

1 **SEX DIFFERENCES IN INDIVIDUAL FORAGING SITE FIDELITY OF**
2 **CAMPBELL ALBATROSS**

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18

ABSTRACT

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Inter-individual variation in behavioural traits has important implications for evolutionary and ecological processes. Site fidelity, where individuals consistently use the same foraging site, is common among marine predators. Sex differences in foraging are also well studied in marine vertebrates, but the extent to which consistent inter-individual differences in foraging vary between the sexes is poorly known. Here we quantify the effects of sex on individual foraging site fidelity (IFSF), both within and between years, in chick brooding Campbell albatross (*Thalassarche impavida*). Using bird-borne Global Positioning System loggers, we calculated route fidelity (nearest neighbour distance), repeatability of site fidelity (terminal latitude and longitude), and foraging effort (total distance travelled and trip duration) during two to ten repeat trips. Overall, Campbell albatrosses showed a high degree of site fidelity. Birds travelled to similar sites not only within the same year, but also between two consecutive years, suggesting that the within-year consistency is not simply in response to short-term patches of food. Moreover, within the same year there were differences in terms of IFSF between the sexes. Females that foraged closer to the colony in neritic and shelf waters were more likely to follow similar routes on repeated foraging trips and were more consistent in their foraging effort than males. Males that foraged further offshore in pelagic waters had more repeatable foraging longitudes than females. Our study provides further evidence of the importance of IFSF among marine vertebrates. However, it also reveals that the strength of such specialisations may vary with sex.

40 Key-words: route fidelity, foraging effort, GPS tracking, repeatability, sex effects

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INTRODUCTION

42 Inter-individual trait variation has important implications for conservation, ecology
43 and evolution (Bolnick et al. 2003, Araújo et al. 2011). For example, consistent individual
44 variation in foraging behaviour, or foraging specialisation, can impact upon predator-prey
45 interactions, parasitism risk, population and community dynamics, and lead to disruptive
46 selection and evolutionary divergence (Darimont et al. 2007, Johnson et al. 2009, Duffy et al.
47 2010).

48 Individual foraging specialisation is common among a wide range of marine taxa
49 including birds, fish, and mammals (reviews: Bolnick et al. 2003, Araújo et al. 2011, Ceia &
50 Ramos 2015). In marine species, individuals specialise in terms of their diet (Newsome et al.
51 2009, Tinker et al. 2012), searching behaviour (Woo et al. 2008, Torres & Read 2009, Baylis
52 et al. 2012, Patrick et al. 2014), isotopic niche (Bearhop et al. 2006, Jaeger et al. 2009, Votier
53 et al. 2010) and, in particular, foraging location (Woo et al. 2008, Torres & Read 2009,
54 Baylis et al. 2012, Wakefield et al. 2015). Individual foraging site fidelity (IFSF), where an
55 individual consistently uses only a small part of the population-level foraging range
56 (Wakefield et al. 2015), is a particular form of individual specialisation that may arise as a
57 consequence of predictable oceanographic conditions that generate foraging areas consistent
58 in time and space (Weimerskirch 2007). However, variation in environmental conditions and
59 different constraints such as those imposed by reproductive duties may influence the degree
60 of site fidelity (Weimerskirch 2007, Patrick & Weimerskirch 2017). Here we test for sex
61 differences in IFSF in a marine predator engaged in central-place foraging, the Campbell
62 albatross (*Thalassarche impavida*).

63 Sex differences in foraging behaviour are well studied in marine vertebrates,
64 including many seabirds (e.g. brown boobies *Sula leucogaster*, Miller et al. 2017; black-
65 browed albatrosses *Thalassarche melanophris*, Huin 2002; northern gannets *Morus bassanus*,

66 Stauss et al. 2012, Cleasby et al. 2015; Hawaiian petrels *Pterodroma sandwichensis*, Wiley et
67 al. 2012; Cory's shearwaters *Calonectris borealis*, Paiva et al. 2017; northern giant petrels
68 *Macronectes halli*, González-Solís et al. 2000). The mechanisms thought to influence sexual
69 segregation include divergent parental roles or nutritional requirements, niche partitioning,
70 competition, and social dominance (Weimerskirch et al. 2009). However, the extent to which
71 IFSF varies between the sexes is not well known. One of the few study systems that have
72 tested for sex differences in foraging individuality, in chick brooding black-browed
73 albatrosses, found that females were more generalist than males (Patrick & Weimerskirch
74 2014), although males showed stronger habitat fidelity than females (Patrick & Weimerskirch
75 2017).

76 Here we studied IFSF in a large pelagic predator, the Campbell albatross, when
77 restricted to foraging from a central place during the breeding season. The Campbell albatross
78 is endemic to Campbell Island, New Zealand (52°32'24"S 169°8'42"E) and travels widely at
79 sea to forage in waters off southern Australia, the Tasman Sea, and the southern Pacific
80 Ocean (Waugh, Sagar, et al. 1999, Sztukowski 2016, Sztukowski et al. 2017). During chick
81 brooding, Campbell albatross demonstrated sex differences in their distance travelled while
82 foraging and also in habitat use (Sztukowski 2016). Such variation may influence IFSF
83 between the sexes. Understanding the extent of IFSF may also be important in terms of
84 conservation. The Campbell albatross population declined from 31,300 pairs in the 1940s to
85 21,648 pairs in 2012 (Waugh, Weimerskirch, et al. 1999, Sagar 2014); this, in addition to its
86 restricted breeding range, habitat degradation, and the threat of fisheries bycatch led to
87 Campbell albatross being listed as vulnerable (BirdLife International 2012). Reversing these
88 population trends and improving the future prospects of this species requires a more detailed
89 understanding of their spatial ecology, including the degree of IFSF.

90 We used precision GPS loggers to reconstruct foraging behaviour during the chick
91 brooding period, with the aim of studying IFSF in Campbell albatrosses. We first quantified
92 the extent to which Campbell albatrosses demonstrate IFSF during repeated foraging trips
93 within the same breeding season, specifically in terms of foraging location (distal point of
94 trips), route fidelity (using nearest neighbour distance), and foraging effort (distances
95 travelled and duration). As well as tracking repeat trips by the same individual within the
96 same year, we also tracked some birds across two years to test for long-term IFSF. This will
97 enable us to determine whether site fidelity occurs in response to short-term availability of
98 prey patches, or is instead a longer-term foraging strategy. Finally, we compared the degree
99 of IFSF between the sexes.

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METHODS

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Instrumentation and tracking

102 Chick brooding Campbell albatrosses were temporarily captured and tagged during
103 the breeding seasons of November and December 2011/2012 and 2012/2013 (hereafter
104 referred to as 2011 and 2012, respectively). Chicks hatched from late November through to
105 mid-December (peak hatch during 2011 and 2012: 6-7 December, n=81 nests). Modified
106 GPS loggers (GT-600 i-gotU, Mobile Action Technology, Taiwan) were attached to the
107 central back feathers of adult albatrosses using Tesa© tape. Modification involved removing
108 the external plastic housing of each logger then applying heat shrink tubing (FiniShrink, UK)
109 to waterproof each unit. The mass of each GPS unit was ~33 g (~1.1% of body mass) and
110 programmed to record its location every ten minutes (referred to as a 'point' hereafter). We
111 studied at-sea foraging behaviour during early to mid-chick rearing; birds were re-captured
112 on the nest to remove the tag and retrieve the data following two or more complete foraging

113 trips determined from nest attendance surveys, generally at the end of the chick brooding
114 stage.

115 **Analysis of tracking data**

116 Foraging trips were reconstructed using the GPS data, from which we calculated three
117 indices for complete foraging trips: (i) foraging route fidelity, (ii) foraging site fidelity, and
118 (iii) foraging effort (details below). All analyses were restricted to individuals with two or
119 more foraging trips; in most instances, our data represent all foraging trips taken by an
120 individual during the chick brooding stage. The degree of IFSF was calculated from 2 to 10
121 trips.

122 *Foraging route fidelity*

123 We calculated individual route fidelity using Nearest Neighbour Distance (NND, in
124 km). This technique quantifies the spatial similarity between a focal trip and a comparison
125 trip by calculating the distance from each location along a track to its nearest neighbour on
126 the comparison track (Biro et al. 2007). The NND calculated between two trips decreases
127 with the spatial similarity between the focal and comparison tracks. NND was calculated for
128 all possible pairs of trips (within individual trips, i.e. a measure of individual route fidelity,
129 and among-individual trips, i.e. a measure of inter-individual variability). Locations < 2km
130 from the colony were removed to exclude non-foraging rafting behaviour near the colony.

131 We used linear mixed-effects models (LMM) to assess whether albatrosses showed
132 route fidelity, by comparing within-individual NND to among-individual NND, first across
133 all years (for the ten birds tracked in both years) and then within each year. To test for long-
134 term IFSF, we first tested whether individuals followed more similar routes within the same
135 year than in different years. Next, we tested for potential sex differences in route fidelity, by
136 comparing within-individual NND between males and females. All models included pair as a

137 random effects and the difference in trip length between each pair of trips as a covariate. In
138 models testing data from multiple years, year was also included as a fixed effect. We
139 compared each model with the null (intercept only) model based upon likelihood-ratio tests
140 (LRT). NND was square root or log transformed to obtain normality.

141 *Foraging site fidelity*

142 To measure foraging site fidelity, we first estimated the terminal latitude and terminal
143 longitude (both in decimal degrees; DD) of each foraging trip. Terminal latitude and
144 longitude were defined as the location at the furthest point from the colony as calculated as a
145 straight-line distance. Based on sea-surface temperature (SST) and landing data, Campbell
146 albatrosses do not foraging actively while commuting to foraging zones (Weimerskirch &
147 Guionnet 2002). We assumed the primary foraging zone was located at the furthest point
148 from the colony, but also qualify route fidelity (see above). We then compared the similarity
149 of these values between repeat distal locations based on repeatability (R , i.e. the proportion of
150 variance in a character that occurs among rather than within individuals or intra-class
151 coefficient; Lessells & Boag 1987) for each sex and year. We used a LMM with restricted
152 maximum likelihood (REML) and included individual as a random factor to account for
153 multiple observations of the same bird. One thousand bootstrapping runs were performed to
154 estimate confidence intervals and standard errors (Nakagawa & Schielzeth 2010). For the
155 subset of individuals tracked in both years, we pooled the data from both years and included
156 sex as a factor in LMM results in an adjusted repeatability (R_{adj}). All LMM analyses were
157 undertaken using the “rptR” package in R (version 3.4.2; R Development Core Team 2017).
158 Metrics for foraging behaviour were considered statistically repeatable if p-values were <
159 0.05 and the degree of specialisation increased as repeatability index values tended towards
160 one.

161 *Foraging effort*

162 Foraging effort was calculated using two metrics: total distance travelled (km) and
163 trip duration (hours), both calculated as the sum of the values from each point-to-point
164 location and then transformed using Box–Cox transformations to obtain normality. We
165 compared individual consistency of foraging effort between each sex and year by calculating
166 repeatability (*R*). For the subset of individuals tracked in both years, we calculated an
167 adjusted repeatability.

168 **RESULTS**

169 **Foraging trip summary**

170 We obtained information on at-sea foraging behaviour from 63 birds (*n* = 237
171 foraging trips): 12 females in 2011 (*n* = 42 foraging trips), 26 females in 2012 (*n* = 80
172 foraging trips), 11 males in 2011 (*n* = 36 foraging trips), and 24 males in 2012 (*n* = 79
173 foraging trips; Fig.1, 2, and Supplemental material). For ten individuals (6 females and 4
174 males), we obtained data in both 2011 and 2012 (Fig. 3). Total trip distances from the colony
175 were, on average, significantly longer for males (mean \pm standard error: 1580.63 \pm 97.93 km)
176 than females (1165.72 \pm 70.74 km; *t* = -3.43, *df* = 209.76, *p* < 0.001) and trip durations were
177 also greater for males (56.53 \pm 3.03 hours) than females (47.59 \pm 2.39 hours; *t* = -2.32, *df* =
178 219.41, *p* = 0.02).

179 **Foraging route fidelity**

180 NNDs demonstrate that Campbell albatrosses showed individually consistent foraging
181 routes, with repeat trips being more similar within than between individuals (Fig 4) – this
182 result being consistent whether drawing comparisons across all years or within the same year

183 (within 2011 LRT: $\chi^2_1 = 17.515$, $p < 0.001$; within 2012 LRT: $\chi^2_1 = 25.002$, $p < 0.001$; across
184 all years LRT: $\chi^2_1 = 26.124$, $p < 0.001$). Moreover, route fidelity varied with sex - females had
185 significantly higher route fidelity compared with males (data pooled for all years; LRT: $\chi^2_1 =$
186 4.5277 , $p = 0.033$; Fig. 5). Trip length and year were both retained in the models, so these
187 differences are not simply a function of the shorter foraging trips of females.

188 **Foraging site fidelity**

189 During 2-10 repeat trips, both males and females showed similar repeatability values
190 (Table 1). Repeatability of terminal latitude and longitude was significant for both sexes and
191 within years, with the exception of females in 2011. Foraging site fidelity was generally
192 higher in 2012 than 2011, with the highest repeatability estimates for male terminal longitude
193 in 2012 (Table 1). For the ten individual with data from both years ($n = 59$ foraging trips),
194 repeatability of terminal longitude was significant ($R_{adj} = 0.376 \pm 0.155$, $p = 0.007$). Latitude
195 was not significantly repeatable across years ($R_{adj} = 0.166 \pm 0.125$, $p = 0.158$).

196 **Foraging effort**

197 Analysis of within-individual variation in total distance travelled and trip duration of
198 foraging trips reveals that females tended to have higher within-individual variation than
199 among-individual variation (Table 1). Females were significantly repeatable in total distance
200 travelled and trip duration within both years, whereas males were significantly repeatable in
201 total distance travelled in 2012 (Table 1).

202 Total distance travelled was consistent across both years ($R_{adj} = 0.260 \pm 0.137$, $p =$
203 0.023), but duration of foraging trips was not significantly repeatable across years ($R_{adj} =$
204 0.149 ± 0.116 , $p = 0.109$).

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DISCUSSION

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207 During chick brooding, Campbell albatrosses tended to show consistent foraging
208 routes, foraging sites, and foraging effort, suggesting a degree of IFSF. Moreover, for ten
209 birds tracked in two breeding seasons, there was evidence of inter-annual route and site
210 fidelity, indicating that the observed within-year patterns were not simply a response to short-
211 term profitable foraging opportunities (Table 1, Fig 1 - 4). Previous studies of albatrosses
212 have also shown variation with respect to IFSF; for instance, individual shy albatrosses
213 (*Thalassarche cauta*) consistently searched the same broad patch of ocean within a breeding
214 stage, although individuals did not show fidelity to these patches across years (Hedd et al.
215 2001). Wandering albatrosses (*Diomedea exulans*) also showed short-term consistency in
216 habitat use and trophic level; in the long-term, however, individuals were consistent in habitat
217 use but not trophic niche (Ceia et al. 2012). Black-browed albatrosses showed similar
218 patterns in terms of IFSF as shown in the present study, with strong within-year individuality
219 that persisted, to an extent, across years (Patrick & Weimerskirch 2017). Moreover, Patrick &
220 Weimerskirch (2017) showed that increased site fidelity was linked with higher reproductive
221 success.

222 One of our key findings is that there were differences in the degree of IFSF between
223 the sexes (Fig. 2, Supplemental material, Table 1). Males travelled further, had longer trip
224 durations, and more consistent terminal longitude than females. Females were, however,
225 more consistent in terms of their foraging route and effort (Fig 2, Supplemental material,
226 Table 1). Previous research into how sex affects specialisation found diverse results. In the
227 closely related black-browed albatross breeding on Kerguelen, males showed more consistent
228 foraging locations than females (Patrick & Weimerskirch 2014). The reasons for the
229 difference from our study are unclear, but may be related to density dependence, since the
230 degree of individual specialisation has been shown theoretically and experimentally to be

231 linked with increased intraspecific competition (Svanbäck & Bolnick 2005, 2007, Bolnick et
232 al. 2010). In our study, females Campbell albatross remained closer to the colony on the
233 Campbell Plateau, where competition is higher, and had a higher degree of route fidelity
234 compared with the more pelagic males. There may also be other factors at play. For instance,
235 studies of three species of inshore foraging pursuit diving shag and cormorant found that
236 females tend to be more consistent in foraging behaviour than males, which was explained by
237 a combination of morphological differences influencing resource accessibility, niche
238 partitioning, and prey choice (Kato et al. 2000, Cook et al. 2005, Ratcliffe et al. 2013). Size
239 may be important in our study species since male Campbell albatross are on average 7.2%
240 heavier than females (Sztukowski 2016), which could affect foraging energetics and
241 behaviour. For example, wing length, wing area, mass, and associated wing loading were
242 consistent with the foraging distribution of male and female wandering albatrosses, which is
243 sexually dimorphic species; the morphological differences may be adaptive to exploiting
244 wind conditions associated with their associated habitats (Shaffer et al. 2001). Niche
245 partitioning may also be present. Female Campbell albatrosses tend to forage on the
246 Campbell Plateau were individuals fed predominantly on fish, whereas birds foraging in more
247 oceanic waters and around the polar front, where males tended to forage, feed mostly on
248 squid (NIWA 1999). However, while size may influence sex-specific foraging specialisation
249 and niche partitioning, specialisation may be linked to competition through size dimorphism,
250 reproductive role, or competitive exclusion (Phillips et al. 2004, Catry et al. 2006, Phillips et
251 al. 2011). Thus, while the factors driving sexual variation in specialisation may be similar to
252 those factors associated with sexual segregation, which include competitive exclusion, or
253 niche specialization associated with breeding role or morphology (Peters et al. 1983, Petit et
254 al. 1990, Marra 2000, Shaffer et al. 2001, Phillips et al. 2004, 2011, Catry et al. 2006,
255 Weimerskirch et al. 2009), more research is required to elucidate the mechanisms.

256 Highly repeatable terminal latitudes and longitudes indicate that Campbell albatrosses
257 commute to consistent foraging locations suggesting that individuals use previous knowledge
258 to inform foraging decisions (Votier et al. 2017). The birds tracked over two years also
259 tended to show similar foraging site fidelity, routes and total distance travelled. Such longer-
260 term consistency suggests that the within-year consistency is not simply in response to short-
261 term patches of food (e.g. a win-stay, lose-shift tactic; Wakefield et al. 2015). Longer-term
262 site fidelity, like those found in our study, may provide energetic advantages over an
263 individual's lifetime despite environmental variability (Bradshaw et al. 2004). Thus, foraging
264 site fidelity, in conjunction with fine-scale location adjustments within areas associated with
265 predictable resources, may confer consistent energy intake (Bradshaw et al. 2004, Patrick et
266 al. 2014).

267 To conclude, our study shows that there was generally a high degree of IFSF among
268 chick brooding Campbell albatrosses, and individual consistency in foraging sites persisted
269 across two consecutive years. However females, which remained closer to the colony to
270 forage in neritic/shelf habitats, had a higher degree of route fidelity and more repeatable
271 foraging effort compared with males which tend to use pelagic waters. While the causes of
272 these differences remain unclear, our research highlights the possibility that threats posed by
273 fisheries bycatch are not uniformly distributed across individuals or sexes within the
274 population, due to differences in their overlap with fisheries and reliance on fisheries waste
275 (Ryan 1999, Nel et al. 2002, Votier et al. 2010, Bugoni et al. 2011, Torres et al. 2011,
276 Barbraud et al. 2013, Torres et al. 2013). Further work should explore how these changes in
277 site fidelity vary across the breeding season, as well as quantifying the potential impact of
278 such risks.

279

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462 **Table 1:** Repeatability ($R \pm$ Standard Error, p-values in parentheses) of female (12
 463 individuals in 2011, n= 42 foraging trips; 26 individuals in 2012, n= 80 foraging trips) and
 464 male (11 individuals in 2011, n=36 foraging trips; 24 individuals in 2012, n= 79 foraging
 465 trips) Campbell albatross foraging site fidelity and foraging effort. Significant repeatability
 466 estimates are highlighted in bold.

Foraging effort	Female	Male
Total distance (km)		
2011	0.344±0.172 (p=0.039)	0.074±0.129 (p=0.362)
2012	0.340±0.126 (p=0.003)	0.215±0.121 (p=0.039)
Trip duration (hrs)		
2011	0.434±0.167 (p=0.016)	0.099±0.134 (p=0.327)
2012	0.322±0.127 (p=0.003)	0.059±0.086 (p=0.336)
Foraging site fidelity	Female	Male
Terminal latitude (DD)		
2011	0.295±0.172 (p=0.115)	0.366±0.179 (p=0.024)
2012	0.554±0.110 (p<0.001)	0.394±0.122 (p<0.001)
Terminal longitude (DD)		
2011	0.356±0.173 (p=0.095)	0.399±0.173 (p=0.013)
2012	0.538±0.114 (p<0.001)	0.603±0.107 (p<0.001)

467

468 **Figure 1.** Foraging trips taken by female (in red) and males (in yellow) Campbell albatrosses
469 in 2011 (panel 1) and 2012 (panel 2). The location of Campbell Island is indicated by the
470 white triangle.

471 **Figure 2.** Foraging trips taken by individual Campbell albatrosses. First column illustrates
472 the highest route fidelity (lowest NND) within each sex and year. Second column shows
473 foraging trips from the median individual from each sex-year category when individuals were
474 ranked from lowest average NND to highest average NND. Individual foraging trips in the
475 third columns demonstrate low levels of route fidelity (highest NND). Distal locations for
476 each foraging trip are indicated in green and the location of Campbell Island is highlighted by
477 the white triangle. All foraging trips are available in the supplemental materials which are
478 grouped by sex and year.

479 **Figure 3.** Foraging trips taken by individual Campbell albatrosses tracked in both 2011 (in
480 red) and 2012 (in yellow). Distal locations for each foraging trip are indicated in green and
481 the location of Campbell Island is highlighted by the white triangle. Panels are grouped by
482 sex.

483 **Figure 4.** Nearest-neighbour distance ($\text{NND} \pm \text{s.d. in km}$) shows that individual route fidelity
484 across all years is greater within individuals than among individuals.

485 **Figure 5.** Nearest-neighbour distance ($\text{NND} \pm \text{s.d. in km}$) shows that females tend to have
486 higher route fidelity than males.

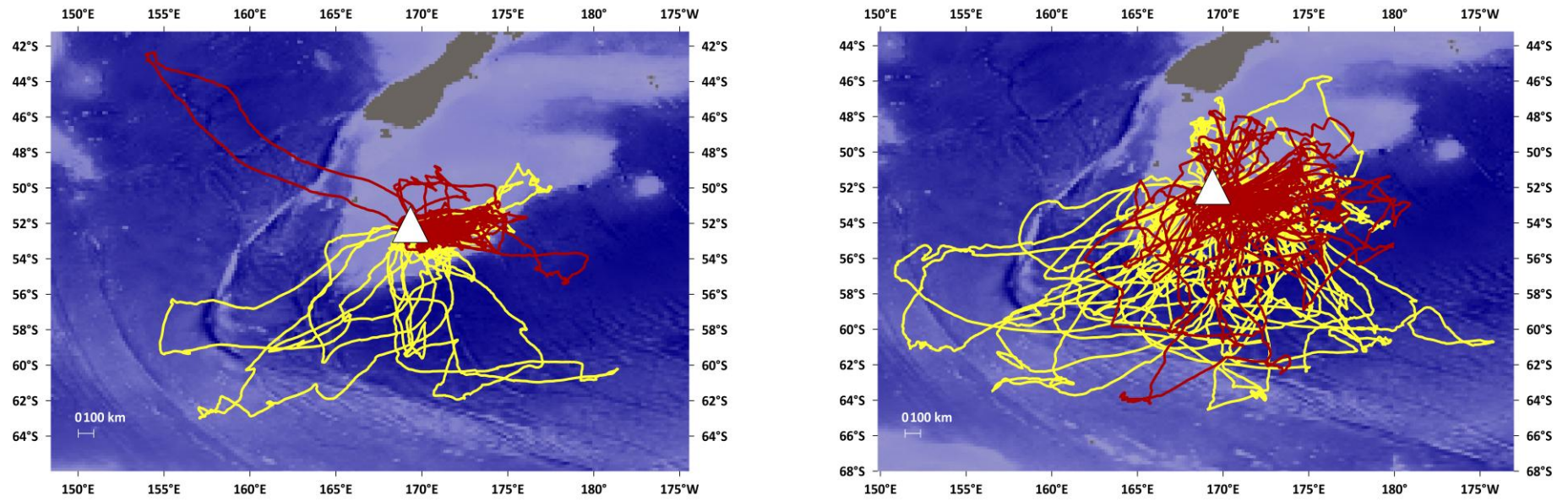
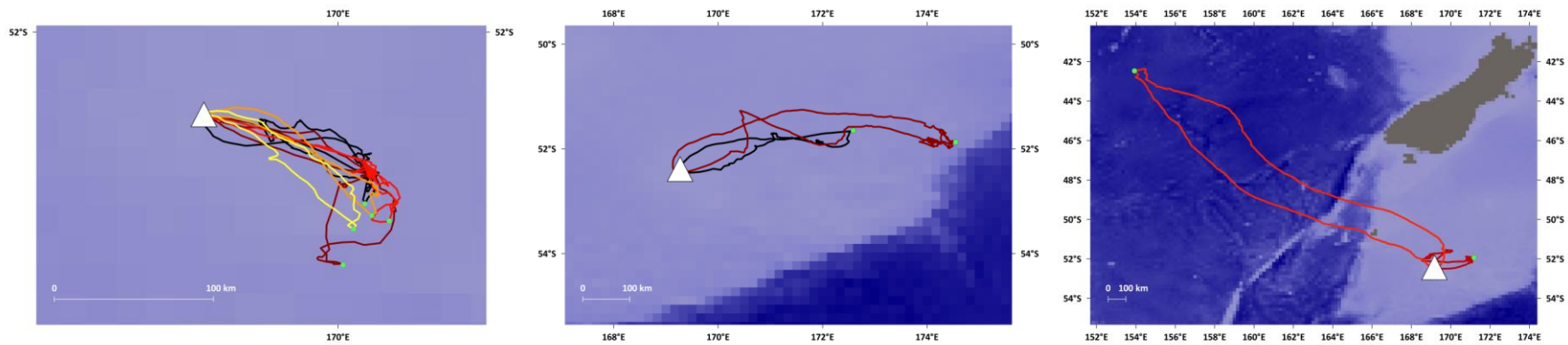


Figure 1

Female 2011



Male 2011

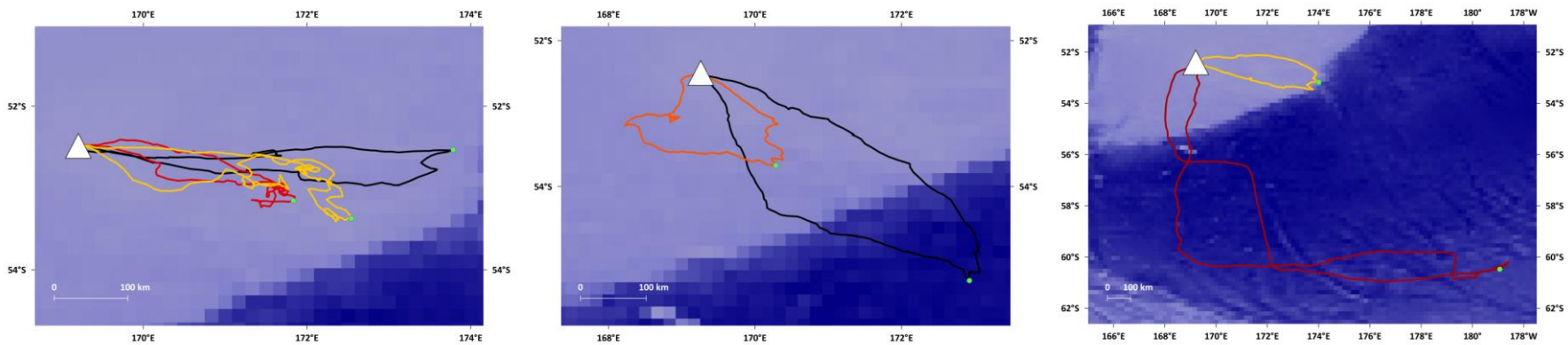
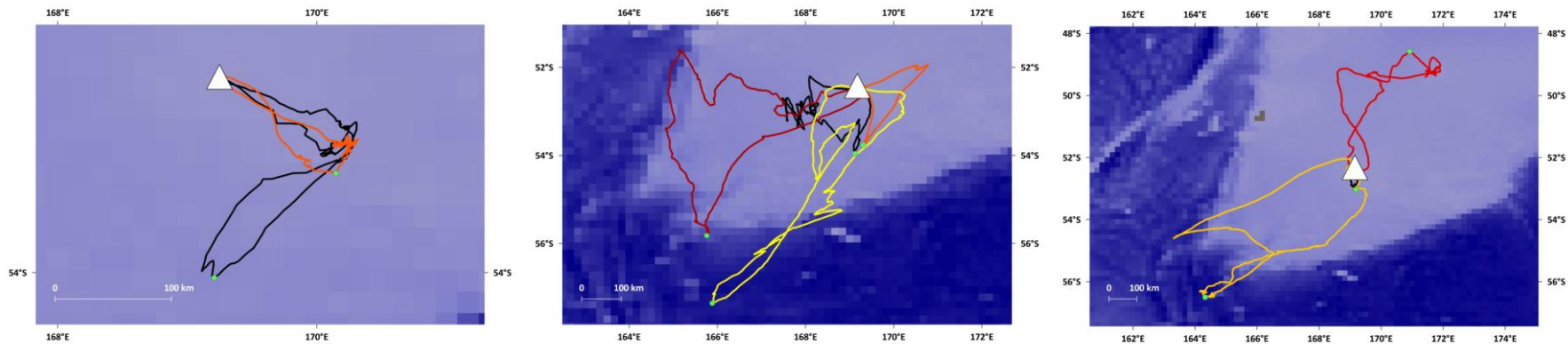


Figure 2

Female 2012



Male 2012

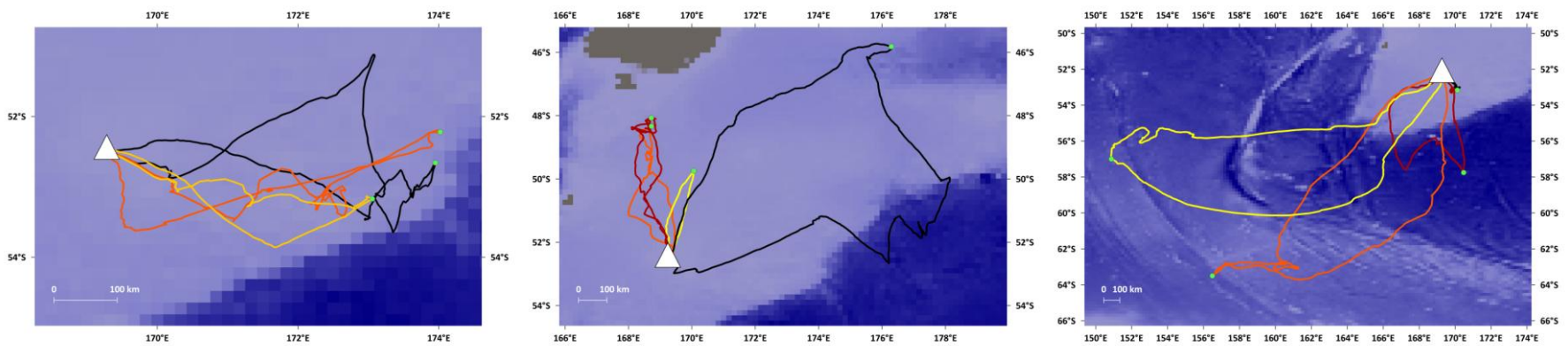


Figure 2 continued

Female

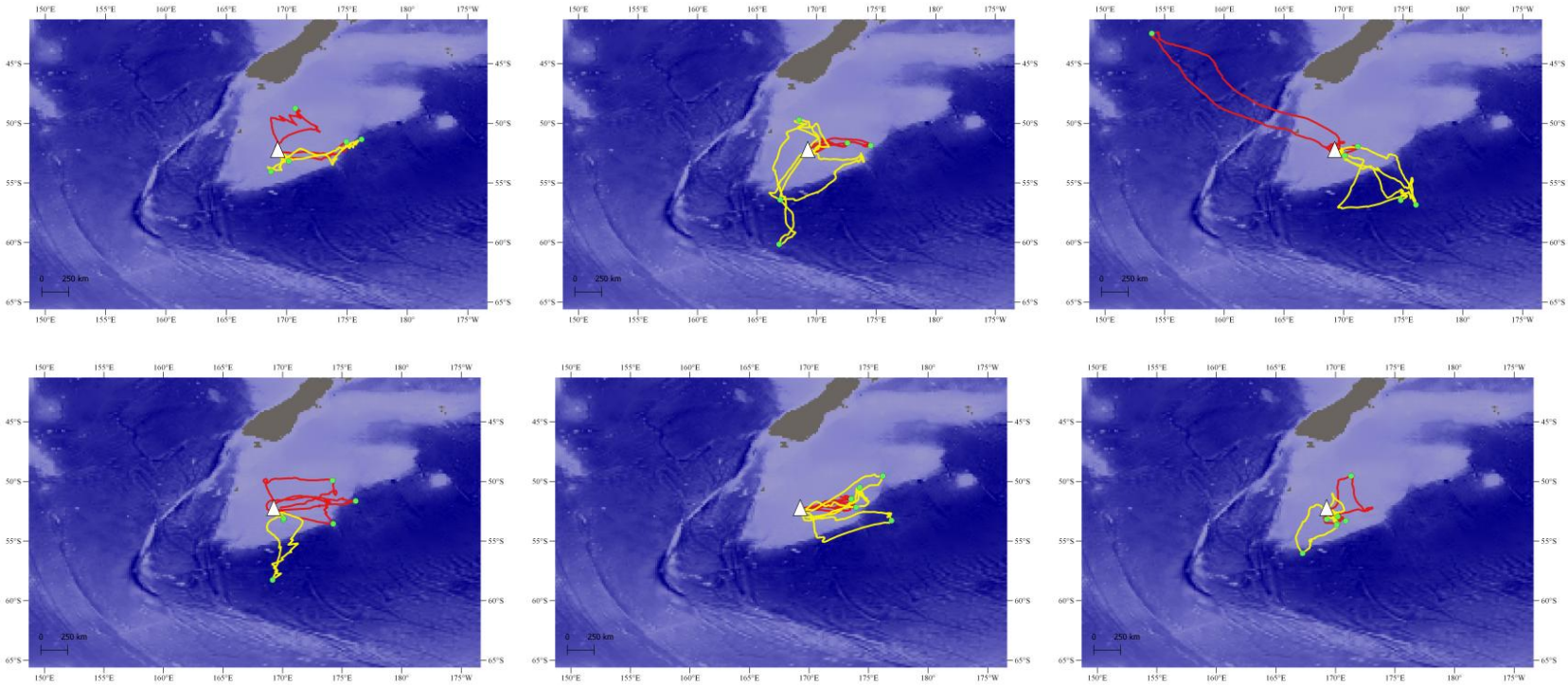


Figure 3

Male

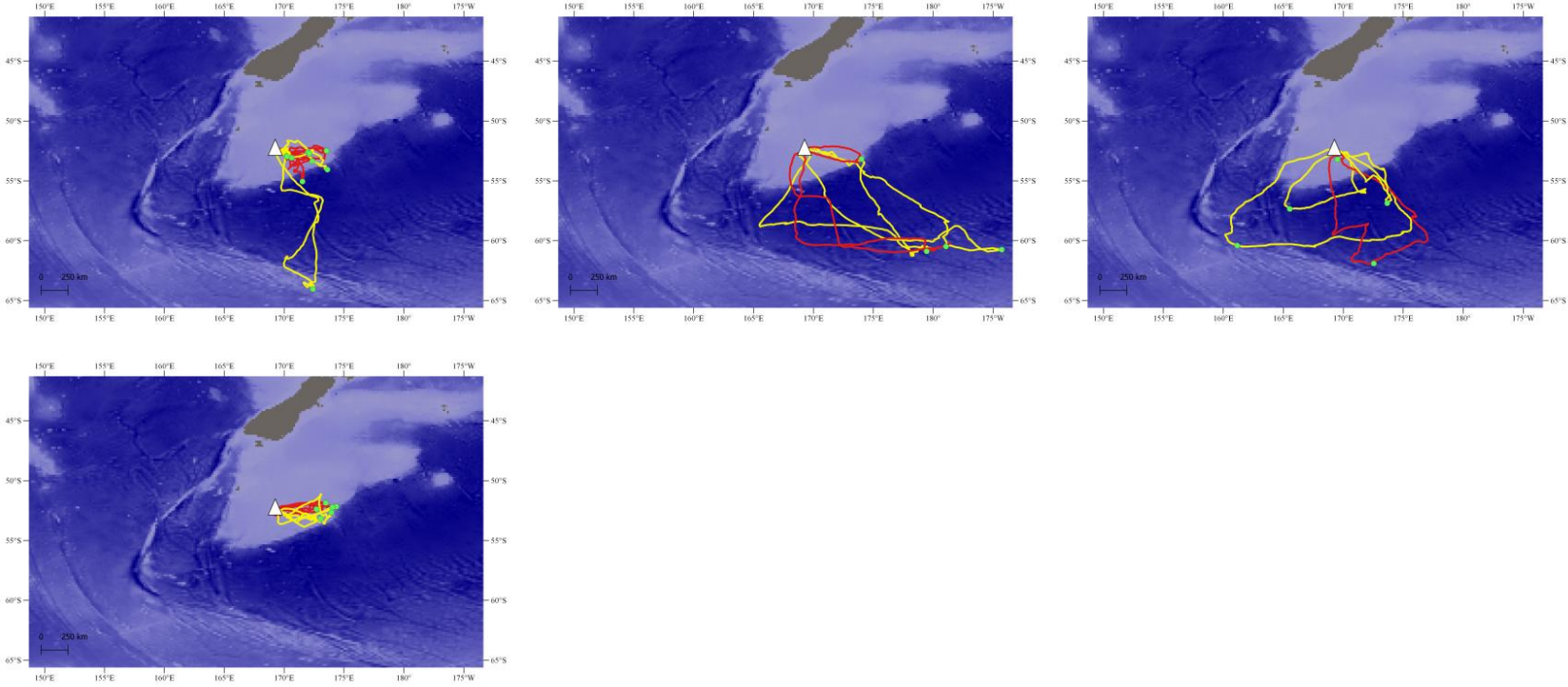


Figure 3 continued

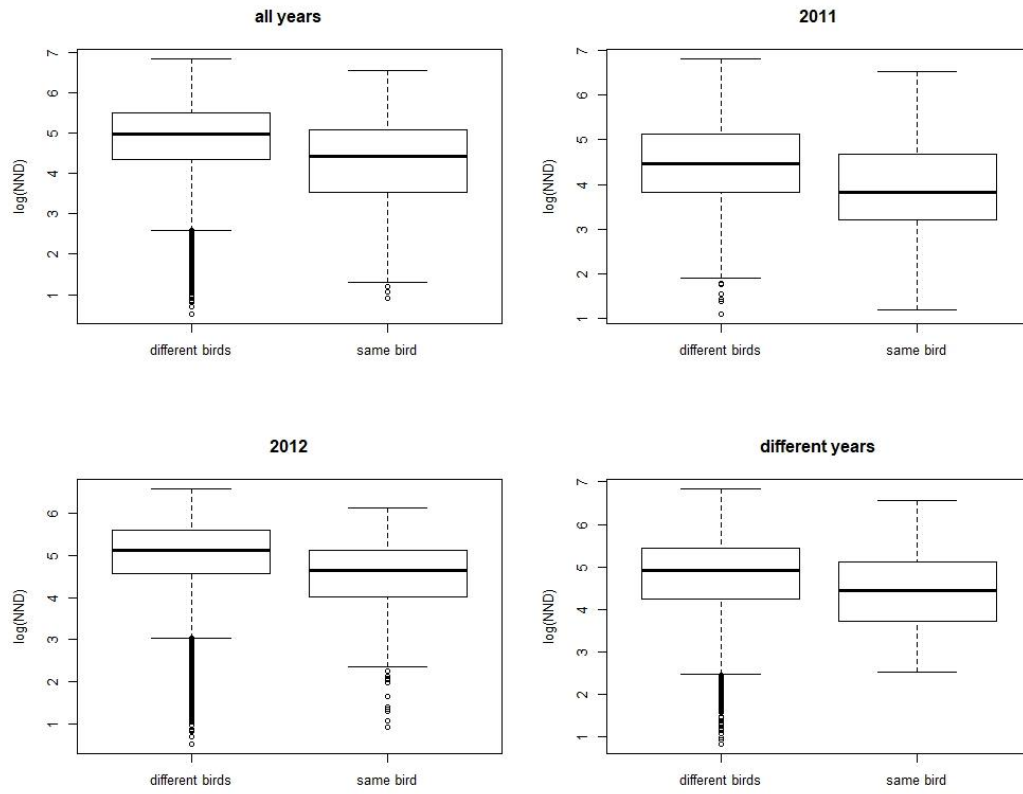


Figure 4

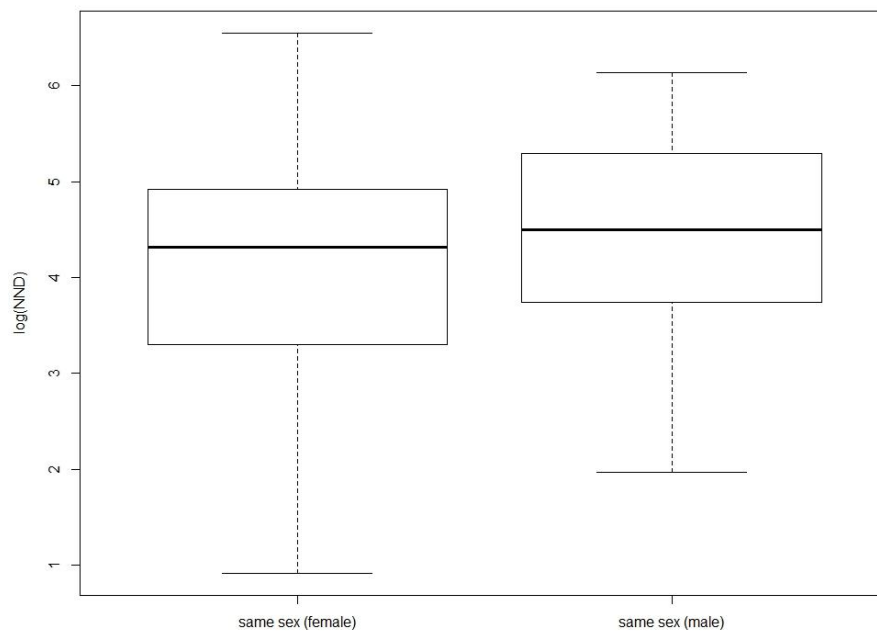


Figure 5