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Additional Information

Similar dispersal patterns between two closely related birds with contrasting migration strategies

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Abstract

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3 Studying dispersal is crucial to understand metapopulation and sink-source dynamics and invasion processes. The capability to disperse is especially important for species living in fragmented 4 habitats like wetlands. We investigated the distribution of natal and breeding dispersal distances and 5 6 philopatry in Spanish populations of two closely related reedbed-nesting birds, the Moustached 7 Warbler Acrocephalus melanopogon and the Eurasian Reed Warbler Acrocephalus scirpaceus. 8 These warblers are morphologically very similar, but differ in migration strategy and, in our study 9 area, in population size. Our aims were to find the best model for dispersal distances and to assess 10 the occurrence of intra- or interspecific differences in dispersal patterns. We used ringing data from 11 the Spanish marking scheme and selected recaptures to avoid including migrating individuals. In 12 both species, most individuals were philopatric but dispersing birds were able to cross large 13 distances (up to more than 100 km), suggesting the capability to compensate for habitat 14 fragmentation. We found the heavy-tailed Cauchy distribution to be the best conceptual description 15 for our data, in all cases but natal dispersal of Moustached Warblers, Among Eurasian Reed 16 Warblers, natal philopatry was lower than breeding philopatry. We found no significant interspecific 17 differences. This does not confirm the hypothesis of higher dispersal ability in long distance 18 migrants (like Eurasian Reed Warblers) than in resident/short distance migrant bird species (like 19 Moustached Warblers). The similarity in dispersal patterns among the two warblers may be 20 explained by their close phylogenetic relatedness, similar constraints imposed on both species by a 21 patchy habitat or similar evolutionary pressures.

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- Keywords Acrocephalus melanopogon; Acrocephalus scirpaceus; dispersal; long-distance
- 25 dispersal; spatial ecology; philopatry

Introduction

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Studying dispersal is crucial in population biology. It is an important element in metapopulation and sink-source dynamics (Begon et al. 2006), in colonization and invasion processes (Hengeveld 1994, Shigesada et al. 1995), and should be taken into account when studying the processes underlying adaptation (Lambrechts et al. 1999). Dispersal is also related to gene flow and, consequently, to the degree of genetic differentiation among populations (Bohonak 1999, Frankham et al. 2010). Thus, information about dispersal is of critical importance for conservation, especially for species living in fragmented habitats (e.g. Van Houtan et al. 2010). Dispersal in birds has been the object of many studies, but the high movement capability of most bird species implies important problems of data collection (Koenig et al. 1996, Paradis et al. 1998 and reference therein). Indeed, small-scale study areas are likely to underestimate the frequency of long-distance dispersal events (Koenig et al. 1996, Paradis et al. 1998). In spite of being relatively rare, such events are likely to be important in population dynamics (Nathan et al. 2003) and in determining the genetic structure of populations (Ibrahim et al. 1996). A ringed bird may be recovered anywhere, thus recapture data from ringing databases are not spatially limited and can provide useful information about dispersal (Paradis et al. 1998, 2002). In this study, we used data from the Spanish marking scheme to investigate large-scale dispersal patterns of two closely related reedbed-nesting birds, the Eurasian Reed Warbler Acrocephalus scirpaceus Hermann 1804 and the Moustached Warbler Acrocephalus melanopogon Temminck 1823. These species are similar in size (~ 10 g) and are both insectivorous, but they differ in migration strategy. Their population sizes in Spain are also highly different. The Eurasian Reed Warbler (hereafter Reed Warbler) is a common breeding bird in Spain (679000 - 1320000 individuals, Carrascal and Palomino 2008) and migrates over long distances, wintering in sub-Saharan Africa (Kennerley and Pearson 2010). The Spanish population of Moustached Warbler is sedentary or migrate over short distances, is distributed across a highly discontinuous range and has

52 been estimated in 484 - 1777 breeding pairs (Castany and López 2006). Distribution maps of both 53 species in Spain are available at Atlas Virtual de las Aves Terrestres de España (Carrascal et al. 54 2005; http://www.lmcarrascal.eu/atlas/mapasalfab.html). The breeding habitat of both species is 55 highly fragmented, because of the natural patchy distribution of wetlands and the habitat loss due to 56 human activities (Van Vessem et al. 1997, Paracuellos and Telleria 2004, Silva et al. 2007). 57 Our aims were: 1) to obtain new information about dispersal ability and philopatry in 58 Spanish populations of the two species, the Reed Warbler and the Moustached Warbler; 2) to find 59 the best conceptual description of dispersal distances in these warblers, among a set of simple 60 models (one-two parameters, see Table 1 for details) with clear biological meaning; 3) to assess the 61 occurrence of intraspecific differences in dispersal patterns, between natal dispersal (from the birth 62 place to a breeding site) and breeding dispersal (between breeding sites); 4) to assess the occurrence 63 of interspecific differences in dispersal patterns between the two species: long-distance migrants are 64 suggested to have higher dispersal ability than sedentary/short-distance migrant species (Paradis et 65 al. 1998). Genetic data suggest that this pattern also occurs among our study species, given the 66 higher differentiation among Spanish populations of Moustached Warbler than among Reed 67 Warblers breeding in Spain and Morocco (Ceresa et al. 2015). In addition, Reed Warblers have 68 more pointed wings than Moustached Warblers (Kennerley and Pearson 2010), indicating higher 69 flight efficiency (Norberg et al. 1998) and, consequently, a possibly higher dispersal capability. 70 Concerning our model set, we fitted distance data to the normal, the exponential and the Cauchy 71 distributions. The normal distribution describes a low diffusion through space, determined by 72 various external stochastic factors ('random walk'; Van Houtan et al. 2007). Dispersal distances will 73 follow an exponential distribution if moving individuals have a constant probability of settling 74 (Paradis et al. 2002). Finally, the Cauchy distribution is heavy-tailed, and as such it predicts more

frequent long-distance dispersal events than the exponential distribution (Paradis et al. 2002).

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Methods

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Data selection

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The starting database was made available by 'Banco de datos de anillamiento del remite ICONA – Ministerio de Medio Ambiente' (2015). It included all recoveries of individuals ringed in Spain (including those birds recovered outside the country) from year 1962 to 2013 and provided recovery distances to the nearest km. The ringing effort on the two species increased throughout the years, up to reaching the maximum number of marked individuals in the decade 2001-2010 (6425 Moustached Warblers and 229671 Reed Warblers; SEO/BirdLife 2016a,b). Consequently, also the majority of the collected recovery data (> 80%) are referred to birds ringed during that decade and the following years. Ringing and recoveries occurred at overall 1127 different localities, among these the Moustached Warbler was recorded at 103 sites and the Reed Warbler at 1099 sites. In this study, we only considered birds ringed during the breeding season and recovered during the breeding season of following years. We defined two age classes: juveniles for individuals ringed in their year of birth and adults for birds ringed later. Natal dispersal was estimated by using birds ringed as juveniles, while to estimate breeding dispersal we used birds ringed as adults (Paradis et al. 1998). We excluded those birds whose age was unknown when ringed. Periods adopted as breeding season were 1 June – 31 July for the Reed Warbler (Cantos and Tellería 1994) and 1 April – 31 May for the Moustached Warbler (Castany 2003). Juvenile Reed Warblers ringed in May (early fledged individuals) were also included. We checked the geographical coordinates provided in the database to ensure they corresponded to the ringing/recovery localities, when they did not we corrected them. Given the intrinsic characteristics of our dataset, we could not investigate fine-scale movements of birds within each breeding area, thus all dispersal events described in this work consist in displacements from a natal/breeding site towards a different patch of suitable habitat. To obtain reliable information about dispersal distances, it was very important to avoid including individuals ringed/recovered when migrating. The periods we adopted as breeding

season excluded the main migration periods of the study species (Cantos and Tellería 1994, Castany 2003, Peirò 2003, Kennerley and Pearson 2010), but even so we risked including some late/early migrating individuals. Examining recoveries of Reed Warblers, we observed that the direction of most of the largest recorded distances approached or corresponded to the North-East – South-West axis, followed by most individuals migrating through the Iberian Peninsula (e.g. Procházka et al. 2011). We then discarded the largest dispersal distances when orientated along the NE – SW axis (Paradis et al. 1998). As a result of this selection, all dispersal distances larger than 290 km were removed and recoveries were not preferentially oriented along this axis ('migratory axis' vs. all other directions: $\chi^2_1 = 1.041$, P = 0.308). Including all the data did not anyway affect the results of our study (i.e. we obtained very similar outputs from data analysis). For Moustached Warblers we found a low number of dispersing individuals, thus we could not assess if distances were preferentially orientated in some direction. We then used all available recoveries for this species. A further possible risk was to include birds that were not actually breeding when recaptured, e.g. in several passerine species some individuals do not breed during their first potential breeding season (Cooper et al. 2009 and reference therein). However, such individuals are likely to be waiting for an opportunity to obtain a territory/mate (Newton 1992) or looking for extra-pair copulations (see e.g. Blomqvist et al. 2005 for the Moustached Warbler). Thus, even when occurring in our dataset, such individuals were probably recovered close to their potential breeding sites (Paradis et al. 1998).

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Statistical analysis

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Within the set of selected recoveries, we first calculated the proportion of philopatric and dispersing individuals among juveniles and adults of the two species and carried out inter- and intraspecific comparisons by means of chi-square (χ^2) test of independence (Winkler et al. 2004). To compare the distribution of dispersal distances among species and age classes we used the two-samples Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Interspecific comparisons were carried out by considering natal and

breeding dispersal both jointly (i.e. using all data per species) and separately. In order to find the best dispersal model among our set (see Introduction) we fitted dispersal distances to the normal, the exponential and the Cauchy distributions using package fitdistrplus 1.0-4 (Delignette-Muller and Dutang 2015) in R 3.1.1 (R Core Team 2014). For the Cauchy distribution, we always fixed the location parameter at x = 0.1. We ranked models using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), and considered the model with lower AIC as the best one (Burnham and Anderson 2002).

Ideally, spatial variation in sampling effort should be taken into account when studying the distribution of dispersal distances (e.g. Van Houtan et al. 2007), because it is likely to determine a spatial variation in recovery rates, but we lacked the necessary data. As suggested by Paradis et al. (1998), the bias resulting form spatial variation in recovery rates may be reduced if the number of potential recovery sites is large (like in this study), and interspecific comparisons are unlikely to be affected when species are studied over the same area, because spatial variation in recovery rates would be similar.

Results

Both natal and breeding philopatry were high in both species: the proportion of philopatric individuals was 98 % and 92 % respectively in juvenile and adults Moustached Warblers, 91 % and 94 % in juvenile and adult Reed Warblers. Among Reed Warblers, natal philopatry was lower than breeding philopatry ($\chi^2_1 = 6.273$, P = 0.012), while we found no significant difference among Moustached Warblers ($\chi^2_1 = 1.066$, P = 0.302) or among species (all data: $\chi^2_1 = 0.128$, P = 0.721; juveniles: $\chi^2_1 = 2.285$, P = 0.131; adults: $\chi^2_1 = 0.233$, P = 0.629). Some of the relatively rare dispersing individuals were recovered at long distance (Fig. 1); birds dispersing further than 100 km were found in all categories excepted the juvenile Moustached Warblers (the category with lower sample size, N = 50). According to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test we found no significant difference in distribution of dispersal distances among the two species (all data: D = 0.026, P = 1; juveniles: D

= 0.075, P = 0.963; adults: D = 0.030, P = 1) and among age classes (Reed Warbler: D = 0.041, P = 0.590; Moustached Warbler: D = 0.06, P = 1). According to the AIC values, the Cauchy distribution provided the best model for dispersal distances in all cases, excepted the natal dispersal of Moustached Warblers (Table 2). In this last case, the exponential distribution obtained the lower AIC (Table 2). The estimated scale parameter γ of Cauchy distribution was very similar among species and age classes (Table 2), i.e. increasing distance the probability of dispersal events decreased in a similar way. The normal distribution always resulted to be the worst model for our dispersal data (Table 2; Fig. 2).

Discussion

Although in both species most individuals were philopatric, dispersing birds were able to cross large distances, suggesting the capability to compensate for habitat fragmentation. We found a heavy-tailed distribution to be the best model for dispersal distances, consistently with similar previous studies (Paradis et al. 2002, Winkler et al. 2005, Van Houtan et al. 2007, 2010). The exception represented by natal dispersal of Moustached Warblers, where the exponential distribution was selected as the best model (Table 2), should be cautiously considered because of the low sample size. Long-distance dispersal cases are rare, thus reduced samples are likely to fail in detecting them. When loosing these events, heavy-tailed distributions, given their characteristics (see the Introduction), will result as less adequate to describe dispersal distances. Further investigation using additional data will be needed to assess if juvenile Moustached Warblers from our study populations are able to disperse over long distances. The good dispersal ability of Reed Warblers was also found in British populations (Paradis et al. 1998) and was confirmed by the low genetic differentiation among European populations (Kralj et al. 2010, Procházka et al. 2011, Ceresa et al. 2015). Our results about this species indicate that in our study population juveniles disperse more frequently than adults, but with similar probability of settling with increasing

distance, which indicates that dispersal ability is not different among the two age classes.

The two species showed a similarly low tendency to disperse, possibly caused by the reduced opportunities of finding new breeding sites and/or by the high costs of dispersal (e.g. increased mortality, physiological costs; Waser et al. 1994, Plissner and Gowaty 1996). At a marshland in Hungary, Vadász et al. (2008) found higher natal and breeding site fidelity in Moustached than in Reed Warblers, and in both species breeding site fidelity was higher than natal site fidelity. The results of Vadász et al. (2008) can not anyway be compared with ours, because in the first case the authors used returning rates at a single site (mortality and dispersal can not be distinguished), while we compared the proportion of recoveries obtained at and outside each ringing site. Ceresa et al. (2015) found that gene flow among Spanish populations of the two warblers, although occurring, was partly limited or even restricted. The high natal and breeding philopatry we found in both species may help to explain such limitation in gene flow, as hypothesized by Ceresa et al. (2015).

The lack of significant differences in the distribution of dispersal distances between the two species and the high similarity in the estimated Cauchy scale parameter (Table 2) contrast with the hypothesis of higher dispersal ability in Reed Warblers (long-distance migrants) than in Moustached Warblers (resident/short distance migrants). Indirect information from genetic data indicated that Spanish populations of both species have a good dispersal capability, consistently with our results, but also showed lower population differentiation in Reed than in Moustached Warblers (Ceresa et al. 2015), indicating higher gene flow in the first species. Consistently with a limited gene flow, for Moustached Warblers we found no case of dispersal between the three populations considered in Ceresa et al. (2015), i.e. one small isolated inland population, one at the Mediterranean coast and one on the Mallorca Island. These populations are separated by the sea or by large land zones where the species does not breed. We found dispersal cases only between marshlands along the Mediterranean coast of Spain, the only area of the country where the breeding range is relatively continuous (see Castany and López 2006). Unfortunately, as far as we know there are no available

genetic data to compare birds from different breeding sites along the coast. The Mallorca Island hosts the largest Spanish population of Moustached Warblers (~ 500 breeding pairs) and has been the object of intense ringing activity (Castany 2003). The lack of recoveries from or towards this island is consistent with the restricted gene flow between the Mallorcan population and those of the mainland, which suggested that the sea represents an effective barrier for this species (Ceresa et al. 2015). The extinction of several bird species on Barro Colorado Island (Panama) showed that water can represent a barrier to immigration (Willis 1974, Robinson 1999), and other studies suggest that water bodies are more effective barriers than land areas of the same width, at least for some species (Hodges and Krements 1996, Machtans et al. 1996). Unlike Moustached Warblers, Reed Warblers showed low populations differentiation even when the breeding sites were separated by the sea (Ceresa et al. 2015). According to the authors, the interspecific difference in population differentiation could be due to differences in dispersal ability, breeding site fidelity, capability of crossing the sea, population size or breeding range patchiness (Ceresa et al. 2015). Our results do not support the first two possible explanations, thus the lower population differentiation in Reed than in Moustached Warblers is more likely to be determined by the more continuous breeding range/larger population size (see the references in the Introduction) and the higher capability of crossing stretches of sea of the first species. This comparison among ringing data and genetic information should be anyway cautiously considered. For example, differences in gene flow may also be influenced by possible interspecific differences in the fitness costs of dispersal, and we have no information about this issue. The similarity in dispersal patterns between the two species may be explained by their close phylogenetic relatedness (Sutherland et al. 2000). Furthermore, both warblers breed in a naturally patchy habitat, thus their dispersal ability may have evolved according to the same need of crossing more or less wide areas of unsuitable habitat to find new breeding sites.

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Table 1. Distributions adopted for modelling dispersal distances (d)

Distribution	Probability density function	Parameters (name)		
Normal	$\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-(d-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$	μ (mean), σ (standard deviation)		
Exponential	$\lambda e^{-\lambda d}$	λ (rate)		
Cauchy	$\frac{1}{\pi \gamma} \left[\frac{\gamma^2}{(d-x)^2 + \gamma^2} \right]$	x (location), γ (scale)		

Table 2. AIC values for three dispersal models (the best model for each data category is highlighted in bold), sample size (n) and the estimated Cauchy scale parameter (γ) with the 95% confidence intervals (CI)

				AIC values		
Species	Data category	n	Cauchy	Exponential	Normal	γ (95% CI)
Reed Warbler	All data	1808	693	6509	14466	0.108 (0.102 – 0.113)
	Natal dispersal	476	416	1961	4017	0.111 (0.101 – 0.122)
	Breeding dispersal	1332	278	4500	10372	0.106 (0.101 – 0.112)
Moustached Warbler	All data	125	20	468	1022	0.106 (0.087 – 0.125)
	Natal dispersal	50	-27	-53	185	0.102 (0.073 – 0.131)
	Breeding dispersal	75	49	352	652	0.109 (0.083 – 0.135)

386	Figure legends
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388	Fig. 1 Natal and breeding dispersal distances in Spanish populations of Moustached and Reed
389	Warbler, obtained from ringing data
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391 395	Fig. 2 Cumulative density functions (CDF) of the observed data (black solid line) and of the fitted