

1 **Drivers and Consequences of Partial Migration in an Alpine Bird**
2 **Species**

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19 **Abstract**

- 20 1. Partial migration, where a portion of the population migrates between winter and
21 summer (breeding) areas and the rest remains year-round resident, is a common
22 phenomenon across several taxonomic groups. Several hypotheses have been put
23 forward to explain why some individuals migrate while others stay resident, as well as
24 the fitness consequences of the different strategies. Yet, the drivers and consequences
25 of the decision to migrate or not are poorly understood.
- 26 2. We used data from radio-tagged female (n=73) willow ptarmigan *Lagopus lagopus* in
27 an alpine study area in Central Norway to test if i) the decision to migrate was dependent
28 on individual state variables (age and body weight), ii) individuals repeated migratory
29 decisions between seasons, and iii) the choice of migratory strategy was related to
30 reproductive success.
- 31 3. Partially supporting our prediction that migratory strategy depends on individual state,
32 we found that juvenile birds with small body sizes were more likely to migrate whereas
33 large juveniles remained resident. For adult females, we found no relationship between
34 the decision to migrate or stay resident and body weight. We found strong evidence for
35 high individual repeatability of migratory decision between seasons. Migratory strategy
36 did not explain variation in clutch size or nest fate among individuals, suggesting no
37 direct influence of the chosen strategy on reproductive success.
- 38 4. Our results indicate that partial migration in willow ptarmigan is related to juvenile
39 body weight, and that migratory behaviour becomes a part of the individual life history
40 as a fixed strategy. Nesting success was not affected by migratory strategy in our study
41 population, but future studies should assess other traits to further test potential fitness
42 consequences.

43 **Keywords:** *Lagopus lagopus*; eco-evolution; alpine wildlife; migration

44

45 1 | Introduction

46 Migration between distinct breeding and wintering areas is a widespread behavioural trait in
47 many species across a wide range of taxa, and is generally assumed to be an adaptation to
48 seasonal variation in environmental conditions (Reid et al. 2018). Such seasonal migrations
49 can increase individual fitness (Alerstam et al., 2003; Somveille et al., 2015), as it allows the
50 birds to utilize highly productive habitats all year round. In contrast, other bird species do not
51 perform long-distance seasonal migrations, as they are adapted to remain at high latitudes
52 throughout the entire year and survive the low-productive winters (Barta et al., 2006; Svorkmo-
53 Lundberg et al., 2006). However, species that display such behaviour may perform shorter
54 migrations between summer and winter areas in heterogeneous landscapes where availability
55 and/or quality of resources vary between seasons (Barraquand & Benhamou, 2008; Fedy et al.,
56 2012). Some overwintering populations are partially migratory (Chapman et al., 2011),
57 implying that a portion of the population migrates between summer and winter areas, whereas
58 the rest stay resident.

59 Partial migration has received considerable attention in the literature in the last decade
60 (Chapman et al., 2011; Pulido, 2011; Cobben & van Noordwijk, 2017; Reid et al., 2018; Berg
61 et al., 2019; Hegemann et al., 2019), and several hypotheses have been put forward to explain
62 both within-species and within-population variation in migratory behaviour. Lundberg (1997;
63 1988) suggested that the evolution of partial migration could be explained by two alternative
64 hypotheses. First, it could evolve i) as a frequency dependent evolutionary stable strategy (ESS)
65 with two phenotypic tactics – or genetic dimorphism with two coexisting morphs (i.e. migrants
66 and residents) – with equal fitness pay-offs. Second, partial migration could evolve ii) as a
67 conditional strategy where individual state variables and interactions with environmental
68 factors determine the decision to migrate or not at the individual level. Moreover, three well
69 established hypotheses have been put forward to explain the drivers behind partial migration
70 based on individual traits (i.e. conditional strategies; Chapman et al., 2011). These traits can be
71 individual fixed state variables such as age and sex, or plastic state variables such as body
72 condition (Lundberg, 1988). The body size hypotheses (Ketterson & Nolan, 1976; Hegemann
73 et al., 2015) suggest that large individuals are more likely to stay resident due to higher ability
74 to endure seasonal fluctuations in food abundance and temperature/weather conditions,
75 whereas smaller individuals and juveniles are more likely to migrate to habitats with more
76 benign environmental conditions. In the traditional form, the body mass hypothesis state that

77 large body mass is most advantageous during winter, due to higher thermal or nutritious stress
78 in this season (Chapman et al., 2011; but see Alonso et al . 2009). The dominance hypotheses
79 (Gauthreaux, 1982) suggest that dominant (often larger) individuals have a competitive
80 advantage in environments with limited food resources (Myserud et al., 2011) or nesting sites
81 (Gillis et al., 2008), which could trigger migration in smaller or sub-dominant individuals. The
82 arrival time hypothesis (Ketterson & Nolan, 1976) suggests that because of earlier nest-site
83 occupancy and higher fitness of early arriving birds, individuals arriving early at the breeding
84 site have higher reproductive success. Hence, birds that stay in the territory year-round, are
85 expected to have higher reproductive success. The body size, dominance and arrival time
86 hypotheses suggest that the decision to migrate or stay in the area year-round is influenced by
87 individual state, intraspecific interactions or environmental conditions, and that the fitness
88 reward from the two alternative strategies can differ. These different hypotheses might play
89 out differently in populations where residents and migrants share a non-breeding habitat but
90 breed allopatrically (i.e. *breeding partial migration*) and in populations where residents and
91 migrants share a breeding habitat but live allopatrically during the non-breeding season (i.e.
92 *non-breeding partial migration*) (Chapman et al. 2011). So far, most research has focused on
93 non-breeding partial migration, but breeding partial migration has been studied in e.g.
94 American dippers *Cinclus mexicanus* (Gillis et al. 2008).

95 The fitness consequences of being resident vs. migratory in a partially migratory population
96 are poorly understood (Chapman et al., 2011; Berg et al., 2019). Nevertheless, differences
97 between resident and migratory individuals in fitness parameters such as survival and
98 reproduction have been suggested in theoretical and reported from empirical studies.
99 Theoretical studies suggest that a conditional strategy can result in unequal fitness between
100 strategies in partially migratory populations (Lundberg, 1987; Lundberg, 1988; Chapman et
101 al., 2011; Kokko, 2011). Most empirical studies also report fitness to differ between migratory
102 strategies (Buchan et al., 2019). For instance, in a partially migratory population of American
103 dippers, Gillis et al. (2008) found that migrants had lower reproductive success but higher
104 survival rates compared to resident individuals. The higher survival rates did however not
105 offset the lower reproductivity. Adriaensen & Dhondt (1990) found both higher survival and
106 reproductive success in resident European robins *Erithacus rubecula* and hypothesized that the
107 differences could be attributed to a conditional strategy. In contrast, Hegemann et al. (2015)
108 found no differences in reproductive success between migrants and residents in a skylark
109 *Alauda arvensis* population, despite higher average body mass in resident birds. Both

110 theoretical and empirical studies generally suggest migration to be a losing strategy within
111 partially migrating populations, and that the decision to migrate may be to make “the best of a
112 bad job” (Chapman et al. 2011).

113 Empirical studies on potential fitness consequences of partial migration have so far been
114 limited to passerines, although partial migration is a common phenomenon reported in multiple
115 bird orders, including Galliformes (Cade & Hoffman, 1993; Chapman et al., 2011; Holte et al.,
116 2016; Grist et al., 2017) The willow ptarmigan *Lagopus lagopus* is a tetraonid bird with a
117 circumpolar distribution (Fuglei et al., 2020), which lives year-round in heterogeneous alpine
118 and arctic ecosystems. Because male willow ptarmigan regularly display polygamy, male
119 breeding success is therefore more difficult to quantify than female breeding success and
120 consequently more often unknown (Tarasov, 2003). Several studies have reported migratory
121 behaviour in ptarmigan populations (Irving et al., 1967; Hoffman & Braun, 1975; Gruys, 1993;
122 Brøseth et al., 2005; Hörnell-Willebrand et al., 2014; Nilsen et al., 2020a). From Sweden,
123 Hörnell-Willebrand et al. (2014) reported considerable individual variation in seasonal
124 migration distances in willow ptarmigan, with some individuals considered to be residents and
125 others to be migrants. Empirical data from other Scandinavian ptarmigan populations imply
126 non-migratory behaviour (Pedersen et al., 2003), suggesting that there are both inter- and intra-
127 population differences in the propensity to migrate between summer and winter areas in willow
128 ptarmigan. Willow ptarmigan from some populations often gather in distinct wintering areas
129 (Weeden, 1964), which suggests these populations to be breeding partially migratory
130 (Chapman et al. 2011) due to some individuals migrating to breeding areas during spring while
131 others stay resident, either in the wintering or in the breeding areas. Currently, the drivers and
132 consequences of partial migration in willow ptarmigan is poorly understood.

133 Here, we test a number of predictions from a pre-registered hypothesis (Nilsen et al., 2020b;
134 Arnekleiv et al., 2019) put forward to explain causes and consequences of partial migration
135 behaviour in female willow ptarmigan. We focused on females only because we did not have
136 access to reproductive success data from males in our study population. Assuming that
137 migrants are making the best of a bad job (Lundberg, 1987), and based on the hypotheses about
138 state dependent evolution of partial migration in birds outlined above, we predict that:

- 139 1) Female willow ptarmigan with a) large body size are more likely to remain resident
140 than females with smaller body size, and b) juveniles are more likely to be migrants
141 than adults.

- 142 2) Migration is not a fixed strategy in female willow ptarmigan.
143 3) Resident female willow ptarmigan have higher nesting success than migrants.

144 Under the assumption that winter is the most thermally or energetically constraining season as
145 implied in the traditional form of the body size hypothesis (Ketterson & Nolan, 1976; Chapman
146 et al. 2011) our data would not allow for an efficient test of this hypothesis. The body size
147 hypothesis would typically be tested with data from systems with non-breeding partial
148 migration, as defined above. The predictions were preregistered (Nilsen et al., 2020b) at the
149 Open Science Framework (OSF) prior to analysing data (Arnekleiv et al., 2019).

150

151 **2 | Methods**

152 **2.1 | Study area**

153 The study was conducted in Lierne municipality in the northeastern part of Trøndelag county,
154 Norway, with minor extensions of the study area into neighbouring municipalities Snåsa,
155 Røyrvik and Grong due to longer movements from the main study area by some individuals
156 (FIGURE 1). Ptarmigan were captured at two sites (Guslia and Lifjellet), which were located 20
157 km apart near Blåfjella-Skjækerfjella National Park (FIGURE 1). Both in winter and summer,
158 willow ptarmigan are distributed across the larger study area, and some birds overwinter also
159 in the breeding areas of the migratory birds from this study. Because we only captured birds
160 during winter at two specific capture areas, birds that were resident at other sites in the larger
161 study area would not be available for capture in our study. This also limited our ability to test
162 the body size hypothesis. The study area was situated in the low alpine and north boreal
163 bioclimatic zones (Moen, 1999); the low alpine zone was dominated by *Salix spp.*, dwarf birch
164 *Betula nana* and *Ericaceae spp.* interspersed with birch *Betula pubescens*, whereas the north
165 boreal zone was dominated by Norway spruce *Picea abies*, Scots pine *Pinus sylvestris*, birch
166 *Betula spp.*, *Ericaceae* dwarf shrubs and bryophytes.

167

168 **2.2 | Field data collection**

169 Willow ptarmigan were captured during February and March during winter 2015 - 2019. The
170 birds were spotted from snowmobiles during night-time and temporarily blinded with powerful
171 headlamps and caught with long-handled dip-nets (Brøseth et al., 2005; Sandercock et al.,

172 2011; Hörnell-Willebrand et al., 2014). Body weight (measured with Pesola LightLine 1000g
173 spring scale – rounded to nearest 5 g) and wing length (measured with Axminster Workshop
174 Hook Rule 300mm – carpal to tip of longest primary of flattened wing, measured to nearest
175 mm) were measured prior to instrumenting the birds with radio-collars. Captured birds were
176 identified in the field as either female or male based on saturation of red in the eyebrow, where
177 males have more pronounced red colour than females (Pedersen & Karlsen, 2007). One feather
178 was collected for DNA-analyses to confirm sex, and the genetic marker Z-054 (Dawson et al.,
179 2015) was used to determine the sex of the bird. 85 % of the sex assignments in the field were
180 correct (Israelsen et al. 2020). Captured birds were also classified into juvenile (captured during
181 the first winter following the year of birth) and adult (2nd year +) based on the amount of
182 pigments in primary feathers 8 and 9, where juveniles have more black pigments in 9 than in 8
183 (Bergerud et al., 1963). Each individual was marked with a stainless steel ring with a unique
184 identification number. Most of the birds were equipped with a VHF radio-tag (Holohil - RI-
185 2DM, 14,1 gram) on the 152 MHz frequency band. For all marked birds, the combined weight
186 of the leg ring and radio transmitter was < 3.5% of the body weight. Radio-transmitters were
187 programmed to send mortality-signals after recording no movement for more than 12 hours. In
188 March 2018, five ptarmigan were captured and marked with GPS-transmitters (Milsar -
189 GsmRadioTag-S9, 12 gram). The transmitters sent position data over the GSM network every
190 forth hour.

191 Willow ptarmigan positions were for the most part collected once a month by manual tracking
192 on foot by triangulation, using handheld receivers (Followit – RX98) and antennas (Followit –
193 four-element Yagi-antenna); 2-5 bearings were used to determine best position and the distance
194 between each telemetry location varied from 0.3 – 1 kilometre. If only two bearings were
195 obtained, the cross-section was included when the terrain indicated that the observation was
196 trustworthy (e.g. when the cross-bearing pointed to a position in the end of a valley). Few
197 positions were collected in January and December, due to short daylength and challenging
198 weather conditions. To avoid loss of data due to long-distance movements, we conducted wider
199 aerial triangulation using a helicopter or fixed-winged airplane three times a year (May,
200 September and November) in the years 2016-2019. In 2015, we only conducted triangulation
201 from the air in October. Additional positions were either on-site direct observations from
202 captures or homing in on individuals.

203 Nesting success in spring was first assessed by homing in on radio-tagged females to check
204 whether they were nesting. Further, incubating females were flushed off the nest, eggs were

205 counted, and a wildlife camera (Reconyx HF2X Hyperfire 2 or Wingcam II TL) with
206 movement sensor was deployed 2-5 meters from each nest. The nests were revisited in July
207 after hatching to determine the fate of the nest by inspecting and counting the eggshells to see
208 whether and how many eggs were hatched or predated. In addition, pictures from the cameras
209 were examined.

210

211 **2.3 | Classification of migratory behaviour**

212 To examine migratory movements between seasons, we classified January – March as winter
213 and May – July as summer. Out of a total of n=101 captured female ptarmigan, only females
214 with data from at least one winter and the consecutive summer season were included in the
215 analysis (n=73) (TABLE 1). We collected 1-2 positions per individual in the winter and 1-5
216 positions per individual during summer. For each female in each season, migratory decisions
217 were determined based on whether or not there was overlap between the winter home range
218 and the consecutive summer home range (FIGURE 2), and between the summer home range and
219 the consecutive winter home range.

220 Due to the limited amount of location data for each individual, we were not able to use the
221 more data-hungry approaches that have been developed for research on GPS tagged individuals
222 (Cagnacci *et al.* 2016). Thus, we opted to create a decision rule for classification of migratory
223 decision based on the available data and the assumption that all females shared a common home
224 range size in summer and winter, respectively. We used the following approach:

225 First, we calculated an average winter home range size from positions of three of the GPS-
226 tagged ptarmigan during the winter 2018, all marked in March 2018. Individual home range
227 sizes were calculated as 95% Minimum Convex Polygons (MCP) using the function *mcp* in R
228 package *adehabitatHR* (Calenge, 2006). The average 95% MCP for the three GPS-tagged
229 ptarmigan was 4.08 km². Before calculating the individual 95% MCPs, we removed inaccurate
230 positions (due to GPS error) We defined a position as an outlier if the distance between two
231 consecutive positions (i.e., time t and t-1, respectively) where more than two times the distance
232 between positions surrounding the focal position (i.e. distance between position taken at t-1
233 and t+1). Positions from the GPS-tagged ptarmigan were only used to estimate the average
234 ‘baseline’ winter home range size, and these birds were not included in further analyses. For
235 each of the VHF-tagged females included in the analyses, we assumed that they had a circular
236 winter home range equal to the size calculated from the GPS data (4.08 km² (radius = 1140 m))

237 centred around the activity centre (determined by triangulation) of each female in each winter
238 season; this was used as a proxy for individual winter home range size and location.

239 Second, we estimated the size of the summer home ranges using data from VHF-tagged female
240 ptarmigan with ≥ 3 positions during the summer season (May - July). For each female, we drew
241 a polygon based on the positions, and calculated the area of the polygon. As a measure of a
242 'baseline' summer home range for further analysis, we used the median of all the individual
243 summer home range sizes (n=46). The baseline home range area was estimated to be 0.058
244 km², corresponding to a circular home range with radius=136 m. This size is in good agreement
245 with previous studies of ptarmigan summer home range sizes (Eason & Hannon, 2003). For
246 each of the females included in the analyses, we assumed a circular summer home range of
247 0.058 km² (radius = 136 m) centred around the activity centre (determined by triangulation and
248 nest location) of each female in each summer season, as a proxy for individual summer home
249 range. When calculating the activity centre, the activity centre for nesting hens (n=68) was
250 shifted towards the nest location, by assigning equal weights to the position of the nest and the
251 sum of all other positions. All spatial computations were done using R (R Core Team, 2019).

252 Females with overlapping winter/summer or summer/winter home ranges were classified as
253 residents, whereas females with no overlap were classified as migrants. Based on the 'baseline'
254 home range sizes, ptarmigan moving further than 1276 m (radius winter home range + radius
255 summer home range) were consequently classified as migrants and females moving less than
256 1276 m were classified as residents.

257

258 **2.4 | Statistical analysis**

259 To test our predictions about state dependent migration strategy we used generalized linear
260 models (GLM), based on data from the first spring migratory decision for each bird. Although
261 this limited our sample size, it allowed a more stringent test of the migratory decisions from a
262 sympatric wintering area to allopatric breeding area (i.e. *breeding partial migration*).
263 Migratory decision was modelled as a binary response variable (see above), and body weight,
264 age and body weight \times age interaction as fixed explanatory terms. Body weight was used as a
265 measure of body size. Body weight can however fluctuate as across short and long time
266 intervals, and such intra-individual variation might make body weight a less reliable measure
267 of body size; we acknowledge this limitation of the current study. For all models, the body
268 weight variable was standardized by extracting the mean and dividing by the standard

269 deviation. Under the assumption that migratory decisions are (relatively) fixed and symmetrical
270 across seasons, we also analysed the data using generalized linear mixed effects models
271 including all observations (*glmmTMB* function in R package *glmmTMB*; Brooks et al., 2017),
272 with migratory decision as a binary response variable and bird identity included as random
273 effect to account for repeated observations of individual birds. Note that this approach included
274 both spring- and autumn migration decisions. The results from the mixed effects models are
275 presented in Appendix A.

276 As an additional test of prediction 1, we also tested whether the distance migrated was
277 influenced by age and body weight by fitting linear models (GLM) with log(movement
278 distance) as response variable, and weight, age and the weight×age interaction as fixed
279 explanatory terms. We used an identity link function (assuming a Gaussian distribution of the
280 residuals), and included only the first spring migratory decision for each bird. As above, we
281 repeated the analyses including all data (i.e. repeated observations for some birds, and
282 including both spring- and autumn migratory decisions), we used generalized linear mixed
283 effects models (*glmmTMB* function in R package *glmmTMB*), including bird identity as
284 intercept term to account for repeated observations of individual birds.

285 To assess if the decision to migrate or not was a fixed strategy in female willow ptarmigan, we
286 estimated the repeatability R_M in a mixed effect model with log(movement distance) as
287 response variable. Only females with 2 or more observations of seasonal migration decisions
288 were included. We also assessed models for repeatability in migratory decision (binary
289 response), but do not report those due to convergence failure. Repeatability R_M was estimated
290 as the proportion of the total variance that was attributed to within group (bird identity)
291 variation (Sokal & Rohlf, 1995):

$$292 \quad R_M = \frac{\sigma_{\alpha}^2}{\sigma_{\alpha}^2 + \sigma_{\epsilon}^2}$$

293 Agreement repeatability was estimated based on the intercept-only model (i.e. not accounting
294 for any fixed factors), whereas adjusted repeatability was estimated with age included as a fixed
295 effect term in the model (Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2010). Repeatability was calculated using
296 the rptR package (Stoffel et al., 2017), and the 95% confidence interval for the repeatability
297 was estimated using parametric bootstrapping (n=1000).

298 To test whether reproductive success was influenced by migratory strategy, we 1) fitted a
299 generalized linear models with number of eggs as response variable and migratory decision,

300 age, weight and year as explanatory variables, and bird identity as random effect. Because
301 clutch size data is often underdispersed (Kendall & Wittmann 2010), we used a Conway-
302 Maxwell Poisson distribution, that includes an additional parameter (ϕ) that accounts for
303 violations of the mean-variance assumption in a standard Poisson distribution. The models
304 were fitted to the data from the first spring after capture for each bird using the function
305 *glm.cmp* in package *mpcmp* (Fung et al., 2020). Then, 2) we fitted generalized linear model
306 with nest fate as binary response variable (i.e. hatched chicks vs. predated or abandoned nest)
307 and migratory decisions, age, weight and year as explanatory variables and with bird identity
308 as random effect. We repeated the analyses including all observations (i.e. more than one year
309 for some birds) using generalized linear mixed effects models (*glmmTMB* function in R
310 package *glmmTMB*). The results from the mixed effects models are presented in Appendix A.

311 All model selection was based on the Akaike's information criterion corrected for small sample
312 sizes (AICc) (see e.g. Bolker et al., 2008). The AICc encourages parsimony by adding a term
313 to penalise more complex (larger number of parameters) models (e.g. Bolker et al., 2008).

314 **3 | Results**

315 **3.1 | Migration strategy in relation to age and body weight**

316 A total of 104 cases of seasonal movement behaviours (i.e. decisions to migrate or remain
317 resident) were included in this study (TABLE 2), of which 87 were winter area to summer area
318 movements and 17 were movements from the summer area to the winter area. When including
319 only transitions from winter to summer areas, three times as many cases of migratory ($n = 53$,
320 73%) than of resident ($n = 20$, 27%) behaviours were observed (TABLE 2). Mean and median
321 movement distances – for both juvenile and adult females – were substantially longer than the
322 distance limit for being classified as migrant (1276 m; TABLE 3). Overall, 67% of the seasonal
323 movement distances were shorter than 10 km, 25% were between 10 and 25 km, whereas only
324 a few (8%) seasonal movements were longer than 25 km (FIGURE 3). In general, seasonal
325 movement distances were longer for birds marked at Guslia compared to birds marked at
326 Lifjellet (FIGURE 3). Mean and median differences in weight between juveniles and adults were
327 small (TABLE 3). There was no evidence for a difference ($p=0.79$ – linear model) in elevation
328 of the nest site locations between residents (mean elevation: 600 m.a.s. \pm 21) and migrants (593
329 m.a.s. \pm 15).

330 When modelling the decision to migrate or remain resident (including only the first spring
331 movement for each individual female ptarmigan) as a function of age and body weight, we

332 found strongest support for the full model including the age x weight interaction (TABLE 4,
333 Appendix A). This is in partial support of our prediction 1. A similar result was found when
334 including all data (i.e. repeated observations for some birds, and both spring- and autumn
335 movements; Appendix A). The full model received substantially more support than the second-
336 ranked model (TABLE 4). For juveniles, the probability of migrating decreased with body
337 weight (FIGURE 4), and thus the probability of remaining resident increased with weight. For
338 adults there was no apparent influence of body weight on the decision to migrate or remain
339 resident. When modelling movement distance as a function of age and weight (including only
340 the first spring movement for each individual female ptarmigan), we found no support for a
341 difference between juveniles and adults (TABLE 5, Appendix A), and the intercept only-model
342 had lowest AICc. Similar inference was made when including all observations (i.e. repeated
343 observations for some birds, and both spring- and autumn movements; Appendix A).

344

345 **3.2 | Repeatability of migratory behaviour**

346 Repeatability of migratory behaviour within individuals was very high (FIGURE 5), and
347 repeatability within individuals increased each consecutive season. Among those individuals
348 that changed migratory strategy, some were originally migratory whereas others were
349 originally resident. Agreement repeatability (based on the intercept only model) for movement
350 distance revealed very high repeatability ($R = 0.69$, 95% CI = 0.36-0.85). Repeatability was
351 equally high after accounting for potential age effects (i.e. adjusted repeatability) in movement
352 distance ($R = 0.71$, 95% CI = 0.40 – 0.87).

353

354 **3.3 | Nesting success**

355 In contrast to our third prediction, we did not find evidence that clutch size (TABLE 6, Appendix
356 A) or nest fate (TABLE 7, Appendix A) varied as function of migratory strategy, age or weight.
357 For both dependent variables, the ranking of models was identical (clutch size) or similar (nest
358 fate) when using only first year of data for each individual (TABLE 6, 7 vs Appendix A).

359

360 **4 | Discussion**

361 We found that the willow ptarmigan population in the study area was partially migratory, and
362 most (73%) of the individuals decided to carry out a seasonal migration from winter to summer

363 areas rather than remaining resident. Similar migratory strategies have been reported from
364 several other species of Galliformes, including spruce grouse *Falciennis canadensis* (Herzog
365 & Keppie, 1980) and blue grouse *Dendragapus obscurus* (Cade & Hoffman, 1993). Partly in
366 line with our first prediction, we found that body weight related to the decision to migrate or
367 to remain resident. This effect was only found among juvenile birds, where individuals with
368 high body weight had a higher probability of remaining in the winter area. Among adult
369 females, body weight did not appear to influence the decision to migrate or remain resident. In
370 contrast with our second prediction, we found that migration decision was a fixed strategy once
371 established, and individuals for which data on more than one seasonal migratory decision was
372 available, showed a high degree of repeatability in migratory behaviour. Finally, we found no
373 support for our third prediction, as resident female willow ptarmigan had similar reproductive
374 success to migrants.

375

376 **4.1 | Migration strategy in relation to age and body weight**

377 One key finding of our study was that juvenile willow ptarmigan with small body sizes had a
378 higher probability of migrating. The body size hypothesis posits that large body sizes will be
379 advantageous to endure thermal variations and variation in food availability in harsh winter
380 climates, and winter survival is generally high and stable in willow ptarmigan (Israelsen et al.
381 2020). Second, our data do not allow for an efficient test of this hypothesis, because we only
382 included birds with a shared winter area. Below, we discuss the likely importance of the
383 dominance and the arrival time hypotheses for our results.

384 As posited by the dominance hypothesis, individuals with high body weight should have a
385 competitive advantage to smaller individuals, forcing smaller individuals to migrate
386 (Gauthreaux, 1982). For the dominance hypothesis to work there must be an intraspecific
387 competition for limited resources such as food or nest sites (Newton, 1998; Matthysen, 2005).
388 Nesting sites close to the wintering grounds might be a limited resource (Gillis et al., 2008),
389 and large dominant individuals might occupy the best breeding territories forcing juvenile
390 ptarmigans to migrate to find a suitable breeding territory. This may be the case in the wintering
391 areas where ptarmigan density is high during the winter months, and smaller (less dominant)
392 individuals must migrate to find a suitable breeding territory in spring. Although two previous
393 studies on dispersing juvenile willow ptarmigans in Scandinavia found no density-dependence
394 in dispersal rates (Brøseth et al., 2005; Hörnell-Willebrand et al., 2014), intraspecific

395 competition driven by positive density-dependent factors might still be an important driver of
396 partial migration in our study population.

397 Several studies have found support for the arrival time hypothesis as a driver of partial
398 migration (Ketterson & Nolan, 1976; Fudickar et al., 2013; Lundblad & Conway, 2020), but
399 lack of data on the when the females arrived in their breeding territories prevented us from
400 testing this hypothesis explicitly. However, willow ptarmigans to some extent adjust the start
401 of the breeding season to the timing of spring (Myrberget, 1986), hence, earlier spring leads to
402 an early start to the breeding season. Resident ptarmigans may have an advantage in occupying
403 high quality territories prior to migrating individuals, and this might be particularly true in
404 years with mild winters and early spring.

405 Our finding that the decision to migrate or remain resident depended on body weight in
406 juveniles but not in adults is only partly in line with the dominance hypothesis. However, if
407 migration in juveniles is affected by density-dependent factors, such as limitations in available
408 territories, the dominance hypothesis may explain partial migration in juvenile ptarmigan.

409

410 **4.2 | Repeatability of migration strategy**

411 Once established, migratory behaviour seems to be a relatively fixed trait in our study
412 population, and the repeatability in migration decisions within individuals was very high. Our
413 findings are in line with several studies on breeding partial migratory populations, which have
414 found migratory strategy to be fixed within individuals (Gillis et al., 2008; Chambon et al.,
415 2019). For example, in a breeding partial migratory population of American crow *Corvus*
416 *brachyrynchos* in USA, Townsend et al. (2018) found that migratory strategy was fixed within
417 individuals, the proportion of migrants was 78% and with high breeding-site fidelity.
418 Interestingly, bird populations that breed sympatrically but winter allopatrically seem to have
419 a higher degree of non-fixed migration behaviour (Hegemann et al., 2015; Dale et al., 2019;
420 Lundblad & Conway, 2020).

421 A potential benefit of a fixed migratory strategy may be less exposure to unfamiliar habitat,
422 and higher mortality rates that are associated by switching breeding sites between years (often
423 referred to as breeding dispersal) have been reported (Greenwood & Harvey, 1982; Daniels &
424 Walters, 2000; Bonte et al., 2011). Returning to the same breeding territory may also be
425 beneficial due to familiarity with food resources and shelter from predators, which in turn leads
426 to a more efficient use of resources (Greenwood & Harvey, 1982). This effect may be enhanced

427 in individuals that remain resident all year, and according to Buchan et al. (2019) most studies
428 on the consequences of partial migration reported higher mortality in migrants than in resident
429 individuals. The high repeatability in migratory strategy within willow ptarmigans may be
430 caused by resistance against moving to unfamiliar breeding wintering sites.

431

432 **4.3 | Reproductive success in relation to migration strategy**

433 In contrast to our third prediction, we did not find any statistical support for higher reproductive
434 success (measured as clutch size and nest fate) of resident birds. Our prediction was based on
435 the “best of a bad job” hypothesis (Lundberg, 1987), positing that migration is a losing strategy
436 that should lead to reduced fitness. Based on a multi-taxa assessment, Buchan et al. 2019
437 reported that although most studies reported fitness differences between resident and migrants
438 (73% of the studied populations reported higher fitness of residents, 22% reported higher
439 fitness of migrants, and 5% reported equal fitness), fitness differences were most often caused
440 by differences in survival. They argue that the reason for this finding can be that anthropogenic
441 changes reduce the survival of migratory individuals. Our finding that migratory decisions
442 seem to be relatively fixed once established appears to be in line with the finding that fitness
443 does not differ between the strategies in our study population. Although point estimates of
444 nesting success for resident female first-time breeders (57%) are slightly higher than migratory
445 first-time breeders (44%), low statistical power preclude further assessment of this in our study.
446 In addition, there may be differences in survival between residents and migrants, and we
447 suggest further investigations to be carried out to get a better understanding of the
448 consequences of partial migration in the willow ptarmigan.

449 For fitness to be equal between the two migratory strategies, theoretical studies suggest that
450 higher survival in migrants must offset the increased nesting success in residents (Lundberg,
451 1987; Chapman et al., 2011). Reduced risk of predation (Hebblewhite & Merrill, 2007; Skov
452 et al., 2010), escape from harsh climatic conditions and better forage are pointed at as important
453 factors enhancing survival in migrants. Our results showed that a large proportion of the willow
454 ptarmigan population carried out seasonal migrations, with little variation between years. If
455 migratory strategy is genetically determined, the fitness trade-off between migrating vs resident
456 strategies may be frequency-dependent where the fitness pay-off for each genotype increases
457 or decreases with the genotype’s frequency in the population (Lundberg, 1987; Heino et al.,
458 1998). Negative frequency-dependent selection rewards the strategy with lowest frequency in

459 the population, i.e. selection is density-dependent. The population may reach an equilibrium in
460 an evolutionary stable state between migrants and residents where both strategies (genetic
461 morphs) yield the same fitness. The frequencies of migrants and residents may stabilize at any
462 ratio, and the small between-year changes in the migrants:residents ratio in this willow
463 ptarmigan population may indicate that it is in equilibrium. This may explain why we did not
464 find any differences in reproductive success between the two strategies. If this is indeed the
465 case, migrants are not making “the best of a bad job” where migration is the losing strategy in
466 terms of both survival and reproductive success, and contradicts the findings of most empirical
467 studies (Chapman et al., 2011; Buchan et al., 2019).

468 To conclude, we found that willow ptarmigans in central Norway were partially migratory,
469 making them well suited for studies of the evolution of partial migration. The probability of
470 remaining resident in the wintering area increased with increased body weight in juveniles, but
471 not in adults. We found partly support for the dominance hypothesis for explaining partial
472 migration, but cannot exclude the arrival time hypothesis as a potential driver of the observed
473 pattern. The migratory decisions displayed at the juvenile stage appeared to become fixed
474 throughout the individuals’ lifetime. We found no difference in average reproductive success
475 between migratory strategies, which indicates that both strategies yield equal fitness unless
476 there are differences in survival between the strategies.

477

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486

487 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

488 During the review process, data and R-code is available through an open GitHub repository
489 (https://github.com/ErlendNilsen/WillowPtarmigan_PartialMigration). Upon acceptance, data

490 and code will be archived in a public repository according to best practice open science
491 standards.

492

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697

698

699 **TABLE 1:** Number of radio-tagged female willow ptarmigan captured in the capture sites Guslia and
700 Lifjellet. N observations/nests show the total number of individual migratory decisions and nests
701 included in the analysis of the first spring transitions from winter to summer areas. The numbers in
702 parentheses show number of observations/nests when repeated decisions for some birds, and both spring
703 and autumn movements, were included in the mixed effects models presented in Appendix A.

Year	Guslia	Lifjellet	N marked	N observations included in analyses	N nests included in analyses
2015	14	6	20	14 (14)	9 (9)
2016	10	10	20	16 (23)	12 (13)
2017	8	12	20	14 (24)	6 (7)
2018	4	13	17	11 (20)	11 (13)
2019	11	13	24	18 (23)	16 (18)
Total	47	54	101	73 (104)	54 (60)

704

705

706 **TABLE 2:** Distribution of decisions to migrate or remain resident from winter to summer (first year of
 707 data after capture only) observed for 73 female willow ptarmigan during the five-year study period. The
 708 numbers in parentheses include all observations of migratory decisions, both from winter to consecutive
 709 summer and from summer to consecutive winter.

Year	Residents	Migrants	Total	% Migrants
2015	6 (6)	8 (8)	14 (14)	57 (57)
2016	5 (5)	11 (18)	16 (23)	69 (78)
2017	5 (5)	9 (19)	14 (24)	64 (79)
2018	1 (4)	10 (16)	11 (20)	91 (80)
2019	3 (6)	15 (17)	18 (23)	83 (74)
Total	20 (26)	53 (78)	73 (104)	73 (75)

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712 **TABLE 3:** Distance moved from winter to summer area (first year of data after capture only) and weight
 713 of juvenile and adult female willow ptarmigans. N distance is the total number of movement distances
 714 observed. For adults, the numbers in parentheses include all observations, both from winter to
 715 consecutive summer and from summer to consecutive winter. Weight-data is from capture during winter
 716 (March), rounded to nearest 5g.

	Age	Min.	Mean	Median	Max.	N
Distance (km)	Juv	0.0	7.8	4.5	30.0	33
	Ad	0.0	9.9 (9.6)	6.8 (7.0)	46.5 (46.5)	40 (71)
Weight (g)	Juv	520	590	590	670	33
	Ad	530	600	600	670	40

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719 **TABLE 4:** Candidate models and model statistics for modelling migration strategy (migrate vs. remain
720 resident) as a function of age (juvenile or adult) and body weight for female willow ptarmigan. Results
721 from generalized linear models (GLMs) with binary response ($Y = 1 =$ migrated, $Y = 0 =$ remained
722 resident) and logit link function, assuming binomial error distribution. Only winter to summer migratory
723 decisions are included.

Response	Model	K	AIC _c	ΔAIC _c	AIC _c Wt	CumWt
Migratory strategy	Weight + Age + Weight × Age	4	82.84	0.00	0.80	0.80
	Weight	2	87.50	4.66	0.08	0.88
	Intercept	1	87.78	4.94	0.07	0.95
	Age	2	89.60	6.75	0.03	0.97
	Weight + Age	3	89.61	6.76	0.03	1.00

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729 **TABLE 5:** Candidate models and model statistics for modelling movement distance as a function of age
 730 (juvenile or adult) and body weight for female willow ptarmigan. Results from linear models (LMs)
 731 with continuous response assuming Gaussian error distribution. Only winter to summer transitions are
 732 included, and only first year of data for each bird.

Response	Model	K	AICc	ΔAIC_c	AICcWt	CumWt
Distance	Intercept	2	298.58	0.00	0.48	0.48
	Weight	3	300.60	2.02	0.17	0.65
	Age	3	300.70	2.12	0.16	0.81
	Weight + Age + Weight \times Age	5	301.16	2.58	0.13	0.94
	Weight + Age	4	302.82	4.24	0.06	1.00

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738 **TABLE 6:** Candidate models and model statistics for modelling number of laid eggs as a function of
 739 migratory strategy (migration vs. resident in wintering area), age (juvenile or adult) and body weight
 740 for female willow ptarmigan. Results from generalized linear models (GLMs) with count response and
 741 log link function, assuming generalized Poisson error distribution (see methods).

Response	Model	K	AIC _c	ΔAIC _c	AIC _c Wt	Cum Wt
N eggs	Intercept	2	209.44	0.00	0.32	0.32
	Age	3	209.96	0.52	0.24	0.56
	Weight	3	211.38	1.93	0.12	0.68
	Migratory strategy	3	211.70	2.26	0.10	0.78
	Age + Weight	4	212.25	2.80	0.08	0.86
	Age + Migratory strategy	4	212.71	2.85	0.08	0.94
	Migratory strategy + Weight	4	213.71	4.27	0.04	0.98
	Migratory strategy + Age + Weight	5	214.67	5.22	0.02	1.00

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746 **TABLE 7:** Candidate models and model statistics for modelling nest fate as a function of migratory
 747 strategy (migration vs. remain resident in wintering area), age (juvenile or adult) and body weight for
 748 female willow ptarmigan. Results from generalized linear models (GLMs) with binary response (Y = 1
 749 = hatched, Y = 0 = abandoned/predated) and logit link function, assuming binomial error distribution.

Response	Model	K	AIC _c	ΔAIC _c	AIC _c Wt	Cum Wt
Nest fate	Intercept	1	75.38	0.00	0.38	0.38
	Age	2	77.14	1.75	0.16	0.54
	Migratory strategy	2	77.21	1.83	0.15	0.69
	Weight	2	77.54	2.16	0.13	0.82
	Age + Migratory strategy	3	79.02	3.64	0.06	0.88
	Age + Weight	3	79.36	3.98	0.05	0.93
	Weight + Migratory strategy	3	79.44	4.06	0.05	1.08
	Migratory strategy + Weight + Age	4	81.37	5.99	0.02	1.00

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756 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

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758 **FIGURE 1:** Triangulated positions of all female willow ptarmigan during the study period in the winter
759 (January – March, blue circles) and summer (May – July, red circles) seasons. The blue triangles
760 represent capture locations; the northern cluster is Lifjellet capture site and the southern cluster is Guslia
761 capture site. Map to the left shows the location of the study area in Central Norway.

762

763 **FIGURE 2:** Female ptarmigan were classified as either migrants, if the distance between the activity
764 centre of winter and summer home ranges exceeded 1276 meters (i.e. no overlap), or residents, if the
765 distance between the centroids of winter and summer home range was less than 1276 meters (i.e.
766 overlap).

767

768 **FIGURE 3:** A) Distribution of seasonal migration distances for female willow ptarmigan. Purple bar
769 represents resident individuals, orange bars represents migrants. See Figure 2 for definition of resident
770 and migratory individuals. B) Migration distance plotted for each capture site C) Distances migrated
771 plotted against body weights of individual juvenile birds. Dashed vertical line represents mean and
772 median weight and solid horizontal line marks the threshold movement distance separating residents
773 and migrants (1276 m). D) Same as C, but for adult birds. Purple dots represent migrants whereas orange
774 dots represent residents. In all panels, only winter to summer transitions are included, and only first
775 year of data for each bird.

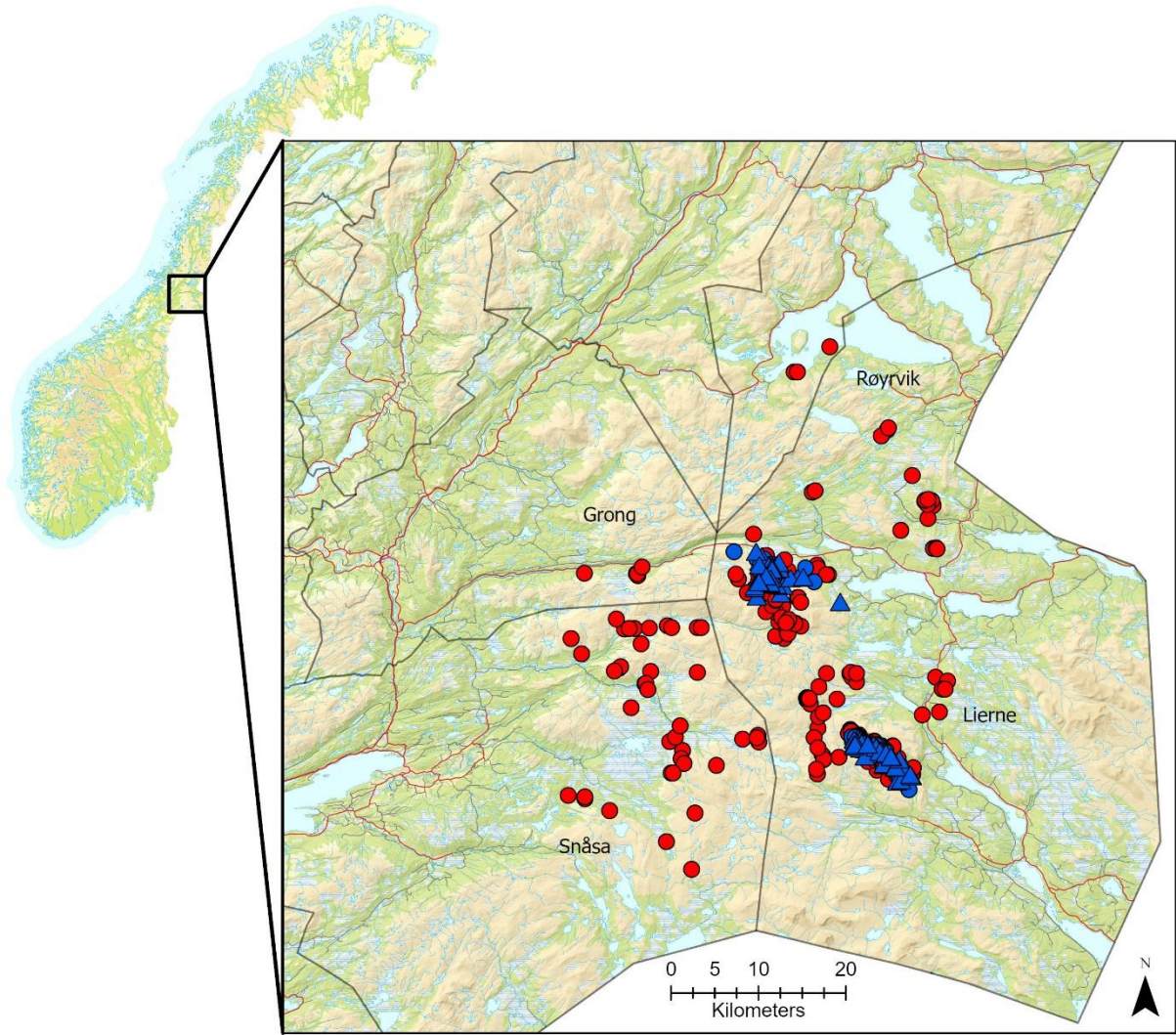
776

777 **FIGURE 4:** Estimated relationship (solid line) between body weight (g) and the probability of deciding
778 to migrate in adult and juvenile female willow ptarmigan. The shaded ribbons represent 95% confidence
779 interval. Only winter to summer transitions are included, and only first year of data for each bird.

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782 **FIGURE 5:** Repeatability of decision to migrate or remain resident between individuals. Purple bands
783 = individuals with 100% repetition in migration decision between consecutive seasons. Orange bands
784 = individuals that made different migration decisions in different seasons or years. Each band
785 represents one individual.

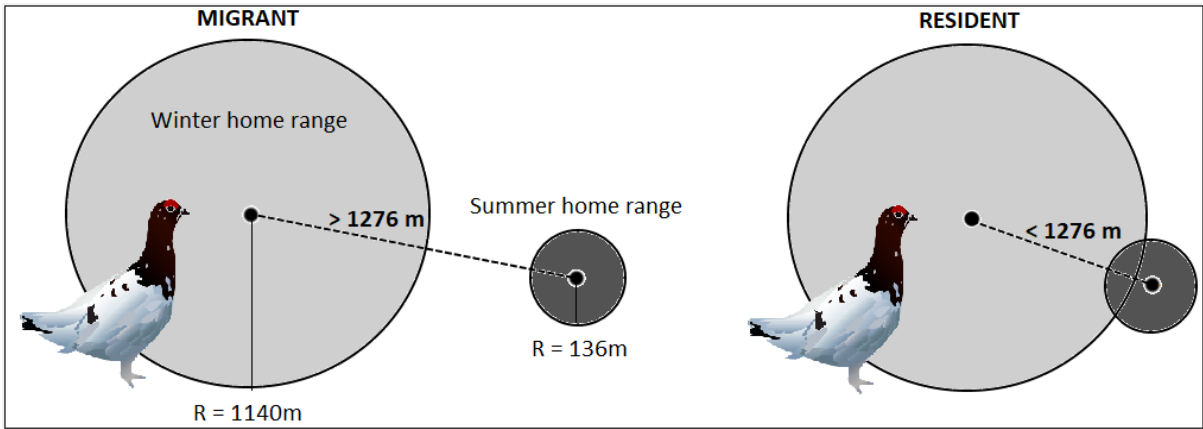


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788 **FIGURE 1**

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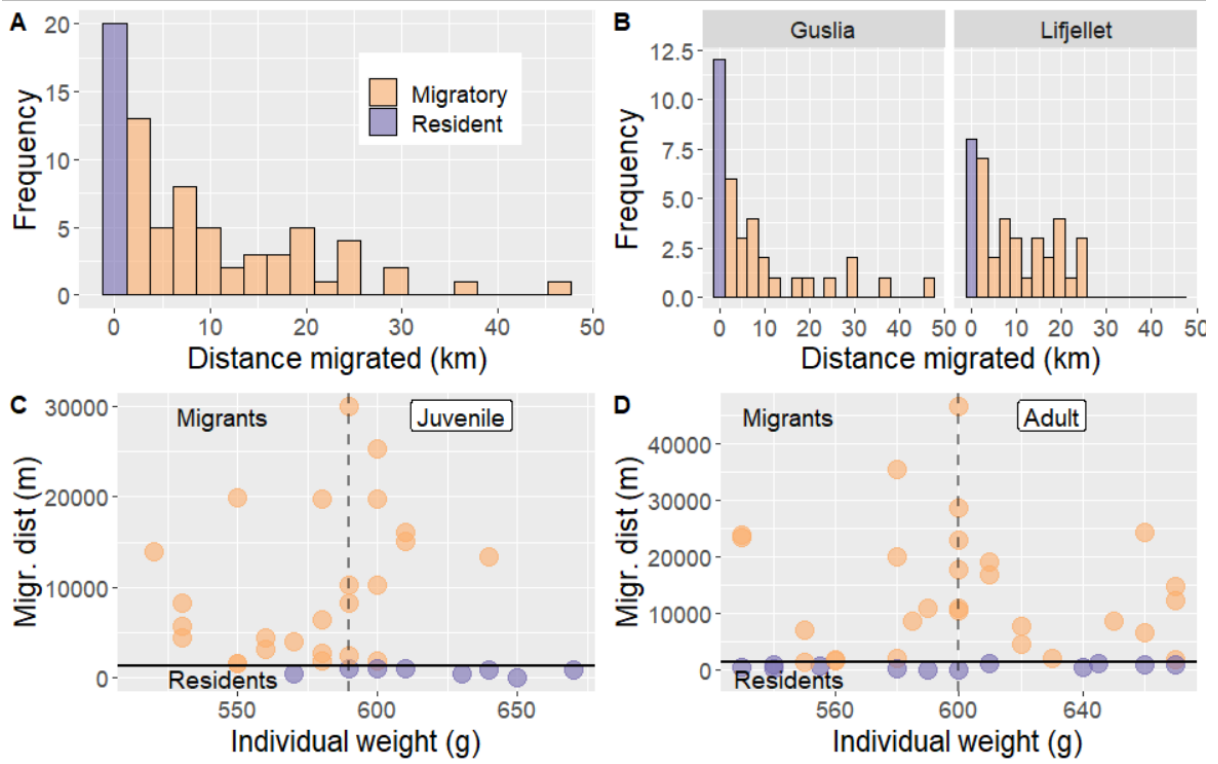


791 **FIGURE 2**

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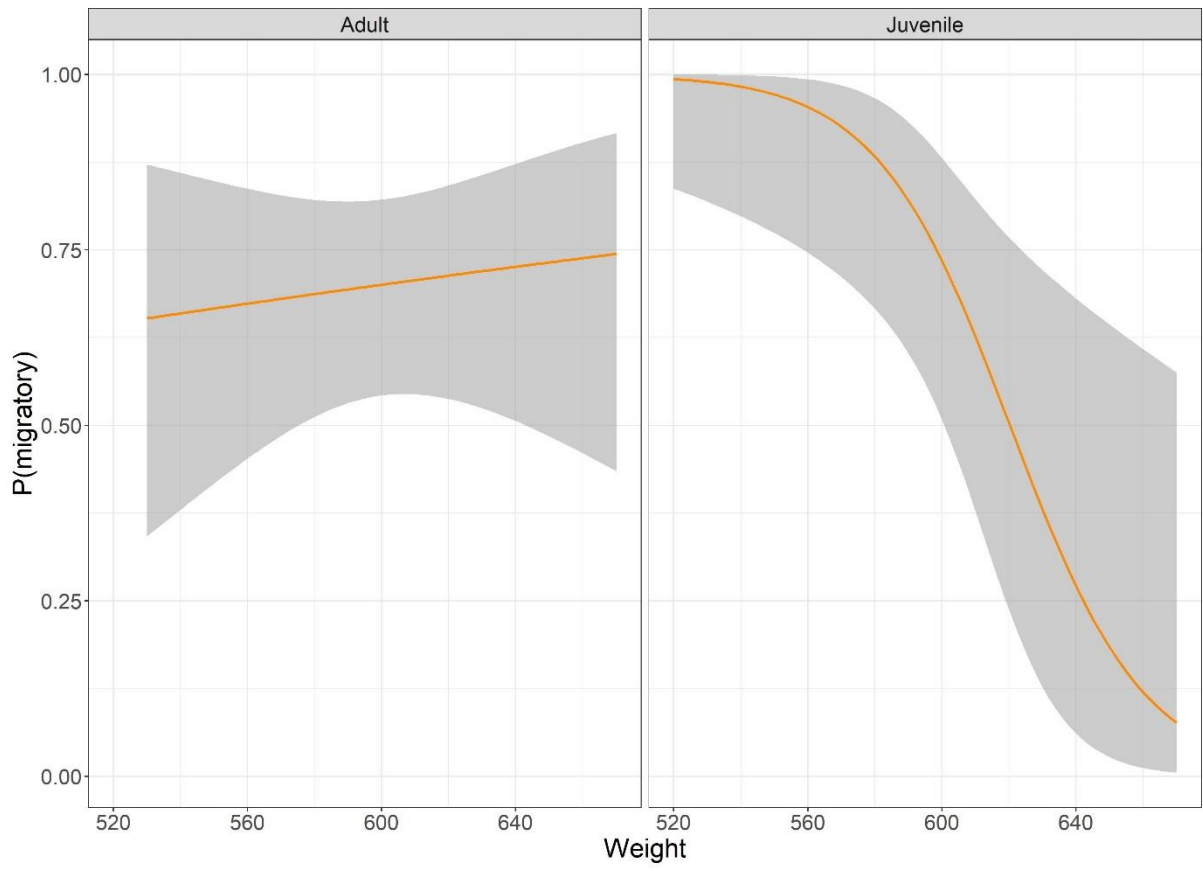


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796 **FIGURE 3**

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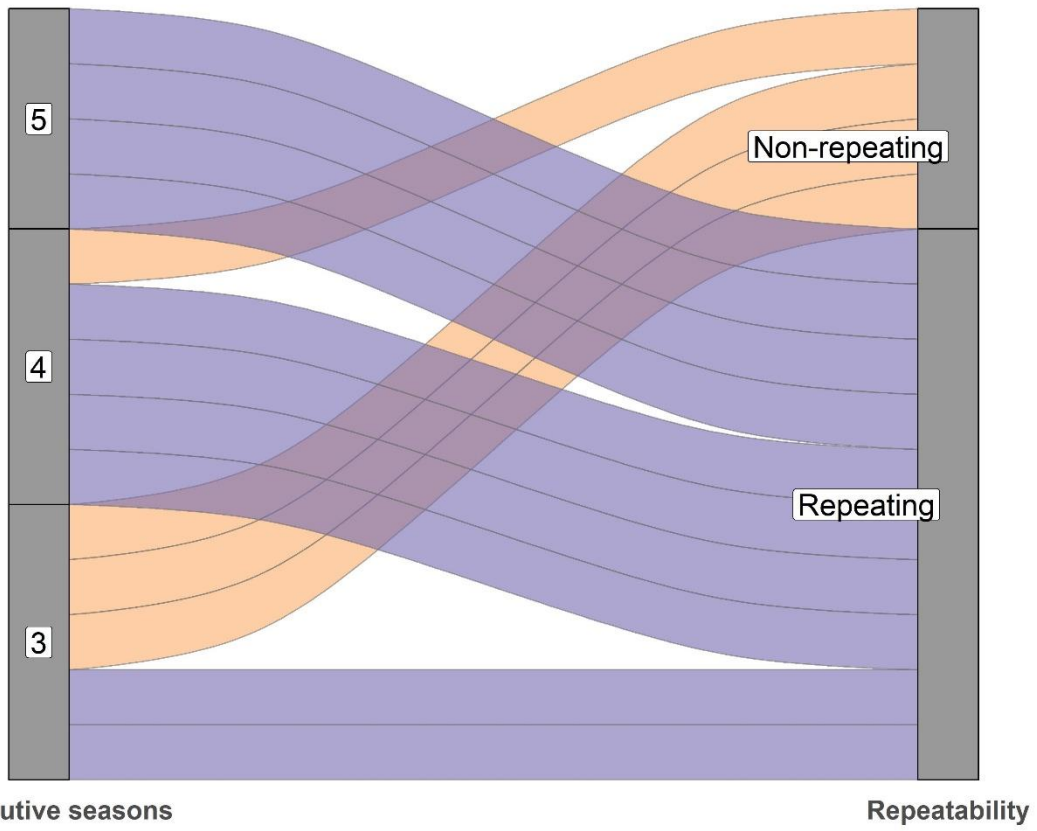


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800 **FIGURE 4**

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Consecutive seasons

Repeatability

804 **FIGURE 5**

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