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Migratory behavior of adult Sea Lamprey and cumulative passage performance through four fishways

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1	Migratory behavior of adult Sea Lamprey and cumulative passage performance
2	through four fishways
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21 Abstract

22	This article describes a study of PIT-tagged Sea Lamprey (Petromyzon marinus)
23	ascending 4 fishways comprising 3 designs at two dams on the Connecticut River, USA.
24	Migration between dams was rapid (median migration rate = 23 km d^{-1}). Movement
25	through the fishways was much slower, however (median = $0.02 - 0.33$ km d ⁻¹). Overall
26	delay at dams was substantial (median =13.6 - 14.6 d); many fish failed to pass (percent
27	passage ranged from 29% - 55%, depending on fishway), and repeated passage attempts
28	compounded delay for both passers and failers. Cox regression revealed that fishway
29	entry rates were influenced by flow, temperature, and diel cycle, with most lampreys
30	entering at night and at elevated flows, but with no apparent effect of sex or length.
31	Overall delay was influenced by slow movement through the fishways, but repeated
32	failures were the primary factor determining delay. These data suggest that although
33	some lamprey were able to pass fishways they did so with difficulty, and delays incurred
34	as they attempted to pass may act to limit their distribution within their native range.
35	

36 INTRODUCTION

The Sea Lamprey (*Petromyzon marinus*) is a widely distributed anadromous fish that
occupies both coasts of the North Atlantic Ocean. It spawns in lotic freshwater habitat,
and in many cases access to spawning habitat is obstructed by dams. Although fishways
can provide access to habitat, the effectiveness of these structures for sea lampreys is

41	poorly studied (Noonan et al. 2012).
42	Sea lampreys are semelparous, and in their native range can be an important source
43	of marine derived nutrients into freshwater (Nislow and Kynard 2009). During spawning
44	they construct extensive redds, contributing to bed load transport and benthic
45	restructuring (Sousa et al. 2012). During their juvenile stage (typically 5-6 years) they are
46	abundant filter feeders. When these juveniles migrate to sea they can also act as an
47	important source of nutrient transport, providing forage for marine predators as they
48	convey terrestrial nutrients out of freshwater ecosystems. As they enter their marine
49	phase they become parasitic, feeding on large pelagic fishes for about 2 years, after which
50	they return to rivers to spawn and die (Beamish 1980; Larsen 1980; Riley et al. 2011).
51	These characteristics, along with their local abundance, make Sea Lampreys an important
52	part of their ecosystem wherever they occur.
53	Sea Lampreys are also opportunistic invaders and have established landlocked
54	populations in the Laurentian Great Lakes. There, the parasitic phase has been
55	problematic, causing, or at least contributing to precipitous declines in important
56	freshwater fisheries (Koonce et al. 1993).
57	Recent efforts to control Sea Lampreys in the Great Lakes have included
58	construction of dams and similar barriers (McLaughlin et al. 2007). These obstruct
59	movements of adult Sea Lampreys, preventing them from accessing spawning habitat.
60	Problematically, they also obstruct movements of native species, and any fishways that 3

61	might provide passage for natives might also be passed by lamprey, negating the purpose
62	of the dams (McLaughlin et al. 2007; 2012). This creates a conundrum: there is a need to
63	design fishways that pass native species but that invasive lamprey cannot pass.
64	In the Sea Lamprey's native range, dams have been constructed for various reasons,
65	and access to habitat has been greatly restricted (Beamish and Northcote 1989; Beamish
66	and Northcote 1989; Lucas et al. 2009). Fishways have been constructed at many dams,
67	but typically these have been designed for anadromous teleosts, and few data are
68	available that describe the effectiveness of these structures for passing Sea Lampreys.
69	Analogous data from the Pacific Coast of North America suggest that these fishways
70	may perform poorly. There, Pacific Lampreys (Entosphenus tridentatus), which serve
71	ecological functions similar to P. marinus, are unable to effectively pass fishways that
72	were originally designed to pass native salmonids. Passage performance was so poor that
73	new fishway designs were developed exclusively for Pacific lamprey (Moser et al. 2011).
74	Although preliminary results suggest these new fishways are effective at passing
75	lampreys, their deployment and maintenance is costly. For conservation purposes, it is
76	important to understand whether existing fishway designs effectively pass Sea Lampreys
77	along with other species. Conversely, if existing fishways are effective for passing native
78	species but constitute a barrier for lampreys, this might hold valuable information for Sea
79	Lamprey control in their invasive range.
80	The Connecticut River (northeastern USA; Fig. 1) supports a large spawning

81	population of native Sea Lamprey (20,000 – 50,000 adults are counted annually passing
82	the first dam at Holyoke; U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service Connecticut River Coordinator's
83	Office, pers. Comm.). These numbers have remained stable since construction of
84	fishways on the mainstem dams between 1976 and 1987 (Gephard and McMenemy 2004).
85	This consistency has been interpreted as evidence that the fishways are performing well,
86	although no formal evaluation has ever been performed (Haro and Kynard 1997).
87	A growing consensus indicates that fishway performance cannot be evaluated based
88	on numbers of fish passing, but should instead be measured in terms of rates,
89	differentiating at minimum between proportions that enter from those that pass (Bunt et
90	al. 2012; Castro-Santos et al. 2009; Noonan et al. 2012). It is also important that these
91	rates be quantified with respect to time required to pass. This is because failure is not an
92	instantaneous event, but rather a process that occurs over time (Castro-Santos and Haro
93	2003; Castro-Santos and Perry 2012), and failure to pass a fishway may be caused as
94	much by the condition and behavior of the migrants as by fishway hydraulics (Wagner et
95	al. 2012).
96	In addition to its value as a metric for quantifying passage performance at fishways,
97	the time required to pass has broader biological relevance. Migration is often a
98	time-limited process: various time-driven functions such as energetics, maturation,
99	disease and mortality risks, and even time spent migrating itself can all act to terminate
100	migration (Dingle 1996; Castro-Santos and Letcher 2010). Because of this, any time 5

102 ultimately is successful in passing the barrier. Indeed, the delay itself can cause
103 migratory termination, and so is a key metric of passage performance.
104 Here we describe a study of anadromous Sea Lamprey ascending four fishways at

spent attempting to pass a barrier constitutes migratory delay, whether or not the animal

- 105 two dams on the Connecticut River. We assessed passage performance-- quantifying both
- 106 overall percent passage and percent passage per unit time--and rates of movement, and
- 107 compared these quantities with analogous movements between dams. In addition we
- 108 tested for effects of diel patterns and of discharge, temperature, sex, and length on entry
- and passage performance. Finally, we quantified migratory delay that was incurred by
- 110 both passers and failers, and considered the implications of this delay for passage success
- 111 and species range.

112 MATERIALS AND METHODS

113 Study Area

- 114 The Connecticut River is the longest river in New England, draining 29,200 km²
- 115 from Canada to Long Island Sound (Fig. 1). Its indigenous fauna includes 10 diadromous
- 116 species of which the Sea Lamprey is among the most abundant (Gephard and
- 117 McMenemy 2004). The first three barriers on the mainstem are Holyoke Dam (rkm 135),
- the Turners Falls Dam complex (rkm 190.5–194), and Vernon Dam (rkm 227; Fig. 1,
- 119 Table 1). Passage at Holyoke is provided by dual fish lifts.
- 120 Between Holyoke and Turners Falls the river is primarily free-flowing: a natural

121	gorge caused by the Holyoke Range restricts the impoundment to the lower 3 km of this
122	reach. Flows and velocities upstream of this point are governed by hydrology and
123	upstream hydroelectric operations (Castro-Santos and Letcher 2010).
124	At Turners Falls, a 3 km long power canal separates the primary hydroelectric station
125	('Cabot Station') from the dam (Fig. 2). The fishway adjacent to this powerhouse
126	('Cabot') is the primary ascent route for anadromous species (Sullivan 2004; Haro and
127	Castro-Santos 2012; Moffitt et al. 1982; Rideout et al. 1985). Fish that ascend Cabot must
128	enter and navigate the power canal, at which point they must enter another fishway
129	('Gatehouse') via one of two entrances.
130	Parallel to the power canal is the original riverbed, or 'bypassed reach' of the river.
131	During the migratory season dam operators maintain a minimum flow in this channel of
132	11.3 $m^3 s^{-1}$. During freshets, however, discharge that exceeds the canal's capacity (>510
133	m ³ s ⁻¹) is diverted through the bypassed reach. A separate fishway ('Spillway') was
134	constructed at the dam to pass fish that ascended the bypassed reach. Spillway fishway
135	connects directly with Gatehouse fishway. This connection occurs adjacent to, and at
136	the same level as the upstream end of the power canal. The Spillway-Gatehouse
137	connection provides a direct route from the bypassed reach to the river upstream of the
138	dam, but it is also possible for fish to fall back into the power canal via the Gatehouse
139	entrance, in which case fish must re-enter Gatehouse via one of the canal entrances
140	described above. Both Cabot and Spillway fishways are modified Ice Harbor type 7

141	pool-and-weir designs; Gatehouse fishway is a double-Hell's Gate, vertical slot design,
142	capable of accommodating varying headpond and canal levels. Note that each fishway
143	has different structural and hydraulic characteristics, with Gatehouse fishway having the
144	least elevation gain of all the fishways tested (Table 1).
145	Once past Gatehouse, fish return to the open river above the dam and are able to
146	migrate unimpeded to Vernon Dam, where a single fishway provides access to the upper
147	river. Fishway design specifications are detailed in Table 1 and Fig. 2.
148	Spawning habitat is available both upstream and downstream of these three
149	barriers, with about one-third of total available habitat occurring above Vernon Dam, one
150	third between Holyoke and Vernon, and one-third below Holyoke. Active spawning
151	and recruitment is known to occur in each of these areas, although most of the best
152	quality habitat is upstream of Holyoke (Fig. 1).
153	Collection, tagging, and monitoring
154	Lampreys were collected at the Holyoke Dam fish lift (Fig. 1), fish were measured
155	(total length) to the nearest millimeter, and surgically implanted with a uniquely coded
156	23-mm glass-encapsulated HDX-PIT tag (134.2 kHz; Texas Instruments, Dallas, Texas.
157	Castro-Santos and Vono 2013). The tags were inserted through a small (0.4 cm long)
158	incision in the body cavity along the ventral midline. To minimize stress and handling
159	time, no anaesthesia was used during the tagging or handling. Once tagged, fish were
160	immediately released to the exit channel of the fish lift, with free access to the river 8

101	upstream of Holyoke Dam. Total handling time was 30 -45 s per fish. Lamprey
162	movements were monitored with pass-through HDX-PIT tag interrogation antennas
163	(Castro-Santos et al 1996). PIT antennas were installed at entrances and exits at Cabot,
164	Spillway, Gatehouse, and Vernon fishways (Fig. 1). Five additional antennas were placed
165	in the slots and channels of Gatehouse Fishway. Two antennas were installed on
166	downstream bypass structures at Holyoke Dam and adjacent to Cabot Station to identify
167	any fish that passed downstream using those routes. A PIT antenna at the release location
168	recorded the initial time each fish was released, and also monitored for any fish that fell
169	back downstream and subsequently passed. Final detection at the Holyoke fish lift
170	antenna was considered the time of entry into the study—throughout this article we refer
171	to this as 'self-release time'. All antennas were interrogated at 10 Hz using a custom-built
172	multi-reader system, with each antenna being interrogated by a separate reader, and all
173	readers at a given location interfaced to a single computer with a common clock
174	(Castro-Santos et al. 1996; Haro et al. 2004). Individual exposures to antennas were
175	identified by series of sequential reads separated by < 1 s. Each of these series was
176	considered a single 'presence' in our analyses. Detection zones for all antennas covered
177	the entire opening, to a distance of 0.5 - 1 m from the opening Monitoring began before
178	the first release and continued through the end of fishway operation (15 July).
179	River and canal discharge were monitored and recorded on 15-minute intervals.
180	Water temperature was monitored in the Turners Falls power canal and recorded hourly.

181 Data analysis

182	For each route of passage, we calculated (1) overall percent entry (% E_0 : 100 *
183	number entered/number released); (2) fishway and dam-specific percent passage (% P_D :
184	100 * number passed/number entered; and (3) overall percent passage (%P ₀ : 100 *
185	number passed/number released)).
186	The first detection of a fish at a fishway entrance represented arrival time.
187	Although it was possible for fish to be detected without having physically passed the
188	plane of a fishway entrance, the range of these antennas was small enough to assume that
189	any detected fish were either within the strongest flow of the entrance jet or attached
190	immediately adjacent to the fishway entrance. In either case, any fish that was detected
191	was effectively within the influence of the fishway, and for the purposes of this paper will
192	be considered as having entered. Travel time and speed through each reach were
193	estimated as the time of last detection at a downstream location to the time of first
194	detection at the next barrier upstream. For each reach-specific travel time, the
195	corresponding migration speed (m s ⁻¹) and relative migration speed (BL s ⁻¹ , BL= body
196	length) were calculated.
197	Effects of individual and environmental variables on entry rates into Cabot and
198	Spillway fishways were estimated using Cox's proportional hazards regression with
199	time-varying covariates. This is a theoretically-robust method for estimating event rates
200	that allows for unequal exposure to riverine conditions as well as for competing risks or 10

201	censoring, e.g. such as occurs when fish enter via alternate routes. Under this framework
202	rates are calculated as the proportion of the available population that experiences an event
203	on a given time interval; importantly, the number available decreases as fish pass by any
204	route or abandon the effort (Cox 1972; Castro-Santos and Haro 2003; Castro-Santos and
205	Perry 2012). Time to enter was measured as elapsed time between one day following
206	release at Holyoke and entry into either Cabot or Spillway fishways. The one day lag
207	constitutes a 'guarantee time', representing a theoretical minimum time required to
208	traverse the river between Holyoke and Turners falls (see Results). We used AIC to
209	select the best model(s), considering any model with $\Delta AIC < 2$ as having sufficient
210	evidence for consideration among the best models.
211	Because the antennas at the fishway entrance could only identify presence and not
212	whether fish were ascending or descending the fishway on a given detection, we used
213	interval analysis to differentiate among attempts. This approach identifies individual
214	attempts to pass each fishway by calculating lags between detections at the fishway
215	entrances (Castro-Santos 2004; Castro-Santos and Perry 2012). Ninety nine percent of the
216	intervals between presences at fishway entrances were < 1 h. However, we were unable
217	to determine with certainty whether these intervals represented fish dropping out of a
218	fishway or new entry events. To avoid overestimating the number of distinct attempts
219	to ascent the fishway, we grouped all presences at fishway entrances within 24 hours of
220	each other into single attempts, with longer intervals indicating new attempts The 24 h

221	threshold was based on the minimum time required to pass the longer fishways, and this
222	approach ensured that we did not overestimate the number of times individual fish
223	attempted to pass a given fishway.
224	Transit times through each fishway were calculated as the time elapsed between the
225	last detection at the bottom of a fishway to the last detection as a fish exited the top. By
226	using the last detection at the fishway entrance this method eliminates bias caused by
227	repeated and/or failed attempts to enter and pass the fishway. Transit times were only
228	calculated for those attempts where fish were detected at both the bottom and top of the
229	fishway.
230	Total delay at each dam and fishway was estimated as the time elapsed between first
231	detection at that barrier to the last detection anywhere at that site. Note that this method
232	overestimates actual arrival time because lampreys presumably must spend some time
233	searching before they are able to locate and enter the fishway entrance. This means that
234	the methods described here underestimate both migration rate and delay
235	Results
236	Percent Entry and Passage
237	We tagged 97 lampreys (53 female, 44 male) from May 10 – June 3, 2013 (Table 2).
238	Males were slightly shorter than females (mean \pm SD: 698 \pm 44 mm vs. 712 \pm 47 mm)
239	but this difference was not significant (t-test; $P=0.157$). After tagging, several fish fell
240	back downstream, but subsequently re-entered the Holyoke fish lifts. This can be 12

241	inferred from the time elapsed between tagging and entry into the Holyoke impoundment
242	('self-release time'): for 84 lampreys the elapsed time was $<$ 24 h (range = 0 – 22.4 h);
243	for the remaining fish the elapsed time ranged from 41.5 – 548.7 h (Fig. 3). Fallbacks
244	were assumed to have dropped over the dam crest or through the turbines because none
245	were detected on the bypass antenna. Moreover, because re-entry was probably less
246	than 100%, the actual number that fell back downstream was probably greater than what
247	we report here.
248	Fifty-three lampreys (54.6%) were detected at Turners Falls. Of these, 8 (6 at Cabot
249	and 2 at Spillway) were only detected at the upstream end of the fishways (i.e. they were
250	not detected at the bottom of either fishway). Estimates of percent entry were adjusted for
251	missed detections by dividing detections at the top by percent passage (see below).
252	There were two principal causes of missed detections: 1) brief outages of the PIT
253	systems at Cabot entry (total down-time = 3.18 d) and Spillway (total downtime = 0.52 d);
254	and 2) prolonged attachment by tagged lamprey within the detection zones of the
255	entrance antennas of Cabot and Spillway fishways when more than one tag is present
256	within the detection field of a PIT antenna it can often prevent other tags from being
257	detected (signal collision). Given the timing of the outages it is likely that most of the
258	missed detections at Cabot were caused by outages and those at Spillway by signal
259	collisions. This, combined with the fact that there was no evidence of missed detections
260	at antennas further upstream, means that available data were sufficient to estimate 13

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261	number of missed detections at the Cabot and Spillway fishway entrances. Although
262	some data were lost, overall coverage was good (98.6% of total time).
263	Percent passage (% P_D ; Table 2) was calculated only for those individuals that were
264	detected entering each fishway. At Cabot, 31 lampreys were detected at the entrance; of
265	these 12 passed (38.7%). Similarly, 29 lampreys were detected at the Spillway entrance,
266	of which 9 passed (31.0%). Taken together, 45 lampreys were detected entering either
267	Cabot or Spillway, and 21 of these passed, yielding combined passage percentage to the
268	level of the Turners Falls Canal of 46.7%. Note that this value is greater than either
269	fishway alone. This is because 15 of the 45 lampreys detected at the entrances entered
270	both fishways, and so had additional opportunities to pass. As indicated above, however,
271	8 lampreys were detected exiting the tops of the fishways that were not detected at either
272	entrance (6 in Cabot, 2 in Spillway). Including these individuals, a total of 29 lampreys
273	were detected passing one or the other of these fishways. Dividing this value by the
274	combined passage rate yields an adjusted estimate of entry into Turners Falls of 62.1
275	individuals, or 64.1% of those tagged at Holyoke. Given that several lampreys fell back
276	downstream below Holyoke after release, it is also likely that not all tagged fish
277	re-ascended the lifts. This means that actual percentage entering was even greater, and
278	64.1% is a conservative estimate.
279	Because Spillway fishway is directly connected to the Gatehouse fishway, all 11 of
280	the lampreys that passed Spillway were detected at Gatehouse. Only six of these

281	(54.5%) passed Gatehouse successfully, however. This was a similar passage proportion
282	to what was observed for Cabot passers that entered Gatehouse (17 of 18 Cabot passers
283	entered (94.4%), but only 10 passed, or 58.8% of entrants).
284	Of the 16 lampreys detected at the exit of Gatehouse fishway, 4 were detected at
285	Vernon Dam fishway antennas (25% of available lampreys, and 4% of the total, Table 2).
286	This was a significantly lower proportion than those that entered Turners Falls (Logistic
287	regression, P=0.0115). Of these 4 entrants, 2 passed Vernon fishway (50% of entrants;
288	2% of the total). There were no differences in percent entry between the sexes or by
289	length (logistic regression, P>0.1 in all cases), except for Cabot, where longer fish were
290	slightly more likely to pass (risk ratio: 1.6% mm ⁻¹ ; P = 0.059).
291	Rates of migration and entry, transit times, and delay
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301	Given a migration distance of 54.5 km, these data indicate that the actual median
302	migration speed was greater than 0.45 m s ⁻¹ or 0.63 BL s ⁻¹ (Fig. 4). Because our PIT
303	system did not detect lampreys until they actually entered a fishway and do not account
304	for time required to locate and enter it, actual travel times must have been shorter than
305	what we report here, and rates were accordingly faster. Any tortuosity to the migratory
306	path would also increase the groundspeeds required to produce these arrival times. This
307	means that migration speeds reported here are conservative, even when based only on
308	lampreys that entered Cabot.
309	The differences in time to enter Cabot and Spillway were likely the result of
310	differing rates of discovery and entry of the two fishways once fish arrived at Turners
311	Falls. To test for this while controlling for diurnal effects and effects of flow and
312	temperature (Fig. 3) we used Cox's proportional hazards regression with a guarantee time
313	set to 1 d (Castro-Santos and Haro 2003; Hosmer and Lemeshow 1999). This was
314	slightly less than the minimum observed transit time (1.02 d). Applying a guarantee time
315	removes some bias caused by variation in travel time, while still allowing for least-biased
316	estimation of covariate effects on the actual rate of entry into each fishway from the pool
317	of available fish.
318	This approach confirmed the difference in entry rates: accounting for other effects
319	lampreys entered Cabot more than twice as quickly $(exp(0.697)=2.01-fold)$ as they did
320	Spillway (Cox's proportional hazards regression with time-varying covariates, Table 3).

321	There was a strong diel pattern, with most entries (64%) occurring at night at both
322	fishways. This effect was strongest at Cabot, where entry rates were $exp(3.195)$, or
323	24.4-times greater during the night than during the day. Discharge was also important
324	and positively correlated with entry rate at both fishways. For lampreys that first entered
325	Cabot, increased discharge appeared to have the greatest effect during the day (Table 3:
326	exp(0.734), meaning entry rate increased by 2.1-fold per 100 m ³ s ⁻¹ flow increase). Bypass
327	flows dominated movement of lampreys that first entered at Spillway, increasing entry
328	rate by 11.6-fold per 100 m^3s^{-1} . Both these results indicate that increased flows had a
329	strong influence on orientation, improving attraction to both fishway entrances; with
330	bypass flows being particularly important for attracting lamprey to Spillway fishway
331	(Table 3 and Fig. 3).
332	One important caveat here is that no lamprey entered during high-flow events (Fig.
333	3). Owing to the rapid migration and entry rates, very few fish were available to enter
334	during these freshets (Holyoke fish lift was closed during periods when flows exceeded
335	857 $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$). We point this out because although the data here suggest that elevated flow

- 336 stimulated fishway entry, this was based primarily on observations of fish exposed to
- only low to moderate flows, and there are insufficient data with which to evaluate effects
- 338 of the full range of flows on fishway entry.
- 339 Importantly, temperature was inversely correlated with flow (Fig. 2; described by
- regression: TempC= 19.6 $0.0043 * Q_{Tot}$, R-square = 0.47, N=89 day/night intervals;

341	P<0.001; TempC=temperature (°C); Q _{Tot} =total river discharge). Given the relatively
342	steady temperatures during the 2013 spring migration, coupled with a negative effect on
343	entry rate (Table 3), it is possible that the observed response includes some confounding
344	effects between temperature and discharge. This does not appear to be the case, however:
345	the positive effect of flow on the model remained even when temperature was removed.
346	Taken together these data strongly suggest that discharge was an important factor in
347	motivation and/or orientation.
348	As mentioned above, 17 of the 18 Cabot passers entered Gatehouse, and transit time
349	through the canal was rapid (median time to enter Gatehouse: 0.703 d). Although this is a
350	shorter time than from Holyoke to Turners Falls, the distance is also much less (3.3 km),
351	meaning that migration velocity was reduced relative to the open river (.054 m s ⁻¹ or
352	0.077 BL s ⁻¹). Again, however, it is not possible to distinguish migration rate from time
353	required to find and enter the fishways. For those lampreys that did enter Gatehouse
354	from the Canal entry was again largely nocturnal, with 76% entering at night (Table 3).
355	In contrast to the arrival timing to Cabot and Spillway, rates of entry into Gatehouse were
356	reduced at elevated discharge, an effect that was strongest at night (Table 3). The effect
357	of temperature was also opposite to its effect on arrival timing, with entry rate increasing
358	with temperature (Table 3). The canal passage data occurred over a much more
359	constrained time period, however (13 of 17 entry events occurred between 18-23 May),
360	and it is possible that unequal exposure to environmental conditions influenced the model 18

361	results.
501	results.

362	Transit times from Turners Falls to Vernon ranged from 2.7 d – 18.6 d, but with
363	only 4 lampreys entering Vernon it was not possible to make meaningful comparisons
364	with the Holyoke-Turners Falls reach.
365	Rates of movement through the fishways were much slower than through the
366	open-river and canal reaches (Fig. 5). Median transit times varied among fishways
367	(Cabot: 18.3 h; Spillway: 8.2 h; Gatehouse: 0.9 h). The two lampreys that passed
368	Vernon exhibited similar rates of movement through that fishway (mean = 7.9 h). The
369	apparent difference among passage time can largely be explained by differences in
370	fishway length (Table 1), although movement rate through Cabot (0.40 cm s ⁻¹ or 0.0057
371	BL s ⁻¹) does appear to have been slightly slower than through Spillway (0.61 cm s ⁻¹ or
372	0.0086 BL s ⁻¹ (Kruskal-Wallis P = 0.0826)). Movement through Gatehouse was much
373	more rapid than through the other fishways (3.26 cm s ⁻¹ or 0.0462 BL s ⁻¹ (P = 0.0056)),
374	but was still an order of magnitude slower than through the open-river reach. One
375	consequence of this rate of movement through the fishways is that most (26 of 40, or
376	65%) passage events occurred during daylight hours, despite lampreys having entered
377	mostly at night.
378	While transit times describe the maximum rate of movement through each fishway,
379	this metric fails to capture the total delay incurred as fish often made repeated failed
380	attempts to pass (Figs. 5 and 6). Fish staged more attempts through Gatehouse

381	(average=6.6 attempts) than through Cabot (average=1.8 attempts) or Spillway
382	(average=2.9 attempts; $P < 0.0001$), although the value for Cabot is probably biased low
383	owing to the antenna outage there. On average passers staged 55% more attempts than
384	failers, but this difference was significant only at Spillway (Kruskall-Wallis test, P
385	=0.0024; Cabot: P =0.1115; Gatehouse: P =0.2143). If failed attempts were included
386	in $%P_D$ actual success rate would be seen to be much lower than reported above,
387	particularly for Gatehouse.
388	The location of failures was not clear for Cabot and Spillway fishways because
389	antennas were only present at the entrance. For Gatehouse, however, a more extensive
390	array monitored movement through the fishway-there, all but one failed attempt ended
391	with fish making no progress past the fishway entrance. A similar pattern was observed
392	at Vernon. Furthermore, 99% of presences at all fishway entrances were separated
393	intervals by less than one hour, suggesting that failed passage was largely associated with
394	rapid rejection of fishways near the entrances.
395	The combined effects of transit times and repeated failures meant that total delay
396	incurred at each fishway was extensive (Fig.s 5 and 6). Patterns differed by fishway,
397	with passers experiencing the greatest delays at Cabot (mean = 8.3 days) and Gatehouse
398	(mean = 8.0 d); Spillway passers had a mean delay of 4.1 d . Fish that failed to pass
399	experienced similar delays at Gatehouse (mean =8.3 d), but reduced delays at Cabot
400	(mean = 2.8 d) and increased delays at Spillway (mean = 5.9 d). Maximum delay ranged 20

401	from 19.4 d (Spillway) to 26.2 d (Cabot; Fig. 6).
402	These delays accumulated as fish ascended sequential fishways. Mean total delay
403	of lampreys that passed Turners Falls was 12.1 d (N=11; range = $0.5 - 22.0$ d), which
404	was similar to the delay of lampreys that failed to pass (N=35; mean = 10.5 d, range = 0 -
405	29.8 d; Kruskal-Wallace $P > 0.4$). For the four fish that arrived at Vernon mean delay
406	was 9.9 d (passers: 0.2 – 29.1 d; failers: 3.6 – 6.8 d; Fig. 5).
407	The effect of these delays on migratory range are evident from the competing rates of
408	passage and failure at Turners Falls, where failure rates exceeded passage rates
409	throughout their residence time (Fig. 6). Both rates began to increase after about a week
410	of effort, with failure rate increasing more rapidly than passage rate. This implies that
411	overall likelihood of passage continued to increase for lampreys that were retained within
412	the system. It also indicates, however, that the competing probability of failure also
413	increases, and is direct evidence that the incurred delays act to limit migratory range.
414	The fact that the curves in Fig. 6b are nearly parallel is also important—it explains why
415	we do not necessarily expect percent failure to increase with increased delay. The two
416	rates are independent and change with the passage of time, but when they are parallel as
417	occurred here, we expect the overall proportion passing and failing to remain similar,
418	regardless of the duration of effort.

419 **DISCUSSION**

420 Our results indicate that more than half of the lampreys tagged at Holyoke Dam

421	successfully traversed 54.5 km of river and entered the Turners Falls Complex. This is
422	similar to what has been observed for Pacific lamprey: Studies performed at the
423	Bonneville and McNary dams on the Columbia River detected 67% and 61% entry,
424	respectively (Johnson et al. 2012; Keefer et al. 2013a; 2013b). There, however,
425	lampreys were released just 3 km (Bonneville) and 1 km (McNary) downstream of the
426	dams, with minimal spawning habitat between the release sites and the fishways (Keefer
427	et al. 2013a).
428	In our study, most lampreys bypassed extensive spawning habitat, both in the
429	mainstem and in several 2 nd -5 th order tributaries between Holyoke and Turners Falls.
430	Given the short transit times, movements must have been both rapid and highly directed.
431	Sea Lampreys are known to respond to pheromones, and presence of ammocoetes is
432	thought to be an important cue driving motivation and orientation (Vrieze et al. 2010;
433	2011). Those cues are available in the habitat below Turners Falls: based on fishway
434	counts, the long-term average proportion of Holyoke-lifted lampreys that pass Turners
435	Falls is 23.9% (SD= 21.4%; U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service Connecticut River
436	Coordinator's Office, pers. Comm), leaving 76.1% to spawn between Holyoke and
437	Turners Falls. Given that there is ample habitat and more reproduction it is likely that
438	there are more juveniles present in this reach of river. The fact that $>60\%$ of lamprey
439	bypassed these cues and entered Turners Falls indicates that other factors, such as
440	discharge and other hydraulic cues are probably more important. It is also possible that 22

441	lampreys possess an innate trigger that causes them to attempt to maximize distance.
442	Such triggers are common among migratory animals (Dingle 1996), and may act as a
443	mechanism for distributing spawning effort across as much habitat as possible. This
444	phenomenon may well be present among lampreys, which are not philopatric (Waldman
445	et al. 2008)—it may also play an important role in their ability to colonize and invade
446	new habitat (Hogg et al. 2013).
447	Only 4% of tagged lamprey entered the fishways at Vernon (25% of those that
448	passed Turners Falls), which was a significant decrease compared with the
449	Holyoke-Turners Falls reach, despite the fact that the distance between Turners Falls and
450	Vernon was only half that of the lower reach. It is worth noting that although the sample
451	size was small, the proportion of lampreys that passed Turners Falls that also passed
452	Vernon (12.5%) was consistent with fishway counts data from those dams (14.7% from
453	2011-2015). Similar attrition was observed on the Columbia River, where passage of
454	Pacific lamprey at 3 sequential dams was about 50% each, but dropped to 25% each at
455	the fourth and fifth dams (Keefer et al. 2009a). There is abundant spawning habitat
456	between Turners Falls and Vernon (although less than was present between Holyoke and
457	Turners Falls) and it is likely that lampreys terminated their migration in this reach in
458	order to spawn. It is also possible, however, that the reduction in entry at Vernon was
459	caused by poor guidance to or attraction into the fishway there. Because of the
460	limitations of PIT technology we are unable to distinguish among possible fates and 23

461	further work will be required to resolve this ambiguity. Nevertheless, the extensive
462	delays, attrition, and timing of failure at the Turners Falls fishways, coupled with low
463	entry rates at Vernon suggest that passage at Vernon is likely being at least partially
464	constrained by migratory delays downstream.
465	Taken together, the rapid movement and high entry rates at Turners Falls fishways
466	suggest that the capture and handling techniques must have had negligible effect on
467	condition or motivation of the fish. Mesa et al. (2003) found that tagged lamprey had
468	reduced swimming performance compared with untagged lamprey. They used larger
469	tags and more invasive surgery, however, and our results, while not as comprehensive, do
470	confirm that PIT telemetry is an appropriate technique for monitoring migration and
471	passage performance of this species (Keefer et al. 2009b).
472	The rapid movement between Holyoke and Turners Falls suggests that lamprey may
473	seek to optimize cost of transport (Trump and Leggett 1980; Ware 1975; Ware 1978).
474	The rates we observed (0.63 BL s ⁻¹) were slightly greater than has been observed
475	elsewhere (0.43-0.55 BL s ⁻¹ ; Andrade et al. 2007; Almeida et al. 2002)). It is also greater
476	than what has been reported for many anadromous migrants (Bernatchez and Dodson
477	1987). Importantly, however, Bernatchez and Dodson (1987) based much of their
478	analyses on mark-recapture data, which can greatly underestimate travel times. Even so,
479	our study also underestimates travel time because PIT telemetry fails to account for time
480	required to find and enter fishways. Here again, radio- or acoustic telemetry studies 24

481	could help improve accuracy of actual migration speeds, which will help improve
482	understanding of migratory energetics.
483	Energetics may be particularly important in the context of fishway performance.
484	Lampreys were significantly delayed by reduced rates of movement through the fishways,
485	but the repeated failed passage attempts and associated overall delay more than doubled
486	the time required to pass each dam. Given that time to pass and time to fail were similar
487	it seems likely that energetic costs of migratory delay were as important as physiological
488	capacity in determining whether or not an individual that encountered a fishway
489	ultimately passed it. Similar processes have been proposed for other species
490	(Castro-Santos and Letcher 2010; Rand and Hinch 1998; Caudill et al. 2007). This is
491	consistent with recommendations that passage performance be measured in units of time
492	and rates of movement rather than just numbers or percentages (Castro-Santos et al. 2009;
493	Castro-Santos and Letcher 2010; Castro-Santos and Perry 2012).
494	The cause of the repeated failures, followed by eventual passage remain unclear. It
495	did appear that failure was concentrated at or near the fishway entrances, suggesting that
496	the transition between the open river environment and the highly artificial environment of
497	the fishways may itself have posed an impediment to passage. Previous studies have
498	shown that lampreys undergo repeated ascent and descents wihin fishways and often have
499	difficulty passing individual weirs (Haro and Kynard 1997; Keefer et al. 2013b). Weir
500	geometry has been shown to be problematic for Pacific Lamprey (Keefer et al. 2010), and 25

501	it may be that similar issues acted to limit passage in this study.
502	The rates-based approach also helps explain the observed benefit of the second
503	fishway at Turners Falls. Not only did the Spillway fishway offer an additional passage
504	route for lamprey that bypassed the first fishway at Cabot, repeated attempts and

505 movement between the fishways meant that overall probability of passage increased as a

506 result (Castro-Santos 2004).

507 In this study we have differentiated between overall delay and transit time. This

508 differs with some earlier studies (e.g. Moser et al. 2002; Pratt et al. 2009) that have

509 calculated transit time as the time between first detection at a dam and passage

510 (equivalent to our delay metric). The striking differences between transit times and

511 delays described here highlight the importance of using both metrics, with transit times

512 describing performance within the fishways, and delays incorporating rates of entry and

513 re-entry as well as passage. Segregating these processes has important implications for

514 our understanding of fishway effectiveness and for optimizing design solutions for

515 facilitating passage.

516 This study has shown that existing structures pose a substantial impediment to 517 passage of Sea Lamprey on the Connecticut River. Given that the fishway designs 518 described here are in widespread use (Clay 1995) it is likely that similar issues exist

519 elsewhere. The reduced migratory rates experienced near dams contrasts dramatically

with what was observed in the open river, and the collective evidence suggests that the 520

521	delays incurred may be as important as fishway hydraulics in limiting the range of this
522	species (Wagner et al. 2012). This has important implications, not only for improving
523	conservation and passage of lampreys, but also for control measures in their native range.
524	If barriers or fishways can be developed that allow for expedited passage of native
525	species, but that impose delays to lampreys, then migratory range and access to habitat
526	can be restricted without necessarily resorting to trapping and sorting (McLaughlin et al.
527	2013; McLaughlin et al. 2007).
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536	Center Animal Care Guidelines under IACUC #09069.

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703	Table 1: Fishway design specifications. Cabot, Spillway, and Vernon fishways are all
704	modified Ice Harbor designs; Gatehouse is a Hells Gate double vertical slot design (Clay
705	1995). Volume and Energy Dissipation Factor (EDF) are calculated per pool, following
706	Towler et al. 2015.

	Cabot	Spillway	Gatehouse	Vernon
River km	190	194.5	195	227.5
Length (m)	263.7	179.8	70.1 ¹	204.2
Height (m)	20.1	10.7	0.30-2.13	8.8
Active pools				
Number	67	35	8	43
Volume (m ³)	27.11	16.76	54.9-110.2	26.04
EDF (W m ⁻³)	113.85	105.28	21.5-263.3	120.57
Resting pools				
Number	6	3	0	3
Volume (m ³)	76.8	42.7		62.5
EDF (W m ⁻³)	40.2	41.32		50.21
Slope	1:10	1:10	1:18	1:10 to 1:25

⁷⁰⁷

1. This dimension is from the left-bank entrance; including the right-bank entrance

and the Spillway exit the mean length of the entire fishway is 82.6 m

- 711 **Table 2**. Number of fish released and detected at each fishway, grouped by release.
- 712 Numbers represent detections anywhere in each fishway, including those that were only
- 713 detected at the exits. TL is mean total length \pm 1 SD; 'Combined' refers to the combined
- entry of both Cabot and Spillway fishways, and includes 15 fish that entered both.
- Percent passage are presented as % (95% CI), where the CI is calculated from the
- 716 binomial distribution.



			Detected (N)				
				Turners Falls complex			
Release	N	TL	Cabot	Spillway	Combined	Gatehouse	Vernon
10 May	18	709±29	8	6	10	4	
17 May	51	705±53	24	16	33	19	3
3 June	28	706±43	5	9	10	7	1
Total	97	706±46	37 ¹	31 ¹	53 ¹	28	4
Percent	Percent Entry ²		47.9%	36.5%	64.1%	28.9%	4.1%
(%E ₀)			(38.2-57.8)	(27.6-46.4)	(54.6-73.4)	(21.1-38.9)	(1.7-10.2)
Number Passed Percent Passage (%P _D) Cumulative Passage		18 ¹	111	29 ¹	16	2	
		38.7%	31.0%	46.7%	57.1%	50.0%	
		(24.6-57.8)	(18.0-50.8)	(33.8-62.1)	(40.6-75.5)	(19.5-93.2)	
		18.6%	11.3%	29.9%	16.5%	2.1%	
(%P ₀)			(12.3-27.7)	(6.6-19.3)	(22.0-40.0)	(10.6-25.4)	(0.7-12.2)
1. 8 individuals were detected at the fishway exits but not the entrances: 6 at Cabot							
and 2 at Spillway. Also, 15 fish were detected entering both fishways; the total							
number of fish detected entering Cabot and/or Spillway was 45.							
2. Values for Cabot, Spillway, and Turners Falls Combined are adjusted for missed				r missed			
detections at Ca			abot and Spillway entrances (see text for details).				

723	Table 3 . Effect of environmental variables on entry rates at the Turners Falls
724	fishway complex. Data are AIC best-fit proportional hazards models and describe effect
725	on ln(entry rate). Effect of discharge (Q) is presented per $10^2 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for total river flow
726	(Q_{Tot}) , discharge through Cabot Station (Q_{Cabot}) , and discharge through the bypassed
727	reach (Q_{Bypass}). Day/Night is coded Day (1) and Night (0). Canal models describe
728	rates of entry into Gatehouse fishway of fish that passed Cabot Fishway and ascended the
729	canal. For these models, Q_{tot} and Q_{Cabot} terms both refer to total discharge within the
730	canal only. Coefficients not included in best models are indicated by ''. 'Events'
731	indicates entry events; 'Censored' observations occurred whenever a time-varying
732	covariate changed for a given fish.



_					
	Parameter	Turners Falls	Cabot	Spillway	Canal
3 -	Fishway (Cabot)	0.697 ± 0.355			
4		P = 0.0497			
5	Day/Night	-0.869 <u>+</u> 0.369	-3.195 <u>+</u> 1.271		-4.8707 <u>+</u> 1.9914
~		P = 0.0022	P = 0.0120		P = 0.0137
6	Q _{Tot}	0.626 ± 0.174			-0.0748 <u>+</u> 0.0353
7		P = 0.0022			P = 0.0342
8	Q _{Cabot} *Day/Night ¹		0.734 <u>+</u> 0.371		0.0919 ± 0.0509
			P = 0.0478		P = 0.0712
)	Q _{Bypass}		9/4	2.455 <u>+</u> 0.681	
)				P = 0.0003	
1	Temp (°C)	-0.355 <u>+</u> 0.173			0.828 ± 0.325
		P = 0.0405			P = 0.0109
2	Nevents	45	31	14	17
\$	Ncensored	220	234	251	51



745

746 Fig. 1. Map of the Connecticut River watershed, showing the three lower mainstem

747 dams (Holyoke: □;Turners Falls: ^O; and Vernon Dam:�). Dark blue lines indicate

748 current range of Sea Lamprey within the basin.





750 **Fig 2.** Map of Turners Falls reach of the Connecticut River showing hydropower canal



- 752 in Insets A & B. White arrows indicate direction of river flow. (A) Plan view of Cabot
- fishway and downstream bypass channel; (B) Plan view of Gatehouse and Spillway
- 754 fishways--note multiple fishway entrance locations; Black circles indicate locations of
- 755 PIT antennas; (C) Plan view of Vernon fishway (Fig. 1; not shown on map to left).



Fig. 3. The distribution of self-release times ('river entry; panel A), arrival time at



- and discharge and water temperature during the monitoring period (Panel D). Discharge
- 761 is presented as total discharge at Turners Falls (dots) and bypassed reach discharge
- 762 (triangles); temperature is represented by a dashed line.
- 763





Fig. 4. The travel time (in days; •) and migration rate of lampreys (in m s⁻¹ (\blacktriangle) and BL

767 $s^{-1}(\circ)$) by river reach. Dams are Holyoke (HK), Turners Falls (TF), and Vernon (VN);

768 Fishways are Cabot (CB), Spillway (SP), Gatehouse (GH) and Vernon (VN). Data are

presented as median (point), interquartile range (box) and 5th-95th percentile range

770 (whiskers). Points for GH-VN and HL-VN reach represent individual fish.

771

765





Fig. 5. The transit time and delay (d) of lampreys at each fishway (Cabot (CB), Spillway (SP), Gatehouse (GH)) and combined data for Turners Falls (TF). Data are presented as transit time (\circ , left axis), and overall delay (right axis) of fish that passed (\triangle) or failed

776 (x).

777



781	Fig. 6. Time to pass (blue curves and points) vs. time to fail (red curves and points) for
782	lampreys attempting to pass Turners Falls Fishways. (A) Upper panel are Kaplan-Meier
783	curves (KM) for failure and their complement $(1 - KM)$ for passage (solid lines) and their
784	95% confidence intervals (dotted lines). Each curve describes the expected cumulative
785	passage or failure probability, based on all the fish remaining in the system until a given
786	event time. Observations are censored with respect to passage at the last detection for a
787	fish that failed to pass (red triangles), and are censored with respect to failure at passage
788	time (blue triangles). (B) Lower panel are smoothed hazard functions for the same data,
789	showing the change in passage and failure rates over time. Hazard smooths are restricted
790	to the first 20 d.
791	