

1 **Migration to freshwater increases growth rates in a facultatively catadromous tropical**
2 **fish**

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16 *Our study provides the first evidence that catadromy confers a growth advantage. We provide*
17 *new insights into the evolutionary and ecological factors that may shape the expression of*
18 *diadromy in fish.*

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Declaration of authorship

BR and DC designed the research. BR performed biochronological analyses, analysed the data and wrote the manuscript. TS provided otoliths used in this study. JW and BR conducted microchemical analyses. JM provided statistical expertise. DC, JM, DM, AK and TS discussed and interpreted the results and edited the manuscript.

20 **Abstract**

21 Diadromy is a form of migration where aquatic organisms undergo regular movements
22 between fresh and marine waters for the purposes of feeding and reproduction. Despite
23 having arisen in independent lineages of fish, gastropod molluscs and crustaceans, the
24 evolutionary drivers of diadromous migration remain contentious. We test a key aspect of the
25 ‘productivity hypothesis’, which proposes that diadromy arises in response to primary
26 productivity differentials between marine and freshwater habitats. Otolith chemistry and
27 biochronology data are analyzed in a facultatively catadromous tropical fish (barramundi,
28 *Lates calcarifer*) to determine the effect of freshwater residence on growth rates. Individuals
29 that accessed fresh water grew ~25% faster on average than estuarine residents in the year
30 following migration, suggesting that catadromy provides a potential fitness advantage over
31 non-catadromous (marine/estuarine) life-histories, as predicted by the productivity
32 hypothesis. Although diadromous barramundi exhibited faster growth than non-diadromous
33 fish, we suggest that the relative reproductive success of diadromous and non-diadromous
34 contingents is likely to be strongly influenced by local environmental variability such as
35 temporal differences in river discharge, and that this may facilitate the persistence of diverse
36 life history strategies within populations.

37 **Key words**

38 Diadromy, partial migration, life history, biochronology, otolith chemistry

39 **Introduction**

40 Diadromy, where aquatic fauna migrate between fresh and marine biomes, represent some of
41 nature’s most well-known and spectacular migrations. Three forms are recognised:
42 *anadromy*, where adults migrate from the sea to fresh water to spawn; *catadromy*, where

43 adults migrate from fresh water to spawn in marine habitats; and *amphidromy*, where
44 individuals undertake predictable migrations between marine and fresh waters that are
45 unrelated to spawning (Myers 1949; McDowall 1988). Understanding the mechanisms
46 underpinning the evolution and maintenance of diadromous migrations is important given
47 their impact on a variety of ecosystem processes in aquatic environments. Diadromy shapes
48 the biogeography and evolution of species (McDowall 1998) and plays a key role in the
49 transportation of nutrients across marine and freshwater ecotones, thus influencing food web
50 and ecosystem dynamics (Wipfli et al. 2003). Scientific interest in diadromy also has a strong
51 practical basis, with many diadromous species targeted for commercial and recreational
52 fishing and being increasingly challenged by anthropogenic disruptions to migratory
53 pathways due to dams and other disturbances (Crook et al. 2015).

54 Despite the physiological and osmoregulatory challenges associated with transitioning
55 between marine and freshwater habitats, diadromous life-histories have independently arisen
56 across several lineages of fish, gastropod molluscs and crustaceans (McDowall 1999). The
57 pathways leading to the evolution of diadromy across this broad range of taxa remain
58 contentious. Gross (1987) and Gross et al. (1988) proposed a conceptual model ('productivity
59 hypothesis' (Bloom and Lovejoy 2014)), contending that the tendency for diadromous
60 species to exhibit anadromy in temperate regions and catadromy in the tropics was
61 attributable to global patterns in marine and freshwater productivity. They posited that (1) the
62 proximate cause of diadromy is a differential between freshwater and marine primary
63 productivity, with relatively high marine productivity driving anadromy in temperate
64 latitudes, compared with relatively high freshwater productivity driving catadromy in the
65 tropics; and (2) that anadromy and catadromy represent intermediate evolutionary phases
66 between exclusively marine and freshwater lifecycles, respectively. The generality of the
67 second premise of this hypothesis has not been supported by recent phylogenetic studies

68 (Feutry et al. 2013; Bloom and Lovejoy 2014). The role of aquatic productivity in shaping the
69 evolution of diadromy has also been challenged based on a lack of substantiating evidence
70 (e.g., (McDowall 1997). However, to date there has been little empirical study of the
71 influence of productivity differentials on the relative fitness of migratory organisms.

72 Similar to other major taxa (e.g., birds (Lundberg 1988); mammals (Ball et al. 2001);
73 insects (Hansson and Hylander 2009)), recent research on diadromous fishes has
74 demonstrated the widespread co-existence of distinct migratory phenotypes within
75 populations: a phenomenon often referred to as ‘partial migration’ (see Chapman et al. 2012).
76 Partial migration is thought to be driven primarily by individual physiological and
77 behavioural asymmetries, and may arise as evolutionary stable strategies (Chapman et al.
78 2011; De Leenheer et al. 2017). According to the productivity hypothesis, diadromous
79 migration from breeding grounds to more productive feeding habitats should confer a growth
80 advantage relative to the non-diadromous state. Thus, populations of partially diadromous
81 fishes present an opportunity to examine the consequences of contrasting life-history
82 strategies among individuals. Although the effect of diadromy on growth has received some
83 attention among anadromous fishes in temperate regions (e.g., Snyder 1991; Kendall et al.
84 2014; Bond et al. 2015), such relationships have received limited attention among
85 catadromous fishes.

86 In this study, we test the hypothesis that growth rates of a facultatively catadromous
87 fish in tropical Australia are enhanced during freshwater residence, as predicted by the
88 productivity hypotheses. Whilst reproductive success, the ultimate measure of fitness, may be
89 influenced by a range of factors (e.g., Durham and Wilde 2009), growth is a key determinant
90 of individual fitness because it can be correlated positively with fecundity and offspring
91 quality (Barneche et al. 2018), mating success (Bisazza and Marconato 1988) and escape
92 from size-specific predation (Perez and Munch 2010). We reconstruct individual salinity

93 histories by analysing strontium isotope ratios ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$) of barramundi otoliths. Annual
94 otolith growth increments are then measured to estimate somatic growth rates throughout
95 ontogeny and in relation to ambient salinity to determine whether migration into freshwater
96 confers a growth advantage to catadromous individuals. The results of our study are
97 discussed with regards to the potential fitness consequences of catadromous migration in the
98 context of the productivity hypothesis.

99 **Materials and methods**

100 **Study species**

101 Barramundi is a large, high order predator that is widespread throughout coastal regions and
102 freshwater habitats in the Indo-West Pacific region. The species supports substantial
103 commercial, recreational, subsistence and aquaculture fisheries across its range. Barramundi
104 are sequential hermaphrodites, maturing first as males at 3-4 years of age, before
105 transitioning into females at 6-8 years of age (Grey 1987). Spawning occurs exclusively in
106 marine or estuarine habitats during the monsoonal wet season, where larvae hatch and are
107 thought to spend the first few months of life inhabiting tidal areas. In Australian populations,
108 a proportion of juveniles migrate upstream into the freshwater reaches of rivers and
109 floodplain lakes (known locally as billabongs) towards the end of the wet season. Individuals
110 that forgo catadromous migration in their first year typically remain resident in marine or
111 estuarine habitats throughout life, although a small proportion migrates into freshwater in
112 their second and third years (Crook et al. 2017). After a period of up to 10 years of fresh
113 water residency, catadromous individuals return to the spawning grounds to breed. Most fish
114 continue to reside in saline or brackish water for the remainder of the life-history after
115 spawning (Crook et al 2017). Fish typically breed first as males before undergoing sexual
116 inversion and transitioning into females. Some individuals directly develop or transition into

117 females during the freshwater residency phase without returning to the estuary to spawn as
118 males (Crook et al. 2017).

119 **Growth and salinity proxies**

120 The microstructure and chemistry of barramundi otoliths (earstones) were analysed to explore
121 growth and migration behaviour. As with other bony fishes, calcareous material is deposited
122 incrementally on the otolith surface continually throughout life, at a rate that is generally
123 correlated with somatic growth (Campana and Thorrold 2001). Analogous to
124 dendrochronological analyses performed on growth rings in trees, the distances between
125 annual growth rings laid down within otoliths may be measured to determine favourable
126 years for growth (Morrongiello and Thresher 2015). Additionally, trace elements from
127 ambient water are incorporated into the calcium carbonate matrix of otoliths. As this material
128 is not physiologically reworked, otolith microchemistry may be analysed to infer the ambient
129 water chemistry (in this case, salinity) experienced at different stages of fish life-histories and
130 thus the timing of migrations (Eldson et al. 2008). Sr isotope ratios are an ideal proxy to
131 detect diadromous migrations, because unlike trace element concentrations, they directly
132 reflect ambient salinity and are not influenced by physiology, diet or other environmental
133 factors (Eldson et al. 2008; Hughes et al. 2014).

134 **Study sites**

135 Barramundi otoliths were obtained from samples collected between 2008 and 2015 from the
136 Daly and Mary rivers, and to a lesser extent, the South Alligator, Roper and McArthur rivers
137 in the Northern Territory, Australia (Table S1). All rivers are located within Australia's
138 wet/dry tropics and are free of major dams and other artificial barriers to migration. Samples
139 from coastal marine, estuarine and freshwater habitats were collected using commercial,

140 recreational and scientific fishing practices to ensure that both migratory and resident fish
141 were represented in the analyses.

142 **Otolith preparation and analyses**

143 Otoliths from 131 barramundi were embedded in epoxy resin, sectioned through the
144 primordium, then polished and mounted on glass slides. Chemical analysis was conducted on
145 each otolith section using a multi-collector Laser Ablation Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass
146 Spectrometer (LA-ICPMS) operated at the University of Melbourne, Australia, following the
147 methods of Woodhead et al. (2005). $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios were measured along a transect,
148 following the axis of growth from the otolith core to the proximal edge. Otolith $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ data
149 were then examined alongside water $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ salinity mixing models previously constructed
150 for the Daly, Mary, Roper and South Alligator rivers to recreate the lifetime salinity history
151 for each fish (Table S2; see Crook et al. 2017). An additional $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ salinity mixing model
152 was constructed for the McArthur river using the methods described by Crook et al. (2017).
153 $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values corresponding to salinities <1ppt were considered to represent freshwater
154 residency, whereas $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values above this value were considered to represent residency
155 in more saline estuarine or marine habitats.

156 Sectioned otoliths were viewed under a dissecting microscope, photographed and
157 distances (μm) measured from the inside of each opaque zone (i.e., annual increment; Stuart
158 and McKillup (2002)) to the inside of the next opaque zone using image analyses software
159 (Leica Application Suite, v. 4.2, Figure 1). Measurements were taken along the laser-ablated
160 transect, allowing us to estimate ambient salinity in relation to annual increment formation.
161 Reconstruction of growth histories via otolith increment analysis assumes that otolith growth
162 is proportional to somatic growth across the life history (Campana 1990). In our barramundi
163 samples, regression analysis demonstrated a strong linear relationship between otolith size

164 and fish length (Figure S1). We assumed a November 1 birthdate for all fish (Stuart and
165 McKillup 2002), and assigned each annulus a growth year (November 1- October 31) based
166 on back-calculation from known date of capture. Each annual growth measurement was
167 assigned a categorical salinity value: ‘freshwater’ or ‘estuarine’ if an entire growing year was
168 spent in either habitat (freshwater: $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} < 1$ ppt, estuarine: $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} > 1$ ppt). Annual
169 growth measurements were classified as ‘mixed’ if a portion of a year was spent in each
170 habitat.

171 **Data analysis**

172 A mixed effects modelling framework was used to investigate the effect of salinity on growth
173 (increment width, μm) (Morrongiello and Thresher 2015). A series of models were developed
174 using the *lme4* package (Bates et al. 2013) in R Studio 1.0.143 (RStudio Team 2016)
175 containing different combinations of intrinsic and extrinsic predictors, and their interactions.
176 The first increment was excluded from the analyses because the protracted spawning period
177 of barramundi (September-March) may result in different length growth periods prior to
178 deposition of the first increment among individuals. Similarly, we excluded growth
179 increments beyond age eight from our analyses because nearly all fish had returned to the
180 estuary and resided there or associated coastal habitats by this age. Our analyses therefore
181 included data for ages 2-8 from 131 individuals (67 collected in fresh water, 64 collected
182 from estuarine or coastal habitats).

183 Fixed intrinsic predictors were the age of the fish at the time of increment formation
184 (*Age*), and the age-at-capture (*AAC*). The former term was included in models to allow for
185 decreasing growth with age while the latter was included to test and account for any potential
186 age selectivity biases associated with sample collection (Morrongiello et al. 2012). We
187 included a random intercept for *FishID* to allow each fish to have higher or lower growth

188 than average (model's overall intercept), and to account for the non-independence of repeated
189 increment measurements from the same fish. We also explored whether allowing for
190 individual-specific deviations from the overall age: growth relationship (random *Age* slopes
191 for *FishID*) improved model performance. We allowed for the possibility that increments
192 formed by different fish in the same year were non-independent by including a *Year* random
193 intercept, because concurrent environmental conditions (i.e. good or poor growing years) may
194 be expected to exert similar effects on groups of individuals. Similarly, we included a *Cohort*
195 random intercept to account for any persistent growth effects among individuals of a common
196 year class. We tested for consistent among-river variation in annual and cohort-specific
197 growth by composing models that included *River: Year* and *River: Cohort* interactions. Fixed
198 extrinsic variables were *River* and *Salinity*. To test for differences in age dependent growth
199 between fresh and estuarine habitats an *Age* × *Salinity* interaction was fitted to the full model.
200 To satisfy model assumptions, *Growth* (increment width), *Age* and *AAC* were log-
201 transformed. The predictor variables were centred to facilitate model convergence.

202 Different random effects structures were first compared using restricted maximum
203 likelihood estimation (REML). Next, increasingly complex fixed effects structures were fitted
204 using maximum likelihood, ML. The relative support for each model was assessed using
205 Akaike's Information Criterion, adjusted for small sample sizes (AICc). Marginal (proportion
206 of variance explained by fixed effects) and conditional (proportion of variance explained by
207 combined fixed and random effects) R^2 values were calculated for each model using the
208 `sem.model.fits` function in `piecewiseSEM` package (see (Nakagawa and Schielzeth 2013)).
209 95% confidence intervals for parameter estimates (fixed effects) and standard deviations
210 (random effects) were derived from 1000 non-parametric bootstrap replicates.

211 **Results**

212 Of the fish sampled from estuarine habitats, the majority (61.5%) had migrated into
213 freshwater during the life history. Catadromous individuals and estuarine/marine residents
214 were present in the Mary, Roper and Daly systems but as samples from the McArthur and
215 South Alligator rivers were obtained solely from fresh water, they only contained
216 catadromous barramundi. Repeated movements between salt and fresh water were relatively
217 infrequent among migrants. Of the fish sampled in fresh water, 90.6% had undergone a single
218 juvenile transition from saline water, and of the catadromous fish sampled in salt water, 60%
219 had undertaken a single return migration after 1-8 years of freshwater residency. A total of
220 267 years of freshwater growth, 212 years of estuarine/marine growth and 131 years of
221 'mixed' growth were recorded across the 131 individuals.

222 The best-supported random effects structure included random intercepts and *Age*
223 slopes for *FishID*, as well as a random intercept for *River: Year* (Table S3). This indicates
224 that the *Growth ~ Age* relationship varied between individuals and that the effect of *Year*
225 varied across rivers. The optimum fixed effects structure included an *Age × Salinity*
226 interaction (Table S4; marginal R^2 : 0.53; conditional R^2 : 0.68). Overall, there was a decline in
227 growth with age, and differences in growth amongst habitats were greatest in the earlier years
228 of life (Table 1, Figure 3). Growth was initially highest in freshwater, lowest in saltwater, and
229 intermediate in years spent partially within freshwater (i.e., mixed), but these habitat-
230 dependent differences became less pronounced as fish age increased (Table 2).

231 **Discussion**

232 Our results demonstrate that catadromous migration into fresh water from the coastal marine
233 spawning grounds confers enhanced growth for juvenile barramundi. This pattern contrasts
234 with temperate anadromous fishes, which are widely reported to achieve higher growth rates
235 while residing in marine habitats (e.g., threespine sticklebacks (Snyder 1991), Atlantic

236 salmon (Fleming 1996), white perch (Kraus and Secor 2004), rainbow trout (Kendall et al.
237 2014), dolly varden (Bond et al. 2015). This suggests that growth differentials between
238 adjacent marine and freshwater habitats may be important in shaping the form of diadromy
239 exhibited by fishes. We note, however, that contrary to the productivity hypothesis
240 catadromous eels in temperate systems tend to grow more rapidly in saline than freshwater
241 habitats (Arai et al. 2004; Cairns et al. 2009), whilst tropical amphidromous gobies (*Awaous*
242 *stamineaus*) have faster growth rates and shorter larval durations associated with marine
243 dispersal, (Hogan et al. 2014). It is therefore apparent that the expression of diadromy may
244 be shaped by a range of processes and is not strictly regulated by habitat-specific growth rates
245 or latitude across taxa.

246 Habitat-dependent variance in growth rate potentially reflects greater foraging success by
247 barramundi in fresh water compared to saline water, which may in turn be driven by
248 increased access to floodplain-derived food resources. Extensive, highly productive
249 floodplain habitats are a defining characteristic of the large river catchments in the wet/dry
250 tropics of northern Australia (Douglas et al. 2005; Jardine et al. 2012). These systems
251 typically undergo predictable periods of inundation during the monsoon season, although the
252 magnitude and duration of flooding may vary considerably between years (Douglas et al.
253 2005). Floodplain inundation events deliver large-scale energy influxes into aquatic food-
254 webs, providing seasonally abundant food supplies available to consumers (Junk et al. 1989;
255 Jardine et al. 2012). Stable isotope analyses indicate that floodplain-derived prey make a
256 substantial contribution to the diet of barramundi and other large-bodied fishes in freshwaters
257 (Jardine et al. 2012), suggesting that catadromous barramundi may gain access to highly
258 productive food resources that are unavailable to those that remain as estuarine residents. It is
259 also feasible that differences in growth may be partially attributable to habitat-specific
260 differences in energetic costs or mortality rates. For example, residence in macrotidal habitats

261 with very strong tidal currents may entail high energetic costs, potentially constraining
262 energetic investment in growth. Similarly, fish living in different salinities incur different
263 energetic costs associated with osmoregulation (Bœuf and Payan 2001). Differential
264 mortality rates for slow- and fast-growing fish in saline versus freshwater habitats could also
265 potentially contribute to the patterns observed (see Sponaugle et al. 2006). At present,
266 however, little information is available on the energetic costs and mortality rates incurred by
267 fish living in marine/estuarine versus freshwater habitats and this is an important area for
268 future research.

269 Given that body size is positively correlated to a range of fitness traits in fish, our findings of
270 increased growth rates in catadromous barramundi (insofar as it results in larger size-at-age)
271 suggest that migration may have important implications in terms of reproductive fitness. In
272 this respect, our findings provide potential support for the primary production differential
273 aspect of the productivity hypothesis (Gross et al. 1988). However, whilst different migratory
274 strategies may result in divergent growth trajectories, alternate phenotypes may nonetheless
275 persist over generations if lifetime reproductive output is equal among strategies, or if the
276 optimum strategy varies throughout time (Hendry et al. 2004; Gillanders et al. 2015). Thus,
277 our findings of increased growth rates during freshwater residence do not necessarily support
278 the suggestion of Gross (1988) that catadromous fish in tropical regions have generally
279 higher reproductive fitness than non-catadromous fish. Indeed, populations comprising
280 diverse life-histories are increasingly recognised as commonplace (Chapman et al. 2011) and
281 may be shaped by dynamism in the success rates of different reproductive tactics as
282 influenced by changes in local conditions (e.g., temporal variation in river hydrology or
283 changes in the abundance of predators). Thus, co-existing life-history modes frequently arise
284 as evolutionary stable states and represent an example of population-level bet-hedging by
285 enabling species to optimize recruitment in unpredictable environments (Schindler et al.

286 2010). In the case of barramundi, it is possible catadromous individuals migrating onto
287 productive, inundated floodplains obtain fitness advantages over marine/estuarine
288 conspecifics in years of high rainfall, but may be disadvantaged in years with poor wet
289 seasons due to limited hydrological connectivity to breeding and nursery habitats.

290 The strength of selection on different migratory contingents can fluctuate throughout
291 ontogeny as individuals maximise spawning investment at contrasting life-history stages
292 (Monro and Marshall 2014). For example, because barramundi are protandrous
293 hermaphrodites, relative fitness may involve complex trade-offs between male and female
294 spawning investment. Individuals that utilise productive freshwater habitats, delay sexual
295 maturation and maximise energetic investment into somatic growth may increase the chances
296 of ultimately attaining female status; however, delayed maturation also incurs an increased
297 risk of mortality prior to the commencement of reproductive activity. At the other end of the
298 spectrum, foregoing migration and adopting slower-growing lives in estuaries may facilitate
299 successful reproduction during the initial male adult phase, but may reduce the chances of
300 successful transition into large, highly fecund females in later life. It appears likely that such
301 trade-offs promote the co-existence of divergent life-histories in barramundi, although further
302 detailed analyses are required to shed light on relationships between migration strategies and
303 relative fitness.

304 In conclusion, our study provides new insights into the potential drivers of diadromy and
305 highlights the complex interaction between life history characteristics and individual fitness.
306 The results also serve to demonstrate the importance of preserving highly productive tropical
307 freshwater habitats, especially in the face of increasing demand for water resources and a
308 changing climate. If access to high quality freshwater habitat is reduced by human activities,
309 or connectivity between floodplains, rivers and estuaries is compromised, then the
310 productivity of diadromous fishes and their associated fisheries will likely decline.

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317

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459 **Table 1.** Model parameter estimates with 95% CI describing fixed and random sources of
 460 growth variation in barramundi.

<i>Fixed effects</i>				<i>Random effects</i>				
Covariate	Estimate	Lower	Upper	Covariate	SD	Lower	Upper	Corr
Intercept (Salinity Estuarine)	5.349	5.310	5.388	FishID	0.103	0.077	0.128	
Age	-0.407	-0.474	-0.331	Age FishID	0.131	0.065	0.182	0.49
Salinity Freshwater	0.100	0.050	0.149	River:Year	0.031	0.000	0.056	
Salinity Mixed	0.054	0.008	0.108	Residual	0.176	0.163	0.188	
Age × Salinity Freshwater	-0.137	-0.236	-0.047					
Age × Salinity Mixed	-0.045	-0.163	0.043					

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473 **Table 2.** Growth advantages of freshwater and mixed salinity residence at ages 2-8, relative
474 to residency in saline environments.

Age	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Freshwater	+24.17%	+17.26%	+12.59%	+9.10%	+6.33%	+4.04%	+2.09%
Mixed	+11.18%	+8.63%	+6.86%	+5.50%	+4.41%	+3.49%	+2.71%

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491 **Figure Legends**

492 **Fig. 1** Transverse otolith section from a 5+ year-old *Lates calcarifer* illustrating location of
493 ablated laser transect and annual growth increments

494 **Fig. 2** Examples of core-to-edge transects of otolith $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ for an estuarine resident (black
495 unbroken line) and a catadromous fish (grey unbroken line) that entered freshwater in its first
496 year and returned to the estuary/marine environment at age 5. Grey broken line represents
497 salinity of 1ppt and the black broken line represents salinity of 35 ppt (i.e., sea water) based
498 on water $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ mixing models. Values of otolith $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ above the grey broken line infer
499 freshwater residency and those below infer estuarine or marine residency. Corresponding
500 diamonds indicate the location of annual growth increments along the ablated transect for
501 each fish

502 **Fig. 3** Estimated age and salinity (i.e., habitat type) effects on growth. Shaded areas represent
503 95% CI

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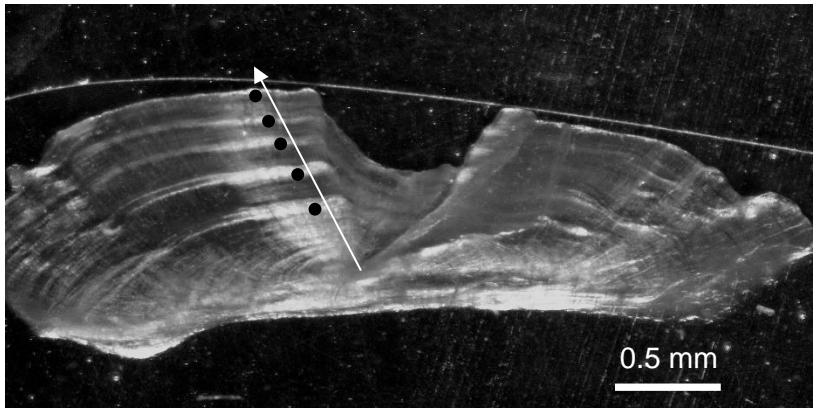
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512 **Fig. 1**



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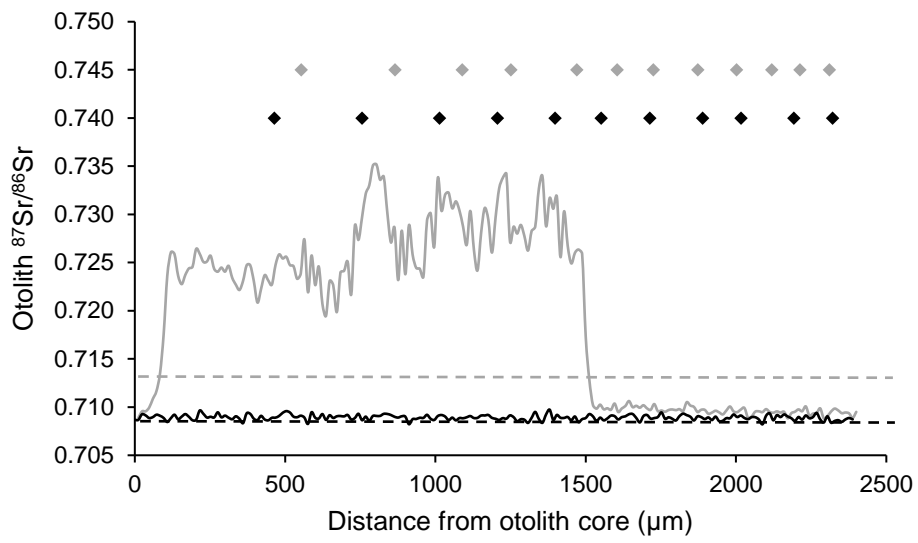
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527 **Fig. 2**



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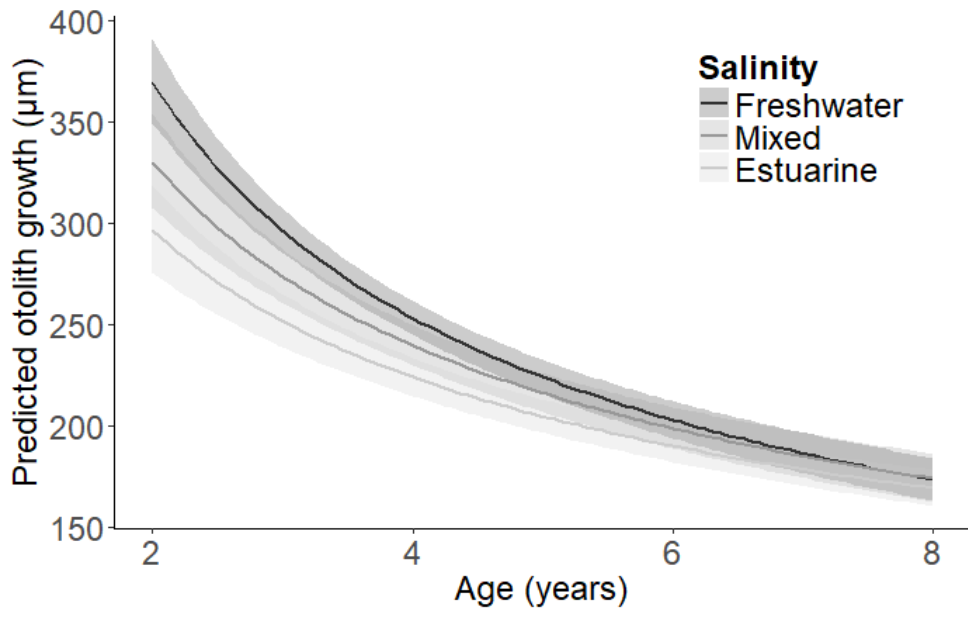
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Fig. 3



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