



Individual variability in dispersal strategies provides benefits for body size and somatic growth, but not trophic position in juvenile pike (*Esox lucius* L.)

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1 **Individual variability in dispersal strategies provides benefits for body size and somatic**
2 **growth, but not trophic position in juvenile pike (*Esox lucius* L.)**

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16 Running head: Natal dispersal of pike

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19 **Abstract**

20

21 Individual variability in dispersal strategies, where some individuals disperse and others remain
22 resident, is a common phenomenon across many species. Despite its important ecological
23 consequences, however, the mechanisms and individual advantages of dispersal remain poorly
24 understood. Here, riverine Northern pike (*Esox lucius*) juveniles (young-of-the-year and age
25 1+ year) were used to investigate the influence of body size and trophic position (at capture)
26 on the dispersal from off-channel natal habitats, and the subsequent consequences for body
27 sizes, specific growth rate and trophic position (at recapture). Individuals that dispersed into
28 the river ('dispersers') were not significantly different in body size or trophic position than
29 those remaining on nursery grounds ('stayers'). Once in the river, however, the dispersers grew
30 significantly faster than stayers and, on recapture, were significantly larger, but with no
31 significant differences in their trophic positions. Early dispersal into the river was therefore not
32 facilitated by dietary shifts to piscivory and the attainment of larger body sizes of individuals
33 whilst in their natal habitats. These results suggest that there are long-term benefits for
34 individuals dispersing early from natal areas via elevated growth rates and, potentially, higher
35 fitness, with the underlying mechanisms potentially relating to competitive displacement.

36

37 **Key words:** Natal dispersal, Northern pike, piscivory, stable isotope analysis.

39 **Introduction**

40

41 Most animals have the capacity to disperse from one place to another to some degree or during
42 important life stages. The dispersal of an individual can have important consequences for
43 individual fitness, population dynamics and spatial distributions (Clobert, Danchin, Dhondt &
44 Nichols, 2001). Movements from natal areas into habitats that provide enhanced foraging
45 opportunities are common in many species, and this can have considerable social, ecological
46 and evolutionary consequences (Weiß, Kulik, Ruiz-Lambides & Widdig, 2016). However, this
47 natal dispersal can have considerable costs and tends to exist in trade-offs with increased
48 predation risk (Halpin, 2000; Alcalay, Tsurim & Ovadia, 2018). Dispersal is generally
49 considered as a discrete mechanism from migration (Schwarz & Bairlein, 2004) and involves
50 the movement of individuals away from others, such as siblings, who are left behind in the
51 original area, and without necessarily returning to that area (Semlitsch, 2008).

52

53 Trade-offs between dispersal and mortality mean that although dispersal can deliver substantial
54 individual benefits, the risks can also be high (Bonte *et al.*, 2012). Consequently, there is often
55 substantial variability in the dispersal behaviours between individuals (Cucherousset,
56 Paillisson & Roussel, 2013). Whilst dispersing individuals incur increasing costs and have
57 elevated mortality risk, dispersed individuals often gain fitness advantages via their subsequent
58 exploitation of new resources in a less competitive environment (Waser, Nichols & Hadfield,
59 2013), providing that environment is sufficiently productive (Bonte, De Roissart, Wybouw &
60 Van Leeuwen, 2014). Indeed, in freshwater fishes, dispersal can be a mechanism for
61 individuals to decrease intraspecific competitive interactions and/ or predation risk (Lima &
62 Dill, 1990; Skov *et al.*, 2011). For example, small-bodied roach *Rutilus rutilus* are more likely

63 to disperse from areas of higher predation risk to areas of lower predation risk than large-bodied
64 individuals (Chapman *et al.*, 2011). However, the high activity rates of these dispersing small
65 individuals might then elevate their predation risk, especially as their sizes makes them more
66 vulnerable to predators that are otherwise gape-limited (Nilsson & Brönmark, 2000).

67

68 In dispersal strategies that relate to predation risk and growth (Chapman *et al.*, 2013), there is
69 thus high potential for the individual growth rates of the dispersing individuals to increase via
70 reducing density dependent competition and/ or enabling the utilization of underexploited
71 trophic resources in the new environment and/ or niche partitioning (Smith & Skulason, 1996,
72 Waser *et al.*, 2013). To explain why only some individuals disperse to new habitats requires
73 understanding the ecological attributes of these dispersers and comparison to those that do not
74 disperse (Chapman *et al.*, 2011, Cucherousset *et al.*, 2013). Metrics such as trophic position
75 potentially provides a useful indicator of the competitive ability of individuals to access high
76 quality resources (Bolnick *et al.*, 2003). Whilst the costs of dispersing are ubiquitous,
77 knowledge on the individual advantages that dispersal provides remains relatively limited
78 (Bonte *et al.*, 2012).

79

80 The aim of this study was, therefore, to test hypotheses relating to the drivers and benefits of
81 individual differences in dispersal during the juvenile life-stages of the piscivorous Northern
82 pike (*Esox lucius* L.). The study system was the lower River Frome in Southern England (Fig.
83 1). This *E. lucius* population has been previously associated with individual variability in
84 dispersal from their off-channel natal habitats (Mann 1980), where some young-of-the-year
85 fish (0+ cohort) move from off-channel natal habitats into the main river during their initial
86 summer of life, whilst others remain in natal habitats until at least their second year of life

87 (Mann & Beaumont, 1990, Knight, Gozlan & Lucas, 2008). Individuals remaining on natal
88 habitats then grow significantly slower than those that disperse (Mann & Beaumont, 1990),
89 which has been linked to dietary differences and prey availability (Mann, 1982). The timing of
90 the ontogenetic shift from zooplanktivory toward piscivory varies between individuals
91 (Wolska-Neja and Neja 2006; Cucherousset *et al.*, 2013). Thus, two hypotheses on individual
92 variability in dispersal were tested: (1) dietary ontogeny is a driver of juvenile dispersal, with
93 dispersers having higher trophic positions and larger body sizes than stayers when they disperse
94 from natal habitats (*as per* Cucherousset *et al.*, (2013)); and (2) dispersal-driven habitat
95 partitioning is a driver of individual growth life histories, with dispersers subsequently
96 experiencing faster growth rates in the new habitat.

97

98 **Methods**

99

100 ***Sampling and data collection***

101 Juvenile *E. lucius* were sampled in two side-channels (hereafter referred to as ‘ditches’) of the
102 River Frome Southern England (50°419 N; 2°119 W) (Fig. 1; Masters *et al.*, 2002; Nyqvist,
103 Gozlan, Cucherousset & Britton, 2017). The ditches were generally ≤ 5 m in width and ≤ 1 m
104 in depth, and adult *E. lucius* were observed spawning there in spring. Juvenile *E. lucius* were
105 regularly captured from the ditches using an electric fishing backpack (Smith-Root LR-24,
106 USA) from January 2009 to October 2011 (Nyqvist *et al.*, 2017). Individuals were
107 anaesthetised (MS-222), measured for body size (as fork length, FL, nearest mm), had a fin
108 biopsy taken (for subsequent stable isotope analyses, SIA), and scales were removed for age
109 determination. Individuals of FL over 85 mm were tagged with 23.1 mm passive integrated
110 transponder (PIT) tags to enable their individual identification on recapture (Zydlewski, Haro,

111 Whalen & McCormick, 2001). At these fish lengths, tag weights were generally below 2 % of
112 body weight.

113

114 To enable fish to be categorized as either dispersing from the ditches ('dispersers') or
115 remaining in the ditches ('stayers'), more intensive sampling was completed between 18th June
116 and 12th October 2010. To identify differences in the body size and trophic position (TP)
117 between stayers and dispersers, sampling utilized two methods. To identify stayers, electric
118 fishing was completed monthly in each ditch, using the LR-24 backpack as described above.
119 To identify dispersers, fyke nets of 8 mm mesh were placed in the ditches within 5 m of their
120 connections to the main river to enable capture of individuals moving from the ditches into the
121 river. The fyke nets were continuously in use (24 hour sampling) throughout the study period,
122 with nets checked daily and all fish being processed. Fish were then released in the main river
123 side of the fyke nets, as the fish were moving in this direction when captured. All captured *E.*
124 *lucius*, irrespective of sampling method, were checked for the presence of a PIT tag (i.e.
125 whether they were a new capture or a recapture), measured for FL and fin samples taken for
126 subsequent stable isotope analysis and calculation of TP.

127

128 Following this period of identifying stayers and dispersers, the consequences of these strategies
129 for individuals were assessed by recapturing individuals by electric fishing. For stayers, electric
130 fishing using the LR-24 backpack in the ditches was used, with all captured fish checked for a
131 PIT tag, measured and a fin clip taken. For dispersers, the main river channel was also sampled
132 by electric fishing. At low water levels, hand-held electric fishing from a small boat was used.
133 At sufficiently high river levels, a boat specifically adapted for electric fishing in rivers was
134 used that had a series of cathodes trailing from the back and two circular anodes with droppers

135 hanging at the front. Again, all captured fish were checked for a PIT tag, measured and a fin
136 clip taken, and then returned. For all recaptured tagged fish (ditches and main river), their
137 length increment was determined and converted to specific growth rate (SGR) that expressed
138 the length change over time:

$$139 \text{ SGR} = [\ln(L_f) - \ln(L_i)] * 100 / t$$

140 where L_i and L_f were the initial and final fork lengths (mm) of the individual, and t was the
141 number of days between capture and recapture (Nyqvist *et al.*, 2017).

142

143 The fin samples were analysed for the nitrogen stable isotope ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$), as these values in fin
144 tissues correlate strongly with those of dorsal muscle tissue (Jardine, Gray, McWilliam &
145 Cunjak, 2005; Busst, Bašić & Britton, 2015). Fin clipping has been found not adversely affect
146 fish survival or growth (Gjerde & Refstie, 1988), and enables temporal monitoring of
147 individual trophic niche shift (Cucherousset *et al.*, 2013). Specimens of water louse *Asellus*
148 *aquaticus* were obtained at the same time and location as the pike were captured to provide the
149 baseline isotopic values of their putative prey. These were the main macroinvertebrate species
150 in the ditches, with no other species sampled in sufficient quantity to enable their SIA. The *A.*
151 *aquaticus* samples were pooled ($n = 2$ to 4 per SIA sample). All samples were then oven dried
152 at 60°C to constant weight, before processing and analysis at the Cornell Isotope Laboratory,
153 New York, USA. Trophic position (TP) for individual pike was then calculated using the
154 formula: $\text{TP} = [(\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{Fish}} - \delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{MeanPrey}}) / 3.4] + 2$, where 3.4 represents a widely used single
155 trophic level fractionation in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, and 2 corresponds to the trophic level of primary consumers
156 (Vander Zanden, Shuter, Lester & Rasmussen, 2000).

157

158

159 ***Statistical analyses***

160 To investigate trophic and size-dependent dispersal, the individuals captured in the fyke nets
161 (dispersers) were compared to those in the ditches (stayers) in summer 2010. Generalized linear
162 models (GLMs) were performed with TP or FL as the dependent variable, dispersal status
163 (stayer/disperser) as the independent variable, and age (0+ and 1+), and capture date as
164 covariates. Outputs were the mean FL and TP of stayers and dispersers (adjusted for the effects
165 of covariates) and the significance of the differences.

166

167 To analyse differences in FL and TP between stayers and dispersers prior to dispersal (at first
168 capture in the ditches) and at their recapture (either in the ditches or river), GLMs were used.
169 FL and TP were the dependent variables, dispersal status (disperser/stayer) was the independent
170 variable, and age (0+ and 1+), days between capture and recapture ('days at large'), recapture
171 date (as the interaction of month and year) were covariates. Outputs were the mean FL and TP
172 of recaptured stayers and dispersers (adjusted for the effects of covariates), and the significance
173 of their differences. Differences in SGR between recaptured stayers and dispersers were also
174 analysed in a GLM, where SGR was the dependent variable, dispersal status was the
175 independent variable, and with initial length at capture, age, number of days between capture
176 and recapture, and date of recapture (as the interaction of month and year) being covariates.
177 All analyses were conducted in STATISTICA (v. 12) and SPSS (v. 22). Errors around means
178 are 95 % confidence limits unless stated otherwise. The study was conducted under the UK
179 Home Office project licence number PPL 30/2626 and following ethical review.

180

181

182 Results

183

184 There were 56 juvenile *E. lucius* sampled during summer 2010 for the study, of which 30 were
185 age 0+ and 26 were age 1+ year. Of these fish, 33 were captured in the ditches (so were
186 designated as ‘stayers’; 0+: n = 17; 1+: n = 16) and 23 in the fyke nets (so were designated as
187 ‘dispersers’; 0+: n = 13; 1+: n = 10). No fish that had been identified as a stayer on its initial
188 capture was subsequently recaptured either in the fyke nets or the main river, i.e. it did not
189 disperse during the study period.

190

191 There were no significant differences in FL at capture detected between fish sampled in the
192 ditches by electric fishing (stayers) versus those in the fyke nets (dispersers), with only age at
193 capture having a significant, positive effect on individual FL (Table 1; Fig. 2). Although
194 dispersers had a significantly lower TP than stayers in the 0+ fish (ANOVA: $F_{1,28} = 41.63$, $P <$
195 0.01), this was not apparent in the 1+ fish (ANOVA: $F_{1,24} = 1.95$, $P = 0.18$; Fig. 2). However,
196 when the TP data were combined for the age groups and the effects of covariates accounted
197 for, the differences between the TP of stayers and dispersers were not significant (Table 1).

198

199 Of the 56 tagged *E. lucius*, 50 were subsequently recaptured. There were significantly more
200 pike recaptured in their ditches (n = 44) than in the river (n = 6) ($\chi^2 = 28.88$; $P < 0.01$). The
201 number of days between captures and recaptures ranged from 51 to 579 days. On recapture,
202 the body sizes of dispersers were significantly larger than stayers ($P < 0.01$; Table 2), where
203 the effects of age and the number of days at large were significant covariates in the model ($P <$
204 0.05 ; Table 2). Similarly, the SGR of dispersers was significantly higher than stayers ($P = 0.05$,
205 Table 3), with the date and length of capture being significant covariates in the model ($P <$

206 0.01; Table 3). However, the trophic positions of recaptured stayers and dispersers were not
207 significantly different ($P = 0.46$; Table 2).

208

209 **Discussion**

210

211 Natal dispersal is a ubiquitous phenomenon, with this study revealing that dispersal from natal
212 ditches was not related to the body size or trophic position of the individual 0+ and 1+ pike,
213 although 0+ dispersers were of significantly lower trophic position than 0+ stayers. This finding
214 was contrary to the first hypothesis that predicted dispersers would be those individuals of
215 higher trophic position and larger body sizes through their ontogenetic shift to piscivory
216 occurring on the natal habitats. The results were, however, consistent with the second
217 hypothesis, as following their dispersal into the main river; dispersers experienced significantly
218 higher growth rates than stayers and had achieved larger body sizes on their recapture, although
219 the number of recaptured individuals in the river was relatively low. Despite pike moving out
220 from the ditches at age 0+ not having higher trophic positions than those staying in ditches,
221 their piscivory would enable their foraging on the more abundant and diverse prey populations
222 of the main river channel compared to the small ditches, thus facilitating their ability to grow
223 faster and attain larger body sizes.

224

225 Our results suggest that dispersers exist in a trade-off between their increased predation risk in
226 the river with the higher potential for achieving faster growth rates. The finding that an
227 ontogenetic dietary shift towards piscivory by individual pike was not the driver of juvenile
228 dispersal from the natal habitats here was in contrast to Cucherousset *et al.* (2013), who
229 demonstrated that the natal departure timing of juvenile pike from a temporally flooded

230 grassland nursery was dependent on this. In the latter case, the risk of the complete drying of
231 temporary waters meant that the natal departure timing of juvenile fish was directly associated
232 with direct costs and benefits (i.e. survival vs. mortality). It was also occurring relatively early
233 in their life when trophic differences between individuals might have been more apparent
234 (Kramer, Rangeley & Chapman, 1997). In the ditches of this study, the water was permanent
235 and, therefore, the drivers of dispersal would not have included the avoidance of shallow waters
236 in, and drying of, the natal habitat. Improved knowledge linking ecosystem stability and natal
237 dispersal is therefore needed.

238

239 Dispersal can have indirect fitness advantages by reducing competition in populations via
240 increasing the overall access to resources (Waser *et al.*, 2013). This fitness advantage of
241 dispersing does, however, depend on the environment reached after dispersal, with those of
242 high productivity providing greater advantages (Bonte *et al.*, 2014). In juvenile Atlantic salmon
243 *Salmo salar* in natural streams, it was the smaller bodied individuals that moved away from
244 areas in the vicinity of their redd and, as the summer progressed, they experienced higher
245 growth rates (Einum *et al.*, 2012). This dispersal by smaller individuals may be driven by the
246 competitive intensity near redds (Einum *et al.*, 2012). Natal habitats, such as the river side
247 channels of the present study, naturally have a high density of juvenile pike that compete for
248 food resources of low diversity (primarily macroinvertebrates (e.g. *Asellus aquaticus*) and
249 some small bodied fishes (mainly minnow *Phoxinus phoxinus*). Dispersing to a less populated
250 area would, therefore, be advantageous in terms of increased access to food and refuge habitat,
251 as the main River Frome provides a greater diversity of prey fishes (including dace *Leuciscus*
252 *leuciscus* and grayling *Thymallus thymallus* that are present in the main channel and not the

253 ditches; Pinder, Harrison & Britton, 2019), as well as *P. phoxinus* in much higher abundances
254 (unpublished data, the authors).

255

256 Relatively high individual variation in the competitive ability for resources may explain the
257 non-significant relationships between trophic position and dispersal strategy detected in our
258 study. The ability to compete for scarce resources is a primary aspect of population dynamics
259 that influences individual fitness (Vøllestad & Quinn, 2003). Edeline *et al.* (2010) revealed that
260 an increase in pike density depressed their energetic status and lowered growth rates. The 0+
261 individuals of lower trophic positions that dispersed from the ditches in our study may,
262 therefore, be a consequence of social stress or due to direct interference intimidation or
263 competitive exclusion from other individuals, although this could not be explicitly tested here
264 and was not apparent in the 1+ fish. Indeed, Wey, Spiegel, Montiglio & Mabry (2015)
265 suggested that the influence on dispersal of interactions of behavioural phenotypes and the
266 social environment experienced by individuals remains poorly understood, and requires further
267 work.

268

269 An increasing number of studies are demonstrating that differences in personality traits
270 between individuals underlie other observed ecological patterns that vary among individuals
271 (e.g. Cote, Fogarty, Weinersmith, Brodin & Sih, 2010, Laskowski and Bell 2014). In particular,
272 boldness in fish has been directly linked to differences in dispersal (Fraser, Gilliam, Daley, Le
273 & Skalski, 2001, Cote *et al.*, 2010) and settlement in new habitats (Armstrong, Braithwaite &
274 Huntingford, 1997). Indeed, juveniles from the pike population studied here have previously
275 been found to exhibit bold and shy personality types during experimental settings, with bolder
276 individuals expressing a higher level of foraging activity (Nyqvist, Gozlan, Cucherousset &

277 Britton, 2012; Nyqvist, Gozlan, Cucherousset & Britton, 2013). As trophic position is an
278 indication of the trophic niche and foraging ecology at the individual and population level
279 (Bolnick *et al.*, 2003), the 0+ stayers which had higher trophic position in the current study
280 might have been the bolder individuals, whereas the 0+ dispersers of lower trophic position
281 would have been the shy behavioural phenotype, which would be a counter-intuitive outcome.

282

283 In conclusion, it was demonstrated that dispersing juveniles had similar body sizes to stayers,
284 with 0+ dispersers having a lower trophic position than 0+ stayers. Thus, their dispersal might
285 have been driven by social stress, competitive displacement or intimidation in the highly
286 populated, permanently-flooded, ditches. Individuals that successfully dispersed into the river
287 and survived benefited by increased growth rates and so the attainment of larger body sizes
288 when compared with stayers. Therefore, these outputs highlight the importance of habitat
289 exclusion of less competitive individuals in driving variation in dispersal and indicate their
290 potential for causing long-term consequences on individual fitness and population dynamics.

291

292 **Data availability**

293 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author
294 upon reasonable request.

295

296 **References**

297

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406 **Author contributions statement**

407 All authors conceived and designed the study. MN, JRB, JC and RG performed field and
408 laboratory work. MN and JRB analysed the data, and all authors contributed materials and
409 analysis tools. MN led the writing of the paper and all authors contributed to editing, and
410 approved the final version for submission.

Table 1. Results of GLMs testing the effects of dispersal status (i.e. stayer/disperser; ‘Dispersal’), capture date and age on the fork length (FL) and trophic position (TP) of all *Esox lucius* captured in the ditches.

| (a) FL at capture: Wald $\chi^2 = 1.35$, P = 0.25 | |
|--|-------------|
| | P |
| Capture date | 0.82 |
| Age | < 0.01 |
| Dispersal | 0.25 |
| Mean length at capture (mm): | |
| Stayer | 197 ± 10 |
| Disperser | 215 ± 28 |
| (b) TP at capture: Wald $\chi^2 = 0.03$, P = 0.86 | |
| | P |
| Capture date | 0.85 |
| Age | 0.46 |
| Dispersal | 0.86 |
| Mean length at capture (mm): | |
| Stayer | 3.13 ± 0.16 |
| Disperser | 3.18 ± 0.42 |

Table 2. Results of GLMs testing the effects of dispersal status (i.e. stayer/disperser; ‘Dispersal’), recapture date and year, age, number of days at larger and on the fork length (FL) and trophic position (TP) of all recaptured *Esox lucius* (n = 50): 0+: n = 33 (28 stayers and 5 dispersers); 1+: n = 17 (16 stayers and 1 disperser).

| (a) FL at recapture: Wald $\chi^2 = 7.32$, P < 0.01 | |
|--|-------------|
| | P |
| Dispersal | <0.01 |
| Age | 0.04 |
| Days at large | <0.01 |
| Month x year | 0.24 |
| Mean length at capture (mm): | |
| Stayer | 244 ± 14 |
| Disperser | 301 ± 38 |
| (b) TP at recapture: Wald $\chi^2 = 0.54$, P = 0.46 | |
| | P |
| Dispersal | 0.46 |
| Age | 0.97 |
| Days at large | <0.01 |
| Month x year | 0.75 |
| Trophic position at capture | 0.52 |
| Mean length at capture (mm): | |
| Stayer | 3.16 ± 0.16 |
| Disperser | 2.98 ± 0.44 |

Table 3. Results of a GLM on the effects of dispersal status (i.e. stayer/ disperser; ‘dispersal’), fork length (FL), date of capture, age, and length at initial capture dispersal status (recaptured in ditch or river) on the specific growth rate (SGR) of all recaptured *Esox lucius* (N = 50; 0+: n = 33; 28 stayers, 5 dispersers; 1+: n = 17; 16 stayers and 1 disperser).

| Specific growth rate: Wald $\chi^2 = 3.85$, P = 0.05 | |
|---|-------------|
| | P |
| Dispersal | 0.05 |
| Age | 0.30 |
| Length at capture | < 0.01 |
| Days at large | 0.43 |
| Month x year | < 0.01 |
| Mean specific growth rate: | |
| Stayer | 0.11 ± 0.02 |
| Disperser | 0.16 ± 0.05 |

Figure captions

Figure 1. Left: location of the study area in the United Kingdom. Right: overview of the study sites showing the Rushton and Railway Ditches, the ditches where the pike were sampled, plus other side channels and the main river channel.

Figure 2. Length at capture (A) and trophic position at capture (B) of 0+ and 1+ pike according to their movement strategy (stayer/ disperser). Error bars are 95 % confidence limits.

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