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1 **Environmentally mediated trends in otolith composition of juvenile Atlantic**  
2 **cod (*Gadus morhua*)**

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18 **Abstract:**

19 We evaluated the influence of environmental exposure of juvenile Atlantic cod (*Gadus*  
20 *morua*) to inform interpretations of natal origins and movement patterns using otolith  
21 geochemistry. Laboratory rearing experiments were conducted with a variety of temperature  
22 (~ 5, 8.5 and 12 °C) and salinity (~ 25, 28.5 and 32 PSU) combinations. We measured  
23 magnesium (Mg), manganese (Mn), strontium (Sr) and barium (Ba), expressed as a ratio to  
24 calcium (Ca), using laser ablation inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS),  
25 and stable carbon ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) and oxygen ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) isotopes using isotope ratio monitoring mass  
26 spectrometry. Temperature and salinity significantly affected all elements and isotopes  
27 measured, with the exception of salinity on Mg:Ca. We detected significant interactions  
28 among temperature and salinity for Mn:Ca and Ba:Ca partition coefficients (ratio of otolith  
29 chemistry to water chemistry), with significant temperature effects only detected in the 32 and  
30 28.5 PSU salinity treatments. Similarly, we detected a significant interaction between  
31 temperature and salinity in incorporation of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , with a significant temperature effect except  
32 at intermediate salinity. These results support the contention that environmental mediation of  
33 otolith composition varies among species, thus limiting the ability of generalized models to  
34 infer life history patterns from chemistry. Our results provide essential baseline information  
35 detailing environmental influence on juvenile Atlantic cod otolith composition, punctuating  
36 the importance of laboratory validations to translate species-specific otolith composition when  
37 inferring *in situ* life histories and movements.

38 **KEYWORDS:** Otolith chemistry, temperature, salinity, *Gadus morhua*, elemental  
39 fingerprinting, isotopes

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42 **Introduction:**

43         The application of otolith geochemistry to resolve natal habitats or to reconstruct life  
44 histories assumes otolith chemistry corresponds to local environmental conditions and  
45 ambient water chemistry, and that these conditions vary to impart a unique geochemical signal  
46 (Campana, 1999). Physiological and environmental factors both mediate assimilation of  
47 elements and isotopes into otoliths (e.g. Thorrold et al., 1997b; Elsdon and Gillanders, 2002).  
48 Prediction of where otolith composition differences might exist, or the reconstruction of fish  
49 movements and environmental histories, requires predictable relationships between  
50 environmental variables and otolith chemistry (Elsdon et al., 2008; Reis-Santos et al., 2013).  
51 Laboratory studies that have quantified specific relationships between select environmental  
52 factors and otolith composition (Hoff and Fuiman, 1995; Bath et al., 2000; Elsdon and  
53 Gillanders, 2002; Elsdon and Gillanders, 2003; Martin and Wuenschel, 2006; Miller, 2011;  
54 Reis-Santos et al., 2013) highlight a lack of generality across among different species  
55 (Gillanders, 2005; Reis-Santos et al., 2008; Barnes and Gillanders, 2013). For instance, Sr:Ca  
56 ratios in otoliths vary considerably among species in the absence of differences in dissolved  
57 Sr:Ca in ambient water (Campana, 1999), presumably resulting from inter-specific differences  
58 in metabolic traits (Kalish, 1991; Campana et al., 2000; Miller, 2011).

59         Ambient concentrations of elements and isotopes in seawater may also co-vary with  
60 temperature and salinity (Epstein and Mayeda, 1953; Elsdon and Gillanders, 2003; Reis-  
61 Santos et al., 2013, this study). Retrospective assignment of adults to nursery habitats or  
62 environmental conditions during the juvenile period has been accomplished through

63 geochemical analysis of material close to the otolith core, corresponding to the juvenile period  
64 (Thorrold et al., 2001; Gillanders, 2005; Farmer et al., 2013). Determining the effects of  
65 temperature and salinity on otolith elemental and isotopic incorporation will enhance our  
66 ability to predict where significant differences might occur and interpret life history  
67 movements (Elsdon and Gillanders, 2002). Although use of otolith signatures does not require  
68 explicit understanding of all details influencing incorporation (Campana et al., 2000), the  
69 significant influence of environmental factors adds complexity to the interpretation of  
70 geochemical concentrations in isolation of environment (Martin and Wuenschel, 2006).

71 Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) is a demersal finfish species native to the North Atlantic,  
72 spanning from Greenland to Cape Hatteras, North Carolina to as far east as the Baltic Sea.  
73 Spawning occurs in both inshore and offshore environments, between late winter and early  
74 spring. Pelagic eggs develop into larvae that later metamorphose into benthic juveniles  
75 inhabiting offshore areas as well as shallow inshore regions, often associating with complex  
76 habitat (Laurel et al., 2003). The large latitudinal and depth range of Atlantic cod exposes  
77 juveniles to a gradient of temperatures and salinities (Dalley and Anderson, 1997), making  
78 them ideal candidates for studies on environmental effects on otolith elemental incorporation.  
79 Atlantic cod have received considerable research attention, in particular efforts to understand  
80 the structure of remaining fragmented populations in the Northwest Atlantic. The pelagic egg  
81 and larval phase imparts a large dispersal potential, mediated by spawn timing and ambient  
82 conditions (Bradbury et al., 2000; Stanley et al., 2013). Genetic (Ruzzante et al., 2000),  
83 tagging (Rose et al., 2011), and otolith chemistry techniques (Campana et al., 1999; Jamieson  
84 et al., 2004; D'Avignon and Rose, 2013) have successfully delineated spawning aggregation

85 spatial structure, but fall short of providing information on critical juvenile habitat and  
86 potential links to adult populations.

87         The use of otolith chemistry for retrospective evaluation of environmental history, or  
88 to aid in delineating nursery habitat, requires a baseline understanding of the influence of  
89 environment on otolith composition. Controlled laboratory experiments provide a vehicle to  
90 evaluate relationships between otolith composition and the environment. Interactive effects of  
91 temperature and salinity (e.g. Miller, 2011) necessitate orthogonally designed experiments to  
92 fully evaluate environmental drivers on otolith chemistry (Elsdon and Gillanders, 2002). The  
93 objective of this study was to evaluate the influence of temperature and salinity on the  
94 biogenic incorporation of trace elements in the otoliths of juvenile Atlantic cod, a  
95 commercially important species that spans a wide range of these environmental parameters.  
96 Specifically, we measured concentrations of magnesium (Mg), manganese (Mn), strontium  
97 (Sr) and barium (Ba), expressed as a ratio to calcium (Ca), and stable isotopes of carbon  
98 ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) and oxygen ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ); past studies show some form of environmental mediation in  
99 incorporation of all of these elements. Specifically, we utilized controlled laboratory  
100 conditions to determine the relative and interactive effects of temperature and salinity on  
101 elemental and isotopic concentrations of juvenile cod otoliths.

## 102 **Methods:**

### 103 *Experimental Design*

104         Juvenile Atlantic cod were obtained from a common broodstock provided by Atlantic  
105 Genome Canada and the Dr. Joe Brown Aquatic Research Building (JBARB) at the Ocean  
106 Sciences Centre (OSC), Memorial University of Newfoundland (MUN). Newly hatched fish

107 were reared at ambient conditions (~ 11 °C and 32 PSU) for up to 137 days before they were  
108 distributed among the experimental treatments. Forty fish (~ 4 cm standard length) were  
109 moved to each experimental aquaria (40 L) and acclimated to desired temperature treatment  
110 by adjusting cold room temperatures by 2 °C every 2 days, in order to slowly acclimate fish to  
111 the new thermal regime from the common start point of 11 °C. When desired temperature  
112 treatments were achieved, salinities were manipulated by 2 PSU every two days, until the new  
113 salinity regimes were reached from the common start point of 32 PSU. Once acclimation and  
114 treatment levels were achieved, fish were immersed in seawater treated with Alizarin Red-S  
115 (ARS) (600 Mg·l<sup>-1</sup>) at a pH adjusted to 7.0, for 24 hours. Staining in Alizarin Red induces a  
116 fluorescent tag that clearly indicated the start of the experiment and the relevant otolith  
117 material to sample (Figure 1; Beckman and Schulz, 1996). A standardized finfish pelletized  
118 diet (EWOS ®) was fed to all fish to minimize any dietary effects of food on otolith chemistry  
119 (Walther and Thorrold, 2006; Reis-Santos et al., 2013). Through the experiment fish were fed  
120 to saturation *ad-libitum* three times daily and maintained at a 12-hour light cycle.

121         Three experimental temperature treatments of approximately 5, 8.5 and 12 °C,  
122 hereafter referred to as low, medium, and high temperatures, were maintained in three  
123 separate cold rooms at the OSC. For each temperature treatment we used three separate  
124 salinity treatments of 25, 28.5 and 32 PSU, hereafter referred to as low, medium, and high  
125 salinities. Each temperature by salinity treatment was replicated three times for a total of 27  
126 experimental aquaria, and nine unique combinations. Salinities were achieved through dilution  
127 of filtered seawater from the JBARB (32 ±0.25 PSU) using non-chlorinated well water from  
128 the Marine Institute of Memorial University. Set salinity treatments were pre-mixed and  
129 stored in each cold room for 24 hours prior to use in tanks to avoid the need for any

130 acclimation during daily water exchanges. Partial water exchanges (50%) were performed  
131 daily along with siphoning any excess food, waste, or dead fish. Temperature and salinity  
132 were checked for consistency daily using a YSI-55 probe. In addition, dissolved oxygen, pH,  
133 and ammonia levels were monitored every second day with the YSI probe and ammonia test  
134 meters. To minimize ammonia levels, each aquarium was equipped with a Bio-Wheel filter  
135 and ammonia filter pads.

### 136 *Otolith preparation and geochemical analysis*

137  
138 Fish were exposed to experimental treatments for a total of 90 days (14 July – 12  
139 October 2007). Upon completion of the experiment, we removed the fish and recorded  
140 standard length. Both sagittal and lapillal otoliths were removed, cleaned with ultrapure water,  
141 air dried, and stored in acid-washed glass vials. We later mounted otoliths on glass  
142 microscope slides and polished them using 0.3  $\mu\text{m}$  lapping film. Mounted otoliths were  
143 cleaned again with a nylon brush, triple rinsed in ultrapure water and sonified for 2 min. We  
144 then air dried otoliths in a laminar flow hood, prior to transfer to clean petri dishes, and  
145 transport to the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution Plasma Mass Spectrometry Facility for  
146 analysis. One lapillus was randomly selected for laser ablation and one sagitta was randomly  
147 selected for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  analysis.

148 We measured otolith elemental composition using a Thermo Finnigan *Element2*  
149 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) coupled with an ArF excimer 193-  
150 nm laser ablation system. We chose to quantify five elements ( $^{25}\text{Mg}$ ,  $^{43}\text{Ca}$ ,  $^{55}\text{Mn}$ ,  $^{88}\text{Sr}$ , and  
151  $^{138}\text{Ba}$ ), that were consistently higher in the otolith samples than in  $\text{HNO}_3$  blanks during  
152 preliminary analyses and have shown potential for environmentally mediated otolith



153 incorporation. We lasered along a line parallel to the otolith edge within a common growth  
154 band and outside of the Alizarin mark (~ 500  $\mu\text{m}$ ). Laser repetition rate was set at 5 Hz for all  
155 analyses, with a scan speed of 5  $\mu\text{m s}^{-1}$ . We used a certified reference material (CRM)  
156 consisting of powdered otoliths (Yoshinaga et al., 2000), dissolved in 2% ultrapure  $\text{HNO}_3$   
157 (SeaStar<sup>®</sup>) and diluted to a Ca concentration of 40  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ , to correct for instrument bias and  
158 drift following Thorrold and Swearer (2009). External precision was estimated by analyzing a  
159 second otolith CRM (Sturgeon et al., 2005), also dissolved in 2%  $\text{HNO}_3$  (SeaStar<sup>®</sup>) and  
160 diluted to a Ca concentration of 40  $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ , periodically throughout the laser analyses ( $n = 55$ ).  
161 Analytical accuracy was determined from the concentrations of Japanese Otolith and NRC  
162 standards, averaged across all samples. We found that accuracy was exceeded 98% for all  
163 otolith constituents measured, including isotopic ratios described later. We calculated limits of  
164 detection (LOD) as 5 times the mean intensity of blanks (2%  $\text{HNO}_3$ ), run every 10 assays for  
165 each otolith constituent. Any measurements below the respective LOD were excluded from  
166 analysis. We conducted all statistical analyses using otolith elemental compositions converted  
167 to molar values and standardized to calcium concentrations ( $\text{Me}:\text{Ca}_{\text{otolith}}$ ). Estimates of  
168 external precision based on the relative standard deviation values of the second CRM were  
169 4.2% for Mg, 17.9% for Mn, 0.40% for Sr, and 1.4% for Ba.

170 We measured  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values in sagittal otoliths of each individual by milling  
171 otoliths with a MicroMill sampler (New Wave Research) or a handheld dental drill under a  
172 stereomicroscope until we obtained 50 to 200  $\mu\text{g}$  of near edge material. Stable isotopes were  
173 measured using an isotope ratio monitoring mass spectrometer according to methods outlined  
174 by Ostermann and Curry (2000). We report values of both isotopes relative to Vienna Pee Dee

175 Belemnite (VPDB ‰). Long-term precision estimates based on the use of NBS-19 were  $\pm 0.07$   
176 for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\pm 0.03$  for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Ostermann and Curry, 2000).

### 177 *Water analyses*

178 We used ICP-MS to measure the chemical composition of water samples taken from  
179 each experimental treatment (n=27) at the mid-point of the experiment (day 32). Water intake  
180 for the OSC and JBARB comes from approximately 5 m depth with a very stable salinity  
181 ( $\pm 0.25$  PSU, yearly variance) and temperature ( $\pm 1$  °C, weekly variance) (Danny Boyce,  
182 JBARB facilities manager, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's Canada, A1C  
183 6N3, personal communication). Low variance in water condition indicates a relatively stable  
184 intake water mass, with no expected major changes in ambient water chemistry during the  
185 course of the experiment. Because water for all treatments was obtained from a common  
186 filtered and stable source, we assume samples collected represent the average conditions  
187 experienced over the course of the experiment aside from any temperature or salinity effects.  
188 For each treatment, a 50-ml aliquot of water was sampled, acidified with ultrapure nitric acid,  
189 and subsequently analyzed for elemental composition. Samples were analyzed by inductively  
190 coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES) (Varian Vista Pro). Methods for  
191 analysis were adapted from EPA Method 200.7 (ICP-OES). Elemental calibration standards  
192 were prepared from 1000 mg l<sup>-1</sup> reference solutions and original stocks are NIST-Traceable.  
193 Precision estimates are not provided because only one water sample from each treatment was  
194 analyzed. Elemental concentrations were standardized to and expressed as element to calcium  
195 ratios (Me:Ca<sub>water</sub>), which were used in all subsequent statistical analyses.

196 *Growth*

197       Upon experiment completion, we recorded standard length for each fish. Because all  
198 fish came from the fertilization event, and were harvested at the same time, we used standard  
199 length of the fish as measure of somatic growth. We also measured otolith deposition using  
200 the Alizarin stain as a marker for the beginning of the experiment. Otolith length was defined  
201 as the length of a transect radiating out from the beginning of the alizarin stain to the outer  
202 edge of the otolith. In addition, we measured pre-experimental growth from the otolith core to  
203 the beginning of the alizarin stain (Figure 1). Pre-experimental otolith length provides an  
204 index scoring the relative size of individuals placed into experimental treatments.

205 *Statistical Analysis*

206       Elemental ( $\text{Me}:\text{Ca}_{\text{otolith}}$  &  $\text{Me}:\text{Ca}_{\text{water}}$ ) and isotope data were inspected for normality  
207 using Q-Q plots and clear outliers (i.e., more than two times the standard deviation from the  
208 mean of a given metric) were removed. In total, less than 3% of observations met these  
209 exclusion criteria. Partition coefficients provide a complementary metric to compare otolith  
210 incorporation rates across experimental treatments accounting for both  $\text{Me}:\text{Ca}_{\text{otolith}}$  and  
211  $\text{Me}:\text{Ca}_{\text{water}}$  (Reis-Santos et al., 2013), and are especially useful for comparisons among species  
212 and studies (Martin and Wuenschel, 2006). We calculated partition coefficients ( $D_{\text{me}}$ ) for each  
213 element by dividing the measured otolith calcium ratio ( $\text{Me}:\text{Ca}_{\text{otolith}}$ ) by the observed water  
214 ratio ( $\text{Me}:\text{Ca}_{\text{water}}$ ) of the treatment (Morse and Bender, 1990). The majority of field studies  
215 only provide baseline information based on observed otolith composition because the ambient  
216 water chemistry is often missing and therefore partition coefficients cannot be calculated (but  
217 see, Thorrold et al., 1998). For this reason, we present analyses of otolith composition  
218 ( $\text{Me}:\text{Ca}_{\text{otolith}}$ ) and partition coefficients ( $D_{\text{me}}$ ) in tandem.

219 Statistical analyses were conducted in R-stats version 3.1.0 (R Development Core  
220 Team, 2014). Differences in growth, water chemistry, otolith chemistry, and partition  
221 coefficients, as a function of experimental treatment, were analysed as general mixed-effects  
222 models (LME) using the “*lme4*” package in R. Response variables (i.e.  $D_{me}$ ) were  $\log_{10}$   
223 transformed and treated as continuous variables in response to our categorical fixed  
224 treatments, temperature and salinity. To account for growth effects, we constructed a  
225 temperature by salinity growth model, using the same mixed-effects model outlined  
226 previously, and employed the residuals as an index of growth variability which accounts for  
227 correlations with environment. Growth residuals were incorporated into LME models as  
228 continuous covariates. Replicate tanks, within each treatment, were treated as a nested random  
229 categorical factor for all models. We did not report the non-significant random tank effect  
230 because it was unimportant to the statistical question posed in the analysis (Bolker et al.,  
231 2009). Each element and isotope was analyzed individually, thus creating 6 separate  
232 statistical tests. To control for family-wise error rates and multiple comparisons, the  
233 significance of each test was adjusted using a *Benjamini-Hochberg* (Benjamini and Hochberg,  
234 1995) correction and compared to a significance level set at  $\pm = 0.05$ . In instances where we  
235 detected significant differences, post-hoc pairwise tests using the ‘*multcomp*’ package in R  
236 determined which treatments differed.

### 237 *Random effects*

238 For all mixed-effects models we found no significant replicate tank effect. All p-values  
239 exceeded 1.2 except otolith  $\delta^{18}\text{C}$  which approximated 0.08.

240

241 *Ethics*

242 All experimental procedures and fish handling were approved and conducted in  
243 accordance to the Canadian Council of Animal Care Guidelines and Memorial University of  
244 Newfoundland animal utilization protocols.

245 **Results:**

246 *Rearing conditions*

247 Experimental conditions were consistent throughout the trials for low ( $5.0 \pm 0.2$  °C and  
248  $25.1 \pm 0.1$  PSU; Mean  $\pm$  SD), intermediate ( $8.6 \pm 0.3$  °C and  $28.5 \pm 0.2$  PSU; Mean  $\pm$  SD),  
249 and high ( $12.2 \pm 0.3$  °C and  $31.8 \pm 0.2$  PSU; Mean  $\pm$  SD) treatment levels (Figure 2). All  
250 water was sourced from a common intake and filtration system, but variation in ambient water  
251 chemistry occurred as a function of experimental conditions (Table 1). Salinity significantly  
252 affected Me:Ca<sub>water</sub> ratios (Table 2), however, we detected no temperature, temperature-  
253 salinity interactions, or tank replicate effects in Me:Ca<sub>water</sub>. Mg:Ca and Sr:Ca<sub>water</sub> were  
254 positively correlated and Mn:Ca and Ba:Ca<sub>water</sub> were negatively correlated with treatment  
255 salinity (Figure 3).

256 *Otolith Chemistry*

257 Temperature significantly influenced elemental-calcium (Me:Ca<sub>Otolith</sub>) and isotope  
258 ratios (Tables 2 & 3 respectively; Figure 4). Salinity significant influenced on all elements and  
259 isotopes tested, with the exception of magnesium (Mg:Ca<sub>Otolith</sub>). We detected no interactive  
260 effects for any elemental ratio or for either stable isotope variables. Both Mg:Ca and Mn:Ca  
261 were significantly higher at the warmest temperatures. Mg:Ca and Sr:Ca ratios increased with  
262 salinity, whereas Mn:Ca and Ba:Ca ratios decreased (Figure 4), corresponding to trends  
263 observed in Me:Ca<sub>water</sub> (Figure 3). Similarly, temperature and salinity significantly affected

264 isotope ratios. We did not find significant interactive effects of temperature and salinity on  
265  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  ratios, but did find a significant interaction on ratios of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Table 3). Both  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  
266  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  associated positively with salinity across all temperature treatments.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values were  
267 significantly lower at the low temperatures compared to intermediate and high temperature  
268 treatments, except at the intermediate salinity treatment (thus the significant interaction  
269 between temperature and salinity). Conversely, we observed significantly higher  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  in the  
270 low temperature treatment compared to intermediate and high temperatures (Figure 4).

### 271 *Partition Coefficients*

272 Ranges of elemental partition coefficients,  $D_{\text{Me}}$  (Table 1), were similar to those  
273 reported in previous studies (Martin et al., 2004; Martin and Thorrold, 2005; Martin and  
274 Wuenschel, 2006; Miller, 2011; Reis-Santos et al., 2013). Estimates of  $D_{\text{Me}}$  for all elements  
275 showed a significant influence of temperature and a similar effect for salinity for all elements  
276 except  $D_{\text{Mg}}$ . We found significant interactive effects between temperature and salinity for  $D_{\text{Mn}}$   
277 and  $D_{\text{Ba}}$  (Table 2, Figure 5).  $D_{\text{Mg}}$  showed a weakly significant positive association with  
278 temperature only. Temperature significantly influenced  $D_{\text{Mn}}$  only at the highest salinity  
279 treatment.  $D_{\text{Mn}}$  associated positively with salinity for all temperature treatments, especially at  
280 the highest temperature. Salinity influenced  $D_{\text{Sr}}$  coefficients, particularly at low temperatures,  
281 where the intermediate salinity treatment had a significantly lower mean  $D_{\text{Sr}}$  value than low or  
282 high salinity treatments.  $D_{\text{Sr}}$  associated negatively with temperature, with the largest mean  $D_{\text{Sr}}$   
283 in the lowest temperature treatments (Figure 5). For  $D_{\text{Ba}}$ , we observed a temperature effect  
284 only in the high salinity treatment where coefficients were significantly greater than the low  
285 temperature treatment. Barium partition coefficients tracked positively with salinity in all

286 temperature treatments with highest coefficients associated with the highest salinity. We  
287 observed temperature effects in  $D_{Ba}$  only in the high salinity treatment.

### 288 *Growth*

289 We found no significant difference among experimental treatments in pre-  
290 experimental otolith length, confirming that all individuals were similar in size before  
291 experimental rearing (ANOVA:  $F=0.99$   $p=0.38$ ,  $F=0.44$   $p=0.64$ , for temperature and salinity  
292 respectively). Somatic and otolith growth were highly correlated (Pearson  $r=0.58$ ,  $p<0.0001$ )  
293 and temperature affected both variables significantly, with lowest growth in the coldest  
294 temperature treatment (Figure 6). Collectively, otoliths grew proportionately faster than the  
295 fish themselves, resulting in proportionally smaller otoliths in faster growing fish (log linear  
296 model: slope = 1.4  $t=12.7$ ,  $p<0.00001$ ). Salinity did not significantly affect growth rate  
297 singularly, but we did observe a weakly significant interaction between temperature and  
298 salinity for somatic growth (Table 4). In low temperature treatments, growth was significantly  
299 higher at intermediate salinities.

300 Mixed-effects models revealed significant relationships for Me:Ca and  $D_{Me}$  with Mg,  
301 Mn, and Sr, as well as ratios of  $\delta^{13}C$ , with treatment growth residuals (Tables 2 and 3). All  
302 estimated slopes were positive except for  $D_{Sr}$  and Sr:Ca, and we observed no significant  
303 relationships between growth residuals and Ba:Ca,  $D_{Ba}$  and  $\delta^{18}O$ . These trends mirror  
304 directionality and significance of correlative relationships among otolith constituents and  
305 growth across treatments (Supplementary Table 1).

306 **Discussion:**

307 Otolith geochemistry provides potentially powerful methodology for identifying natal  
308 habitats and inferring environmental histories of juvenile Atlantic cod, potentially allowing  
309 individuals in adult populations to be linked to specific juvenile or natal nursery habitat.  
310 Reliable prediction and evaluation of fish environmental history requires, however, an  
311 understanding of how the environment mediates incorporation of ambient elements and  
312 isotopes into fish otoliths. Broadly speaking, the influence of temperature and salinity on  
313 otolith elemental composition remains ambiguous, with laboratory studies (e.g. Bath et al.,  
314 2000; Elsdon and Gillanders, 2002; Elsdon and Gillanders, 2003; Miller, 2011; Reis-Santos et  
315 al., 2013) highlighting strong species-specific relationships (Reis-Santos et al., 2008;  
316 Melancon et al., 2009), likely attributable to variable physiology (Miller, 2011). Indeed, there  
317 are few examples of consistent relationships between otolith chemistry and environment  
318 among fish species (Campana, 1999). Laboratory validations thus provides an important and  
319 necessary step in evaluating biotic and abiotic influences on otolith incorporation rates  
320 (Kalish, 1991; Miller, 2011) for specific elements and isotopes prior to field application (Reis-  
321 Santos et al., 2013). Our experiment represents an important contribution towards  
322 understanding the application of otolith microchemistry to environmental reconstructions of  
323 juvenile Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) and similar coastal marine fishes.

324 Our experiments demonstrate significant influences of both temperature and salinity  
325 on otolith composition of juvenile Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*). Gradients of temperature,  
326 salinity, and ambient chemical conditions (Me:Ca<sub>water</sub>), driven by variation in upwelling and  
327 mixing of marine and freshwater inputs (Reis-Santos et al., 2013) often characterize coastal  
328 nursery habitats in which fish reside or move. Our experiment included a range of



329 temperatures experienced by juvenile Atlantic cod in the Newfoundland inshore environment  
330 (Dalley and Anderson, 1997; Craig and Colbourne, 2004), therefore providing a realistic  
331 template on which to test the relationship between environment and otolith composition.

### 332 *Otolith chemistry*

333 Both temperature and salinity significantly affected almost all of the  $\text{Me}:\text{Ca}_{\text{Otolith}}$  and  
334  $D_{\text{Me}}$  variables. Only  $\text{Mg}:\text{Ca}_{\text{otolith}}$  and  $D_{\text{Mg}}$  were influenced by temperature alone. Previous  
335 laboratory experiments evaluating the effects of environment on elemental incorporation  
336 found significant effects of both temperature and salinity both with (Secor et al., 1995; Elsdon  
337 and Gillanders, 2002; Barnes and Gillanders, 2013) and without (e.g. Martin and Thorrold,  
338 2005; Martin and Wuenschel, 2006) an interaction. Significant interactions between  
339 temperature and salinity brings into question generalities drawn from assessments where  
340 uncontrolled factors such as temperature or salinity in coastal environments may add  
341 environmental heterogeneity and bias otolith signals (Elsdon and Gillanders, 2002).

342 Temperature and salinity both significantly influenced  $\text{Sr}:\text{Ca}$  ratios and partition  
343 coefficients. We observed highest  $\text{Sr}:\text{Ca}_{\text{otolith}}$  values in the highest salinity treatments (~32  
344 PSU). The result was expected as  $\text{Sr}:\text{Ca}_{\text{Otolith}}$  commonly occurs in proportion to ambient  
345 availability (Farrell and Campana, 1996; Campana et al., 1999) and measurements of water  
346 chemistry showed the highest  $\text{Sr}:\text{Ca}_{\text{Water}}$  ratios at the highest salinity across all temperature  
347 treatments. By calculating partition coefficients, we were able to examine the effect of  
348 temperature and salinity on  $\text{Sr}:\text{Ca}_{\text{Otolith}}$  after accounting for differences in  $\text{Sr}:\text{Ca}_{\text{Water}}$ . While  
349 several studies found a positive effect of temperature on  $D_{\text{Sr}}$  (e.g. Bath et al., 2000; Martin et  
350 al., 2004), we found the opposite, with highest  $D_{\text{Sr}}$  values in the low temperature treatment,

351 similar to trends reported for larval Pacific, *Gadus macrocephalus* (DiMaria et al., 2010), and  
352 Atlantic cod (Townsend et al., 1995). At low temperatures fish apparently have a reduced  
353 ability to discriminate Sr incorporation into the otolith (Townsend et al., 1995), which mirrors  
354 our finding of higher Sr:Ca and  $D_{Sr}$  at the lowest temperature treatment. We found a dome-  
355 shaped effect of salinity on Sr partition coefficients, with lowest  $D_{Sr}$  values at intermediate  
356 salinities. Martin et al. (2004) also noted a significant effect of salinity (and hence dissolved  
357 Sr concentrations in the ambient water) on  $D_{Sr}$  and suggested that mutual inhibition of Ca and  
358 Sr ions across intestinal membranes may have generated this result. Our results are more  
359 complicated, as this inhibition would need to be complex and non-linear to generate the  
360 relation between salinity and  $D_{Sr}$  that we observed. Correspondingly Brown and Severin  
361 (2009) reviewed published otolith work and noted that marine species in general often exhibit  
362 equivalent or greater variation in Sr:Ca<sub>Otolith</sub> ratios relative to diadromous and freshwater  
363 species, despite less variable ambient concentrations; these results suggest an equivocal  
364 contribution of Sr:Ca<sub>Water</sub> levels to Sr:Ca<sub>Otolith</sub>. Strontium is typically used as a chemical tracer  
365 of salinity, often defining transitions between freshwater and marine habitats (e.g. Bradbury et  
366 al., 2008). Studies that successfully developed otolith strontium and salinity relationships  
367 often utilized a larger gradient than used in our study (e.g. Martin and Wuenschel, 2006), and  
368 potentially spanned a greater range than that used as coastal juvenile cod habitat. The use of  
369 otolith strontium as an environmental tracer in Atlantic cod appears tenuous in isolation,  
370 though in combination with other elements might provide a contextual relationship to  
371 environment and a tracer for ambient Sr:Ca chemistry.

372           Barium incorporation correlated positively with temperature and negatively with  
373 salinity. Ba:Ca<sub>Otolith</sub> ratios were significantly lower at the lowest temperature treatment with

374 decreasing levels at increasing salinity, as seen in previous studies with black bream (Webb et  
375 al., 2012). As expected,  $Ba:Ca_{\text{Water}}$  did not differ significantly across temperature treatments,  
376 but did decrease significantly with salinity. Controlling for ambient water chemistry a  
377 different pattern emerges, with a significant temperature by salinity interaction influence on  
378  $D_{Ba}$ . We observed higher  $D_{Ba}$  coefficients and detected temperature effects only at the highest  
379 salinity. Previous studies reported interactive influences of temperature and salinity on otolith  
380  $Ba:Ca$  ratios in Chinook salmon (Miller, 2011) and European seabass (Reis-Santos et al.,  
381 2013). Changes in  $Ba:Ca_{\text{otolith}}$  and  $D_{Ba}$  patterns may be a product of water chemistry. Indeed,  
382 manipulations of ambient barium uniformly showed a clear influence on  $Ba:Ca_{\text{otolith}}$  ratios  
383 (Miller, 2009; Collingsworth et al., 2010). Facilitation between Ba and Sr ions may also  
384 explain our observations. Previous studies highlighted elevated incorporation of Ba with  
385 increased Sr ratios (de Vries et al., 2005). Though our study did not manipulate Sr  
386 concentrations directly, we did observe the higher dissolved Sr concentrations, and lowest  
387 dissolved Ba concentrations, in the highest salinity treatment. A complementary hypothesis to  
388 Sr facilitation proposes that increased ambient water concentrations of Ba may inhibit  
389 incorporation of Ba into otoliths, based on the fact that Ba approaches proportional  
390 incorporation with the ambient water at low concentrations (Bath et al., 2000; de Vries et al.,  
391 2005).

392         Magnesium may offer promise as temperature proxy for juvenile Atlantic cod because  
393 only temperature significantly affected incorporation, measured by both  $Mg:Ca$  and  $D_{Mg}$ .  
394 Increasing temperature led to increasing  $Mg:Ca$  ratios in otoliths, both pooled across and  
395 within salinity treatments. This result confirms trends reported by Barnes and Gillanders  
396 (2013) and Elsdon and Gillanders (2002), who also found a significant positive relationship

397 between Mg:Ca and temperature but no effect of salinity. Mg:Ca is believed to be primarily  
398 under biological control (Martin and Thorrold, 2005), with otolith Mg concentration regulated  
399 by physiological fractionation between blood and endolymphatic fluids surrounding fish  
400 otoliths (Melancon et al., 2009). Temperature-mediated control of Mg:Ca<sub>otolith</sub> ratios observed  
401 in our study and others may represent a product of thermal influence on the fractionation of  
402 Mg from blood to endolymphatic fluids (Barnes and Gillanders, 2013). Responses of otolith  
403 Mg:Ca ratios to temperature vary across taxa, with reports of non-significant (Martin and  
404 Thorrold, 2005; Martin and Wuenschel, 2006) and negative effects of temperature (Fowler et  
405 al., 1995). Variation in physiological response to temperature and its impact on fractionation  
406 likely contributes to among-species differences (Barnes and Gillanders, 2013).

407       Temperature and salinity significantly increased otolith manganese incorporation. Both  
408 Mn:Ca<sub>Otolith</sub> and D<sub>Mn</sub> were positively associated with temperature, with highest values in the  
409 warmest treatment pooled across salinity treatments. The influence of salinity was more varied  
410 with significantly lower Mn:Ca<sub>Otolith</sub> and higher D<sub>Mn</sub> ratios at higher salinities only when the  
411 temperature exceeded 5 °C . Considering partition coefficients, we found a significant  
412 temperature and salinity interaction on D<sub>Mn</sub>, similar to previous work with juvenile spot,  
413 *Leiostomus xanthurus* (Martin and Thorrold, 2005). Temperature had a significant positive  
414 effect on D<sub>Mn</sub> in high salinity treatments. As in Martin and Thorrold (2005), we found greater  
415 differentiation in D<sub>Mn</sub> across salinity treatments at the warmest temperatures. Differences  
416 between Me:Ca and D<sub>Me</sub> are often attributed to water chemistry variation across treatments  
417 (Martin and Wuenschel, 2006), and indeed we observed a significant negative association  
418 between Mn:Ca<sub>Water</sub> and salinity as previously documented (Martin and Thorrold, 2005).  
419 However, past studies have not reliably linked ambient ratios of Mn (Mn:Ca<sub>Water</sub>) to otolith

420 chemistry (Elsdon and Gillanders, 2003; Collingsworth et al., 2010). The signal-to-noise ratio  
421 of Mn is high relative to other elements, given sensitivity to changes in water chemistry and  
422 low otolith concentrations. Nonetheless, our observations of inverted trends with  $Mn:Ca_{Otolith}$   
423 and  $D_{Mn}$  potentially indicate limitation, however, without mediation of ambient conditions we  
424 cannot fully partition the influence of variable physiology and ambient availability on Mn  
425 incorporation. Despite a lack of consensus on the mechanisms underlying concentrations in  
426 fish otoliths, Mn has proven useful in discrimination analyses (Thorrold et al., 1998; Reis-  
427 Santos et al., 2008; D'Avignon and Rose, 2013). For Atlantic cod, Mn could potentially be  
428 used as a useful tracer for temperature; however, reliable reconstructions would contingent  
429 upon some prior knowledge of salinity based on our results.

430         Stable C and O isotope chemistry offers a useful tool for reconstructing environmental  
431 histories of aquatic organisms because both isotope systems vary geographically in coastal  
432 and ocean waters (Thorrold et al., 1997a). Carbon isotopes ( $\delta^{13}C$ ) in otoliths reflect a mixture  
433 of ambient dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and dietary carbon (Kalish, 1991; Schwarcz et  
434 al., 1998) sources in a ratio that is likely mediated by physiology (Thorrold et al., 1997a).  
435 Reported otolith ratios between ambient DIC and metabolic carbon vary from approximately  
436 20% (Weidman and Millner, 2000) to 30% (Hoie et al., 2004) for Atlantic cod. We found a  
437 non-linear effect of temperature on  $\delta^{13}C$  values, with decreases between intermediate and high  
438 temperature treatments as expected (Weidman and Millner, 2000) but with the lowest  $\delta^{13}C$   
439 values found at the coolest temperatures ( $\sim 5^\circ C$ ). We held juvenile cod in the low temperature  
440 treatment at the bottom of their expected thermal range (Brander, 1995). Correspondingly,  
441 somatic and otolith growth were significantly reduced in the low temperature treatments. The  
442 result is, nonetheless, similar to that of Hoie et al. (2003) who observed higher  $\delta^{13}C$  values

443 than low growth rate fish in larval and early juvenile Atlantic cod (<21 mm) with higher  
444 growth rates and presumably higher metabolism. Like Hoie et al. (2003), our observations  
445 cannot be attributed to diet, as we did not vary feeding among treatments, and all cultures  
446 were fed to saturation. Previous studies reported behavioural differences both in respiration  
447 rate (McConnaughey et al., 1997) and swimming alterations of metabolic activity (Bjornsson,  
448 1993; Hoie et al., 2003) that correlated negatively with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . We lacked a direct measure of  
449 either index but would not expect either behaviour to increase at lower temperatures.  
450 Considering only the intermediate and high temperature treatments, where we observed no  
451 significant difference in size,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  declined on average  $-0.14 \text{‰}/^\circ\text{C}$  ( $p=0.001$ ,  $r^2=0.37$ ), similar  
452 to rates derived from seasonal otolith records of wild caught Atlantic cod  $\sim -0.16 \text{‰}/^\circ\text{C}$   
453 (Weidman and Millner, 2000). This rate is similar to that previously reported for bearded rock  
454 cod (Kalish, 1991), Atlantic croaker (Thorrold et al., 1997a), as well as various species of  
455 foraminifera and mollusks (Grossman and Ku, 1986) ( $-0.18, -0.22, -0.11$ , and  $-0.13 \text{‰}/^\circ\text{C}$ ,  
456 respectively).

457 Otolith  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  decreased with temperature, confirming patterns previously reported for  
458 Atlantic cod (Hoie et al., 2004) and other biogenic aragonites (Grossman and Ku, 1986). Past  
459 studies documented negative associations of otolith  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and temperature for a variety of  
460 species, and demonstrated the reliability of Atlantic cod as an indicator of temperature to  
461 within  $1 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  (Weidman and Millner, 2000) when adequately constraining the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of the  
462 ambient water.

463 Despite evidence linking salinity to variable isotope incorporation in fish otoliths (e.g.  
464 Schwarcz et al., 1998; Elsdon and Gillanders, 2002), no previous studies tested salinity effects

465 on otolith isotope concentrations in cod. We found a significant positive association between  
466 otolith isotopes and salinity. The positive association between salinity and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  confirms  
467 previous studies documenting proportional otolith incorporation with ambient conditions  
468 (Thorrold et al., 1997a) and a positive relationship between water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and salinity (Gao,  
469 2002).

#### 470 *Relationships with growth*

471 Somatic and otolith growth rate can influence incorporation of elements and isotopes  
472 in fish otoliths (Hoie et al., 2003; Martin and Thorrold, 2005). Fish with faster growth rates  
473 generally have proportionally smaller otoliths (Worthington et al., 1995). In particular, past  
474 work found a negative correlation between otolith size and growth rate in juvenile Atlantic  
475 cod (Otterlei et al., 2002); our study shows that otoliths grow proportionally faster (~1.4) than  
476 fish length, confirming this trend. Diet and changes in physiology often associated with  
477 growth rate and size, influence carbon in particular (Hoie et al., 2003) as our data also  
478 showed. Somatic growth rate might be more important for larval and juvenile fishes where  
479 more variable growth is expected (Martin and Wuenschel, 2006). Our experiment revealed  
480 strong correlations between somatic growth and temperature (Bolland, 2008), which  
481 precluded a full evaluation of the combined effects of somatic growth with environmental  
482 condition resulting from limited variation individual growth within a treatment. A three-way  
483 temperature, salinity and feeding (growth) experiment similar to the nested design employed  
484 by Hoie et al. (2003) would most clearly elucidate the effect of variable growth rate on otolith  
485 incorporation (Martin and Wuenschel, 2006).

486 Though growth was not controlled orthogonally to environment in our experiment, we  
487 nonetheless observed variation in growth within treatments. Residuals from a temperature by

488 salinity growth model offer a tool to evaluate the effect of growth while accounting for  
489 environmental correlates. Our study found significant positive relationships between growth  
490 and otolith magnesium and manganese (Me:Ca and  $D_{Me}$ ), similar to observations of  $D_{Mn}$  in  
491 Atlantic cod (Limburg et al., 2011) and other groundfish species (Limburg et al., 2014).  
492 Strontium (Sr:Ca and  $D_{Sr}$ ) and growth were significantly and negatively related, as reported in  
493 juvenile striped bass (*Morone saxatilis*) (Secor et al., 1995). Incorporation of barium (Ba:Ca  
494 and  $D_{Ba}$ ) was growth independent, as reported in adult Atlantic cod (Thorisson et al. (2011)  
495 and juvenile spot croaker (*Leiostomus xanthurus*) (Bath et al., 2000). Similarly, we observed  
496 an overall negative but non-significant relationship between oxygen ( $^{18}O$ ) incorporation and  
497 growth, suggesting growth independent incorporation, mirroring patterns previously reported  
498 for juvenile Atlantic cod (Hoie et al. (2003). Carbon ( $^{13}C$ ) ratios and growth were  
499 significantly and positively related, echoing similar trends in previous studies (Thorrold et al.,  
500 1997a). At low temperatures, growth was highest at intermediate salinities, where we also  
501 observed the highest  $^{13}C$  values. This relationship with growth likely drove the significant  
502 interaction between temperature and salinity on  $^{13}C$  incorporation. As with  $^{18}O$ , the positive  
503 association between  $^{13}C$  and growth mirrors patterns observed for temperature and juvenile  
504 Atlantic cod (Hoie and Folkvord, 2006). Indeed all observed relationships between growth  
505 and otolith chemistry mirror temperature patterns. Collectively our results support the  
506 assertion that variation in physiology and otolith deposition associated with growth influence  
507 trace element incorporation (Secor et al., 1995), further highlighting the need for experimental  
508 studies that nest growth within temperature.



509 *Conclusion*

510           Ultimately, otolith geochemical composition provides a template to discern  
511 environmental histories of juvenile Atlantic cod, potentially providing novel information  
512 about this critical period. Analyses of otolith composition provides one method to assign  
513 juvenile residency in Atlantic cod, offering a feasible alternative to tagging studies that are  
514 logistically difficult or impossible in larval and juvenile fishes given their small size and  
515 relatively high mortalities (Thorisson et al., 2011). Spatial and temporal differences in otolith  
516 chemistry among geographic regions may reflect ambient water chemistry and environmental  
517 condition, noting the modest effect that diet alone has on otolith incorporation for most fish  
518 (Hoff and Fuiman, 1995; Milton and Chenery, 2001; Walther and Thorrold, 2006; Webb et al.,  
519 2012; Woodcock et al., 2012), with some notable exceptions (Buckel et al., 2004). The wide  
520 range of environmental conditions experienced by Atlantic cod in nearshore nursery habitat  
521 necessitates a comprehensive understanding of temperature and salinity effects on otolith  
522 chemistry. Moreover, these complex environments demand a more diverse suite of otolith  
523 trace elements and isotopes to ensure successful reconstruction. Results from our study  
524 provide a comprehensive assessment of temperature and salinity effects on a substantial suite  
525 of both elemental and isotopic constituents in juvenile Atlantic cod otoliths. Temperature and  
526 salinity both significantly affected all elements and isotopes we measured except Mg, which  
527 was apparently incorporated into otoliths independent of salinity. Collectively our results  
528 highlight the potential utility of otolith geochemistry to identify change and reconstruct  
529 environmental life histories of Atlantic cod, but they also highlight key considerations and  
530 limitations of the application when considering environmental variables in isolation.

531 *Supplementary material*

532 Additional supplementary material is available at ICES Journal of Marine Science online and  
533 the online version of this manuscript. Supplementary data is comprised of a table with the full  
534 temperature by salinity partitioned correlations between otolith constituents and fish growth,  
535 both otolith and somatic.

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544 Corporation of Newfoundland (RDC) student fellowship. All experiments were conducted in  
545 accordance with Canadian and institutional animal care guidelines.

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552 **Tables:**

553 Table 1. Means, standard deviations (sd) and ranges for each element and isotope *Gadus*  
 554 *morhua* otolith constituent measured across all treatments. Trace elemental data is  
 555 standardized as a ratio of calcium; units for elements are per mol Ca, Isotopic ratios of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
 556 and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  are expressed in ‰ relative to VPDB, and partition coefficients are ratios of otolith  
 557 chemistry to ambient water chemistry.

558

Parameter	Mean	Sd	Range	Units	n
<b><i>Me:Ca<sub>Water</sub></i></b>					
Mg	5.31	0.57	(5.06-5.53)	Mol	24
Mn	5.99	2.60	(2.26-9.50)	μmol	24
Sr	9.40	0.23	(8.87-9.74)	mmol	24
Ba	22.98	14.8	(5.23-44.25)	μmol	24
<b><i>Me:Ca<sub>Otolith</sub></i></b>					
Mg	20.19	11.15	(7.27-61.7)	μmol	278
Mn	2.62	1.05	(1.02-6.07)	μmol	273
Sr	3.08	0.76	(1.68-5.05)	mmol	273
Ba	2.49	0.79	(1.32-4.54)	μmol	273
$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	-3.68	0.79	(-5.3--1.87)	‰	116
$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	-0.57	0.98	(-2.57-1.46)	‰	116
<b><i>D<sub>Me</sub></i></b>					
Mg	3.81	2.1	(1.43-11.3)	*10 <sup>-6</sup>	269
Mn	0.50	0.27	(0.129-1.72)	-	267
Sr	0.28	0.08	(0.18-0.53)	-	265
Ba	0.18	0.14	(0.033-0.73)	-	269

559

560 Table 2: Results of linear mixed effects models comparing water chemistry (Md:Ca<sub>Water</sub>), otolith chemistry (Me:Ca<sub>Otolith</sub>) and  
561 elemental partition coefficients (D<sub>Me</sub>) as a function of temperature (T) and salinity (S) with replicate tank controlled as a random  
562 variable. Residuals from the temperature x salinity growth relationship were evoked as a continuous covariate. To control for multiple  
563 comparisons p-values are adjusted according to the *Benjamini-Hochberg* transformation.  
564

	Source of Variation	df	Mg		Mn		Sr		Ba	
			F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p
Me:Ca <sub>Water</sub>	T	2	1.8	0.354	5.4	0.042	0.5	0.879	0.3	0.904
	S	2	238.0	< <b>0.0001</b>	194.5	< <b>0.0001</b>	324.4	< <b>0.0001</b>	1233.0	< <b>0.0001</b>
	T:S	4	0.2	1.000	1.9	0.337	0.6	0.879	0.2	0.924
Me:Ca <sub>Otolith</sub>	T	2	6.8	<b>0.003</b>	14.2	< <b>0.0001</b>	27.7	< <b>0.0001</b>	27.5	< <b>0.0001</b>
	S	2	1.3	0.343	14.4	< <b>0.0001</b>	6.2	<b>0.004</b>	17.2	< <b>0.0001</b>
	G	4	4.7	<b>0.046</b>	15.0	< <b>0.0001</b>	31.6	< <b>0.0001</b>	0.3	0.728
	T:S	9	0.1	0.984	0.6	0.799	0.1	0.984	1.8	0.192
D <sub>Me</sub>	T	2	7.2	<b>0.002</b>	34.8	< <b>0.0001</b>	28.0	< <b>0.0001</b>	25.9	< <b>0.0001</b>
	S	2	0.3	0.888	117.6	< <b>0.0001</b>	4.2	<b>0.029</b>	742.4	< <b>0.0001</b>
	G	4	4.7	<b>0.049</b>	15.0	< <b>0.0001</b>	31.6	< <b>0.0001</b>	0.3	0.606
	T:S	9	0.1	0.974	2.7	<b>0.041</b>	0.1	0.974	2.6	<b>0.046</b>

565 Table 3: Results of linear mixed effects models comparing otolith isotopes Carbon and  
 566 Oxygen ratios among temperature (T) and salinity (S) treatments with replicate tank  
 567 controlled as a random variable. Residuals from the temperature x salinity growth relationship  
 568 were evoked as a continuous covariate. To control for multiple comparisons p-values are  
 569 adjusted according to the *Benjamini-Hochberg* transformation.

	Source of Variation	df	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$		$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	
			F	p	F	p
Me:Ca <sub>Otolith</sub>	T	2	61.39	<0.0001	43.72	<0.0001
	S	2	23.23	<0.0001	21.70	<0.0001
	G	4	0.02	0.914	0.95	0.030
	T:S	9	1.72	0.208	4.67	<0.0001

570

571 Table 4: Results of linear mixed effects models comparing somatic and otolith growth as a  
 572 function of temperature (T) and salinity (T). Tank replicate treated as a random factor.

Source of variation	df	Somatic		Otolith	
		F	p	F	p
T	2	102.4	<0.0001	34.0	<0.0001
S	2	1.7	0.23	2.9	0.06
S x T	4	5.3	0.001	1.7	0.16

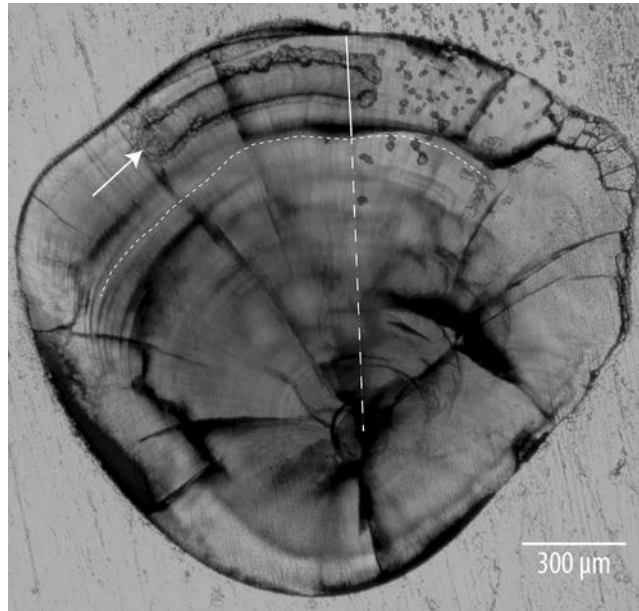
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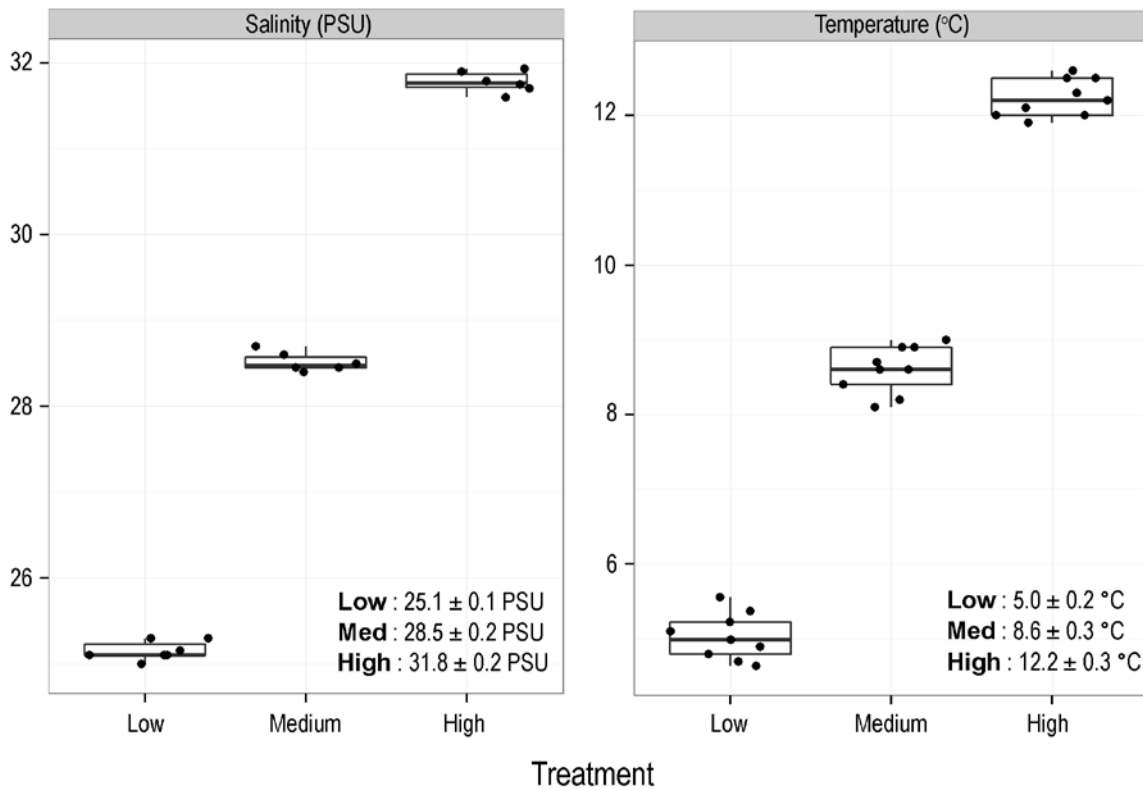
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577 **Figures**



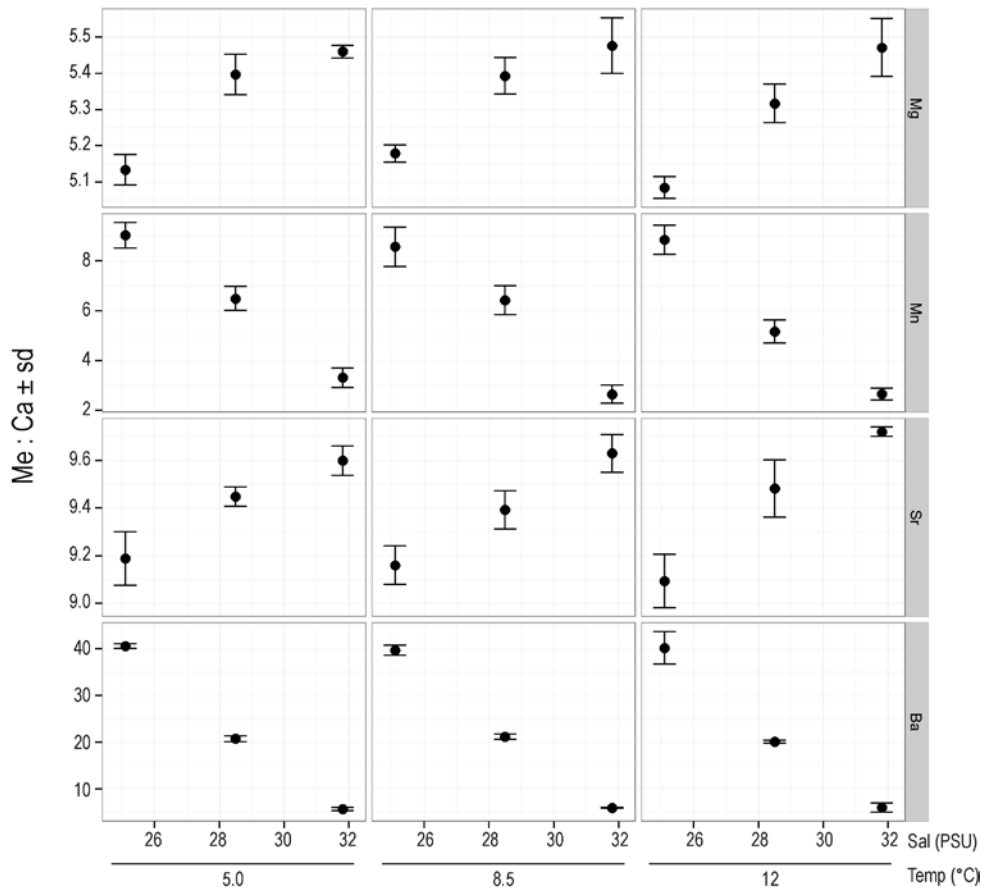
578

579 Figure 1: Polished juvenile *Gadus morhua* sagittal otolith showing laser raster (arrow), oltolith  
580 growth (solid line), pre-experimental growth (long dashed line) and alizarin tag (short dashed  
581 line) denoting beginning of the experiment.



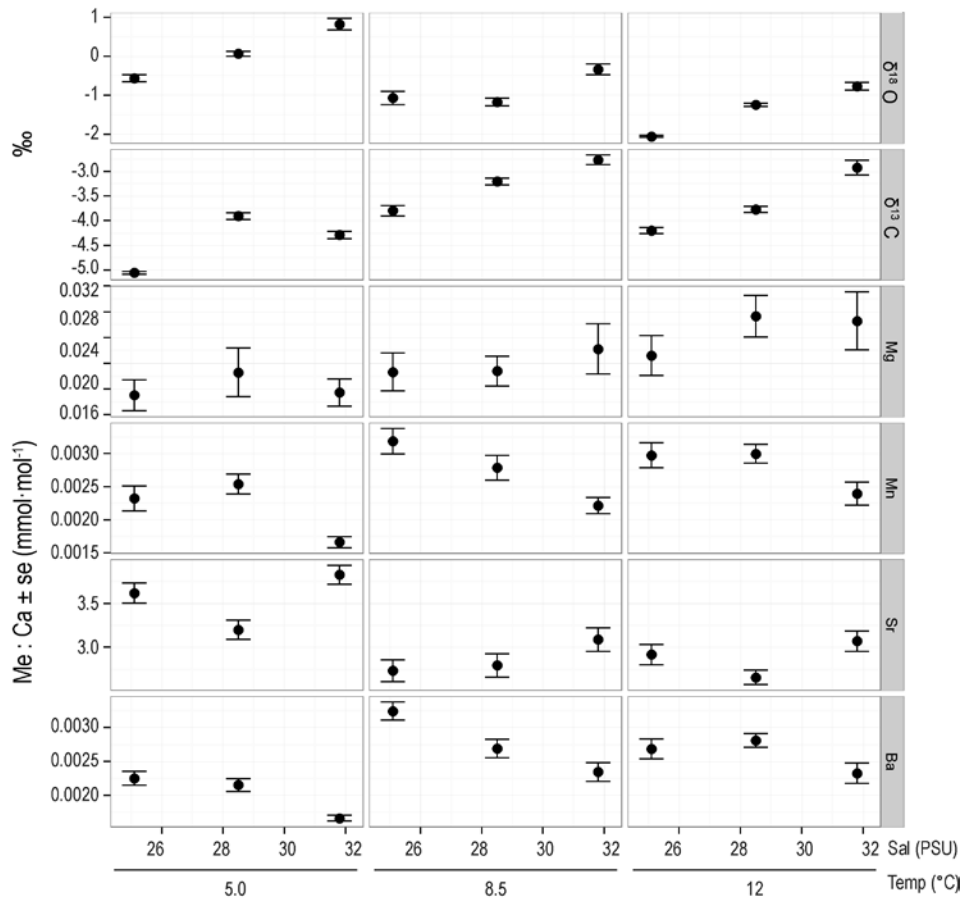
582

583 Figure 2: Summary of experimental treatments conditions. Means values are reported  $\pm 1$   
584 standard deviation.



585

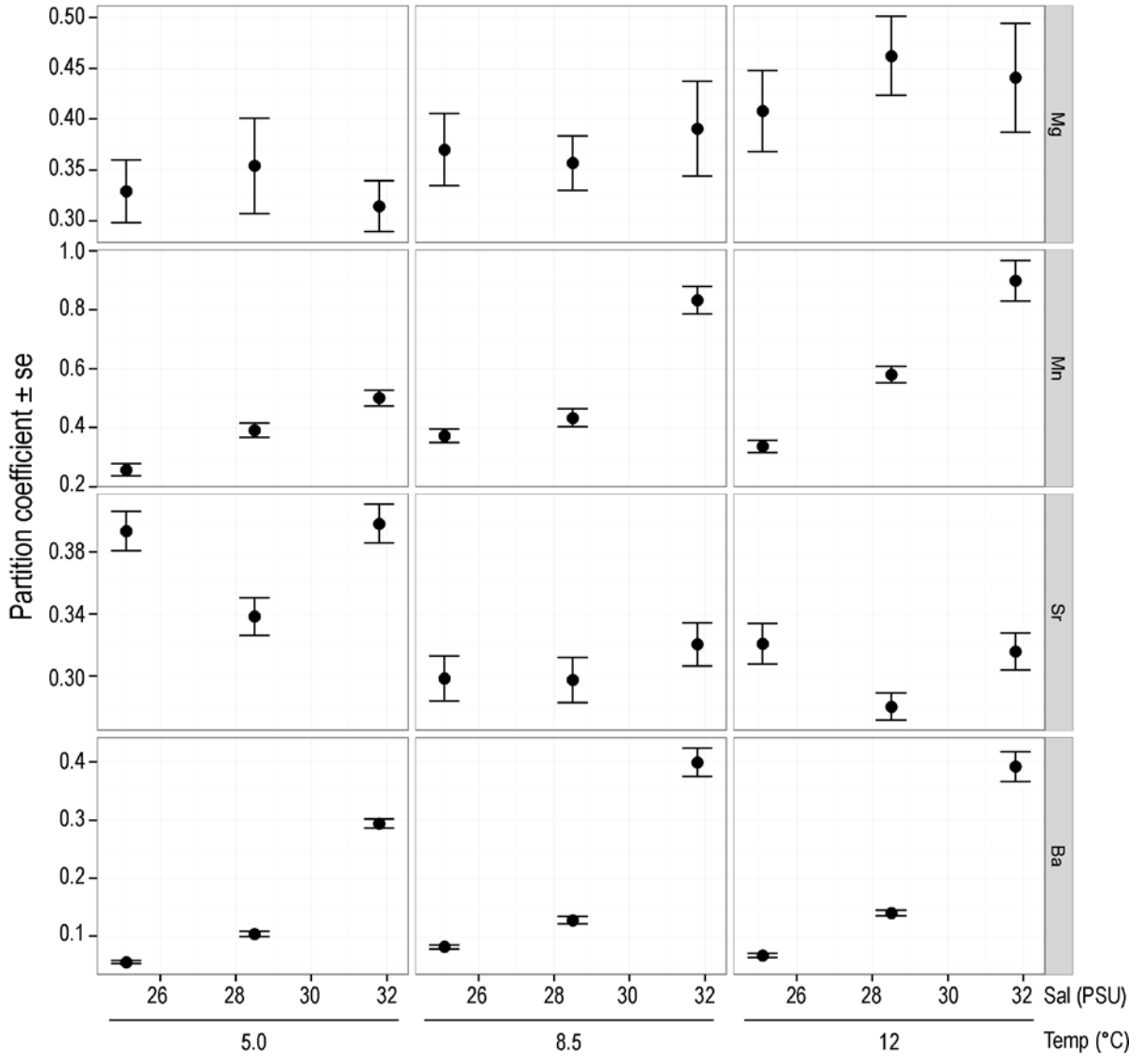
586 Figure 3: Mean ratios of Me:Ca<sub>water</sub> among temperature and salinity experimental treatments.  
 587 Mg:Ca values are in mol·mol<sup>-1</sup>, Mn:Ca and Ba:Ca are μmol·mol<sup>-1</sup>, and Sr:Ca is mmol·mol<sup>-1</sup>.



588



589 Figure 4: Mean Me:Ca<sub>Otolith</sub> and isotopic ratios for temperature and salinity treatments (n=3  
 590 respectively) of juvenile *Gadus morhua* otoliths. Isotopes in ‰ relative to VPDB. Error bars  
 591 represent ± 1 standard error. Figure 5: Mean partition coefficients (D<sub>Me</sub>) for juvenile *Gadus*  
 592 *morhua* otoliths reared under temperature and salinity experimental treatments). Mean D<sub>Mg</sub>  
 593 values are multiplied by 10<sup>5</sup>.



594

595 Figure 5. Mean partition coefficients (D<sub>me</sub>) for juvenile *G. morhua* otoliths reared under  
 596 temperature and salinity experimental treatments. Mean D<sub>mg</sub> values are multiplied by 10<sup>5</sup>.

597

598 Figure 6. Summary of somatic and otolith growth throughout the experiment. Boxplot fill  
599 colours denote results of within treatment Tukey's post-hoc tests ( $\pm < 0.05$ ).

600 **Supplementary material:**

601 **Table S1.** Correlations between growth and elemental partition coefficients and isotope values in juvenile *Gadus morhua* grown under  
 602 experimental conditions. Pearson correlation coefficients presented with *Benjamini-Hochberg* adjusted  $\pm$  controlling for multiple  
 603 comparisons \*  $\pm <0.05$ , \*\*  $\pm <0.01$ . Isotopes in ‰ relative to VPDB. Sample size of each treatment and element is denoted by n.

	Temp	Low			Med			High			Pooled
		Sal	Low	Med	High	Low	Med	High	Low	Med	
D <sub>Mg</sub>	Somatic	0.15	0.03	-0.01	0.29	0.36	-0.27	0.1	0.05	-0.17	<b>0.21*</b>
	Otolith	0.17	-0.2	0.6	0.36	0.27	0.26	0.22	-0.17	-0.22	<b>0.19*</b>
	n	37	21	28	31	33	27	29	38	25	269
D <sub>Mn</sub>	Somatic	0.26	-0.52	-0.19	0.41	0.42	0.12	0.06	0.14	0.02	<b>0.33*</b>
	Otolith	0.41	-0.17	0.28	0.45	<b>0.66*</b>	<b>0.55*</b>	0.36	0.16	0.05	<b>0.34*</b>
	n	39	21	25	28	31	29	31	39	24	267
D <sub>Sr</sub>	Somatic	-0.32	0.87	-0.39	-0.3	-0.4	-0.51	-0.14	-0.01	-0.47	<b>-0.56*</b>
	Otolith	-0.42	-0.25	0.01	-0.48	<b>-0.74*</b>	<b>-0.42</b>	<b>-0.56*</b>	-0.28	-0.21	<b>-0.57*</b>
	n	37	22	24	27	32	29	29	38	27	265
D <sub>Ba</sub>	Somatic	-0.05	-0.63	0.21	0.17	0.05	0.33	0.03	-0.04	-0.1	0.03
	Otolith	0.08	0.15	0.17	0.22	0.2	0.33	0.36	0.32	0.39	0.13
	n	33	23	28	27	32	29	31	39	27	269
$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	Somatic	0.19	-0.03	-0.42	0.08	-0.04	0.01	0.26	0.7	0.22	<b>0.45*</b>
	Otolith	0.31	0.07	-0.6	-0.07	-0.35	0.22	0.26	-0.5	0.01	<b>0.37*</b>
	n	8	15	16	13	15	15	11	10	14	116
$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	Somatic	-0.27	0.31	-0.24	0.38	-0.33	-0.06	-0.69	0.35	0.27	<b>-0.41*</b>
	Otolith	0.11	0.11	0	0.06	0.1	0.29	<b>-0.86*</b>	0.11	0.08	<b>-0.34*</b>
	n	14	14	16	11	13	15	9	10	14	116

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