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5	The Biology and feeding Ecology of Arctic charr in the Kerguelen Islands
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26 Abstract

27 Subsequent to their introduction in the 1950s, Arctic charr Salvelinus alpinus have been able to 28 establish a self-sustaining population that has adapted to the unique conditions of the Kerguelen Islands in the sub-Antarctic. Here, 48 individuals (198-415 mm) were caught with gillnets and 29 30 their basic biology and feeding ecology were examined using stable isotope analysis. The Lac des Fougères population split use of littoral and pelagic resources evenly, although larger fish 31 32 relied more heavily on littoral production and appear to follow the size-dependent life-history habitat template seen in many Scandinavian lakes where smaller sized individuals occupy the 33 pelagic zone and larger individuals dominate the littoral habitat. In Kerguelen Arctic charr 34 mature at the same ages (5.6 years) as Arctic charr in both sub-Arctic and Arctic lakes. Whereas 35 mortality was average in comparison to comparator sub-Arctic lakes, it was high in comparison 36 to Arctic lakes. Maximal age (>7+) was at the lower end of the range typically seen in sub-37 Arctic lakes. Although they inhabit a resource poor environment, Kerguelen Arctic charr 38 showed no evidence of cannibalism. Thus, while Arctic charr can survive and reproduce in the 39 relatively unproductive Kerguelen lake environments, survival and growth nevertheless appear to 40 be traded off against survival and longevity. The uniqueness of the population location and the 41 recency of its introduction suggest that further monitoring of the population has the potential to 42 yield valuable insights into both the adaptability of the species and its likely responses to 43 ongoing large-scale environmental change as represented by climate change. 44 45

48 Introduction

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Originally devoid of freshwater fishes, the Kerguelen Islands archipelago in the Great Southern 50 Ocean (49°S, 70°E) witnessed the extensive introduction of salmonid fishes (Salmo trutta, S. 51 salar, Oncorhynchus mykiss, O. tshawytscha, O. kisutch, Salvelinus namaycush, S. fontinalis and 52 S. alpinus) between the years 1955 and 1993 when a total of approximately two million 53 individuals were introduced (Lecomte et al., 2013). From the original introductions in 22 54 watersheds, 54 watersheds are now believed to be occupied by one or more species. Lack of 55 both native fishes and anthropogenic influences on the islands have facilitated studies of invasion 56 dynamics, improved understanding of the importance of adaptive processes and environmental 57 gradients in colonization success and provided a credible blueprint for the potential of salmonid 58 species invasions in other pristine environments (Labonne *et al.*, 2013). While several studies 59 have focused specifically on the post-introduction fate of S. trutta in the islands (e.g. Jarry et al., 60 1998; Morat et al., 2008; Hórreo et al., 2011; Labonne et al., 2013; Jaffal et al., 2015; Aymes et 61 62 al., 2016; Jarry et al., 2018; Marandel et al., 2018), none have focussed in detail on the fate of S. alpinus despite its relative colonization success, i.e. one success in two trials (Lecomte et al., 63 64 2013).

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66 In comparison to other species introductions in the Kerguelen Islands, S. alpinus releases were

low, with only 2269 individuals having been released in two watersheds (Davaine & Beall,

68 1992). Introduced individuals originated from an Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique

69 hatchery facility used to stock Lake Geneva and are believed to have been genetically similar to

the source wild population (Lecomte *et al.*, 2013), although supplementation of the Lake Geneva

stock with Scandinavian fish occurred in the 1970s (Savary et al., 2017). Introductions occurred

in 1991 at the Lac des Fougères outlet (2000 age 0+ individuals with no other coincidental

- rspecies releases) and in 1992 in the Lac d'Amor Basin (269 age-2+ individuals in a mixed
- release with S. trutta, S. salar, O. tshawytscha, O. kisutch and S. fontinalis). When assessed in

75 2003, S. alpinus and O. kisutch were present at the Lac des Fougères outlet. In contrast, in 2009

S. alpinus were not reported in the Lac d'Amor Basin (Lecomte *et al.*, 2013), possibly as a result

of bacterial kidney disease noted to have been in the basin and known to pose a serious risk to
salmonid fishes (Jónsdóttir *et al.*, 1998).

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Although the freshwater ecosystems of Kerguelen vary widely due to the presence of geothermal 80 activity (Renac *et al.*, 2020), they are generally considered to be low productivity, oligotrophic 81 systems (Stonehouse, 1982; Maire, 1985), with marine access having provided a necessary 82 83 buffer for resource poor freshwater environments (Davaine & Beall, 1992) and facilitated the invasion success of introduced species such as brown trout (Jarry et al., 2018). As a result 84 colonization success in Kerguelen appears to be linked to anadromous behaviour that may 85 explain the relative dominance of brown trout (Lecomte et al., 2013) in comparison to S. 86 fontinalis and O. mykiss, both of which have shown colonization success in other environments 87 (e.g., western North America - Dunham et al., 2002 and Chile - Arismendi et al., 2014). In 88 Kerguelen S. alpinus are not known to have established anadromous populations, which suggests 89 their success in establishing resident populations will depend more critically on the attributes of 90 phenotypic plasticity and environmental tolerance known to have contributed to establishment 91 92 success of salmonids elsewhere (Arismendi et al., 2014).

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94 Climatically the Kerguelen Islands experience a cold sub-Antarctic climate characterized by a mean annual temperature of 4.5° C ($\approx 2^{\circ}$ C winter and 8° C summer means), frequent winds 95 (66kmh⁻¹ annual average), heavy cloud and rain, ranging from > 3200mm yr⁻¹ in the west to 96 800mmyr⁻¹ in the eastern side (Frenot et al., 1997; Heirman et al., 2012). Uniform wind stress 97 produces steady-state lake circulation patterns notable for the absence of stratification and 98 homothermic temperature profiles due to permanent mixing of lake waters (Marie, 1985; 99 100 Heirman et al., 2012). The aquatic fauna, net of introduced fish, are limited to a few abundant 101 species of cladocerans, copepods and rotifers tending to dominate in the littoral as opposed to the 102 pelagic zone (De Smet, 2001), benthic Oligochaetes and free Nematodes, and a relatively abundant chironomid (*Limnophyes pusillus*) present in all wetted areas (Davaine & Beall, 1997). 103 The relative scarcity of true planktonic species in Kerguelen parallels other studied sub-104 105 Antarctic locations (e.g., Dartnall & Hollowday, 1985; Dartnall, 1995) and is likely influenced by the degree of wind mixing evident in most Kerguelen lakes and ponds (De Smet, 2001). 106 While the environment is apparently harsh, dietary and habitat generalists tolerant of cold-water 107

108 environments (Power, 2002; Power et al., 2008) such as S. alpinus should be adequately 109 equipped to succeed in the resource poor aquatic landscapes of the Keguelen Islands. Indeed, the 110 opportunistic, exploratory, and migratory behaviours of S. alpinus define their life history and are traits that have been credited with their post-glacial colonization success of periglacial 111 112 habitats in the northern hemisphere (Power, 2002). Nevertheless, low prey diversity and reduced resource abundance may structure Arctic charr populations, inducing size bi-modalities reflective 113 114 of cannibalism (Hammar, 2000) known to prevail among high latitude populations (e.g., Amundsen et al., 1999; Power et al., 2008). 115

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In 2019 a test fishery of Lac des Fougères was undertaken to determine whether Arctic charr still 117 inhabited the basin where the largest introduction occurred. Here we describe the biological 118 attributes of individuals (e.g., length, weight, growth) obtained from that sampling and their 119 associated trophic ecology. Further, given the notably low productivity of Kerguelen lakes, the 120 limited diversity and abundance of aquatic insects (Maire, 1985), and the dominance of littoral 121 plankton in studied Kerguelen assemblages (De Smet, 2003), we tested the following hypotheses 122 that: [1] there would be evidence of cannibalism due to the resource poor conditions (e.g., 123 Hammar 2000, 2014); and, [2] irrespective of cannibalism, when compared to pelagic-reliant 124 125 conspecifics there would be a fitness advantage for individuals with higher reliance on littoral production reflected in larger sizes, faster growth and better condition. Finally, to contextualize 126 127 the Kerguelen population, we compare the traits estimated from the Kerguelen sample data (e.g., mean-age-at-maturity, mortality) to literature reported data for lacustrine populations and the 128 trophic ecology of Kerguelen S. alpinus to examples of similar single-species assemblages from 129 Arctic Canada and Scandinavia. 130

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132 Methods

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Sampling occurred using over-night gillnet sets (January 2-4, 2019) in Lac des Fougères (34.3ha,
49.42°S, 69.67°E, connect to marine coastal waters via a 1.25km stretch of river, Figure 1) with
a combination of sinking benthic nets (4 nets, 15.5-29.0mm mesh) and floating pelagic nets (2
nets, 28-45mm mesh). The care and use of field sampled animals complied with the Government
of France animal welfare laws, guidelines and policies (Comité d'Éthique) as approved by the

139 Terres Australes et Antarctiques Françaises administration under the auspices of permit number
140 (Référence du dossier) 2016122009113932-v2.

141

All captured Arctic charr were measured after removal from the net for total length $(L_{\rm T}, \rm mm)$ and 142 weighed (mass in g). Sex, maturity stage and stomach fullness were determined in the field 143 immediately after killing, with sagittal otoliths removed and stored in envelopes for age 144 determination and a 1g piece of dorsal muscle tissue was excised from posterior to the dorsal fin 145 146 and above the lateral line (e.g., Guiguer et al., 2001) and frozen for use in stable isotope analyses (e.g., Fry, 2006). Age was estimated from sagittal annuli counts following Grainger (1953). Coincident 147 with fishing, sampling for benthic invertebrates and zooplankton was completed 148 opportunistically using standardized benthic invertebrate sampling methods (e.g., Eloranta et al., 149 150 2017) and a 90 µm zooplankton net towed manually by wading and troughing or behind a small inflated boat. 151 152 Differences between sexes were tested using one-way ANOVA, with sex included as a co-factor 153 154 in the subsequent analyses where significant (P < 0.05) sex-related differences were found. The weight-length relationship, after natural logarithmic transformation of the data, and growth were 155 156 estimated using linear regression (Diana, 2004), with differences between the sexes tested using ANCOVA (Zar 2010). Average growth rate was determined as length-at-capture divided by 157 158 estimated age. Condition was estimated from a weight-length regression after testing for allometry using relative condition which compensates for changes in form and condition as 159 160 length increases (Le Cren, 1951; Froese, 2006). Where multiple linear regression was used, standardized (Beta) coefficients were computed following Zar (2010) as indicators of the relative 161 importance of each explanatory variable. 162

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For the purposes of modelling the probability of maturity the sexes were pooled after testing for differences in the proportion of mature individuals between the sexes using Fisher's exact test (one-tailed P=0.3273). The probability of maturity was modelled as a function of age and length with logistic regression following methods described in Agresti (2002):

168 (1) Maturity probability = $\frac{1}{1 + \exp(\alpha + \beta X)}$

169 where X = age or length and α and β are estimated model parameters. Mean age-and length-at-170 maturity were estimated from the models at the 0.5 probability point.

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The instantaneous rate of mortality (M) was estimated based on the numbers of aged fish
captured, beginning with the first fully vulnerable age-class, using Chapman-Robson methods
(Chapman & Robson, 1960; Robson & Chapman, 1961) known to yield low errors and biases in
comparison to other methods (Dunn *et al.*, 2002). The validity of the assumed geometric model
used in the Chapman-Robson methods was verified using testing procedures described in Seber
(1982).

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Dorsal muscle samples for stable isotope analyses ($\delta^{13}C$, $\delta^{15}N$) were dried in the laboratory at 179 50°C for 24 hours, ground to a fine, homogenate powder with a mortar and pestle and analysed 180 following methods described in Guiguer et al., (2002) and Eloranta et al., (2017) on a Delta Plus 181 182 Continuous Flow Stable Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (Thermo Finnigan, Bremen, Germany) coupled to a Carlo Erba elemental analyzer (CHNS-O EA1108, Carlo Erba, Milan, Italy) with an 183 analytical accuracy of $\pm 0.2\%$ (δ^{13} C) and $\pm 0.3\%$ (δ^{15} N). Measurement accuracy was established 184 through the repeat analysis of internal laboratory standards calibrated against International 185 Atomic Energy Agency standards H6 for carbon and N1 and N2 for nitrogen, with all results 186 reported in delta notation (δ) relative to the international standard Vienna Peedee Belemnite, 187 VPBD, for δ^{13} C (Craig, 1957) and atmospheric nitrogen for δ^{15} N (Mariotti, 1983). As C:N ratios 188 in general did not exceed 4 (44 of 48), lipid extraction or correction using mathematical models 189 was not completed (Jardine et al., 2013). 190

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192 For all captured fish, obtained δ^{15} N values were used as an index of piscivory (cannibalism)

following Guiguer *et al.* (2002) and δ^{13} C values were used in the computation of percent littoral

reliance (PLR). A two-source mixing model was used to estimate PLR (Schwarcz, 1991; Vander

2011) Zanden *et al.*, 2011) and corrected to account for trophic fraction between predator and prev

using the 0.4‰ value reported in Post (2002) for consumers analysed using muscle tissue.

197 Individuals with a PLR exceeding 50%, i.e. relying more heavily on littoral than pelagic

resources, were classified as reliant on littoral production and compared using ANOVA to

199 conspecifics relying more heavily on pelagic production (PLR<50%) to determine if there were

significant differences in average stomach fullness, average growth rate (mm/year) and

201 condition.

Percent littoral reliance was modelled as a function of key variables known to be associated with differential habitat use including: length, $\delta^{15}N$ (trophic position), sex and depth as represented by a binary variable (0, 1) for surface or bottom capture (e.g., Klemetsen *et al.*, 1989; Power *et al.*, 2012; Murdoch & Power 2013; Reist *et al.*, 2013) using a general linear model of the form:

206

207 (1) $PLR(\%) = a_0 + a_1L + a_2N + a_3S + a_4D + \varepsilon$

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where L is fork-length (mm). N is the associated δ^{15} N measure obtained from the analysis of 209 dorsal muscle tissue, S is sex, D is the binary depth of capture variable, a_i is the ith estimated 210 model coefficient and ε is a normally distributed error term with mean zero and variance σ^2 . 211 212 Models including all variables and combined subsets of variables were considered and the modified information criterion (AIC_c) corrected for finite sample sizes was used for model 213 214 selection (Anderson, 2008). Akaike weights (w_i) which can be interpreted as the probability that model *i* is the best approximating model for the data within the candidate set of models was also 215 216 computed (Anderson, 2008). Length as a function of age, sex and PLR were similarly estimated using general linear models and AIC_{C} . 217

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219 To contextualize the traits reported for Kerguelen *S. alpinus*, comparisons were made to other

220 literature studies of lacustrine Arctic charr populations from sub-Arctic and Arctic Canada,

221 Greenland, Iceland and Scandinavia. Consulted studies included: Sprules (1952), Skreslet

222 (1973), MacCallum & Regier (1984), Sparholt (1985), Naslund (1990), Vøllstand & L'Abée

223 Lund (1994), Jónsson & Skúlason (2000) Power *et al.* (2008), Berg *et al.* (2010) and Borgstrøm

et al. 2015). The division between Arctic and sub-Arctic environments was based on geography,

with Arctic lakes being those located on the Canadian Arctic Island Archipelago, Greenland,

226 Svalbard or Jan Mayen Island and sub-Arctic lakes being those located on Iceland, continental 227 North America or Scandinavia. Mean-age-at-maturity data estimates were taken directly from 228 each study. As most studies did not report values for males and females separately, where male and female values were reported a weighted-average using sex-ratio information as weights was 229 230 computed. Maximum age was set equal to the maximal age reported in each study or rounded up if the age plus (age+) aging system was used. Where available, the instantaneous rate of 231 232 mortality (M) was similarly taken directly from each study. In cases where an estimate was not provided, but where catch-at-age data allowed, an estimation of M using Chapman-Robson 233 methods (see above) was made. Studies for which M was estimated included: Sprules (1952), 234 Skreslet (1973), MacCullum & Regier (1984), Sparholt (1985), Naslund (1990); Jónsson & 235 Skúlason (2000), Berg et al. (2010) and Borgstrøm et al. (2015). The Kerguelen trait estimates 236 237 were then tested for significant differences from the sub-Arctic and Arctic trait means using Student's t-test (Zar, 2010). 238

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To contextualize the trophic status of Kerguelen S. alpinus, comparisons were made to other 240 241 literature reported populations similarly sampled from single-species high Arctic or sub-Arctic lakes in Canada or Scandinavia. Candidate lakes were included as comparators if they met the 242 following criteria: had a known sample size > 25, provided mean and standard deviation or 243 standard error for both δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N and were obtained from a representative size range of the 244 population, i.e., did not selectively target only large or small fish. The division between high 245 Arctic and sub-Arctic lakes was as described above. Consulted studies included: Rognerud et al., 246 2002; Karlsson & Byström 2005; Gantner et al., 2010; van der Velden et al., 2012; van der 247 248 Velden et al., 2013; Eloranta et al., 2017 and Power (unpublished data). Obtained data were used to construct standard stable isotope cross-plots (mean±standard deviation along each 249 250 isotope axis) and estimate isotopic niche width (Jackson et al., 2011). Distances among 251 population means were characterized using Euclidean distance and tested for significant differences among groupings (high Arctic and sub-Arctic) where necessary using Welch's t-test 252 adjusted for significant differences among estimated group variances (Zar, 2010). 253 254

255 **Results**

Sampling vielded n=48 fish ranging in size from 198 to 415mm, with most (n=39) captured in 256 the bottom set sinking gillnets. The catch was equally split between the sexes, with females 257 258 being larger (one-way ANOVA, P=0.017) and heavier (P=0.029) than males but otherwise equivalent (P>0.05, Table 1) in terms of all other biological characteristics (age, relative 259 condition, growth rate) and trophic indicators (δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N). Sex-dependent weight-length 260 regressions did not differ significantly (ANCOVA, P=0.802) and sexes were grouped to estimate 261 262 a combined weight-length regression (Table 2) for Lac des Fougères S. alpinus, the slope of which (2.732) was significantly less than 3 (t-test=-3.199, P=0.002) and indicative of allometric 263 growth. Mean age-at-maturity was estimated at 5.59 years, or at 310mm in length terms. The 264 narrow range of ages (4-7) and the lack of younger samples precluded estimating a standard von 265 Bertalanffy growth model, but regression of length as a function of age, sex and PLR yielded a 266 significant model (F $_{2.44}$ = 44.148, r ²=0.667) with both age and PLR as significant explanatory 267 variables (Table 2). Age was approximately twice as important a determinant of length than PLR 268 (age β =0.646, sex β =0.341). Sex-specific survival rates over the age 5-7 interval did not differ 269 significantly, yielding over-lapping 95% confidence intervals (male: 0.479-0.831, female: 0.434-270 271 0.755) and data were aggregated to yield a single age 5-7 mortality rate estimate of 0.627 (95% confidence interval=0.510-0.744). A test of the validity of the assumed geometric model 272 underlying the estimates found no evidence for departure from the critical assumption (P=0.617). 273 274

A maximal δ^{15} N of 9.07‰ and limited δ^{15} N range (2.03‰) provided no evidence of piscivory 275 or cannibalism and indicated a limited degree of trophic diversity among sampled individuals. 276 Examination of gut contents during the assessment of stomach fullness similarly yielded no 277 278 evidence of fish consumption immediately prior to capture. Percent littoral reliance estimated using the mean plus one standard deviation of littoral captured Nematodes as the littoral end-279 280 member and mean minus one standard deviation of zooplankton as the pelagic end member indicated Lac des Fougères S. alpinus PLR ranged from 9 to 100%, mean±S.D.= 58.8±22.8%, 281 with peaks between 30 and 40% and 70 and 80% reliance (Figure 2). While PLR did not differ 282 significantly between the sexes ($F_{1.46}=2.315$, P=0.135), fish with higher PLR (>50%) differed 283 significantly in body size (length: F_{1,46}=13.408, P=0.001; weight: F_{1,46}=14.157, P<0.001), 284 growth rate ($F_{1,45}$ =9.04216, *P*=0.004) and feeding ecology (stomach fullness: $F_{1,46}$ =4.870, 285 P=0.032; δ^{15} N: F_{1.46}=10.083, P=0.003), with fish more reliant on littoral production being larger, 286

- faster growing, having fuller stomachs and feeding at a lower trophic level than their more
 pelagic reliant conspecifics (Figure 3). Body condition, expressed as relative condition
- ($F_{1,46}$ =0.264, P=0.610) did not differ significantly between PLR groupings.
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291 The "best" model (Akaike weight $w_i = 0.511$) for explaining variations in PLR among 292 individuals as determined by AIC_C included length (F $_{2.45}$ = 49.466, P<0.001, positively related) and $\delta^{15}N$ (F_{2.45}= 42.713, P<0.001, negatively related) as key explanatory variables and 293 explained 62.9% of the observed variation (Table 3). The "best" model was 2.21 times more 294 295 likely to be the best approximating model than the second model (Akaike weight $w_i = 0.231$) which included length (F_{3,44}= 46.863, P<0.001), δ^{15} N (F_{3,44}= 43.213 P<0.001) and sex (F_{3,44}= 296 0.844, P=0.363). In the "best" model, standardized regression (β eta) coefficients indicated that 297 length (β =0.652) and δ^{15} N (β =-0.606) were approximately equivalent in relative importance as 298 explanatory variables. 299

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A literature search yielded a total of n=41 sub-Arctic and n=13 Arctic lakes from Canada, 301 Greenland, Iceland and Scandinavia for at which estimates of two of the three traits describing 302 mean age-at-maturity, maximum age and the instantaneous rate of mortality could be obtained. 303 The Kerguelen mean age-at-maturity (5.59) did not differ significantly (t-test P=0.994) from the 304 305 sub-Arctic (mean±std. deviation:5.6±1.8, range:2-12) or the Arctic (t-test P=0.863; 5.7±2.5, 3-11) lake values. Maximum age for sub-Arctic $(12.4\pm3.3, 6-19)$ encompassed a range which 306 included Kerguelen (>7+), whereas the range for Arctic lakes $(18.9\pm5.6, 10-28)$ did not. The 307 means for both groups differed significantly from the Kerguelen estimate (all t-test P < 0.001). 308 Instantaneous rates of mortality for sub-Arctic lakes (0.594±0.209, 0.273-0.970) included a 309 wide-range of mortality estimates whose mean did not differ significantly (t-test P=0.367) from 310 the Kerguelen estimate (0.627), whereas the mean mortality of the Arctic lakes (0.346 ± 0.106 , 311 0.212-0.514) did differ significantly (t-test P<0.001). A bi-plot (Figure 4) of maximum age 312 versus M indicates thus indicated that estimated Kerguelen traits fell within the bounds of the 313 variation observed in sub-Arctic but not Arctic lakes, being included only in the ellipse 314 describing the mean±one standard deviation of the sub-Arctic lake data. 315

317 A total of 15 lakes from the high Arctic and sub-Arctic regions of Canada and Scandinavia containing, or presumed to contain, monomorphic S. alpinus as the sole resident species with 318 319 suitable stable isotope data and required minimum sample size were identified in a search of the published literature: Canadian Arctic Archipelago (n=9), Svalbard (n=1), Fenno-Scandinavian 320 321 Peninsula (n=3) and northern Labrador (n=2). Stable isotope cross-plots of the data indicated a separation between high Arctic island and sub-Arctic mainland populations that differed 322 significantly in mean δ^{15} N (F₁₁₃ = 17.315, P=0.001), but not in mean δ^{13} C (F₁₁₃ = 0.305, P= 323 0.590) or ellipse area ($F_{1,13} = 3.290$, P = 0.093). Plotted collectively in bivariate stable isotope 324 space, the Lac des Fougères S. alpinus sample data fall at the boundary between the two groups 325 326 (Figure 5) with an average Euclidean distance of 1.82 from the sub-Arctic mainland populations and 3.37 from the high Arctic island populations, a difference that is statistically significant 327

- 328 (two-sample t-test P=0.046).
- 329

330 Discussion

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The test fishery of Lac des Fougères yielded indications of an established S. alpinus population 332 that was both growing and reproducing, based on the span of ages captured (4+ to 7+) and the 29 333 years that have elapsed since the release of 0+ fish into the lake. Limited trophic diversity as 334 described by the range of δ^{15} N values, low maximal δ^{15} N values and lack of fish in stomach 335 contents provided no evidence of consistent cannibalism within the population, although as 336 temporally integrated indicators of diet, stable isotope data cannot preclude incidental 337 cannibalism. Life-history traits estimated for the population equated with those typically reported 338 339 in the literature for sub-Arctic, but not Arctic lakes, with the instantaneous mortality rate (M0 being higher and the maximal observed age lower than is characteristic of Arctic populations. 340 341 The sample as a whole was approximately evenly split between reliance on littoral (48.8%) and pelagic (51.2%) production, a reliance that agreed well with literature-based prediction interval 342 estimates (37-84%) from Scandinavian lakes (e.g., Eloranta et al., 2015). There were, however, 343 size-dependent strategies within the population, with smaller fish tending to rely more heavily on 344 pelagic production. As a consequence, heavy littoral reliance held clear fitness advantages, with 345 346 those relying more heavily on littoral sourced carbon growing faster and attaining larger sizes. When compared to other sub-Arctic and Arctic allopatric populations of S. alpinus, the 347

348 Kerguelen population appears to have more in common with the sub-Arctic populations of

349 Labrador and northern Scandinavia than with high Arctic island populations.

350

As habitat generalists, lacustrine populations of Arctic charr will exploit all available habitat 351 types, with usage often being dependent on age, life-stage and co-occurring species in the lake 352 (Power et al., 2008). Arctic charr appear pre-adapted to low aggression (Power, 2002) and in the 353 354 face of intra- or inter-specific competition niche shifts usually occur (Power et al., 2008). Thus, Arctic charr have been shown to interactively segregate from other co-occurring salmonids 355 (Nilsson, 1965; Fraser & Power, 1989; Klemetsen et al., 2003) and in a competitive context may 356 exhibit faster growth rates with reduced survival and longevity (Fraser & Power, 1989) as 357 evidenced here. Stable isotope studies of Arctic charr feeding patterns completed elsewhere 358 suggest that resource use separation within populations has the effect of lowering resource 359 competition, but can impose developmental energetic constraints dictating limits on body size, 360 maturation rate and fecundity (Guiguer et al., 2002; Power et al., 2005). While reduced 361 survivorship was not apparent in the Kergueln charr when comparing to other sub-Arctic 362 363 lacustrine populations, Kerguelen Arctic charr did evidence reduce longevity with respect to the mean for other sub-Arctic populations. Further when compared to Arctic populations, constraints 364 365 became evident in terms of both reduced mortality and longevity.

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367 Detailed studies of life-history and ontogeny in northern Norway indicate similar size-based differences in habitat use as noted in the Kerguelen sample, with larger individuals occupying 368 369 the littoral zone and smaller individuals occupying the pelagic zone (Klemetsen *et al.*, 1989). While gear selectivity precluded profundal capture of smaller juveniles in Lac des Fougères, one 370 371 might presume use of either profundal habitats as has been noted in Norway, e.g. Takvatn (Klemetsen et al., 1989), or tributary streams as has been noted in Arctic Canada (Sinnatamby et 372 373 al., 2012). In fish, differences in resource usage almost always occurs along a littoral-pelagic gradient (Robinson & Wilson, 1994) and may be associated with the development of a 374 375 distinctive resource polymorphism marked by variable morphology (e.g., head shape, mouth 376 position and jaw size), with one form (morphotype) feeding in the pelagic zone on zooplankton and another form feeding in the littoral zone on available macroinvertebrates (Skulason & Smith, 377 1995; Svanbëck & Eklöv, 2002, 2003). In Arctic charr, the development of resource 378

polymorphisms are common and in the absence of competition from other species may develop 379 380 into stable niches under conditions of intense intra-specific competition (Jonsson & Jonsson, 381 2001). Notably absent in the Kerguelen sample was any suggestion of morphological variation, which has been described extensively from both North American (Guiguer et al., 2002; Power et 382 383 al., 2012) and European lakes (e.g., Hindar & Jonsson, 1982; Snorrason et al., 1994; Pavlov 1997; Klemetsen et al., 2003; Knudsen et al., 2019). Time may explain the absence of 384 385 morphological and feeding correlates, although examples of the incipient divergence of traits related to prey use in contemporary time frames exist (e.g., Michaud et al., 2008). Thus, in 386 addition to providing a template for the detailed understanding of colonization dynamics, the 387 continued study of Kerguelen Arctic charr may provide insights into the mechanisms behind and 388 389 rates at which patterns of trait divergence can emerge in isolated populations of Arctic charr. 390

Although it occurs commonly in allopatric populations found at high latitudes in resource poor 391 environments with seasonally limited prey resources (Hammar, 1989, 2014; Svenning & 392 Borgstrøm, 2005), any suggestion of cannibalism was also notably absent from the Kerguelen 393 sample. Maximal δ^{15} N values varying between 8.8-9.01 and a small δ^{15} N range (2.01) indicative 394 of limited trophic diversity (Layman et al., 2007) are inconsistent with cannibalism. In part, the 395 absence of cannibalism is related to fish sizes, which rarely exceeded 40cm in Kerguelen. In 396 Lake Hazen, Ellesmere Island, Guiguer et al., (2002) noted cannibalism was size-limited and on 397 the basis of stable isotope data was practised by individuals >40 cm. Hobson & Welch (1995) 398 399 similarly gave 40 cm as the threshold for cannibalism on the basis of an isotopic analysis of specimens from Char Lake, Cornwallis Island, as did Sparholt (1985) in a study of unexploited 400 Greenland lakes. Skreslet (1973) suggested 37 cm as the threshold above which Arctic charr 401 switched primarily to cannibalism in landlocked populations on Jan Mayen Island, whereas Riget 402 et al., (1986) noted increasing cannibalism after 27cm, possibly facilitated by the presence of 403 three-spine sticklebacks (Gasterosteus acculaeatus). Cannibalism is most common in 404 405 carnivorous fishes whose diets include varying proportions of aquatic insects, crustaceans, mollusks and fish and may rely on high conspecific densities and low prey diversity to develop 406 (Strictar Pereira *et al.*, 2017). Expressing catch biomass in catch per unit effort terms (per 100m²) 407 of net) yields a value $28g \cdot m^{-2}$ considerable below 600-900g $\cdot m^{-2}$ range reported by Elornata *et* 408 al., (2017) for Norwegian high alpine lakes suggests the low population densities when 409

410 combined with limited prey availability are unlikely to trigger the development of cannibalism in

- 411 Lac des Fougères. In addition, among Arctic charr, the phenomenon is more prevalent among
- 412 populations from the high Arctic (e.g. Canadian Arctic Archipelago, Svalbard, Jan Mayen)
- 413 decreasing in occurrence at more southerly latitudes, suggesting the prevalence of the trait may
- 414 be population-specific (Amundsen *et al.*, 1999).
- 415
- Although aquatic productivity as measured by Chlorophyll-*a* in Kergulen lakes (mean=0.84)
- 417 $\mu g \cdot L^{-1}$, Mairie 1985) is more similar to values observed in representative high Arctic island lakes

418 (mean= $0.51 \ \mu g \cdot L^{-1}$, Medeiros *et al.*, 2012; Dranga *et al.*, 2017) than values noted for

419 representative sub-Arctic lakes (mean =4.22 μ g•L⁻¹, Dranga *et al.*, 2017), the Lac des Fougères

420 population has closer isotopic affinity with the sub-Arctic populations than the High Arctic

421 Island populations. The similarity is likely results from the lack of cannibalism, which truncates

422 the range of possible δ^{15} N values in the fish. Variation in Arctic charr population size structure,

and by implication δ^{15} N or trophic structure (e.g., Bearhop *et al.*, 2004; Layman *et al.*, 2007) has

- 424 been linked with seasonality in food supply (Hammar, 2014), which has been noted to favour the
- 425 development of cannibalism (Griffiths, 1994). In Kerguelen, the limited seasonal range in
- 426 temperatures, i.e. mean summer-winter difference of approximately 6°C (Frenot *et al.*, 1997;

427 Heirman *et al.*, 2012), and lack of ice cover reduce the likelihood of cannibalism developing by

428 removing the extended period of food shortages that have been linked with its occurrence

429 (Griffiths, 1994; Hammar, 2000). Thus low prey availability itself does not appear sufficient to

- trigger the development of cannibalism, as has been suggest for high Arctic populations
- 431 (Hammar, 2000), unless coupled with strong seasonality in resource availability. Kerguelen
- 432 Arctic charr are able to subsist, grow and mature on the limited resources available without
- having to resort to cannibalism as a survival strategy, possibly due to a low population density
- and notable high growth efficiency in cold water (Larsson *et al.*, 2005; Forseth *et al.*, 2009).
- 435

- 436 Conclusion
- 437

Evidence from the test fishing of Lac des Fougères indicates that subsequent to their 438 introduction. Arctic charr have been able to establish a self-sustaining population that has 439 440 adapted to the unique conditions of the Kerguelen Islands. Like populations from similarly sized lakes in Scandinavia, the Lac des Fougères population relies heavily on littoral production and 441 follows an apparent size-dependent life-history template also seen in many Scandinavian lakes 442 where smaller sized individuals occupy the pelagic zone and larger individuals dominate the 443 444 littoral habitat. Mortality is equivalent with that typically observed in other sub-Arctic lake 445 populations, but is high in comparison to Arctic lake populations. While maximum age is within the range observed for other sub-Arctic populations, it is low. Thus, while Arctic charr can 446 survive and reproduce in the relatively unproductive Kerguelen lake environment, survival and 447 growth nevertheless appear to be traded-off against survival to limit maximal age. Although 448 449 expected, cannibalism does not appear to be occurring in the Kerguelen population, likely as a result of the lack of a seasonal pulse and the absence of prey resources that dominate in northern 450 451 environments where cannibalism has been noted to increase with latitude as the seasonal pulse effect intensifies. The Kerguelen climate also appears to allow the Lac des Fougères population 452 to trophically function more like northern hemisphere sub-Arctic than high Arctic island 453 populations. The uniqueness of the population location and the recency of its introduction 454 455 suggest that further monitoring of the population has the potential to yield valuable insights into both the adaptability of the species and its likely responses to ongoing large-scale environmental 456 457 change as represented by climate change.

458

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Table 1: Summary biological information (mean \forall standard deviation) by sex for *S. alpinus* captured in Lac des Fougères. Variables that are significantly different at the 0.05 level are

underlined.

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Biological Variable	Males	Females
Sample size	24	24
Length (mm)	28.6 ± 4.6	31.8±4.4
Weight (g)	287.5±132.8	378.2±146.2
Age	5.8 ± 0.9	6.1±0.9
Relative condition	1.0 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.1
Growth rate (mm/year)	5.0 ± 0.6	5.3 ± 0.5
% Littoral Reliance	49.8±19.0	58.6±21.2
* ¹³ C	-23.2±1.3	-22.7±1.4
* ¹⁵ N	8.1±0.4	$8.0{\pm}0.5$

Table 2: Model coefficients, associated standard error and *P*-values for regression estimated weight-length, age- and length-at-maturity and length-at-age models for *S. alpinus* captured in Lac des Fougères. Also given are the regression F and proportion of explained variation

statistics.

Model	Coefficient	Std. error	Р
Weight-Length (F 1,48 = 1066.10	$0, r^2 = 0.959$		
Intercept	-1.547	0.124	< 0.001
Slope	2.732	0.084	< 0.001
Age-at-Maturity (F 2,46 = 33.838)	$r^2 = 0.601$)		
\forall	7.686	2.905	0.011
Э	-1.374	0.539	0.014
Length-at-Maturity (F 2,46 = 31.9	$67 r^2 = 0.582)$		
\forall	-7.143	2.879	0.017
Э	0.230	0.095	0.020
Length-at-age (F 2,44 = 44.148, r ²	=0.667)		
Intercept	5.016	2.857	0.086
Age	3.518	0.497	< 0.001
Percent littoral reliance	7.990	2.138	0.001

1 Table 3: Summary of information-theoretic model selection statistics for models explaining the

2 littoral feeding reliance of Lac des Fougères *S. alpinus* as a function of length (cm), $\delta^{15}N(l)$, age,

3 and capture depth (surface, bottom. K defines the number of estimated model parameters. RSS

4 is the regression residual sum of squares. AIC_C is the small sample bias adjusted Akaike

5 information criterion. Δ_i is the difference between the model-specific AIC_C and the AIC_C of the

best fitting model and w_i is the model-specific Akaike information weight.

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Model	K	RSS	AIC _C	Δ_{i}	Wi
Length, * ¹⁵ N	4	0.7229	-192.460	0.000	0.511
Length, * ¹⁵ N, Sex	5	0.7093	-190.874	1.586	0.231
Length, * ¹⁵ N, Depth	5	0.7164	-190.400	2.060	0.182
Length, * ¹⁵ N, Sex Depth	6	0.7034	-188.656	3.802	0.076

Table 4

2 Table 4: Estimated regression coefficients, standardized regression coefficients (β_i), F-test and

3 associated *P*-value and observed power for the best approximating model for explaining the

4 percent littoral reliance of Lac des Fougères Arctic charr as judged using the AIC_C criterion.

Variable	Coefficient	β_i	F	Р	Power
Intercept	1.861		32.066	< 0.001	0.999
Length	0.028	0.652	49.466	< 0.001	1.000
* ¹⁵ N	- 0.268	- 0.606	42.713	< 0.001	1.000

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4 RSS is the regression residual sum of squares. AIC_C is the small sample bias adjusted Akaike information criterion. Δ_i is the difference between the model-specific AIC_C and the AIC_C of the

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1 TABLE and FIGURE Captions

2

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- 10 statistics.
- 11

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Figure 1: Map of Kerguelen Island and position relative southern hemisphere land masses (left
panel), sampling localisation for Kerguelen Island Arctic charr (middle panel) and bathymetry of
Lac des Fougères (right panel)

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Figure 2: Bi-variate stable isotope plot of Lac des Fougères *S. alpinus*. Black circles indicate the
predominantly littoral feeding individuals, while open circles indicate predominantly pelagic
feeding individuals. Ellipses correspond to approximately one standard deviation. Crosses denote
the mean ∀_one standard deviation of pelagic zooplankton and littoral captured nematodes used
to define a two compartment mixing model end members required to determine percent littoral

reliance. The inset histogram plots percent littoral reliance of all Lac des Fougères S. alpinus 32 computed using the mixing model. 33 34 Figure 3: Means ± S.E. (filled bars) and means±95% confidence intervals (whiskers) of length 35 and average growth rate (top panel) and stomach fullness index and trophic level index, *15N, 36 (bottom panel) for Lac des Fougères S. alpinus having high (> 50%) and low (< 50%) littoral 37 38 reliance as computed using a standard two compartment mixing model. In the top panel length is plotted with black bars and whiskerswhite and grey- and growth rate with white bars and 39 whiskersblack and hashed lines. In the bottom panel stomach fullness index is similarly plotted 40 with black bars and whiskers and white and *15N with white black and hashed lines bars and 41 42 whiskers. Figure 4: Plot of literature estimates of mortality versus observed maximum age for n=41 sub-43

Arctic and n=13 Arctic lakes populated by Arctic charr. The black dot plots the estimates derived
 for Kerguelen, The white and grey dots, respectively, plot the literature obtained estimates for
 sub-Arctic and Arctic lakes. The solid lined and dashed ellipse, respectively, encompass the
 mean∀one standard deviation of the data for sub-Arctic and Arctic lakes. The inset inset box and-whisker plot gives mean age-at-maturity data for the same set of lakes. The boxes plot the
 means ± S.E. and the whiskers plot the means±95% confidence intervals. The single open
 square plots the data for Kerguelen.

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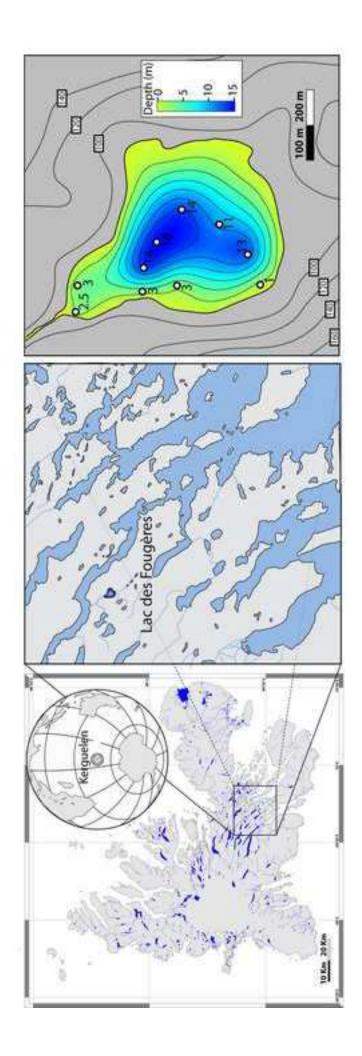
52	Figure 4 <u>5</u> : Bi-variate staple isotope plot of in Lac des Fougères Arctic charr plotted as a black
53	circle (\Box) and allopatric populations from the sub-Arctic plotted as grey squares (<u>-</u>) and high
54	Arctic island populations plotted as open square (G). A: Arresjøen, Svalbard (Rognerud et al.,
55	2002), B: Resolute Lake, Cornwallis Island (Gantner et al., 2010), C: 12 Mile Lake Cornwallis
56	Island (Gantner et al., 2010), D: 9 Mile Lake, Cornwallis Island (Gantner et al., 2010), E: Crazy
57	Lake, Baffin Island, (van der Velden et al., 2013), F: Heintzelman Lake, Ellesmere Island (van
58	der Velden et al., 2012), G: Unnamed Lake, Pangnirtung Fjord, Baffin Island (van der Velden et
59	al., 2012), H: Lake C, Ellesmere Island (Power unpublished data), I: Small Lake, Cornwallis
60	Island (Gantner et al., 2010), J : Lake G, Ellesmere Island (Power unpublished data), K:

61 Rauozutjaure, Sweden (Karlsson & Bystr'm 2005), L: Esker Lake, Labrador (van der Velden et

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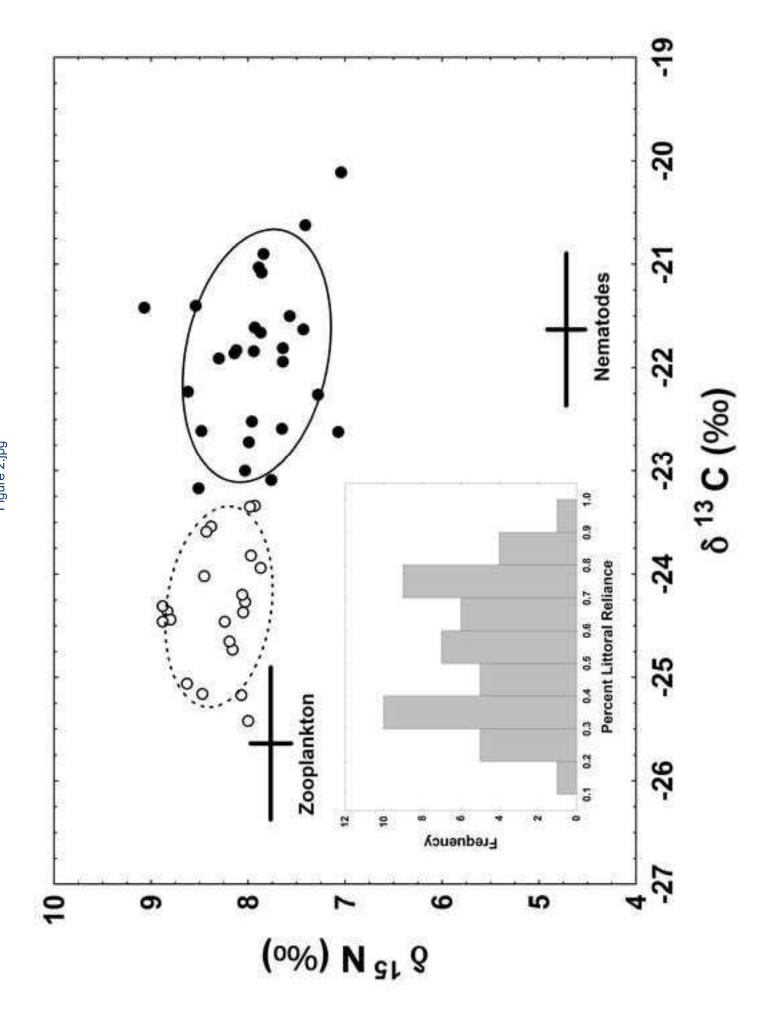
- *al.,.,* 2012), M: Unnamed Lake, Hebron Fjord Labrador (Power unpublished data), N:Cazajarvi,
- 63 Norway (Eloranta et al., 2017), O: Govdajarvi, Norway (Eloranta et al., 2017).

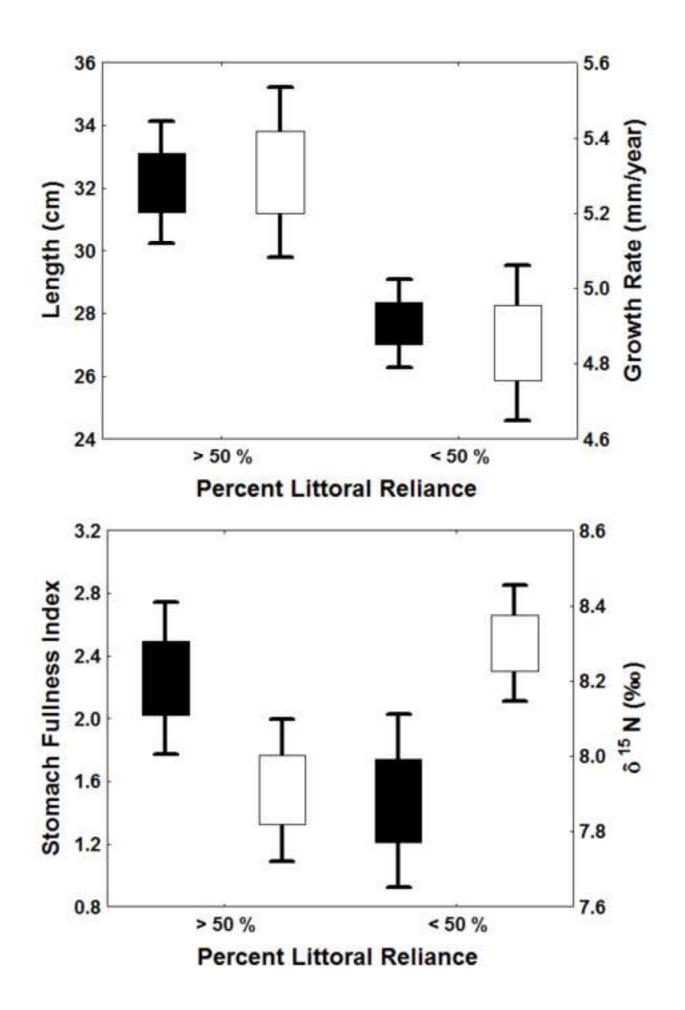




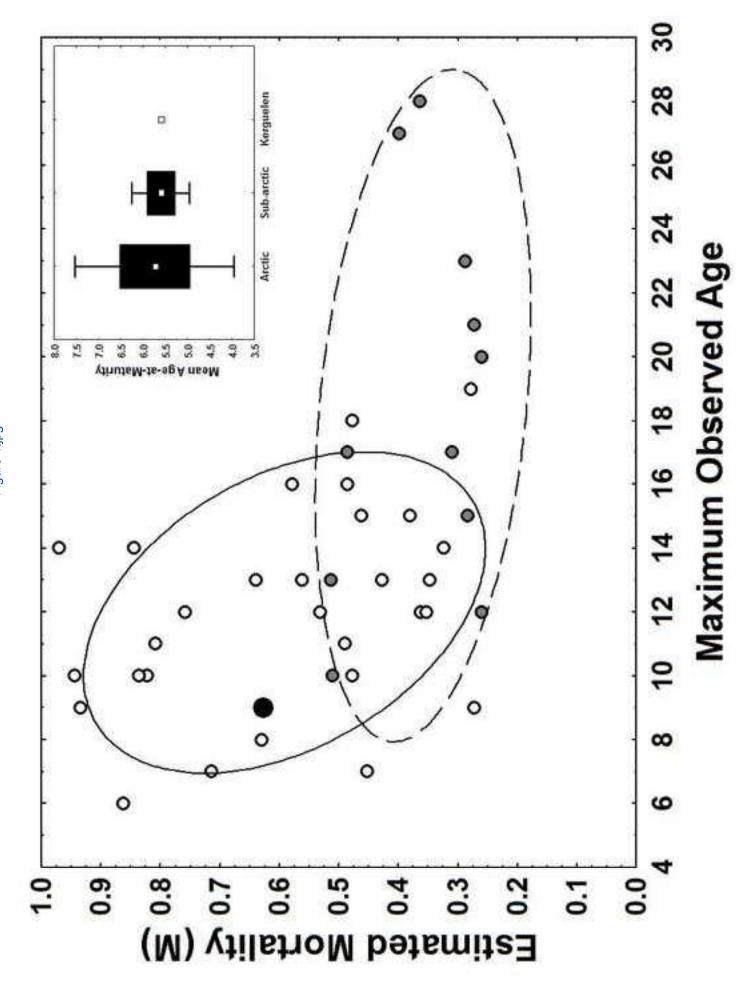


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