**Relationship between salmon egg subsidy and the distribution of an avian predator**

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**ABSTRACT**

As a spatial subsidy, which is the phenomenon of transferring resources from a donor system to a recipient system, anadromous salmonids contribute to the supply of marine-derived nutrients to freshwater and terrestrial systems. Live salmon and salmon carcasses and eggs are utilized by various organisms and affect their abundance and distribution. However, the evaluation of the effect of salmon subsidies on the abundance and distribution of terrestrial animals is biased towards predators or scavengers that utilize spawning adults and carcasses, and few studies have focused on the effect of salmon eggs as a subsidy. To avoid underestimating the function of salmon subsidies, the response to the availability of salmon eggs in various systems should be investigated. Here, we investigated the abundance and feeding behaviour of the brown dipper *Cinclus pallasii*, as salmon egg a consumer, based on the hypothesis that the availability of salmon eggs affects the diet composition and stream distribution of this small predator. In addition, to test whether changes in the abundance of brown dippers are determined by salmon spawning or by other factors, their abundance was compared upstream and downstream of the dam. Brown dippers used salmon eggs during the spawning season (63% of diet composition), and their abundance increased as the number of spawning redds increased. In contrast, this pattern was not observed upstream of the dam. These results suggested that the abundance and stream distribution of brown dippers vary according to the variation in the spatiotemporal availability of salmon eggs.

**Key Words**: resource subsidy, marine-derived nutrients, behavioural ecology, stream ecology, Salmonidae, Pacific salmon.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Spatial subsidies are a phenomenon in which resources are transferred from a donor system to a recipient system (Polis et al. 1997). Spatial subsidies play a crucial role in biological communities because they affect the abundance and distribution patterns of organisms and the food web structure in the recipient systems by affecting the availability of basal resources (Nakano and Murakami 2001, Kawaguchi et al. 2003, Spiller et al. 2010, Hocking et al. 2013, Terui et al. 2018).

Anadromous salmonids, well-known spatial subsidy representatives, transport marine-derived nutrients and energy to freshwater and terrestrial ecosystems through their migrations (Gende et al. 2002, Schindler et al. 2003, Hocking and Reynolds 2011, Koshino et al. 2013). Salmon subsidies contribute to increasing aquatic invertebrate biomass and freshwater fish abundance in rivers (Wipfli et al. 1998, 1999, Denton et al. 2009). Spawning adults and carcasses are also used as food by terrestrial animals not only in the underwater ecosystem but also in surrounding riparian ecosystems and eventually affect the abundance and distribution of terrestrial scavengers and top predators (Boulanger et al. 2004, Christie and Reimchen 2005, Levi et al. 2012, Field and Reynolds 2013, Walters et al. 2021). Salmon subsidies thus provide insights into how multiple ecosystems are tangled together.

Past investigations on the effects of salmon subsidies on terrestrial organism abundance and distribution have thus far been biased towards predators or scavengers that utilize spawning adults and carcasses (e.g., Boulanger et al. 2004, Christie and Reimchen 2005, Levi et al. 2012, Field and Reynolds 2013, Walters et al. 2021). Considering that terrestrial organisms are provided multiple resources by salmon runs, such as eggs and fry, as well as spawning adults and carcasses (Munro 1941, Willson and Halupka 1995), salmon subsidies may have even more unexpected far-reaching effects. Therefore, a comprehensive understanding of the effect of

subsidies on the population and distribution of organisms is important. However, few studies

have focused on the effect of salmon eggs as a subsidy on the abundance and distribution of

terrestrial animals. It is necessary to clarify the response to the availability of salmon eggs in

various systems to avoid underestimating the function of salmon subsidies.

Dippers (Aves: Cinclidae) are riparian birds that mainly feed on aquatic invertebrates by

diving into the water (Eguchi 1990, Taylor and O'Halloran 1997, 2001) and which are known to

use salmon eggs in available rivers and seasons (Goodge 1959, Obermeyer et al. 1999, 2006,

Whitehorne 2010, Reimchen 2017). For example, the American dipper *Cinclus mexicanus* can

achieve high reproductive success, represented as fecundity and juvenile growth, by foraging on

*Oncorhynchus* eggs (Obermeyer et al. 2006, Tonra et al. 2016). The population size of the white-

throated dipper *C. cinclus* in Norway may also benefit from eating salmon fry because it was

correlated with the annual density of salmon fry (Nilsson et al. 2018). Because dippers, which

are not scavengers, are not affected by the amount of carcasses – in addition to their well-studied

relationship with salmon, as noted above – they are the most suitable model species for

examining the effect of salmon egg subsidies on the abundance and distribution of terrestrial

animals. The brown dipper *C. pallasii*, which is distributed in Asia (Hong et al. 2019), preys on

salmon eggs and juvenile salmon (Murata 1900). However, its actual status has never been

evaluated quantitatively, and the relationship with salmon subsidies has long been overlooked.

We therefore investigated the abundance and diet composition of the brown dipper in

the Shiretoko Peninsula of Hokkaido, northern Japan, where the spawning migrations of salmon

are well observed, based on the hypothesis that the availability of salmon subsidies drives the

diet composition and stream distribution of this small predator. In addition, by comparing the

abundance of brown dippers above and below dams where salmon cannot run upstream during

peak salmon spawning runs, we tested whether changes in the abundance of brown dippers are

determined by salmon spawning or by other factors. More specifically, it was predicted that

salmon spawning would cause a shift in the diet of brown dippers to salmon eggs and an increase

in the abundance of brown dippers by altering the distribution of food resources, while no such

pattern occurs upstream of the dam.

**2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**2-1. Study site**

Four streams located in the Shiretoko Peninsula were selected for the present survey (Figure 1).

Natural spawning sustains pink salmon *Oncorhynchus gorbuscha* and chum salmon *O. keta*

populations in these streams (T. Yamada, unpublished data). The release of juvenile chum salmon

has been conducted only in the Mosekarubetsu stream, and in-stream harvesting does not occur

in all streams. The central part of the Shiretoko Peninsula has been designated as a World Natural

Heritage site since 2005, partially because of the close relationships between the marine and

terrestrial ecosystems sustained by the anadromous migration of pink salmon and chum salmon

(IUCN 2005). The upper reaches of the studied streams are included in the Shiretoko World

Natural Heritage site. Rivers and streams in the Shiretoko Peninsula are highly fragmented by

more than 330 artificial dams (Takahashi et al. 2005), which is no exception in all selected

streams. Study sections were set up in each stream from the mouth of the stream to the proximal

dam. The Chienbetsu stream was surveyed up to the second proximal dam because many salmon

pass through the first proximal dam. The length of the study section was 289.4, 348.2, 154.9, and

211.3 m in the Chienbetsu stream, Funbe stream, Mosekarubetsu stream, and Shoji stream,

respectively.

**2-2. Field survey**

Temporal changes in the abundance and diet of brown dippers were evaluated from August to

September 2021. Field observations were conducted in one or two streams per day for a total

effort of five days at every 9- or 10-day interval in each stream. In the observation protocol, one

investigator (T. Yamada) walked along the study section from the lower to the upper reach,

counting the number of brown dippers. To avoid recounting birds, the investigator checked

where the flying individuals stopped and ignored individuals who flew ahead of the investigator,

expecting territorial individuals to characteristically 'double-back' when pushed to the ends of

their territory (Chiu et al. 2008).

The date of the count survey was the same as that of the diet survey, and the count

survey was conducted before the diet survey was conducted. In the diet survey, when the

investigator found an individual, they approached it at an observable distance and checked the

diet composition and age category (adult or juvenile) using binoculars (MONARCH 10 × 42;

Nikon, Tokyo, Japan). The age category was classified by the presence or absence of juvenal

plumage. The contents of the dipper's diet were classified into four categories: aquatic insects,

terrestrial insects, algae, and salmon eggs. If no observable individuals were found, no

observations were made. The diet survey was conducted only once per individual at each

observation cycle; the observation time ranged from 1-11 minutes.

Salmon spawning redds were also visually counted on the same day as the above

observation procedures to obtain an index of the availability of salmon eggs. Pink salmon exhibit

"probing", a periodic and short-term migration behaviour between the sea and multiple drainages

(Thedinga et al. 2000, Morita 2021). If many individuals exhibit probing, salmon abundance

cannot be a direct indicator of the number of spawners; therefore, we used the number of

spawning redds as an indicator of the number of spawners. Spawning redds were visually judged

as the area of disturbed gravel or bright (denuded) areas among the periphyton-covered gravel

(Ortlepp and Mürle 2003, Pedersen et al. 2009). We also measured the stream surface area of the

study section only once in each section during the study period.

The abundance of brown dippers was also surveyed upstream of dams in the selected

stream at the end of September 2021 during the peak spawning period of pink salmon, except in

the Chienbetsu stream, where the dam has a fishway allowing migration to the upper reaches.

Additional study sections were set up at approximately 400 m from the dam in each case. An

investigator walked from the dam to the upstream end of the study section counting the number

of dippers, as was the case in the lower reach survey. This survey was conducted on the same day

in the fifth cycle of the count survey mentioned above. We also measured the stream surface area

of the study section only once in each stream.

**2-3. Statistical analysis**

The dependence on salmon eggs during the salmon spawning period, classified based on the

presence of spawning redds, was evaluated by discriminating the dipper's age by fitting a

generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) to the diet data per individual. In the analysis, the

dominance ratio of salmon eggs in the diet composition was used as a response variable

following a binomial distribution. Age category was tested as an explanatory variable,

considering observation cycle ID and stream ID as random intercepts. When the 95% confidence

intervals (95% CI) of the estimated coefficient values did not overlap between age categories, we

considered the differences significant.

A relationship between the availability of salmon eggs (represented as the number of

spawning redds) and the brown dipper abundance was also estimated by fitting GLMMs to the

dipper count data as a response variable assuming a Poisson distribution. The number of

spawning redds and time in the day when the survey was started were used as the candidate

explanatory variables, considering log-transformed stream surface area as an offset term and

observation cycle ID and stream ID as random intercepts. To avoid multicollinearity, variance

inflation factors (VIFs) were calculated before the analysis; all variables had values less than 5,

the threshold indicative of troubling collinearity for regressions (Sheather 2009). Akaike's

information criterion (AIC) was used for model selection (Burnham and Anderson 2002). If

several plausible models had $\Delta$AIC $\leq$ 2, the optimal model was selected according to the

principle of parsimony (Burnham and Anderson 2002).

Since resource availability may affect organism distribution (e.g., Dingle and Drake

2007, Dingle 2014), it was also expected that the dipper abundance differed between the upper

and lower reaches of the dam. Brown dipper abundance in the fifth observation cycle was

compared between the lower reaches and the upper reaches of the dam by fitting the count data

to a GLMM considering log-transformed stream surface area as an offset term and the stream ID

as a random intercept. When the 95% CI of the estimated coefficient values did not overlap

between the study sections, we considered the differences significant.

All data analyses were conducted with R v. 4.2.3 (R Core Team 2022) using glmmTMB

v. 1.1.3 (Brooks et al. 2017) for GLMMs.

**3. RESULTS**

A total of 69 brown dipper individuals, 356 redds, and 1093 pink salmon individuals were

observed during our survey. Feeding behaviour was monitored in 4 individuals (3 adults and 1

juvenile) in the pre-spawning period and in 18 individuals (10 adults and 8 juveniles) in the

spawning period from the three streams, except for the Mosekarubetsu stream, where close

observation could not be made.

The diet composition changed between the salmon pre-spawning and spawning periods

(Figure 2A; Appendix S1; Table S1). The percentage of salmon eggs in the diet was up to 63%

(Figure 2A) during the latter period. The brown dippers basically used only small baits in the

water and did not peck salmon carcasses. Regarding the dependence on salmon eggs among age

groups estimated by GLMM fitting, adults had a higher ratio of salmons eggs in their diets than

juveniles, although a significant difference was not found (Figure 2B; Table 1).

In the abundance survey, the GLMM including the number of spawning redds as the

explanatory variable had the lowest AIC value (Table 2). The brown dipper abundance positively

correlated with the number of spawning redds in the selected model (Figure 3; Table 1). The

comparison between abundances in the upper and lower sections of the dam showed that the

abundance in the lower section was clearly higher than that in the upper section (Figure 4; Table

1).

**4. DISCUSSION**

This study demonstrates for the first time that salmon eggs are the dominant dietary item for the

brown dipper during the salmon spawning season and that the abundance and stream distribution

of terrestrial vertebrate species can be predicted by the number of spawning redds used to

represent the availability of salmon eggs. In addition, brown dipper abundance during the peak

spawning season differed significantly between upstream and downstream of the dam, with the

downstream abundance being higher. It is therefore indicated that the distribution of brown

dippers varies according to variation in the spatiotemporal availability of salmon subsidies. One

of the typical theories of the spatial distribution of animal populations is the ideal free

distribution, which assumes that individuals are free to move among sites (Fretwell and Lucas

1969), and our results may be explained by this theory. The reason is that brown dippers did not

use the site upstream of the dam (without salmon subsidies) even when their density was high

downstream of the dam.

While salmon eggs serve as an important food source for brown dippers, the salmon

spawning behaviour of digging up the riverbed leads to a reduction in the abundance of aquatic

invertebrates that are prey for brown dippers (Minakawa and Gara 2003, Moore and Schindler

2008). Since the energy value per salmon egg is higher than that per individual aquatic

invertebrate (Obermeyer et al. 2006, Whitehorne 2010), the positive effect of egg-eating may

outweigh the negative effect of reduced eating of aquatic invertebrates. In fact, juvenile weight

and mortality in the American dipper in salmon spawning reaches are known to be higher and

lower than those in the non-spawning reaches (Obermeyer et al. 2006). Further verification is

required to clarify whether these findings may be supported in the present system.

The abundance of aquatic invertebrates varies greatly with the season (Rundio and

Lindley 2008) and declines with flooding (Chiu et al. 2008, McMullen and Lytle 2012).

Accordingly, the decrease in aquatic invertebrate abundance leads to a decline in brown dipper

abundance and survival (Chiu et al. 2008, 2013). Pink salmon, chum salmon, and masu salmon

running up Japanese rivers spawn during the summer, fall and winter (Kuzishchin et al. 2009,

Kovach et al. 2012, Quinn 2018, Iida et al. 2021). Since summer and fall are typhoon seasons in

East Asia, salmon subsidies may compensate for the decline in aquatic invertebrates. In addition,

dippers sometimes prey on salmon fry (Ormerod 1985, Ormerod and Tyler 1986, 1991,

Obermeyer et al. 2006). Since most salmon fry mainly emerge during spring and summer

(Pavlov et al. 2008, Kirillov et al. 2018, Yamada et al. 2022), salmon fry may be used as a food

resource by dippers during this period. Therefore, spawning by anadromous salmonids may

compensate for declines in the abundance of aquatic invertebrates during various seasons.

Salmon spawning abundance is disturbed by several human activities, such as dam

construction and fisheries (Finney et al. 2000, Romakkaniemi et al. 2003, Nakamura and

Komiyama 2010). This study shows for the first time that the distribution patterns of small

terrestrial predators are determined by the supply of salmon eggs, indicating that the disruption

of natural spawning may have unexpected effects on the abundance and distribution of terrestrial

salmon egg consumers. Future studies are needed to examine the effects of these anthropogenic

restrictions of the salmon egg subsidy on the abundance and distribution of terrestrial consumers.

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**CONFLICT OF INTERESTS STATEMENT**

None declared.

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**TABLES**

**Table 1.** Results of GLMMs testing effects of age category (adult/juvenile) on the salmon egg

ratio in brown dipper diets and number of spawning redds and presence/absence of salmon

(below/above dam) on brown dipper abundance.

| Response variable | Fixed effect | Estimate | Std. Error | z value |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Salmon egg ratio in dipper diets | Intercept | 0.61 | 1.02 | 0.60 |
| | Age -Juvenile | -1.83 | 0.91 | -2.00 |
| Dipper abundance | Intercept | -6.59 | 0.24 | -27.64 |
| | Number of redds | 0.02 | 0.01 | 3.15 |
| Dipper abundance during peak spawning period | Intercept | -8.41 | 0.71 | -11.89 |
| | Section -Below dam | 2.73 | 0.74 | 3.69 |

426  **Table 2.** Results of model selection. AIC corresponds to Akaike information criteria; ΔAIC is the

427  difference between the AIC of that model and that of the model with the lowest AIC. Bold indicates

428  the best model. Redds, number of spawning redds; Time, survey start time.

| Model | logLik | AIC | ΔAIC |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Redds** | **-37.92** | **83.84** | **0.00** |
| Redds + Time | -37.71 | 85.42 | 1.58 |
| Null | -40.63 | 87.26 | 3.42 |
| Time | -40.27 | 88.55 | 4.71 |

**FIGURE CAPTIONS**

**Figure 1.** Map of the study area located on the Shiretoko Peninsula. The blue lines indicate the streams surveyed.

**Figure 2.** (A) Composition of brown dipper diets during the salmon pre-spawning and spawning periods. AI: aquatic invertebrate, TI: terrestrial invertebrate, A: algae, and SE: salmon egg. (B) Mean predicted marginal effects of age category on the salmon egg ratio in brown dipper diets. The translucent boxes indicate 95% CIs. Grey circles denote each observed value.

**Figure 3.** Mean predicted marginal effects of the number of spawning redds on brown dipper abundance. The 95% CI is denoted by dotted lines.

**Figure 4.** Mean predicted marginal effects of salmon occurrence on brown dipper abundance during the peak spawning season. The translucent boxes indicate 95% CIs. Grey circles denote each observed value.

446 **FIGURES**

449 **Figure 1.**

**Figure 2.**

**Figure 3.**

**Figure 4.**