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Multi-year pair-bonding in Murray cod (*Maccullochella peelii*)

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1 ***Multi-year pair-bonding in Murray cod (*Maccullochella peelii*)***

2 **1.1 Abstract**

3 Mating strategies in fishes are known to include polygyny, polyandry and monogamy and provide
4 valuable insights regarding powerful evolutionary forces such as sexual selection. Monogamy is a
5 complex of mating systems that has been relatively neglected. Previous work on mating strategies
6 in fishes has often been based on observation and focused on marine species rather than freshwater
7 fishes. SNPs are increasingly being used as a molecular ecology tool in non-model organisms, and
8 methods of probabilistic genetic analysis of such datasets are becoming available for use in the
9 absence of parental genotypes. This approach can be used to infer mating strategies. The long-term
10 pair bonding seen in mammals, reptiles and birds has not been recorded in freshwater fishes – in
11 every other respect an extremely diverse group. This study shows that multi-year pair bonding
12 occurs in an Australian Percichthyid fish. Using SNPs full sibling pairs of larvae were found over
13 multiple years in a three-year study. Stable isotope signatures of the larvae support the genetic
14 inference that full sibling pairs shared a common mother, the ultimate source of that isotopic
15 signature during oogenesis. Spatial clustering also suggests that the full sibling larvae are unlikely
16 to be false positive identifications of the probabilistic identification of siblings. For the first time,
17 we show multi-year pair bonding in a freshwater fish. This will have important conservation and
18 management implications for the species. This approach could provide insights into many
19 behavioural, ecological and evolutionary questions, particularly if this is not a unique case. Our
20 findings are likely to initiate interest in seeking more examples of monogamy and alternative
21 mating strategies in freshwater fishes, particularly as others improve methods of analysis of SNP
22 data for identification of siblings in the absence of parental genotypes.

23 **1.2 Introduction**

24 Pair-bonding is widely documented across much of the animal kingdom and is reported in
25 mammals, birds, reptiles, and fish. Pair-bonding is often associated with monogamy, site fidelity,
26 shared parental care and a strong affinity between individuals (de Waal & Gavrilets, 2013), but
27 none of these characteristics is exclusive to pair-bonded animals. Pair-bonding may be short,
28 medium, long-term or even lifelong. Monogamy is a complex of mating systems that has been
29 relatively neglected (Mock & Fujioka, 1990). Fish are under-represented in the pair-bonding

30 literature generally, but there is little reason to suppose it does not occur as a good mating strategy
31 in the fishes with their diverse and ancient evolutionary lineages. There are examples of pair-
32 bonding in marine species such as the seahorse (*Hippocampus whitei* Bleeker, 1855) (Vincent &
33 Sadler, 1995; Kvarnemo et al., 2000) the French Angelfish (*Pomacanthus paru* Bloch,
34 1787) (Whiteman & Côte, 2004), Hawkfish (Donaldson, 1989) and the Ceratiidae family of
35 Lophiiformes (Anglerfish) (Turner, 1986). Although genetic monogamy is thought to be
36 uncommon in fish (Tatarenkov et al., 2006) it has been seen in Bonnethead sharks (*Sphyrna tiburo*
37 Linnaeus, 1758) (Chapman et al., 2004) and cichlids (Steinwender, Koblmüller & Sefc, 2012;
38 Takahashi & Ochi, 2012).

39 Evidence of other mating strategies in fish is common. Polyandry is reported in Sandbar
40 (*Carcharhinus plumbeus* Nardo, 1827), Bignose (*Carcharhinus altimus* Springer, 1950) and
41 Galapagos sharks (*Carcharhinus galapagensis* Snodgrass and Heller, 1905) (Daly-Engel et al.,
42 2006) and Teleosts such as the Lingcod (*Ophiodon elongatus* Girard, 1854) (King & Withler,
43 2005). Harem polygyny is known in an obligate coral-dwelling fish, the Pygmy coral croucher
44 (*Caracanthus unipinna* Gray, 1831) (Wong, Munday & Jones, 2005). Channel catfish (*Ictalurus*
45 *punctatus* Rafinesque, 1818) provide a rare suspected example of genetic monogamy in a fish
46 species with uniparental offspring care (Tatarenkov et al., 2006).

47 There are six hypotheses suggested for the evolution of monogamous pair-bonds (Whiteman &
48 Côte, 2004). These authors show that paternal care may act to increase the likelihood of
49 monogamy in combination with each of the proposed hypotheses through decreased benefits to
50 males from searching for additional mates or increased advantages to females from sequestering a
51 single high-quality mate. Other researchers also argue that monogamy results from the need to
52 guarantee a high-quality mate and territory in a competitive environment (Morley & Balshine,
53 2002).

54 Male parental care has typically been thought to come at a cost to mate attraction. More recently it
55 has been shown experimentally that in the Sand goby, (*Pomatoschistus minutus* (Pallas, 1770)),
56 females prefer to mate with males that provide higher levels of parental care (Lindström, Mary &
57 Pampoulie, 2006). Their earlier work had shown that males improve their display of parental duties
58 in response to the presence of females, as sort of demonstration of 'courtship parental care' and
59 conclude that male care may not necessarily be in conflict with mate attraction.

60 Males run the risk of investing in the offspring of other males if they provide parental care
61 (Wakano & Ihara, 2005). Nevertheless, in various species, males provide parental care, and
62 females mate with multiple males. Using an individual-based model of a diploid two-locus, two-
63 allelic genetic model in birds, the same authors identify that the parameters that directly favour
64 male parental care, such as the small cost of paternal care, have indirect positive effects on the
65 evolution of female multiple mating, and negative effects in the opposite case. The same authors
66 also identify that both traits are more likely to evolve when the number of matings is smaller.

67 Medium, long or life-long pair-bonding in freshwater species in the wild has not been reported in
68 the literature. There is a single example of short-term pair-bond demonstrated experimentally in a
69 mouthbrooding Cichlid (*Xenotilapia rotundiventralis* Takahashi, Yanagisawa & Nakaya,
70 1997). This is demonstrable because of its genetic monogamy and parental care requiring the
71 transfer of embryos from the female to the male after three days (Takahashi & Ochi, 2012). There
72 is no obvious intrinsic reason for long-term pair-bonding to be underrepresented in the repertoire
73 of freshwater fishes mating systems.

74 The absence of identification of long-term pair-bonding in freshwater species may have a number
75 of explanations. For example, there may have been less research effort compared with marine
76 systems, perhaps because making observational studies in turbid or high energy freshwater systems
77 is very difficult. Tagging or radio-tracking adult fish in freshwater systems could produce
78 circumstantial evidence of pair-bonding, but even this sort of long-term or periodic co-location
79 evidence has not been reported. Modern genetic techniques, particularly genome reduction
80 methods with a large number of markers available, and the development of bioinformatics methods
81 to analyse these larger data sets, along with the relevant meta-data, now allows for cost-effective
82 identification of genetic monogamy and pair-bonding.

83 **1.2.1 Identifying Pair-Bonds in an Australian Freshwater Fish**

84 The iconic Australian Murray cod (*Maccullochella peelii*) (Mitchell, 1938) is one of four
85 morphologically cryptic but genetically distinct species within *Maccullochella* (Rowland, 1993;
86 Nock et al., 2010). The Murray cod is Australia's largest freshwater fish and can grow to as large
87 as 180 cm in length with a maximum recorded weight of 113.6 kg. Its fecundity ranges from
88 9,000-120,000 eggs annually. The species is highly sought after by anglers. It is limited to parts of
89 the Murray-Darling Basin (MDB) and is listed as vulnerable under the Australian Environment

90 Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act (1999) ([Department of Environment, 2016](#)). Murray
91 cod still form an important recreational fishery (Lintermans & Phillips, 2005; Koehn & Todd,
92 2012; Ye et al., 2016).

93 Murray cod is a species worth studying for potential evidence of long-term pair-bonding and
94 alternative mating strategies. Male Murray cod are known to provide parental care and have
95 evolved in a competitive environment. They are long-lived (up to 48 years), slow-
96 maturing (Lintermans, 2007) and show high site fidelity (Koehn & Nicol, 2016). These are life
97 history factors associated with long-term pair-bonding in other species. Murray cod have been
98 shown to exhibit repeated mating, as well as polygyny and polyandry over three breeding seasons
99 when held captive in ponds (Rourke et al., 2009).

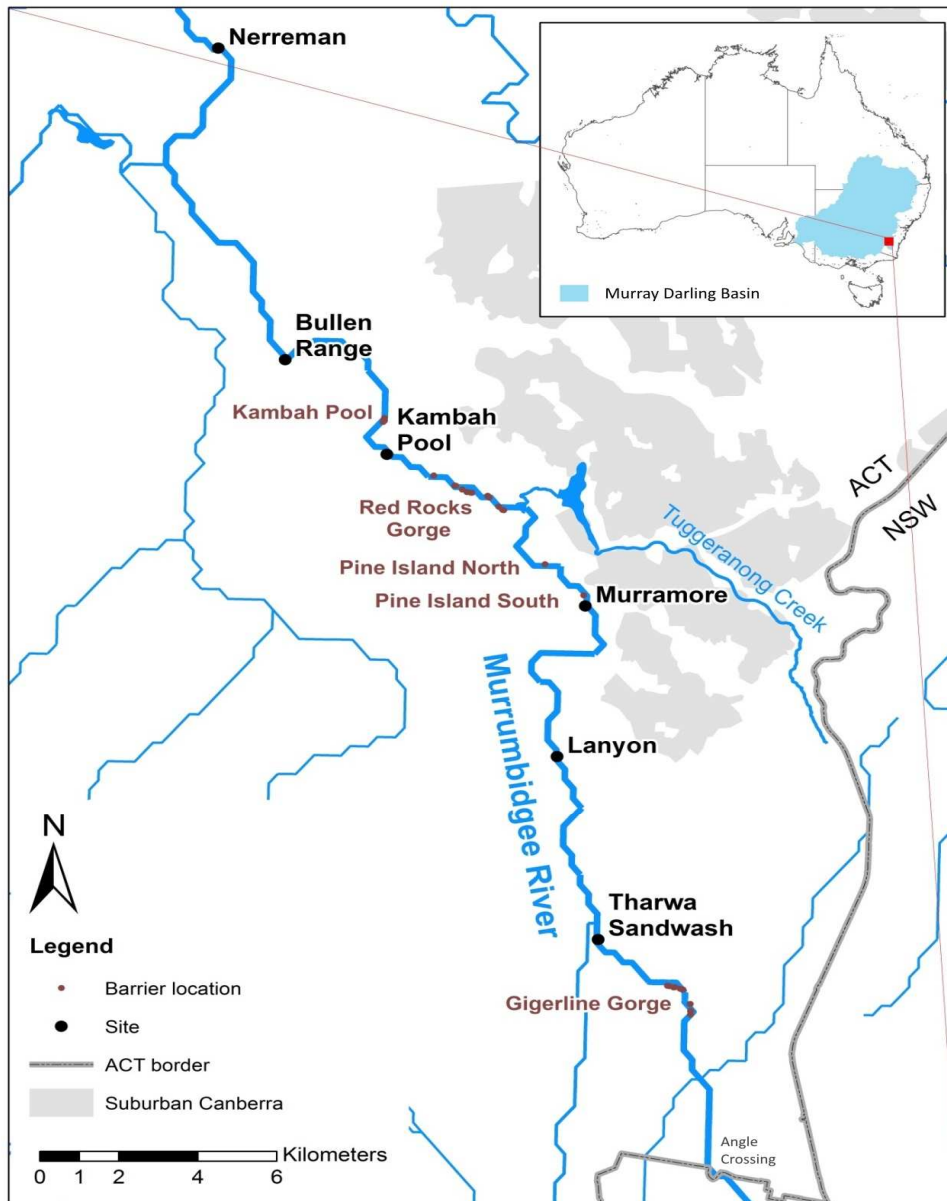
100 In this study SNPS were used to look for sibling relationships of Murray cod larvae and these data,
101 in combination with relevant metadata, were used to infer the existence of multi-year pair-bonding
102 as a mating strategy. The probability of multi-year pair-bonding occurring is considered and
103 evidence is provided that is not due to contamination during sample processing, nor an artefact of
104 the probabilistic approach to inferring sibship relationships in the absence of known parentals.

105 **1.3 Methods**

106 This study combines spatial and temporal data from three years of larval sampling with genomic
107 data (SNPS) to infer relationships between larval fish. Carbon and Nitrogen stable isotope data is
108 used to validate the relationship data that has been generated.

109 **1.3.1 Study Site**

110 We sampled Murray cod larvae from six sites along a 50km upland reach of the in Murrumbidgee
111 River in the Australian Capital Territory (ACT), Australia (Figure 1).



112

113 *Figure 1: Upper Murrumbidgee River study area. Collection sites are shown in bold black text and*
 114 *putative barriers to adult fish migration are shown in red text. Barriers from F Dyer, M*
 115 *Lintermans & A Couch (2014, unpublished data).*

116 1.3.2 Larval Fish Collection, Identification, Preparation and Aging

117 Data were collected as previously described in Couch et al. (2016). Specifically we examined 261
118 of 2607 *Maccullochella* larvae which were collected in 2011, 2012, and 2013 from the six sites
119 (Figure 1) using larval driftnets. The sympatric *Maccullochella* species Trout cod (*M.*
120 *macquariensis*) and hybrid larvae were identified using a combination of SNPs and mitochondrial
121 DNA sequencing (Couch et al. 2016). These were excluded from the dataset leaving 251 larval
122 Murray cod used for this analysis. Larvae and tissue samples were preserved in 95% ethanol at
123 room temperature until 2014 after which samples were stored at -20° C. Fish were collected under
124 ACT Government licences LT2011516, LT2012590 and LT20133653. The research was
125 conducted under approvals CEAE 11-15 and CEAE 13-17 from the [University of Canberra](#)
126 [Committee for Ethics in Animal Experimentation](#).

127 1.3.2.1 Age of Larval Fish

128 Age estimation has previously been based on larval length (Koehn & Harrington, 2006), larval
129 otolith diameter (Vogel, 2003) and daily growth increments in larval Murray cod
130 otoliths (Humphries, 2005). In the present study, age was estimated using a combination of the
131 above methods. Estimates were made based on otolith size using the mean sagittal otolith length of
132 both otoliths where possible for each larva. While this is less accurate than daily increment ageing
133 it does allow many more larvae to be aged in the time available. Mean otolith lengths of both
134 sagittal otoliths were calculated for 365 larvae. Subsets of 29 of 84, 29 of 51 and 31 of 230 were
135 aged by a commercial provider for the years 2011, 2012, 2013 respectively. From this, a curve was
136 developed for each year and estimated ages, based on mean otolith length, was calculated (Couch,
137 2018).

138 1.3.2.2 Estimation of Spawning and Hatch Times

139 Murray cod larva hatch from eggs deposited on hard substrates after 4.5–13 days (depending on
140 water temperature), (Koehn & O'Connor, 1990; Koehn & Harrington, 2005, 2006) or 3-8 days
141 (Humphries, 2005), and drift in the water column for some time (Humphries, 2005). In this study,
142 the spawning to hatching time (Incubation) which is known to be a temperature dependent process
143 was estimated using the formula developed by Ryan et al, (2003). That is:

$$\text{Incubation}_{(\text{duration})} = 20.67 - 0.667 * [\text{WaterTemp}(\text{°C})] \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

144

145 The median of the estimates of the duration of brood care (4-10 days) (Humphries, 2005) and
146 dispersal (4 days) (Gilligan & Schiller, 2003) were, with larval age, used to back-calculate
147 spawning and hatch dates, and dispersal duration. The process, following spawning migration and
148 courtship, can be summarised as:

149 **Spawning** | Incubation(egg care) | **Hatch** | Brood-Care | Dispersing-**Capture** |

150

151 therefore:

152

$$\text{DoY}_{(\text{Hatch})} = \text{DoY}_{(\text{Capture})} - \text{Age} \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

153

$$\text{DoY}_{(\text{Spawning})} = \text{DoY}_{(\text{Hatch})} - \text{Duration}_{(\text{Incubation})} \quad \text{Equation 3}$$

154

$$\text{Dispersal}_{(\text{duration})} = \text{Age} - \text{Broodcare} \quad \text{Equation 4}$$

155

156 Once dispersal, age and capture parameters were known, these equations were then used to
157 calculate hatch and spawning dates.

158 **1.3.3 Putative Nest Location**

159 Individual nest sites are unknown so an estimate of the putative nest site was made based on a
160 mean larval dispersal velocity of 700 metres per day for the duration of the time available for
161 dispersal based on the larva age.

162 **1.3.4 Genomic DNA Extraction and Sequencing**

163 Genomic DNA Extraction and Sequencing was performed as previously described in Couch et al.,
164 (2016). Total DNA of different genotypes was isolated from whole larval heads. The DNA
165 extraction protocol is detailed in (Couch & Young, 2016) and is based on a turtle DNA extraction
166 protocol (FitzSimmons, Moritz & Moore, 1995). Sequencing was done using DArT PL
167 DArTseq™ which represents a combination of DArT complexity reduction methods and next-
168 generation sequencing platforms (Kilian et al., 2012; Courtois et al., 2013; Cruz, Kilian & Dierig,
169 2013; Raman et al., 2014). Sequences generated were processed using proprietary DArT analytical
170 pipelines (www.diversityarrays.com).

171 **1.3.5 Marker Scoring and Statistical Analysis**

172 Marker Scoring and Statistical Analysis was performed as previously described in Couch et al.,
173 (2016). Specifically, DArTsoft (Diversity Arrays Technology, Building 3, University of Canberra,
174 Australia), a software package developed by DArT PL
175 (<http://www.diversityarrays.com/software.html>), was used to both identify and score the markers
176 that were polymorphic.

177 **1.3.5.1 SNP Analyses**

178 SNP Analyses have been described in Couch et al. (2016). Variation in the genome-wide SNP data
179 of the studied *Maccullochella* genotypes was analysed using Discriminant Analysis of Principal
180 Components (DAPC) using sequential K-means and model selection to infer genetic clusters
181 (Jombart, Devillard & Balloux, 2010) using R package 'adegenet' version 2.0.1 (Jombart, 2008).
182 The data were converted into a genlight object and three principal components were retained. Two
183 principal components were plotted using ggplot2 version 2.1 (Wickham, 2009). Summary and
184 comparative statistics were created in R version 3.3.0 (R Development Core Team & R Core
185 Team, 2013) and Tableau version 9.2 (Tableau, 2013). Maps were created using ArcGIS version
186 10 (ESRI, 2013) and Tableau.

187 **1.3.6 Carbon and Nitrogen Stable Isotope Analysis**

188 Dried muscle material from each fish larvae ($0.86\text{mg} \pm 0.17\text{ SD}$), the bulk of the posterior portion
189 of its body without head and gut of the fish, were encapsulated in tin. Samples were combusted in
190 an elemental analyser mass spectrometer (Sercon, Crewe, United Kingdom) at the Australian
191 National University Research School of Earth Sciences Radiocarbon Laboratory, on a fee-for-
192 service basis and assayed for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ stable isotope ratios and C:N ratio. Isotopic
193 signatures were determined based on Australian National University isotopic standards (USGU41,
194 USGU40, Caffeine and Gelatine). Measurement precision was approximately 0.08 ‰ for ^{13}C and
195 0.15 ‰ for ^{15}N . Isotope values are expressed as the relative parts per thousand (‰).

196 **1.3.7 Inferring existence of family groups using spatio-temporal data**

197 Plots were made using hatch date and putative nest location for larvae from each annual cohort.
198 Individual clusters, corresponding to putative nests, were identified and nominated.

199 **1.3.8 Inferring Sibship using Related**

200 The probability of relatedness (r) was calculated for individual larval dyads based on the trioml
201 algorithm using ‘related’ (Pew et al. 2015).

202 A simulation was run to identify a probability density function for full siblings, parent-offspring,
203 half-siblings, and unrelated individuals using the allele frequencies from the DARTseqs for each
204 larva. Probability estimates that would best estimate the cut-off probability between full siblings
205 and half-siblings was identified and used to subset likely full-sibling dyads from the larval dyads.
206 Full siblings were assigned a name representing their putative ‘mother’.

207 The relationships between individuals based on the dyads and the probabilities was visualised by
208 making network graphs and plotting them using Gephi (Bastian, Heymann & Jacomy, 2009) and
209 ‘r’ package ‘iGraph’(Csardi & Nepusz, 2006). The set of dyads containing full siblings was used to
210 prepare network graphs to facilitate visualisation of the family groups and the assignation of a
211 name to putative female parent.

212 **1.3.9 Inbreeding Coefficient**

213 The two likelihood algorithms - dyadML and trioml - as well as the lynchr, and ritland algorithms
214 within the ‘r’ package ‘related’ can account for inbreeding in their estimates of relatedness. The
215 command “allow.inbreeding=TRUE” was set to output an inbreeding coefficient for each
216 individual under each of the three algorithms above.

217 **1.3.10 Comparison of inferred family groups and sibships**

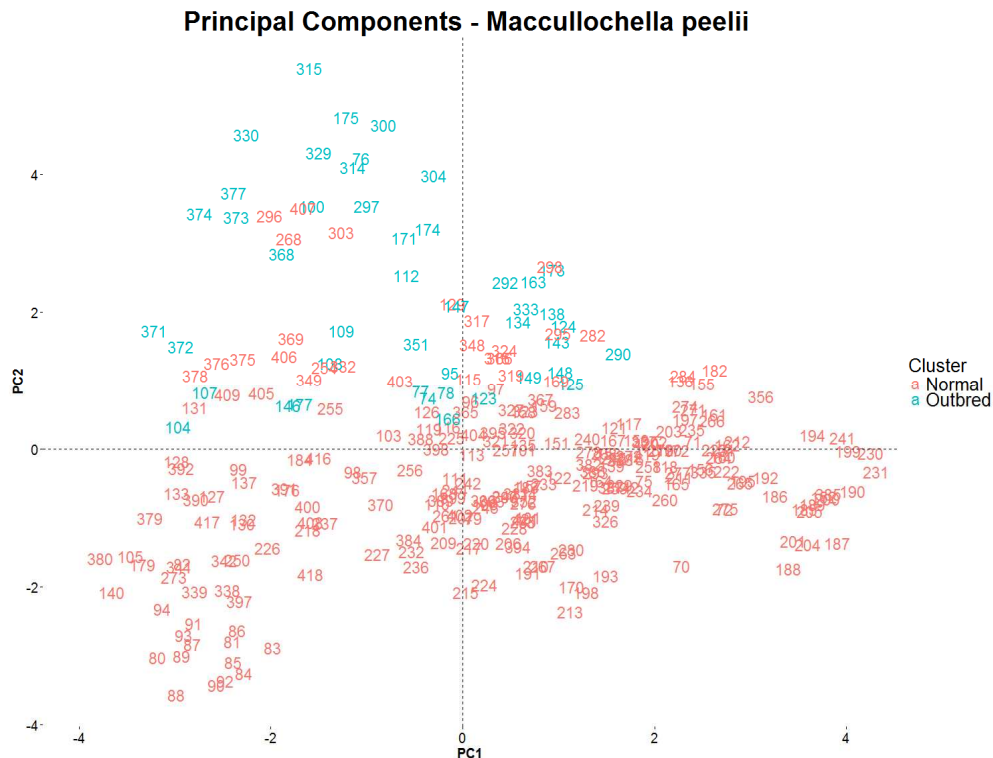
218 The plot illustrating family groups previously identified and named using spatio-temporal data
219 alone was then coloured by the name of the putative mother. This comparison increased precision
220 in identification of ‘family’ groups.

221 **1.4 Results**

222 **1.4.1 Accounting for Outbred Population**

223 Using the measures of relatedness (r) calculated using the trioml algorithm it became apparent that
224 there were two distinct groups within the larvae sampled; those that were highly outbred ($r < -0.4$),
225 and the rest which were not strongly inbred or outbred ($r > -0.4$ and < 0.3). Relatedness amongst the
226 non-outbred fish was used to determine common parentals. Principal component analysis of those

227 larvae considered to be outbred suggested a difference between the two populations. These
 228 differences were not correlated with location or year. Fish with a coefficient of inbreeding below -
 229 0.4 were considered outbreds and separate from the 'river' fish. These fish were excluded from
 230 subsequent related analysis as they were considered likely to be Murray cod introduced from a
 231 recent re-stocking program.

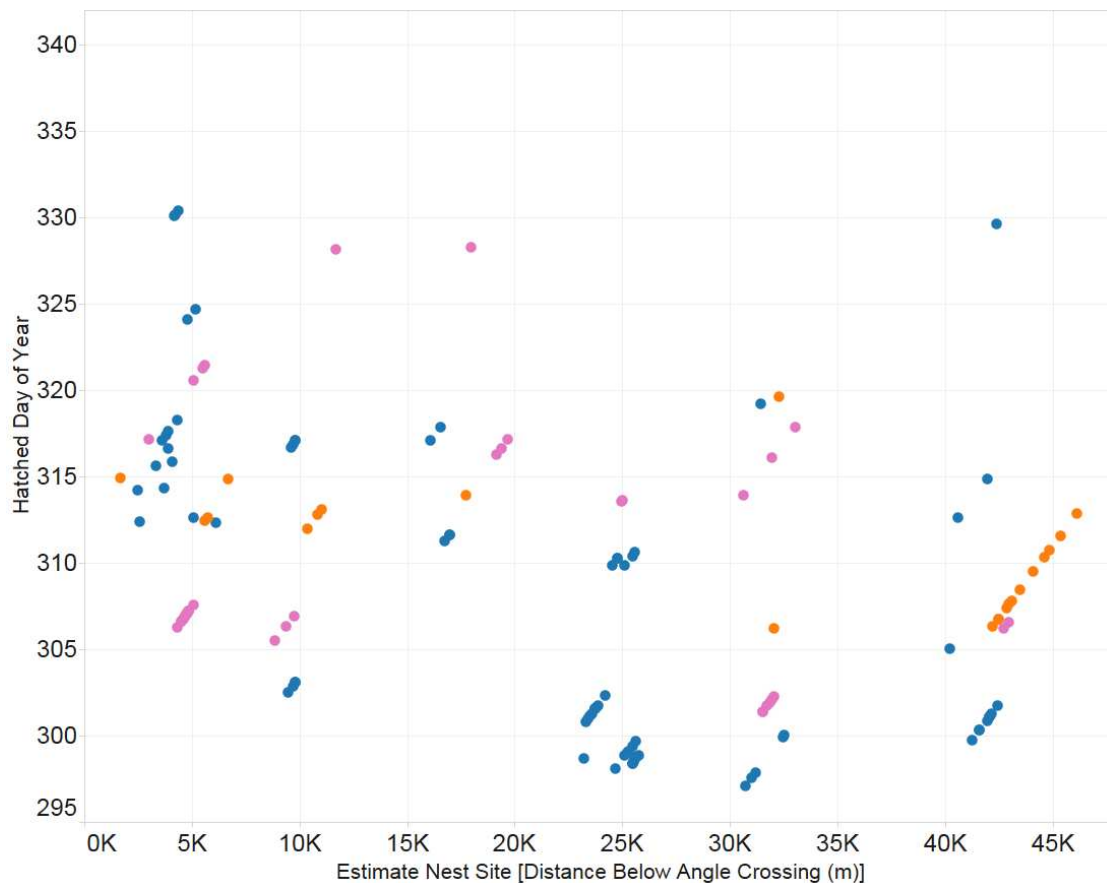


232

233 *Figure 2: Principal component analysis - outbred and non-outbred fish.*

234 **1.4.2 Inferring existence of family groups using spatio-temporal data alone.**

235 Initially, the existence of family groups was inferred from a scatterplot of spatial and temporal
 236 separation of larvae. Figure 3 shows clusters, each distributed over both space and time of larvae in
 237 a similar place and time.

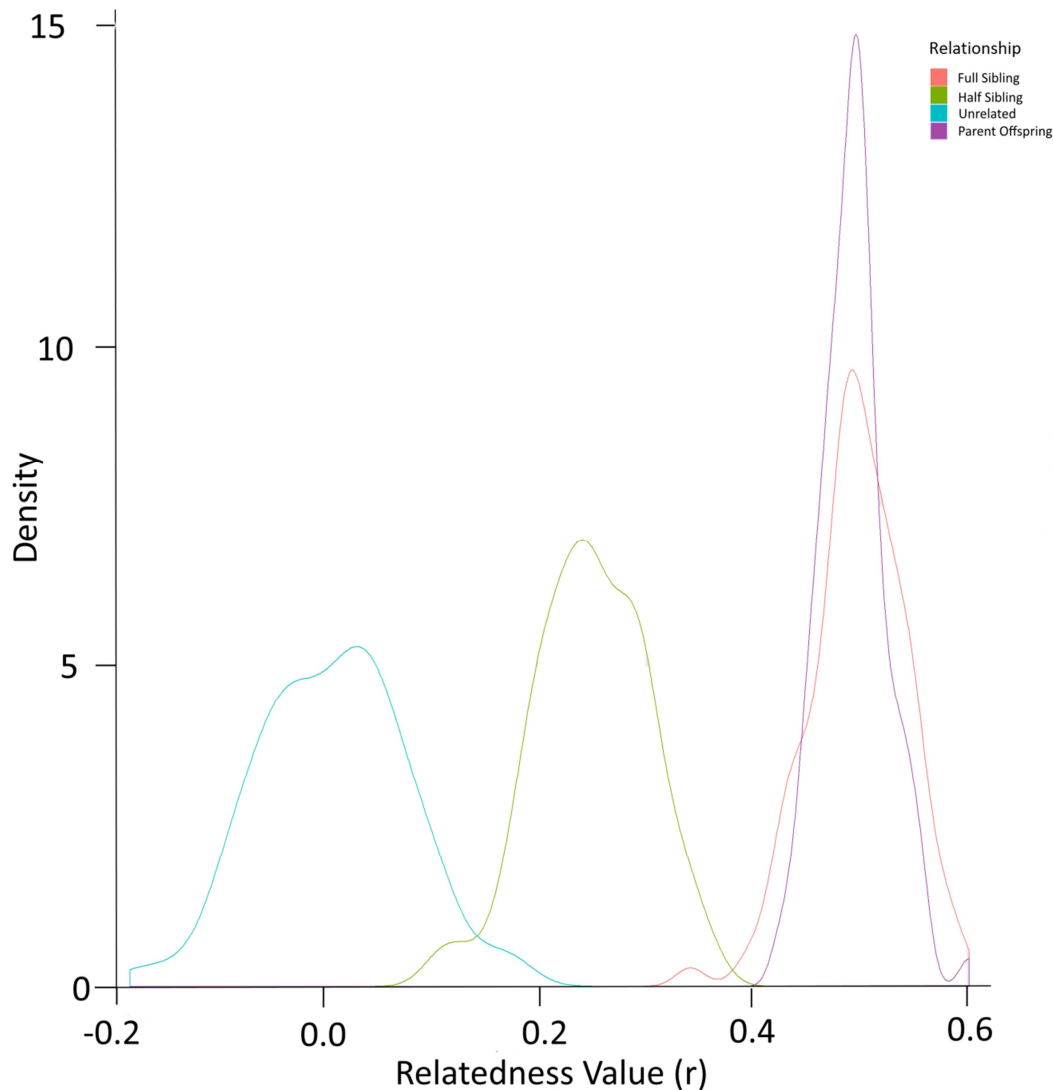


238

239 *Figure 3: Inferring existence of family groups using spatio-temporal data. In the x-axis, K*
240 *represents thousands (metres) and so may also be read as kilometres below Angle Crossing.*

241 **1.4.3 Inferring Sibship using Related**

242 Simulation using the allele frequencies present in the population produced the probability density
243 function in figure 4. In this way, the overlap between relatedness values of can be assessed. In this
244 case, a ‘cutoff’ value of any r value above 0.4 was selected to identify most full sibling dyads while
245 minimising the possibility of inadvertently misclassifying half-siblings as full siblings (Figure 4).
246 The possibility of parent-offspring relationships is obviated because all larvae in the analysis were
247 collected within three years and the sexual maturity of Murray cod is greater than 4-5 years
248 (Lintermans 2007).



250 *Figure 4: Probability density function for relatedness (r) as simulated by 'r' package related and*
251 *based on the allele frequencies in larval Murray cod 2011-2013 in the Murrumbidgee River.*

252 After identifying the optimal value of r to eliminate dyads least likely to represent full siblings, the
253 set of dyads were filtered to include full siblings only. This resulted in 35 dyads (pairs of full
254 siblings) that were assigned to a family group.

255 **1.4.4 Nomination of Putative Female Parent**

256 The set of dyads containing full siblings was used to prepare network graphs to facilitate
257 visualisation of the family groups and the assignation of a name to putative female parent. Four

258 female Murray cod mated with the same male for more than one year (Figure 5). One pair mated
259 for three years sequentially and three other pairs mated for two of the three years studied, one pair
260 detected mating sequentially and two pairs detected mating in non-sequential years.

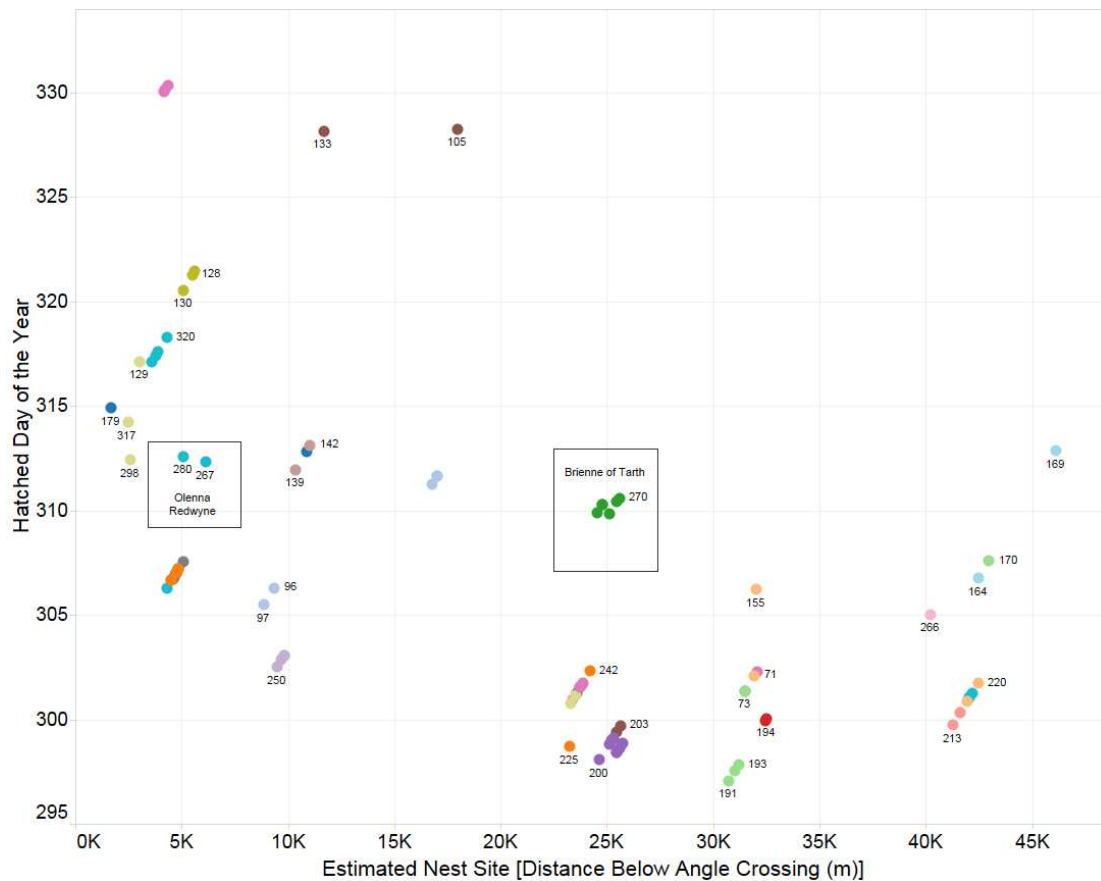


261

262 *Figure 5: Full sibling dyads were identified and assigned a putative female parent name. Full*
 263 *sibling larvae from multiple years are boxed. The rest are full sibling pairs found only within that*
 264 *one year. Singleton larvae – those without any identified full siblings - are not shown.*

265 1.4.5 Comparison of inferred family groups and sibships

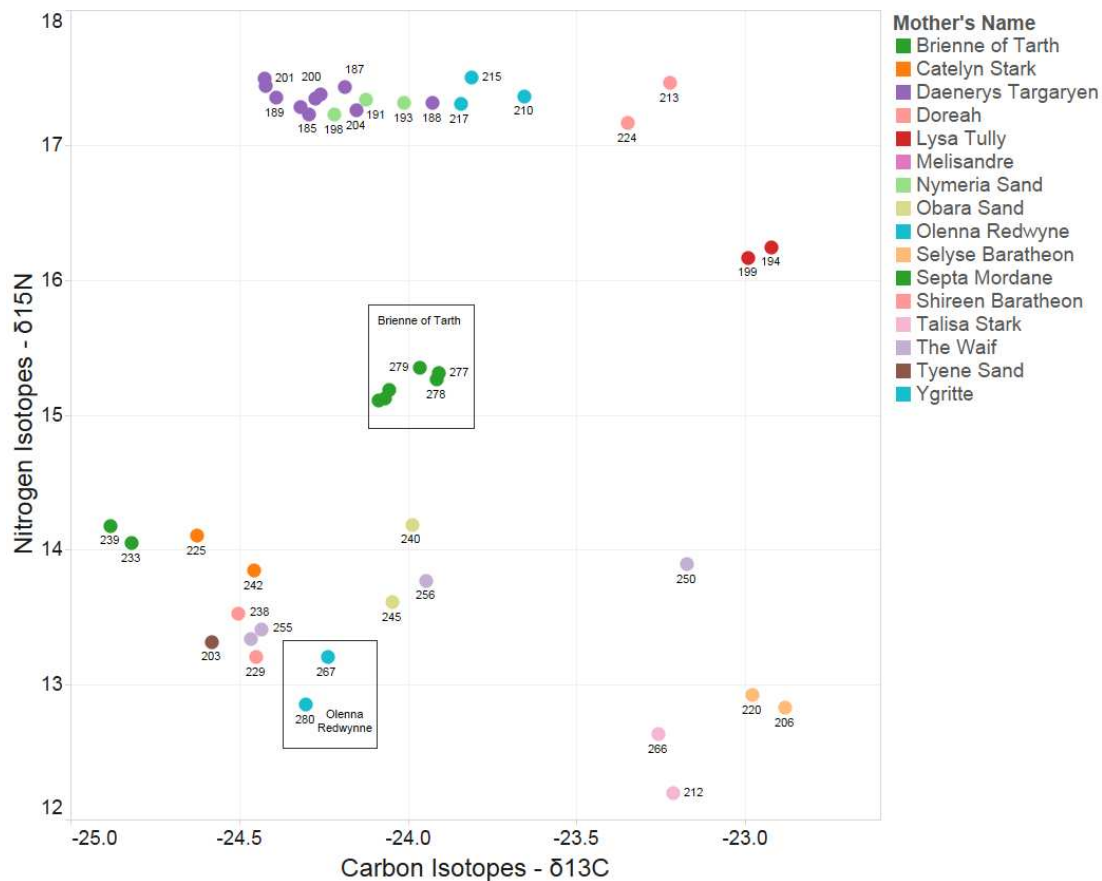
266 A spatio-temporal plot was coloured by the putative female parent of the larvae (Figure 6) and it is
 267 clear there is a good correlation between identification of groups by spatio-temporal factors alone
 268 when compared to the genetic relatedness of the nest groups.



269

270 *Figure 6: Inferring existence of family groups using spatio-temporal data coloured by the nominal*
 271 *female parent. Some larval labels and two mother's names are shown for reference.*

272 When the Carbon and Nitrogen Isotope ratios of the larvae are considered the strong clustering of
 273 CN isotope ratios and female parent illustrates a high correlation between full sibling status and
 274 body isotope signature provided to the larva from its female parent (Figure 7). This also supports
 275 the validity of parentage assignment based on related analysis



276

277 *Figure 7: $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ stable isotope ratio plot coloured by nominal female parent. Some larval*
 278 *labels and two mother's names are shown for reference.*

279 The identification of sibling relationship is also supported by the limited number of observations
 280 (just 3 individuals of 35 full sibling pairs) that were found at separate sites, and those three were
 281 only at detected at sites immediately adjacent to the other sibling.

282 **1.4.6 Probability of Observed Multi-Year Pair-Bonding**

283 The multi-year bonding identified in this case is unlikely to be due to chance. The probability of
 284 multi-year pair-bonding occurring within the cohorts by chance can be estimated if:

285 y = number years (2 or 3) with the same mate; and

286 n = number of pairs (138) including singletons.

287 and we assume 50/50 sex ratio in accordance with the findings of previous research on the
288 species (Cadwallader, 1977; Koehn & O'Connor, 1990) then the probability of pairing is:

$$p = (1/n - 1)^y - 1 \quad \text{Equation 5}$$

289 Applying Equation 5 for an individual female, the probability of mating with the same male for
290 two years is < 0.008 and for each individual female the probability of mating with the same male
291 for three years is < 0.00005. Clearly, the probability of four individuals each choosing the same
292 mate for multiple years reduces this probability even further.

293 To put it another way; for p to even approach non-significance at the 0.05 level, the number of
294 available males would need to be as low as five. Thus it seems unlikely to be random or size based
295 mate selection.

296 **1.5 Discussion**

297 This study has, for the first time in the wild, allowed us to infer that some male and female Murray
298 cod pair-bond for more than one year at a time. This suggests that Murray cod exhibit long-term
299 pair-bonding under some conditions. Our study does not provide any evidence that polyandry or
300 polygyny are absent, nor does it provide evidence for or against the coexistence of alternative
301 mating strategies. Data similarly derived on half-siblings status may be able to provide
302 significantly more detail of mating strategies in use. Nevertheless, if pair bonding is a feature of
303 long-lived freshwater fish, then it has profound implications for management and conservation
304 strategies.

305 Because of the limited numbers of full sibling pairs detected across years (4/35 pairs in three
306 years), it might be concluded from these data that multi-year pair-bonding is not a commonly
307 adopted mating strategy, and this may be the case. However, such a conclusion is considered
308 unwarranted because the spatial and temporal distribution of sampling of the current study reduces
309 the possibility of detecting full siblings by its limited resolution. Furthermore, recreational fishing
310 pressure may reduce the likelihood of identifying multi-year pair-bonds by eliminating some adult
311 fish from the breeding pool each year. Murray cod are an iconic Australian recreational target and
312 are, if stocking numbers are a guide, the second most sought-after native freshwater fish in the
313 Murray-Darling Basin (Reynoldson, 2017) and while recreational fishing regulations prohibit the
314 take of Murray cod during the spawning season (NSW Department of Primary Industries, 2017)

315 catch and release is not prohibited, with the aggressive behaviour of adults during this time well
316 known. This risk even applies to angled fish which are subsequently released, (Henry & Lyle,
317 2003) because such fish have been shown to reabsorb oocytes after the stress of capture and
318 release (Cooke & Suski, 2005). In this case, a female may return to her home territory rather than
319 pursue a breeding opportunity. In turn, the male would then be more likely to select another mate
320 for that breeding season. A similar disruption is also likely should it be the male that is caught and
321 pulled from his nest territory before spawning or while nest guarding. Examining more larvae for
322 sibling pairs would help quantify the prevalence multi-year pair-bonding as a mating strategy. So
323 too would conducting a multi-year study in waters closed to fishing.

324 The probability estimates in this study make some assumptions that need consideration. Firstly, the
325 possibility of all males and females being able to access each other across the study reach was
326 assumed. Movement studies of adult fish elsewhere indicate Murray cod can and sometimes do
327 undertake long spawning migrations (Lintermans, 2007; Koehn & Nicol, 2016) and there are fewer
328 than five physical barriers to adult fish movement in this reach when river height peak and some
329 barriers drown out most years (F. Dyer, M. Lintermans & A. Couch (2014, unpublished data).
330 Secondly, we have assumed that strong size-assortative mating preferences have not unduly limited
331 potential mating partners for individual Murray cod. There is no data on size-assortative mating in
332 Murray cod but it is potentially a factor that may cause two individual fish to come together
333 disproportionately often. This could be because of size selection *per se* or because larger fish claim
334 the best nesting sites each year. The authors consider very strong assortative mating unlikely and in
335 any case the end result is still multi-year pair-bonding.

336 Other physiological and behavioural factors have been associated with monogamy and/or long-
337 term pair-bonding. Some of these may provide avenues for further understanding details of pair-
338 bonding in Murray cod. These include mate recognition (Sogabe, 2011), hormones such as
339 oxytocin's role in social bonding (Acher, Chauvet & Chauvet, 1995; Donaldson & Young, 2008),
340 variation in operational sex ratio (Sogabe & Yanagisawa, 2007), sexual dimorphism (de Waal &
341 Gavrillets, 2013), and sex role reversal (Sogabe & Yanagisawa, 2007).

342 Multi-year bonding in freshwater fish is a novel and important finding that may change attitudes to
343 these animals and angling. It has been seen in captive Murray cod (Rourke et al., 2009) and now
344 evidence of it existing in the wild has implications for decisions of fisheries managers when

345 concerned with minimising disruption to pair-bond formation it will be important to reconsider
346 fishing access during the breeding season. This may entail closures rather than prohibition on take
347 which permits catch-and-release. Higher resolution spatial and temporal sampling would allow not
348 only more certainty regarding identified mating strategies employed by the species but also provide
349 valuable data regarding larval dispersal - still an important question in Australian freshwater fishes
350 in general and Murray cod in particular.

351 This study was designed primarily to explore spatial and temporal patterns in larval dispersal in an
352 upland river, and any hybridisation with a recently reintroduced formerly sympatric species. That
353 such an exciting finding as hitherto unknown multi-year pair-bonding was detected in part due to
354 serendipity emphasises the knowledge gaps regarding even some basic life history traits of
355 freshwater fish. These include:

- 356 • When are pair-bonds formed? Early on in courtship, or just before spawning,
- 357 • Does pair-bonding occur in reaches where there are no barriers?
- 358 • Do bonded pairs co-locate during the non-breeding season?
- 359 • What are the impacts of catch and release on long-term pair-bonding? Is it seasonal disruption
360 or more permanent?

361 **1.6 Conclusion**

362 Our claim that long-term pair-bonding has, for the first time been identified within a large group of
363 animals (the freshwater fish of Australia, and perhaps the world) requires more investigation. This
364 study provides a body of evidence - by no means definitive - that such a mating strategy does exist,
365 in at least one freshwater species. This work does not get to the important question of why such a
366 mating strategy may have been adopted by this species. It is however the necessary first step
367 towards such work that may consider this question. Clearly, subsequent work should investigate
368 pair-bonding in Murray cod, and seek to identify pair-bonding in other freshwater fishes in
369 Australia and elsewhere.

370 **1.7 References**

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