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# Swimming performance of brown trout and grayling show species-specific responses to changes in temperature

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1 Swimming performance of brown trout and grayling show species-specific responses to 2 changes in temperature 3 4 Annette Taugbøl<sup>1\*</sup>, Kjetil Olstad<sup>1</sup>, Kim Magnus Bærum<sup>1</sup> & Jon Museth<sup>1</sup> 5 6 7 1) Norwegian Institute for Nature Research (NINA), Human Dimension Department, 8 Vormstuguvegen 40, 2624 Lillehammer, Norway 9 \*Corresponding author: Annette.taugbol@nina.no 10 11 Running title: Swimming performance of trout and grayling 12 13 Abstract 14 Fishways have historically been constructed to restore and preserve the ecological 15 connectivity for fish in fragmented rivers. . However, the fishways are often selective on 16 species due to different size and swimming capacity. As the proportion of dammed rivers are 17 still increasing, there is a growing need for more information on wild fish and their migration 18 potential. In this study, we compare the swimming capacity of wild caught brown trout and 19 grayling until the fish were exhausted in a critical swimming speed (U<sub>crit</sub>) test, under three 20 different naturally occurring stream temperatures in Norway; 1.7, 5.5 and 10 °C. The results 21 indicate that trout swim better at the warmer temperatures than at colder temperatures. 22 The grayling showed consistent swimming patterns with little variation across all tested 23 temperatures. The results therefore signify the need to have operational fishways already 24 early in the spring when the grayling migration starts and highlight the need for more 25 studies on fish migration abilities across a wider range of species and seasons. 26 27 Key words: migration, fish, Norway, salmonids, Salmo trutta, Thymallus thymallus 28 29 30 Introduction 31 During the last century, many natural river systems have been subjected to fragmentation 32 due to human constructions, such as hydropower installations (Nilsson et al. 2005). The 33 reduced or non-existing connectivity that usually follows these artificial landscape 34 alterations can result in loss of populations and species of freshwater fish (Gehrke et al. 35 2002; Parrish et al. 1998; Penczak and Kruk 2000). Thus, with the aim to reduce the negative

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36 effects, there has been an increased focus on facilitating up- and downstream migration 37 through the use of for example fishways (Silva et al. 2018). However, the successful function 38 of fishways depends on species, individual size, time of year, water flow and temperature, 39 individual motivation and condition for migration (Haugen et al. 2008; Roscoe and Hinch 40 2010). If fish fail to use assigned fishways, but instead remain in the river section 41 downstream the dams, this will likely result in unnatural crowding and thereby reduced 42 growth (Bærum et al. 2013; Van Leeuwen et al. 2016). Further, by imposing size-selective 43 fishways, there might be selection on certain phenotypes, by for instance introducing shifts 44 from natural directional selection on growing larger and thereby having a higher migratory 45 potential (Videler 1993; Videler and Wardle 1991), to stabilizing selection on a smaller body 46 size (Haugen et al. 2008) and lower overall migration potential. Designing fishways with high 47 functionality for a broad range of fish species is highly demanding (Mallen-Cooper and Brand 48 2007; Noonan et al. 2012), but important in order to maintain natural diversity and genetic 49 variability in river systems.

50

The ability to move efficiently through waterways is especially important for fish such as 51 52 salmonids that may migrate long distances to spawn (Jonsson and Jonsson 1993). Brown 53 trout (Salmo trutta, hereafter referred to as trout) and European grayling (Thymallus 54 thymallus, hereafter referred to as grayling), are cold water fishes that often use different 55 sections within a river/lake system for feeding (Godin and Rangeley 1989; McLaughlin and 56 Noakes 1998), overwintering and spawning, and seasonal movement between different 57 habitat types are important for growth, survival and reproduction (Heggenes and Dokk 2001; 58 Jonsson and Jonsson 2009; Sempeski and Gaudin 1995b). Both trout and grayling are 59 salmonids, but have different spawning time. The trout typically move upstream at the end 60 of the summer to spawn at the onset of winter (Elliott 1994; Klemetsen et al. 2003), and the 61 grayling typically migrate upstream in spring to deposit eggs in the gravel at the onset of 62 summer (Nykänen et al. 2001; Sempeski and Gaudin 1995a). Radiotelemetry and genetic 63 data on trout and grayling from the Norwegian rivers Glomma and Gudbrandsdalslågen 64 illustrate that both species move considerably and directionally during early spring at low 65 water temperatures (Van Leeuwen et al. 2016), and that both species use large sections of 66 the river throughout the year (Junge et al. 2014; Van Leeuwen et al. 2016).

67

68 Both trout and grayling have relatively high swimming capacity compared to other 69 Scandinavian freshwater fishes, with indications of trout having higher swimming capacity 70 than grayling. Therefore, the objectives of our study were to 1) actually explore differences 71 in swimming capacity for trout and grayling. In addition, water temperature has profound 72 effects upon the physiology and performance of ectotherms (Angilletta et al. 2002, Beamish 73 1964, Jonsson and L'Abée-Lund 1993, Kavanagh et al. 2010). Temperature may also serve as 74 an ecological timer, initiating behavioral reactions such as migration from one habitat to 75 another (Jonsson and Jonsson 2009), and has been found to directly influence swimming 76 capacity (Keefer et al. 2008) We therefore also 2) tested the swimming capacity for both 77 species at three different temperatures, 1.7, 5.5 and 10°C. The overall goal was to compare 78 the species-specific swimming capacity and to contribute with better understanding of how 79 fishways should be constructed and operated.

80

### 81 Materials and methods

82

### 83 Fish collection

84 The fish used in this study was wild caught at Otta, Norway, using traditional angling gear, 85 see Figure 1a and 1b for the sampling location. The sampling river, Gudbrandsdalslågen, 86 typically varies in seasonal temperature from about 0 °C (December) to about 14°C (August). In its lower parts, River Gudbrandsdalslågen is slow-running, with stretches of rapids with 87 88 broken surface and at some points also shorter sections of white-water-rapids. After 89 capture, the fish were transported to the Hunderfossen fish hatchery facility in an aerated 90 fish-tank. The fish were kept at the facility for a period of one to three weeks in concrete 91 tanks with continuously flowing, untreated, river water prior to experiments. The holding 92 tanks were approximately  $1 \times 3$  meters, with water depth of 0.5 meter. 93 94 Experimental setup and measurement of critical swimming speed, (U<sub>crit</sub>) The experiments were run at the Hunderfossen hydropower plant at three different periods 95 during late autumn and winter 2014; October  $7^{th} - 13^{th}$ , November  $3^{rd} - 7^{th}$ , and December 96  $1^{st} - 4^{th}$ . The water used in the experimental setup was untreated river water, from the same 97

98 source as for the holding tanks, where the natural water temperatures averaged 9.67±0.04

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99 (referred to as 10°C), 5.39±0.06 (referred to as 5.5°C) and 1.7±0.02 (referred to as 1.7°C), at 100 the three experimental times, respectively, as the water cools from August to December. 101 102 We used a critical swimming speed (U<sub>crit</sub>) test to measure prolonged swimming performance

103 (Brett 1964). In this test, the water speed is increased in a stepwise manner until a fish no 104 longer can maintain its position in the current. U<sub>crit</sub> is predicted to be an ecologically relevant 105 measure of prolonged swimming capacity for fish (Plaut 2001; Lee et al. 2003). 106

The U<sub>crit</sub> –tests were carried out using a tube-within-tube-design respirometer (see e.g. 107 108 (Thorstad et al. 1997; Tierney 2011) for description of respirometer and Figure 1c for an 109 illustration. The cross-sectional diameter of the inner tube is 24 cm and the outer tube 34 110 cm. A propeller connected to an engine pulls water past the fish in the inner tube. The water 111 is then returned to the front via the space between the two tubes. Plastic mesh structures in 112 the front and back prevents the fish from escaping from the inner tube or getting in contact 113 with the propeller. The velocity of the water passing the fish is adjustable within the range 114 0.3 – 2 m/s.

115

Prior to the U<sub>crit</sub>-test, we placed a fish in the tunnel and let it acclimate for 30 minutes at 0.3 116 117 m/s. The test was then carried out by increasing the water speed with 0.2 m/s for every 2 118 minutes. A pilot study revealed that grayling was likely to lose motivation for swimming 119 entirely if the velocity was adjusted too fast. Adjustment of velocity between steps was 120 therefore consistently carried out over 30 seconds in the experimental set-up. The end-point 121 of the experiment was set to the time at which the fish collapsed on the rear plastic mesh-122 structure or the point at which the fish would no longer swim but "lean on" the rear mesh. 123 When the fish leaned on the mesh, motivation was initiated after five seconds. Action taken 124 to motivate the fish for swimming included rapidly altering the water-velocity from last set-125 point to zero and back to set-point. This routine was repeated up to three times in quick 126 successions. If the fish did not respond by re-entering swimming-mode, end-point was set to 127 the time five seconds prior to motivation. After the U<sub>crit</sub>-test, the length and weight of the 128 fish was recorded before the fish was released back into the river. Each fish was only used in 129 one experiment. A plot of length and mass for the fish tested at different temperatures are 130 given in Supplementary information 1.

131

132 A total of 44 trout (28.2 cm  $\pm$  0.7) and 48 grayling (33.8 cm  $\pm$  0.5) were tested for swimming 133 capacity (mean ± standard errors), Figure 2. Across temperatures, 13, 15 and 16 trout and 134 15, 17 and 16 grayling were tested in the three different water temperatures, 1.7, 5.5 and 135 10°C, respectively.

136

137 Statistical analysis

138 We analyzed the variation in U<sub>crit</sub> utilizing linear models with species, temperature (included 139 as a factor variable), and fish length as predictor variables. We then constructed a global 140 model containing all three independent variables and their interactions. To compare and 141 weight all the nested models under the global model, we used the dredge-function in the 142 MuMIn-package (Bartoń 2017) and ranked the model based on AICc-values. We checked for 143 homogeneity of the variance and normality of the distribution of the residuals for the most 144 supported model. We also assessed the Cook distance (with a cut off value of 4/n) for each 145 point to check for particular influential individuals. Two fish were pinpointed from the 146 Cook's distance, two rather large grayling individuals that had relatively low U<sub>crit</sub> compared 147 to other graylings. As they were high-leverage individuals, we choose to show predictions 148 from the models developed from a subset of the data excluding the two grayling individuals. 149 To obtain the final coefficient estimates used in our predictions, we used the model.avgfunction from the MuMIn-package (Bartoń 2017), which was set to model average all 150 151 parameter estimates included within an AICc-weight of 90%. Predictions were obtained 152 using the "full" averaged model, which then includes a type of shrinkage estimator for 153 variables with a weak relationship to the response. All statistical analysis were performed in 154 R (R 2017).

155

### 156 Results

157 In general, we found relatively large variations in the predicted U<sub>crit</sub> values for the fish in the 158 experiment (Figure 3). This variation seemed to be rather stable across temperatures and 159 species. Further, the model predicted a general positive trend of fish length on U<sub>crit</sub> (see 160 parameter estimates in Supplementary Table 1), however the slope of this trend varied 161 slightly between species. In general, our model predicted higher U<sub>crit</sub> for trout compared to 162 grayling, although less obvious at the lowest temperature (1.7° C, Figure 3). Trout displayed

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an overall increasing  $U_{crit}$  with temperature, but with comparable  $U_{crit}$  at 5.5° C and 10° C 163

164 (Figure 3). For grayling, the model predicted a much less pronounced increase in  $U_{crit}$  with

temperature from 1.7° C to 5.5° C than for trout, while there was no increase between 5.5° C 165

and 10° C (Figure 3). Specifically, our model predicted mean U<sub>crit</sub> values of 1.42 (SD 0.26), 166

167 1.57 (SD 0.21) and 1.58 (SD 0.19) for trout, and 1.38 (SD 0.26), 1.43 (SD 0.26) and 1.42 (SD

168 0.20) for grayling at 1.7° C, 5.5° C and 10° C, respectively.

169

### 170 Discussion

To partially or completely re-establish free migration in fragmented waterways, it is 171 172 important to restore the habitat or build fishways in such a way that the natural fish 173 population can actually make use of up- and downstream habitats efficiently. Fish passage 174 success at an obstacle depends on many factors, such as the hydraulic conditions at the site, 175 on the swimming and leaping capacity for each given species (Ovidio and Philippart 2002), 176 that again are related to temperature, motivation and type of species. In this study, we 177 found that grayling and trout had comparable swimming capacity at the lower temperature 178 (1.7° C), while trout showed higher swimming capacity at the two higher temperatures, at 179 5.5 and 10° C. The swimming capacity for grayling was relatively stable across all 180 temperatures whereas the variation in swimming capacity within each test-group (i.e., 181 temperature and species) was relatively high for both species, indicating a high level of 182 individual variation.

183

The result that trout performed best at the higher temperatures closer to their actual 184 185 spawning time in the river was expected. Previous studies have found temperatures around 186 15-16°C to be optimal for the swimming performance of other trout populations (Ojanguren 187 and Brana 2000). The swimming performance of grayling was less affected by temperature 188 and was lower compared to the trout at the two higher testing temperatures. The grayling 189 might prefer the colder part of the water-body in winter, as an acoustic telemetric study 190 found all tracked grayling through the period of ice cover to remain within two meters of the 191 surface and often at temperatures approaching 0°C (Bass et al. 2014) instead of mostly 192 residing in the thermocline as is common for other salmonids in the early winter months 193 (Levy et al. 1991). Another fish capable of enduring cold, such as the carp, was found to 194 plastically change the isoforms of their myosin heavy chain proteins following temperature

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195 acclimation, suggesting a correlation between producing alternate myosin heavy chain-196 proteins with improved swimming performance at low and high acclimation temperatures 197 (Fry and Hart 1948). It could be that grayling also has some kind of plastic "switch" in 198 relation to temperature and seasons as they were found to suddenly increase movement 199 during early spring at low temperatures (Heggenes et al. 2006; Van Leeuwen et al. 2016). 200

201 Previous studies have illustrated a positive effect of training and swimming performance in 202 lab-reared brown trout (Anttila et al. 2008). The fish used in this study were wild caught 203 from a river and kept in an aquarium with calm conditions for less than one (for the 204 experimental groups tested at 10 and 5.5°C) or up to three weeks (for experimental group 205 tested at 1.7 °C). There could therefore be that the fish tested at 1.7 °C in this study 206 performed less well compared to the two higher temperatures as the levels of receptor 207 densities important for swimming performance likely declined over the period the fish were 208 held in aquaria, leading to earlier fatigue at the low temperatures later in the season (Anttila 209 et al. 2008). At the same time, seasonal changes also have complex interactive effects on 210 swimming activity of fishes and can affect motivation and capacity. Following the decrease in 211 temperature with time in the present study, the trout life history cues also changed from 212 "late migratory" to "refuge". This is itself a factor that also could have contributed to lower 213 swimming performance in trout at lower temperatures, as it has been shown that trout in 214 the wild exploit more slow running water in winter compared to summer, and that this 215 switch from summer to winter activity appears when the temperature drops below 8°C (Heggenes and Dokk 2001). As the timing of spawning, and hence probably motivation for 216 217 migration is different for the two species, it would be interesting to follow up this study also 218 in spring to get a better idea of the effects of temperature and motivation for swimming. 219

220 The interaction between temperature and swimming performance is complex and depends 221 on many factors (Videler 1993), and we found much variation in the swimming performance 222 for both species in the present study. Individual experience, motivation and genetic 223 background will likely play a part in overall swimming performance (Laporte et al. 2016; 224 Plaut and Gordon 1994), and repeatable individual variation has been found for several fish 225 species (Bass et al. 2014; Nelson et al. 2002). It could be that some of the variation is due to 226 individuals being partially migratory and likely more fit than individuals having a more

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227 stationary lifestyle (Jonsson and Jonsson 2009). Further, this experiment was conducted in a 228 laboratory environment with constant water flow. The heterogeneities in physical structure 229 and water flow characterizing natural environments can influence swimming behavior and 230 performance (McLaughlin and Noakes 1998; Webb 1993). More propulsive movements have

- 231 been observed under field conditions relative to laboratory conditions in brook trout
- 232 (McLaughlin and Noakes 1998), imposing that fish probably work harder in the field to
- 233 maintain a given speed, indicating that the results in the present study should be viewed as
- 234 being higher than the swimming capacity would likely be in a natural context.
- 235

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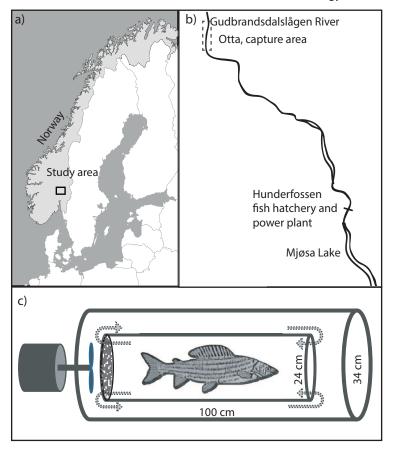
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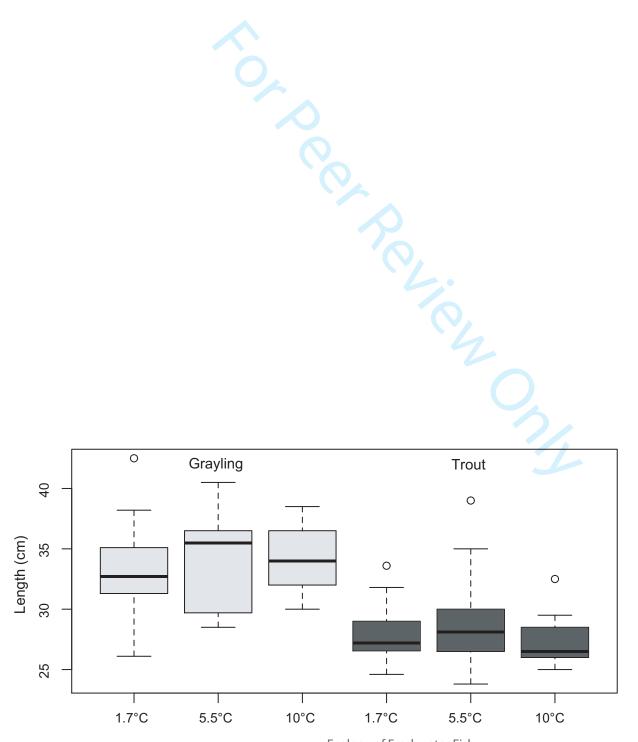
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372	Figure 1. a) Map of a) the location of the study area in Norway and b) the river
373	Gudbrandsdalslågen, where the capture sites (Otta) and experimental facilities
374	(Hunderfossen) are shown. <b>c)</b> Illustration of the respirometer. A propeller connected to an
375	engine pulls water past the fish in the inner tube before the water returns to the front via
376	the outer walls. Plastic mesh structures in the front and back of the inner tubes prevents the
377	fish both from escaping and potential injuries with the propeller. The measurements for
378	each side are also given in the figure (in cm).
379	
380	Figure 2. The overall length distribution (in cm) for grayling (light gray) and trout (dark gray)
381	in the three experimental temperature groups, showing the 25%-75% quantiles (boxes),
382	median (black horizontal line), 95% limits (bars), and outliers (open circles) for the three
383	experimental temperatures.
384	
385	<b>Figure 2</b> Dradicted II. (y axic) as a function of temperature ( $^{\circ}$ C. y axic) for graving (solid
386	
387	
388	
389	mean predicted value across the full range of the lengths in the data, and error bars show
390	the standard error.
391	
392	
393	
394	(10° C) and their regression lines.

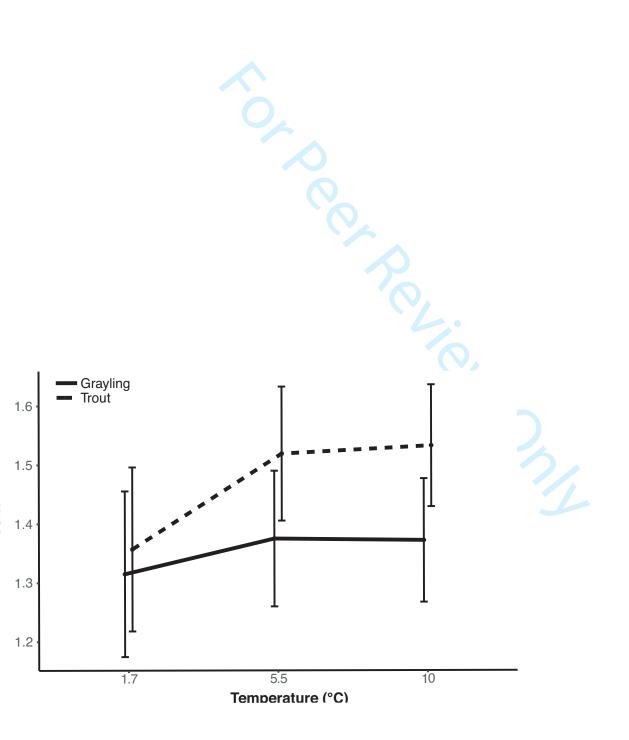
395	
396	Supplementary Table 1. Model averaged parameter estimates, used to predict $U_{crit}$ for trout
397	and grayling.
<ul> <li>397</li> <li>398</li> <li>399</li> <li>400</li> <li>401</li> <li>402</li> <li>403</li> <li>404</li> <li>405</li> <li>406</li> <li>407</li> <li>408</li> <li>409</li> <li>410</li> <li>411</li> <li>412</li> <li>413</li> <li>414</li> <li>415</li> <li>416</li> <li>417</li> <li>418</li> <li>419</li> </ul>	and grayling.







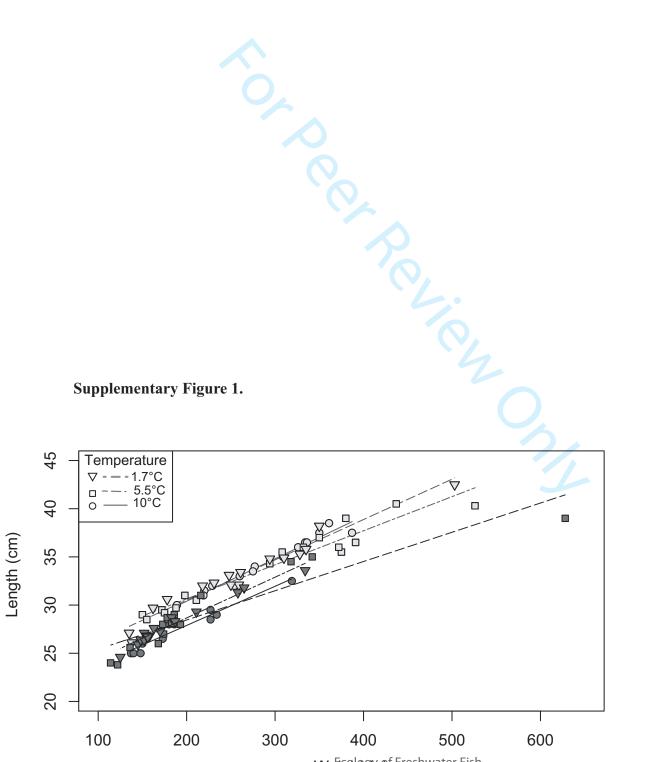
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## Supplementary Table 1.

	β-Estimate	Std. Error	Adjusted SE	Z value	Pr(> z )
Intercept	-0.0474489	0.5850780	0.5896430	0.080	0.9359
Trout	0.0558839	0.2622062	0.2655798	0.210	0.8333
Length	0.0435308	0.0179703	0.0181130	2.403	0.0162 *
Temp 5.5	0.3066232	0.5934888	0.5961470	0.514	0.6070
Temp 10	0.4036908	0.7672810	0.7697541	0.524	0.6000
Trout:temp_cat5.5	0.1020385	0.1793856	0.1801159	0.567	0.5710
Trout:temp_cat10 🗼	0.1185561	0.2037363	0.2044613	0.580	0.5620
Length:temp_cat5.5	-0.0078787	0.0177567	0.0178441	0.442	0.6588
Length:temp_cat10	-0.0110711	0.0232645	0.0233458	0.474	0.6353
Trout:length	-0.0004426	0.0075712	0.0076807	0.058	0.9540



1	Swimming performance of brown trout and graying snow species-specific responses to	
2	changes in temperature	
3 4		
5 6	Annette Taugbøl <sup>1*</sup> , Kjetil Olstad <sup>1</sup> , Kim Magnus Bærum <sup>1</sup> & Jon Museth <sup>1</sup>	
7	1) Norwegian Institute for Nature Research (NINA), Human Dimension Department,	
8 9	Vormstuguvegen 40, 2624 Lillehammer, Norway *Corresponding author: Annette.taugbol@nina.no	
10		
11	Running title: Swimming performance of trout and grayling	
12		
13	Abstract	
14	Artificial landscape f <u>River fragmentations are often may hindering fish migrations between</u>	
15	habitats, leading to unnatural <u>altered genetic structuring and reduced lower habitat qualities</u>	
16	for the specific life events for different fish species, as the optimal environment may no	
17	longer be accessible. As an attempt to compensate for this, a variety of feishways have	Com
18	historically been constructed to improve <u>restore</u> and preserve the ecological connectivity for	histo
19	fish in fragmented <u>riversenvironments</u> . However, the fishways are often selective on	
20	species <u>due to different</u> size and swimming capacity. <del>, and a</del> s the proportions of dammed	
21	rivers are still increasing, there is a growing need for more information on wild fish and their	
22	migration potential. In this study, we compare the swimming capacity of wild caught brown	
23	trout and grayling until <del>exhaustion <u>the fish were exhausted</u> i</del> n a critical swimming speed	
24	(U <sub>crit</sub> ) test, under three different naturally occurring stream temperatures in Norway; 1.7, 5.5	
25	and 10 °C. The results indicate that trout swim better at the warmer temperatures than at	
26	colder temperaturesbrown trout have a higher swimming capacity at all temperatures when	
27	compared to grayling, and that the trout swim better at the warmer temperatures. The	
28	grayling showed consistent swimming patterns with little variation across all tested	
29	temperatures. The results therefore signify the need to have operational fishways already	
30	early in the spring when the grayling <del>runs<u>migration starts</u> and <u>.</u> Further, the results highlight</del>	
31	the need for more studies on fish migration abilities across a wider range of species and	
32	seasons., as this knowledge can help management to improve future constructions and	
33	operations of fishways, and hence allow for more natural migrations, despite artificial	
34	barriers, for wild fish populations in the future.	
35		

ment [JM1]: Kan godt slettes og act can starte med Fishways have rically.....

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36 37	Key words: migration, fish, Norway, salmonids, Salmo trutta, Thymallus thymallus
38	
39	
40	
41	Introduction
42	During the last century, many natural river systems have been subjects to been subjected to
43	fragmentation due to human constructions, such as hydropower installations (Nilsson et al.
44	2005). The reduced or non-existing connectivity that usually follows these artificial
45	landscape alterations can have resulted in loss of populations and species of freshwater fish
46	(Gehrke et al. 2002; Parrish et al. 1998; Penczak and Kruk 2000). Thus, with the aim to
47	reduce the negative effects, there has been an increased focus on facilitating up- and
48	downstream migration through the use of for example fishways (Silva et al. 2018). However,
49	the <u>successful functionality function of</u> fishways are depends ent on species, individual size,
50	time of year, water flow and temperature, individual motivation and condition for migration
51	(Haugen et al. 2008; Roscoe and Hinch 2010). If fish fail to use assigned fishways, but instead
52	remain in the river section downstream the dams, at the entrances, this will likely result in
53	unnatural crowding and thereby reduced growth (Bærum et al. 2013; Van Leeuwen et al.
54	2016). Further, by imposing size-selective fishways, there might be selection on certain
55	phenotypes, by for instance introducing shifts from natural directional selection on growing
56	larger and thereby having a higher migratory potential (Videler 1993; Videler and Wardle
57	1991), to stabilizing selection on a smaller body size (Haugen et al. 2008) and lower overall
58	migration potential. Designing fishways with <u>a-</u> high <del>successful<u>effective</u> f<u>f</u>unction<u>ality for</u> <del>ality</del></del>
59	and a natural intake of a broad range of many fish species is highly demanding (Mallen-
60	Cooper and Brand 2007; Noonan et al. 2012), but important in order to maintain natural
61	diversity and genetic variability in river systems. Norway has implemented the EU Water
62	Framework Directive, and is at the same time one of the largest producers of hydropower in
63	Europe. Hence, it is of vital importance to restore connectivity in a vast number of regulated
64	and fragmented rivers.
65	
66	Water temperature has profound effects upon the physiology and performance of
67	ectotherms (Angilletta et al. 2002), influencing respiration (Beamish 1964), growth (Jonsson

68	and L'Abée-Lund 1993), activity (Anttila et al. 2008) and reproductive output (Kavanagh et al.
69	2010). Water temperature can also serve as an ecological timer, initiating behavioral
70	reactions such as migration from one habitat to another (Jonsson and Jonsson 2009), and
71	temperature has been found to directly influence swimming capacity (Keefer et al. 2008).
72	
73	The ability to move efficiently through waterways is especially important for fish such as
74	salmonids that may migrate long distances up river to spawn (Jonsson and Jonsson 1993).
75	Brown trout (Salmo trutta, hereafter referred to as trout) and European grayling (Thymallus
76	thymallus, hereafter referred to as grayling), are cold water fishes that often use different
77	sections within a river/lake system for feeding (Godin and Rangeley 1989; McLaughlin and
78	Noakes 1998), overwintering and spawning, and seasonal movement between different
79	habitat types these localities are important for growth, survival and reproduction (Heggenes
80	and Dokk 2001; Jonsson and Jonsson 2009; Sempeski and Gaudin 1995b). Both trout and
81	grayling are salmonids, but have different life history patterns in relation to seasonal timing
82	of reproductionspawning time. The trout typically move upstream at the end of the summer
83	to spawn at the onset of winter (Elliott 1994; Klemetsen et al. 2003), and the grayling
84	typically migrate upstream in spring to deposit eggs in the gravel at the onset of summer
85	(Nykänen et al. 2001; Sempeski and Gaudin 1995a). Radiotelemetry and genetic data on
86	trout and grayling from the Norwegian rivers Glomma and Gudbrandsdalslågen illustrate
87	that both species move considerably and directionally during early spring at low water
88	temperatures (Van Leeuwen et al. 2016), and that both species use large sections of the
89	river throughout the year (Junge et al. 2014; Van Leeuwen et al. 2016).
90	
91	Both trout and grayling have relatively high swimming capacity compared to other
92	Scandinavian freshwater fishes, with indications of trout having higher better sewimming
93	capacity compared tothan grayling. Therefore, the objectives of our study were to 1) actually
94	explore differences in swimming capacity for Norwegian-trout and grayling. In addition, as
95	water temperature has profound effects upon the physiology and performance of
96	ectotherms (Angilletta et al. 2002, <del>, influencing respirat</del> Beamish 1964, <del>, g</del> Jonsson and
97	L'Abée-Lund 1993, Kavanagh et al. 2010). activi in addition to Temperature may also - serve
98	as an ecological timer, initiating behavioral reactions such as migration from one habitat to
99	another (Jonsson and Jonsson 2009), and has been found to to to the directly influence swimming
I	

100	capacity (Keefer et al. 2008) To partially or completely re-establish free migration in
101	fragmented waterways, it is important to restore the habitat or build fishways in such a way
102	that the natural fish population can actually make use of up-and downstream habitats
103	efficiently. Fish passage success at an obstacle depends both the hydraulic conditions at the
104	site, and the swimming and leaping capacity for each given species (Ovidio and Philippart
105	2002). Therefore, the objectives of our study were to 1) explore differences in swimming
106	capacity for the trout and grayling, two commonly found salmonids in the eastern part of
107	Norway, and as swimming capacity often is temperature dependent and that both grayling
108	av trout might migrate at low water temperatures, wWe therefore -also 2) tested the
109	swimming capacity for both species at three different temperatures, 1.7, 5.5 and 10°C. The
110	overall goal was to compare the species-specific swimming capacity as to contribute
111	with better understanding for of how fishways should be constructed and placed and
112	operated. in future artificial river installations. understand requirements for constructed
113	fishways
114	Materials and methods Fish collection
115	
116	Materials and methods
117	
118	Fish collection
119	The fish used in this study was wild caught <u>at Otta, Norway,</u> using traditional angling gear-at
120	Otta, Norway, see Figure 1a and 1b for the sampling location. The sampling river,
121	Gudbrandsdalslågen, typically varies in seasonal temperature in a range from about Ozero °C
122	(December) to about 14°C (August). In its lower parts, River Gudbrandsdalslågen is <del>in general</del>
123	slow-running, with stretches of rapids with broken surface and at some points also shorter
124	sections of white-water-rapids. After capture, the fish were transported to the Hunderfossen
125	fish hatchery facility in an aerated fish-tank. The fish were kept at the facility for a period of
126	one to three weeks in concrete tanks with continuously flowing, untreated, river water prior
127	to experiments. The holding tanks were approximately 1 x 3 meters, with water depth of 0.5
128	meter.
129	
130	Experimental setup and measurement of critical swimming speed, (U <sub>crit</sub> )

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131	The experiments were run at the Hunderfossen hydropower plant at three different periods
132	during late autumn and winter 2014; October $7^{th} - 13^{th}$ , November $3^{rd} - 7^{th}$ , and December
133	$1^{st} - 4^{th}$ . The water used in the experimental setup was untreated river water, from the same
134	source as for the holding tanks, where the natural water temperatures averaged 9.67±0.04
135	(referred to as 10°C), 5.39±0.06 (referred to as 5.5°C) and 1.7±0.02 (referred to as 1.7°C), at
136	the three experimental times, respectively, as the water cools from August to December.
137	
138	We used a critical swimming speed (U <sub>crit</sub> ) test to measure prolonged swimming performance
139	(Brett 1964). In this test, the water speed is increased in a stepwise manner until a fish no
140	longer can maintain its position in the current. U <sub>crit</sub> is predicted to be an ecologically relevant
141	measure of prolonged swimming capacity for fish (Plaut 2001; Lee et al. 2003). that migrate,
142	live in the open ocean or in high flowing rivers (Plaut 2001), where the performance of
143	individual fish have been found to correlate with migratory difficulties among populations of
144	salmonids
145	
146	The U <sub>crit</sub> -tests were carried out using a tube-within-tube-design respirometer (see e.g.
147	(Thorstad et al. 1997; Tierney 2011) for description of respirometer and Figure 1c for an

148 illustration. The cross-sectional diameter of the inner tube is 24 cm and the outer tube 34 149 cm. A propeller connected to an engine pulls water past the fish in the inner tube. The water 150 is then returned to the front via the space between the two tubes. Plastic mesh structures in 151 the front and back prevents the fish from escaping from the inner tube or getting in contact 152 with the propeller. The velocity of the water passing the fish is adjustable within the range

153 0.3 – 2 m/s.

154

155 Prior to the  $U_{crit}$ -test, we placed a fish in the tunnel and let it acclimate for 30 minutes at 0.3 156 m/s. The test was then carried out by increasing the water speed with 0.2 m/s for every 2 minutes. A pilot study revealed that grayling was likely to lose motivation for swimming 157 158 entirely if the velocity was adjusted too fast. Adjustment of velocity between steps was 159 therefore consistently carried out over 30 seconds in the experimental set-up. The end-point 160 of the experiment was set to the time at which the fish collapsed on the rear plastic mesh-161 structure or the point at which the fish would no longer swim but "lean on" the rear mesh. 162 When the fish leaned on the mesh the previous case, motivation was initiated after five

**Field Code Changed** 

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163 seconds. Action taken to motivate the fish for swimming included rapidly altering the water-164 velocity from last set-point to zero and back to set-point. This routine was repeated up to 165 three times in quick successions. If the fish did not respond by re-entering swimming-mode, 166 end-point was set to the time five seconds prior to motivation. After the U<sub>crit</sub>-test, the length 167 and weight of the fish was recorded before the fish was released back into the river. Each 168 fish was only used in one experiment. A plot of length and weight-mass for the fish tested at 169 different temperatures are given in Supplementary information 1.

170

171 A total of 44 trout (28.2 cm  $\pm$  0.7) and 48 grayling (33.8 cm  $\pm$  0.5) were tested for swimming capacity (mean ± standard errors), Figure 2. Across temperatures, 13, 15 and 16 trout and 172 173 15, 17 and 16 grayling were tested in the three different water temperatures, 1.7, 5.5 and 174 10°C, respectively.

175

#### 176 Data analysis and Statistical analysiss

177 We analyzed the variation in U<sub>crit</sub> utilizing linear models with species, temperature (included 178 as a factor variable), and fish length as predictor variables. We then constructed a global 179 model containing all three independent variables and their interactions. To compare and 180 weight all the nested models under the global model, we used the dredge-function in the 181 MuMIn-package (Bartoń 2017) and ranked the model based on AICc-values. We checked for 182 homogeneity of the variance and normality of the distribution of the residuals for the most 183 supported model. We also assessed the Cook distance (with a cut off value of 4/n) for each 184 point to check for particular influential individuals. Two fish individuals-were pinpointed 185 from the Cook's distance, two relativelyrather large grayling individuals that had relatively low U<sub>crit</sub> compared to other graylingss. As they were high-leverage individuals, we choose to 186 187 show predictions from the models developed from a subset of the data excluding the two 188 grayling individuals. To obtain the final coefficient estimates used in our predictions, we 189 used the model.avg-function from the MuMIn-package (Bartoń 2017), which was set to 190 model average all parameter estimates included within an AICc-weight of 90%. Predictions 191 were obtained using the "full" averaged model, which then includes a type of shrinkage 192 estimator for variables with a weak relationship to the response. All statistical analysis 193 wereas performed in R (R 2017).

194

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### 195 Results

196	We found in general, we found relatively large variations in the predicted U <sub>crit</sub> values for the	
197	fish in the experiment (Figure 3). This variation seemed to be rather stable across	
198	temperatures and species. Further, the model predicted a general positive trend of fish	
199	length on $U_{crit}$ (see parameter estimates in Supplementary Table 1), however the slope of	
200	this trend varied slightly between species. In general, our model predicted higher $U_{crit}$ for	
201	trout compared to grayling, although less obvious at the lowest temperature (1.7° C, Figure	
202	3). Trout showed <u>displayed an</u> overall increasing U <sub>crit</sub> with temperature, but with comparable	
203	U <sub>crit</sub> at 5.5° C and 10° C (Figure 3). For grayling, the model predicted a much less pronounced	
204	increase in U <sub>crit</sub> with temperature from 1.7° C to 5.5° C <u>than for<del>compared to</del> trout, while</u>	
205	there w <u>asere</u> no increase between 5.5° C and 10° C (Figure 3). Specifically, our model	
206	predicted mean U <sub>crit</sub> values of 1.42 (SD 0.26), 1.57 (SD 0.21) and 1.58 (SD 0.19) for trout, and	
207	1.38 (SD 0.26), 1.43 (SD 0.26) and 1.42 (SD 0.20) for grayling at 1.7° C, 5.5° C and 10° C,	
208	respectively.	
209		
210	Discussion	
	To partially or completely re-establish free migration in fragmented waterways, it is	
211	To partially or completely re-establish free migration in fragmented waterways, it is important to restore the habitat or build fishways in such a way that the natural fish	
211 212 213		
211 212 213	important to restore the habitat or build fishways in such a way that the natural fish	
211 212 213 214	important to restore the habitat or build fishways in such a way that the natural fish population can actually make use of up- and downstream habitats efficiently. Fish passage	
211 212 213 214 215	important to restore the habitat or build fishways in such a way that the natural fish population can actually make use of up- and downstream habitats efficiently. Fish passage success at an obstacle depends on many factors, such as the hydraulic conditions at the site,	
211 212 213 214 215 216	important to restore the habitat or build fishways in such a way that the natural fish population can actually make use of up- and downstream habitats efficiently. Fish passage success at an obstacle depends on many factors, such as the hydraulic conditions at the site, on the swimming and leaping capacity for each given species (Ovidio and Philippart 2002),	
<ul> <li>211</li> <li>212</li> <li>213</li> <li>214</li> <li>215</li> <li>216</li> <li>217</li> </ul>	important to restore the habitat or build fishways in such a way that the natural fish population can actually make use of up- and downstream habitats efficiently. Fish passage success at an obstacle depends on many factors, such as the hydraulic conditions at the site, on the swimming and leaping capacity for each given species (Ovidio and Philippart 2002), that again are related to temperature, motivation and type of species. Freshwater habitats	
211 212 213 214 215 216 217 218	important to restore the habitat or build fishways in such a way that the natural fish population can actually make use of up- and downstream habitats efficiently. Fish passage success at an obstacle depends on many factors, such as the hydraulic conditions at the site, on the swimming and leaping capacity for each given species (Ovidio and Philippart 2002), that again are related to temperature, motivation and type of species. Freshwater habitats are subjects to dramatic variability in various environmental factors, and the result of	
211 212	important to restore the habitat or build fishways in such a way that the natural fish population can actually make use of up- and downstream habitats efficiently. Fish passage success at an obstacle depends on many factors, such as the hydraulic conditions at the site, on the swimming and leaping capacity for each given species (Ovidio and Philippart 2002), that again are related to temperature, motivation and type of species. Freshwater habitats are subjects to dramatic variability in various environmental factors, and the result of environmental constrains of both natural and anthropogenic processes are becoming topics	
211 212 213 214 215 216 217 218 219	important to restore the habitat or build fishways in such a way that the natural fish population can actually make use of up- and downstream habitats efficiently. Fish passage success at an obstacle depends on many factors, such as the hydraulic conditions at the site, on the swimming and leaping capacity for each given species (Ovidio and Philippart 2002), that again are related to temperature, motivation and type of species. Freshwater habitats are subjects to dramatic variability in various environmental factors, and the result of environmental constrains of both natural and anthropogenic processes are becoming topics of concern to both the scientific community and the public at large. There is a growing need	
211 212 213 214 215 216 217 218 219 220 221	important to restore the habitat or build fishways in such a way that the natural fish population can actually make use of up- and downstream habitats efficiently. Fish passage success at an obstacle depends on many factors, such as the hydraulic conditions at the site, on the swimming and leaping capacity for each given species (Ovidio and Philippart 2002), that again are related to temperature, motivation and type of species. Freshwater habitats are subjects to dramatic variability in various environmental factors, and the result of environmental constrains of both natural and anthropogenic processes are becoming topics of concern to both the scientific community and the public at large. There is a growing need to explore how fish alter their swimming behavior in responses to physical structures and	
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2111 212 213 214 215 216 217 218 219 220 221 222 223	important to restore the habitat or build fishways in such a way that the natural fish population can actually make use of up- and downstream habitats efficiently. Fish passage success at an obstacle depends on many factors, such as the hydraulic conditions at the site, on the swimming and leaping capacity for each given species (Ovidio and Philippart 2002), that again are related to temperature, motivation and type of species. Freshwater habitats are subjects to dramatic variability in various environmental factors, and the result of environmental constrains of both natural and anthropogenic processes are becoming topics of concern to both the scientific community and the public at large. There is a growing need to explore how fish alter their swimming behavior in responses to physical structures and how they alter their migratory potential throughout the season. In this study, we found that grayling and trout had comparable swimming capacity at the lower temperature (1.7° C ), while trout showed higher swimming capacity at the two higher temperatures, at 5.5 and	

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226	temperature and species) was relatively high for both species, indicating a high level of
227	individual variation.

228

229 The result that trout performed best at the higher temperatures closer to their actual 230 spawning time in the river was expected. Previous studies have found temperatures around 231 15-16°C to be optimal for the swimming performance of other trout populations (Ojanguren 232 and Brana 2000) and salmonids in general (Lee et al. 2003). The swimming performance 233 ofresults for grayling in this study was less affected by temperature and was lower compared 234 to the trout at the two higher testing temperatures. The grayling might prefer the colder 235 part of theer water-body in winter, as an acoustic telemetric study found all tracked grayling 236 through the period of ice cover to remain within two meters of the surface and often at 237 temperatures approaching 0°C (Bass et al. 2014) instead of mostly residing in the 238 thermocline as is common for other salmonids in the early winter months (Levy et al. 1991). 239 Another fish capable of enduring cold, such as the carp, was found to plastically change the 240 surface loops isoforms of their myosin heavy chain proteins following temperature 241 acclimation, suggesting a correlation between producing alternate myosin heavy chain-242 proteins with improved swimming performance at low and high acclimation temperatures 243 (Fry and Hart 1948). It could be that grayling also has some kind of plastic "switch" in 244 relation to temperature and seasons as they were found to suddenly increase movement 245 during early spring at low temperatures (Heggenes et al. 2006; Van Leeuwen et al. 2016). 246 247 Previous studies have illustrated a positive effect of training and swimming performance in 248 lab-reared brown trout (Anttila et al. 2008). The fish used in this study were wild caught 249 from a river and kept in an aquarium with calm conditions for less than one (for the 250 experimental groups tested at 10 and 5.5°C) or up to three weeks (for experimental group 251 tested at 1.7 °C). There could therefore be that the fish tested at 1.7 °C in this study 252 performed less well compared to the two warmerhigher -temperatures as the levels of 253 receptor densities important for swimming performance likely declined over the period the 254 fish were held in aquaria, leading to earlier fatigue at the low temperatures later in the 255 season (Anttila et al. 2008). At the same time, seasonal changes also have complex 256 interactive effects on swimming activity of fishes and can affect motivation and capacity. 257 Following the decrease in temperature with time in the present study, the trout life history

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258 cues also changed from "late migratory" to "refuge". This is itself a factor that also could 259 have contributed to lower swimming performance in trout at lower temperatures, as it has 260 been shown that trout in the wild exploit more slow running water in winter compared to 261 summer, and that this switch from summer to winter activity appears when the temperature 262 drops below 8°C (Heggenes and Dokk 2001). As the timing of spawning, and hence probably 263 motivation for migration is different for the two species, it would be interesting to follow up 264 this study also in spring to get a better idea of the effects of temperature and motivation for 265 swimming.

266

267 The interaction between  $\mp$ temperature and swimming performance is complex and depends 268 on many factors (Videler 1993), and we found much variation in the swimming performance 269 for both species in the present study. Individual experience, motivation and genetic 270 background will likely play a part in overall swimming performance (Laporte et al. 2016; 271 Plaut and Gordon 1994), and repeatable individual variation has been found for several fish 272 species (Bass et al. 2014; Nelson et al. 2002). It could be that some of the variation is due to 273 individuals being partially migratory and likely more fit than individuals having a more 274 stationary lifestyle (Jonsson and Jonsson 2009). Further, this experiment was conducted in a 275 laboratory environment with constant water flow. The heterogeneities in physical structure 276 and water flow characterizing natural environments can influence swimming behavior and 277 performance (McLaughlin and Noakes 1998; Webb 1993). More propulsive movements 278 hasve been observed under field conditions relative to laboratory conditions in brook trout 279 (McLaughlin and Noakes 1998), imposing that fish probably work harder in the field to 280 maintain a given speed, indicating that the results in the present study should be viewed as 281 being higher than the swimming capacity would likely be in a natural context. 282 283 Artificially made dams create unnatural temperature shifts in the affected rivers. In Norway, 284 the dam stores water during spring floods and autumn storms, and drains water during 285 summer and winter, typically giving the river water under the dam a colder than natural 286 temperature during the summer months, and a warmer than natural temperature during 287 winter. This means that for a trout living in a regulated river below a dam, the temperature during late summer migration will be lowered by typically 5-10°C, depending on the depth of 288 the river intake to the dam and the size of the dam. The grayling is likely also affected by 289

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290	unnatural temperature variations during their spawning runs, but as the temperature
291	variation is less during winter, typically 1-3°C, the grayling is likely less affected by the
292	temperature changes. By increasing the knowledge on how swimming speed and endurance
293	differ between species, seasonal timing and temperature, the future fishways, fish passages
294	and guidance systems for fish can be improved, as can the building of dams, as for instance
295	to plan an intake of water where the temperature will be less affected downstream.
296	

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- 306

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428	steelhead trout Oncorhynchus mykiss. Journal of Experimental Biology 178: 97-108.
429	
430 431	Figure legends:
432	
433	Figure 1. a) Map of a) the location of the study area in Norway and b) the river
434	Gudbrandsdalslågen, where the capture sites (Otta) and experimental facilities
435	(Hunderfossen) are shown. c) Illustration of the respirometer. A propeller connected to an
436	engine pulls water past the fish in the inner tube before the water returns to the front via
437	the outer walls. Plastic mesh structures in the front and back of the inner tubes prevents the
438	fish both from escaping and potential injuries with the propeller. The measurements for
439	each side are also given in the figure (in cm).
440	
441	Figure 2. The overall length distribution (in cm) for grayling (light gray) and trout (dark gray)
442	in the three experimental temperature groups, showing the 25%-75% quantiles (boxes),
443	median (black horizontal line), 95% limits (bars), and outliers (open circles) for the three
444	experimental temperatures.
445	
446	
447	<b>Figure 3.</b> Predicted U <sub>crit</sub> (y-axis) as a function of temperature (°C, x-axis) for grayling (solid
448	line) and trout (stippled line). The predictions are derived from a linear model with species,
449	temperature (included as a factor variable), and length as predictor variables. Dots show the
450	mean predicted value across the full range of the lengths in the data, and error bars show
451	the standard error.
452 453	Supplementary Figure 1. Length and weight for grayling (light gray) and trout (dark gray) for
454	the three experimental temperatures, plotted in triangles (1.7°), squares (5.5° C) and circles
455	(10° C) and their regression lines.

456	
457	Supplementary Table 1. Model averaged parameter estimates, used to predict $U_{crit}$ for trout
458	and grayling.
458 459 460 461 462 463 464 465 466 467 468 469 470 471 472 473 474 475 476 477 478 479 480	and graying.