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2 DR ELSA GOERIG (Orcid ID : 0000-0003-1430-4657)  
3 MR BEN WASSERMAN (Orcid ID : 0000-0002-9997-4934)  
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15 **Body shape is related to the attempt rate and passage success of brook trout at in-stream**  
16 **barriers**  
17 Author details  
18 Elsa Goerig<sup>1, 2</sup>, Ben A. Wasserman<sup>3</sup>, Theodore Castro-Santos<sup>2</sup>, Eric P. Palkovacs<sup>3</sup>  
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20 <sup>1</sup> Centre Eau, Terre et Environnement, Institut National de la Recherche Scientifique, Québec,  
21 Qc, G1K 9A9, Canada

22 <sup>2</sup> USGS – Leetown Science Center, S.O. Conte Anadromous Fish Research Center, Turners Falls,  
23 MA 01376, USA

24 <sup>3</sup> Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of California, Santa Cruz, CA  
25 95060, USA

26

27 **Author emails:** goerig.elsa@gmail.com, tcastrosantos@usgs.gov, bawasser@ucsc.edu,  
28 epalkova@ucsc.edu

29

30 **Communicating Author:** Elsa Goerig, Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard  
31 University, 26 Oxford St., Cambridge, MA 02138, [goerig.elsa@gmail.com](mailto:goerig.elsa@gmail.com), 819-695-2938

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36 **Keywords:**

37 Body shape, barriers, fish movement, dispersal syndrome, habitat connectivity, human-  
38 driven selection, wild brook trout, morphology

39 **Abstract**

40 1. The ability to move between habitats has important implications for fitness in many  
41 species. In-stream barriers such as culverts can impede movements of riverine fishes and thus  
42 reduce connectivity between habitats. The ability of fish to overcome barriers is related to the  
43 features of the environment and the barrier itself, but also to physiological, morphological, and

44 behavioural traits of the fish. Among these, body shape varies among and within species, and  
45 influences swimming ability, a key component of passage performance through culverts.

46 2. We conducted an experimental study on wild brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*) to assess  
47 the effects of individual body shape on attempt rate and passage success through culverts on six  
48 streams.

49 3. A more streamlined body shape was associated with an increased motivation to enter  
50 and ascend the culverts, and, to a lesser extent, with probability of successful passage once an  
51 attempt was staged. Motivation and successful passage were also influenced by the density of  
52 conspecifics below the culvert, time of day, fish body size, and water velocity.

53 4. *Policy implications.* While fish body shape is expected to influence swimming  
54 performance, our research shows the most important effect of body shape to be on an  
55 individual's motivation to stage passage attempts at culverts. This study points to an important  
56 connection between behaviour and morphological traits that influence passage success and  
57 suggests that in-stream barriers may be an important agent of selection on behavior and  
58 morphology in wild fish populations.

## 59 Introduction

60 In riverine habitats, fish movements are often impeded by physical barriers or  
61 challenging hydraulic conditions (Goerig et al., 2016, Gibson et al., 2005, Gallagher, 1999).  
62 These barriers can occur naturally and may be persistent (such as those caused by geologic  
63 features such as waterfalls) or ephemeral (as may be caused by beaver dams). Both persistent  
64 and ephemeral barriers hold the potential to fragment habitat, and can lead to evolution of  
65 body shapes and behaviours for overcoming them (Castro-Santos and Haro, 2006). Human  
66 development in many watersheds has led to the creation of large numbers of persistent barriers  
67 across the landscape in the form of culverts and other road crossings. These barriers reduce  
68 ecological connectivity and may impose selection on fish populations (Morita 2000, 2002).

69 Fish passage at culverts and fishways is a multi-step process, with fish sequentially  
70 approaching, entering, and eventually passing the barrier (Castro-Santos and Perry, 2012,  
71 Castro-Santos, 2012). Failure at each of these steps may impede or delay fish movement.  
72 Culverts at road crossings are highly unnatural structures that fish must be willing to approach  
73 and enter, thee willingness to do so beingrelated to behavioural traits. Once the fish has entered

74 the culvert, morphological and behavioural traits that influence swimming and leaping ability  
75 become important determinants of successful passage (Haro et al., 2004, Gallagher, 1999). Fish  
76 that attempt but fail to pass a culvert may re-enter repeatedly to make additional attempts. We  
77 refer to the attempt rate as an index of motivation (Castro-Santos, 2004, Goerig and Castro-  
78 Santos, 2017). Indeed, the behavioural and morphological traits that may facilitate high passage  
79 performance may not be independent, but rather bundled together into what have been  
80 termed dispersal syndromes (Comte and Olden, 2018). Variation in dispersal syndromes may  
81 lead to different rates of passage success among populations and individuals, with important  
82 ecological and evolutionary implications. Here we present results from a field experiment  
83 testing whether culverts act as selective filters on the traits of wild brook trout, a widespread  
84 species in North America. We evaluate the degree to which trait variation determines entry and  
85 successful passage through the culverts. Our hypothesis is that successful passage is influenced  
86 by motivation and body shape, and that these traits, along with culvert and environmental  
87 characteristics, explain variability in passage success. Consistent with the idea of dispersal  
88 syndromes, we predict that trait variation in motivation and morphology will be related such  
89 that fish with streamlined bodies, a trait often associated with higher swimming ability, will  
90 show higher motivation and therefore higher rates of passage success. If so, then culverts –  
91 which have become ubiquitous features of modern river networks – may be imposing large-  
92 scale selection on wild fish populations.

### 93 Materials and Methods

#### 94 Study sites

95 Brook trout passage attempts were recorded during field experiments at six circular  
96 culverts located in the Saint-Louis and Bécancour River watersheds (Québec, Canada), two  
97 systems separated by ~ 300 km. The Bécancour watershed is characterized by low gradient  
98 streams with silty bottom, and occasional riffles flowing on sedimentary rocks. The two studied  
99 streams in this watershed are located far from each other and fish are not able to move  
100 between them. The Saint-Louis watershed is located in the Canadian Shield and houses high-  
101 gradient gravel-bed streams, with presence of boulders and 'step-pools' reaches. It was possible  
102 for fish to access the different studied streams via the main river, but this is unlikely because the  
103 streams are separated by long distances and zones of high-velocity water.

104 Culverts were 8 to 20 m in length and 1.5 to 2.7 m in diameter. Their slopes varied from  
105 1.15 to 4.5 %, and their outlet drop was < 5 cm above the water level of the stream. They were  
106 made of either corrugated metal or smooth concrete (Table S1). All culverts had quality feeding  
107 and spawning habitat located upstream, although no previous knowledge of fish movement  
108 patterns existed for these streams.

109 Fish sampling

110 Fish were caught by electrofishing (Smith-Root backpack electrofisher, model 15-C, USA)  
111 0 to 500 m upstream of the culvert in which they will be tested. All individuals were from  
112 resident freshwater populations, as the studied streams have no direct access to the ocean.  
113 Voltage and waveforms were adjusted to account for water conductivity and to minimize risks of  
114 injury to the fish (DC, varying width pulses: frequency: 45 – 60 Hz; duty cycle: 0.9% - 72%;  
115 voltage range: 800-1100 V). They were anesthetized by immersion in a 1:9 solution of clove oil  
116 and 95% ethanol diluted in water (0.8 to 1.2 ml of solution for 1400 ml of water), measured (fork  
117 length, mm), weighed (wet mass, gr) and surgically tagged with half-duplex passive integrated  
118 transponders (PIT) tags (Texas Instruments, 23 or 12 mm in length). A standardized lateral body  
119 photograph was taken of each fish. Fish were then allowed to recover in holding pens in their  
120 river of origin, for an average of 22 h (SD = 7 h).

121 Study design and instrumentation

122 Groups of fish were transferred from the holding pens to a large cage (2 x 2 x 1 m)  
123 secured to the downstream end of each culvert and allowed to voluntarily stage passage  
124 attempts in trials of 48 h. Each cage was fitted with a top net to prevent avian predation and  
125 contained rocks to provide cover and low-velocity resting areas. Water temperature was  
126 recorded hourly by a data logger (Onset, HOBO 020-001-04) located 20 m upstream of the  
127 culvert and averaged for the duration of each trial. Distributions of water velocity and depth in  
128 the culverts were quantified before each trial using a propeller-type velocimeter (Swoffer,  
129 model 3000) at lateral transects spaced 2 m along the culvert. Mean water velocity for the  
130 culvert during each trial was computed by averaging the mean values for each transect.

131 The six tested culverts were instrumented with a telemetry system consisting of four  
132 passive integrated transponder (PIT) antennas evenly spaced along the pipe and located above  
133 the water surface, as described in Goerig et al. (2016). The first antenna was located at 0.5 m  
134 inside the culvert while antenna 4 was located at the upstream end. The antennas interfaced

135 with a half-duplex PIT reader (Technologie Aquartis, control module Quattro) recording tag  
136 number, antenna number, and time to the nearest 1 s. This allowed the observation of passage  
137 attempts and successes in the culverts.

138 Analysis of body shape

139 We used geometric morphometric methods to quantify the lateral two-dimensional  
140 body shape of the fish used in this study (Rohlf and Marcus, 1993, Adams et al., 2004). Separate  
141 analyses were performed on two nested datasets. In the first, we used all fish to compare body  
142 shape amongst fish that entered the culvert (attempters) and those that did not (non-  
143 attempters). In the second, we included only attempters and compared body shape of  
144 attempters that successfully passed through the culvert with those that did not. From  
145 photographs of each fish, the locations of 15 homologous landmarks were digitized (Figure 1),  
146 using tpsDig2 version 2.18 (Rohlf, 2015).

147 A generalized Procrustes Analysis (GPA) removed the effects of translation, rotation, and  
148 the isometric effects of size on body shape as well as described this body shape variation as a set  
149 of residual landmark coordinates, or Procrustes residuals (Rohlf and Slice, 1990). A principle  
150 components analysis of these residuals indicated that significant variation in body shape was  
151 associated with some arching of the fish body while being photographed. To 'unbend' the  
152 specimens, we fit a quadratic curve through the raw (pre-GPA) landmarks 1, 13, 14, 15, and 6,  
153 and transformed the whole set of landmarks such that these were fit along a straight line for  
154 each fish using tpsUtil version 1.76 (Rohlf, 2015). All further analyses were carried out on unbent  
155 landmarks 1-12 only. For each fish, we calculated centroid size, which is the sum of the squared  
156 distances from the landmarks to their centroid and is used as a measure of overall body size that  
157 is approximately independent from the shape variables (Rohlf and Slice, 1990).

158 In each analysis, we performed a GPA on the unbent specimens which produced 24  
159 procrustes residuals that describe shape. In order to account for the allometric effects of body  
160 size and any differences in shape amongst the different stream populations, we performed  
161 nonparametric Procrustes MANOVAs (np-MANOVAs) with shape as the dependent variable and  
162 log centroid size, stream, and their interaction as predictors (Collyer et al. 2015). The residuals of  
163 these regressions represent variation in shape that is independent of body size and population  
164 of origin (Mitteroecker and Bookstein 2011) .

165 We focused on two binary performance metrics: attempters vs. non-attempters, and  
166 passage vs. failure to pass. In order to evaluate how body shapes differed between each of  
167 these two metrics, we performed two-block partial-least-squares regression (PLS) with shape as  
168 one block and a single variable (attempt/non-attempt or pass/fail) as the alternate block (Rohlf  
169 and Corti 2000; Mitteroecker and Bookstein 2011). PLS describes the axis of shape variation that  
170 most closely covaries with each performance metric (Rohlf and Corti 2000; Mitteroecker and  
171 Bookstein 2011). Each individual is assigned a PLS score. Since our second block of data is a  
172 binary group, the PLS score represents that individual's position along the vector that best  
173 discriminates between the mean of the two groups and can be used to reliably reconstruct  
174 predicted body shapes (Mitteroecker and Bookstein 2011). We resampled the data 10,000 times  
175 to determine how shape was associated with attempt and passage (Adams and Collyer 2016).  
176 These analyses were performed in R version 3.5.1 and package geomorph version 3.0.5 (Adams  
177 and Otárola-Castillo, 2013, Adams et al., 2017). The PLS scores were then used as continuous  
178 shape variables in the analysis of passage performance through culverts.

#### 179 Analysis of passage performance in culverts

180 We quantified brook trout passage performance through culverts using two metrics:  
181 attempt rate and probability of successful passage. Attempt rate refers to the proportion of  
182 available fish staging an attempt per unit of time and can be used as an index of the fish's  
183 motivation to enter and ascend culverts in this study (Goerig and Castro-Santos, 2017). Once a  
184 fish has entered the culvert, the probability of successful passage ranges from 0 (failure) to 1  
185 (success).

#### 186 Attempt rate

187 We used time-to-event analysis (Allison, 2014, Castro-Santos, 2004, Hosmer et al., 1999)  
188 to quantify attempt rate of fish present in the cages downstream of culverts. Each attempt  
189 constitutes a single event and has an associated instantaneous event rate (or hazard). An  
190 attempt was defined as an exposure to antenna 1, meaning that the fish has entered the culvert.  
191 Cox regression estimates the relative effect of covariates on the event rate (Castro-Santos and  
192 Haro, 2003, Allison, 2014). We used the package Coxme in R 3.2.0 (R Core Team, 2015,  
193 Therneau, 2015) to fit Cox mixed models including fixed effects and nested random effects for  
194 stream of origin and individual fish. These random effects accounted for unexplained variability

195 in attempt rate related to the stream of origin and statistical dependence among repeated  
196 attempts from the same fish (Therneau et al., 2003). Fixed effects included fish log centroid size,  
197 body shape (fish scores from the PLS discriminating between attempters and non-attempters),  
198 fish condition factor (Fulton's  $K_{FL} = 10^5 * \text{weight}/\text{length}^3$ ), diel period (dawn, day, dusk or night),  
199 mean velocity, depth of the pool downstream of the culvert, ratio of openness of the culvert  
200 (cross-sectional area / length), water temperature, and number of conspecifics in the cage. The  
201 number of fish in the cage was set to a starting value corresponding to the number of fish  
202 introduced at the beginning of a trial. It was then allowed to vary according to individuals  
203 staging attempts, and then either passing upstream of the culvert or returning downstream  
204 after an attempt. We used a correlation matrix (Figure S1) to detect collinearity in the fixed  
205 effect variables. Any pair of variables with a correlation coefficient Pearson's  $r > 0.35$  or  $<-0.35$   
206 would not be used together in a model.

207 A set of biologically meaningful candidate models was developed using the following  
208 criteria to minimize the number of models : (i) maximum of seven main effects; (ii) depth of  
209 downstream pool was not used in a model with water velocity ( $r = 0.54$ ,  $p = < 0.0001$ ) or number  
210 of conspecifics in the cage ( $r = 0.63$ ,  $p = < 0.0001$ ) due to their correlation), as well as water  
211 temperature and velocity ( $r = -0.69$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ), and condition factor ( $K_{FL}$ ) and shape ( $r = 0.55$ ,  
212  $p = < 0.0001$ ); and (iii) no interactions. Selection of the best model was performed by minimizing  
213 the Akaike Information Criteria (AIC).

214 Once a best model was selected, the baseline hazard, as well as the fixed and random  
215 effects coefficients, were extracted and used to plot mean response curves adjusted for  
216 representative levels of the predictive variables.. Random effect coefficients also served as an  
217 index of the individual level of motivation for further analyses, a high coefficient indicating a  
218 high level of motivation. In this context, motivated fish were those attempting to pass the  
219 culvert at a high rate (early in the trial) or staging repeated attempts.

220 Passage success

221 Once an attempt was initiated, a successful passage was defined as a detection at antenna 4,  
222 regardless of whether the fish returned downstream or moved upstream. For each attempting  
223 fish, the probability of successful passage through the culvert was quantified with a generalized  
224 linear model with a logistic link. A set of candidate models was developed by considering

225 independent fixed effects such as culvert length, mean water velocity and depth in the culvert,  
226 water temperature, fish log centroid size, and body shape (scores from the PLS discriminating  
227 between successful and unsuccessful attempters). The individual level of motivation, previously  
228 extracted from the attempt rate analysis, was also included in some candidate models. Culvert  
229 material (i.e: smooth concrete or corrugated metal) was not considered as a covariate because  
230 mean velocity and depth were not distributed evenly among the two types of culverts. Mean  
231 water velocity and depth were not used together in a model since they were correlated ( $r = -$   
232 0.38,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Model selection was done by minimizing AIC.

## 233 Results

234 A total of 362 brook trout (FL from 58 to 215 mm, mean =133.5 mm) was tested in  
235 nineteen trials conducted in six culverts. Sample sizes were not evenly distributed among  
236 studied culverts, however (Table S1). Trials were conducted from June to August, at mean water  
237 temperatures between 10 and 17.5°C. Mean water velocity within trials ranged from 0.5 to 2.0  
238 m s<sup>-1</sup>, and mean depth from 0.03 to 0.46 m. Overall detection efficiency by the PIT system was ~  
239 97% in this study, as reported in Goerig (2016).

## 240 Body Shape

241 Shape varied as a function of size, and across streams (Table S1). The residuals of the np-  
242 MANOVA represent shape independent of these predictors. According to the PLS analysis, the  
243 residual shapes were significantly correlated with the fact to attempt or not to pass the culvert  
244 (Table 1), 23% of the variation in shape being explained by the attempt status (attempter / non-  
245 attempter). Attempters were relatively shallower-bodied and had slightly shortened caudal-  
246 peduncles when compared to non-attempters (Figure 2). Successful fish were also shallower-  
247 bodied, especially in the anterior half of the body, and had slightly shortened caudal-peduncles  
248 when compared to unsuccessful fish (Figure 3). However the difference was not statistically  
249 significant (Table 1). The individual scores from the PLS analysis were used as continuous shape  
250 variables in the attempt rate and passage success analyses, along with environmental covariates  
251 and culvert characteristics.

## 252 Passage performance in culverts

### 253 Attempt rate

254 Among the 187 models estimated, two models had a similar AIC and an optimal fit to the  
255 data ( $\Delta$  AIC from null model = 81.5 & 81.2,  $\Delta$  AIC from closest competing model = 3.4 & 3.7, total  
256 Akaike weight = 0.63). These models included diel periods, mean water velocity, centroid size,  
257 body shape and number of conspecifics in the cage as predictors of attempt rate, which is used  
258 as an index of the fish motivation to pass the culverts (Table 3A), a higher attempt rate implying  
259 greater motivation. The second best model included the culvert openness ratio as an additional  
260 predictor. We selected the most parsimonious model minimizing AIC.

261 The number of conspecifics in the cage below the culvert was negatively correlated with  
262 the fish motivation, the individual attempt rate being higher when fewer fish were present in  
263 the cages. Fish were more motivated to pass the culverts at dawn and under higher water  
264 velocity conditions (Table 2): an increase of  $1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  in water velocity had the effect of nearly  
265 doubling the attempt rate (Table 3 A, HR = 1.870). Attempt rate was reduced during the day, at  
266 dusk and during the night, by comparison to dawn (Table 3 A, HR = 0.67, 0.87 and 0.77). Larger  
267 trout had a higher attempt rate. Finally, body shape had an influence on motivation; fish with  
268 low PLS scores staged attempts at a higher rate (Figure 4, A). This confirmed the differences in  
269 body shape observed between attempters and non-attempters and means that fish with  
270 shallower bodies and shortened caudal peduncles entered and ascended the culverts at a  
271 greater rate.

272 Random effects account for variability in attempt rate that is associated with stream of  
273 origin and the individual fish themselves, but that is not captured by the fixed effects in the  
274 models. The variance of both random effects was substantial, suggesting that individuals varied  
275 significantly in their motivation, and that fish within a stream were more similar to each other  
276 than to the population as a whole. (Table 2, section A). Fish from Grégoire Stream staged  
277 attempts to pass the culvert at a much faster rate than average for all streams combined, while  
278 fish from Femmes and Saumons Streams had the slowest attempt rates (Figure 4, B). Fish from  
279 the Bécancour watershed were overall more motivated to enter the culverts than those from  
280 the Saint-Louis watershed.

281 Passage success

282 Among the 84 models estimated in the analysis on culvert passage success, the model  
283 with the lowest AIC ( $\Delta$  AIC from null model = 50.8,  $\Delta$  AIC from closest competing model = 0.85,

284 Akaike weight = 0.22) included mean velocity, motivation and body shape as main predictors of  
285 culvert passage success. There were no large differences in AIC values between the selected  
286 model and the following competing models, meaning that there was no strong evidence for a  
287 single model explaining passage success. However, mean velocity, motivation, and body shape  
288 were included in all competing models, along with culvert length and water temperature in  
289 some cases. Thus we selected the most parsimonious model minimizing AIC.

290 Mean velocity had the greatest effect on passage success, followed by motivation and  
291 body shape (Table 3B,  $^*\beta$ ). The probability of successful passage decreased with increasing  
292 velocity. Motivated fish were more likely to successfully pass, as were fish with low PLS scores  
293 (i.e: shallower bodies and shortened caudal peduncles).

#### 294 Discussion

295 The overall goal of our study was to evaluate whether trait variation impacts motivation  
296 and successful passage through culverts for wild brook trout. We predicted that passage success  
297 would be influenced by both motivation and body shape and we expected to find variation in  
298 traits and passage success among populations and among individuals within populations.

299 Our study reveals the existence of a clear link between body shape and brook trout  
300 motivation to pass in-stream barriers. Propensity to move may result from a distinct body shape.  
301 Fish with dorso-ventrally streamlined bodies and shortened caudal peduncles were more likely  
302 to enter and ascend the culverts. Body shape may correlate with distinct dispersal syndromes,  
303 with some fish being more sedentary while others are active movers. Evidence for dispersal  
304 syndromes have been observed for several freshwater fish species (Comte and Olden, 2018,  
305 Rodriguez, 2002), including brook trout (Rodriguez, 2002). Fish with streamlined bodies and a  
306 short caudal peduncle may also exhibit higher swimming ability and a propensity to move over  
307 long distances and diverse physical habitats. Thus, these fish may encounter in-stream barriers  
308 and be more motivated to overcome them.

309 Fish motivation was also influenced by their size, as well as by environmental variables  
310 such as diel periods, water velocity and number of conspecifics in the cage below the barrier.  
311 This result is consistent with previous findings (Goerig and Castro-Santos, 2017, Maynard et al.,  
312 2017), and highlights the complexity of fish interactions with barriers. Even after those variables

313 of importance have been taken into account, fish motivation to pass the culverts differed among  
314 streams, with trout from the Bécancour watershed exhibiting an overall higher attempt rate.  
315 This may be due to variables not considered in the analysis, for instance differences in  
316 movements and habitat use patterns among the studied populations or water quality factors.  
317 Habitat-based polymorphism has been observed in lakes and fluvial environments (Senay et al.,  
318 2015, Samways et al., 2015, Walker, 1997), with fish body shape differing for individuals found  
319 in riffles, runs and pools, as well as with migratory range, predation or prey availability, and  
320 other factors (Schaffer and Elson, 1975, Quinn et al., 2001, Quinn and Buck, 2001). Abiotic  
321 factors such as water depth and velocity are known to shape morphology (Drinan et al., 2012,  
322 Pease et al., 2012, Zastavniouk et al., 2017). However, stream fishes often move among habitats  
323 within stream reaches, and thus may exhibit high plasticity in morphological traits (Senay et al.,  
324 2015).

325 We also found evidence for individual variability in motivation, which may arise from  
326 various sources. Brook trout, like many species of fish, can be sexually dimorphic, both with  
327 respect to body shape and size, but also to behavior (Proulx and Magnan, 2004, Hutchings and  
328 Gerber, 2002). Although we were not able to determine sex, it is likely that some of the  
329 morphological diversity we observed is due to sex differences, and the same can be said for  
330 motivation and performance. Sex may influence dispersal, and thus motivation to pass a barrier  
331 to access upstream habitat (Hutchings and Gerber, 2002). Likewise, some trout may exhibit  
332 differential response to stress or the presence of conspecifics below the culvert.

333 While body shape is clearly related to brook trout motivation to enter and ascend  
334 culverts, it also had an effect on passage success once attempts were initiated. Successful  
335 attempters were characterized by shallower bodies, and shortened caudal peduncles, traits that  
336 minimize drag and enhance steady swimming (Langerhans and Reznick, 2010). Small heads,  
337 short fins, deeper caudal region and a streamlined body have also been linked to high swimming  
338 and acceleration performance in salmonids (Rouleau et al., 2010, Hawkins and Quinn, 1996,  
339 Ojanguren A.F., 2003). Similar traits were found in two fish species (*Prochilodus lineatus* and  
340 *Leporinus elongatus*) ascending a fishway in Brazil (Assumpção et al., 2012). In the current study,  
341 highly motivated trout had an increased probability of passing the culvert. These fish shared  
342 traits typical of a strong ability to accelerate and reach high swimming speeds, such as a  
343 streamlined body and a short caudal peduncle (Webb, 1994). However, four of the six studied

344 culverts were made of corrugated metal, which creates low velocity areas inside the pipes and  
345 allows fish to rest during ascents (Goerig et al., 2016, Goerig et al., 2017). This factor may have  
346 partially offset the negative effect of water velocity on passage success and may explain why  
347 morphological traits associated with higher swimming ability did not have even greater impact  
348 on passage success. This result highlights that culverts are more than just simple challenges to  
349 swimming performance. They are complex barriers that demand a combination of behavioral  
350 and morphological traits to enable successful passage.

351 We deliberately used caged fish in this study so it was possible to know at any moment  
352 how many fish were present and attempting to pass, as well as the environmental conditions to  
353 which they were being exposed. By allowing 48 h for passage, we were able to observe diel  
354 effects, while giving fish ample time to recover from handling. Although free-ranging fish may  
355 have greater opportunity to pass a barrier than we provided here, our design provides an  
356 appropriate and meaningful approximation to natural conditions. Future work, however, should  
357 consider using unconstrained fish. Telemetry studies using PIT or active techniques have great  
358 power to characterize behaviors for free-ranging fish (Castro-Santos et al., 1996).

359 The current findings provide evidence that, in addition to reducing connectivity between  
360 riverine habitats, culverts may be exerting selective pressures on the behavioural and  
361 morphological traits of wild fish populations. We found that body shape and size are related to  
362 the willingness of trout to enter the culverts, as well as their passage success. Culverts have  
363 become ubiquitous riverine features, but the effects of such barriers are usually regarded as  
364 minimal as long as the barrier is deemed permeable to fish movement under some hydraulic  
365 conditions. However, passable barriers have been shown to drive landscape-scale patterns in  
366 the frequency of migration-associated alleles in steelhead trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) (Apgar et  
367 al., 2017).

368 Our results show that passable culverts may be imposing large-scale selection on wild  
369 brook trout populations that move throughout river networks. These findings likely apply to  
370 other fish species and types of in-stream barriers such as fishways, tide gates, and small dams.  
371 Selection depends on the features of the barriers, the environment, and the standing trait  
372 variation in the population. Depending on the situation, selection may favor highly dispersive  
373 phenotypes that can overcome barriers and move between stream fragments, or conversely  
374 non-dispersive phenotypes that remain isolated within fragments. Such factors deserve greater

375 consideration as potentially widespread impacts of river fragmentation on the ecology and  
376 evolution of fish populations.

377 **Authors' contributions**

378 E.G. designed the study and performed all the field experiments. E.G and B. W processed  
379 and analysed the data. All authors helped with statistical interpretation, as well as with writing  
380 and editing the manuscript. All authors gave final approval for publication.

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390 only and does not imply endorsement by the Canadian or US governments.

391 **Ethics**

392 The fish collection and tagging procedures were in conformance with the guidelines of  
393 the Canadian Council of Animal Care in science (CCPA).

394 **Data availability statement**

395 Data available via the Dryad Digital Repository <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.9tf3hr5> (Goerig et al,  
396 2019).

397

398

399 Tables and figures

400 Table 1. Correlation Coefficient (rPLS), p-value of PLS from resampling, effect size (Z), for  
401 each PLS model, and p-value of the difference between the two models, after Adams & Collyer  
402 (2016).

| Model      | rPLS   | p-value | Z       | p-value<br>(Z difference) |
|------------|--------|---------|---------|---------------------------|
| 1. Attempt | 0.2296 | 0.0171  | -1.6802 | 0.0036                    |
| 2. Success | 0.1502 | 0.9619  | 2.2665  |                           |

403  
404

405

406 Table 2: Model describing effects of covariates on attempt rate (A; Cox regression) and  
407 passage success (B; Logistic regression).

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**A****ATTEMPT RATE**

| Parameter                          | $\beta \pm SE$      | HR              | p-value  |
|------------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------|----------|
| Number of fish in the cage         | -0.090 $\pm$ 0.017  | 0.914           | < 0.0001 |
| Diel period                        |                     |                 |          |
| Dawn                               | —                   | —               | —        |
| Day                                | -0.401 $\pm$ 0.166  | 0.669           | 0.016    |
| Dusk                               | -0.139 $\pm$ 0.194  | 0.870           | 0.470    |
| Night                              | -0.258 $\pm$ 0.169  | 0.772           | 0.130    |
| Mean velocity (m s <sup>-1</sup> ) | 0.626 $\pm$ 0.286   | 1.870           | 0.029    |
| Log centroid size                  | 0.005 $\pm$ 0.002   | 1.005           | 0.017    |
| Body shape (PLS scores)            | -30.046 $\pm$ 6.622 | 0,00            | < 0.0001 |
| <b>Random effects</b>              | <b>SD</b>           | <b>Variance</b> |          |
| Stream of origin   ID              | 0,777               | 0.605           |          |
| ID                                 | 0,765               | 0.585           |          |
| No of available fish               | 362                 |                 |          |
| No of events                       | 1071                |                 |          |

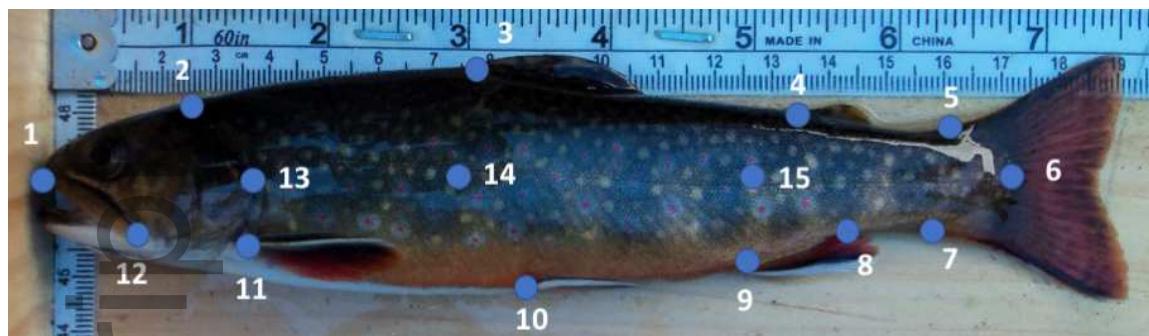
**B****PASSAGE SUCCESS**

| Parameter                          | $\beta \pm SE$       | * $\beta$ | p-value  |
|------------------------------------|----------------------|-----------|----------|
| Intercept                          | 3.330 $\pm$ 0.712    |           | < 0.0001 |
| Mean velocity (m s <sup>-1</sup> ) | -3.356 $\pm$ 0.660   | -2.51     | < 0.0001 |
| Motivation                         | 1.696 $\pm$ 0.451    | 1.478     | 0.0002   |
| Body shape (PLS score)             | -26.309 $\pm$ 13.790 | -0.71     | 0.0564   |

408

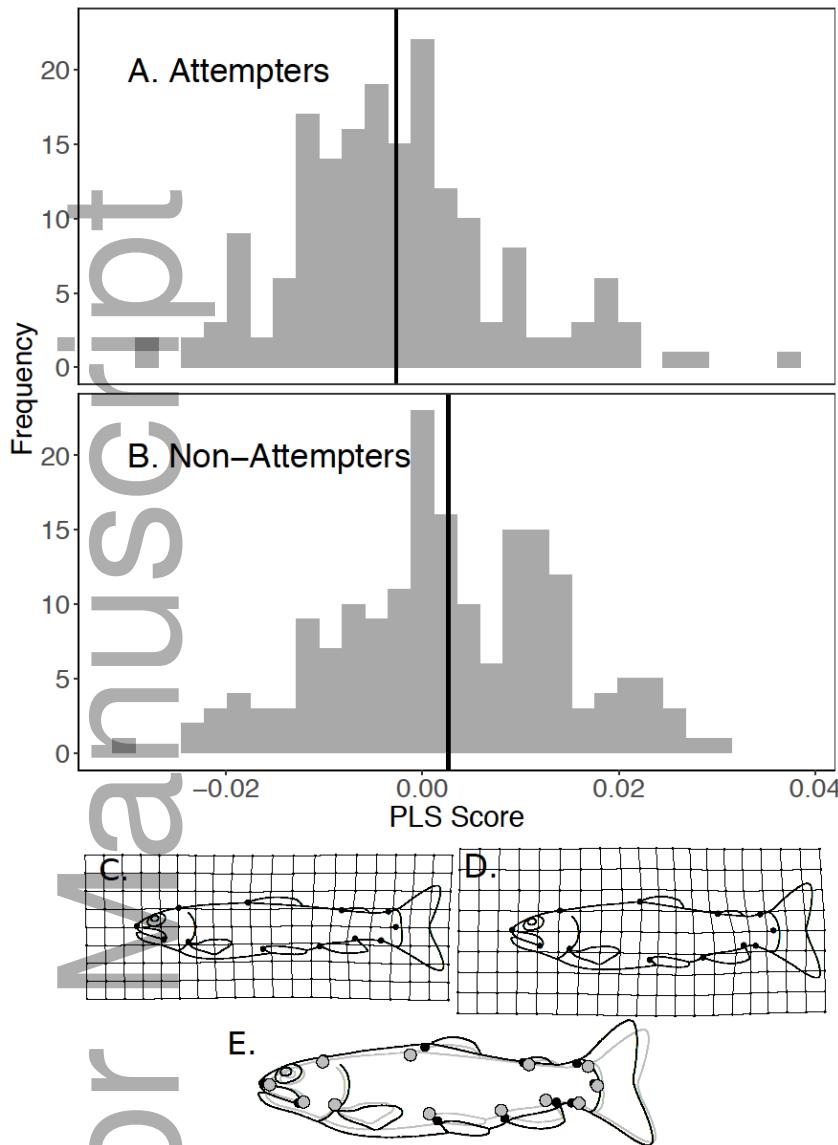
|                  |     |
|------------------|-----|
| No of attempters | 179 |
|------------------|-----|

409 Note: Estimates  $\pm$  standard error ( $\beta \pm SE$ ) and hazard ratios (HR) of parameters for the best-fitting model. HR are  
 410 computed for each parameter by exponentiating the estimates. For the passage success model, standardized  
 411 coefficients (\* $\beta$ ) are obtained by converting ordinary coefficients ( $\beta$ ) to standard deviation units. They measure the  
 412 relative importance of the explanatory variables, regardless of the metrics in which the variables have been measured.



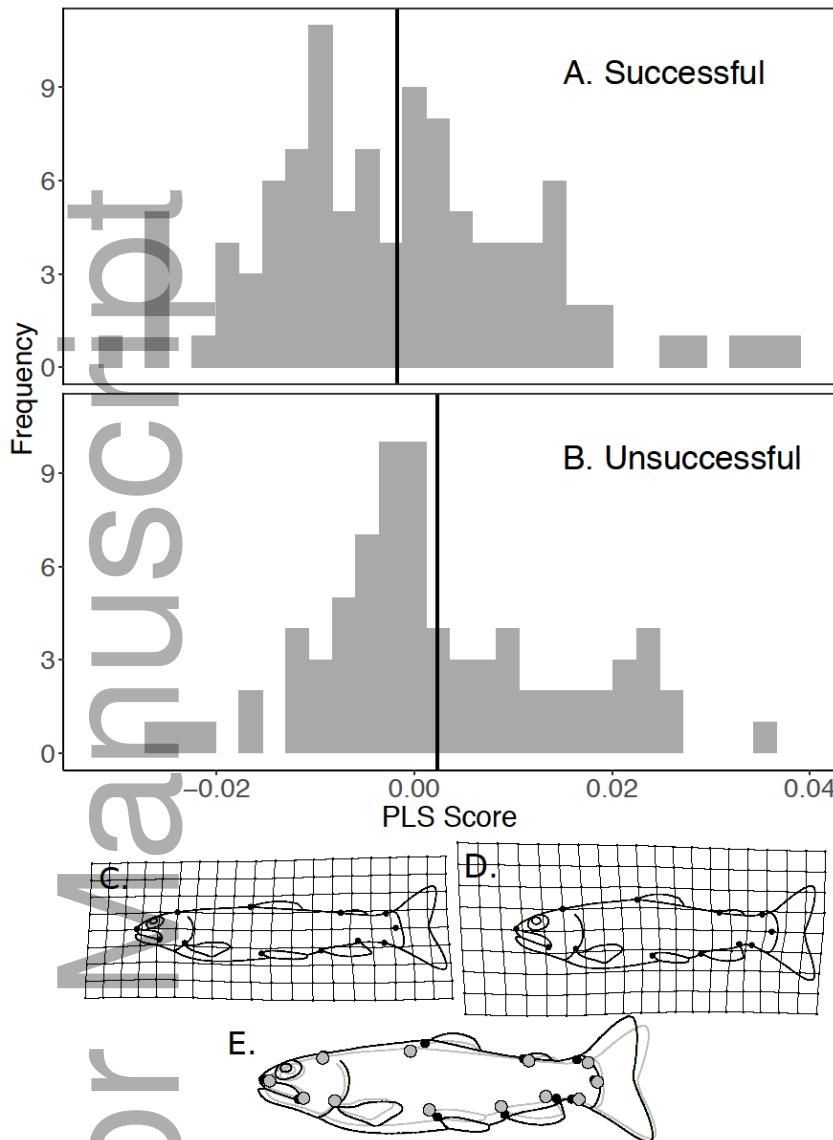
415       Figure 1. Landmark placement, modified from Varian & Nichol 2010. (1) Anterior tip of  
416 the snout, posterior edge of the cranium, (3) anterior dorsal fin insertion, (4) anterior adipose fin  
417 insertion, (5) dorsal caudal fin insertion, (6) medial dorsal fin insertion, (7) ventral dorsal fin  
418 insertion, (8) posterior anal fin insertion, (9) anterior anal fin insertion, (10) anterior pelvic fin  
419 insertion, (11) anterior pectoral fin insertion, (12) posterior extent of maxillary, (13-15) semi-  
420 landmarks along the medial axis of the fish

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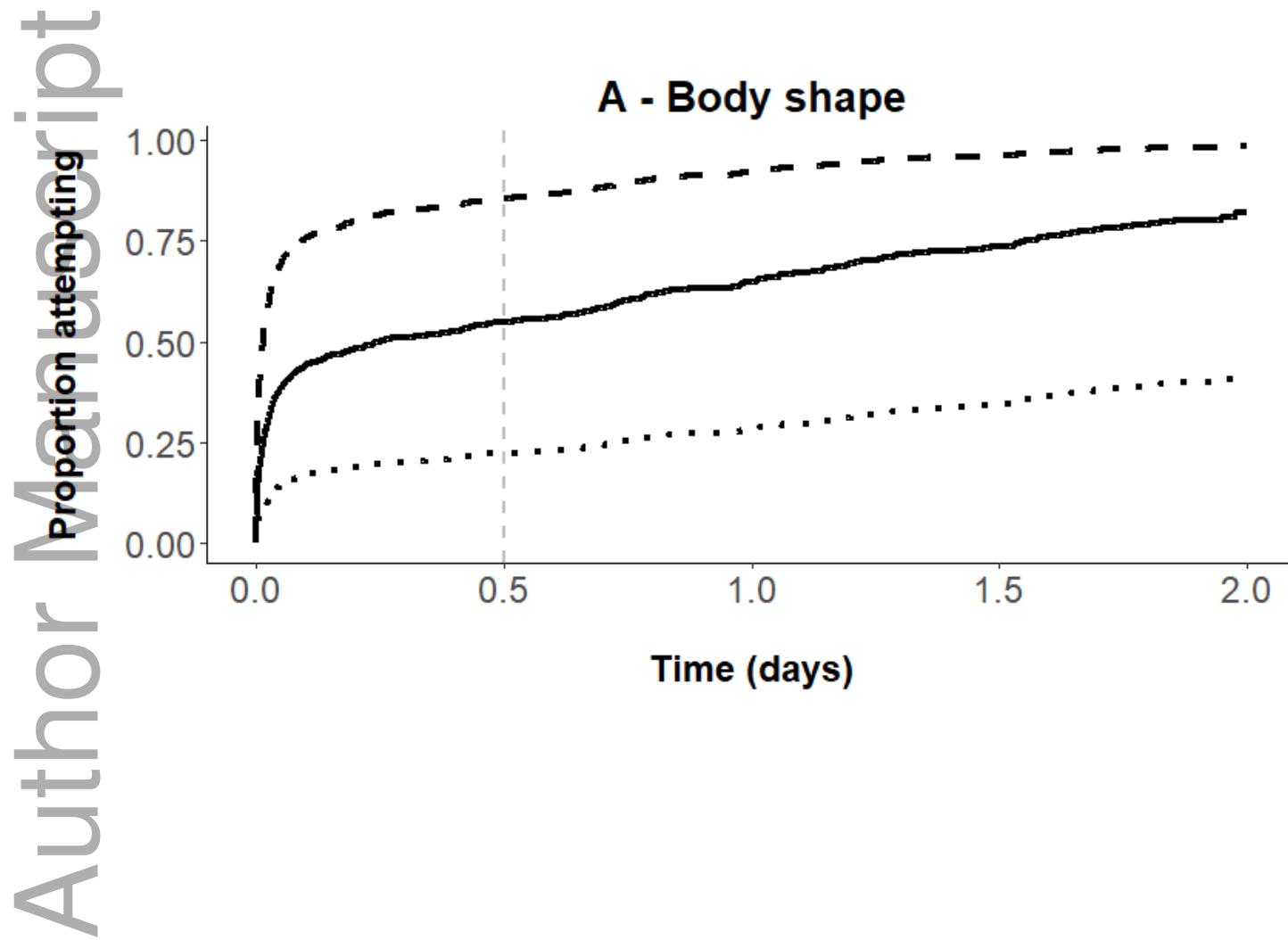
421

422 Figure 2. Histograms of PLS scores associated with attempt status, vertical black bars represent  
 423 the group means. Underneath we use thin-plate-splines and transformation to represent the  
 424 predicted shape of individuals with the most extreme PLS scores: most extreme attempter (C),  
 425 and most extreme non-attempter (D) shapes. These shapes are then superimposed (E), with  
 426 gray representing the shape of attempter and black of non-attempter. Note that differences in  
 427 the outlines are based on extrapolation of the differences in landmarks and is meant as a visual  
 428 aid only. Areas which are outside of the landmark coverage, such as the caudal fin, are based  
 429 entirely on extrapolation and as such are not included in our interpretation.



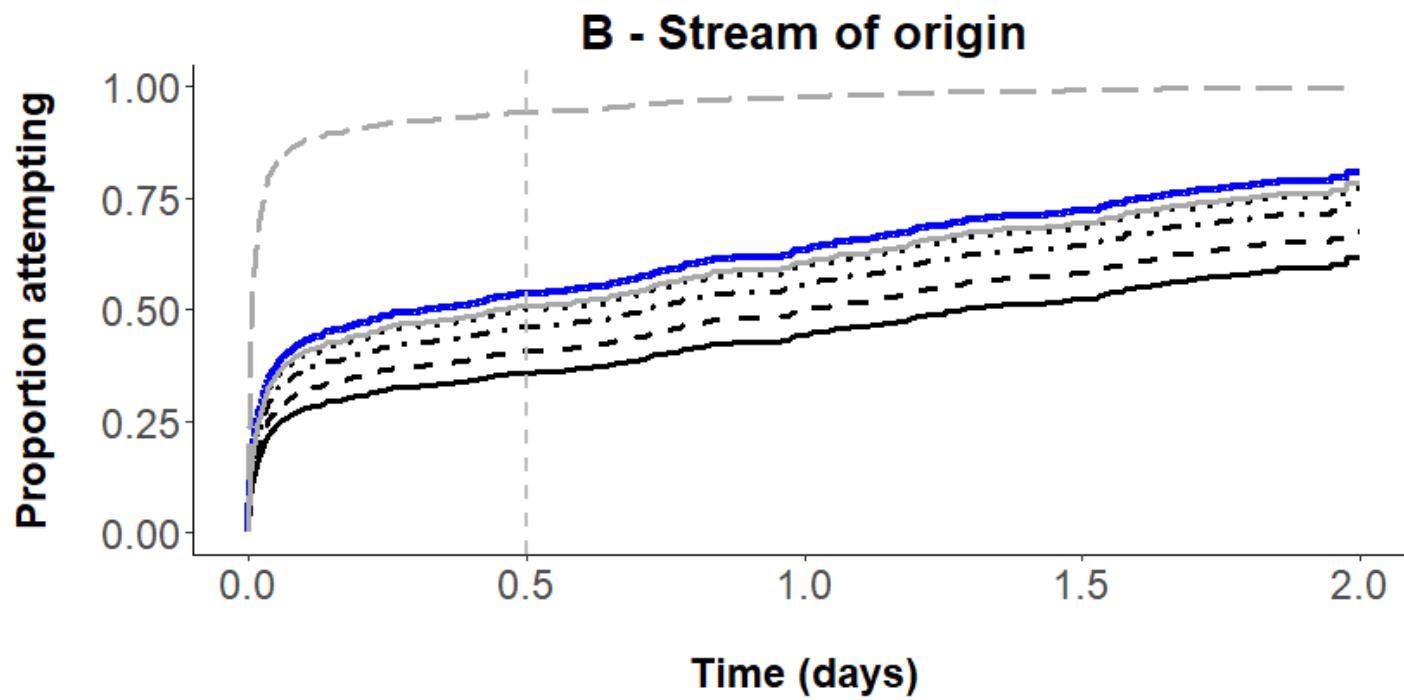
430

431 Figure 3. Histograms of PLS scores associated with success, vertical black bars represent the  
 432 group means. Underneath we use thin-plate-splines and transformation to represent the  
 433 predicted shape of individuals with the most extreme PLS scores: most extreme successful (C),  
 434 and most extreme unsuccessful (D) shapes. These shapes are then superimposed (E), with gray  
 435 representing the shape of successful fish and black of unsuccessful one



436

437



440       Figure 4: Proportion of fish attempting to pass the culvert as a function of A) body shape and B) stream of origin, modeled from the  
441       estimated Cox model.

442       In A, attempt rate increases with a decrease in PLS scores. Dotted line represents the attempt rate for a fish with a maximal PLS score  
443       (0.03), solid line for a mean PLS score (-0.0003) and dashed line for a minimal PLS score (-0.03). The proportion of released fish having staged  
444       attempt after 12h (vertical dashed line) was 25% for fish with the highest PLS scores, while 75% for fish with the lowest PLS scores.

445       In B, the curves represent the mean attempt rate for all fish in the study (solid blue line), attempt rate from fish from Grégoire Stream  
446       (dotted grey line), Tardif (two-dashed grey line), Adolphe (dotted black line), Raquette (dot dashed black line), Femmes (dashed black line), and  
447       Saumons (solid black line). The Adolphe curve is however superposed to the curve for the mean attempt rate. Other parameters of the model  
448       are set to their mean values. The hazard of staging an attempt is highest at stream Grégoire and lowest at stream Saumons. The proportion of  
449       released fish having staged attempts after 12 h (vertical dashed line) was 85% at Grégoire, ~ 45-55% at Adolphe, Raquette and Tardif, but only  
450       30-35% at Saumons and Femmes Streams. Except for the fish from Adolphe Stream, fish from the Bécancour watershed (grey curves) had a  
451       higher attempt rate than those from the Saint-Louis watershed (black curves).

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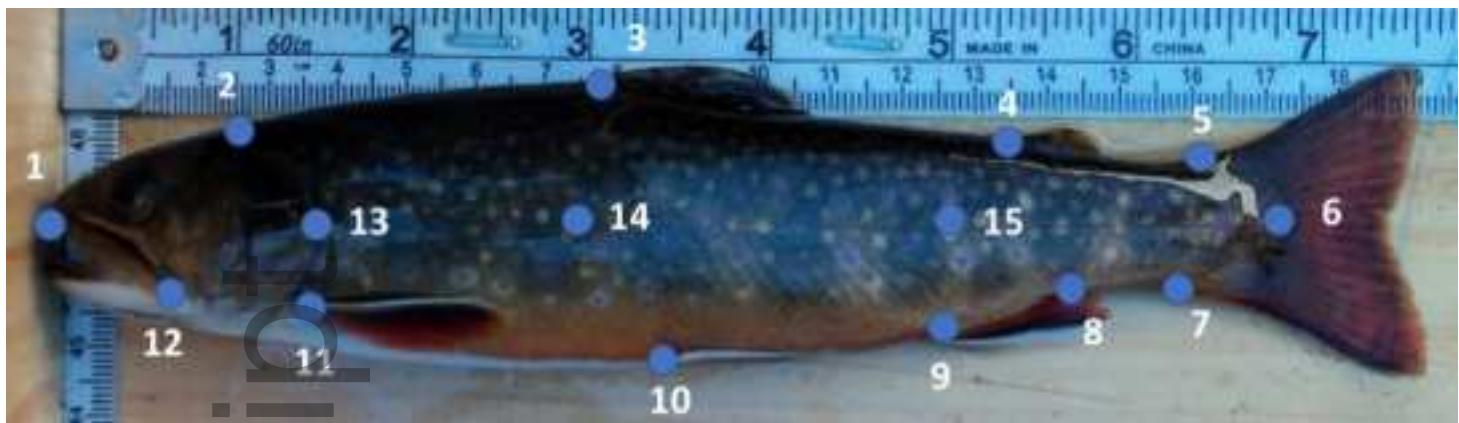
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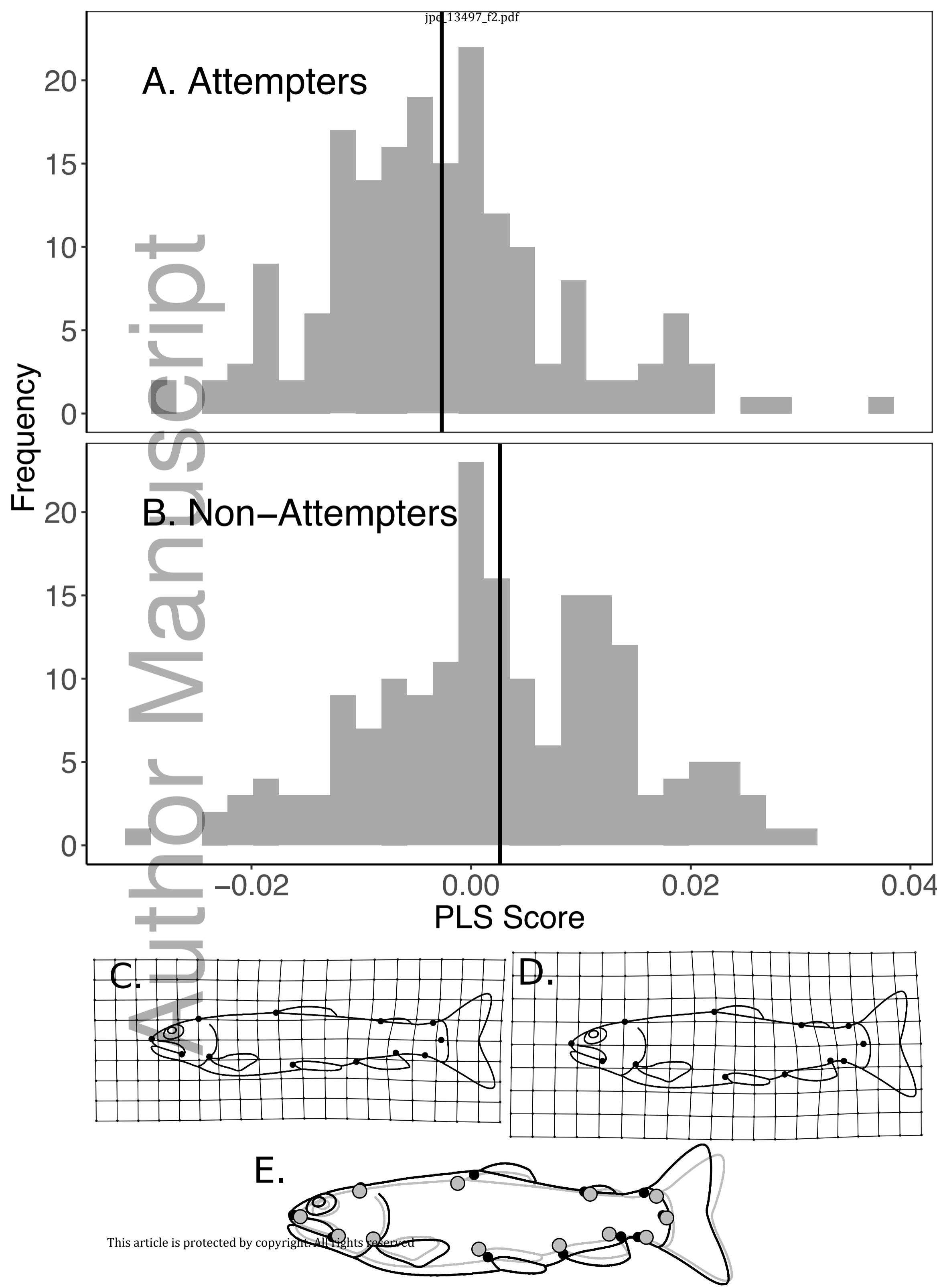
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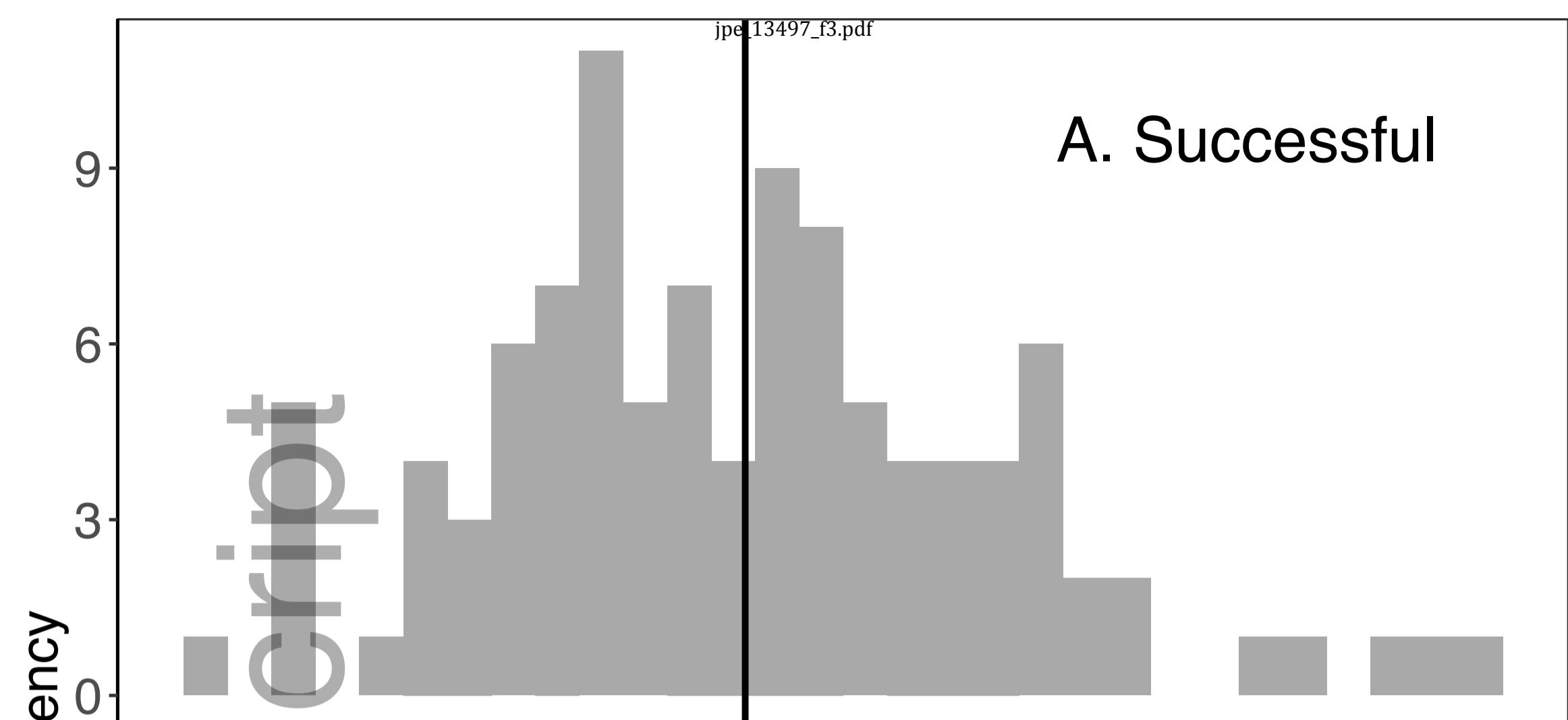
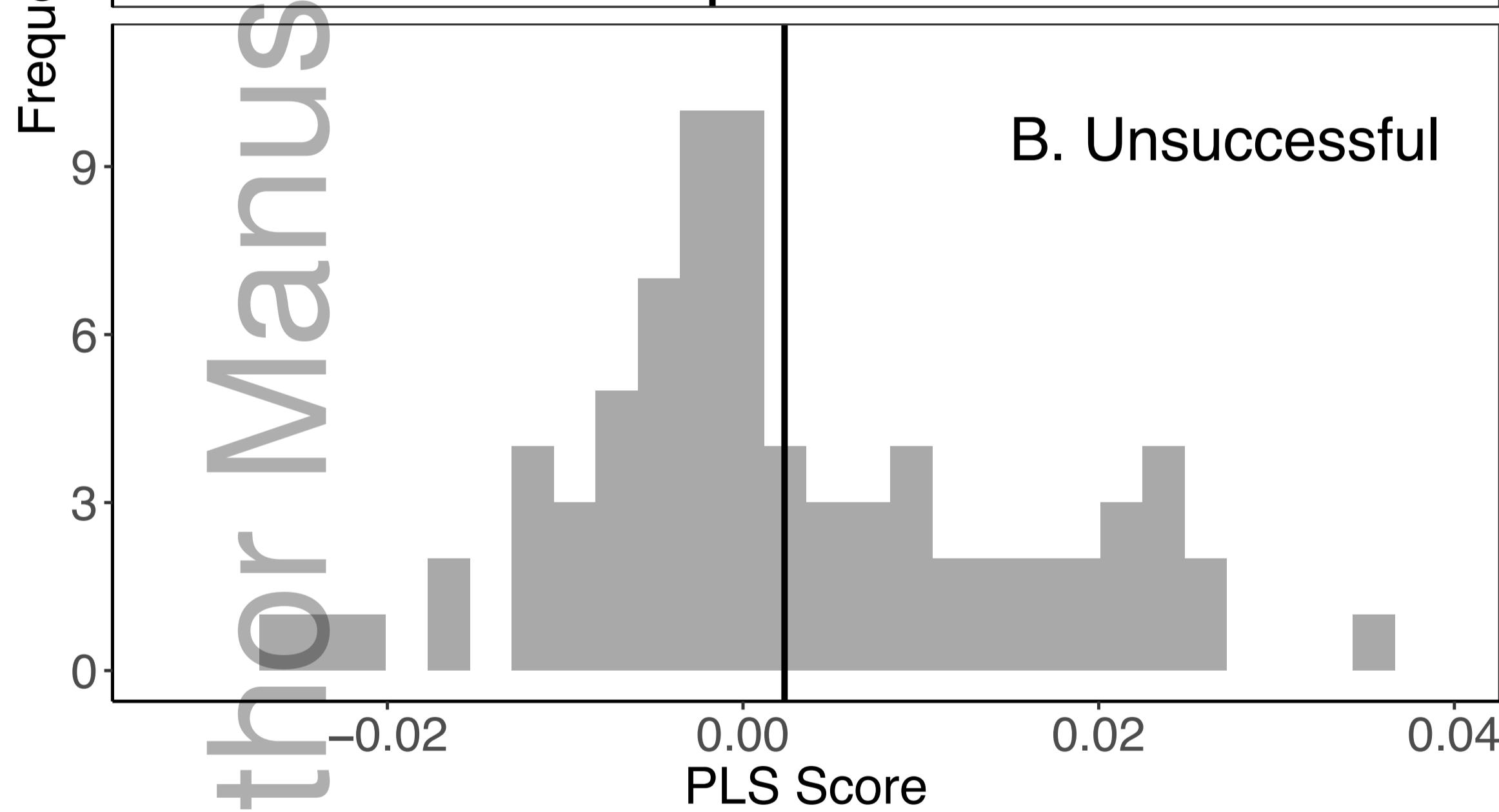
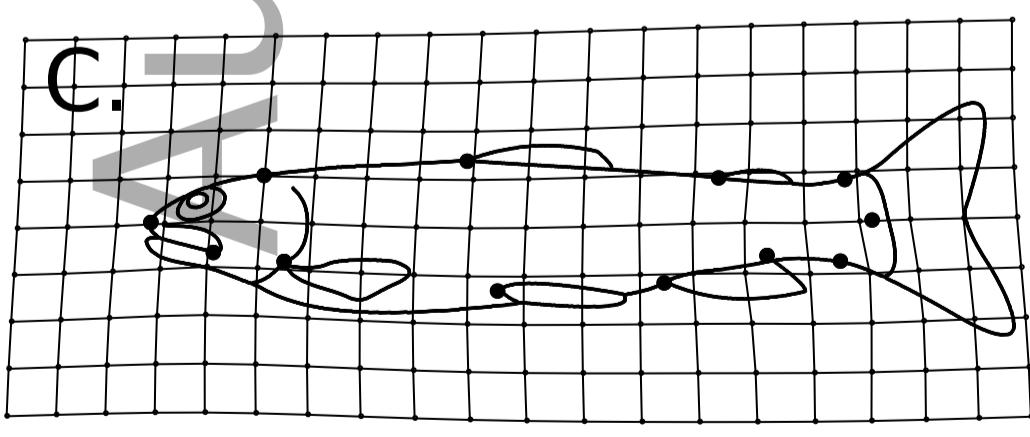
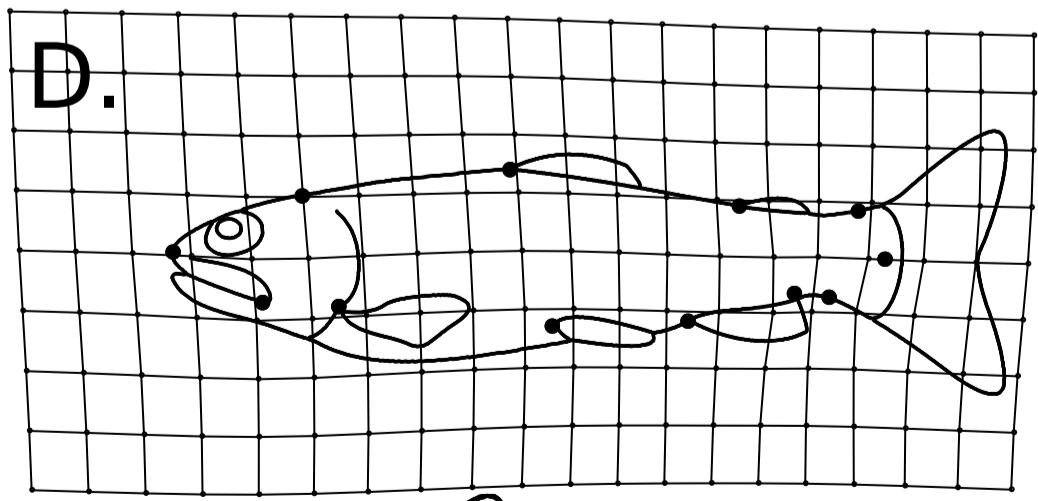
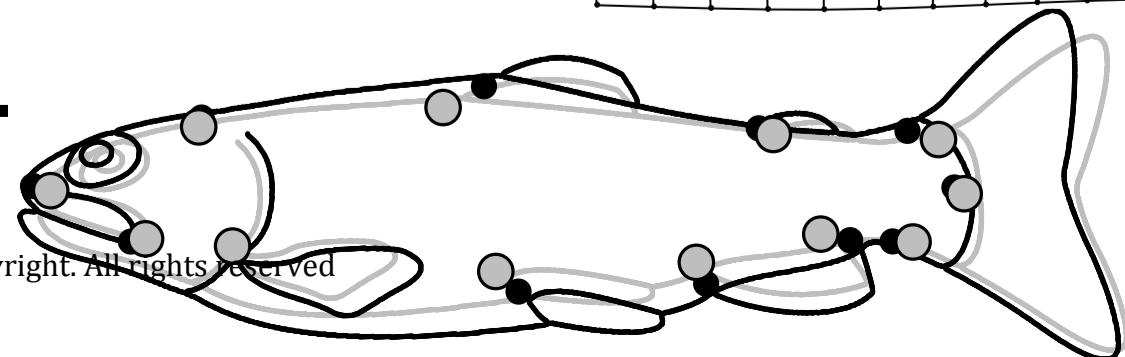
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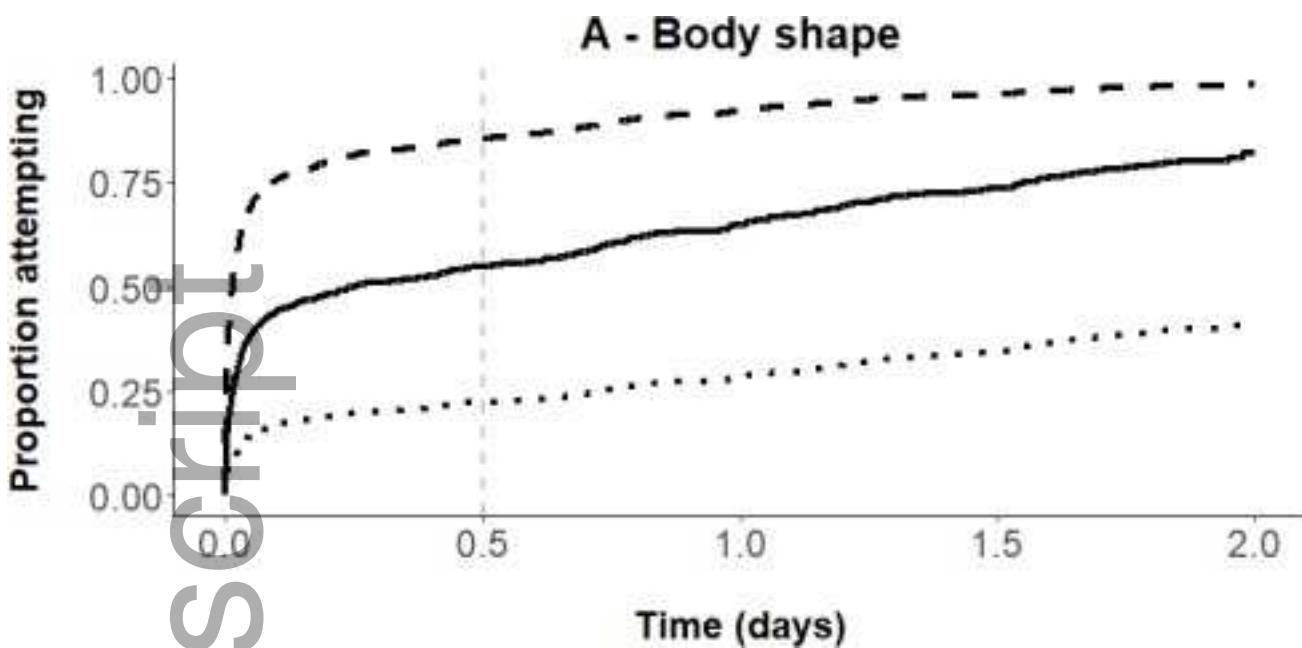


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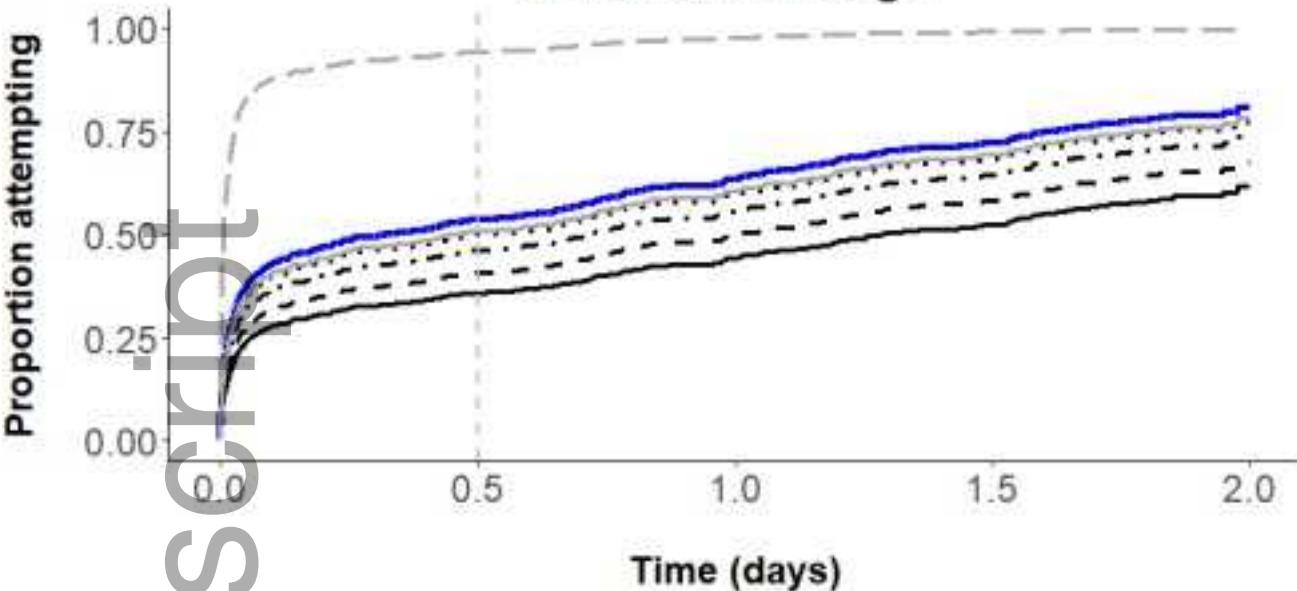


**A. Successful****B. Unsuccessful****C.****D.****E.**



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### B - Stream of origin



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