

1 **Global patterns in marine predatory fish**

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Large teleost (bony) fish are a dominant group of predators in the oceans constituting a major source of food and livelihood for humans. These species differ markedly in morphology and feeding habits across oceanic regions; large pelagic species such as tunas and billfish typically occur in the tropics, whereas demersal species of gadoids and flatfish dominate boreal and temperate regions. Despite their importance for fisheries and the structuring of marine ecosystems, the underlying factors determining the global distribution and productivity of these two groups of teleost predators are poorly known. Here we show how latitudinal differences in predatory fish can essentially be explained by the inflow of energy at the base of the pelagic and benthic food chain. A low productive benthic energy pathway favours large pelagic species, whereas equal productivities support large demersal generalists that outcompete the pelagic specialists. Our findings demonstrate the vulnerability of large teleost predators to ecosystem-wide changes in energy flows and hence provide key insight to predict responses of these important marine resources under global change.

Marine top predators influence the structure and dynamics of food webs by imposing mortality and behavioural changes on prey and by feeding on parallel pathways of energy from both the pelagic (open water) and the benthic (bottom) zone of the ocean¹⁻³. Many of these predator species have declined in population sizes and distribution ranges, which in several cases has resulted in large-scale changes in ecosystems, involving trophic cascades²⁻⁴.

Large teleost fish are a dominant group of predators in the global oceans, support lucrative commercial and recreational fisheries and provide food for human populations worldwide⁵⁻⁷. These predators clearly differ in morphology and feeding habits across the world. In tropical and subtropical regions, teleost predators are often fast, mobile species that feed within the pelagic zone^{8,9}, while in boreal and

temperate regions the largest teleost species are typically slower growing, demersal (bottom-living)¹⁰ and adapted to feeding on both pelagic and benthic organisms^{6,11–14}. Despite their importance for structuring marine ecosystems and their significant socio-economic value, the underlying factors determining the global distribution and productivity of these two groups of marine predatory fish are poorly known. Here we test the specific hypothesis that spatial patterns in the distribution and productivity of these groups are primarily driven by pronounced global differences in the productivity of a pelagic and a benthic energy pathway in marine food webs worldwide (Fig. 1).

We examine this hypothesis by assessing the relative productivity of large marine teleost fishes using global fisheries landings data¹⁵ across 232 marine ecoregions¹⁶. For each ecoregion, we calculate the average proportion of large pelagic vs demersal fish landings between 1970 and 2014. We show that in this case, the proportion of landings represents a good estimate of the dominant predatory feeding strategy in the sea. We develop a food-web model with two energy channels, one pelagic and one benthic, to formally test our hypothesis and to predict the biomass fraction of pelagic vs demersal predatory fish worldwide.

Results

The proportion of large pelagic and demersal teleost predators varied strongly in fisheries landings across the globe (Fig. 2). As expected, large pelagic fish dominate in the tropics and subtropics, while large demersal fish prevail in temperate and polar regions in both hemispheres. Despite the pronounced latitudinal gradients, some areas in the tropics have a relatively low proportion of large pelagic fish (e.g. Gulf of Mexico, Brazilian shelf), primarily due to high landings of demersal fish species; e.g. the highly abundant largehead hairtail (*Trichiurus lepturus*).

Whether landings data can predict biomass (and as such the dominant predatory fish feeding strategy in the sea) has been disputed¹⁷. Here, we use weight fractions in landings and do not predict absolute biomass. Nevertheless, average landings and biomass¹⁸ are highly correlated for 71 pelagic and demersal predatory fish stocks (Supplementary Fig. 1, p-value <0.001, $r^2 = 0.78$). The weight fraction in landings also corresponds well to the fraction in biomass over time, based on assessed pelagic and demersal fish stocks¹⁸ from nine different large marine ecosystems (LMEs) (Supplementary Fig. 2, p-value < 0.001, $r^2 = 0.91$). Proportions of pelagic and demersal fish landings weighted with the economic value of species¹⁹ (i.e. a crude measure of potential fisheries preferences) demonstrate a similar global pattern (Supplementary Fig. 3, p-value < 0.001, $r^2 = 0.97$), highlighting that price differences between both groups are overshadowed by the considerably larger differences in the weight of the landings of the two groups. Further robustness checks show that the global patterns remain highly similar if large elasmobranches are included in the analysis (Supplementary Fig. 4, p-value < 0.001, $r^2 = 0.98$) or illegal, unregulated and unreported (IUU) catches and discards (p-value < 0.001, $r^2 = 0.99$). The robustness of our result to the potential biases described above provide strong support for using the weight fraction of pelagic vs demersal fish based on global landings as our response variable to estimate the dominant predatory fish feeding strategy in the sea.

We hypothesize that the relative production of pelagic and demersal predatory fish is dependent on the differences in inflow of energy at the base of the pelagic and benthic pathway (Fig. 1). Most of the ocean net primary production (NPP) occurs in the pelagic layer. Yet, in some regions, sufficient carbon reaches the bottom via sinking and other active transport processes to support high production of benthic organisms. There are multiple environmental conditions that can influence the downward flux of carbon to the seafloor. First, there is a clear relation with bathymetry, as in deeper oceans only a

77 fraction of the production from the pelagic zone may reach the seabed²⁰. The proportion of NPP which
78 reaches the bottom also varies with latitude. This happens because low water temperatures decelerate
79 remineralization processes and subsequently increase the proportion of NPP available for export^{21,22},
80 but also because seasonal variability in NPP may result in a temporal mismatch between phytoplankton
81 and zooplankton production leading to a larger fraction of (ungrazed) NPP sinking to the bottom during
82 the spring bloom in seasonal environments²³. Finally, it has been suggested that the proportion of NPP
83 sinking to the seabed is dependent on the depth of the photic zone and either total NPP or chlorophyll
84 concentration²⁴.

85 We approximated the difference in pelagic and benthic production by calculating the ratio between the
86 fraction of NPP that remains in the photic zone (F_{photic})²⁴ versus the fraction of NPP that reaches the
87 seabed (F_{seabed}) (see Supplementary Fig. 5). Using non-linear regression models, we found that the ratio
88 between F_{photic} and F_{seabed} explains a substantial part of the global variability in the proportion of large
89 pelagic vs demersal fish landings (Fig. 3, deviance explained = 68%, p-value < 0.001; see other
90 environmental predictors in Supplementary Table 1). The results show how in most tropical and
91 subtropical areas a highly productive pelagic energy pathway favours large pelagic fish, while in many
92 temperate and polar regions more equal productivities of the two pathways favour large demersal fish
93 (feeding as a generalist on both pelagic and demersal resources).

94 In order to further test our hypothesis, we developed a food-web model with two energy channels to
95 predict the biomass fraction of large pelagic species across ecoregions (Fig. 1 and Supplementary Table
96 2-3). The pelagic and benthic energy pathways are modelled as two separate channels that have their
97 own resource carrying capacity. The carrying capacity of the pelagic resource is calculated by
98 multiplying a total resource carrying capacity constant (R_{max}) with F_{photic} , the carrying capacity of the

99 demersal resource was $R_{\max} \cdot F_{\text{seabed}}$. The resources are both preyed upon by an intermediate trophic
100 level, representing smaller fishes and invertebrates, while two groups of predators are included at the
101 top of the energy pathways; a pelagic specialist feeding exclusively on a pelagic diet, and a demersal
102 generalist feeding on both energy pathways.

103 The food-web model predicted global patterns in pelagic vs demersal predators largely corresponding
104 to the proportions of large pelagic fish derived from landings (Fig. 4a-b, $r^2 = 0.58$). However, some
105 areas showed a strong mismatch between model predictions and landings data (Fig. 4b-c). Interestingly,
106 the largest differences can be observed at high latitudes in the Southern Ocean and the temperate North
107 Pacific where the model predicts a higher production of pelagic specialists compared to the proportions
108 derived from landings. We expect that the model predictions are realistic because large pelagic
109 predators are indeed present and highly abundant in many of these areas. However, not as predatory
110 fish but as fast, pelagic-feeding endotherms that maintain a high body temperature and activity despite
111 the cold waters. For example, the Aleutian Islands, Kamchatka shelf, Antarctica and South Georgia
112 (Fig. 4c, red areas) harbour high biodiversity and densities of penguins and pinnipeds²⁵⁻²⁷. While this
113 lends support to our model predictions, we stress the need for further research on the complementary
114 roles of marine endo- and ectotherm predators in relation to temperature and the productivity of the
115 pelagic and benthic energy pathway. There is also a mismatch in ecoregions in the tropics where the
116 model predicts higher production of demersal generalists compared to the proportions in landings (Fig.
117 4c, blue areas). In these regions, the energy fluxes to the seabed are predicted to be relatively high
118 (Supplementary Fig. 5), thereby potentially supporting a high production of demersal generalists. The
119 high fraction of NPP predicted to reach the seabed is consistent with other studies, using alternative
120 methods, to predict the carbon flux to the seabed on a global scale²³. In many of these areas, relatively

121 high catch rates of sharks and rays can be observed¹⁵, species that are often demersal generalists and as
122 such similar to demersal teleost predators. Although the contribution of large sharks and rays to overall
123 fisheries landings is marginal (Supplementary Fig. 4), potentially the result of long-term overfishing²⁸,
124 including elasmobranch predators in the analysis increases the amount of demersal generalists
125 substantially near Australia, Peru and Chile in areas where the model predicts higher production of
126 demersal generalists compared to the proportions in landings (Fig. 4c, Supplementary Fig. 4). An
127 alternative explanation for the lower proportion of demersal generalists in the landings can be due to
128 the ability of pelagic predators to disperse widely⁹ and as such dampen local differences in fish
129 abundances of the two predatory groups that have originated from variation in the energy flux to the
130 seabed.

131 **Discussion**

132 Our study supports the hypothesis that the inflow of energy at the base of the pelagic and benthic
133 channel determines the dominant feeding strategy of large teleost predatory fishes. Pelagic specialists
134 dominate when energy is primarily channelled through the pelagic pathway, while demersal generalists
135 outcompete the specialists when both pelagic and benthic resources are available. This explanation
136 assumes that demersal generalists' niches and diets overlap with pelagic specialists because they
137 exploit both benthic and pelagic resources. Overlapping diets have indeed been observed in areas
138 where both groups of species co-occur^{11,29,30}. Further, overlapping diets may occur even in the absence
139 of direct spatial overlap between the predator groups, due to pronounced habitat shifts of pelagic prey
140 species through daily (vertical) and seasonal (onshore-offshore) migrations (e.g.^{31,32}). Since both large
141 pelagic and demersal predators may access and feed on these highly mobile prey, but at different times,
142 in different areas and even on different life stages, they engage in exploitative competition. Niche

143 overlap will be lower in deep sea environments where demersal species are less able to exploit pelagic
144 resources. Even though reduced niche overlap in deep sea environments is not explicitly represented in
145 our model or data analysis, it is implicitly captured because the fluxes are typically low in deep sea
146 areas and consequently pelagic specialists are dominating. Although the degree of dietary overlap and
147 the strength of competition between pelagic and demersal predators at a global scale are poorly known,
148 our results suggest that competition between pelagic and demersal feeding strategies exists.
149 Consequently, a decline in the productivity of the benthic energy pathway will shift dominance towards
150 pelagic specialists (and vice versa).

151 We assumed that large pelagic teleost fish are superior in exploiting the pelagic resource compared to
152 large demersal species. Large pelagic fish are highly adapted to feeding on fast-moving pelagic
153 resources (such as forage fish) and have developed specific morphological features (e.g. high muscle
154 protein, large gill surface area and the warming of muscles) to support an active pelagic lifestyle^{33,34}.
155 Such physiological and morphological adaptations can explain the superiority of pelagic specialists to
156 feed on pelagic prey compared to the more “sluggish” demersal generalists. Yet, we lack knowledge to
157 explicitly account for the energetic costs associated with these physiological and morphological
158 adaptations³³ in a food-web model, and also, to account for the costs of finding, capturing and digesting
159 prey for both groups of species. Despite the uncertainty about the specific nature of the trade-off
160 between the pelagic and demersal lifestyles, it seems likely that pelagic predators are more specialized
161 upon pelagic prey, and thus superior to the demersal fish while feeding on this resource.

162 When top predators feed on both pelagic and benthic prey resources, they act as couplers of these
163 energy pathways. This coupling may infer stability to the food web if the predators balance the strength
164 of their feeding interactions on pelagic and benthic prey with the relative difference in productivity

165 (and turnover rates) of the pathways¹. We argue that not all predatory fish act as such “balanced”
166 couplers, as species can be specialized on exploiting pelagic resources. The specialization implies that
167 ecosystem-level variations in the productivity of the pelagic and benthic energy pathways will not only
168 affect the occurrence and productivity of large predatory fishes, but also the stability of the ecosystem.

169 There is large uncertainty related to current predictions of future fish and fisheries production,
170 primarily since it is unclear how climate change will affect ocean primary production and how energy
171 will be transferred to the upper trophic levels of marine ecosystems^{35,36}. Our findings suggest that
172 changes in the global occurrence and productivity of large predatory fishes can be anticipated by
173 understanding how climate change will affect the base of pelagic and benthic food chains. Changes in
174 the productivity of these energy pathways in response to climate change are expected^{37,38} and, in some
175 instances, already observed, e.g. large-scale changes in phytoplankton abundance and ocean primary
176 production^{39,40}. For most continental shelf areas, climate change has been predicted to decrease detritus
177 fluxes to the seafloor³⁵, thereby potentially limiting large demersal fish abundances and fisheries
178 production. Accounting for the changes in the pelagic and demersal energy pathways is therefore key to
179 reliably predict the effects of climate change on the upper trophic levels of marine ecosystems, and the
180 impact on supported fisheries.

181 **Method**

182 Global fisheries data

183 We used global fisheries landings data¹⁵ to determine general patterns in feeding strategies of marine
184 predatory fish between 1970 and 2014. The spatial fisheries landings data is predominately from global
185 fisheries catch statistics assembled by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
186 (FAO) and complemented by statistics from various international and national agencies. These datasets,
187 with higher spatial resolution, were nested into the broader FAO regions, replacing the data reported at
188 the coarser spatial resolution. The global fisheries landings data was mapped to 30-min spatial cells
189 using information on the distribution of reported taxa and fishing fleets¹⁵. For the purpose of this study,
190 we aggregated the data and examined fisheries landings data on a marine ecoregion scale¹⁶.

191 Feeding strategies of marine fish

192 To examine the productivity of marine teleost fish along the pelagic and benthic energy pathways, we
193 classified fish into two general feeding strategies, either feeding exclusively on the pelagic pathway
194 (pelagic fish) or (partly) relying on the benthic pathway for feeding (demersal fish). This was done
195 using the functional group classification system developed in the Sea Around Us (SAU) project⁴¹. Data
196 classified using the SAU project as shark, ray, any type of invertebrate or bathydemersal and
197 bathypelagic fish (these groups include the mesopelagic fish) were removed (see Supplementary Table
198 4). This limited our analysis to teleost fish and the two dominant feeding strategies. The two feeding
199 strategies were further divided on the basis of fish maximum size⁴². Large predatory species were
200 classified as fish with a maximum size ≥ 90 cm. The choice of this maximum size limit did not affect
201 our analysis as it can range from 70 – 150 cm without changing the results (Supplementary Fig. 6). Part
202 of the fisheries landings has not been identified (e.g. marine animals, marine fishes not identified) and

203 these observations were excluded. Other data are identified at too general a taxonomic grouping to
204 derive the correct size-class (e.g. Gadiformes, Gadidae) and these landings data were assumed to
205 represent species with smaller maximum sizes than 70 cm.

206 For each of the ecoregions, we calculated the average weight fraction of pelagic fish compared to
207 demersal fish in the fisheries landings data between 1970 and 2014. This was only done for ecoregions
208 where at least 60% of the landings data (in tonnes) could be classified into one of the functional groups
209 from the SAU project (but note that the main findings are unaffected when more or less strict criteria
210 for ecoregion selection are chosen). All fractions were averaged over at least 24 years of data (for 219
211 ecoregions fractions were averaged over 45 years of data).

212 Besides the large predatory teleost fish, we also determined whether there were general patterns in
213 feeding strategies of teleost fish species with a maximum size < 90 cm (Supplementary Fig. 7). The
214 results show there is no clear latitudinal pattern and no relationship between the small pelagic fish
215 fraction and $F_{\text{photic}}/F_{\text{seabed}}$. The pattern is not improved when pelagic and benthic invertebrate landings
216 are included in the analysis (Supplementary Fig. 7).

217 Potential bias due to the use of fisheries landings

218 Our assessment of the global variation in the large predatory fish may be biased by our use of global
219 fisheries landings data instead of biomass data. We included a variety of analyses to examine this
220 potential bias. We first examined with available stock assessments from the RAM Legacy Stock
221 Assessment database¹⁸, the relationship between catch and biomass of large teleost fish. For this
222 analysis, data was available for 71 different large predatory fish stocks (38 pelagic and 33 demersal,
223 Supplementary Table 5). For each stock, we averaged both total biomass and total catch for all years
224 with assessment data and examined across stocks the relationship between average biomass and catch

225 and whether this differs between both feeding groups (model comparison using AIC scores).
 226 Afterwards, we tested the relationship between the weight fraction of pelagic fish versus demersal fish
 227 in catch and biomass over time. This was done by selecting pelagic and demersal fish in all size groups
 228 from the RAM stock assessment database¹⁸ for nine different Large Marine Ecosystems (LMEs) over
 229 multiple years. The LMEs and years are selected since they have data available on assessed fish stocks
 230 in both feeding strategies (see Supplementary Table 6). To further check robustness of our findings, we
 231 examined how much the fraction large pelagic and demersal fish varied when the fraction is corrected
 232 for the economic value of the species (assuming that species are preferred by fisheries when they have
 233 higher economic value). Nominal economic value, standardized per unit weight, were derived for each
 234 species and year from Sumaila et al.¹⁹, and were used to estimate the economic value of both feeding
 235 groups (standardized per unit weight) per ecoregion and year. When multiple species from the same
 236 feeding group were present in the landings in a particular ecoregion and year, the economic value of
 237 that feeding group was averaged by weighting all species with the landings. Afterwards, we calculated
 238 the price difference between pelagic and demersal fish for each year and ecoregion and averaged this
 239 across all years per ecoregion. A price-corrected weight fraction large pelagic fish was then calculated
 240 by: $wf \cdot (1 - pf) / (wf \cdot (1 - pf) + (1 - wf) \cdot pf)$, where wf is the weight fraction large pelagic fish from
 241 fisheries landings and pf is the price fraction (a fraction of 0.9 means that pelagic fish are 9 times more
 242 valuable than demersal fish at similar tonnes of landings) (Supplementary Fig. 3). We also examined
 243 how the inclusion of large sharks and rays (taken from the fisheries landings database¹⁵) affected the
 244 global patterns in predatory fish. Classification of pelagic (oceanic) sharks and rays followed⁴³, all
 245 other taxa were classified as demersal generalists (maximum body size is based on⁴²). Finally, we
 246 examined how estimates of illegal, unregulated and unreported (IUU) catches and discarded fish
 247 affected our calculation of the weight fraction of large pelagic vs demersal fish. Estimates of IUU

catches and discarded fish were taken from the spatial fisheries landings database¹⁵ per ecoregion and year.

Pelagic and benthic energy production

We hypothesized that the relative production of pelagic and demersal fish in fisheries landings across ecoregions is dependent on the differences in pelagic and benthic production. We approximated the difference in production by calculating the ratio between the fraction of NPP that remains in the photic zone (F_{photic}) versus the fraction of NPP that sinks to the seabed (F_{seabed}). This was done by first calculating the fraction of NPP that sinks out of the photic zone (*pe*-ratio) and secondly by accounting for energy loss between the depth of the photic zone and the seabed.

We used an empirical relationship introduced by Dunne et al.²⁴ to calculate the *pe*-ratio. This relationship captures ~60% of observed global variation in *pe*-ratio using field-derived estimates of sea surface temperature (SST), primary production (NPP) and the photic zone depth (Z_{eu}). In this calculation, increased temperature reduces the *pe*-ratio, while it is increased with increasing primary production and a smaller photic zone depth: $\text{pe-ratio} = -0.0101\text{SST} + 0.0582\ln\left(\frac{\text{NPP}}{Z_{\text{eu}}}\right) + 0.419$. To estimate the *pe*-ratio on a global scale with the empirical model, we used average annual sea surface temperature (degrees Celsius) between 1998 and 2008 (<http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/gridded/data.noaa.oisst.v2.html>), average daily net primary production (mg C / m² / day) from the Vertically Generalized Production Model (VGPM) using MODIS data between 2003 and 2008 (<http://www.science.oregonstate.edu/ocean.productivity>)⁴⁴ and we approximated the photic zone depth from average daily surface chlorophyll-a concentrations (mg Chl / m³ / day) from the Sea-viewing Wide Field of view Sensor (SeaWiFS) between 1998 and 2008 (<http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/cms>) (following⁴⁵, see for original description⁴⁶). The sea surface

270 temperature data was resampled to a 1/12 degrees grid to be able to use more detailed information on
271 spatial variation in bathymetry. The derived *pe*-ratios varied across the globe between 0.04 and 0.74
272 and were used to calculate F_{photic} (Supplementary Fig. 5), the predicted fraction of NPP that remains in
273 the photic zone:

$$274 \quad F_{\text{photic}} = 1 - r,$$

275 where r is the *pe*-ratio.

276 The fraction of NPP that sinks out of the photic zone is reduced in energetic content before it reaches
277 the seabed, especially in deeper oceans where only a fraction of the production from the pelagic zone
278 may reach the seabed. To account for this effect, we accounted for energy loss, adjusting a function
279 described in⁴⁷:

280 For all grid cells where the seabed depth is equal or shallower than depth of the photic zone:

$$281 \quad F_{\text{seabed}} = \textit{pe-ratio},$$

282 all other grid cells:

$$283 \quad F_{\text{seabed}} = \textit{pe-ratio} (\text{seabed depth} / \text{depth photic zone})^{-0.86}$$

284 Bathymetric data (m) was extracted per 1/12 degrees grid from the ETOPO1 Global Relief Model with
285 sea ice cover⁴⁸.

286 The calculated fluxes in the pelagic and benthic zone only provide a first-approximation of the relative
287 productivity of the pathways. The estimates ignore different aspects well-known to influence pelagic
288 and benthic energy pathways, such as the role of benthic primary producers, which especially in

289 coastal waters contribute to a large part of the overall production⁴⁹, areas with high subsurface
290 productivity, where NPP is underestimated when using satellite-derived NPP products^{50,51}, and any
291 active transport processes to the seafloor^{52,53}. Despite these limitations, the predicted large-scale spatial
292 variation in F_{photic} and F_{seabed} (Supplementary Fig. 5) seems to be consistent with other studies, using
293 alternative methods^{23,54}.

294 Data aggregation per ecoregion and data analysis

295 Both F_{photic} and F_{seabed} were averaged per ecoregion. To account for latitudinal differences in grid size
296 all F_{photic} and F_{seabed} values per ecoregion were weighted with respect to latitude (weighting factor =
297 $\cos(\pi/180 \cdot \text{degrees latitude})$) following⁵⁵. Besides, as fish production is expected to be highest in areas
298 with high primary production⁵⁶, we also weighted F_{photic} and F_{seabed} per ecoregion with respect to grid
299 cell differences in NPP.

300 Relationships between the fraction of pelagic fish and the ratio between F_{photic} and F_{seabed} were
301 examined using generalized additive models with a beta distribution (continuous probability
302 distribution between 0 and 1) and (after model fit inspection) with a cauchit link function. The ratio
303 between F_{photic} and F_{seabed} was \log_{10} transformed, while the pelagic fish fraction was transformed to
304 avoid zeros and ones following⁵⁷; $y = (y(n-1)+0.5)/n$, where y is the pelagic fish fraction and n the
305 number of ecoregions. Maps were produced using `rworldmap`⁵⁸.

306 Food-web model

307 Following the results of the fisheries data analyses, a food-web model was developed to study the
308 competitive interactions between large pelagic specialists and demersal generalists across marine
309 ecoregions. The benthic and pelagic energy pathways were modelled as two separate channels that

310 have their own resource carrying capacities with semi-chemostat dynamics. The carrying capacity of
311 the pelagic resource (K_p) was calculated by multiplying the total resource carrying capacity (R_{\max}) with
312 F_{photic} , the carrying capacity of the demersal resource (K_B) was $R_{\max} \cdot F_{\text{seabed}}$ (see for model formulation
313 Supplementary Table 2). The resources were both preyed upon by an intermediate trophic level, while
314 two predatory species were included at the top of the energy pathways (following Fig. 1).

315 We hypothesized that large pelagic teleost fish are superior in exploiting the pelagic resource compared
316 to large demersal species (see for arguments the second paragraph in the discussion section). To
317 incorporate this in the model, feeding as a generalist comes at a cost and this cost was implemented
318 with a lower attack rate of the generalist, meaning that the specialist is superior in exploiting the
319 pelagic resource. The value of the attack rate parameter was selected to obtain (approximately) an equal
320 amount of ecoregions that either overestimated the amount of pelagic or demersal fish compared to
321 fisheries landings. It resulted in an attack rate of the generalist that is 0.8 of the attack rate of the
322 specialist. This value can be varied between 0.65 and 0.95 without changing the r^2 of the statistical
323 relationship between landings data and model output with 4% (r^2 is 58% when a value of 0.8 is used,
324 see Fig. 4).

325 **Data availability:**

326 A table is available as supplementary data with information per ecoregion on the fraction pelagic fish in
327 landings, environmental variables and the food-web model outcome. Detailed global fisheries landings
328 data is available from Watson¹⁵.

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465 PDvD, ML, BRMK, KHA conceived the study. RAW contributed with fisheries landings data. PDvD
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471 **Figure legends**

472 **Figure 1. Conceptual figure illustrating the competitive interactions between large pelagic**
473 **specialists and large demersal generalists that feed on smaller pelagic and/or demersal fish and**
474 **invertebrates.** The smaller pelagic and demersal fish feed on zooplankton or zoobenthos. Illustration
475 by H. van Someren Gréve.

476 **Figure 2. Average weight fraction of large pelagic fish compared to large demersal fish in**
477 **fisheries landings between 1970 and 2014.** Large pelagic fish are the dominant group of fish in most
478 tropical and subtropical areas, whereas large demersal fish are dominant in temperate regions and the
479 exclusive group at the poles. Grey ecoregions in the map are excluded from the analysis due to limited
480 data availability (see method section). The boxplots show the ecoregions (n=217) in bins of 5 degrees
481 latitude, the midline of the box shows the median of the data, the limits of the box show the first and
482 third quartile and the whiskers extend to a maximum of 1.5 times the interquartile range. The line is
483 derived with a loess smoother.

484 **Figure 3. Relationships between the fraction of large pelagic fishes in fisheries landings and the**
485 **ratio between the fraction of net primary production (NPP) that remains in the photic zone**
486 **(F_{photic}) versus the fraction that reaches the seabed (F_{seabed}) for all ecoregions with available data**
487 **(n=217).** Large demersal fish are dominant at approximately equal pelagic – benthic NPP ratios, while
488 pelagic fish are dominant in areas where a high fraction of NPP remains in the photic zone (and/or
489 where a low fraction of NPP reaches the seabed) (generalized additive model, p-value < 0.001,
490 deviance explained = 68%). The fit is indicated by the solid line, the grey area shows the 95%
491 confidence interval. Fish illustrations by H. van Someren Gréve.

492 **Figure 4. Predictions of the dominance of large pelagic specialists or demersal generalists across**
493 **marine ecoregions using a food-web model. a,** Map of the predicted weight fraction large pelagic
494 specialists compared to demersal generalists in the food-web model based on region-specific energy
495 fluxes. **b,** Relationship between the fraction large pelagic fish in fisheries landings data and food-web
496 model for each ecoregion ($y = 0.04 + 0.92x_1$, $r^2 = 0.58$, p-value < 0.001), coloured points correspond to
497 ecoregions with a large difference (> 0.33) between the model predictions and the data. **c,** Map of all
498 ecoregions with a large difference (> 0.33) between the fraction large pelagic fish in fisheries landings
499 and the model, following (4b). Grey ecoregions are excluded from the analysis due to limited data
500 availability. Fish illustrations by H. van Someren Gréve.