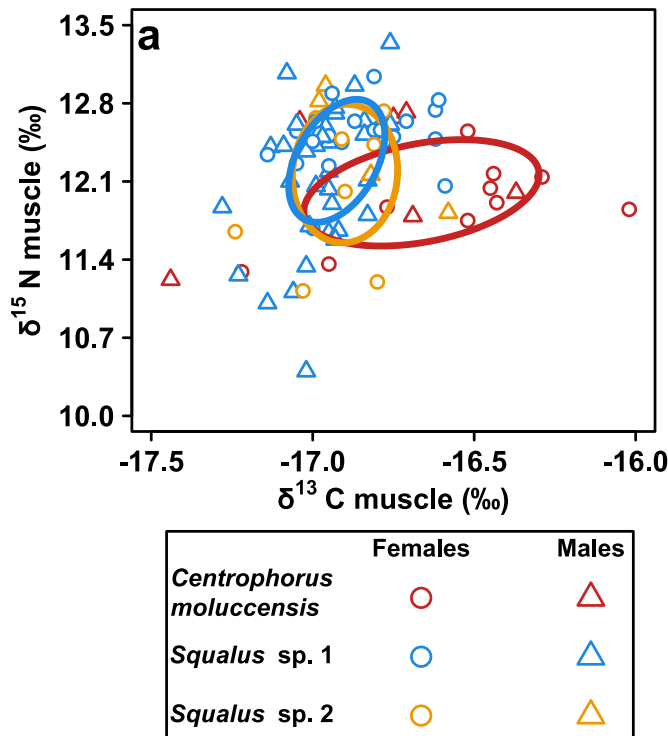


Fig. 4. Sample-size corrected standard ellipses generated with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values measured in the muscle of each species of deep-sea sharks sampled near La Réunion (a) and subsequent sample-size corrected ( $\text{SEA}_C$ , white triangles) and Bayesian estimation ( $\text{SEA}_B$ , shaded boxes: 50 %, 75 % and 95 % credible intervals, black dots: modes) of standard ellipse area (SEA, b). Letters over density boxes are groups of ellipses with similar  $\text{SEA}_B$ .

diverse diet than the two *Squalus* species according to the higher equitability value computed from its stomach contents.

Similarly to liver,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values in muscle tissues did not differ between species, suggesting that the three species generally have similar trophic positions. By contrast,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in muscle tissue for *C. moluccensis* were higher and more variable than those of both *Squalus* species, and isotopic niche overlap (65.4%) occurred only between *Squalus* species, suggesting differences of foraging habitats between *C. moluccensis* and *Squalus* spp. Similarly, higher Hg concentrations in the muscle of *C. moluccensis* than in *Squalus* sp. 1 may result from habitat differences instead of trophic level as these species had similar  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$

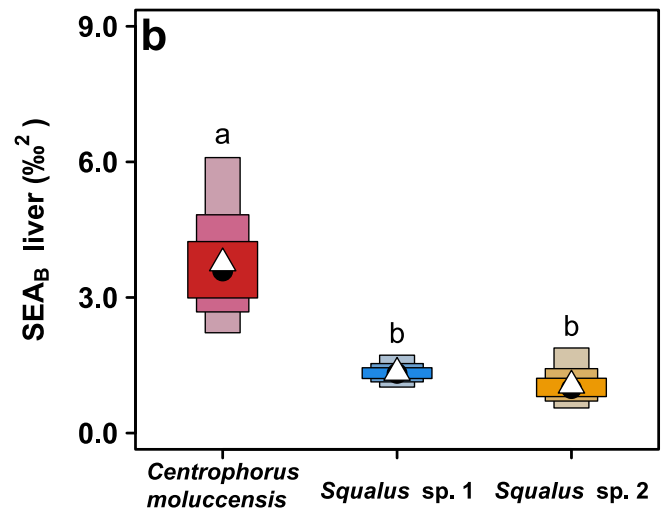
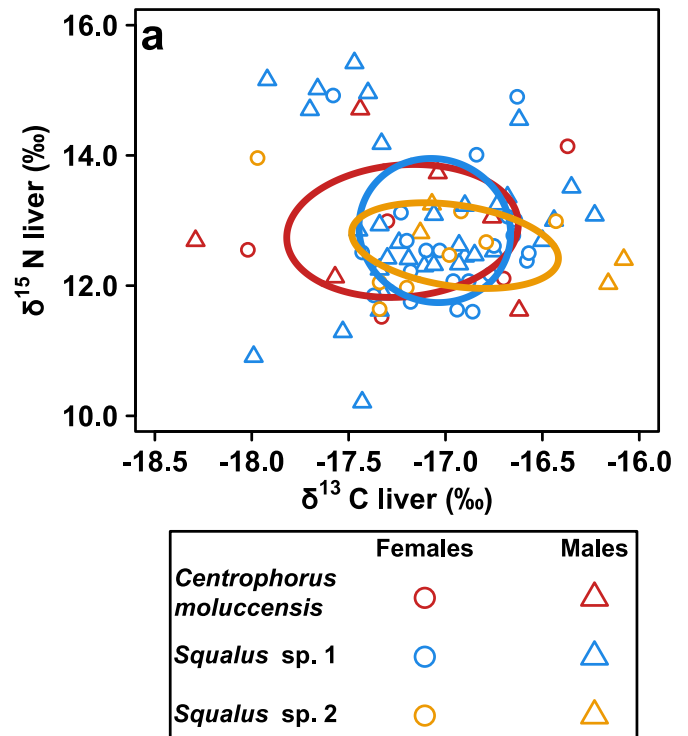


Fig. 5. Sample-size corrected standard ellipses generated with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values measured in the liver of each species of deep-sea sharks sampled near La Réunion (a) and subsequent sample-size corrected ( $\text{SEA}_C$ , white triangles) and Bayesian estimation ( $\text{SEA}_B$ , shaded boxes: 50 %, 75 % and 95 % credible intervals, black dots: modes) of standard ellipse area (SEA, b). Letters over density boxes are groups of ellipses with similar  $\text{SEA}_B$ .

values (Le Bourg et al., 2019). Considering the longer isotopic turnover in muscle (from ca 2 months to ca 2 years of isotopic half-life in sharks, Logan and Lutcavage, 2010; Malpica-Cruz et al., 2012), the trophic niche overlap inferred from stomach contents and stable isotope values in liver may have occurred over short periods of time and the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values and Hg concentrations in muscle may indicate that *C. moluccensis* consume more island-associated prey than *Squalus* spp. This is supported by the high diversity and proportion of *Diaphus* spp. in stomach contents of *C. moluccensis*. Indeed, the distribution of *Diaphus* spp. is restricted to mesopelagic-boundary zones, where mesopelagic waters meet the upper insular slope (Reid et al., 1991; Cherel et al., 2020). The higher

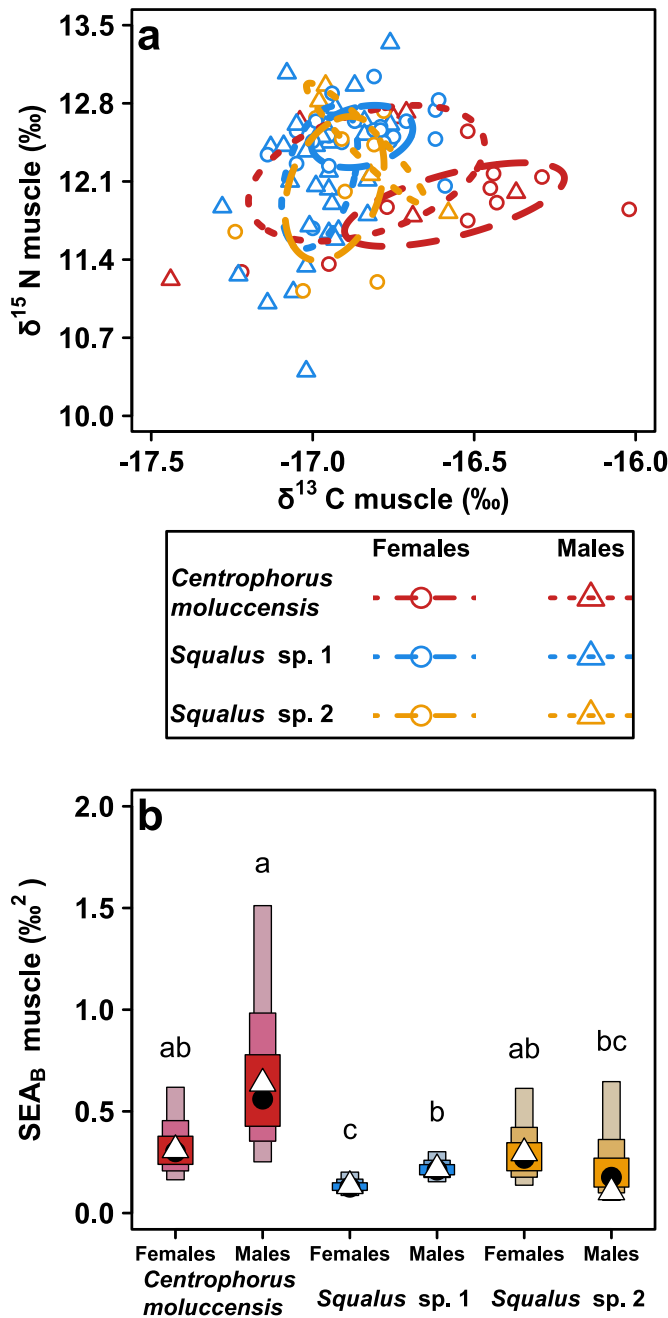


Fig. 6. Sample-size corrected standard ellipses generated with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values measured in the muscle of each sex in each species of deep-sea sharks sampled near La Réunion (a) and subsequent sample-size corrected ( $\text{SEA}_C$ , white triangles) and Bayesian estimation ( $\text{SEA}_B$ , shaded boxes: 50 %, 75 % and 95 % credible intervals, black dots: modes) of standard ellipse area (SEA, b). Letters over density boxes are groups of ellipses with similar  $\text{SEA}_B$ .

variability of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in *C. moluccensis* may also suggest the exploitation of a wider range of habitats, as suggested by the lower occurrence of mesopelagic prey in the stomach contents of this species compared to *Squalus* spp. In contrast, the cryptic *Squalus* spp. likely share the same trophic niche restricted in more oceanic habitats than *C. moluccensis*, as shown by their lower and less variable  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in muscle tissue, their isotopic niche overlap and their higher proportions of oceanic *C. warmingii* (Reid et al., 1991; Cherel et al., 2020) in their stomachs. Prey availability is a critical driver of the size of trophic niches and of the extent to which species overlap in their diets (Gladics et al., 2014; Pool et al., 2017; Kaymak et al., 2023). Since *C. warmingii* is one of

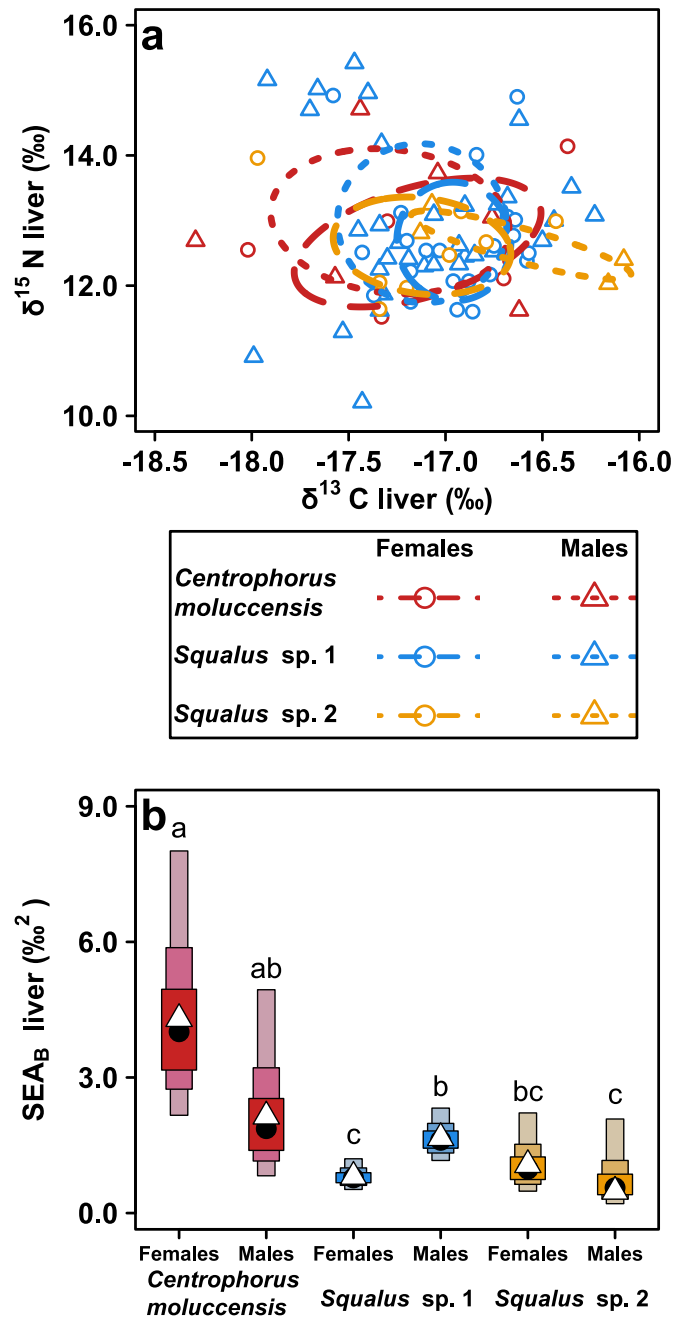


Fig. 7. Sample-size corrected standard ellipses generated with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values measured in the liver of each sex in each species of deep-sea sharks sampled near La Réunion (a) and subsequent sample-size corrected ( $\text{SEA}_C$ , white triangles) and Bayesian estimation ( $\text{SEA}_B$ , shaded boxes: 50 %, 75 % and 95 % credible intervals, black dots: modes) of standard ellipse area (SEA, b). Letters over density boxes are groups of ellipses with similar  $\text{SEA}_B$ .

the most abundant mesopelagic myctophids in the southwestern Indian Ocean (Cherel et al., 2020), it may be possible that its availability for predators may not be limiting. This may allow both *Squalus* species (and *C. moluccensis* to a lesser extent) to continuously forage on the same prey without competitive interaction in the long term, explaining their narrow isotopic niches and their overlap in the muscle. However, the occasional presence of other prey in the stomachs and the consistently larger isotopic niches in the liver than in the muscle, may indicate higher inter-individual variation for the consumption and assimilation of secondary prey in addition to *C. warmingii*.

### 4.3. Sex differences

Sample size was limited for both stomach contents and stable isotope values for each sex in *C. moluccensis* and *Squalus* sp. 2. Consequently, caution may be necessary when interpreting the results for sexes. Nevertheless, for each species, isotopic niche overlap between sexes was consistently observed with stomach contents and stable isotopes in the liver but it was limited with stable isotopes in muscle.

Although trophic overlap inferred from stomach contents was high, stomach contents of *Squalus* sp. 1 may provide some hints of trophic segregation, as males included more often cephalopods and benthodermersal prey in their diet. Female *C. moluccensis* also tend to consume a higher proportion of cephalopods while males fed exclusively on teleosts, but more caution is necessary regarding the interpretation of this result considering the low sample size.

Similar stable isotope values and isotopic niche overlap in liver indicate similarities in the diets of both sexes in *Squalus* spp. (not in *C. moluccensis*), which is consistent with results from stomach contents. The differences in overlap results between stable isotope values in muscle and stable isotope values in liver and stomach contents could indicate temporal variation of the trophic niche overlap between sexes. Trophic overlap occurred over short periods of time and females and males may usually partition their trophic niches.

In muscle, the significant influence of the interaction between species and sex on  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values and the lack of influence of sex on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values suggests sexual trophic segregation through trophic levels in the long term. Such segregation through the trophic level was observed in several shark species, with males consuming higher-trophic level prey (Hussey et al., 2011; Barría et al., 2018b). However, this result and its interpretation is contradicted by the lack of differences of Hg concentrations between sexes. Considering how Hg may have been more an indicator of foraging habitat when assessing its inter-specific variations, similar  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values and Hg concentrations between sexes may suggest exploitation of the same foraging habitats by both sexes. Spatial niche segregation between sexes is known to occur and has been documented in several shark species (e.g., Sims, 2005; Mucientes et al., 2009; Braccini and Taylor, 2016), including within the genus *Squalus* (Graham, 2005; Jones et al., 2013; Haugen et al., 2017; Yano et al., 2017) and *Centrophorus*, including *C. moluccensis* (Graham and Daley, 2011). Yet, our results do not highlight spatial sexual segregation between shark species. An explanation to the apparent lack of sexual segregation of foraging habitat observed with stable isotopes and Hg despite sexual segregation potentially occurring could be the foraging in the same habitat at different times in the day by both sexes (Dell'Apa et al., 2014).

### 4.4. Ontogenetic dietary shifts

$\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values and Hg concentrations increased with body length in muscle tissues. A similar shift occurred in liver tissues, except for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ . Ontogenetic changes of foraging habitat often occur in predatory shark species (Grubbs, 2010), and the positive relationships between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values and body size may be indicative of these changes, with increasing  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values with body size indicating a shift from offshore-pelagic to coastal-benthic feeding grounds (e.g., Borrell et al., 2011; Carlisle et al., 2015; Marsh et al., 2017; Park et al., 2018). Higher  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in larger sharks in our data may indicate that they forage closer to island-associated habitats as they grow, where the investigated species preferentially occur (Compagno, 1984). A steeper increase of muscle  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values with body length occurred in *C. moluccensis* than in *Squalus* sp. 1, and no increase occurred in *Squalus* sp. 2. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of the smallest sharks were also quite similar between the species. This may indicate that, while adult *C. moluccensis* feed more in the mesopelagic-boundaries zones near islands, as previously discussed, the juveniles may preferentially forage in more oceanic environments, where they may coexist with *Squalus* spp. Higher  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values in muscle of larger sharks can indicate an increasing relative trophic position with

body length, probably thanks to the larger mouth gape size of larger sharks. Increasing Hg concentrations with length in both tissues can indicate an increasing relative trophic position too, or a change in habitat. However, bioaccumulation of Hg with age can also explain this result, especially in the muscle, considering its slower turnover than the liver. This result is consistent with previous observations in teleosts (e.g., Chouvelon et al., 2014; Marsh et al., 2017) and elasmobranchs (e.g., Hussey et al., 2011; Raoult et al., 2015; Nielsen et al., 2019).

Sharks were not separated by maturity stages as gonad maturity was not assessed and no information on reproductive biology is available for the 2 *Squalus* species, that were not identified previously. Consequently, trophic overlap between juveniles and adults was not assessed with stomach contents. However, the significant impact of fork length on stomach contents further suggests ontogenetic variations of the diet.

### 4.5. Conclusions

The combination of dietary tracers allowed to investigate the trophic ecology of sharks from the mesopelagic southwestern Indian Ocean at both qualitative and quantitative scales and over short and long periods of time. Interspecific trophic niche partitioning was observed when using long-term dietary indicators (isotopic niches in muscle). However, interspecific trophic niche overlap was also observed when using short-term dietary indicators (stomach contents and isotopic niches in liver). Intra-specific mechanisms of trophic niche partitioning were also highlighted, as shown by differences of diet between sexes and ontogenetic shifts. Trophic niche partitioning between mesopelagic sharks in the southwestern Indian Ocean is then not only occurring between species but also within species and is temporally variable. The combination of inter- and intra-specific mechanisms of trophic segregation may reduce risks of competition between deep-sea sharks in the oligotrophic southwestern Indian Ocean, while the temporal plasticity may indicate periods of trophic overlaps when resources may be abundant. Overall, the results of this work suggest that the co-existence between predators is mediated the dynamics of their trophic niches at different scales.

### CRedit authorship contribution statement

**Baptiste Le Bourg:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Jeremy J. Kiszka:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Methodology, Investigation, Conceptualization. **Jérôme Spitz:** Writing – review & editing, Investigation, Data curation. **Toby S. Daly-Engel:** Writing – review & editing, Investigation. **Paco Bustamante:** Writing – review & editing, Project administration, Methodology, Funding acquisition.

### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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## Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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