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Citation for final published version:

Thomas, John Rhidian, Masefield, Stephanie, Hunt, Rhiannon, Wood, Matt J., Hart, Adam G., Hallam, Jane, Griffiths, Siân W. and Cable, Jo 2019. Terrestrial emigration behaviour of two invasive crayfish species. *Behavioural Processes* 167 , 103917. 10.1016/j.beproc.2019.103917

Publishers page: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.beproc.2019.103917>

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1 **Terrestrial emigration behaviour of two invasive crayfish species**

2

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16

17

18 **Keywords:** emigration; invasive species; *Pacifastacus leniusculus*; *Procambarus clarkii*;  
19 overland movement

**20 Abstract**

21 To disperse between isolated waterbodies, freshwater organisms must often cross terrestrial  
22 barriers and many freshwater animals that are incapable of flight must rely on transport via  
23 flooding events, other animals or anthropogenic activity. Decapods such as crayfish, on the  
24 other hand, can disperse to nearby waterbodies by walking on land, a behaviour that has  
25 facilitated the spread of invasive species. Overland movement could play a key role in the  
26 management of non-native crayfish, though to what extent terrestrial emigration occurs in  
27 different species is poorly understood. Here, we directly compared the terrestrial emigration  
28 tendency of two non-native crayfish species in Great Britain; red swamp (*Procambarus clarkii*)  
29 and signal (*Pacifastacus leniusculus*) crayfish. We found that both species emigrated from the  
30 water and that there was no significant difference in terms of their terrestrial emigration  
31 tendency, suggesting that there is a risk both of these species will migrate overland and disperse  
32 to new habitats. This study shows that terrestrial emigration is an important behavioural trait  
33 to consider when preventing the escape of crayfish from aquaculture and further spread of  
34 invasive species.

## 35 1. Introduction

36 Non-native species are common in freshwaters as humans have historically exploited these  
37 ecosystems for fishing, aquaculture and recreation, leading to the introduction of mammals,  
38 fish and invertebrates (Hulme et al. 2008; Strayer and Dudgeon 2010; Strayer 2010). Dispersal  
39 studies of aquatic species tend to focus on movement within a waterbody, particularly  
40 downstream migration (e.g. Bubb et al. 2002, 2004; Barson et al. 2009). The majority of  
41 introduced freshwater species must reach new habitats either by hitch-hiking on other animals  
42 or via human-mediated translocations (Shurin and Havel 2002; Anastácio et al. 2014) to  
43 become invasive. Dispersal is a three-stage process involving emigration, inter-patch  
44 movement and immigration. Factors such as population density and competition can drive  
45 emigration (Enfjäll and Leimar 2005; Hudina et al. 2014), though intrinsic differences in  
46 emigration tendency also exist amongst individuals, populations and species (Roland et al.  
47 2000; Bowler and Benton 2005; Cote et al. 2010) and invasive species are generally considered  
48 to be better dispersers compared to native congeners due to higher levels of activity (Bubb et  
49 al. 2006) and boldness (Rehage and Sih 2004). Differences in the tendencies of non-native  
50 species to disperse, however, are less clear, though it is assumed that widespread species have  
51 a higher dispersal tendency.

52 Crayfish are commercially important freshwater crustaceans that are particularly  
53 pernicious invaders in some locations (Peay et al. 2010; Gherardi 2010). North American  
54 crayfish such as the red swamp (*Procambarus clarkii* Girard 1852) and signal crayfish  
55 (*Pacifastacus leniusculus* Dana 1852) are widely harvested species that have often escaped  
56 from aquaculture and established non-native populations (Holdich et al. 2009). The  
57 introduction of North American crayfish to Europe has led to the extirpation of native European  
58 species due to competitive displacement (Hill and Lodge 1999; Bubb et al. 2006; Hudina et al.  
59 2011; Hanshew and Garcia 2012) and through the spread of the highly virulent crayfish plague,  
60 *Aphanomyces astaci* Schikora 1906 (see Holdich et al. 2014). In water, red swamp crayfish can  
61 disperse at a rate of up to 4 km in a single day (Gherardi & Barbaresi 2000) though movement  
62 rates of between 0.61-38 m day<sup>-1</sup> are more commonly reported (Gherardi et al. 2000; Gherardi  
63 et al. 2002; Bubb et al. 2004; Aquiloni et al. 2005; Anastácio et al. 2015). Dispersal rates for  
64 signal crayfish in water are slightly lower, between 4.1 and 17.5 m day<sup>-1</sup> (Bubb et al. 2004,  
65 2006; Anastácio et al. 2015).

66 As well as their potential to rapidly disperse in water, the success of some invasive  
67 crayfish can, at least partially, be attributed to their ability to colonise nearby waterbodies,  
68 navigate barriers (weirs or falls) and escape from captivity by terrestrial emigration and  
69 overland dispersal (Kerby et al. 2005; Larson et al. 2009; Holdich et al. 2014; Puky 2014;  
70 Ramalho and Anastácio 2015). Some crayfish, particularly burrowing species, can survive for  
71 several months out of water in burrows (Huner and Linqvist 1995; Kouba et al. 2016) though  
72 all crayfish can tolerate some degree of terrestrial exposure. Of the nine non-native crayfish  
73 species in Great Britain, red swamp and signal crayfish are most frequently reported dispersing  
74 overland, at least in other parts of the world (Holdich et al. 2014; Ramalho and Anastácio 2015;  
75 Piersanti et al. 2018). Red swamp crayfish can move up to 1 km (Lutz and Wolters 1999; Souty-  
76 Grosset et al. 2016) at a speed of 90 m h<sup>-1</sup> (Ramalho and Anastácio 2015). We are not aware  
77 of any direct study of signal crayfish overland movement, though Holdich et al. (2014) report  
78 that signal crayfish can ‘survive for days to months’ out of water.

79 Overall, there is a lack of information on crayfish terrestrial emigration, largely because  
80 this behaviour is only rarely directly observed, recorded or quantified in the field. A direct  
81 comparison of invasive red swamp and signal crayfish terrestrial emigration tendencies will  
82 provide important information for predicting their future potential range expansion in Britain.  
83 Here, we tested the hypothesis that British populations of red swamp crayfish have a higher

84 terrestrial emigration tendency and are faster when walking on land compared to signal  
85 crayfish.

86

## 87 **2. Materials and Methods**

88 Crayfish were trapped in spring 2016, from a small private pond (Powys, Wales; signal  
89 crayfish) and from public recreational ponds (Hampstead Heath, London; red swamp crayfish).  
90 Both species were caught using cylindrical crayfish traps ('Trappy Traps', Collins Nets Ltd.,  
91 Dorset, UK) baited overnight with cat food and transported to the Cardiff University aquarium  
92 facility, where they were maintained in a climate-controlled room set at  $13\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ , 60% RH and  
93 a 12 h light: 12 h dark cycle.

94

95 All crayfish were housed in single-species holding aquaria (density of 10 individuals per  $\text{m}^2$ )  
96 filled with dechlorinated water, 2 cm gravel substrate and an excess of refugia (plant pots and  
97 PVC tubes) with no terrestrial access. Holding aquarium water was biologically filtered and a  
98 50% water replacement was performed weekly to maintain water quality. All crayfish were fed  
99 *ad libitum* on a mix of frozen *Tubifex* bloodworm (Shirley Aquatics, Solihull, West Midlands,  
100 U.K.) and frozen peas.

101 The crayfish were marked using a non-toxic yellow marker (Dykem, USA) on the  
102 carapace to allow visual identification during video analysis. Furthermore, to allow individual  
103 identification if crayfish lost the mark or moulted, all crayfish were individually tagged  
104 following Bubb et al. (2002) using Passive Integrated Transponder (PIT) tags (7.5 mm PIT-  
105 tags, ISO 11784 certified, Loligo Systems, Denmark).

106

### 107 *2.1 Experimental design*

108 To examine crayfish emigration tendency, an experimental arena was constructed consisting  
109 of two aquaria (L100 cm x W48 cm x H53 cm) with moveable ramps (L43 cm x W29 cm;  $30^\circ$   
110 incline) that provided access to a terrestrial bridge (L240 cm x W20 cm x H20 cm) (Fig. 1).  
111 Both the ramps and terrestrial bridge were coated with pea gravel to allow sufficient grip for  
112 crayfish climbing out of the water and the area under each ramp provided a shared refuge. A  
113 pea gravel bed (2 cm layer) was also provided in the aquaria. An infrared CCTV camera system  
114 (Sentient Pro HDA DVR 8 Channel CCTV, Maplin) was suspended above the arena to monitor  
115 crayfish behaviour in all experiments. All crayfish were sexed and measured (carapace length)  
116 at the start of the experiment. Signal crayfish ( $n = 15$ ; 5 males and 10 females) ranged from  
117 38.6 – 59.3 mm (mean 47.9 mm) in carapace length, whilst red swamp crayfish ( $n = 17$ ; 13  
118 males and 4 females) ranged from 47.3 – 71.3 mm (mean 58.8 mm).

119 The terrestrial emigration propensity and walking speed of red swamp and signal  
120 crayfish were quantified in the experimental arena (Fig. 1). At the start of each trial, individual  
121 crayfish were placed in the water on one side of the arena at 09:00 h and allowed to acclimatise  
122 until 20:00 h the same day. The lights were automatically turned off at 20:00 h and crayfish  
123 behaviour was recorded until 08:00 h the next day (12 h recording).

124

### 125 *2.2 Ethical note*

126 This study was undertaken in accordance with ASAB/ABS guidelines for the use of animals in  
127 teaching and research. All invasive crayfish were caught under a Natural Resources Wales  
128 licence (Trapping licence number: NT/CW065-C-652/5706/01) and held under a Cefas licence  
129 (W C ILFA 002) at Cardiff University. The crayfish were not exposed to harmful conditions  
130 during the course of the experiment, however, both species of invasive crayfish were  
131 euthanized humanely at  $-20^\circ\text{C}$  in accordance with the Wildlife and Countryside Act, 1981.

132

### 133 *2.3 Statistical Analyses*

134 As crayfish are nocturnal, the 12 h observation period occurred overnight and for each  
135 individual crayfish, the number of emergences from water and time spent out of water per  
136 emergence were quantified from video recordings. A terrestrial emergence event was defined  
137 as when more than half of the crayfish body was out of the water and on the bridge. Walking  
138 speed ( $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ ) was estimated over a set distance (i.e. the 240 cm bridge) and quantified only  
139 for crayfish that fully crossed the bridge.

140 A negative binomial GLM (Generalised Linear Model) with a log link function (using  
141 the MASS package; Venables and Ripley 2002) was used due to the zero-inflated nature of the  
142 data to determine whether crayfish species or carapace length affected the total number of times  
143 a crayfish left the water, including times they did not cross the bridge. Due to the availability  
144 of crayfish, it was not possible to test a balanced number of male and female red swamp and  
145 signal crayfish, but sex was included in the model as a nested term within species to account  
146 for potential differences.

147 A gaussian GLM with 'identity' link function was used to examine whether crayfish  
148 species or carapace length affected terrestrial walking speed ( $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ ). Sex was not included in  
149 this model since all red swamp crayfish that crossed the bridge ( $n = 4$ ) were male. Model  
150 selection and assumptions of normality were confirmed using residual diagnostic plots (Zuur  
151 et al. 2010). All statistical analyses were performed in R 3.4.0 (R Core Team 2017).

152

### 153 **3. Results**

154 Overall, 35.3% of red swamp and 46.6% of signal crayfish left the water at least once over the  
155 12 h nocturnal observation period. There was no significant difference in the tendency of either  
156 species to emigrate from the water nor the time they spent out of water per emergence. Certain  
157 individuals of both species tended to frequently leave the water; two red swamp crayfish left  
158 the water 17 times each, whilst two signal crayfish left the water 20 and 14 times each. The  
159 total number of emergences over the course of the experiment for both red swamp and signal  
160 crayfish was 50 and 58, respectively. Carapace length had no significant effect on terrestrial  
161 movement tendency.

162 Of the crayfish that emerged from the water during the 12 h observation period, red  
163 swamp and signal crayfish spent on average 6 min 42 s ( $SD = 124$  s) and 8 min 64 s ( $SD = 386$   
164 s) out of water, respectively. There was no significant difference in the walking speed of either  
165 species on land, which was also unaffected by carapace length. Four male red swamp crayfish  
166 were observed to fully cross the bridge (average speed  $0.703 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ ,  $SD = 0.07$ ) and six signal  
167 crayfish - two males and four females ( $0.601 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ ,  $SD = 0.28$ )

168

### 169 **4. Discussion**

170 In the present study, terrestrial emigration occurred in both red swamp and signal crayfish from  
171 invasive British populations, with no significant difference in their tendency to leave the water  
172 or walking speed on land. These results suggest that although red swamp crayfish are generally  
173 considered to have a higher tendency to walk overland due to their burrowing tendencies and  
174 subsequent lowered risk of desiccation, signal crayfish are just as likely to walk overland, and  
175 so overland dispersal could facilitate both species' spread. In terms of their walking speed, the  
176 red swamp and signal crayfish tested here also crossed the bridge at similar speeds. Crayfish  
177 do not move particularly quickly overland, especially compared to other decapods: ghost crabs  
178 (*Ocypode* spp.), for example, can reach speeds of up to  $2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  (Claussen et al. 2000).  
179 Furthermore, when placed out of water, neither species of crayfish are able to direct their  
180 movements towards nearby waterbodies (Marques et al. 2015) and their walking speed  
181 decreases as they become dehydrated (Claussen et al. 2000). As such, crayfish are at a  
182 significant risk of desiccation and need to cross terrestrial barriers as quickly as possible,  
183 though neither species tested here appeared to have an advantage over the other.

184 Despite being the most widespread crayfish species globally, the red swamp crayfish  
185 has not yet spread far in Great Britain, potentially due to sub-optimal climate conditions (Ellis  
186 et al. 2012). Most established populations are currently found in ponds, canals and rivers  
187 around London, having first been discovered at Hampstead Heath in 1991 (Ellis et al. 2012;  
188 James et al. 2014). Signal crayfish, on the other hand, are by far the most abundant species in  
189 Britain, largely because they were introduced earlier (1970s) and on a larger scale for  
190 aquaculture (James et al. 2014; Holdich et al. 2014). The spread of signal crayfish has resulted  
191 in the widespread decline of native white-clawed crayfish (*Austropotamobius pallipes*). When  
192 tested in a similar experimental setting but with a shorter bridge length (Masefield,  
193 unpublished), a higher proportion (65%) of white-clawed crayfish left the water at least once  
194 compared to both invasive species tested in the present study (35.3% of red swamp and 46.6%  
195 of signal crayfish). Overall, however, white-clawed crayfish were found to leave the water less  
196 frequently than both invasive species. Further investigation of the tendency of native crayfish  
197 to leave the water is essential, given that conservation practices include the isolation of white-  
198 clawed crayfish in ‘ark-sites’, away from nearby waterbodies.

199 In terms of both red swamp and signal crayfish, the present study shows that terrestrial  
200 movement could be an equally important factor in the spread of both species, which are known  
201 to survive long periods out of water and in drought conditions (Cruz and Rebelo 2007; Holdich  
202 et al. 2014; Banha and Anastácio 2014). The red swamp crayfish, however, is generally  
203 considered to be more adept at overland dispersal, tolerating long periods out of water  
204 (Piersanti et al. 2018) and extending survival on land by constructing burrows and inhabiting  
205 small puddles whilst also feeding on terrestrial vegetation (Grey and Jackson 2012; Ramalho  
206 and Anastácio 2015; Kouba et al. 2016; Souty-Grosset et al. 2016). In their native North  
207 American range, burrowing has not been recorded in signal crayfish and some studies show  
208 that this species is incapable of constructing burrows (Kouba et al. 2016), suggesting it is less  
209 adapted to terrestrial habitats. However, in the Great Britain, invasive populations of signal  
210 crayfish frequently burrow in riverbanks and lakebeds (Holdich et al. 2014), which could  
211 explain their tendency to move overland in the present study, given the reduced risk of  
212 desiccation if they are able to construct burrows out of the water.

213 We have previously shown that ovigerous, non-ovigerous and juvenile signal crayfish  
214 from Britain also move out of water (Thomas et al. 2018) and in the present study we highlight  
215 that, at least in an experimental setting, signal crayfish are as likely to leave the water as red  
216 swamp crayfish, in the absence of competition or other stressors. As such, it is likely that signal  
217 crayfish leave the water and disperse overland more often than previously considered, which,  
218 coupled with its burrowing behaviour, could be a further factor contributing to its continuing  
219 invasion success in Great Britain (Holdich et al. 2014; Peay and Dunn 2014). Given that the  
220 distance travelled overland in the present study was limited, however, further research should  
221 estimate the potential distance both species could travel overland in a field environment, which  
222 would be a useful avenue for future research to inform management and control practices.

223 Overall, this study shows that both species of invasive crayfish tested here move  
224 overland to a similar degree. Previous studies have shown that red swamp and signal crayfish  
225 both emerge on to land in response to dewatering of habitats, which can occur naturally or  
226 before biocide management treatments (Peay and Dunn 2014; Ramalho and Anastácio 2015)  
227 and such overland movement is likely to reduce the efficacy of control methods. Individuals  
228 that are prone to leaving the water will also be more likely to escape from commercial and  
229 private aquaculture ponds and enter nearby watercourses, increasing the risks of introduction  
230 and further range expansion (Holdich et al. 2014; Marques et al. 2015). Furthermore, terrestrial  
231 emigration allows crayfish to navigate in-stream barriers such as weirs or waterfalls (Kerby et  
232 al. 2005). The current study highlights the importance of alternate dispersal mechanisms which,

233 despite not being widely reported, should be taken into consideration during management and  
234 population control practices of invasive species.

235

236 **Declarations of interest:** None.

237

238 **Acknowledgements:** This study was funded by the Coleg Cymraeg Cenedlaethol.

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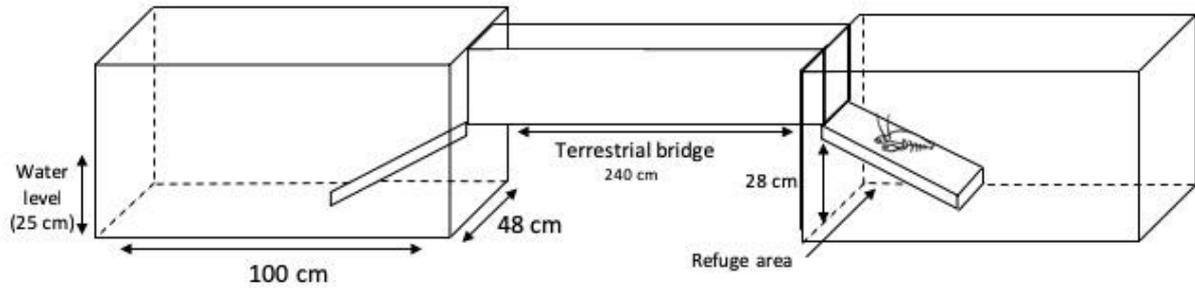
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**Figure 1** – Experimental arena for assessing terrestrial emigration behaviour. Crayfish could access the bridge (240 cm) using ramps, which also acted as a refuge. The water was filled to approx. 3 cm below the level of the terrestrial bridge.