

Association behavior between sand tiger sharks and round scad is driven by mesopredators

Nicholas C Coleman^{Equal first author, 1, 2}, Erin J Burge^{Corresp. Equal first author, 1}

¹ Department of Marine Science, Coastal Carolina University, Conway, South Carolina, United States

² Chesapeake Biological Laboratory, University of Maryland Center for Environmental Sciences, Solomons, Maryland, United States

Corresponding Author: Erin J Burge
Email address: eburge@coastal.edu

Underwater videos (n = 216) from SharkCam, a camera installation sited beneath Frying Pan Tower on a natural, hard bottom site off Cape Fear, North Carolina, were used to investigate association behavior of round scad *Decapterus punctatus* around sand tiger sharks *Carcharias taurus*. Videos containing sand tiger sharks were analyzed for the simultaneous presence of round scad, and six species of scad mesopredators, with scad-shark interactions assigned to one of three categories of association: no visible interaction, loosely associated, or tightly associated. The likelihood of scad being loosely or tightly associated with sharks was significantly higher in the presence of scad mesopredators, suggesting that sharks provide a predation refuge for scad. This behaviorally-mediated indirect interaction has important implications for trophic energy transfer and mesopredator control on hard bottoms, as scad are one of the most important planktivorous fish in the western Atlantic Ocean. Although we were not able to provide statistical evidence that sand tiger sharks also benefit from this association behavior, we have strong video evidence that round scad association provides concealment and attraction of mesopredators that enhances predation opportunities for sand tiger sharks. This likely possibility adds further trophic consequences to this unique interaction and highlights the value of exploring behaviorally mediated interactions in marine communities.

Association behavior between sand tiger sharks and round scad is driven by mesopredators

Nicholas C. Coleman^{1,2} and Erin J. Burge¹

¹Department of Marine Science, Coastal Carolina University, Conway, South Carolina 29528

²*Present address:* Chesapeake Biological Laboratory, University of Maryland Center for Environmental Sciences, Solomons, Maryland 20688

Corresponding Author:

Erin J. Burge¹

Coastal Carolina University, Department of Marine Science, 107 Chanticleer Drive East, Conway, South Carolina, 29528, USA

Email address: eburge@coastal.edu

Abstract

Underwater videos (n = 216) from SharkCam, a camera installation sited beneath Frying Pan Tower on a natural, hard bottom site off Cape Fear, North Carolina, were used to investigate association behavior of round scad *Decapterus punctatus* around sand tiger sharks *Carcharias taurus*. Videos containing sand tiger sharks were analyzed for the simultaneous presence of round scad, and six species of scad mesopredators, with scad-shark interactions assigned to one of three categories of association: no visible interaction, loosely associated, or tightly associated. The likelihood of scad being loosely or tightly associated with sharks was significantly higher in the presence of scad mesopredators, suggesting that sharks provide a predation refuge for scad. This behaviorally-mediated indirect interaction has important implications for trophic energy transfer and mesopredator control on hard bottoms, as scad are one of the most important planktivorous fish in the western Atlantic Ocean. Although we were not able to provide statistical evidence that sand tiger sharks also benefit from this association behavior, we have strong video evidence that round scad association provides concealment and attraction of mesopredators that enhances predation opportunities for sand tiger sharks. This likely possibility adds further trophic consequences to this unique interaction and highlights the value of exploring behaviorally mediated interactions in marine communities.

Introduction

Hard bottom reefs, or “live bottoms” are conspicuous geological features on the mainly soft sediment-dominated continental shelf within the South Atlantic Bight (SAB). In the Carolina Capes region of the SAB (offshore of North and South Carolina) (Riggs et al., 1996) estimates of areal coverage for this habitat vary on both latitudinal and longitudinal bases, with reports of the

greatest areal proportions of hard bottom habitat of the shelf to the south of Cape Lookout, North Carolina (Parker, Colby & Willis, 1983; SAFMC, 1998). Hard bottoms provide structural habitat for the settlement of benthic sessile foundation species, including rich assemblages of sponges, scleractinian and octocorallian corals, ascidians, and macroalgae (Struhsaker, 1969; Miller & Richards, 1980; Wenner et al., 1983). The growth of these sessile organisms contributes to hard bottom reef structural complexity. Compared to adjacent soft-sediment dominated areas of the sea floor, hard bottoms create a striking contrast in habitat that attracts and supports high richness and abundance of fishes (Sedberry & Van Dolah, 1984; Hopkinson, Jansson & Schubauer-Berigan, 1991), invertebrates (Wenner et al., 1983; Peckol & Searles, 1984), and macroalgae (Schneider & Searles, 1973, 1991; Schneider, 1976; Freshwater & Idol, 2013). Specifically, hard-bottom reefs attract aggregations of small pelagic schooling fishes that serve as important prey resources for many pelagic and demersal piscivorous fishes (Kracker, Kendall & McFall, 2008).

The abundance and taxonomic richness of species on hard bottoms facilitate unique interspecies interactions that are often driven by enhanced feeding opportunities or decreased vulnerability to predators (McFarland & Kotchian 1982, Diamant and Shpigel 1985, Baird 1993). For example, associations between blue runner (*Caranx crysos* (Mitchill, 1815)), greater amberjack (*Seriola dumerili* (Risso, 1810)), and other large piscivorous fishes have been observed during coordinated predatory foraging (Auster et al., 2009). Effects of such associations containing multiple predators on prey mortality has been heavily debated and several studies have reported both additive and reduced predation effects (reviewed in Sih, Englund & Wooster, 1998).

Multispecies interactions highlight the underlying interdependency between organisms that exist in all communities (Hutchinson, 1959; Paine, 1984; Beard & Dess, 1988). These interactions are often categorized as direct, between two species, or indirect, where the interaction between two species ultimately affects a third species (Wootton, 1993). Behaviorally mediated indirect interactions (BMIs) are a further classification of trait mediated indirect interactions (TMIs) that are regulated by changes in a species' behavior (Dill, Heithaus & Walters, 2003). Both direct and indirect interactions produce changes in a species' density or behavior and are useful in understanding food webs and trophic exchanges. Indeed, indirect affects alter the risk landscapes of prey, including mesopredators which are prey species for apex carnivores (Ritchie & Johnson, 2009), especially in aquatic ecosystems (Preisser, Bolnick & Benard, 2005), and can initiate trophic cascades (Schmitz, Krivan & Ovadia, 2004; Creel & Christianson, 2008). However, BMIs are less commonly investigated than other ecologic interactions because of the difficulty attributed to quantifying changes in behavior, especially within marine habitats. Competitor facilitation has been used to refer to BMIs where the presence of one species of predator causes a change in the behavior of a prey species that makes that prey species more accessible for a second species of predator (Dill, Heithaus & Walters, 2003).

On hard bottoms off the coast of Georgia, competitive facilitation was observed as schools of round scad (*Decapterus punctatus* (Cuvier, 1829)) and tomtate (*Haemulon aurolineatum* Cuvier in Cuvier and Valenciennes, 1830) retreated from multispecies associations of pelagic piscivorous fish toward the seafloor, increasing predation opportunities for demersal piscivorous fishes (Auster et al., 2009, 2013) Furthermore, Auster et al. (2009) observed round scad and tomtate responding to the presence of pelagic predators by reducing nearest neighbor distance

and forming more polarized aggregations. Increased polarization is a common response to predators for many prey species that form aggregations and has been found to reduce the vulnerability of prey aggregations (reviewed in Lima & Dill, 1990). In addition to increasing polarization, prey fishes use several other strategies to reduce vulnerability to predators. Alternative strategies include forming aggregations around physical objects, which is hypothesized to be advantageous to prey by serving as a “schooling companion” (Klima & Wickham, 1971). During diving observations analyzing the attraction of pelagic fishes to fish aggregation devices (FADs), the removal of artificial structure initiated immediate multispecies predation attempts by large, pelagic, piscivorous fish on small bait fishes (Wickham, Jr & Ogren, 1973).

Sand tiger sharks (STs)

Sand tiger sharks, *Carcharias taurus* Rafinesque, 1810, are large (to >4 m), heavy-bodied sharks found in coastal and continental shelf waters of warm-temperate and tropical seas worldwide. Individuals and aggregations occur especially in coastal areas of Australia (where they are known locally as grey nurse sharks), the east coast of South Africa (raggedtooth sharks), and the east coast of the United States (sand tiger sharks). Sand tiger shark aggregations are associated with migratory behavior, feeding, and reproduction (Compagno, 2001), and complex social networks and behaviors are present in this species (Haulsee et al., 2016). Year-to-year site fidelity on shipwrecks and other artificial structures has been reported in North Carolina (Paxton et al., 2019) and animals tagged in Delaware Bay undergo long-distance migrations to overwinter in continental shelf waters of North Carolina (Teter et al., 2015). Additionally, sand tiger sharks are one of the few large-bodied sharks commonly housed in captivity (Govender, Kistnasamy & Van Der Elst, 1991; Gordon, 1993; Smale et al., 2012).

The diet of *C. taurus* is diverse and dominated by bony fishes and other elasmobranchs (Gelsleichter, Musick & Nichols, 1999). The conservation status of *C. taurus* is listed as globally vulnerable with regional populations considered endangered or critically endangered (Pollard & Smith, 2009). Assessment of *C. taurus* in the northwestern Atlantic suggests that populations have declined to a minor extent in recent decades (Carlson et al., 2009), much less dramatically than for other large sharks (Ferretti et al., 2010), but that conservative management is warranted due to the very low productivity for this species (Goldman, Branstetter & Musick, 2006; Carlson et al., 2009).

Round scad (RS)

Round scad, *Decapterus punctatus* (Cuvier, 1829), are small-bodied (<300 mm) carangids found in the western Atlantic Ocean southward from Nova Scotia, at Bermuda, and in the Gulf of Mexico, Caribbean Sea, and along continental shores of South America to Rio de Janeiro (Naughton, Saloman & Vaught, 1986). In the South Atlantic Bight, round scad (typically 60–170 mm) are abundant in continental shelf waters in summer and fall, and move to hard bottoms in deeper, warmer areas of the mid- and outer shelf in winter (Hales Jr., 1987). Throughout their range, adult round scad are diurnal zooplankton specialists with the diet dominated by pelagic species and life stages (for meroplankton), as opposed to demersal plankton (Hales Jr., 1987; Donaldson & Clavijo, 1994).

Round scad are very frequently reported as stomach contents of pelagic and demersal piscivores (Matheson, Huntsman & Manooch, 1986; Naughton, Saloman & Vaught, 1986), and are often the most abundant species on FADs (Rountree, 1990), wrecks (Lindquist & Pietrafesa, 1989), and natural live bottoms (Parker, Chester & Nelson, 1994; Kendall, Bauer & Jeffrey, 2009; Burge et al., 2012) in portions of the South Atlantic Bight. Round scad schooling

behaviors have been described (Rountree, 1989, 1990; Lindquist & Pietrafesa, 1989; Rountree & Sedberry, 1991). Observed abundances of round scad at FADs and other structures accentuates this species' affinity for physical objects which can include larger fishes and elasmobranchs.

In the Gulf of Mexico, Fuller and Parsons (2019) report aggregations of round scad and another carangid, Atlantic bumper (*Chloroscombrus chrysurus* (Linnaeus, 1766)), associating with blacktip sharks (*Carcharhinus limbatus* (Müller and Henle, 1839)), spinner sharks (*Carcharhinus brevipinna* (Müller and Henle, 1839)), and blacknose sharks (*Carcharhinus acronotus* (Poey, 1860)). In situ observations with sand tiger sharks have not been previously reported prior to the current study, but photographs document associations between round scad and sand tiger sharks on North Carolina reefs (this study) and wrecks (<https://ncaquariums.wildbook.org/gallery.jsp>), and are mentioned by Fuller and Parsons (2019).

Many different examples of commensal and mutualistic heterospecific fish associations have been described. Reasons for heterospecific association behavior are typically categorized as cleaner-client interactions, protection from predation, increased foraging opportunities, and hydrodynamic or transportation efficiencies. For example, the mackerel scad *Decapterus macarellus* (Cuvier in Cuvier and Valenciennes, 1833), an ecologically similar and sympatric relative of round scad *D. punctatus*, associated with goliath grouper *Epinephelus itajara* (Lichtenstein, 1822) to reduce their vulnerability to predation by the horse-eye jack *Caranx latus* Agassiz in Spix and Agassiz, 1831. Mackerel scad were described as forming a dense aggregation around the grouper while under threat by jacks, and the school of scad moved with the grouper as one unit. The authors conclude that this behavior was likely advantageous for mackerel scad by reducing their risk of predation by a mesopredator (jack) that was itself potential prey for the grouper (Macieira et al., 2010).

Mesopredators (MPs)

Mesopredators are traditionally defined as intermediate trophic level predators relative to a smaller group of apex carnivores that occupy top trophic positions within a food web. Assignment of any given species to its role as a mesopredator is, of course, context dependent, as the removal of apex predators affects the trophic position of others within the web (reviewed in Prugh et al., 2009). From a practical perspective, mesopredator species richness is typically higher under apex predator control (Terborgh, 2015), although the relative effects of competition, facilitation, and indirect effects are difficult to assess broadly. There are also instances in which mesopredator abundance and species richness are controlled by their lower taxonomic level prey. In such scenarios, commonly referred to as wasp-waisted ecosystems, a lack of species diversity at the primary consumer level (i.e. planktivorous fish) allows several or even a single species to control trophic exchange from primary producers to higher level consumers (Cury et al., 2000). Therefore, the abundance and diversity of mesopredators is dependent on their ability to capture this essential primary consumer group. In many wasp-waist ecosystems, mesopredator predation success is conventionally controlled by the abundance of the essential primary consumer which is influenced by seasonal environmental factors (e.g. El Niño/La Niña) and predator abundance (Bakun, 2006). However, it is also important to consider other factors that might influence predation success and ultimately mesopredator abundance and diversity. Primary consumer association with higher level apex predators and similar anti-predation behaviors could reduce predation success for mesopredators and be an overlooked factor that contributes to the control of mesopredators in wasp-waisted ecosystems.

A diverse assemblage of pelagic and demersal piscivorous mesopredatory fishes inhabit hard bottom habitats of the South Atlantic Bight (Chester et al., 1984; Sedberry & Van Dolah, 1984;

Kendall, Bauer & Jeffrey, 2009; Burge et al., 2012; Burge, O'Brien & Jon-Newbie, 2020). Pelagic mesopredators include medium to large-sized jacks (greater amberjack *Seriola dumerili*, almaco jack *Seriola rivoliana* Valenciennes in Cuvier and Valenciennes, 1833, blue runner *Caranx crysos*, crevalle jack *Caranx hippos* (Linnaeus, 1766)) and scombrids (little tunny *Euthynnus alletteratus* (Rafinesque, 1810), and Atlantic bonito *Sarda sarda* (Bloch, 1793)). All are reported to prey on round scad or similar small fishes (Manooch III & Haimovici, 1983; Saloman & Naughton, 1984; Manooch III, Mason & Nelson, 1985; Campo et al., 2006; Sley et al., 2009; Fletcher, Batjakas & Pierce, 2013). Interestingly, some demersal mesopredators alter their behavior in the presence of pelagic mesopredators feeding on round scad that blurs the line between pelagic and demersal (Auster et al., 2009, 2013).

Underwater video

Underwater videography using stationary cameras is an efficacious method to conduct in-situ marine observations, including surveying marine fish assemblages for species richness and abundance, and behavioral observations (reviewed in Mallet & Pelletier, 2014). Video observations are non-extractive and can be depth and time independent, relative to in person (i.e. SCUBA diver) observations.

Potential bias associated with SCUBA surveys can be introduced as fish react to the presence of divers, sometimes for long periods post-survey (Emslie et al., 2018), and this effect has been observed to be species specific (Cole, 1994; Kulbicki, 1998; Burge et al., 2012; Lindfield et al., 2014). For example, sand tiger sharks display increased respiration and movement in the presence of SCUBA divers (Barker, Peddemors & Williamson, 2011), providing evidence that underwater videography may be a better alternative to observe the behavior of this species. Once recorded, videos can be reviewed multiple times to optimize the amount of data collected from a

single event, and can potentially increase recognition of behaviors that would otherwise be difficult to assess during SCUBA diving observations.

In this study, we examined association behavior between sand tiger sharks (STs), round scad (RS), and scad mesopredators (MPs) using a unique, long-term underwater video installation sited on a hard bottom reef off the coast of Cape Fear, North Carolina. Based on video observations collected to assess the fish species assemblage (E Burge, 2020, unpublished data) and in situ observations by Burge and others, we repeatedly noticed the unusual association between STs and RS. Consequently, we hypothesized that association behaviors between round scad and sand tigers were more frequent in the presence of pelagic mesopredators than in their absence because the presence of mesopredators represents a potential predation threat for round scad. Strength of the association behavior was believed to be a response to mesopredators that reflects round scad vulnerability. We also suspect that aggregations of round scad may be mutually beneficial to sand tiger sharks by providing camouflage and increasing predation opportunities on mesopredators. Direct, visual observations of wild behavior of sand tiger sharks are very limited (but see Smith, Scarr & Scarpaci, 2010; Barker, Peddemors & Williamson, 2011), and this species is currently IUCN Red listed as Vulnerable, making conservation and research efforts necessary for protection of this species. Investigating this association behavior may be insightful for a deeper understanding of predation strategies of sand tiger sharks, protective behaviors of a common prey species, and contribute knowledge of trophic dynamics on hard bottom reefs in the South Atlantic Bight.

Materials & Methods

Study site and infrastructure

Video collected in this project are from SharkCam, an underwater, live-streaming camera, publicly-viewable from <https://explore.org/livecams/oceans/shark-cam> (Explore.org, Los Angeles, CA). The camera is sited beneath Frying Pan Tower (33°29'N, 77°35'W) which is located at the seaward edge of Frying Pan Shoals, approximately 60 km off the coast of Cape Fear, North Carolina. Frying Pan Shoals lies near the northern edge of a marine biogeographic transition zone between a tropical and warm-temperate zone to the south (Caribbean Biogeographic Province) and cold-temperate and polar waters to the north (Western Atlantic Biogeographic Province) (Floeter et al., 2008; Toonen et al., 2016). The camera is attached to a horizontal support at the base of Frying Pan Tower in about 15 m of water and is surrounded by an expansive area of natural hard bottom (Riggs et al., 1996; NC Division of Marine Fisheries, 2020) and anthropogenic debris (https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLK1g13VpyT6oYUJL7U3hRPt2U5L_mcKL). To date, videos from SharkCam have been used to identify 116 temperate and tropical marine fish species (November 2014–February 2020) (Burge, O'Brien & jon-newbie, 2020).

View Into The Blue® (Boulder, CO) cameras with CleanSweep™ hardware were used for all footage captured (<https://www.viewintotheblue.com/>). The cameras used (six during the span of this project) featured HD 720p (November 2014–July 2016 footage) or HD 1080p (after October 2016) video resolution, 360° pan-tilt-zoom that rotated on a pre-determined schedule, or with manual remote control, and a field of view of 62° × 37° (horizontal × vertical). Automatic white balance (color control) was enabled in April 2017 to more closely approximate surface light for color correction. Power is provided by a solar installation atop Frying Pan Tower and data transmission used a line-of-sight radio to shore (Burge, O'Brien & jon-newbie, 2020)

244 Video analysis

245 SharkCam video files containing sand tiger sharks *Carcharias taurus* (STs, n = 216) were
 246 extracted from a larger video database of all fish species occurrences gathered from non-
 247 consecutive, 20-min clips (n=1024) analyzed as part of a larger community analysis project (E
 248 Burge 2020, unpublished data). Video files were recorded during local daylight hours between
 249 November 2014 and January 2019. All videos containing STs were re-analyzed for the
 250 simultaneous presence of round scad *Decapterus punctatus* (RS) and STs within the frame of the
 251 camera view. Duration of the STs on screen (seconds) was recorded to obtain average
 252 observation time.

253 Videos containing simultaneous co-occurrences of both species were assigned a descriptive
 254 category of the association behavior between RS and STs using the following categories: no
 255 visible interaction (NVI), loosely associated (LA), and tightly associated (TA) (Figure 1). No
 256 visible association was defined as both species moving independently of each other or in
 257 opposing directions and with their heads oriented in different directions. Loosely associated
 258 aggregations were defined as both species moving in a similar direction, their heads oriented in a
 259 similar direction, and RS maintaining an estimated distance of five body lengths or more from
 260 STs and other school members. Tightly associated aggregations were defined as both species
 261 moving as one entity, their heads oriented in the same direction, and RS maintaining less than
 262 five estimated body lengths from STs and other school members. These behaviors represent a
 263 spectrum of association that we hypothesize correlates with the vulnerability of RS to predation
 264 in response to the presence of pelagic mesopredators (MPs); NVI representing the least
 265 vulnerable and TA representing the most vulnerable. Video files with multiple sightings of STs
 266 were treated as independent occurrences if shark observations were separated by 10-min or

greater. Multiple association observations within a 10-min interval were assigned a descriptive category that best described the general association behavior of the recurring individuals. We were not able to individually identify observed STs, however, we have no reason to believe that this association behavior was limited to individual sharks given the multi-year duration over which videos were collected.

In order to assess the behaviorally-mediated responses of RS to the presence of mesopredators (MPs), we documented the presence, species composition, and relative abundance of six selected MPs within all 20-min video segments that also contained STs and RS. Mesopredators considered to be mediators of RS and STs association behavior were selected based on similarities in their predation style and size, and observations from SharkCam that documented or suggested feeding on RS. Almaco jack (*Seriola rivoliana*, AJ), Atlantic bonito (*Sarda sarda*, AB), blue runner (*Caranx crysos*, BR), crevalle jack (*Caranx hippos*, CJ), greater amberjack (*Seriola dumerili*, GA), and little tunny (*Euthynnus alletteratus*, LT) were used as representatives of pelagic mesopredators (individual body size approximately 0.5 m–1.5 m) because of their highly active feeding behavior, including predation attempts documented on SharkCam (data not shown), literature confirming their predation on RS or a similar species (Manooch III & Haimovici, 1983; Saloman & Naughton, 1984; Manooch III, Mason & Nelson, 1985; Campo et al., 2006; Sley et al., 2009; Fletcher, Batjakas & Pierce, 2013), and their co-occurrence in videos that suggest facilitated, or even cooperative, hunting (Auster et al., 2013, 2019).

Data analysis

Hierarchical cluster analysis using Bray-Curtis similarity was used to illustrate the strength of co-occurrences between STs, RS, and each species of mesopredator in all recorded instances of

sharks (n=216). Presence or absence data within 20-min video segments for all analyzed videos were square root transformed, Bray-Curtis similarity values were calculated, and a hierarchical cluster analysis was performed with statistical significance tested with 1000 simulation permutations by Simprof ($\alpha=0.05$) in Primer-E 6.x (Plymouth Marine Laboratory UK).

Pearson's chi-squared test (χ^2) was used to further investigate whether the frequency of association behaviors between STs and RS were more commonly observed than expected if each category of association had an equal chance of occurring (33%). Equal likelihoods of each association category occurring were assumed to represent a condition in which RS did not benefit from a close physical association with STs. Pearson's χ^2 was also used to test the frequency of association behaviors in the presence of one or more species of mesopredator. The behavior categories were used to represent a continuum of association that reflected the relative vulnerability of RS to pelagic MPs.

Multinomial logistic regression ('multinom', R version 3.5.1) was used to calculate the log-odds of association behavior (i.e. LA and TA behaviors) in the presence or absence of one or more species of mesopredator. This analysis expanded on the results from the χ^2 analysis, which only compared the frequency of association behavior in the presence of MPs, by making predictions of the frequency of association behavior in the presence and absence of MPs. Odds ratios were exponentially transformed to obtain percentage values. We hypothesized that MPs facilitated association behavior between STs and RS, therefore presence or absence data of MPs was used as the independent variable and the association behavior was the dependent variable for this analysis. We expected to see the log-odds of association behavior increase in the presence of mesopredators, therefore the association category that represented the least degree of round scad vulnerability, NVI, was used as the baseline in the analysis.

313

314 **Results**

315 Of the 1024, 20-min intervals of video analyzed, 216 clips (21%) contained one or more
 316 occurrences of STs and were used for hierarchical cluster analysis with Bray-Curtis similarity.
 317 Among clips that contained STs, 186 (86%) included simultaneous observations of RS and STs
 318 and were used in multinomial logistic regression. Of the videos that contained STs and RS, 159
 319 (85%) contained one or more species of MPs and were used in the Pearson's χ^2 . Average
 320 observation time of STs and RS association behavior within clips was 36 ± 37.5 s (mean \pm SD),
 321 range 3–254 s, median 26 s.

322 *Visual observations*

323 In the absence of MPs and STs, RS were commonly observed swimming in unpolarized,
 324 distributed schools as they foraged for plankton. Foraging and plankton feeding were inferred
 325 from a commonly seen behavior where individuals flex their bodies slightly upward while
 326 simultaneously opening the mouth (head-tipping), often with slight lateral adjustments,
 327 presumably to ingest individual plankters (https://youtu.be/7_i8hoQXeAU).

328 When STs were not observed and MPs were actively foraging on RS, RS responded by
 329 forming denser schools (i.e. reducing nearest neighbor distance), and often retreated to the sea
 330 floor or associated with the structure of Frying Pan Tower (<https://youtu.be/lesLMb9OStw>,
 331 <https://youtu.be/CTwih5UYaqw>, <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CIFLIu2FVfA>).
 332 During LA behavior with STs, RS exhibited unpolarized schooling behaviors, but maintained
 333 proximity and speed with the STs (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_CIqWVUprmU).
 334 During TA aggregation behavior, RS decreased distance to nearest neighbor and STs, and moved
 335 with the STs as one entity (<https://youtu.be/P37lg7iiDJo>).

Distinct transitions between behavioral categories were rarely observed, and the few observed transitions captured the movement from LA aggregations to TA aggregations. During these observations, RS displayed an immediate response (less than one second) to MPs. In some of these occurrences, RS can be described as “pulsating” around the shark, as they transitioned constantly between a LA and TA state (https://youtu.be/9WuEyByf_Pw, <https://youtu.be/1Ss-AvAMkVg>).

Predation attempts

Regardless of the species involved, apparently successful piscivorous predation seen on SharkCam is exceedingly rare (E Burge, 2020, unpublished data). During data collection from 1024, 20-min intervals of video (>340 h), we recorded all likely successful fish-on-fish predation events and noted the species involved. Only a small number of observations of STs predation attempts on MPs or other species were made (see examples <https://youtu.be/cfGFAq1cQtl>, <https://youtu.be/PlIHZr-ioeo>, <https://youtu.be/i5wO7ILbbd8>, <https://youtu.be/P37lg7iiDJo>), and these were always on prey species much larger than round scad (LT, gag *Mycteroperca microlepis* (Goode and Bean, 1879), red drum *Sciaenops ocellatus* (Linnaeus, 1766)). Additionally, STs were only observed making predation attempts on other fishes when tightly associated with RS. During these rare phenomena, sand tiger sharks made quick lunges toward approaching fishes that appeared oblivious to the presence of the STs, presumably due to shrouds of RS tightly associated with the shark. Although STs were never observed capturing prey during these attempts, it appeared that schools of RS concealed the presence of STs and attracted scad predators to the STs.

Descriptive frequencies

Sand tiger sharks are fall-winter-spring visitors seen most frequently during cool months (21.3% overall frequency of occurrence, n=1024; Figure 2). Round scad are ubiquitous during cool months and appear to depart in May–June and September–October (64.8% overall frequency of occurrence, n=1024; Figure 2), but are most frequently seen during periods of STs residency. The combinatorial frequency of occurrence for these two species (co-occurrence) was 13.8% within the 1024 videos. Additionally, the frequency of videos (of 1024) that contained STs, RS, and one or more species of up to six different MPs was 16.3% (combinatorial frequency of occurrence for 3+ species).

However, in videos selected because they contained STs (100% frequency of occurrence, n=216), RS were much more likely to be seen (86.1% frequency of occurrence), and the likelihood of this co-occurrence was strongly clustered with the presence of one or more MPs species (83.7%, combinatorial frequency of occurrence for 3+ species). Of the six species of MPs selected for this study, four species (almaco jack, blue runner, little tunny, and Atlantic bonito) were more frequently observed within the data set of only STs videos (n=216) than the SharkCam occurrence data set (n=1024) (Table 1).

Association behavior

Sand tiger sharks and RS clustered together the strongest (92.5%), while MPs had lower similarities (Figure 3). Among MPs, GA was significantly clustered with RS and STs and had the highest similarity value of all MPs (63.4%). Almaco jack (54.2% similarity) and BR (37.9% similarity) were also significantly clustered with STs, RS, and GA, while LT, CJ, and AB were not significantly clustered within the group.

Analysis of the 186 videos containing co-occurrence of STs and RS resulted in 40 observations of NVI, 58 observations of LA behavior, and 88 observations of TA behavior

without regard to the presence or absence of MPs (Figure 4). In the presence of MPs the frequency of LA and TA behaviors increased. NVI was least frequently observed (n=33), and TA behavior was most frequently observed (n=79). There was a significant difference in the observed occurrences of behavioral categories compared to their expected frequencies, assuming equal likelihoods of occurrence in the presence of MPs (Pearson's $\chi^2 = 20.981$; df 2; $p < 0.000$). Compared to no visible association, the log-odds of round scad being loosely associated with STs was 82.9% greater, and tightly associated behavior was 196% greater in the presence of mesopredators, but this result was not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$), likely due to the number of NVI behaviors seen even when MPs were present.

Discussion

Based on SharkCam underwater video observations conducted over more than 5 years and representing over 340 hours of underwater footage, we demonstrate that round scad (RS) are significantly more likely to be associated with sand tiger sharks (STs) in the presence of potential scad mesopredators (MPs), than in their absence. This example of a behaviorally-mediated indirect interaction (BMII) has important implications for trophic energy transfer on hard bottoms in the SAB.

Round scad are the most abundant pelagic, planktivorous fish species observed on these hard bottom habitats (Lindquist & Pietrafesa, 1989; Rountree, 1990; Burge et al., 2012), and high densities of RS are especially apparent on mid-shelf live-bottoms of the SAB in winter (Hales Jr., 1987). Under these circumstances, MPs are likely dependent on RS as a primary prey resource, especially in cooler months, therefore, the ecosystem as a whole depends on round scad for the transfer of energy up the food chain. Given this, it is important to investigate round scad

association behavior with sand tiger sharks and be aware that this interaction may have effects on trophic transfer and mesopredator control. We have no reason to believe this STs and RS association behavior is unique to the hard bottom habitat off Cape Fear, North Carolina, therefore describing this behavior and its motivation aids in understanding trophic interactions and prey strategies that influence predation success for pelagic predators. While the possibility of benefit to STs in the form of increased predation opportunities remains an open question, available observations provide evidence that STs use this association to perform an undocumented predation strategy. The concealment provided to STs by RS and the attraction of MPs to the shark suggest that this association behavior facilitates the feeding behavior of sand tiger sharks.

Underwater videography has often been used to survey marine fish assemblages for diversity and abundance in many locations (reviewed in Mallet & Pelletier, 2014). For example, video has revealed that hard bottom habitat near Frying Pan Tower supports a diverse assemblage of both temperate and tropical reef fish species that fluctuates seasonally (Burge et al., 2012; Burge, O'Brien & Jon-newbie, 2020). With few exceptions, underwater video to assess multispecies behavior that includes large and highly mobile predators, is much more limited (but see Davis et al., 1999; Dunbrack & Zielinski, 2003; Barker, Peddemors & Williamson, 2011; Bond et al., 2012; Kanno et al., 2019; Brown et al., 2020), despite evidence that video may be an advantageous survey method (McCauley et al., 2012).

Admittedly, the limited field of view of SharkCam served as a constraint to fully observe behavior between STs, RS, and MPs because interactions occurred rapidly and in three-dimensional space. In this study, occurrences of MPs outside the perspective of SharkCam undoubtedly influenced events captured on camera, and this is likely responsible for many of the

observations of loosely associated (LA) and tightly associated (TA) behaviors that occurred in the absence of MPs (STs+RS-MPs, $n=27$). One or more species of selected MPs occurred in approximately 84% of videos containing STs and RS (Table 1). Additionally, many other species of potential scad mesopredators are also present at Frying Pan Tower, including a diverse assemblage of demersal piscivores, and other pelagic species not designated as MPs in analyses (Table S1). Recent work by Brown et al. (2020), also on sand tiger sharks in North Carolina, has revealed that the presence of the sharks alters short-term reef fish community richness on shipwrecks, with the prevalence of pelagic mesopredators elevated, and those of demersal mesopredators depressed. They suggest that these differences in richness may be behaviorally-mediated responses attributed to mesopredator optimization of foraging strategy, with sharks as a threat to or competitor with pelagic mesopredators. Given this, it is likely that there are few circumstances when aggregations of round scad are not exposed to potential predators. The inclusion of STs+RS-MPs videos in the multinomial logistic regression likely resulted in the lack of statistical significance ($p>0.05$), despite the relatively large increases in the odds of association behavior as association strength increased (82.9% for LA and 196% for TA). This pattern is supported by the results of the chi-square analysis that show the frequency of occurrence of association behavior increased with association strength ($p<0.00$, Figure 4).

In similar research analyzing predator influence on prey behavior, Seghers (1974) hypothesized that guppies formed schools because they were always exposed to predation threats. Constant exposure to predators provides a strong explanation for why round scad are observed forming associations with sand tiger sharks when designated MPs are not seen on SharkCam. While observations of round scad association with sand tiger sharks in the absence of MPs observations may be a result of sampling bias, it suggests that aggregation behavior is

driven by perceived predation risk assessed by the scad, and further suggests near constant exposure to mesopredators. Experimental manipulation of mesopredators, their prey, and apex predator presence have tested perceived predation risk to prey and mesopredators in marine (del Mar Palacios et al. 2016) and terrestrial (Gordon et al., 2015) settings—one commonality that emerges is that the presence of an apex predator alleviates perceived risk to prey by providing a “refuge effect” associated with behavioral changes in prey.

Behavioral descriptions of RS and STs association were created to classify three distinct levels of association based on preliminary observations. Inclusion of a continuous, quantitative variable to measure aggregation strength would have increased the accuracy of identifying round scad responses to mesopredators but was not necessary given how distinct existing behavioral categories were. Nearest neighbor distance is a structural measurement used for fish aggregations to calculate the positional preference of individual fish within an aggregation based on the positions and movements of adjacent fish (Parrish, Viscido & Grunbaum, 2002). Evidence supports that synchronization and group coordination are mediated by an individual’s interactions with nearest group members (Ballerini et al., 2008; Niizato & Gunji, 2011). We visually estimated nearest neighbor distance of round scad to other aggregation members and to sand tiger sharks to incorporate a measure of aggregation structure into our behavioral descriptions to reduce observer bias. Conventionally, model simulations have been effectively used to understand the mechanisms that influence strength, response to stimulus, and coordination of fish schools (Huth & Wissel, 1992; Parrish, Viscido & Grunbaum, 2002).

In-situ experiments analyzing fish aggregation dynamics are far less common given the difficulty to track individual fish. High resolution acoustic sonar (DIDSON) has recently become a reliable alternative to conduct in-situ analysis of fish schooling behavior and has the capability

of monitoring the movement of individual fish (Moursund, Carlson & Peters, 2003; Boswell, Wilson & Cowan, 2008; Rieucan et al., 2016). Auster et al. (2013) used DIDSON techniques to effectively analyze prey distribution during predator-prey interactions similar to those observed in this study on hard-bottoms in the SAB. DIDSON analysis would support more quantitative data on the structure of associations between RS and STs, but was not necessary to understand interactions between RS and MPs and would introduce additional cost for support and maintenance.

Observations of RS becoming more aggregated in response to perceived predation threats are consistent with prior literature (Rountree & Sedberry, 1991; Auster et al., 2009, 2013). Reduction in nearest neighbor distance (i.e. increase in polarity) facilitates more efficient communication between school members which enhance group synchrony and coordination (Rieucan et al., 2015).

Sharks were always the nucleus of associations in our study and proximity to sharks we hypothesized served as an additive predation defense against mesopredators. Although we focused on association as protective for round scad with sharks, it is important to consider other potential explanations for this behavior. Fuller and Parsons (2019) report observations of association between RS and several species of sharks. Their potential explanations for this behavior include protection from mesopredator predation, optomotor responses (Shaw & Tucker, 1965), and scatophagy on shark fecal clouds. We did not document the frequency of round scad feeding during associations or observe foraging on fecal clouds, but round scad foraging for plankton was common during observations. As fish forage, especially pelagic planktivores like round scad, they become more vulnerable to predation; therefore, future studies should consider foraging benefits and how associations with sharks reduced vulnerability during foraging. It is

also important to continue to explore the possible benefit of this association to sand tiger sharks to fully understand how this association influences trophic interactions.

Conclusions

Based on in situ and underwater video observations from SharkCam, we hypothesized that association behaviors between round scad and sand tigers were more frequent in the presence of pelagic mesopredators than in their absence because the presence of mesopredators represents a potential predation threat for round scad. Scad were shown to be significantly more likely to be tightly associated with sand tiger sharks in the presence of mesopredators, compared to in their absence. This example of a behaviorally mediated indirect interaction suggests that presence of an apex predator alleviates perceived risk to prey from mesopredators. These results illuminate a previously undescribed interaction with important consequences for trophic transfer and mesopredator control on hard bottom habitats, and support the usage of long-term underwater camera installations for addressing questions in marine ecology.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank the following institutions and individuals for their time and expertise. Camera installation and ongoing maintenance collaborators included Trevor Mendelow (View Into the Blue, <https://www.viewintotheblue.com/>), Teens4Oceans, <https://teens4oceans.org/>), Richard Neal (Frying Pan Tower, <https://fptower.org/>), Jim Attack (F/V In Sea State), and at Explore.org, Jonathan Silvio, Courtney Johnson, Joe Pfifer, and Candice Rusch (<https://explore.org/about-us>). Field and tower volunteers included Steve Luff, Matt Davin, Frederick Farzanegan, Sondra Vitols, Cody Sweitzer, David Kish, Saylor Vann, David Wood, Adam Greene, Reed Winn, Doug

Noble, Brooke Briza, Dan Madigan, Zach Hart, Brian Attack, and Steven Seeber. Preliminary video observations for the presence of sand tiger sharks were completed by the following participants in the Coastal Carolina University QEP project MSCI 399Q Fish Community Monitoring, Fall 2015: Chris O'Brien, Randy Fink, John Rainey, and Kyle Gallion; Spring 2016: Randy Fink, Rachel Stout, Ashley Sutton, and Kyle Gallion; Fall 2016: Lauren Stevens, Olivia Bertelsen, Christine Casterline, Dave Klett, Kelly McConnaughey, and Emily Otstott; Spring 2017: Dakota Hughes, Josh Dusci, Kyle Gallion, Megan Brewer, Macy McCall, Tyler McKee, and Derek Bussey; Fall 2017: Devon Carey, Jenna Haberle, Theresa Hegarty, Tyler McKee, Gary Sturm, Cody Sweitzer, and Rebecca Wheeler; Spring 2018: Tyler McKee, Cody Sweitzer, Layla Elfiki, Megan Wise, and Kyle Gallion; Fall 2018: Cody Sweitzer, Faith Saupe, Jessica Pollack, Jared Smith, Amberlynn Fowler, and Kaelen Reed; Spring 2019: Catherine Costlow, Peyton Hartenstein, Chloe Keller, Casey Ludwick, Hailey Metzger, Maariyah Najeeb, Max Pagliari, Jessica Pollack, Jessica Sanders, Faith Saupe, and Ryan Ware; Fall 2019: Kylie Bostick, Victoria Campbell, Sydney Davis, Shayne Doone, Janina Jones, Casey Majer, Cheyanne Rufener, Jessica Sanders, Faith Saupe, and Jared Smith.

Juliana Harding (Marine Science, CCU) assisted with synthesizing temperature data. Lindsey Bell (Mathematics and Statistics, CCU) and Derek Crane (Biology, CCU) provided guidance on probability and statistical analyses.

The authors thank (##) anonymous reviewers and Rob Condon (Young Scientist Academy, <https://www.youngscientistacademy.org/>) for providing critical feedback and helping to improve this manuscript.

References

- Auster PJ, Cortés J, Alvarado JJ, Beita-Jiménez A, Auster PJ, Cortés J, Alvarado JJ, Beita-Jiménez A. 2019. Coordinated hunting behaviors of mixed-species groups of piscivores and associated species at Isla del Coco National Park (Eastern Tropical Pacific). *Neotropical Ichthyology* 17:e180165. DOI: 10.1590/1982-0224-20180165.
- Auster PJ, Godfrey J, Watson A, Paquette A, McFall G. 2009. Behavior of prey links midwater and demersal piscivorous reef fishes. *Neotropical Ichthyology* 7:109–112.
- Auster PJ, Kracker L, Price V, Heupel E, McFall G, Grenda D. 2013. Behavior webs of piscivores at subtropical live-bottom reefs. *Bulletin of Marine Science* 89:377–396. DOI: 10.5343/bms.2011.1123.
- Baird T. 1993. A new heterospecific foraging association between the puddingwife wrasse, *Halichoeres radiatus*, and the bar jack, *Caranx ruber*: Evaluation of the foraging consequences. *Environmental Biology of Fishes* 38:393–397. DOI: 10.1007/BF00007535.
- Bakun A. 2006. Wasp-waist populations and marine ecosystem dynamics: Navigating the “predator pit” topographies. *Marine Ecosystem Structure and Dynamics* 68:271–288. DOI: 10.1016/j.pocean.2006.02.004.
- Ballerini M, Cabibbo N, Candelier R, Cavagna A, Cisbani E, Giardina I, Lecomte V, Orlandi A, Parisi G, Procaccini A, Viale M, Zdravkovic V. 2008. Interaction ruling animal collective behavior depends on topological rather than metric distance: Evidence from a field study. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 105:1232–1237. DOI: 10.1073/pnas.0711437105.
- Barker SM, Peddemors VM, Williamson JE. 2011. A video and photographic study of aggregation, swimming and respiratory behaviour changes in the Grey Nurse Shark (*Carcharias taurus*) in response to the presence of SCUBA divers. *Marine and Freshwater Behaviour and Physiology* 44:75–92. DOI: 10.1080/10236244.2011.569991.

- Beard DW, Dess GG. 1988. Modeling organizational species' interdependence in an ecological community: An input-output approach. *Academy of Management Review* 13:362–373. DOI: 10.5465/amr.1988.4306941.
- Bond ME, Babcock EA, Pikitch EK, Abercrombie DL, Lamb NF, Chapman DD. 2012. Reef sharks exhibit site-fidelity and higher relative abundance in marine reserves on the Mesoamerican Barrier Reef. *PLOS ONE* 7:e32983. DOI: 10.1371/journal.pone.0032983.
- Boswell KM, Wilson MP, Cowan JH. 2008. A semiautomated approach to estimating fish size, abundance, and behavior from Dual-Frequency Identification Sonar (DIDSON) data. *North American Journal of Fisheries Management* 28:799–807. DOI: 10.1577/M07-116.1.
- Brown CM, Paxton AB, Taylor JC, Van Hoeck RV, Fatzinger MH, Silliman BR. 2020. Short-term changes in reef fish community metrics correlate with variability in large shark occurrence. *Food Webs* 24:e00147. DOI: 10.1016/j.fooweb.2020.e00147.
- Burge EJ, Atack JD, Andrews C, Binder BM, Hart ZD, Wood AC, Bohrer LE, Jagannathan K. 2012. Underwater video monitoring of groupers and the associated hard-bottom reef fish assemblage of North Carolina. *Bulletin of Marine Science* 88:15–38. DOI: info:doi/10.5343/bms.2010.1079.
- Burge EJ, O'Brien CE, jon-newbie. 2020. *SharkCam fishes: A guide to nekton at Frying Pan Tower*. Los Angeles: Explore.org Ocean Frontiers, <https://explore.org/livecams/oceans/shark-cam>.
- Campo D, Mostarda E, Castriota L, Scarabello MP, Andaloro F. 2006. Feeding habits of the Atlantic bonito, *Sarda sarda* (Bloch, 1793) in the southern Tyrrhenian sea. *Fisheries Research* 81:169–175. DOI: 10.1016/j.fishres.2006.07.006.

- Carlson JK, McCandless CT, Cortés E, Grubbs RD, Andrews KI, Musick JA. 2009. *An update on the status of the sand tiger shark, Carcharias taurus, in the northwest Atlantic Ocean*. NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-SEFSC-585: U.S. Department of Commerce, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Marine Fisheries Service, Southeast Fisheries Science Center, Panama City Laboratory, Panama City, FL.
- Chester AJ, Huntsman GR, Tester PA, Manooch CS. 1984. South Atlantic Bight reef fish communities as represented in hook-and-line catches. *Bulletin of Marine Science* 34:267–279.
- Cole RG. 1994. Abundance, size structure, and diver-oriented behaviour of three large benthic carnivorous fishes in a marine reserve in Northeastern New Zealand. *Biological Conservation* 70:93–99. DOI: 10.1016/0006-3207(94)90276-3.
- Compagno LJ. 2001. *Sharks of the world. An annotated and illustrated catalogue of shark species known to date. Volume 2. Bullhead, mackerel and carpet sharks (Heterodontiformes, Lamniformes and Orectolobiformes)*. Rome, p 55–62: Food & Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.
- Creel S, Christianson D. 2008. Relationships between direct predation and risk effects. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 23:194–201. DOI: 10.1016/j.tree.2007.12.004.
- Cury P, Bakun A, Crawford RJM, Jarre A, Quiñones RA, Shannon LJ, Verheye HM. 2000. Small pelagics in upwelling systems: patterns of interaction and structural changes in “wasp-waist” ecosystems. *ICES Journal of Marine Science* 57:603–618. DOI: 10.1006/jmsc.2000.0712.
- Davis RW, Fuiman LA, Williams TM, Collier SO, Hagey WP, Kanatous SB, Kohin S, Horning M. 1999. Hunting behavior of a marine mammal beneath the Antarctic fast ice. *Science* 283:993–996. DOI: 10.1126/science.283.5404.993.

- Diamant A, Shpigel M. 1985. Interspecific feeding associations of groupers (Teleostei: Serranidae) with octopuses and moray eels in the Gulf of Eilat (Agaba). *Environmental Biology of Fishes* 13:153–159. DOI: 10.1007/BF00002584.
- Dill LM, Heithaus MR, Walters CJ. 2003. Behaviorally mediated indirect interactions in marine communities and their conservation implications. *Ecology* 84:1151–1157. DOI: 10.1890/0012-9658(2003)084[1151:BMIIIM]2.0.CO;2.
- Donaldson PL, Clavijo IE. 1994. Diet of round scad (*Decapterus punctatus*) on a natural and an artificial reef in Onslow Bay, North Carolina. *Bulletin of Marine Science* 55:501–509.
- Dunbrack R, Zielinski R. 2003. Seasonal and diurnal activity of sixgill sharks (*Hexanchus griseus*) on a shallow water reef in the Strait of Georgia, British Columbia. *Canadian Journal of Zoology* 81:1107–1111. DOI: 10.1139/z03-087.
- Emslie MJ, Cheal AJ, MacNeil MA, Miller IR, Sweatman HPA. 2018. Reef fish communities are spooked by scuba surveys and may take hours to recover. *PeerJ* 6:e4886. DOI: 10.7717/peerj.4886.
- Ferretti F, Worm B, Britten GL, Heithaus MR, Lotze HK. 2010. Patterns and ecosystem consequences of shark declines in the ocean. *Ecology Letters* 13:1055–1071. DOI: 10.1111/j.1461-0248.2010.01489.x@10.1111/(ISSN)1461-0248.oceans-to-mountains.
- Fletcher N, Batjakas IE, Pierce GJ. 2013. Diet of the Atlantic bonito *Sarda sarda* (Bloch, 1793) in the Northeast Aegean Sea. *Journal of Applied Ichthyology* 29:1030–1035. DOI: 10.1111/jai.12164.
- Floeter SR, Rocha LA, Robertson DR, Joyeux JC, Smith-Vaniz WF, Wirtz P, Edwards AJ, Barreiros JP, Ferreira CEL, Gasparini JL, Brito A, Falcón JM, Bowen BW, Bernardi G. 2008. Atlantic Reef Fish Biogeography and Evolution. *Journal of Biogeography* 35:22–47.

- 662 Ford JR, Swearer SE. 2013. Shoaling behaviour enhances risk of predation from multiple
- 663 predator guilds in a marine fish. *Oecologia* 172:387–397. DOI: 10.1007/s00442-012-2508-4.
- 664
- 665 Freshwater DW, Idol JN. 2013. Studies of North Carolina marine algae XIII. First reports of the
- 666 genus *Cottoniella* (Rhodophyta, Sarcomeniaceae). *Marine Biodiversity Records* 6. DOI:
- 667 10.1017/S1755267213000651.
- 668
- 669 Fuller LN, Parsons GR. 2019. A note on associations observed between sharks and teleosts.
- 670 *Southeastern Naturalist* 18:489–498. DOI: 10.1656/058.018.0314.
- 671
- 672 Gelsleichter J, Musick JA, Nichols S. 1999. Food habits of the smooth dogfish, *Mustelus canis*,
- 673 dusky shark, *Carcharhinus obscurus*, Atlantic sharpnose shark, *Rhizoprionodon terraenovae*,
- 674 and the sand tiger, *Carcharias taurus*, from the northwest Atlantic Ocean. *Environmental*
- 675 *Biology of Fishes* 54:205–217. DOI: 10.1023/A:1007527111292.
- 676
- 677 Goldman KJ, Branstetter S, Musick JA. 2006. A re-examination of the age and growth of sand
- 678 tiger sharks, *Carcharias taurus*, in the western North Atlantic: the importance of ageing
- 679 protocols and use of multiple back-calculation techniques. *Environmental Biology of Fishes*
- 680 77:241. DOI: 10.1007/s10641-006-9128-y.
- 681
- 682 Gordon I. 1993. Pre-copulatory behaviour of captive sandtiger sharks, *Carcharias taurus*. In:
- 683 Demski LS, Wourms JP eds. *The reproduction and development of sharks, skates, rays and*
- 684 *ratfishes*. Developments in environmental biology of fishes. Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands,
- 685 159–164. DOI: 10.1007/978-94-017-3450-9_14.
- 686
- 687 Gordon CE, Feit A, Grüber J, Letnic M. 2015. Mesopredator suppression by an apex predator
- 688 alleviates the risk of predation perceived by small prey. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B:*
- 689 *Biological Sciences* 282:20142870. DOI: 10.1098/rspb.2014.2870.
- 690

691 Govender A, Kistnasamy N, Van Der Elst RP. 1991. Growth of spotted ragged-tooth sharks
 692 *Carcharias taurus* (Rafinesque) in captivity. *South African Journal of Marine Science* 11:15–19.
 693 DOI: 10.2989/025776191784287718.
 694
 695 Hales Jr. SL. 1987. Distribution, abundance, reproduction, food habits, age and growth of round
 696 scad, *Decapterus punctatus*, in the South Atlantic Bight. *Fish. Bull.* 85:251–268.
 697
 698 Haulsee DE, Fox DA, Breece MW, Brown LM, Kneebone J, Skomal GB, Oliver MJ. 2016.
 699 Social network analysis reveals potential fission-fusion behavior in a shark. *Scientific Reports*
 700 6:1–9. DOI: 10.1038/srep34087.
 701
 702 Hopkinson C, Jansson B-O, Schubauer-Berigan J. 1991. Community metabolism and nutrient
 703 cycling at Gray’s Reef, a hard bottom habitat in the Georgia Bight. *Marine Ecology Progress*
 704 *Series* 73:105–120. DOI: 10.3354/meps073105.
 705
 706 Hutchinson GE. 1959. Homage to Santa Rosalia or why are there so many kinds of animals? *The*
 707 *American Naturalist* 93:145–159.
 708
 709 Huth A, Wissel C. 1992. The simulation of the movement of fish schools. *Journal of Theoretical*
 710 *Biology* 156:365–385. DOI: 10.1016/S0022-5193(05)80681-2.
 711
 712 Kanno S, Schlaff AM, Heupel MR, Simpfendorfer CA. 2019. Stationary video monitoring
 713 reveals habitat use of stingrays in mangroves. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 621:155–168.
 714 DOI: 10.3354/meps12977.
 715 Kendall MS, Bauer LJ, Jeffrey CFG. 2009. Influence of hard bottom morphology on fish
 716 assemblages of the continental shelf off Georgia, southeastern USA. *Bulletin of Marine Science*
 717 84:265–286.
 718
 719 Klima EF, Wickham DA. 1971. Attraction of coastal pelagic fishes with artificial structures.
 720 *Transactions of the American Fisheries Society* 100:86–99. DOI: 10.1577/1548-
 721 8659(1971)100<86:AOCPCFW>2.0.CO;2.

- 722
- 723 Kracker L, Kendall M, McFall G. 2008. Benthic features as a determinant for fish biomass in
- 724 Gray's Reef National Marine Sanctuary. *Marine Geodesy* 31:267–280. DOI:
- 725 10.1080/01490410802466611.
- 726
- 727 Kulbicki M. 1998. How the acquired behaviour of commercial reef fishes may influence the
- 728 results obtained from visual censuses. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology*
- 729 222:11–30. DOI: 10.1016/S0022-0981(97)00133-0.
- 730
- 731 Lima SL, Dill LM. 1990. Behavioral decisions made under the risk of predation: a review and
- 732 prospectus. *Canadian Journal of Zoology* 68:619–640. DOI: 10.1139/z90-092.
- 733
- 734 Lindfield SJ, Harvey ES, McIlwain JL, Halford AR. 2014. Silent fish surveys: bubble-free diving
- 735 highlights inaccuracies associated with SCUBA-based surveys in heavily fished areas. *Methods*
- 736 *in Ecology and Evolution* 5:1061–1069. DOI: 10.1111/2041-210X.12262.
- 737
- 738 Lindquist DG, Pietrafesa LJ. 1989. Current vortices and fish aggregations: the current field and
- 739 associated fishes around a tugboat wreck in Onslow Bay, North Carolina. *Bulletin of Marine*
- 740 *Science* 44:533–544.
- 741
- 742 Macieira RM, Simon T, Pimentel CR, Joyeux J-C. 2010. Protection in the giant: goliath grouper
- 743 (*Epinephelus itajara*) as a refuge for mackerel scad (*Decapterus macarellus*). *Marine*
- 744 *Biodiversity Records* 3:e45. DOI: 10.1017/S1755267209991011.
- 745 Mallet D, Pelletier D. 2014. Underwater video techniques for observing coastal marine
- 746 biodiversity: a review of sixty years of publications (1952–2012). *Fisheries Research* 154:44–62.
- 747 DOI: 10.1016/j.fishres.2014.01.019.
- 748
- 749 Manooch III CS, Haimovici M. 1983. Foods of greater amberjack, *Seriola dumerili*, and almaco
- 750 jack, *Seriola rivoliana* (Pisces: Carangidae), from the South Atlantic Bight. *Journal of the Elisha*
- 751 *Mitchell Scientific Society* 99:1–9.
- 752

Manooch III CS, Mason DL, Nelson RS. 1985. Foods of little tunny *Euthynnus alletteratus* collected along the southeastern and Gulf coasts of the United States. *Nippon Suisan Gakkaishi* 51:1207–1218. DOI: 10.2331/suisan.51.1207.

del Mar Palacios M, Warren DT, McCormick MI. 2016. Sensory cues of a top-predator indirectly control a reef fish mesopredator. *Oikos* 125:201–209. DOI: 10.1111/oik.02116.

Matheson RH, Huntsman GR, Manooch CS. 1986. Age, growth, mortality, food and reproduction of the scamp, *Mycteroperca phenax*, collected off North Carolina and South Carolina. *Bulletin of Marine Science* 38:300–312.

McCauley DJ, McLean KA, Bauer J, Young HS, Micheli F. 2012. Evaluating the performance of methods for estimating the abundance of rapidly declining coastal shark populations. *Ecological Applications* 22:385–392. DOI: 10.1890/11-1059.1.

McFarland WN, Kotchian NM. 1982. Interaction between schools of fish and mysids. *Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology* 11:71–76. DOI: 10.1007/BF00300094.

Miller GC, Richards WJ. 1980. Reef fish habitat, faunal assemblages, and factors determining distributions in the South Atlantic Bight. *Proceedings of the Gulf and Caribbean Fisheries Institute* 32:114–130.

Moursund RA, Carlson TJ, Peters RD. 2003. A fisheries application of a dual-frequency identification sonar acoustic camera. *ICES Journal of Marine Science* 60:678–683. DOI: 10.1016/S1054-3139(03)00036-5.

Naughton SP, Saloman CH, Vaught RN. 1986. *Species profile of round scad* *Decapterus punctatus* (Cuvier 1829). U.S. Department of Commerce, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Marine Fisheries Service, Southeast Fisheries Science Center, Panama City Laboratory, Panama City, FL, NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-SEFC-181.

NC Division of Marine Fisheries. 2020. Location of Hard Bottom Habitat. *Available at*
<http://portal.ncdenr.org/web/mf/habitat/hard-bottom> (accessed February 5, 2020).

Niizato T, Gunji Y-P. 2011. Metric–topological interaction model of collective behavior. *Ecological Modelling* 222:3041–3049. DOI: 10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2011.06.008.

Paine RT. 1984. Ecological determinism in the competition for space: The Robert H. MacArthur Award Lecture. *Ecology* 65:1339–1348. DOI: 10.2307/1939114.

Parker RO, Chester AJ, Nelson RS. 1994. A video transect method for estimating reef fish abundance, composition, and habitat utilization at Gray’s Reef National Marine Sanctuary, Georgia. *Fishery Bulletin* 92:787–99.

Parker RO, Colby DR, Willis TD. 1983. Estimated amount of reef habitat on a portion of the U.S. South Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico continental shelf. *Bulletin of Marine Science* 33:935–940.

Parrish JK, Viscido SV, Grunbaum D. 2002. Self-organized fish schools: an examination of emergent properties. *Biological Bulletin* 202:296–305.

Paxton AB, Blair E, Blawas C, Fatzinger MH, Marens M, Holmberg J, Kingen C, Houppermans T, Keusenkothen M, McCord J, Silliman BR, Penfold LM. 2019. Citizen science reveals female sand tiger sharks (*Carcharias taurus*) exhibit signs of site fidelity on shipwrecks. *Ecology* 100:e02687. DOI: 10.1002/ecy.2687.

Peckol P, Searles RB. 1984. Temporal and spatial patterns of growth and survival of invertebrate and algal populations of a North Carolina continental shelf community. *Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science* 18:133–143. DOI: 10.1016/0272-7714(84)90101-X.

- Pollard D, Smith A. 2009. *Carcharias taurus*. The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. Available at <http://dx.doi.org/10.2305/IUCN.UK.2009-2.RLTS.T3854A10132481.en> (accessed December 18, 2019).
- Posey MH, Ambrose WG. 1994. Effects of proximity to an offshore hard-bottom reef on infaunal abundances. *Marine Biology* 118:745–753. DOI: 10.1007/BF00347524.
- Preisser EL, Bolnick DI, Benard MF. 2005. Scared to death? The effects of intimidation and consumption in predator-prey interactions. *Ecology* 86:501–509. DOI: 10.1890/04-0719.
- Prugh LR, Stoner CJ, Epps CW, Bean WT, Ripple WJ, Laliberte AS, Brashares JS. 2009. The rise of the mesopredator. *BioScience* 59:779–791. DOI: 10.1525/bio.2009.59.9.9.
- Rieucan G, Fernö A, Ioannou CC, Handegard NO. 2015. Towards of a firmer explanation of large shoal formation, maintenance and collective reactions in marine fish. *Reviews in Fish Biology and Fisheries* 25:21–37. DOI: 10.1007/s11160-014-9367-5.
- Rieucan G, Holmin AJ, Castillo JC, Couzin ID, Handegard NO. 2016. School level structural and dynamic adjustments to risk promote information transfer and collective evasion in herring. *Animal Behaviour* 117:69–78. DOI: 10.1016/j.anbehav.2016.05.002.
- Riggs SR, Snyder SW, Hine AC, Mearns DL. 1996. Hardbottom morphology and relationship to the geologic framework; Mid-Atlantic continental shelf. *Journal of Sedimentary Research* 66:830–846. DOI: 10.1306/D4268419-2B26-11D7-8648000102C1865D.
- Ritchie EG, Johnson CN. 2009. Predator interactions, mesopredator release and biodiversity conservation. *Ecology Letters* 12:982–998. DOI: 10.1111/j.1461-0248.2009.01347.x.
- Rountree RA. 1989. Association of fishes with Fish Aggregation Devices: Effects of structure size on fish abundance. *Bulletin of Marine Science* 44:960–972.

842 Rountree RA. 1990. Community structure of fishes attracted to shallow water fish aggregation
843 devices off South Carolina, U.S.A. *Environmental Biology of Fishes* 29:241–262. DOI:
844 10.1007/BF00001183.

845

846 Rountree R, Sedberry G. 1991. In-situ observations of the schooling behavior of planktivorous
847 fishes. *Unpublished draft manuscript*:DOI: 10.13140/RG.2.1.2371.5289. DOI:
848 10.13140/RG.2.1.2371.5289.

849

850 SAFMC. 1998. *Final Habitat Plan for the South Atlantic Region: Essential fish habitat*
851 *requirements for fishery management plans of the South Atlantic Fishery Management Council*.
852 North Charleston, SC. 457 p.+appendices: South Atlantic Fishery Management Council.

853

854 Saloman CH, Naughton SP. 1984. *Food of crevalle jack (Caranx hippos) from Florida,*
855 *Louisiana, and Texas*. NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFS-SEFC-134: U.S. Department of
856 Commerce, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Marine Fisheries
857 Service, Southeast Fisheries Science Center, Panama City Laboratory, Panama City, FL.

858

859 Schmitz OJ, Krivan V, Ovadia O. 2004. Trophic cascades: the primacy of trait-mediated indirect
860 interactions. *Ecology Letters* 7:153–163. DOI: 10.1111/j.1461-0248.2003.00560.x.

861

862 Schneider CW. 1976. Spatial and temporal distributions of benthic marine algae on the
863 continental shelf of the Carolinas. *Bulletin of Marine Science* 26:133–151.

864

865 Schneider CW, Searles RB. 1973. North Carolina marine algae. II. New records and observations
866 of the benthic offshore flora. *Phycologia* 12:201–211. DOI: 10.2216/i0031-8884-12-3-201.1.

867 Schneider CW, Searles RB. 1991. *Seaweeds of the southeastern United States: Cape Hatteras to*
868 *Cape Canaveral*. Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

869

870 Sedberry G, Van Dolah R. 1984. Demersal fish assemblages associated with hard bottom habitat
871 in the South Atlantic Bight of the U.S.A. *Environmental Biology of Fishes* 11:241–258. DOI:
872 10.1007/BF00001372.

873

874 Seghers BH. 1974. Schooling behavior in the guppy (*Poecilia reticulata*): an evolutionary
875 response to predation. *Evolution* 28:486–489. DOI: 10.1111/j.1558-5646.1974.tb00774.x.

876

877 Shaw E, Tucker A. 1965. The optomotor reaction of schooling carangid fishes. *Animal*
878 *Behaviour* 13:330-IN7. DOI: 10.1016/0003-3472(65)90052-7.

879

880 Sih A, Englund G, Wooster D. 1998. Emergent impacts of multiple predators on prey. *Trends in*
881 *Ecology & Evolution* 13:350–355. DOI: 10.1016/S0169-5347(98)01437-2.

882

883 Sley A, Jarboui O, Ghorbel M, Bouain A. 2009. Food and feeding habits of *Caranx crysos* from
884 the Gulf of Gabès (Tunisia). *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United*
885 *Kingdom* 89:1375–1380. DOI: 10.1017/S0025315409000265.

886

887 Smale MJ, Booth AJ, Farquhar MR, Meyer MR, Rochat L. 2012. Migration and habitat use of
888 formerly captive and wild raggedtooth sharks (*Carcharias taurus*) on the southeast coast of
889 South Africa. *Marine Biology Research* 8:115–128. DOI: 10.1080/17451000.2011.617756.

890

891 Smith K, Scarr M, Scarpaci C. 2010. Grey nurse shark (*Carcharias taurus*) diving tourism:
892 Tourist compliance and shark behaviour at Fish Rock, Australia. *Environmental Management*
893 46:699–710. DOI: 10.1007/s00267-010-9561-8.

894

895 Struhsaker P. 1969. Demersal fish resources: Composition, distribution, and commercial
896 potential of the continental shelf stocks off the southeastern United States. *Fisheries Independent*
897 *Research* 4:261–300.

898 Terborgh JW. 2015. Toward a trophic theory of species diversity. *Proceedings of the National*
899 *Academy of Sciences* 112:11415. DOI: 10.1073/pnas.1501070112.

900

901 Teter S, Wetherbee B, Fox D, Lam C, Kiefer D, Shivji M. 2015. Migratory patterns and habitat
902 use of the sand tiger shark (*Carcharias taurus*) in the western North Atlantic. *Marine and*
903 *Freshwater Research* 66:158–169. DOI: 10.1071/MF14129.

904

905 Toonen RJ, Bowen BW, Iacchei M, Briggs JC. 2016. Biogeography, Marine. In: Kliman RM ed.
906 *Encyclopedia of Evolutionary Biology*. Oxford: Academic Press, 166–178. DOI: 10.1016/B978-
907 0-12-800049-6.00120-7.

908

909 Wenner EL, Knott DM, Van Dolah RF, Burrell VG. 1983. Invertebrate communities associated
910 with hard bottom habitats in the South Atlantic Bight. *Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science*
911 17:143–158. DOI: 10.1016/0272-7714(83)90059-8.

912

913 Wickham DA, Jr JWW, Ogren LH. 1973. The efficacy of midwater artificial structures for
914 attracting pelagic sport fish. *Transactions of the American Fisheries Society* 102:563–572. DOI:
915 10.1577/1548-8659(1973)102<563:TEOMAS>2.0.CO;2.

916

917 Wootton JT. 1993. Indirect effects and habitat use in an intertidal community: Interaction chains
918 and interaction modifications. *The American Naturalist* 141:71–89. DOI: 10.1086/285461.

919

Table 1(on next page)

Occurrence of sand tiger sharks, round scad, and six mesopredator species in SharkCam videos.

Videos analyzed (n=1024, 20-min clips) were collected November 2014-January 2019.

Frequency of occurrence data are for all videos, and those known to contain STs (n=216, 20-min clips). The frequency of STs + RS in all clips was 0.138.

1

2

Common Name	Species	Acronym	Videos containing	Frequency of occurrence	
				In STs clips (n=216)	In all clips (n=1024)
Sand Tiger Shark	<i>Carcharias taurus</i>	STs	216	1.000	0.213
Round Scad	<i>Decapterus punctatus</i>	RS	186	0.861	0.648
Greater Amberjack	<i>Seriola dumerili</i>	GA	106	0.491	0.580
Almaco Jack	<i>Seriola rivoliana</i>	AJ	89	0.412	0.351
Blue Runner	<i>Caranx crysos</i>	BR	61	0.282	0.210
Crevalle Jack	<i>Caranx hippos</i>	CJ	25	0.116	0.164
Little Tunny	<i>Euthynnus alletteratus</i>	LT	34	0.157	0.078
Atlantic Bonito	<i>Sarda sarda</i>	AB	9	0.042	0.015
Frequency containing STs + RS + ≥1 MPs =				0.837	0.163

Figure 1

Sand tiger sharks and round scad in association behaviors.

(A) No visible interaction (NVI). Image from 18 April 2017, 12:43 EDT, (B) Loosely associated (LA). Image from 11 November 2019, 16:05 EST, (C) Tightly associated (TA). Image from 13 March 2018, 14:14 EDT. Image credits: Erin Burge/Explore.org.



Figure 2

Frequency of occurrence of sand tiger sharks and round scad indicate the seasonality of their presence at Frying Pan Tower.

Seasonality of sand tiger sharks (STs) and round scad (RS) are represented by frequency of occurrence data (solid line, STs; dashed line, RS) from SharkCam videos (n=1024, 20 min clips) from November 2014–January 2019. Sea surface temperatures (SST) are plotted as 2016 mean daily water temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) \pm SD (open circles), 2003–2008 long term mean monthly SST (black circles on gray line), and 2003–2008 minimum and maximum monthly SST (gray stippled lines) at Frying Pan Tower (data from NOAA NBDC Station 41013 (LLNR 815)–Frying Pan Shoals, NC).

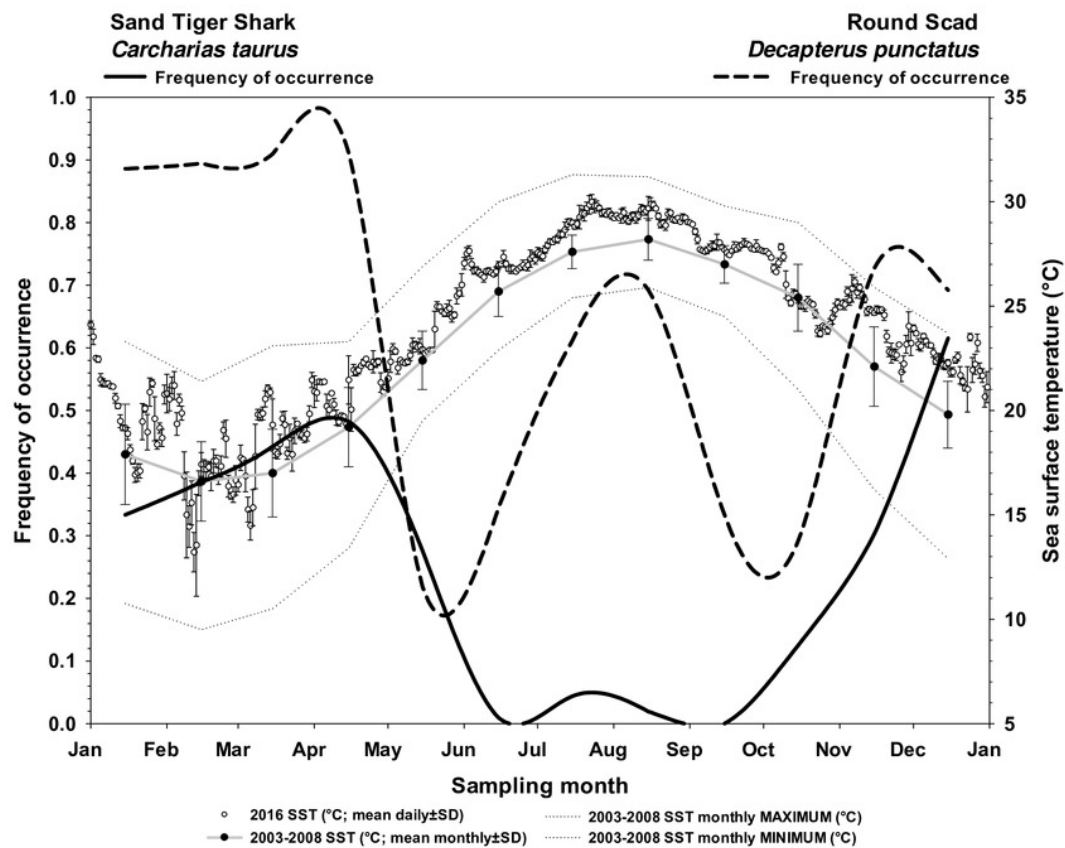


Figure 3

Cluster analysis of Bray-Curtis similarity to illustrate associations between sand tiger sharks (STs), round scad (RS), and individual mesopredator species (MPs).

See Table 1 for mesopredator species acronyms. STs and RS cluster strongly (92.5% similarity), while MPs have lower similarities. Clusters containing red-dashed branches are significant (Simprof, $\alpha = 0.05$).

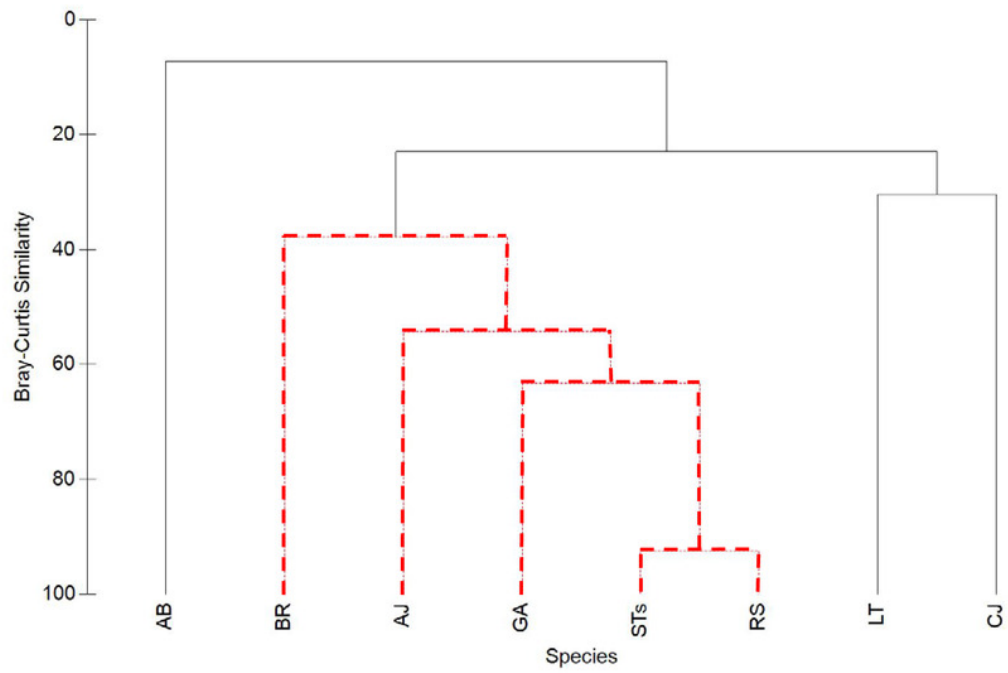


Figure 4

Association behavior counts between sand tiger sharks (STs) and round scad (RS).

(A) without and with the presence of mesopredators (MPs), and observed and expected frequencies (B) of association behaviors in video clips collected from SharkCam (n=186, 20-min clips). Tightly associated behavior between STs and RS occurred significantly more often than expected (Pearson's $\chi^2 = 20.981$ (df 2), $p < 0.000$) in the presence of MPs.

