

1 **Spatial variation in the relationship between performance and metabolic rate in wild**
2 **juvenile Atlantic salmon**

3

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1 **Summary**

2 **1.** Maintenance metabolic rate (*MR*, the energy cost of self-maintenance) is linked to
3 behavioural traits and fitness and varies substantially within populations. Despite having
4 received much attention, the causes and consequences of this variation remain obscure.

5 **2.** Theoretically, such within-population variation in fitness-related traits can be maintained
6 by environmental heterogeneity in selection patterns, but for *MR* this has rarely been tested in
7 nature.

8 **3.** Here, we experimentally test if the relationship between *MR* and performance can vary
9 spatially by assessing survival, growth rate and movement of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.)
10 juveniles from 10 family groups differing in *MR* (measured as egg metabolism) that were
11 stocked in parallel across 10 tributaries of a single watershed.

12 **4.** The relationship between *MR* and relative survival and growth rate varied significantly
13 among tributaries. Specifically, the effect of *MR* ranged from negative to positive for relative
14 survival, whereas it was negative for growth rate. The association between *MR* and movement
15 was positive and did not vary significantly among tributaries.

16 **5.** These results are consistent with a fitness cost of traits associated with behavioural
17 dominance that varies across relatively small spatial scales (within a single watershed). More
18 generally our results support the hypothesis that spatial heterogeneity in environmental
19 conditions contributes to maintain within-population variation in fitness-related traits, such as
20 *MR*.

21

22 **Key-words:** dispersal, energetics, intraspecific variation, natural selection, standard metabolic
23 rate

24

1 **Introduction**

2 Maintenance metabolic rate (*MR*, the minimum energy required to support basic life functions)
3 is increasingly recognised as being linked to behavioural traits (Bryant & Newton 1994;
4 Mathot *et al.* 2009; Biro & Stamps 2010; Huntingford *et al.* 2010; Killen, Marras &
5 McKenzie 2011) and ultimately fitness (Jackson, Trayhurn & Speakman 2001; Artacho &
6 Nespolo 2009; Boratyński & Koteja 2009; Larivée *et al.* 2010; Boratyński *et al.* 2010).
7 Furthermore, *MR* commonly varies extensively among individuals within populations
8 (McNab 1988; Metcalfe, Taylor & Thorpe 1995; Burness, Ydenberg & Hochachka 1998;
9 Nespolo, Lardies & Bozinovic 2003a) as well as among populations (Lahti *et al.* 2002;
10 Lardies & Bozinovic 2006, 2008), and some of the variation seems to be genetically based
11 (Nespolo, Bacigalupe & Bozinovic 2003b; Sadowska *et al.* 2005; Nilsson, Akesson & Nilsson
12 2009; Tieleman *et al.* 2009; Kaseloo *et al.* 2012; Zub *et al.* 2012; Boratyński *et al.* 2013, but
13 see Bacigalupe, Nespolo & Bustamante 2004). Several hypotheses explaining maintenance of
14 within-population variation in *MR* have been proposed (reviewed in Burton *et al.* 2011) but
15 the underlying mechanisms remain largely unknown. Among the suggested hypotheses is
16 environmental heterogeneity in selection patterns (Burton *et al.* 2011). This hypothesis is
17 circumstantially supported by laboratory studies suggesting that selection on *MR* can vary
18 depending on food availability (e.g. Bochdansky *et al.* 2005). The demonstration that
19 selection on *MR* can vary temporally in bank voles in the wild (*Myodes glareolus*, Boratyński
20 & Koteja 2010) provides further support. Temporal environmental variation is, however,
21 likely to be less powerful than spatial variation in maintaining genetic variation (Bulmer 1971;
22 Ellner & Hairston 1994). Thus, studies that examine whether the performance consequences
23 of different levels of *MR* can vary spatially under natural conditions are needed.

24

1 It is also of interest that foregoing studies on consequences of environmental conditions for
2 effects of *MR* on performance have all treated *MR* at the individual level (e.g. Reid,
3 Armstrong & Metcalfe, 2011, 2012). However, *MR* also varies at the family level (Pakkasmaa,
4 Penttinen & Piironen 2006). Hence, the relative performance of juveniles from families with
5 different mean *MR* could be expected to vary depending on environmental conditions, and
6 thus vary in time and/or space.

7
8 Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) juveniles are well suited for studies of spatial variation of
9 costs and benefits (in terms of e.g. survival) associated with different *MR* levels. First, both
10 abiotic and biotic environmental conditions in nursery streams vary considerably across space
11 within populations (e.g. Arnekleiv, Finstad & Rønning 2006; Finstad *et al.* 2009; Einum *et al.*
12 2011). Second, natural selection during the juvenile stage can be both strong and spatially
13 variable, as illustrated by studies of selection on egg size and timing of emergence from nests
14 (Einum & Fleming 2000; Skoglund, Einum & Robertsen 2011; Robertsen, Skoglund &
15 Einum 2013). Third, salmonids commonly inhabit small streams which are relatively easy to
16 sample accurately, and produce relatively large eggs that can be artificially fertilised and
17 planted in the wild. Fourth, their within-population variation in *MR* is pronounced and likely
18 associated with both genetic variation (Pakkasmaa *et al.* 2006) and maternal effects
19 (Pakkasmaa *et al.* 2006; Régnier *et al.* 2010; Rossignol *et al.* 2010; Sloman 2010). Finally, the
20 link between behaviour and *MR* in salmonid juveniles has been the subject of numerous
21 studies. According to these studies, individuals with high *MR* have higher dominance ranks
22 and exhibit more aggressive behaviour compared to those with low *MR* (e.g. Metcalfe *et al.*
23 1989, 1995; Cutts, Adams & Campbell 2001; McCarthy 2001; Lahti *et al.* 2002).

24

1 To test for the occurrence and nature of variation in the relationship between families in *MR*
2 and performance across a range of environmental conditions, we conducted a large-scale field
3 experiment with juvenile Atlantic salmon from 10 families across 10 streams located within a
4 single watershed. Specifically, we tested whether mean family egg *MR* influenced
5 performance of the resulting offspring in terms of survival, growth rate and movement, and
6 whether such effects varied spatially.

7

8 **Methods**

9 EXPERIMENTAL FISH AND STUDY SITES

10 Twenty adult Atlantic salmon caught during October 2007 in a fish trap in the River
11 Blackwater, a tributary of the River Conon, Ross-shire, Scotland, were used to produce 10
12 full-sib families. All fertilizations were done on the same day and samples of the parents'
13 adipose fins were taken and stored in ethanol for later genetic analyses. The fertilized family
14 groups of eggs were incubated separately in a hatchery at Contin. From each family, 20 eyed
15 eggs were fixed in a 4% formalin buffer and weighed (± 0.1 mg). The mean egg mass differed
16 significantly among the families (range: 0.095 – 0.180 g, ANOVA: $F_{9,190} = 460$, $P < 0.001$).
17 To quantify timing of emergence from nests, 10 eggs were randomly sampled from each
18 family and planted in an artificial nest in the hatchery. Subsequently, the timing of emergence
19 was recorded and genetic samples (fin clips) of the juveniles taken. Median date of emergence
20 did not differ by more than 2.5 days among families whereas the median maximum difference
21 within families was 5.5. Accordingly, the within-family variation in emergence timing was
22 much larger than the among-family variation. Emergence timing was therefore not included
23 as a variable when analysing the data. During 17-26 February 2008, eyed eggs were stocked
24 in 10 tributaries of the River Conon (Table 1). Eggs from the different family groups were
25 placed in separate Vibert boxes (Federation of Fly Fishermen, Bozeman, MT, USA) which

1 were placed in a depression in the stream bed gravel and covered with gravel and larger
2 stones. To ensure sufficient variation in environmental conditions tributaries were chosen
3 from across a wide range of altitudes (65 - 484 m.a.s.l., see Table 1). In addition, two release
4 number treatments were allocated randomly to the 10 tributaries (five with 1000 eggs, and
5 five with 3000 eggs). Each tributary received an equal number of eggs from each family (i.e.
6 100 or 300). All of these tributaries are located above barriers to migration of naturally
7 occurring Atlantic salmon. However, older salmon (≥ 1 years age, resulting from previous
8 stockings) were present in seven of the tributaries, and all the tributaries except one had
9 naturally occurring brown trout populations (see Table 1, Einum *et al.* 2011 for details). Thus,
10 differences in stocking treatments combined with variation in biotic and abiotic factors among
11 tributaries ensured substantial variation in the environmental conditions experienced by the
12 juvenile salmon.

13

14 MEASUREMENT OF METABOLIC RATE

15 Since it was logistically impractical to measure *MR* of juveniles in sufficient numbers to
16 perform a valid field experiment, this was measured in eyed eggs. The families had their *MR*
17 measured simultaneously in the hatchery (21-27 February 2008). Values of mean family egg
18 *MR* were obtained by putting groups of eggs in sealed plastic bottles (0.5 L) that were filled
19 with water. Two trials were conducted using 30 and 50 eggs from each family and lasted for
20 ~78 and 62 h, respectively. Two bottles containing water but no eggs served as controls in
21 each trial. At regular time intervals (ca. every 14 h) all bottles were gently turned upside down
22 to prevent formation of oxygen gradients. Temperatures stayed between 5-6°C during both
23 trials. Total oxygen consumption in each bottle was measured with a micro cathode oxygen
24 electrode (model 1320) connected to an oxygen meter (model 781, Strathkelvin Instruments
25 Ltd, Glasgow, Scotland). Oxygen consumption in the bottles containing eggs was calculated

1 relative to controls. Mean family-specific O₂ consumption (mg egg⁻¹ hour⁻¹) in the 1st and 2nd
2 trial were significantly correlated ($r^2 = 0.73$, $F_{1,8} = 22.1$, $P = 0.002$) and family-specific
3 oxygen consumption from the two trials ranged from 0.54 to 0.66 μg egg⁻¹ hour⁻¹. To obtain
4 family specific estimates of metabolic rates while controlling for variation in egg mass, the
5 mean amount of O₂ consumed per egg per hour by each family in the two trials was regressed
6 against mean family egg mass. Because of the allometric relationship between *MR* and body
7 size, oxygen consumption and egg mass were ln-transformed prior to the regression to
8 linearize the relationship ($r^2 = 0.63$, $F_{1,8} = 13.7$, $P = 0.006$). The family-specific residuals
9 from this regression were not significantly correlated with egg mass ($r_s = 0.59$, $P = 0.075$),
10 and were used when testing for effects of mass-specific metabolic rates on juvenile
11 performance.

12

13 SAMPLING

14 Following fry emergence the Vibert boxes were retrieved from the nest sites and the number
15 of dead eggs counted to quantify the number of juveniles hatched from each family. During
16 15–24th July 2008 all the tributaries were electrofished from 150 m below the nest site to 50 m
17 above it, or until a migration barrier was reached within those 50 m. In one tributary, where
18 initial sampling suggested extensive movement, stretches further downstream than 150 m
19 from the nest site were sampled. Depending on logistic constraints, 1-3 passes were
20 conducted in each tributary. When caught, young of the year salmon were killed by a blow to
21 the head before being put in plastic tubes containing ethanol for later processing, including
22 fork length measurements and clipping of fins for genetic analyses to identify their family
23 origin. The location where individuals were caught was recorded to the nearest 1 m relative to
24 the nest site.

25

1 GENOTYPING AND PARENTAL ALLOCATION

2 To assign individual juveniles to their respective family groups, fin clips of the recaptured
3 juveniles and of the parental fish were genotyped by Matís-Prokaria (Reykjavik, Iceland)
4 using eight microsatellite markers. DNA was extracted using Chelex (Biorad 10%) (Walsh,
5 Metzger & Higuchi 1991). The PCR reactions were performed in 15 µl volumes, and
6 consisted of 5 µl DNA template (1/10 dilution), 1U of T_{eg} DNA polymerase (3 U/µl) (Matís-
7 Prokaria, Iceland) (comparable with Taq DNA polymerase), 1.5 µl of 10 x buffer, 1.5 µl of
8 dNTP (10 mM), and the following amount of reverse and forward primers (100 µM) were
9 amplified in a single PCR: *SSsp3016* (0.075 µl), *SSsp2210* (0.075 µl), *SSspG7* (0.075 µl),
10 *Ssa197* (0.050 µl), *Ssa171* (0.100 µl), *Ssa202* (0.100 µl), *SSsp2201* (0.125 µl), *SsaD157*
11 (0.150 µl) (O'Reilly *et al.* 1996; Gibley *et al.* 2004; Paterson *et al.* 2004; King, Eackles &
12 Letcher 2005; Withler, Supernault & Miller 2005). The forward primers were fluorescently
13 labelled with FAM (*SSsp2210*, *Ssa202*), VIC (*Ssa197*, *SsaD157*), PET (*SSspG7*, *SSsp2201*)
14 and NED (*Ssa171*, *SSsp3016*), and all reverse primers were fitted with a GTTTCTT PIG-tail
15 (Brownstein, Carpten & Smith 1996). PCR was performed in a MJ Research PTC-225 and
16 conducted as follows: 4 min denaturation at 94 °C followed by 30 cycles of 94 °C for 50 s,
17 56 °C for 50 s and 72 °C for 90 s. Final extension was conducted for 7 min at 72 °C. PCR
18 products were run on an ABI 3730 DNA Analyser (Applied Biosystem) and were size-called
19 according to the 500LIZ™ standard. Alleles were automatically called and manually checked
20 in GeneMapper V4.0. PAPA V2.0 (Duchesne, Godbout & Bernatchez 2002) was used to
21 assign individual offspring to parents.

22

23 FAMILY-SPECIFIC PERFORMANCE

24 Movement (*M*) was measured as the absolute distance between where an individual was
25 captured and the nest site. Growth (*G*) was calculated for each individual as daily growth

1 ([final length – mean family length at emergence]/number of days) between median date of
2 emergence in each tributary (predicted based on tributary temperatures recorded using loggers
3 and the development model of Crisp [1981, 1988]), and sampling. To standardise data among
4 tributaries, only fish captured between 50 m upstream and 150 m downstream of the nest site
5 were included for *M* and *G*. Family-specific apparent survival (*S*) was measured as the ratio
6 between total number of recaptured individuals from each family in each tributary and the
7 corresponding number of eggs hatched (i.e. controlling for egg mortality). Even though this is
8 not an accurate measure of absolute survival, as not all salmon juveniles in the tributaries
9 were recaptured, it represents an appropriate measure of relative survival among families
10 within tributaries. Furthermore, the spatial distribution of recaptured individuals (decrease in
11 numbers at the upper and lower limits of the sampling sites) suggested that the reaches over
12 which samples were obtained included the majority of juveniles (Fig. 1).

13

14 STATISTICAL ANALYSES

15 All statistical analyses were conducted in R, v. 2.15.1 (2012). Statistical models that include
16 interaction terms between *MR* and tributary identity (*T*) were used to test whether the
17 relationship between relative performance (*M*, *G* and *S*) and family-specific mean *MR* (for
18 absolute *MR*, see Supporting information). To control for the effect of egg mass, mean family
19 egg mass (*E*) and its interactions with tributary identity were added in the models. When
20 testing whether movement away from the nest site or growth was related to family level *MR*
21 or *E* and whether any such effect varied among tributaries, linear mixed models (LMM) with
22 Gaussian distributions and family (*k*) as random factors (intercept, *b*) were used. Thus, the
23 initial model for movement for individual *i* belonging to family *k* in tributary *j* can be
24 represented as:

25

1 $M_i = \alpha T_j + \beta_1 MR_k + \beta_2 E_k + \beta_3 MR_k T_j + \beta_4 E_k T_j + b_k + \varepsilon_i$

2

3 and for growth (G):

4

5 $G_i = \alpha T_j + \beta_1 MR_k + \beta_2 E_k + \beta_3 MR_k T_j + \beta_4 E_k T_j + b_k + \varepsilon_i$

6

7 where ε is the residual error and α and β are fixed factors. To test for relationships between
8 survival and MR (and egg mass), and whether these relationships varied among tributaries (T),
9 we applied a generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) with a binomial error structure.

10 Because survival (S) was a family (k) specific measure per tributary (j), the initial model can
11 be described as:

12

13 $S_{jk} = \alpha T_j + \beta_1 MR_k + \beta_2 E_k + \beta_3 MR_k T_j + \beta_4 E_k T_j + b_k + \varepsilon_{jk}$

14

15 For LMM and GLMM we used the function *lmer* from the *lme4* package (Bates & Maechler
16 2010). Evaluation of fixed effects was done according to the protocol recommended in Zuur
17 *et al.* (2009), and was thus based on sequential removal of fixed effects with subsequent
18 comparisons until log-likelihoods decreased significantly ($P < 0.05$). For main fixed effects P
19 -values from the final linear mixed models (with Gaussian error distribution) were obtained
20 using the function *pvals.fnc* from the *languageR* package (Baayen 2010).

21

22 **Results**

23 GENOTYPING

24 Out of a total of 2720 genotyped juveniles, seven samples did not give DNA of sufficient
25 quality to do genetic analyses. These seven were removed from the data set. A total of 2663

1 samples were assigned to parents, including individuals retrieved further down than 150 m
2 below nest sites.

3

4 MOVEMENT

5 When testing for effects of *MR* and egg mass on the relative movement of individuals within
6 tributaries, the interaction between *MR* and tributary identity could be removed, whereas the
7 interaction between egg mass and tributary as well as the main effect of *MR* was left in the
8 final model (Table 2). Thus, the relationship between *MR* and relative movement did not vary
9 significantly among tributaries, whereas the relationship between egg mass and relative
10 movement did. According to this model, distance moved away from the nest site was
11 positively related to *MR* (slope estimate $\pm SE$: 169.90 ± 79.77 , $t = 2.13$, $P = 0.03$) and overall
12 negatively related to egg mass (all tributary-specific estimates of egg mass effects on
13 movement were negative, see Fig. 3a and Fig. S1, Supporting information). In this model the
14 random intercept for family accounted for 4.5 % of the variation (value for variance of
15 random intercept and residual variance: 71.32 and 1511.11).

16

17 GROWTH

18 The model selection dealing with effects of *MR* and egg mass on growth rate showed stream-
19 specific relationships between growth rate and both *MR* and egg mass (Table 2). In this model
20 the random intercept for family gave 3.4% of the variation (value for variance of random
21 intercept and residual variance: 0.0001 and 0.0037). According to this model, individuals
22 belonging to a family with a high mean egg *MR* had a lower daily growth rate than
23 individuals from families with lower egg *MR*, but the strength of this relationship varied
24 among tributaries (Fig. 2a and Fig. S2a, Supporting information). The relationship between
25 mean family egg mass and daily growth was not consistent among tributaries and ranged from

1 positive in some tributaries, to negative in others (Fig. 3b and Fig. S2b, Supporting
2 information).

3

4 APPARENT SURVIVAL

5 All main factors and interaction terms were retained in the final model when testing for
6 effects of *MR* and egg mass on apparent survival (Table 2). Accordingly, the relationships
7 between and egg *MR* and survival, and egg mass and survival, were tributary-specific. The
8 slope of the relationship between egg *MR* and apparent survival ranged from negative to
9 positive across streams (Fig. 2b and Fig. S3a, Supporting information). The slopes of the
10 relationships between egg mass and apparent survival were either positive or close to zero
11 (Fig. 3c and Fig. S3b, Supporting information).

12

13 **Discussion**

14 By planting out eggs from the same 10 families across 10 tributaries we revealed that the
15 relative performance of juveniles from families with different mass-specific egg *MR* varied
16 within a single watershed. Moreover, this study demonstrates that the variation in
17 performance consequences of different *MR* previously revealed at the individual level under
18 laboratory conditions (e.g. Reid *et al.* 2012) hold at the family level and under natural
19 conditions.

20

21 The role of environmental variation on *MR* selection patterns should depend on the way in
22 which specific traits are associated with different levels of *MR*. Individuals with high *MR*
23 have been found to have higher dominance ranks and exhibit more aggressive behaviour
24 compared to those with low *MR* (Metcalf *et al.* 1989, 1995; Cutts *et al.* 2001; McCarthy
25 2001; Lahti *et al.* 2002). Evidence from previous studies suggests that the costs and benefits

1 and therefore fitness consequences of high metabolic rate and associated high dominance are
2 influenced by resource availability and variability (Harshman, Hoffmann & Clark 1999;
3 Mueller & Diamond 2001; Millidine, Armstrong & Metcalfe 2009; Armstrong, Millidine &
4 Metcalfe 2011) and habitat complexity (Höjesjö, Johnsson & Bohlin 2004; Reid *et al.* 2012).
5 As these and other factors inevitably vary across sites in the natural environment, we would
6 expect corresponding variation in the relationship between *MR* and performance. This
7 expectation is supported by our results as both the sign and the magnitude of the relationship
8 between egg *MR* and apparent survival differed among tributaries (Fig. 2c and Fig. S3b,
9 Supporting information). Although we cannot identify the specific environmental factors
10 responsible, to our knowledge this is the first time the effect of *MR* on a survival proxy has
11 been shown to vary in sign. Thus, the potential for facilitation of maintained within-
12 population variation in *MR* has now been demonstrated through temporal variation in
13 individual reproductive success (Boratyński & Koteja 2010) and through spatial variation in
14 relative family survival (present study). Additionally, this points to the possibility that results
15 from previous studies showing a negative, or no, effect of *MR* on survival in the wild (i.e.
16 brown trout, Alvarez & Nicieza 2005; garden snail, Artacho & Nespolo 2009; red squirrels,
17 Larivée *et al.* 2010) must be regarded as potentially context dependent (Burton *et al.* 2011),
18 and that other results may have been obtained under different environmental conditions.
19
20 In accordance with other studies of salmonids showing a negative relationship between
21 dominance or *MR* and growth rate in complex environments (Höjesjö *et al.* 2004; Alvarez &
22 Nicieza 2005; Reid *et al.* 2011, 2012), we found a general negative effect of *MR* on growth
23 (see Fig. 2b and Fig. S2a, Supporting information). Higher *MR* was also associated with
24 longer distances moved away from nest sites (see Fig. 2a). This may be linked to juveniles
25 with high *MR* showing a greater willingness to take risks and explore new areas (Huntingford

1 *et al.* 2010; Killen *et al.* 2011). It is also possible that individuals with high *MR* have higher
2 energy requirements and hence are more prone to leave areas with high conspecific densities
3 (e.g. close to the nest site) to search for areas with growth conditions that can sustain their
4 high metabolic demands. This is consistent with the finding that brown trout juveniles with
5 high *MR* were more likely to migrate out of their stream than low *MR* juveniles (Lans *et al.*
6 2011). In contrast to the positive relationship between *MR* and distance moved, there was a
7 negative relationship between egg mass and distance moved (see Fig. 2a and Fig. S1,
8 Supporting information). A similar mechanism may explain this finding; high resource levels
9 of offspring from large eggs enable them to stay longer in the high density area close to the
10 nest site, even if this leads to poorer growth conditions (Vøllestad & Lillehammer 2000;
11 Einum *et al.* 2011; Teichert *et al.* 2011). Einum *et al.* (2012) provide support for this
12 interpretation as they found that small Atlantic salmon juveniles are more likely to move
13 away from areas of high density than larger ones are. Furthermore, juveniles that moved away
14 from nest sites outgrew individuals residing close to the nest site, suggesting that there must
15 be some survival costs (i.e. predation) that selects against such movement for initially larger
16 individuals (Einum *et al.* 2012). Combined with our finding that individuals with high *MR*
17 and thereby higher energy expenditure were more likely to disperse from nest sites, this
18 suggests that natal movement in Atlantic salmon is conditioned by energy state and
19 requirements.

20

21 An assumption for the interpretation of the results of this study is that the relative *MR* in eggs
22 is related to that in juveniles. This assumption is backed up by findings in a range of studies.
23 First, differences in *MR* among individuals early in the egg stage have been shown to be
24 predictive of *MR* in later egg and larval stages of salmonids (Régnier *et al.* 2010). These
25 differences even increase throughout the development so that they are more pronounced

1 among larvae close to timing of emergence than during the egg stage (Régnier *et al.* 2010). In
2 addition, relative *MR* is temporally repeatable over time in a range of organisms (reviewed in
3 Nespolo & Franco, 2007), including juvenile salmonids (Cutts *et al.* 2001; McCarthy 2000,
4 but see Seppänen, Piironen & Huuskonen 2010). This is true even for individuals that have
5 increased in body mass by a factor of 20 (McCarthy 2000). Finally, differences in *MR* among
6 individuals are consistent over a range of environmental conditions (Cutts *et al.* 2001).

7

8 In conclusion, the finding that the survival effects of high family *MR* varied among tributaries
9 indicates that spatial heterogeneity in environmental conditions may lead to variable selection
10 pressures, and may thereby contribute to maintain within-population genetic and phenotypic
11 variation in this fitness-related trait. A better understanding of the specific factors involved
12 (e.g. prey availability, con- and interspecific competition, habitat quality and heterogeneity,
13 water flow and temperature regimes) will be necessary for predicting potential changes in the
14 distribution of this key phenotypic trait and to understand the potential consequences of these
15 changes for fitness and population dynamics.

16

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23

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25

1 The following Supporting Information is available for this article online: The estimated
2 relationships between *MR* and the performance proxies plotted on top of the raw data
3 (Appendix S1, Figs. S1-S3), and the results of selection of models using absolute *MR* instead
4 of mass specific *MR* (Figs. S4-S6).
5
6 Data available from the Dryad Digital Repository doi:10.5061/dryad.f260s Data files:
7 Movement and Growth, Apparent survival.

Table 1. Number of Atlantic salmon egg stocked, hatched and the total number of juveniles retrieved by electro-fishing in 10 study sites of the River Conon. Location of the tributaries in meters above sea level (m.a.s.l.), recapture rates (%), S are also given, as well as mean distance moved (m), M and growth rate (mm day^{-1}), G based on juveniles recaptured between 50 m upstream of to 150 m downstream of the nest site. Asterisks indicate presence of older salmon juveniles (≥ 1 year).

tributary (T)	m.a.s.l.	no. eggs (hatched)	no. retrieved	S	$M \pm SD$	$G \pm SD$
1. Allt Aradaidh	256	1000 (1000)	95	9.5	33.7 ± 29	0.30 ± 0.07
2. Distillery Burn*	65	1000 (884)	99	11.2	35.2 ± 32	0.40 ± 0.08
3. Gleann Chorainn*	244	1000 (988)	275	27.8	37.7 ± 32	0.37 ± 0.06
4. Tuill Bhain*	318	1000 (992)	278	28	43.7 ± 36	0.27 ± 0.04
5. Coire a Bhuic	191	1000 (963)	167	17.3	54.1 ± 44	0.32 ± 0.09
6. Am-fuar Alltan	484	3000 (2922)	200	6.8	52.5 ± 45	0.20 ± 0.06
7. Upper Meig*	311	3000 (2996)	138	4.6	74.2 ± 46	0.20 ± 0.04
8. Chaisecain*	128	3000 (2994)	491	16.4	67.8 ± 47	0.31 ± 0.06
9. Scardroy Burn*	160	3000 (2989)	621	20.8	54.1 ± 38	0.34 ± 0.07
10. Glen Meinich*	231	3000 (2933)	205	7.0	60 ± 43	0.32 ± 0.06

Table 2. Model selection results in the three different analyses (dependent variables: movement away from the nest sites [LMM], daily growth rate [LMM] and apparent survival [GLMM] in Atlantic salmon). Independent variables are mean family egg metabolic rate (*MR*), mean family egg mass (*E*), and tributary identity (*T*). The initial models for all response variables: *MR*T* + *E*T* (an interaction [*] always includes both main effects). *P*-values given refer to the decrease in log-likelihood when excluding a term from the model (based on the model selection procedure recommended in Zuur et al. 2009). Model terms given in bold are those that when removed caused a significant ($P < 0.05$) decrease in log-likelihood of the model, and hence are retained in the final model.

	χ^2	<i>DF</i>	<i>P</i>
Movement			
<i>MR*T</i>	14.16	9	0.12
<i>E*T^l</i>	17.36	9	0.04
<i>MR^l</i>	5.01	1	0.03
Growth			
<i>MR*T^l</i>	32.69	9	< 0.001
<i>E*T^l</i>	30.78	9	< 0.001
Survival			
<i>MR*T^l</i>	42.81	9	< 0.001
<i>E*T^l</i>	33.56	9	< 0.001

^lEstimated slope - values $\pm SE$ for each tributary are given in Figs. 2 and 3. The fit of the parameter estimates from these models to data is presented in Figs. S1, S2 and S3, Supplementary material.

Figure legends

Fig. 1. Number of Atlantic salmon juveniles caught at each meter sampled relative to the location of the nest site in 10 tributaries (T1-T10, cf. Table 1) of the River Conon. Negative and positive values at the x-axis represent upstream and downstream directions from nest sites, respectively. Vertical grey lines indicate outer boundaries of the section sampled in each stream. Note differences in scale on the y-axes among panels.

Fig. 2. Estimated slopes $\pm SE$ of the relationship between mean family egg metabolic rate (residuals) and the (a) daily growth rate (from the best LMM), and (b) apparent survival rates (from the best GLMM) of Atlantic salmon juveniles in 10 tributaries of the River Conon. For daily growth: $n = 2536$ individuals from 10 families; for apparent survival rates: $n = 100$ (10 families in 10 tributaries). The fit of the estimates to data is presented in Figs. S1, S2 and S3, Supplementary material. The slope estimate $\pm SE$ for distance moved away from nest sites (169.90 ± 79.77 , $t = 2.13$, $P = 0.03$) is not presented here since it did not vary significantly among tributaries.

Fig. 3. Estimated slopes $\pm SE$ of the relationship between mean family egg size (g) and the (a) absolute distance moved away from nest sites (from the best LMM), (b) daily growth rate (from the best LMM), and (c) apparent survival rates (from the best GLMM) of Atlantic salmon juveniles in 10 tributaries of the River Conon. For the distance moved from nest sites and daily growth: $n = 2536$ individuals from 10 families; for apparent survival rates: $n = 100$ (10 families in 10 tributaries). The fit of the estimates to data is presented in Figs. S1, S2 and S3, Supplementary material.

Figures

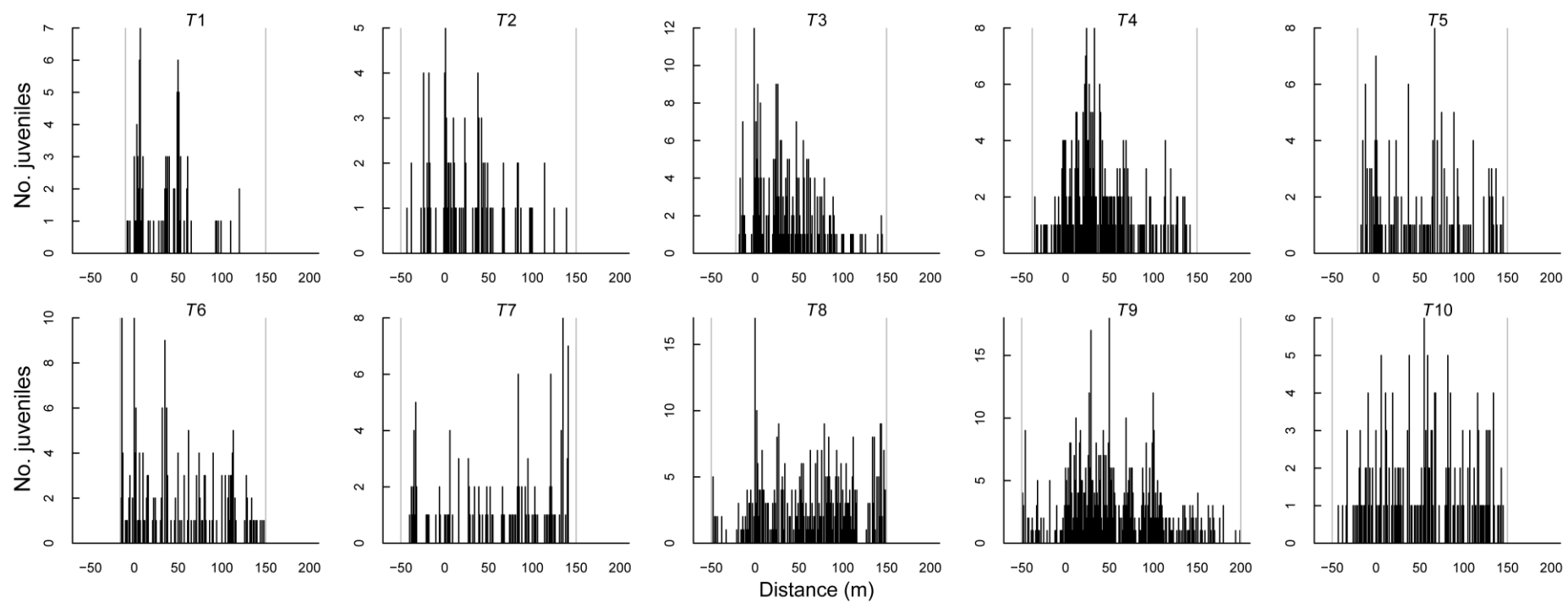


Fig. 1.

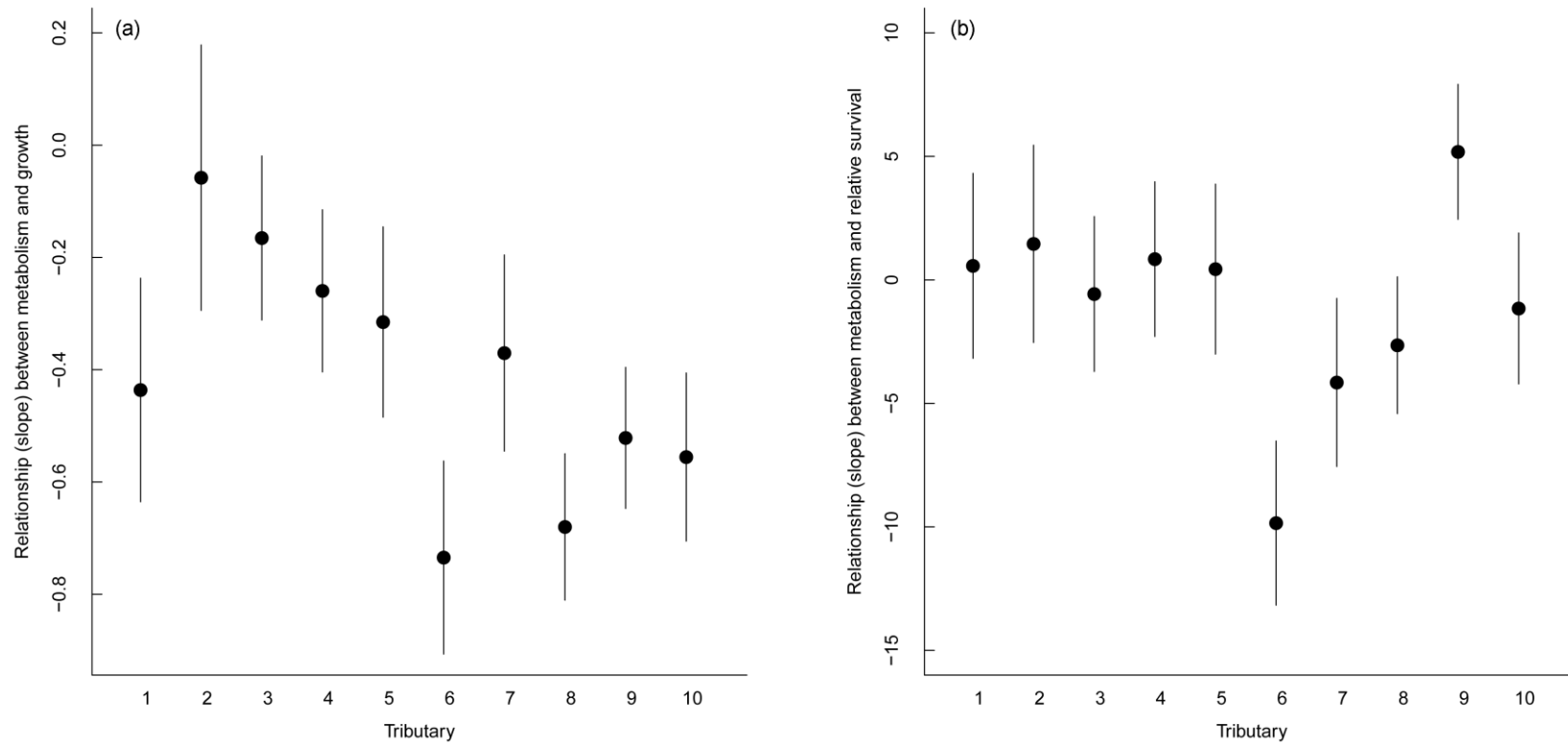


Fig. 2.

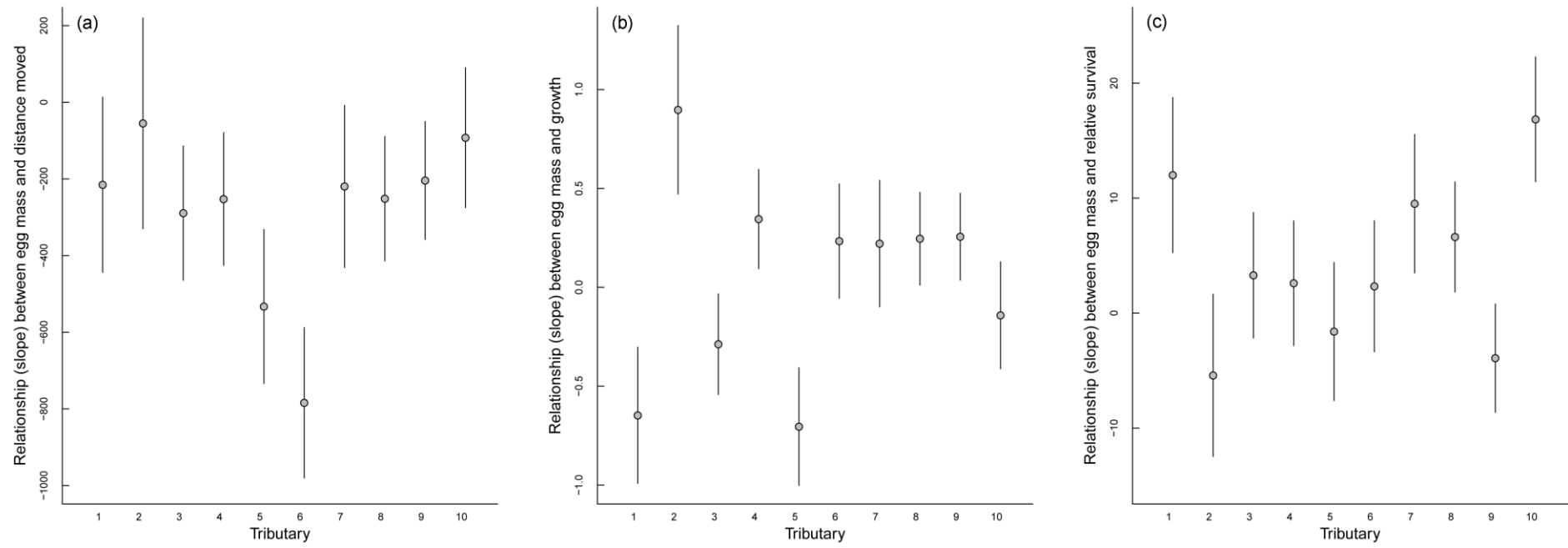


Fig. 3.