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Drifting along in the open-ocean: the associative behaviour of oceanic triggerfish and rainbow runner with floating objects

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11 Abstract

12 Multispecies aggregations at floating objects are a common feature throughout the world's tropical and subtropical oceans. The evolutionary benefits driving this associative behaviour 13 14 of pelagic fish remains unclear and information on the associative behaviour of non-tuna 15 species remains scarce. This study investigated the associative behaviour of oceanic 16 triggerfish (Canthidermis maculata) and rainbow runner (Elagatis bipinnulata), two major 17 bycatch species in the tropical tuna purse seine fishery, at floating objects in the western Indian Ocean. A total of 24 rainbow runner and 46 oceanic triggerfish were tagged with 18 19 acoustic transmitters at nine drifting FADs equipped with satellite linked receivers. Both 20 species remained associated with the same floating object for extended periods; Kaplan-Meier survival estimates (considering the censored residence time due to equipment failure 21 22 and fishing) suggested that mean residence time by rainbow runner and oceanic triggerfish 23 was of 94 and 65 days, respectively. During daytime, the two species increased their home range as they typically performed short excursions (< 2 hrs) away from the floating objects. 24 25 Rainbow runner performed more excursions per unit time than oceanic triggerfish; the mean 26 excursion index was 0.86 (\pm 0.8 SD) for oceanic triggerfish and 1.31 (\pm 1.1 SD) for rainbow 27 runner. Ambient light intensity appears to be the stimulus triggering the onset and end of the 28 associative modes. The observed prolonged residency of these two major bycatch species 29 suggests that they are more vulnerable to the tropical tuna purse seine gear than the targeted 30 tuna species.

31 Abstract word count: 242

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37 Introduction

38 Large multispecies aggregations at floating objects are a common feature of the world's tropical and subtropical oceans. While a total of 333 species have been recorded at floating 39 objects [Castro2001], it appears that far fewer, approximately 20 species, regularly associate 40 41 with floating objects [Kingsford1993, Taquet2007]. Numerous hypotheses have been proposed to explain the causes of this associative behaviour [Castro2001, Freon2000]. An 42 43 initial hypothesis was that fish use floating objects as shelter to reduce predation 44 [Gooding1967, Hunter1967, Rountree1989]. While underwater observations provide some support to this hypothesis for small fish [Gooding1967], it does not appear to be valid for 45 larger schooling species such as tunas. Other authors have suggested that association could be 46 47 driven by trophic advantages, by predating on associated fish [Gooding1967, Kojima1956]. 48 While predation events have been observed at fish aggregating devices (FADs) ([Hunter1967], unpublished personal observation), diet studies of tropical tunas and dorado 49 50 (Corvphaena hippurus) tend to indicate that the associated fauna does not represent a major 51 component of the diet of predators at floating objects [Taquet2004, Menard2000]. The meeting point hypothesis suggests that fish use the floating object as a spatial reference point 52 53 to facilitate schooling behaviour and form larger schools [Dagorn1999, Freon2000]. Another motive that has been suggested is that floating objects act as good indicators of productive 54 55 environments by accumulating in rich frontal areas [Bakun2006, Hall1992]. 56 A striking characteristic of multispecies aggregations is that the community appears to be 57 spatially structured relative to the floating objects. [Kojima1960] was the first to propose a 58 categorisation of the community based on radial distribution relative to the floating objects. 59 [Parin1992] then proposed three broad categories of spatial distribution: intranatant (< 50 cm 60 from the object), extranatant (50 cm to 2 m from the object) and circumnatant (> 2m from the 61 object) and subsequently, [Freon2000] proposed some distance modifications for these categories. However, none of these categories were determined empirically [Girard2007]. 62 Acoustic telemetry studies have allowed for empirical investigations on the distribution range 63 of FAD-associated species, which varied from 300-400 m for dorado [Taquet2007a] to 5-10 64 65 km for tunas [Dagorn2000c, Holland1990, Matsumoto2014]. With similar intent, [Moreno2007a] used acoustic surveys to observe the spatial distribution of biomass at 66 67 floating objects and while distinct structures could be identified, species specific details could 68 not be determined. Other than tunas, oceanic triggerfish (Canthidermis maculata) and 69 rainbow runner (*Elagatis bipinnulata*) often form the bulk of the aggregations around floating 70 objects [Romanov2002b, Lezama-Ochoa2015a, Amande2011], yet little is known about their associative behaviour, ecology or potential role in multispecies aggregation dynamics. 71 72 Large schools of skipjack (Katsuwonus pelamis), vellowfin (Thunnus albacares) and bigeve 73 tuna (T. obesus) are found at floating objects and fisherman have used floating objects as a 74 visual cue to locate pelagic fish in the open ocean. In the early 80's, tropical purse seiners started to deploy man-made floating objects (i.e. FADs), which were subsequently equipped 75 76 with electronic buoys to facilitate their relocation [Fonteneau2000]. This strategy proved to 77 be highly effective and rapidly lead to a massive increase in FAD deployments 78 [Fonteneau2000]. Moreover, since the mid 2000s, FADs were equipped with echosounder 79 buoys that provided fishermen with biomass estimates of target tuna species, allowing them 80 to locate larger schools and considerably increased their fishing efficiency [Fonteneau2013, 81 Lopez2014]. The annual landing of the tropical tuna purse seine fishery accounts for 5 million tons of tuna of which about 60% originates from fishing on floating objects 82 [Dagorn2013, ISSF 2019]. In the Indian Ocean, the total catch of tropical tuna is about 1 83 million tons with the purse seine fishery. The recent implementation of a yellowfin tuna 84 quota in the Indian Ocean considerably increased the effort on FAD fishing as the proportion 85

86 of FAD sets by purse seine fleets now represents between 90-96% (fleet dependent) of total sets [Fiorellato et al. 2019]. The multispecies nature of aggregations around floating objects 87 means that this practice generates 2.8–6.7 times (ocean dependant) more bycatch than when 88 89 fishing on free-swimming tuna schools [Dagorn2013]. The most dominant incidentally captured non-target species at FADs include dorado, rainbow runner, oceanic triggerfish, 90 wahoo (Acanthocybium solandri) and silky shark (Carcharhinus falciformis)[Amande2011a, 91 92 Amande2011, Romanov2002b]. Owing to higher bycatch rates and the preponderance of the 93 FAD-based fishery, concerns have been raised on its impacts on pelagic ecosystems and the 94 sustainability of this fishing practice has been questioned [Hall1996, Hall2000, Gilman2011]. 95 Moreover, some authors suggested that drifting FADs could act as an ecological trap for 96 associated species. The ecological trap hypothesis suggests that massive seeding of drifting FADs could have negative impact on the populations of associated species by altering the 97 natural movements of populations towards less favourable environments which could lead to 98 99 an increase in natural mortality and population declines [Marsac2000, Hallier2008a]. 100 Currently, little to no data is available on the basic biology, ecology and behaviour of oceanic triggerfish and rainbow runner associated with FADs. Information on their behaviour may 101 102 contribute towards a better understanding of the causes driving associative behaviour and provide essential elements to a holistic understanding of multispecies aggregations at floating 103 objects. Additionally, with an increased emphasis placed on ecosystem based management, 104 105 key ecological parameters of captured species are required to evaluate the impacts of fishing 106 mortality on the ecosystem. This study aimed to characterise the associative behaviour of 107 oceanic triggerfish and rainbow runner at floating objects using acoustic telemetry. The 108 objectives were to 1) estimate the residency at floating objects 2) examine temporal patterns 109 in association, 3) determine if there is a species specific associative pattern and evaluate the degree of similarity between individuals of the two species. 110

111 Materials and methods

112 Acoustic tagging

113 Four scientific cruises were conducted in the western Indian Ocean between March 2010 and April 2012. These cruises took place in the Mozambique Channel and around the Seychelles 114 Archipelago. Drifting FADs were located through collaboration with European purse seine 115 116 skippers. Firstly, a VR4-Global (VEMCO, Amarix Ltd., Canada) acoustic receiver was attached to the drifting FAD. These receivers utilise the Iridium satellite system to transmit 117 acoustic detection logs from tagged individuals on a daily basis. Oceanic triggerfish and 118 119 rainbow runner were caught using rod and reels or hand lines. Coded acoustic transmitters (V9, V9P, V9TP and V9AP (120 s nominal delay, 69 kHz, 1H; Table 1) were surgically 120 implanted into the peritoneal cavity following the standard methods implantation technique 121 122 [Dagorn2007a, Schaefer2004]. Captured individuals were brought onboard using a scoop net and placed on V-shaped tagging table. The fish were then rapidly examined to verify that no 123 injuries were sustained during capture. Only individuals that appeared to be in good condition 124 were tagged. The head of the fish was covered with a wet cloth, a hose pumping seawater 125 was placed by the mouth to irrigate the gills and a small incision (~2 cm) was made close to 126 the ventral midline into the peritoneal cavity. The tag was implanted into the peritoneal cavity 127 and two independent sutures were made to close the incision, the length of the fish was then 128 129 measured to the closest 0.5 cm (fork length for rainbow runner and total length for oceanic triggerfish) and the fish was then released in close proximity (<100 m) to the monitored 130 FAD. Once tagging was complete, the FAD and attached VR4-Global receiver were left to 131 132 drift and the data was relayed remotely. Daily detection logs and position logs from the VR4-133 Global receiver were then consolidated into a database for subsequent analysis. The FAD

drift patterns were constructed using positions obtained by the VR4-Global receiver (Figure1).



136

Figure 1: Drift trajectories of the nine experimental FADs monitored in the western IndianOcean. Red triangles indicate the starting point of the experiments.

Data Analysis

140 **Residency**

141 The total residence time (TRT) provides an indication of the residency of tagged fish at FADs. TRT is defined as the amount of time between the first detection and last detection 142 before the fish permanently left the FAD. The time when an individual first associated with 143 144 the floating object, prior to the experiment, is unknown. Hence, the real residency of individuals remains unknown. Additionally, some experiments were prematurely interrupted 145 by either commercial fishing operations, resulting in the capture of the entire FAD 146 147 aggregation, or by equipment failure. TRTs that were not interrupted artificially indicate that 148 the individuals left the FAD of their own accord and were recorded as "natural departures". 149 In order to standardise the varying experimental durations to allow comparisons between the different FADs where tagging was conducted, a residency index was calculated for each 150 151 individual. This index was calculated by dividing the TRT by the experimental duration for 152 each FAD (Table 1). This standardised index ranges from 0 to 1 and is commonly used in acoustic telemetry to provide estimates of the relative residency of tagged individuals within 153 an acoustic telemetry array [Afonso2012, Ledee2015]. In order to estimate the durations of 154 residency of the two species at FADs, a survival analysis of the TRT was conducted. Survival 155 analysis was used to analyse data where the outcome variable is the time until the occurrence 156 157 of a particular event (here departure from FAD) with the added ability to handle censored

- 158 observations (i.e. truncations). Survival analysis has previously been used in acoustic
- telemetry experiments with truncated data [Ohta2005, Robert2012a, Stehfest2013]. Kaplan-
- 160 Meier estimates of the survivor function of TRTs was calculated with 95% confidence
- intervals. For comparative purposes, two Kaplan-Meier survival functions were generated
 using i) TRTs considering censored data (i.e. stratified into natural departures and censored
- 163 data) and, ii) all TRTs with no censoring considered (i.e. all TRTs) to provide residence time
- estimations and assess the effect of censored data on estimates. A log-rank test was used to
- 165 test the differences in survival functions between the two species. An exponential survival
- 166 regression model was then fitted to each of the censored and uncensored curves to provide an
- estimation of residency for the two species at FADs. A constant hazard assumption was made
- 168 for the regression model, whereby the probability of leaving the FAD was independent of
- time. Additionally, the mean of the uncensored TRT was calculated to allow comparisonswith other studies reporting residency at FADs.
- 170 171

172 **Temporal patterns in association**

- 173 Detection timelines were constructed for each FAD depicting all detections of tagged
- individuals and were visually inspected to assess the patterns in the detection rates.
- Additionally, detection time series were converted into hourly detection time series and
- 176 hourly chronograms were constructed to examine temporal patterns in associative behaviour.
- 177
- 178 Cyclical patterns in the associative behaviour of each individual were examined through a
- 179 fast fourier transformation (FFT) applied to the hourly detection rates and the resulting
- 180 spectral density was plotted. FFT indicates whether rhythmic patterns existed in the presence
- 181 of tagged individuals at FADs [Barnett2012]. Distinct peaks in the spectral density indicates
- 182 the presence of cyclic rhythms and the time scale at which they occur, denoting the
- 183 periodicity. The spectral analysis was performed on individuals that had ≥ 5 days of data to
- 184 ensure sufficient sample size for the analysis. Additionally, a continuous wavelet
- transformation (CWT) was computed to examine the stability of the cyclic rhythms, such as a dial actuary and the CWT decomposes a time series into time for even as a
- diel pattern, over time. The CWT decomposes a time series into time-frequency space
 [Percival2000] and has previously been used to examine cyclic rhythms in fish behaviour
- 187 [Percival 2000] and has previously been used to examine cyclic mythins in fish behavior 188 [Alos2012a, March2010]. Morlet wavelets, using the "dplR" package in R, was used to
- 188 [<u>Alos2012a</u>, <u>March2010</u>]. Moriet wavelets, using the dpIR package in R, was used to
 189 construct a 2-dimensional wavelet spectrum and calculate a point wise test with a 95%
- 190 significance level. Spectrograms were then inspected to determine how persistent the cyclic
- 191 rhythms were over time according to the significance of the signal.
- 192
- 193 Gaps in the detection time series are indicative of periods when individuals ventured outside 194 the range of the receiver. Excursions were defined as a detection gap of > 1 hour and were
- the range of the receiver. Excursions were defined as a detection gap of > 1 hour and were used as temporal units to describe movements away from the FAD [Capello2015]. To assess
- the level of variability in the excursion behaviour amongst individuals an excursion index
- (EI) was calculated by dividing the total number of excursions by the TRT. This time
- 198 standardised index reflects the excursion activity of individuals and provided the number of
- 199 excursions per day. A high index value indicates more frequent excursions per unit time. The
- 200 distribution and durations of excursions were then examined over 24 hrs.
- 201
- 202 A cluster analysis was conducted to determine the degree of similarity, and synchronicity,
- amongst individuals and whether there was a species-specific pattern in associations.
- First, the detection time series were converted into hourly presence-absence time series to
- 205 remove the potential effect of detection variance and acoustic collisions. Secondly, for each
- FAD, the hourly presence-absence time series were trimmed synchronously to obtain the

same time segments for each individual. Finally, a hierarchical clustering was computed

using the Ward algorithm on euclidean distance matrices based on the presence-absence timeseries at each FAD using the R software [RCoreTeam2014].

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214 **Results**

A total of 24 rainbow runner and 46 oceanic triggerfish were tagged at nine drifting FADs
(Fig.1). Details of the tagging information are provided in Table <u>1</u>. All 70 individuals were
detected at the FAD where they were released. The cumulative number of observation days at
FADs was 919.5 d for oceanic triggerfish and 538.1 d for rainbow runner, yielding a total of

219 273 866 and 114 397 detections, respectively.

221 Table 1: Metadata of oceanic triggerfish (TRI) and rainbow runner (ELA) tagged at drifting

- FADs. TRT is the total residence time. * Denotes TRT with natural departures from FAD.
- Rainbow runner lengths are given in FL and oceanic triggerfish lengths by TL.
- 224

Tagging		Species	Size	FAD ID	Acoustic	Acoustic tag Experiment			Excursion		
Date	Time		(TL/FL cm	ı)	Туре	ID	Duration (days)	TRT	Num.	Index	
15/04/11	11:56	TRI	31.0	MAY41	V9TP	3601	21.4	20.7	1	0.0	
15/04/11	11:42	TRI	30.0	MAY41	V9TP	3603	21.4	21.3	1	0.0	
15/04/11	16:27	TRI	32.0	MAY41	V9P	64826	21.4	20.7	11	0.5	
15/04/11	16:04	TRI	30.0	MAY41	V9P	64827	21.4	20.7	58	2.8	
15/04/11	22:01	TRI	33.0	MAY41	V9P	64828	21.4	20.5	14	0.7	
16/04/11	07:15	TRI	33.0	MAY41	V9P	64829	21.4	20.7	16	0.8	
16/04/11	23:48	TRI	34.0	MAY41	V9P	64830	21.4	21.1	9	0.4	
16/04/11	21:46	TRI	30.0	MAY41	V9P	64831	21.4	21.12	20	0.9	
16/04/11	22:25	TRI	36.0	MAY41	V9P	64832	21.4	21.12	38	1.8	
16/04/11	-	TRI	30.0	MAY41	V9P	64834	21.4	1.6*	0	0.0	
20/04/11	11:59	ELA	24.0	MAY42	V9TP	3599	26.9	16.8*	1	0.1	
20/04/11	12:16	ELA	23.0	MAY42	V9P	30112	26.9	24.3	70	2.9	
20/04/11	18:45	ELA	23.0	MAY42	V9P	30114	26.9	24.6	81	3.3	
20/04/11	08:02	ELA	23.5	MAY42	V9P	64819	26.9	24.7	56	2.3	
21/04/11	-	ELA	23.5	MAY42	V9P	64835	26.9	24.7	66	2.7	
20/04/11	11:46	TRI	32.5	MAY42	V9P	3605	26.9	24.3	16	0.7	
20/04/11	11:05	TRI	32.5	MAY42	V9P	30113	26.9	10.5*	4	0.4	
20/04/11	07:43	TRI	36.5	MAY42	V9P	64820	26.9	10.1*	2	0.2	
20/04/11	07:10	TRI	34.0	MAY42	V9P	64821	26.9	8.0*	13	1.6	
20/04/11	07:01	TRI	31.0	MAY42	V9P	64822	26.9	8.0*	6	0.7	
21/04/11	16:50	TRI	32.0	MAY42	V9P	64823	26.9	9.1*	8	0.9	
21/04/11	16:35	TRI	35.0	MAY42	V9P	64824	26.9	9.0*	9	1.0	
15/03/10	18:21	TRI	33.0	MOZ31	V9P	64810	11.6	11.5	2	0.2	
15/03/10	18:13	TRI	33.0	MOZ31	V9P	64811	11.6	7.3*	1	0.1	
16/03/10	18:06	TRI	31.0	MOZ31	V9P	64813	11.6	10.8	28	2.6	
16/03/10	17:58	TRI	32.0	MOZ31	V9P	64814	11.6	10.8	3	0.3	
16/03/10	17:45	TRI	33.0	MOZ31	V9P	64815	11.6	9.3	2	0.2	
16/03/10	07:37	TRI	33.0	MOZ31	V9P	64816	11.6	10.8	0	0.0	
16/03/10	16:17	TRI	33.0	MOZ31	V9P	64817	11.6	10.8	1	0.1	

21/04/11	07:04	TRI	32.0	MOZ32	V9P	64809	10.8	11.0	0	0.0
08/03/10	11:25	ELA	45.0	MOZ34	V9P	64804	67.0	67.0	172	2.6
08/03/10	11:39	ELA	43.0	MOZ34	V9P	64805	67.0	67.0	172	2.6
09/03/10	18:53	TRI	28.0	MOZ34	V9	54304	67.0	26.8*	18	0.7
09/03/10	11:13	TRI	31.0	MOZ34	V9	54305	67.0	66.2	171	2.6
09/03/10	11:59	TRI	39.0	MOZ34	V9P	64806	67.0	66.2	80	1.2
09/03/10	12:05	TRI	34.0	MOZ34	V9P	64807	67.0	12.5*	9	0.7
09/03/10	07:19	TRI	30.0	MOZ34	V9P	64808	67.0	26.4*	34	1.3
22/06/11	17:40	ELA	65.0	SEY37	V9TP	3593	16.6	13.5	5	0.4
23/06/11	17:00	ELA	62.0	SEY37	V9TP	3595	16.6	15.4	1	0.1
24/06/11	14:05	ELA	79.5	SEY37	V9TP	3597	16.6	7.8*	3	0.4
24/06/11	14:30	ELA	77.0	SEY37	V9P	3621	16.6	11.4	1	0.1
23/06/11	17:45	TRI	30.5	SEY37	V9P	3617	16.6	10.8	0	0.0
23/06/11	18:00	TRI	28.0	SEY37	V9P	3618	16.6	10.8	0	0.0
24/06/11	13:52	TRI	30.0	SEY37	V9P	3619	16.6	10.1	1	0.1
24/06/11	14:15	TRI	30.5	SEY37	V9P	3620	16.6	13.5	3	0.2
13/04/12	14:48	ELA	63.5	SEY41	V9AP	4668	21.4	27.7*	36	1.3
14/04/12	08:56	ELA	28.5	SEY41	V9P	7072	21.4	29.8	75	2.5
14/04/12	11:30	ELA	30.0	SEY41	V9P	7073	21.4	29.8	77	2.6
14/04/12	18:32	TRI	29.0	SEY41	V9AP	4672	21.4	29.5	17	0.6
13/04/12	16:55	TRI	33.5	SEY41	V9P	7069	21.4	27.6*	93	3.4
14/04/12	07:40	TRI	30.5	SEY41	V9P	7070	21.4	29.9	50	1.7
14/04/12	08:02	TRI	30.0	SEY41	V9P	7071	21.4	29.9	30	1.0
18/06/11	14:00	ELA	30.5	SEY43	V9P	3586	4.4	3.4	1	0.3
19/06/11	10:59	ELA	57.0	SEY43	V9P	3588	4.4	3.3	2	0.6
19/06/11	11:20	ELA	32.0	SEY43	V9TP	3590	4.4	3.3	1	0.3
19/06/11	11:45	ELA	34.0	SEY43	V9P	3606	4.4	1.9	1	0.5
19/06/11	13:15	ELA	61.5	SEY43	V9TP	3607	4.4	2.3	1	0.4
19/06/11	13:45	ELA	79.0	SEY43	V9TP	3610	4.4	4.3	1	0.2
18/06/11	14:35	TRI	32.0	SEY43	V9P	3611	4.4	4.2	3	0.7
18/06/11	14:45	TRI	30.5	SEY43	V9P	3612	4.4	4.2	2	0.5
18/06/11	14:55	TRI	34.0	SEY43	V9P	3613	4.4	4.2	2	0.5
18/06/11	15:15	TRI	26.5	SEY43	V9P	3614	4.4	2.8	0	0.0
18/06/11	15:30	TRI	30.5	SEY43	V9P	3615	4.4	4.2	3	0.7
26/04/12	11:34	ELA	64.0	SEY59	V9AP	4680	85.2	16.8*	7	0.4
26/04/12	11:57	ELA	61.0	SEY59	V9AP	4682	85.2	17.0*	22	1.3
26/04/12	13:37	ELA	44.5	SEY59	V9AP	4684	85.2	16.7*	17	1.0
26/04/12	17:50	ELA	35.0	SEY59	V9AP	4686	85.2	84.9	206	2.4
26/04/12	10:15	TRI	30.5	SEY59	V9AP	4674	85.2	57.9*	17	0.3
26/04/12	10:27	TRI	35.0	SEY59	V9AP	4676	85.2	66.4*	23	0.3
26/04/12	10:33	TRI	32.0	SEY59	V9AP	4678	85.2	64.4*	16	0.2

230 **Residency**

231 TRT at FADs for the rainbow runner ranged between 1.9 to 84.9 days and 2.8 and 66.4 days for the oceanic triggerfish. The large range in residency was not always indicative of natural 232 behaviour as observations were often terminated prematurely due to either fishing operations, 233 234 which resulted in the capture of the FAD-associated fish, or equipment failure (Table 1). A high residency index score was obtained for both oceanic triggerfish (0.75 ± 0.28 , mean \pm 235 SD) and rainbow runner (0.75 ± 0.25 , mean \pm SD). Kaplan-Meier survival curves revealed 236 considerable overlaps in confidence intervals for both species suggesting that they displayed 237 238 similar residency patterns (Fig. 2). This was confirmed by the log-rank test of comparison as 239 no significant difference was observed between the survival functions of the two species (censored curve: $\gamma 2 = 0.8$, df = 1, p = 0.36, uncensored: $\gamma 2 = 0.9$, df = 1, p = 0.344). Kaplan-240 241 Meier survival curves considering the censored TRT did not reach 0 as the longest TRTs were censored due to equipment failure and suggest that the maximum residence time of 242 243 rainbow runner and oceanic triggerfish was underestimated. The Median values from the 244 Kaplan-Meier survival curves with censoring was 59 days for oceanic triggerfish but could not be determined for rainbow runner as the curve did not decrease below 0.5 due to the 245 246 censoring of the longest TRTs. Instead, the survivorship at 60% was used for comparisons. 247 The Kaplan-Meier survival curves with censoring estimated that 60% of oceanic triggerfish and rainbow runner remained associated with FADs for approximately 30 days and 25 days 248 respectively (Fig. 2(b)). Using uncensored data, the estimation was reduced to approximately 249 250 15 days for oceanic triggerfish and 17 days for rainbow runner (Fig. 2(a)). Mean residence time estimation using the survival regression model on censored data was 65 days for oceanic 251 triggerfish and 94 days for rainbow runner. The overall mean TRT (no regression model) was 252 of 21.01 days (\pm 17.59 SD) for oceanic triggerfish and 23.5 days (\pm 21.80 SD) for rainbow 253 254 -



Time(days)
Figure 2: Kaplan-Meier survival functions for oceanic urggerrish (grey mic) and rainbow
runner (black line) for (a) all TRTs and (b) natural departure TRTs and censored TRTs.
Horizontal ticks indicate censored data points. Dotted lines represent 95% confidence
interval.

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261 Temporal patterns in association

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In general, both species remained within the reception range of the receiver throughout most
of the day (Figs. 3 ,4). Gaps in detections indicate when individuals were out of the reception
range, away from the FADs (Fig. 3,4, S1).



- 267 268 Figure 3: Examples of hourly detection chronogram for rainbow runner (ID# 4668, 7072,
- 7073) and oceanic triggerfish (ID# 4672, 7069, 7070, 7071) at FAD SEY41. Each strip 269
- illustrates the hourly detections of an individual (ID# on the left). Hour of the day is on the y-270
- 271 axis and time (days) on the x-axis. The scale denotes the corresponding number of detections.



Figure 4: Examples of hourly detection chronogram for oceanic triggerfish (ID# 3605, 30113, 64820, 64823, 64824, 64822, 64821) and rainbow runner (ID# 30112, 64835, 64819, 30114,

- 275 3599) at FAD MAY42. Each strip illustrates the hourly detections of an individual (ID# on
- the right). Hour of the day is on the y-axis and time (days) on the x-axis. The scale denotesthe corresponding number of detections.



285 286

Figure 5: Examples of fast fourier transform (FFT) spectral densities for three oceanic

triggerfish (top) and three rainbow runner (bottom) at drifting FADs. 287



Figure 6: Wavelet spectrum examples of oceanic triggerfish (Top; ID# 7069, 7070, 7071,

290 3605, 64824, 64827) and rainbow runner (bottom; ID# 7072, 7073, 4668, 4686, 30114, 3599)

using Morlet wavelet of hourly detections showing persistent diel behaviour (left) and

intermittent diel behaviour (right). Barred area represents the cone of influence (COI). Values

- inside the COI cannot be interpreted due to edge effects. The thick black contour lines
- represent 95% confidence level and the scale bar represents the intensity of the time-
- 295 frequency space over time.

- 296 Temporal patterns in association using FFT spectral analysis revealed a strong periodicity in
- the association of both species at FADs with a distinct peak at 24 h (Fig. <u>5</u>). This pattern was
- observed for all analysed individuals of both species (rainbow runner n = 18, oceanic
- triggerfish n = 40) with sufficient data (> 5 days), indicating the presence of a distinct diel pattern in their associative behaviour. This diel pattern is characterised by a stronger
- 301 association during the night and excisions away from the FAD during the day.
- 302

303 Moreover, the 24 h periodicity was clear on the wavelet spectrograms with a significant signal (Fig. 6). However, intraspecific variability in the persistence of the 24 h periodicity 304 305 was apparent (Fig. 6). Examples in Fig. 6 illustrates different patterns in the persistence of 306 periodicity; some individuals exhibited continuous periodicity (oceanic triggerfish: ID# 7079, 7070, 7071; rainbow runner: ID# 7072, 7073, 4668) throughout their residency at FADs 307 while others displayed intermittent periods of periodicity (oceanic triggerfish: ID# 3605, 308 64824, 64827; rainbow runner: ID# 4686, 30114, 3588). These observed differences in 309 pattern were not FAD specific, but rather reflects individual behavioural variability. 310

310 311

312 Overall, 82% of tagged oceanic triggerfish performed excursions while all tagged rainbow

runner performed at least one excursion (Table 1). The distributions of the excursion index

314 was not unimodal (Fig.<u>7</u>). A second mode was observed in the excursion index distributions

of rainbow runner and to a lesser extent for oceanic triggerfish. This indicates a different

316 modality in the associative behaviour; some individuals performed ~2-3 times more

excursions per day than their conspecifics (Fig.<u>7</u>). Rainbow runner performed more

- 318 excursions per day than oceanic triggerfish; the mean excursion index was of $0.86 (\pm 0.8 \text{ SD})$
- for oceanic triggerfish and $1.31 (\pm 1.1 \text{ SD})$ for rainbow runner. The mean duration of
- excursions was of 2.0 hours (\pm 1.6 SD) for oceanic triggerfish and 2.4 hours (\pm 2.2 SD) for
- 321

Figure 7: Frequency histogram distributions of excursion index for oceanic triggerfish (left)
and rainbow runner (right)

Figure 8: Box and whisker plots of excursion durations of oceanic triggerfish (TRI) and rainbow runner (ELA).

The distribution and durations of excursions were then examined at a 24 h scale at all the FADs. The heatmap (Fig. 9) indicates that the majority of the excursion activity (departures and returns) occurred during the daytime for both species (rainbow runner: 72.5 %, oceanic triggerfish: 81.2%). A sharp increase in excursion departure occurred at sunrise and a

decrease at sunset irrespective of the excursion duration. While excursion durations were

336 typically short (Fig. 8), the pattern observed for longer excursions was distinct; for both

337 species, there was a linear decrease in the longer excursion which ended before sunset (Fig.

338 9).

340

Figure 9: Heatmap of departure and return time (local time) of excursions with corresponding
durations for oceanic triggerfish (top) and rainbow runner (bottom) at all the FADs. Densities
are represented on the scale bars. Areas between doted lines represent sunrise and sunset
hours.

345 346

The variability in the associative behaviour amongst individuals of the two species as well as temporal variability of individuals during their association is depicted in Figs. 3,4 and 6. While some detection gaps may appear to be synchronous, they do not appear to be systematic amongst individuals of the same species. The clustering analysis revealed that there was no clear species-specific grouping in the associative patterns; some triggerfish displayed more similar associative behaviours to rainbow runner than their conspecifics (Fig.

- 353 <u>10</u>).
- 354

Figure 10: Examples of cluster dendrogram of hourly presence-absence segments for FAD SEY41 and MAY42. End nodes are denoted by ID number and species code (TRI = oceanic triggerfish, ELA = rainbow runner).

363

368 **Discussion**

369 **Residency at FADs**

370 Both rainbow runner and oceanic triggerfish remained associated with the same floating object for extended periods. The maximum residence time at the same drifting FAD recorded 371 372 during this study (i.e. 84.6 days for rainbow runner and 66.4 days for oceanic triggerfish) 373 represents the highest values ever reported for FAD-associated fishes. [Dagorn2007] was the 374 first study to tag both tuna and non-target species (121 fish of 7 different species) at drifting 375 FADs. Their study provided a general mean residence time for vellowfin tuna (mean: 1.04 376 days, ± 2.23 SD), skipjack tuna (mean: 0.91 days, ± 2.17 SD), bigeye tuna (mean: 1.43 days, 377 \pm 1.46 SD) silky sharks (mean: 5.33 days, \pm 3.16 SD), wahoo (mean: 1.57 days, \pm 2.73 SD), 378 dolphinfish (mean: 3.96 days, \pm 3.86 SD), silky sharks (mean: 5.33 days, \pm 3.16 SD) and 379 oceanic triggerfish (mean: 12.49 days, ± 6.08 SD), while [Filmalter2015] reported a mean residence time of 14.03 days at drifting FADs for silky sharks. [Taquet2007a] reported that 380 381 the mean residence time of dorado at drifting FADs was of 6.25 days (median of 5.09 days). 382 The overall mean residence time in this study was 21.03 days for oceanic triggerfish and 23.5 days for rainbow runner which is considerably longer than what was reported above. No 383 384 previous investigations have reported on the residency of rainbow runners at drifting FADs. While the 'raw' mean residence time provides some general indication of residency, it is 385 biased by observation lengths and truncations. Indeed, the mean residence time estimation 386 387 from the regression model of censored data was considerably higher with 65 days for oceanic triggerfish and 94 days for rainbow runner. Using mean values as a descriptor of the 388 389 survivorship can be misleading due to the skewed nature of the survival functions. It is 390 therefore recommended that median values from Kaplan-Meier survival curves (with censoring) are jointly reported in order to allow appropriate comparisons of residency time 391 392 estimations between studies. The residency index also indicated high residency with scores 393 above 0.75 being comparable to those obtained for resident reef species [Alos2012a, 394 Mason2010, Toole2011].

The ecological trap hypothesis suggests that massive seeding of drifting FADs could have a
negative impact on the populations of associated species [Hallier2008c, Marsac2000]. To
date, there no clear evidence in favour of this hypothesis and the few studies that have

- investigated this topic have focused on tunas [Hallier2008c, Menard2000, Robert2014]. In a
- hypothetical ecological trap scenario, the impacts on populations of oceanic triggerfish and
- 400 rainbow runner, due to their long residency, should be more prominent. However, as
- 401 highlighted by [<u>Robert2014</u>], demonstrating the presence of an ecological trap scenario is not
 402 trivial and requires baseline information on biological parameters (e.g. physiological
- 402 urivial and requires baseline information on biological parameters (e.g. physiological 403 condition, reproductive success, etc). While the two studied species could be good candidates
- to study the ecological trap hypothesis, the difficulty remains in finding a control to test this
 hypothesis.
- 406

407 **Temporal patterns in association**

Diel pattern in association with FADs have been reported for yellowfin, bigeye and skipjack
 tuna at anchored FADs [Holland1990, Marsac1998, Ohta2005, Yuen1970] and drifting FADs

- 410 [Forget2015, Schaefer2013, Matsumoto2014] with a closer association during the day.
- 411 Similarly, silky sharks displayed a stronger association during the day [Filmalter2015,
- 412 Forget2015] while no clear pattern was found for dorado at FADs [Taquet2007a]. A distinct
- 413 diel pattern in the associative behaviour with FADs was observed here for oceanic triggerfish
- and rainbow runner. Contrastingly, the diel pattern observed for these two species was
- 415 opposite to that of other pelagic species described above. During daytime, the two species

416 increased their home range as they performed excursions away from the FAD, out of the 417 receiver's reception range. This diel pattern is more commonly observed in reef associated species [Koeck2014, Alos2011]. The studies mentioned above have suggested that nocturnal 418 419 feeding behaviour drives the switch in the associative mode of tunas and silky shark as they 420 move away from the FAD and feed on the deep scattering layer. An opposing diel pattern in the pelagic realm observed for oceanic triggerfish and rainbow runner is intriguing and may 421 422 reflect differences in foraging strategy or predator avoidance mechanisms. Information on 423 their vertical movement behaviour to investigate the depth strata usage and feeding ecology may help elucidate this different diel associative pattern. 424 425 Ambient light intensity appears to be the stimulus triggering the onset and end of the 426 associative modes. After sunrise, the two species typically increase their home range and perform excursions away from the FAD. The average excursion duration of oceanic 427 triggerfish (2.05 h) and rainbow runner (2.45 h) suggests that individuals, generally, do not 428 429 venture far from the FAD. Considering a swimming speed of 1 body length per sec, the 430 maximum home range size of the two species (assuming constant speed and a linear 431 movement away from FAD) during a typical excursion could range between 1.1 and 2.2 km. During an active tacking experiment conducted on FAD SEY41, the maximum measured 432 distance of oceanic triggerfish away from the FAD (during an excursion), while tracking a 433 434 silky shark, was 800 m [Filmalter2015]. The homing abilities and mechanisms used by fish to 435 return and relocate FADs has intrigued scientists for many years. Tunas perform extended 436 nocturnal excursions away from FADs and active tracking studies have reveiled that, during this time, they can be found within a radius of 5-10 km from the FAD [Dagorn2000c, 437 438 Holland1990, Matsumoto2014]. The ability of tuna to relocate FADs from such large 439 distances demonstrates their navigational and homing capabilities [Holland1990]. [Girard2007] investigated the homing abilities of dorado through displacement experiments 440 441 and acoustic telemetry and reported successful homing up to 1.6 km from the FAD. [Filmalter2015] actively tracked a silky shark at a drifting FAD during one day and reported 442 a maximum straight line distance of 1.2 km between the shark and the FAD. [Ibrahim1990] 443 investigated the ability of various small (< 40 cm TL) FAD-associated species to relocate 444 FADs by displacing fish tagged with floats at various distances from the FAD and reported 445 that a maximum homing distance of 180 m. In their pioneer study, [Hunter1967] looked into 446 447 the homing ability of oceanic triggerfish by tagging and releasing 10 individuals at 7.5, 15 and 30.5 m from their original drifting log. None of the fish released at 30.5 m returned to the 448 449 original log. The authors concluded that the greatest distance was outside the visual range of 450 the fish and thus the fish could not orientate towards it. The results from this study, however, 451 indicate that both oceanic triggerfish and rainbow runner are capable of returning to the FAD after several hours out of its visual range (several hundred meters) and as highlighted by 452 453 previous studies [Dempster2003, Ibrahim1990] vision cannot be of aid from such large distances. It is conceivable that other sensory cues, such as sounds generated by the floating 454 455 object or the fishes in close proximity to it, may be used by FAD associated species for homing, however, the hearing capabilities of pelagic fish and its use for navigation remains 456 457 unclear [Dempster2003]. 458 The motive of excursions away from FADs displayed by tunas, dorado and silky shark has 459 largely been attributed to foraging activities [Filmalter2015, Holland1990, Taquet2007a]. Foraging could also be the primary motive causing the increase in home range of the two 460 studied species. If so, the fact that excursions occur during the day suggests that the two 461 462 species have a different foraging strategy to that of tunas and silky sharks; which tend to be

463 more active nocturnally. [Klima1971] proposed that floating objects act as a spatial reference

464 point that fish use to orientate in an otherwise unstructured environment. The two species

- 465 may temporarily increase their home range for feeding while using the FAD as a reference466 point.
- 467 The cluster analysis revealed that there was no species-specific grouping of the associative
- 468 behaviour at FADs. Variability was observed in the associative behaviour amongst
- individuals of the two species and the fact there was no systematic synchronisation in
- 470 absences from FAD amongst individuals suggests that oceanic triggerfish and rainbow runner
- 471 do not form unique monospecific schools at FADs and are more likely to form several sub
- schools. Some individuals of the two species performed 2 to 3 times more excursions per unit
- time than their conspecifics. This intraspecific difference in behaviour was more apparent forrainbow runner and suggests the presence of a different behavioural mode. The fact that
- 474 randow runner and suggests the presence of a different behavioural mode. The fact that475 individuals at the same FAD experiencing the same abiotic and biotic environmental
- 476 conditions display different behaviours indicates behavioural polymorphism. Behavioural
- 477 variability in fishes has been observed at fine scales under controlled laboratory conditions
- 478 [Raimondi1990] and has also been used to explain differences in large scale movements,
- such as migration [Kerr2009]. Explaining behavioural variability is challenging as the
- 480 interplay between genetic variability, historical shifts in selection pressures and adaptive
- 481 behaviour is hard to disentangle. Nevertheless, it is conceivable that foraging competition
- 482 amongst numerous aggregated individuals (several hundreds at a single FAD; personal
- d83 observation), within a restricted spatial sphere could favour these different behaviouralmodes.
- 485 Temporal variability in associative behaviour was apparent for both species. Wavelet analysis
- 486 provided additional information on the persistence of diel patterns. Periods (days) when diel
- 487 behaviour were less distinct were apparent as gaps in the periodicity signal were observed.
- 488 Interestingly, periods with altered associative behaviour were sometimes synchronised
- amongst individuals suggesting a change in behaviour that could be a response to a particular
- 490 stimulus of biotic or abiotic nature. In order to resolve which factors can influence the
- 491 associative behaviour, information on biotic and abiotic variables should be collected
- 492 simultaneously during experiments. More specifically, biotic factors, such as prey and
- 493 predator density and details on the species assemblage, and abiotic factors, such as thermal
 494 structure of water column, FAD densities, would aid in understanding how such factors that
- 494 structure of water column, FAD densities, would a 495 can influence associative behaviour.

496 Conclusion

- 497 Oceanic triggerfish and rainbow runner have remarkably similar behavioural patterns in their498 association with FADs. This suggests that the convergence of their behaviour has risen from
- 499 similar selective pressures and, hence, the two species are likely to have similar motives in
- associating with floating objects. More data on the ecology of the two species are required to
- 501 pinpoint the exact motivations driving their behaviour. The long residence times observed for
- 502 the two species implies that they are susceptible to high fishing effort on FADs. As such, key
- 503 biological parameters and data to determine their ecological role in the pelagic ecosystem are
- 504 need to model increased fishing mortality linked to the FAD based tuna fishery.
- 505 It must however be noted that obtaining a metric of natural departure from FADs is
- 506 challenging as it requires large effort, but, nevertheless, it remains a key parameter for
- 507 modelling approaches to estimate direct and indirect impacts of FADs on the pelagic508 ecosystem.
- 509

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518	
519	Compliance with ethical standards
520	•
521	Conflict of interest
522	The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.
523	
524	Ethical approval
525	All applicable international, national, and/or institutional guidelines for the care and use of
526	animals were followed.
527	
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