

1 **Tracking anadromous fish over successive freshwater migrations reveals the influence**  
2 **of tagging effect, previous success and abiotic factors on upstream passage over barriers**

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16

17 **Abstract**

18 Predicting and mitigating the impact of anthropogenic barriers on migratory fish requires an  
19 understanding of the individual and environmental factors that influence barrier passage.

20 Here, the upstream spawning migrations of iteroparous twaite shad *Alosa fallax* were  
21 investigated over three successive spawning migrations in a highly fragmented river basin  
22 using passive acoustic telemetry ( $n=184$ ). More fish approached and passed barriers in the  
23 lower river reaches than further upstream, with the median cumulative weir passage time  
24 (IQR) of 4.6 (1.8 - 9.2) days representing 18% of their time in river. Returning fish in their  
25 second year had significantly higher weir passage rates than in their tagging year, with  
26 passage rates also positively influenced by previous passage success. Higher water  
27 temperature and river level also had positive impacts on passage rates. Lower weir passage  
28 rates by newly tagged individuals suggests that reliance on within-year passage estimates in  
29 telemetry-based barrier impact assessments could result in conservative results, while higher  
30 passage rates of previously successful versus unsuccessful individuals suggests a conserved  
31 motivation and/or inherent ability to pass barriers.

32

33 **Keywords**

34 Telemetry; Migration; Dams; Fishes; Anadromous species

## 35 **Introduction**

36

37 There are few rivers that now remain free-flowing along their entire length, particularly in  
38 developed regions (Jones et al. 2019; Belletti et al. 2020). Anthropogenic fragmentation of  
39 riverine ecosystems occurs primarily through river-regulation structures, such as dams and  
40 weirs, which are constructed for a variety of purposes, including power generation and  
41 navigation (Grill et al. 2019). A major ecological impact of river fragmentation is its  
42 disruption to diadromous fish migrations (Hall et al. 2011; Birnie-Gauvin et al. 2017), which  
43 has contributed to their population declines in recent decades (Limburg & Waldman, 2009).  
44 These structures act as physical impediments that prevent or delay access of migrating adults  
45 to optimal spawning habitat (Lundqvist et al. 2008; Castro-Santos et al. 2017; Newton et al.  
46 2018), and migration delays incurred at barriers can increase predation risk and have negative  
47 energetic consequences, especially when there are multiple passage attempts (Castro-Santos  
48 & Letcher, 2010; Nyqvist et al. 2017). Moreover, where rivers contain multiple barriers, the  
49 effects of sequential barriers can be cumulative (Keefer et al. 2013; Castro-Santos et al. 2017;  
50 Davies et al. 2021).

51

52 Barriers to migrating anadromous fish are often semi-permeable, with passage achieved by  
53 only a proportion of the upstream or downstream migrants and/or the migrating fish being  
54 delayed until conditions enable successful passage (Nyqvist et al. 2017; Newton et al. 2018).  
55 As migration and thus barrier passage are time-limited processes, analyses within telemetry  
56 studies often adopt a rates-based approach that enable assessments of the impacts of time-  
57 varying and time-constant covariates on passage rates (Castro-Santos & Haro, 2003). These  
58 studies have revealed that environmental factors, such as river discharge and water  
59 temperature, significantly affect barrier passage rates (Nyqvist et al. 2017; Harbicht et al.

60 2018). Individual factors, such as body size, shape and condition, can also affect the barrier  
61 passage rates of individuals (Keefer et al. 2009; Nau et al. 2017; Goerig et al. 2020).

62

63 Iteroparous anadromous fishes that spawn multiple times in their natal river will potentially  
64 encounter the same barriers on multiple occasions, although the effect of these previous  
65 barrier encounters on passage is poorly understood (Nau et al. 2017). Assessments of passage  
66 by the same individuals at the same barriers in different years should thus increase our  
67 understanding of how interactions of individual and environmental factors influence passage  
68 success (Pess et al. 2014). These assessments could also indicate whether potential biases are  
69 incurred in data that are reliant on only newly tagged fish, through comparing passage rates  
70 between their year of tagging and their subsequent return (Nau et al. 2017). An example of  
71 iteroparous anadromous fish suitable for generating data on their successive annual  
72 migrations is the twaite shad *Alosa fallax*, which is distributed across the north-east Atlantic  
73 and Mediterranean (Arahamian et al. 2003a). Recent declines and extirpations of their  
74 populations in European rivers have been attributed to pollution, overfishing and  
75 anthropogenic structures that act as barriers to their upstream spawning migration (de Groot,  
76 1990; Arahamian et al. 2003a; Antognazza et al. 2019). In their northern range, they are  
77 highly iteroparous, with previous spawners often representing over 50 % of all migrants  
78 (Arahamian et al. 2003b). Although sensitive to handling and sedation, recent advances in  
79 surgical tagging protocols have enabled internal transmitter implantation (Bolland et al.  
80 2019), enabling assessment of successive spawning migrations by the same individual  
81 (Davies et al. 2020).

82

83 Here, the freshwater spawning migration of twaite shad were assessed over multiple years to  
84 test how individual and environmental factors influenced anthropogenic barrier passage in the

85 lower River Severn basin, UK. The use of long-life acoustic tags enabled individuals to be  
86 tracked in up to three successive annual spawning migrations. The primary objectives of the  
87 study were thus as follows: 1) estimate the impacts of anthropogenic barriers on twaite shad  
88 upstream migrations, including the proportion of upstream migrants passing each barrier and  
89 the migratory delay incurred by individuals during barrier passage; 2) determine the upstream  
90 extent of twaite shad spawning migrations within the basin relative to anthropogenic barriers  
91 and major tributaries, and the factors influencing the likelihood of approach to barriers; and  
92 3) determine the individual and environmental factors influencing barrier passage rates by  
93 twaite shad, including comparisons of passage rates of newly tagged versus returning  
94 individuals, and previously successful versus unsuccessful individuals.

95

## 96 **Methods**

97

### 98 *Study duration and area*

99 The study assessed the upstream spawning migrations of twaite shad in the River Severn  
100 basin in 2018, 2019 and 2020, which tend to commence in April and conclude in June  
101 (Antognazza et al. 2019). The Severn is the longest river in Great Britain, rising in mid-Wales  
102 and flowing for 354 km before discharging into the Bristol Channel, and has a drainage area  
103 of 11420 km<sup>2</sup> (Durand et al. 2014). The study area in the lower river basin includes  
104 confluences with two major tributaries, the River Teme and River Avon, and eight major  
105 weirs (four on the main river channel, and two on each of the lower reaches of the River  
106 Teme (T1, T2) and River Avon (A1, A2)) (Figure 1, Table 1). The normal tidal limit is at  
107 Maisemore (S1a) and Llanthony weirs (S1b) on the western and eastern branches of the river,  
108 respectively (Figure 1), although large spring tides can penetrate the river up to Upper Lode  
109 Weir (S2). Between the spawning migrations of 2018 and 2019, two weirs on the River Teme

110 (Figure 1) were modified to remediate fish passage. T1 was lowered, and a rock ramp  
111 installed to reduce the approach gradient at T2. With the exception of S2, which featured a  
112 notch and Larinier fish pass, there were no fish-passage structures on study weirs in the rivers  
113 Severn or Avon during the study period (Table 1). Passage of weirs without fish passage  
114 structures could thus only be achieved through ascent of the weir face, or during periods  
115 when weirs were inundated by high flows (all weirs) or high tides (S1a, S1b, S2).  
116 Environmental data (15-minute intervals) were obtained from Environment Agency  
117 (England) gauging stations at Saxon's Lode (temperature, approximately 3 km upstream of  
118 S2), Ashleworth (river level, approximately 10 km downstream of S2), and T2 (discharge and  
119 temperature) (Figure 1).

120

#### 121 *Fish capture, tagging and release*

122 At the start of their migration season in early-mid May 2018 and 2019, upstream-migrating  
123 adult twaite shad (referred to as 'shad' in methods and results) were captured by rod-and-line  
124 angling immediately downstream of S1a and S2. In addition, shad were captured at S2 using  
125 a trap positioned at the upstream exit of the 'notch' fish pass. Following their anaesthesia  
126 (Ethyl 3-aminobenzoate methanesulfonate: MS-222), all fish were weighed (nearest 10g),  
127 measured (fork length, nearest mm) and approximately three scales were removed for  
128 analysis of spawning history. These scales were analysed subsequently to determine their  
129 number of spawning-marks (and so their migration history) using a projecting microscope  
130 (x48 magnification) (Baglinière et al. 2001). Following the collection of their biometric data,  
131 the shad were surgically tagged with 69 kHz, V9 acoustic transmitters ([www.innovasea.com](http://www.innovasea.com)),  
132 using the tagging protocol of Bolland et al. (2019), and following ethical review and  
133 according to UK Home Office project licence PD6C17B56. A total of 184 shad were tagged  
134 over the two years (Table 2, Figure S1), of which 173 were tagged with programmed long-

135 life acoustic transmitters. At the end of June, these transmitters were programmed to switch  
136 from a randomized 60-second pulse interval (minimum interval between acoustic pulses 30  
137 seconds, maximum interval 90 seconds) to a 600-second pulse interval until April the  
138 following year, when they were programmed to switch back to their randomized 60-second  
139 pulse interval. This programming was to increase the battery life of the transmitters to  
140 approximately three years, potentially enabling the tracking of three consecutive spawning  
141 migrations of tagged individuals. Non-programmed transmitters (11 shad) featured an  
142 identical initial pulse interval but did not switch to a 600-second interval, so tracking of these  
143 fish was possible in one migration only.

144

145 At S1a, all tagged shad were captured downstream of the weir and released upstream of the  
146 weir (Figure 1) in order to quantify approach and passage at the next weir (S2) (Table 2). At  
147 S2, the majority of tagged shad caught downstream or in the upstream trap were released  
148 upstream of the weir ( $n = 96$ ) to study the extent of their onward migration and the impact of  
149 the subsequent weirs in the rivers Severn, Teme and Avon. A small proportion of tagged shad  
150 caught by rod and line ( $n = 10$ ) and in the trap ( $n = 8$ ) were also released downstream of S2  
151 in 2018 in order to increase the sample size of fish used to assess passage at this weir.

152

### 153 *Acoustic array*

154 Prior to the commencement of each spawning migration period, an array of acoustic receivers  
155 (VR2-W and VR2-Tx, [www.innovasea.com](http://www.innovasea.com)) was installed throughout the study area (Table  
156 1; Figure 1). The furthest downstream receiver in the array (51.8347, -2.2901; Figure 1) was  
157 located in the estuary, 8 km downstream of the tidal limit, at the approximate summer limit of  
158 saltwater intrusion into the river (Bassindale, 1943). Receivers were deployed upstream and  
159 downstream of each weir and in unobstructed reaches between weirs (Table 1; Figure 1).

160 Although no shad were tagged in 2020 due to Covid-19 restrictions, the receiver array was  
161 installed to enable tracking of returning fish tagged in previous years. Receivers were  
162 anchored on steel fencing pins driven into the riverbed. In the River Teme, which featured  
163 sections of fast-flowing riffle, receivers were deployed in slower-flowing pools to maximise  
164 detection distance. In each tracking year, data were downloaded from receivers  
165 approximately every two weeks. Most receivers were removed after a two-week period with  
166 no further movements were detected within the array since the previous download. The most  
167 downstream receiver remained in place to account for any individuals which emigrated after  
168 receiver removal, but this did not occur. Range tests revealed that 100 % of test tag  
169 transmissions were detected a minimum of 100 m away from receivers in the River Severn,  
170 and a minimum of 50 m away from receivers in River Teme. In all cases, detection range was  
171 greater than river width at receiver deployment location. Step-by-step detection efficiency  
172 values for each receiver in the array was calculated for each study year using the R package  
173 *actel*. Detection efficiency for receivers in the array ranged from 52.5-100%; lower detection  
174 efficiencies were associated with receivers in narrow channels and/or high turbidity tidal  
175 areas (e.g. downstream Lower Parting annual efficiency: 52.5-93.1%; downstream S1b: 43-  
176 91.4%). Detection efficiency of receivers in non-tidal areas in the River Severn was generally  
177 high (median: 98.9%).

178

179 *Data analysis*180 *Summary metrics*

181 All statistical analyses were conducted using R statistical software (version 4.0.2, R Core  
182 Team, 2020). Initially, emigration and return rates were calculated for shad released in each  
183 tracking year, as well as for returning shad in each subsequent year. Shad were classed as  
184 having emigrated from the river if their final detection location was the most downstream



185 receiver in the array (Figure 1) and they were classed as returning if they were detected  
186 moving upstream into the array in subsequent years.

187

188 To understand the relative impacts of weirs on upstream-migrating shad, the following key  
189 approach and passage summary metrics were calculated for each weir in the study area:  $n$   
190 available,  $n$  approached, percent approach,  $n$  passed, percent passage and passage time (Table  
191 3). These metrics were calculated separately for each of the study years, and for newly tagged  
192 versus returning individuals. To understand the overall impact of weir on the upstream  
193 migration of tagged individuals, the following summary metrics were calculated for each  
194 individual in each year: upstream extent, total passage time and delay proportion (Table 3).

195 To further contextualise weir impacts on upstream movement, the upstream passage times of  
196 acoustic tagged individuals through a representative obstructed reach (downstream S2 to  
197 upstream S2) and unobstructed reach (upstream S1 to downstream S2) were calculated and  
198 compared using Kruskal-Wallis rank sum. Upstream passage times were calculated as the  
199 difference in time between the first detection on downstream and upstream receivers, and  
200 standardised by the river distance between upstream and downstream receivers in each reach  
201 (unobstructed reach; ~17 km; obstructed reach: ~1km).

202

### 203 *Factors affecting approach of weirs*

204

205 The individual factors affecting weir approach by newly tagged and returning shad were  
206 tested using binomial generalised linear mixed models (GLMMs) in the R package *lme4*, and  
207 generalised linear models (GLMs) in base R. Individuals that were available to approach S2  
208 and/or S3/T1 were categorised as either approaching (1) or non-approaching (0). Two sets of  
209 models were constructed to test the effects of individual covariates on approach likelihood.

210 The first model set tested whether tagging status (newly tagged versus returner) affected the  
211 likelihood of weir approach, using GLMMs. These models included the approach  
212 classification (0/1) for fish that provided two years of approach data at a weir. Additional  
213 individual covariates were body length and spawning history (number of previous spawning  
214 events indicated by scale analysis). A fixed effect of weir was also included to test whether  
215 approach likelihood of individuals that were available to approach S2 differed from approach  
216 likelihood of those available to approach S3/T1. A random effect of individual fish i.d. was  
217 included in the models, to account for repeated measures from the same individuals across  
218 different years.

219

220 The second model set tested whether approach of S3 and/or T1 in the previous year affected  
221 the subsequent likelihood of approach of either weir for returning fish, using GLMs. These  
222 models included the approach classification (0/1) of returning individuals with known  
223 approach classifications in the previous year. Additional individual covariates were body  
224 length and spawning history. Approach of S2 was not included in this model, due to high  
225 approach rates by returning individuals at this weir.

226

227 Candidate model sets containing all possible combinations of covariates (body length,  
228 spawning history, river section, tagging status) without interactions, excluding pairs of  
229 covariates that were strongly tied (previous spawning and body size), were tested and ranked  
230 according to AICc. Models within 2 AICc of the top-ranked model were considered to have  
231 strong support (Burnham & Anderson 2002), unless they were a more complex version of a  
232 nested model with lower AICc (Richards, et al. 2011). We considered the risk of obtaining  
233 spurious results due to an 'all possible models' approach was low, due to the low number of

234 covariates tested (<6); indeed, including all covariates counters the risks of confirmation bias  
235 and minimises the risk of excluding unanticipated results (Alcott et al. 2021).

236

237

### 238 *Factors influencing passage rates of weirs*

239 The factors influencing passage rates of newly tagged and returning shad were tested using  
240 time-to-event analysis (Castro-Santos & Haro, 2003; Goerig et al. 2020). This analysis  
241 measured the relative effects of individual and time-varying covariates on passage rates at S2  
242 (Figure 1), as this weir had the largest sample size of approach and passage over the three  
243 tracking years. Shad entered the ‘risk set’ (the set of individuals to pass) when they were  
244 detected on the receiver immediately downstream of S2 during an upstream approach (Figure  
245 1). Individuals remained in the risk set until their retreat downstream (confirmed by detection  
246 on receiver approximately 1 km downstream of S2 (Figure 1)) or their passage over the weir.  
247 This approach ensured that fish were only considered to be candidates to passage (and subject  
248 to covariate conditions) while they were actually present. Mixed effects Cox models of  
249 passage rate, incorporating individual and environmental fixed effects and a random effect  
250 (fish i.d.), were constructed using the package *coxme* in R (R Core Team, 2020; Therneau,  
251 2020). The random effect accounted for statistical dependence among repeated passage from  
252 the same fish in different years (Therneau et al. 2003).

253

254 During data preparation, raw detection data for each shad were converted into 15-min  
255 observations of location, defined as the location of last detection, and observations of  
256 movements between receivers. Approach observations occurring at the receiver immediately  
257 downstream of S2, and passage observations (first detection upstream), were selected. These  
258 observations were then associated with individual metadata (body length, spawning history,

259 previous success) and environmental data. Environmental covariates were downstream river  
260 level (m), water temperature (°C) and diel period (as day/night, based on time of sunset and  
261 sunrise at weir S2, using the *maptools* package (Bivand & Lewin-Koh, 2019)). Individual  
262 body length (cm), spawning history ( $n$  previous spawning events, grouped into 0, 1+) were  
263 also included as covariates. Shad that passed the weir were censored from the model dataset  
264 at the time of passage, and non-passing individuals following their final upstream approach.

265

266 Following data preparation, two model datasets were created to test specific factors relating  
267 to the tagging status and previous experience of individual tagged shad on passage rates at  
268 S2. Dataset 1 enabled testing of tagging status (newly tagged versus returning shad) on  
269 passage rates, and so contained approach and passage events for acoustic-tagged shad  
270 released downstream of S2 in 2018 and 2019 that also returned to the weir following year, i.e.  
271 2019 and 2020. Dataset 2 enabled testing of the impact of previous success at passing weir S2  
272 during the first year at liberty (2018 and 2019) on subsequent passage rates in the return year  
273 (2019 and 2020, respectively), so contained approach and passage events for returning  
274 acoustic-tagged shad with known passage (successful or unsuccessful) during their first year  
275 at liberty. Body length was excluded as a covariate from testing on Dataset 2 due to the  
276 unknown body length of returning individuals.

277

278 To analyse these two datasets, initial data exploration assessed collinearity between  
279 covariates (Zuur, et al. 2010). Model selection was then conducted as per the GLMMs. The  
280 assumption of proportional hazards in the top-ranked Cox models was assessed by visual  
281 inspection of Schoenfeld residuals to confirm a zero slope for each covariate (Schoenfeld,  
282 1982). Covariate effects from the top-ranked model were presented as hazard ratios (HR),  
283 which represent the effect on passage rates of increasing the value of continuous covariates

284 by one unit (e.g. by 1 m for river level) or by changing the value of a categorical covariate.  
285 Survival curves for categorical predictive variables, and representative levels of continuous  
286 predictive variables, were plotted using the R package *survminer*.

287

## 288 **Results**

289

### 290 *Summary of emigration and return*

291 Of the 173 shad tagged with long-life acoustic transmitters in 2018 and 2019, 125 (72 %)  
292 emigrated from the river (Table 4). Of these emigrating fish, 71 (57 %) were subsequently  
293 detected returning to the River Severn for a second year, and of these 53 (75 %) emigrated for  
294 a second time. Emigration rates were similar between newly tagged fish and returning fish in  
295 each year, and return rates were the same (57%) for newly tagged fish that emigrated in 2018  
296 and 2019 (Table 4). Of the 73 fish tagged in 2018, 7 (10 %) returned for a third year in 2020,  
297 all of which had also returned in 2019.

298

### 299 *Weir approach, passage and passage time*

300 The percentage of shad that approached and passed weirs in the River Severn basin varied  
301 spatially (between weirs), temporally (between years), and also between newly tagged and  
302 returning fish (Table 5). At S1a/b, the first weirs encountered by upstream-migrating shad,  
303 the combined percent approach and passage of returning individuals at these structures were  
304 very high (98-100 %) in 2019 and 2020 (Table 5). Of those that moved upstream of S1a/b,  
305 the percent approaching the next weir S2 was high in each tracking year, particularly for  
306 returning individuals (98-100%) relative to newly-tagged individuals (91-93%) (Table 5).  
307 Passage of S2 varied between tracking years and tagging status, being lowest for newly  
308 tagged individuals in 2019 (16 %) and highest for returning individuals in 2019 (81 %)

309 (Table 5). Passage rates of S3 were always low (Table 5). At T1, passage was 0 % in 2018 (*n*  
310 = 18), but following its modification in late 2018, passage rates increased to 50 % in 2019 (*n*  
311 =18), which included passage by both newly tagged and returning individuals, and 67 % in  
312 2020 (*n* = 3) (Table 5). Of those shad that moved upstream of T1, few approached the next  
313 weir, T2, and no shad passed A2 in any year (Table 5). Of the shad that approached T1, most  
314 also approached S3 (newly tagged: 84%, returner 75%); a lower proportion of the shad that  
315 approached S3 also approached T1 (newly tagged: 60%, returners 26%). No shad were  
316 detected approaching A1.

317  
318 Passage times at S2 were the longest of the weirs where at least 10 passages occurred (i.e. S2,  
319 S1 and T1; Table 5); passage time also varied between years and tagging status, being longest  
320 for newly tagged fish in 2019 (median passage time (LQ-UQ) = 6.2 (2.8-33) days), and  
321 shortest for returning individuals in 2019 (1.8 (1.1-3.4) days) (Table 5). Median total passage  
322 times at weirs of 4.6 days (1.8 - 9.2) represented a delay proportion of 33 % of the total time  
323 to upstream extent (13 (6-20) days) for returning individuals tracked from the estuary into  
324 fresh water. Standardised upstream passage times through the unobstructed reach from  
325 upstream S1 to downstream of S2 (0.04 (0.02-0.09) days, *n* = 143) were significantly lower  
326 than passage times at S2 (2.9 (1.3 -6.1) days, *n* = 72) (Kruskal-Wallis  $\chi^2 = 135$ ,  $p < 0.001$ )  
327 (Figure 2).

328  
329 Of the movements recorded upstream of S1a/b (*n* individuals = 114; *n* upstream movements  
330 = 152), 94 % resulted in an approach of S2, with the others reached their upstream extent  
331 between 1 and 4 river km (rkm) downstream of S2 (Figure 3a). Of the upstream movements  
332 recorded upstream of S2 (*n* individuals = 127; *n* upstream movements = 164), 63 %  
333 approached S3 and/or T1, and upstream extents for non-approaching fish were concentrated

334 around the lower River Teme and its confluence with the Severn (19 %, Figure 2b), with a  
335 further 19 % reaching an upstream extent within the 24 rkm section of the River Severn  
336 between S2 and the River Teme confluence (Figure 3b). Of the 11 migrations tracked  
337 upstream of T1 by 9 individuals, there were 3 approaches of T2, with the remaining 8  
338 reaching upstream extents between 7 and 13 km downstream of T2 (Figure 3b). Overall,  
339 weirs formed the upstream extent for 64% of migrations tracked upstream from S1a/b, and  
340 41% of migrations tracked upstream from S2.

341

#### 342 *Individual factors influencing approach of weirs*

343 There were 16 GLMMs that tested the factors influencing approach of S2 and S3/T1 by all  
344 fish (Table S1). The best-fitting model retained weir as a predictor of weir approach ( $\Delta$ AIC  
345 from null model = 12.5), indicating that shad available to approach S3/T1 were less likely to  
346 approach these weirs than those available to approach S2 (Table 5, Figure 4a). Body length  
347 was also retained in the model but its effect was non-significant ( $P = 0.15$ ; Table 6, Figure  
348 4b), and a simpler model containing weir as the only predictor of approach also received  
349 good support ( $\Delta$ AIC from best-fitting model: 0.18). There were seven GLMs that tested the  
350 likelihood of weir approach by returning fish at S3/T1 (Table S1). The best fitting model  
351 ( $\Delta$ AIC from null model = 1.3) retained the previous approach of S3/T1 as the sole predictor,  
352 with the model indicated a marginally significant positive effect of previous approach on  
353 approach likelihood ( $P = 0.06$ ; Table 6, Figure 4c). There were no less complex models within  
354 2 AIC of the best-fitting model.

355

#### 356 *Individual and environmental factors influencing passage rates of weir S2*

357 Across the three study years, tagged shad approached and passed weir S2 between mid-April  
358 and early June, with a peak in May (Figure 5). Among approaching shad in their return year

359 ( $n = 69$ ), 66 (96%) had approached the weir the previous year. There were 32 mixed effects  
360 Cox models testing the individual and environmental factors influencing passage rates of weir  
361 S2 by newly tagged and returning fish (Dataset 1) (Table S2). The best fitting model ( $\Delta AIC$   
362 from null model = 28.5; Akaike weight = 0.15) revealed that returning fish passed S2 at a  
363 significantly higher rate than newly tagged fish ( $p < 0.01$ ; hazard ratio (HR) = 6.04 (2.11-  
364 17.27)), Table 7a, Figure 6). Shad passed S2 at a significantly greater rate during higher river  
365 level conditions and at higher water temperatures, although there was no significant  
366 difference between passage rates at early and mid-season temperatures (Table 7a, Figure 7).  
367 Diel period (higher passage during the day versus at night) and body length (positive effect of  
368 body size on passage rates) were also included in the best-fitting model, although these  
369 effects were non-significant (Table 7a).

370

371 A further 64 mixed effects Cox models tested factors influencing passage rates of weir S2 by  
372 returning fish (Dataset 2; Table S3). The best fitting model ( $\Delta AIC$  from null model = 21.0;  
373 total Akaike weight = 0.17) revealed that previous passage success significantly increased  
374 passage rates for returning fish relative to previously unsuccessful fish ( $p = 0.04$ ; HR = 3.58  
375 (1.15-11.6), Table 7b, Figure 6). Diel period, river level and water temperature were also  
376 included as predictors (Table 7b, Figure 7); hazard ratios for other covariates were of the  
377 same direction as in Dataset 1, although their magnitude varied (Table 7b). Previous  
378 spawning history and body length were not included as predictors in the top-ranked models of  
379 passage rates by newly tagged or returning shad, providing no support for an effect of these  
380 passage rates of acoustic tagged individuals. There were no less complex models within 2  
381 AIC of the best-fitting models for Datasets 1 or 2.

382

383



## 384 **Discussion**

385

386 Weirs in the lower Severn basin impacted the upstream migration of threatened twaite shad,  
387 and passage rates and temporal delays to migration varied among weirs. Environmental  
388 conditions influenced passage rates, where episodes of elevated river levels and temperatures  
389 were important for facilitating passage. For returning tagged fish, there was evidence for a  
390 significant positive effect of previous success on passage rates, potentially suggesting a  
391 conserved ability and/or motivation to pass barriers between years. Returning fish also passed  
392 at higher rates than newly tagged fish.

393

### 394 *Impact of weirs on shad migration*

395 The proportion of fish that passed each weir was variable, being generally high for the tidal  
396 weirs in the lower river basin but as low as 0% (in some study years) for weirs further  
397 upstream. These results suggest that once shad had moved into freshwater, a substantial  
398 percentage were prevented access to upstream spawning habitat. The prevention of access to  
399 spawning grounds has been heavily implicated in the decline of populations of anadromous  
400 shads in the River Severn and elsewhere (e.g. Aprahamian et al. 2003; Limburg & Waldman,  
401 2009; Buffery, 2018). Weirs also imposed considerable migration delays on the fish (Table 5,  
402 Figure 3), with such migration delays known to have negative consequences on the  
403 reproductive success and survival of anadromous fish generally (Castro-Santos & Letcher,  
404 2010), with delays also potentially subjecting migrants to elevated predation risk (Schmitt et  
405 al. 2017; Alcott, et al. 2020). Weirs formed the upstream limit of migration for the majority  
406 of acoustic-tagged shad (Figure 3), suggesting that weirs act to constrain the spawning  
407 distribution of shad in the Severn basin.

408 The results presented here emphasise the need for passage remediation work in the lower  
409 River Severn basin, supporting the work that has been continuing on the river in this respect  
410 ([www.unlockingthesevern.co.uk](http://www.unlockingthesevern.co.uk)). Facilitating shad passage at these structures could include  
411 barrier removal, or the retro-fitting of fish passes that take into account the specific  
412 knowledge base on passage requirements for alosines (Haro & Castro-Santos, 2012; Pess et  
413 al. 2014; Mulligan et al. 2019); for example, over 26,000 upstream migrating allis (*Alosa*  
414 *alosa*) and twaite shad were observed using such a fish pass on the River Mondego, Portugal,  
415 across five spawning migrations (Belo et al. 2021). Indeed, the preliminary results presented  
416 here indicated that modifying weir T1 did increase shad passage rates at this structure,  
417 increasing from 0 % pre-modification to 50-67% post-modification, albeit these involved  
418 relatively low numbers of tagged individuals (Table 5). The results here provide a vital  
419 baseline for future monitoring of passage improvement work in the basin, and emphasise the  
420 importance of river restoration projects to collate data on fish movements in the pre- and  
421 post-construction periods to enable more robust and rigorous evaluation of outcome (Roscoe  
422 & Hinch, 2010; Noonan, et al. 2012).

423

#### 424 *Factors affecting approach of weirs*

425 Although barriers formed the upstream limit of migration for the majority of the tagged shad,  
426 a subset of individuals within each impounded section did not approach weirs, particularly in  
427 the reaches of river upstream of S2 and T1 (Figure 3). This potentially indicates the  
428 availability of apparently high-quality spawning habitat in the lower River Teme, which is  
429 characterised by shallow (0.75 – 2 m), fast-flowing riffle and run habitat (Antognazza et al.  
430 2019). Twaite shad that reached their upstream extent further downstream may have spawned  
431 in considerably deeper (> 3 m) and slower-flowing habitat, which is consistent with studies  
432 suggesting the species spawns in the upper and middle reaches of estuaries (e.g. Magath &

433 Thiel, 2013). There was also evidence that the likelihood of barrier approach was repeatable  
434 across years, with shad that approached S3 and/or T1 in the year of tagging more likely to  
435 approach the same weir(s) upon their return. This tentatively suggests these individuals had a  
436 conserved motivation to approach and pass barriers, and/or displayed some fidelity to their  
437 areas of previous spawning, which has relevance to river reconnection efforts as it suggests  
438 that not all upstream migrants may be motivated to exploit habitat upstream of a barrier  
439 following passage remediation (Pess et al. 2014).

440

#### 441 *Individual factors affecting weir passage rates*

442 Returning twaite shad had significantly higher passage rates at weirs than newly tagged  
443 individuals (Figure 6, Table 7), with this potentially being a negative consequence of their  
444 capture and/or tagging. A confounding factor here is that the shad will have grown between  
445 tagging and subsequent return, but there was no evidence for an effect of body size on  
446 passage rates. Likewise, analysis of spawning marks on scales enabled the effect of previous  
447 spawning experience to be tested, but there was no evidence that previous spawning  
448 experience affected passage rates. Thus, it is likely sublethal capture/tagging effects may  
449 have manifested as a reduced ability and/or motivation to pass weirs in the immediate post-  
450 tagging period. Tagging effects can be a pernicious feature of telemetry studies in alosines  
451 (Frank et al. 2009; Eakin, 2017) with, for example, PIT-tagged alewife *Alosa*  
452 *pseudohaerengus* returnees having higher passage rates over weirs than newly tagged fish  
453 (Nau et al. 2017; Gahagan & Bailey, 2020). Thus, in passage studies of iteroparous  
454 anadromous species, returning fish could be the most reliable indicators of weir passage rates,  
455 but not all tagged fish will return in subsequent years, and thus higher costs may be incurred  
456 generating a reliable sample size (Raabe et al. 2019).

457

458 In this study, significantly higher passage rates were recorded in individual returning twaite  
459 shad that successfully passed a weir in the previous year when compared with previously  
460 unsuccessful fish (Figure 6, Table 7). Inherent phenotypic traits (body size, body shape)  
461 (Goerig et al. 2020) may enable certain individuals to be more successful at passing barriers,  
462 but there was little evidence for phenotypic traits being a predictor of passage success in this  
463 study. Another potential explanation relates to variation in migratory motivation linked to  
464 spatial fidelity or natal homing. A widely reported feature of shad spawning distributions in  
465 fragmented river basins is that spawning often occurs in areas immediately downstream of  
466 weirs (Acolas et al. 2006; López et al. 2007). This was also observed here and might lead to  
467 imprinting of juveniles to areas downstream of barriers, resulting in a reduced motivation to  
468 progress upstream upon their return. Further, there may also be learned spatial preferences in  
469 repeat-spawning adults, whereby they display preferences to using spawning areas that were  
470 used in previous years (Pess et al. 2014). Hatchery-reared American shad (*Alosa sapidissima*)  
471 have demonstrated that imprinting is likely to occur at the tributary level (Hendricks et al.  
472 2002), although the mechanism of imprinting, and precision natal homing and spatial fidelity  
473 in alosines is generally poorly understood (Pess et al. 2014).

474

#### 475 *Environmental factors affecting weir passage rates*

476 The successful passage of barriers, such as weirs, by fish can be influenced by swimming  
477 capacity and attempt rate, which in turn can be influenced by environmental variables, such  
478 as water temperature and discharge, as well as barrier characteristics, including head height  
479 and the presence of fish passage structures (Castro-Santos, 2004; Bunt et al. 2012). In this  
480 study, increasing water temperature positively affected passage rates at weir S2 (Figure 7,  
481 Table 7). In upstream-migrants, changes in water temperature may invoke physiological and  
482 behavioural changes linked to maturation of reproductive organs, factors which then increase

483 its motivation to ascend and pass a barrier (Lubejko et al. 2017). Higher temperatures reduced  
484 the failure rates of alewife attempting to use fishways (Franklin et al. 2012) and increased the  
485 attempt rates but reduced swimming endurance of American shad attempting to pass velocity  
486 barriers, indicating that the relationship between abiotic factors and barrier passage will be  
487 dynamic across the alosine spawning migration (Bayse et al. 2019). Other studies have  
488 reported increased passage rates within the range of temperatures at which spawning occurs,  
489 and attributed this to increased motivation to move upstream and spawn (Raabe et al. 2019).

490

491 Increasing river levels downstream of S2 significantly increased passage rates over this weir  
492 (Figure 6, Table 7). Downstream river levels at S2 are affected by both tides and river  
493 discharge, and thus the relative effects of discharge and tide on passage are challenging to  
494 decouple. Nonetheless, the results suggest that prevailing hydraulic conditions at the weir are  
495 an important influence on passage by twaite shad. There are several mechanisms by which  
496 hydraulic conditions can influence passage of barriers. Water depth at the entrance to fish  
497 passes can increase passage rates in American shad (Mulligan et al. 2019), a finding linked to  
498 reduced flow velocities at higher water depths. Passage of alosines may also be negatively  
499 affected by noise and entrained air and turbulence, all of which may be influenced by  
500 downstream river levels (Haro & Castro-Santos, 2012). There was also some evidence that  
501 the passage rates of S2 were greater during the day than at night. Shads tend to prefer  
502 daylight hours to migrate upstream (Haro & Castro-Santos, 2012; Raabe et al. 2019), while  
503 twaite shad spawning is highly nocturnal (López et al. 2011). The lower passage rate at night  
504 may thus reflect differences in motivation between day/night approaches, with weir  
505 approaches during the day being passage attempts and nocturnal approaches being upstream  
506 movements associated with spawning (Acolas et al. 2004; López et al. 2011). In anadromous  
507 shads, spawning activity immediately downstream of barriers has been attributed to ‘forced’

508 spawning of unsuccessful individuals, as well as the presence of relatively high quality  
509 habitat immediately downstream of weirs (Acolas et al. 2004; Acolas et al. 2006; López et al.  
510 2011). Further work is required to understand potential spatial differences in nocturnal versus  
511 diurnal approaches to weirs by shad, which will improve current understandings of  
512 characteristics such as spatial fidelity and motivation.

513

#### 514 *Future research*

515 The research presented here was a coarse-scale assessment of the factors affecting weir  
516 approach and passage. In future, a more precise spatial and temporal understanding of weir  
517 approach and rejection rates, incorporating rates-based analyses, in relation to temperature  
518 and river level could be obtained by performing finer-scale telemetry studies immediately  
519 downstream of certain weirs, e.g. radio telemetry or high-frequency acoustic telemetry.  
520 However, such technology would not be compatible with that employed to investigate the  
521 spatial ecology of the same fish during marine life-phases (Davies et al. 2020), although this  
522 could be mitigated by deploying marine receivers that function over a range of frequencies.  
523 Further work could also seek to provide a mechanistic understanding of reduced passage rates  
524 in newly tagged fish; experimental studies could elucidate and separate potential effects of  
525 capture, sedation and tagging on key predictors of passage ability such as motivation,  
526 orientation and swimming performance (Cooke et al. 2011).

527

#### 528 *Summary*

529 This study quantified the impact of weirs on upstream migrating twaite shad. While returning  
530 individuals to their spawning rivers are a rare feature of telemetry-based assessments of  
531 barrier passage, their use in this study, enabled by advancements in telemetry technology and  
532 tagging protocols, was crucial in their use as ‘controls’ for understanding potential tagging

533 bias and for understanding the effect previous experience on passage ability. The results  
534 revealed that even with previous weir passage experience, migrating fish could still be  
535 delayed or not pass at all, with elevated river levels and water temperatures important for  
536 passage. Taken together, these results are important contributions to contemporary  
537 understandings of anadromous fish migration in fragmented river basins.

538

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547

### 548 **Author contributions**

549 Conceived and designed the field experiments: JDB, ADN, JRD, CC, RV, JRB, and PD.  
550 Conducted fieldwork: JDB, ADN, JRD, CC, JRB and PD. Conducted telemetry analysis: PD,  
551 with advice from TCS. Wrote the article: PD. Edited the article: JDB, TCS, JRB, ADN, JRD,  
552 CC, and RV.

553

### 554 **Data availability**

555 Data from this study will be made available upon reasonable request

556

### 557 **Competing interests**

558 The authors have no competing interests to declare.

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## Tables

Table 1: Locations and characteristics of study weirs in the River Severn basin, UK (Figure 1) during the study period, which were used to assess the impacts of weirs and factors affecting approach and passage during the upstream migration of acoustic-tagged twaite shad *Alosa fallax*.

Weir code	Name	River	Location, decimal degrees <sup>1</sup>	Distance from normal tidal limit, rkm	Height, m	Fish pass
<b>S1a</b>	Maisemore Weir	Severn (West Channel)	51.89318, -2.26574	0	1.8	None
<b>S1b</b>	Llanthony Weir	Severn (East Channel)	51.86227 -2.26028	0	1.7	None
<b>S2</b>	Upper Lode Weir	Severn	51.99346, -2.17407	16	1.6	Notch, Larinier
<b>S3</b>	Diglis Weir	Severn	52.17926, -2.22597	42	2.5	None
<b>T1</b>	Powick Weir	Teme	52.16975, -2.24712	44	2.8 (pre 2019) 1.4 (2019 onwards)	Larinier (pre 2019), None (2019 onwards)
<b>T2</b>	Knightwick Weir	Teme	52.19908, -2.38940	60	1.2	None
<b>A1</b>	Abbey Mill Weir	Avon	51.99133, -2.16325	16	1.8	None
<b>A2</b>	Stanchards Pit Weir	Avon	51.99837, -2.15561	18	1.9	None

**Note:** Weir heights represent drop in head at Q<sub>95</sub> and during periods with no tidal influence. Distances from normal tidal limit presented in river kilometres (rkm).



Table 2: Summary metrics for acoustic tagged twaite shad *Alosa fallax* captured over two years in the River Severn, UK (Figure 1)

<b>Year</b>	<b>Capture location</b>	<b>Capture method</b>	<b>Release location</b>	<b><i>n</i></b>	<b>Length <math>\pm</math> SD, mm</b>	<b>Weight <math>\pm</math> SD, g</b>
2018	S1a	Angling	Upstream S1a	20	365.9 $\pm$ 24.9	654 $\pm$ 149
	S2	Angling	Downstream S2	10	375.4 $\pm$ 20.6	645 $\pm$ 107
	S2	Angling	Upstream S2	24	339.8 $\pm$ 31.6	479 $\pm$ 142
	S2	Trap	Downstream S2	8	357.6 $\pm$ 28.1	559 $\pm$ 183
	S2	Trap	Upstream S2	22	376.4 $\pm$ 16.9	736 $\pm$ 113
2019	S1a	Angling	Upstream S1a	50	350.9 $\pm$ 43.1	618 $\pm$ 255
	S2	Trap	Upstream S2	50	376.9 $\pm$ 37.9	777 $\pm$ 250
Total				184	362.8 $\pm$ 36.8	660 $\pm$ 228

Table 3: Definition of metrics used to quantify approach and passage of weirs in River Severn basin, UK, by acoustic-tagged twaite shad *Alosa fallax*, and the impacts of weirs on individual migration

<b>Metric</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Quantified for:</b>
$n$ available	The number of fish detected moving upstream with an unobstructed upstream route to a weir	Each weir
$n$ approached	The number of upstream-moving fish that were detected on the receiver immediately downstream of a weir	Each weir
Per cent approach, %	The proportion of $n$ available fish that approached a weir	Each weir
$n$ passed	The number of fish approaching a weir that were subsequently detected on an upstream receiver	Each weir
Per cent passage, %	The proportion of approaching fish that passed a weir	Each weir
Passage time, days	Time between the first detection on the downstream receiver at a weir and first detection on an upstream receiver	Each weir
Upstream extent, rkm	The furthest upstream location that a fish was detected within the catchment	Each individual
Total passage time, days	Sum total of passage times recorded at all weirs	Each individual
Delay proportion, %	Total passage time as a proportion of the time taken to reach the upstream extent of migration from immediately downstream of the first migration barrier	Each individual

Table 4: Summary of emigration and return rates by twaite shad *Alosa fallax* tagged with 3-year acoustic transmitters in the River Severn, UK, in 2018 and 2019

	<b>Tagging year</b>		<b>Year 2</b>		<b>Year 3</b>	
	<i>n</i> tagged	<i>n</i> emigrated (% of tagged)	<i>n</i> returned (% of emigrated)	<i>n</i> emigrated (% of returned)	<i>n</i> returned (% of emigrated)	<i>n</i> emigrated (% of returned)
2018	73	58 (79%)	33 (57%)	24 (72%)	7 (29%)	4 (57%)
2019	100	67 (67%)	38 (57%)	29 (76%)	NA	NA
<b>Total</b>	173	125 (72%)	71 (57%)	53 (75%)	NA	NA

Table 5: Summary of weir passage metrics for acoustic tagged twaite shad *Alosa fallax* migrating upstream in the River Severn basin, UK, (Figure 1) in 2018, 2019 and 2020.

Weir	Year	Fish status	n available	n approached (% of available)	n passed (% of approached)	Median passage time, days (LQ-UQ)
<b>S1a/S1b</b>	2018	Newly tagged	NA	NA	NA	NA
	2019	Newly tagged	NA	NA	NA	NA
	2019	Returning	33	33 (100%)	33 (100%)	1.0 (0.4-3.9)
	2020	Returning	45	44 (98%)	44 (100%)	1.5 (1.0-2.8)
<b>S2</b>	2018	Newly tagged	33	30 (91%)	12 (40%)	5.9 (5.0-6.2)
	2019	Newly tagged	45	42 (93%)	7 (16%)	6.2 (2.3-33.0)
	2019	Returning	33	33 (100%)	27 (81%)	1.8 (1.1-3.4)
	2020	Returning	44	43 (98%)	28 (65%)	1.9 (1.3-4.7)
<b>S3</b>	2018	Newly tagged	57	29 (51%)	0 (0%)	NA
	2019	Newly tagged	56	30 (54%)	1 (3%)	21.0 (NA)
	2019	Returning	27	13 (48%)	2 (15%)	25.8 (24.6-27.1)
	2020	Returning	28	19 (67%)	0 (0%)	NA
<b>T1</b>	2018	Newly tagged	57	18 (32%)	0 (0%)	NA
	2019	Newly tagged	27	11 (41%)	6 (54%)	1.1 (1.1-3.8)
	2019	Returning	56	7 (13%)	3 (43%)	0.0 (0.0-0.5)
	2020	Returning	28	3 (11%)	2 (67%)	0.4 (0.3-0.5)
<b>T2</b>	2018	Newly tagged	0	0 (NA)	0 (NA)	NA
	2019	Newly tagged	6	1 (17%)	1 (100%)	NA <sup>1</sup>
	2019	Returning	3	1 (33%)	1 (100%)	NA <sup>1</sup>
	2020	Returning	2	1 (50%)	0 (0%)	NA
<b>A2</b>	2018	Newly tagged	57	21 (37%)	0 (0%)	NA
	2019	Newly tagged	27	6 (22%)	0 (0%)	NA
	2019	Returning	56	10 (18%)	0 (0%)	NA
	2020	Returning	28	12 (43%)	0 (0%)	NA

Note: Median passage time presented with lower and upper quartiles (LQ-UQ). NA = not applicable. <sup>1</sup>Passage times unavailable due to missed detections on downstream receiver

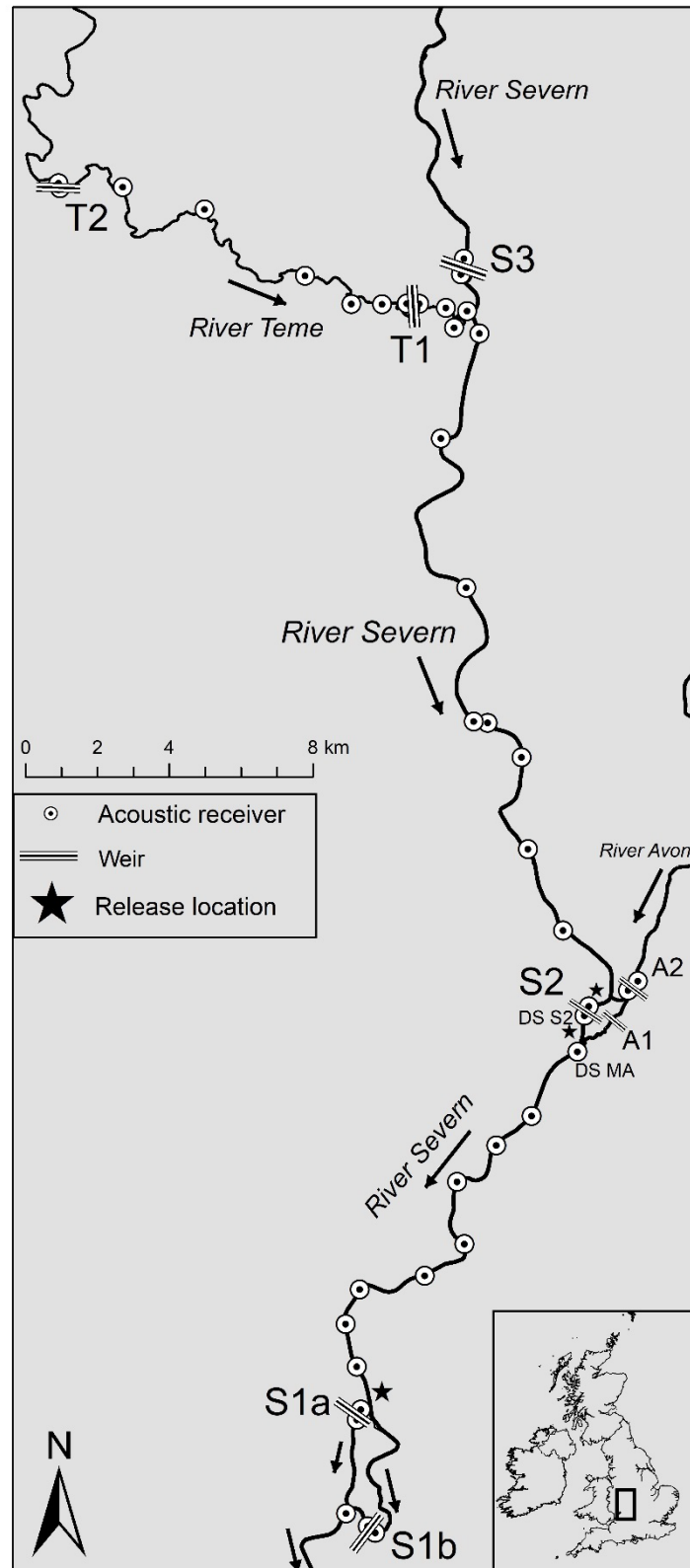


Table 6: Covariate effects from best-fitting models of weir approach likelihood by twaite shad *Alosa fallax*; a) two best fitting generalised linear mixed models including newly tagged and returning fish (Dataset 1) in which covariates included are weir of approach (S3/T1 (null condition) versus S2) and body length at tagging and; b) best fitting generalised linear model including only returning fish (Dataset 2) in which the single covariate included is previous approach i.e. whether a tagged fish approached a weir in its previous year or did not (null condition).

Parameter	Estimate	SE	z	p
a) All fish				
<b>Best fitting</b>				
(Intercept)	0.84	0.36	2.30	0.02
Weir: S3/T1	-	-	-	-
Weir: S2	2.34	0.80	2.95	<0.01
Body length	0.46	0.32	1.44	0.15
<b>Second best fitting</b>				
(Intercept)	0.91	0.37	2.46	0.01
Weir: S3/T1	-	-	-	-
Weir: S2	2.09	0.73	2.85	<0.01
b) Returners only				
(Intercept)	-0.41	0.65	-0.63	0.53
Previous: did not approach				
Previous: approached	1.50	0.80	1.88	0.06

Table 7: Results of best-fitting mixed-effects cox models describing effects of individual and environmental covariates on passage rate of weir S2 by twaite shad *Alosa fallax*; (A) Model including newly tagged and returning fish released at weir S1a (Figure 1) in which included covariates are tagging status (newly tagged (null condition) versus returning); river level, m, recorded at logger approx. 2km upstream of the weir; diel period (day (null condition) versus night), based on hours of sunset/sunrise at weir location; and water temperature (°C) collected by a logger immediately downstream of the weir, separated into three bins representing early (<11.5°C, null condition), mid 11.5-13.5°C and late run <13.5°C temperatures and (B) Model including only returning fish, in which included covariates are previous success (successfully passed weir in the previous year or did not (null condition)); river level, m, recorded at logger approx. 2km upstream of the weir; diel period (day (null condition) versus night), based on hours of sunset/sunrise at weir location; and water temperature (°C) collected by a logger immediately downstream of the weir

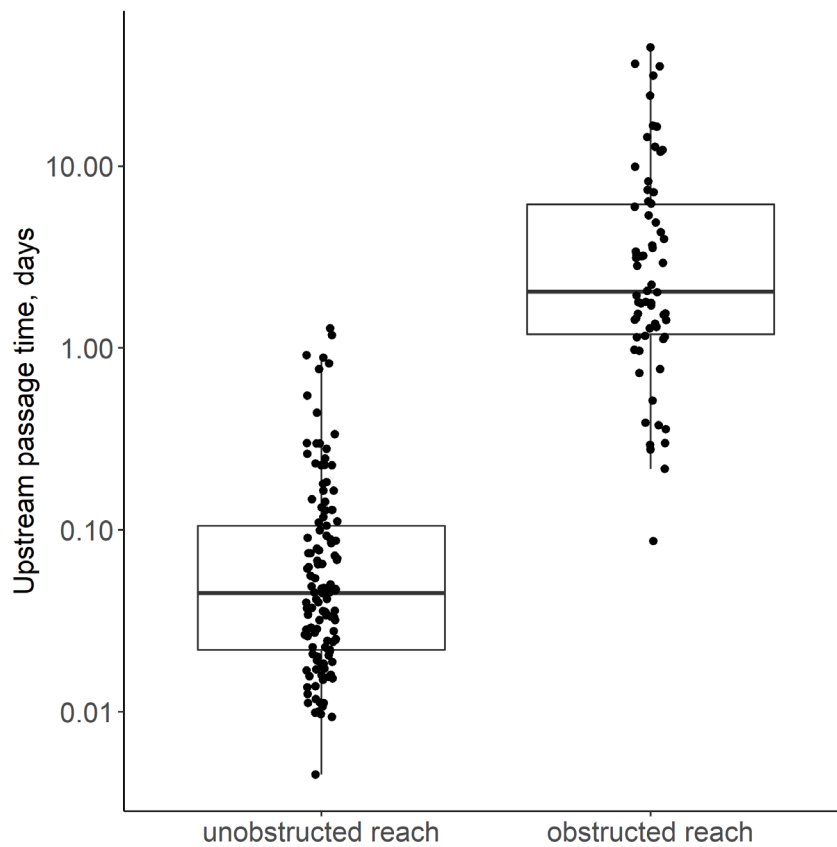
Parameter	Hazard ratio (95% confidence interval)	z	p
<b>(A) Newly tagged and returning fish</b>			
Tagging status: newly tagged	-	-	-
Tagging status: returner	5.69 (1.95-16.55)	3.19	<0.01
River level, m	11.8 (4.21-33.03)	4.70	<0.01
Diel period: Day	-	-	-
Diel period: Night	0.26 (0.06-1.17)	-1.76	0.08
Water temperature: <11.5°C	-	-	-
Water temperature: 11.5-13.5°C	2.02 (0.58-7.06)	1.11	0.27
Water temperature: >13.5°C	3.95 (1.01-15.47)	1.97	0.05
<b>(B) Returning fish only</b>			
Previous success: Failed	-	-	-
Previous success: Passed	3.58 (1.15-11.16)	2.08	0.03
River level	20.4 (3.67-113.34)	3.47	<0.01
Diel period: Day	-	-	-
Diel period: Night	0.3 (0.05-1.74)	-1.24	0.22
Water temperature: <11.5°C	-	-	-
Water temperature: 11.5-13.5°C	2.78 (0.62-12.53)	2.33	0.18
Water temperature: >13.5°C	13.04 (2.58-65.78)	3.00	<0.01



1 Figure 1: The River Severn basin study area, including locations of release of acoustic-tagged  
 2 twaite shad *Alosa fallax* (black star), weirs (bars) and acoustic receivers (circles) in the rivers  
 3 Severn, Teme and Avon, UK. The weir codes are as in Table 1. The black arrows denote the  
 4 direction of the flow. River basemap derived from the Ordnance Survey Open Rivers dataset:  
 5 [www.data.gov.uk/dataset/dc29160b-b163-4c6e-8817-f313229bcc23/os-open-rivers](http://www.data.gov.uk/dataset/dc29160b-b163-4c6e-8817-f313229bcc23/os-open-rivers).



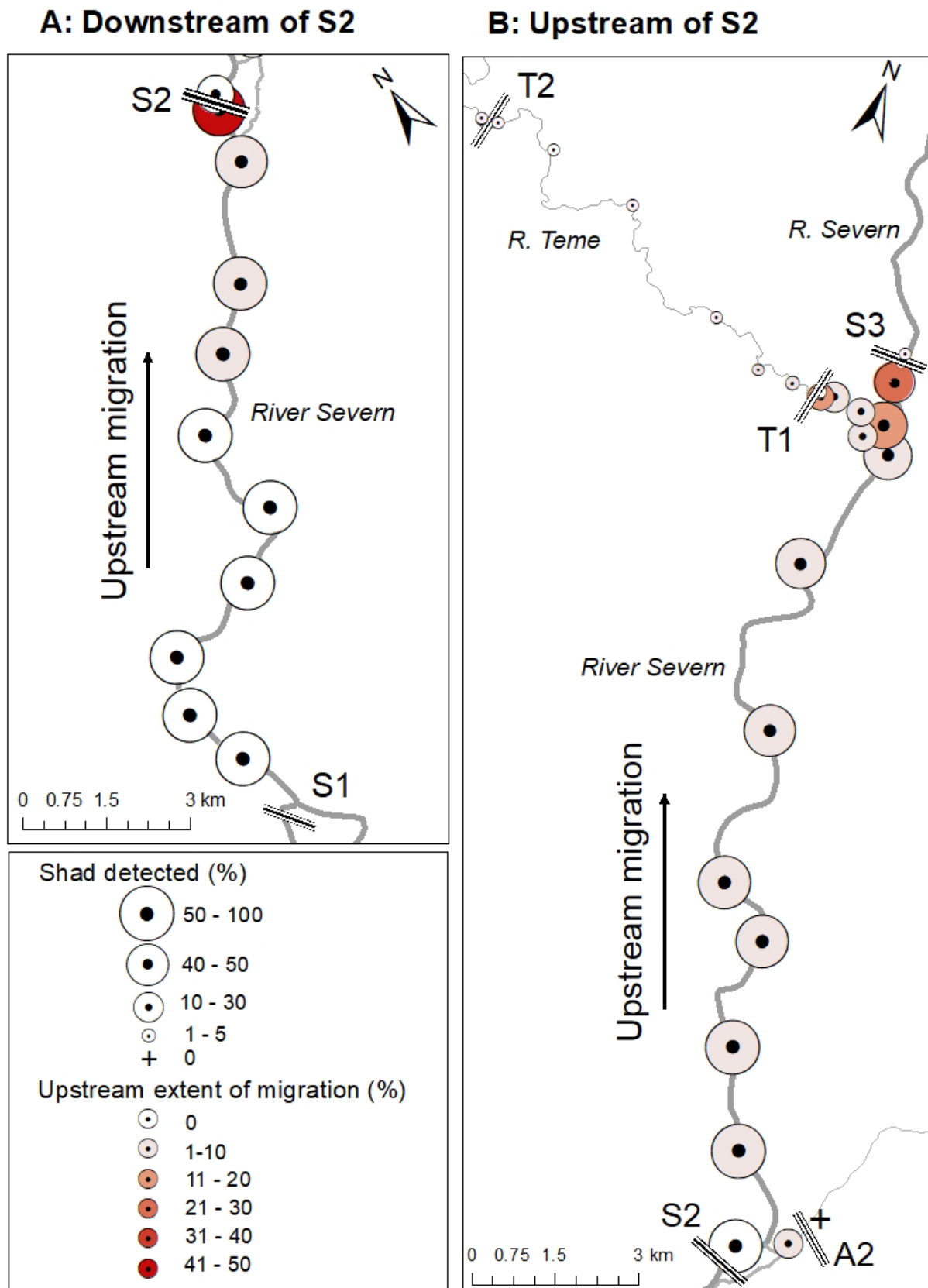
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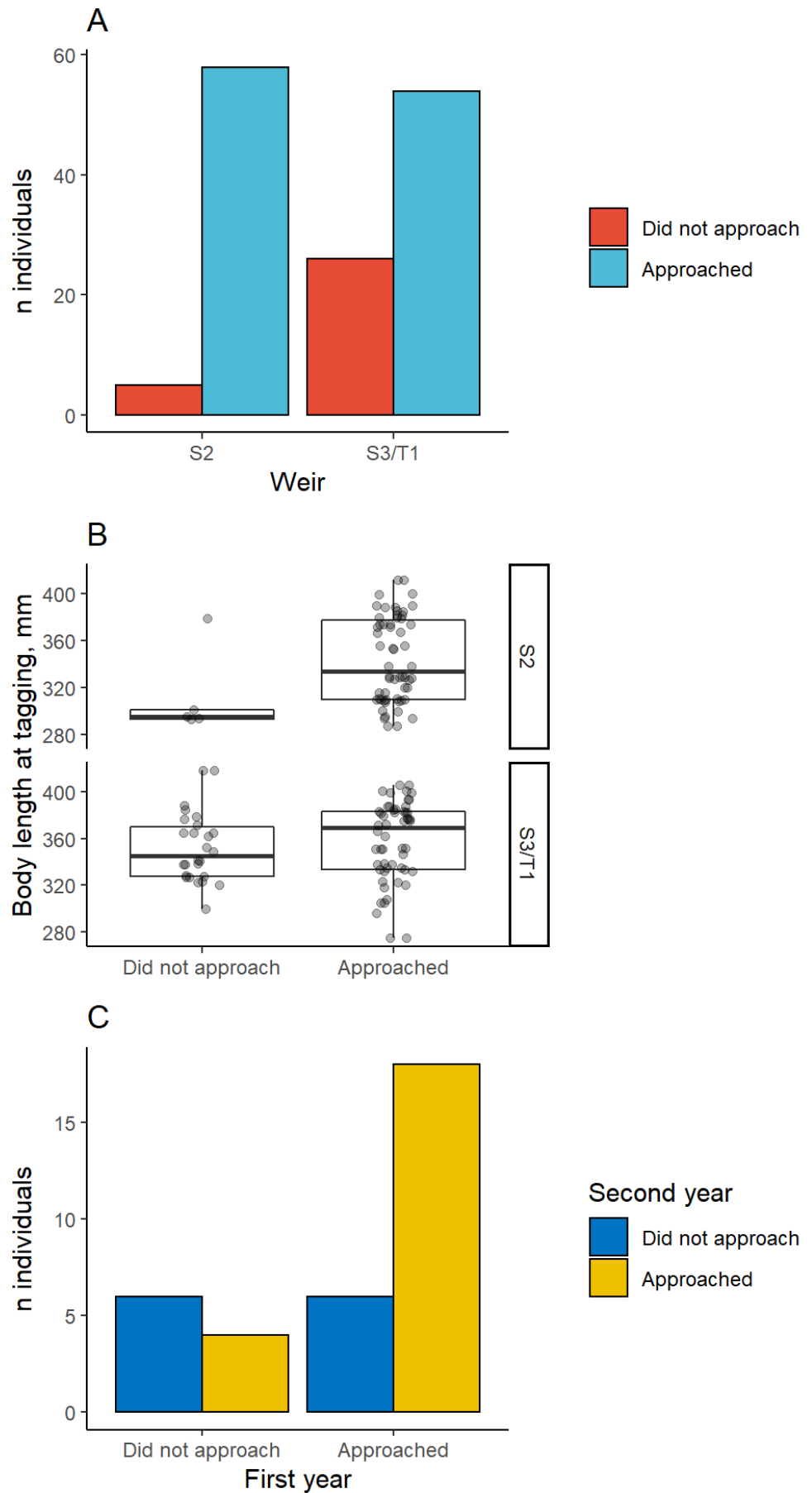
7 Figure 2: Upstream passage times of acoustic-tagged twaite shad *Alosa fallax* through  
8 unobstructed versus obstructed reaches of the River Severn, UK. The obstructed reach was  
9 downstream S2 to upstream S2 (1 km) and the unobstructed reach was upstream S1 to  
10 downstream S2 (17 km) (see figure 1). Passage times were standardised to represent upstream  
11 passage times through one km of river reach.  
12

13 Figure 3: Numbers of acoustic-tagged twaite shad *Alosa fallax* detected and their upstream  
 14 migratory extent in the River Severn basin, UK (Figure 1), tracked during spawning migrations  
 15 in 2018-2020. The percentage of shad reaching each receiver, and the percentage of shad  
 16 reaching their upstream extent of migration at each receiver, are represented by the size and  
 17 colour intensity of the circles, respectively. Data are pooled for newly-tagged and returning  
 18 fish. The weir codes are as in Table 1. **A:** Upstream extent of shad migrations recorded  
 19 upstream of weir S1 ( $n$  migrations = 152). **B:** Upstream extent of shad recorded upstream of  
 20 weir S2 ( $n$  migrations = 164).

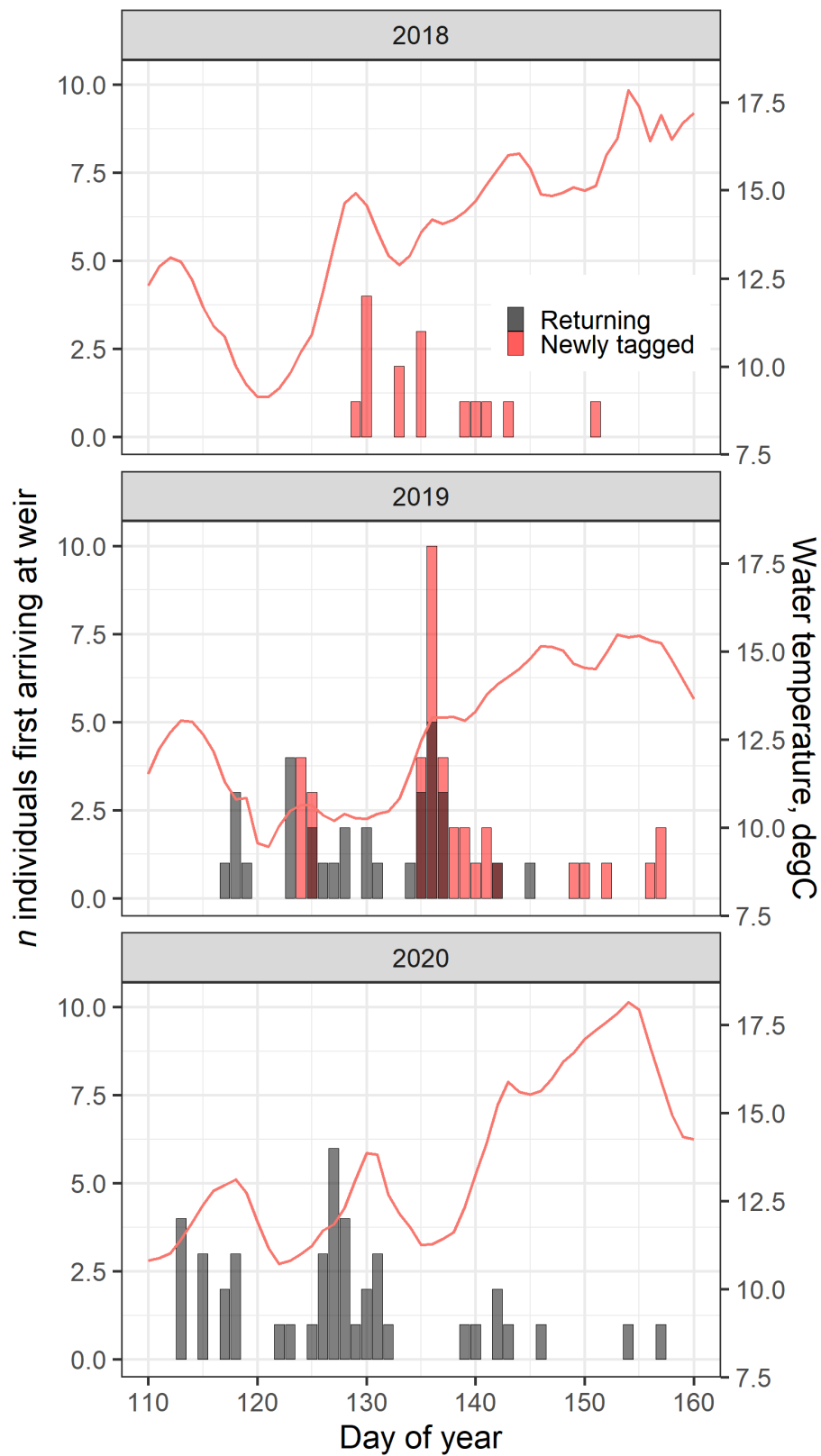
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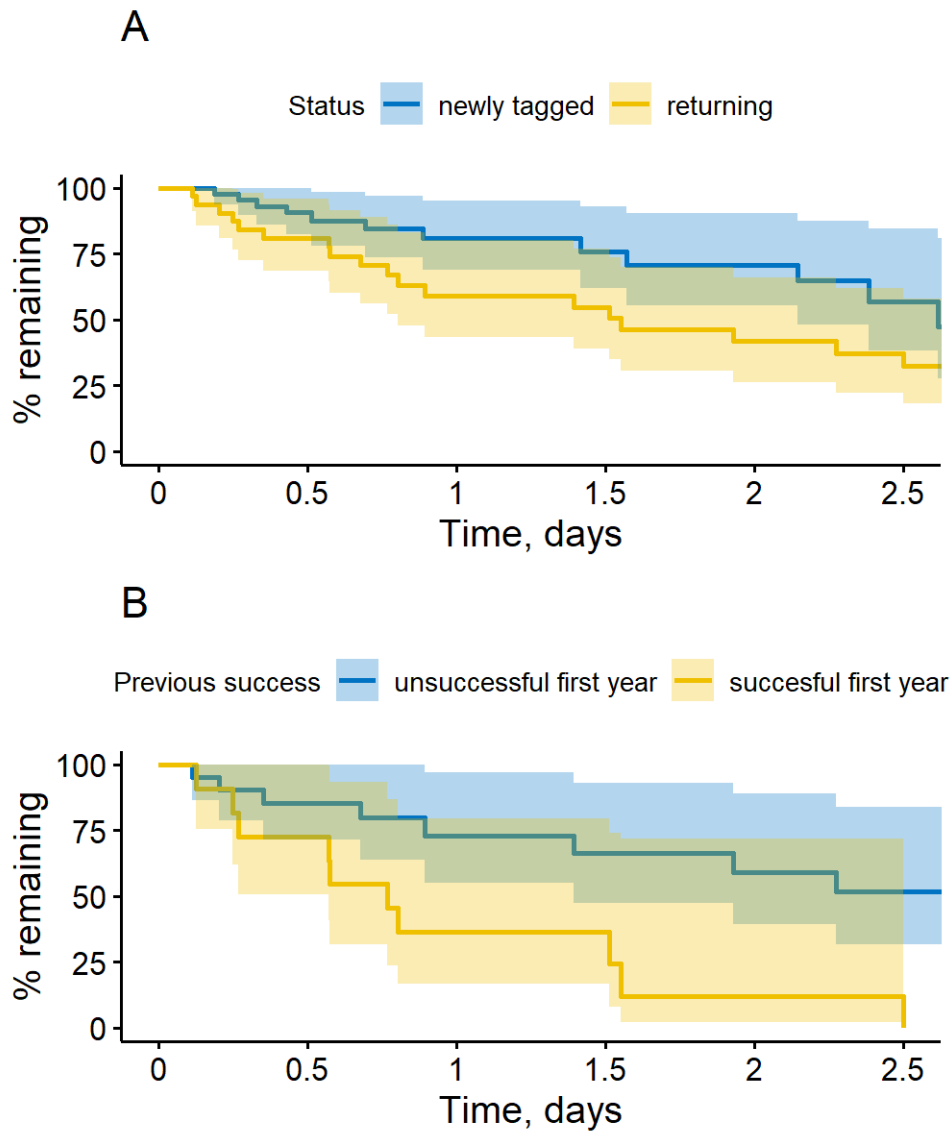
25 Figure 4: Summary of  
 26 covariates from the best-  
 27 fitting models of weir  
 28 approach likelihood in  
 29 twaite shad. A: Number  
 30 of approaching/non-  
 31 approaching individuals  
 32 by weir for newly tagged  
 33 and returning individuals.  
 34 B: Body length of  
 35 approaching/non-  
 36 approaching individuals  
 37 by weir for newly tagged  
 38 and returning individuals.  
 39 C: Number of  
 40 approaching/non-  
 41 approaching individuals  
 42 at weirs S3/T1 by  
 43 previous approach, for  
 44 returning individuals.  
 45



46 Figure 5: Distribution of first arrival times of newly tagged (red bars) and returning (grey  
 47 bars) acoustic-tagged twaite shad at weir S2 during April and May across the three study  
 48 years. Mean daily water temperatures are displayed as a red line.  
 49

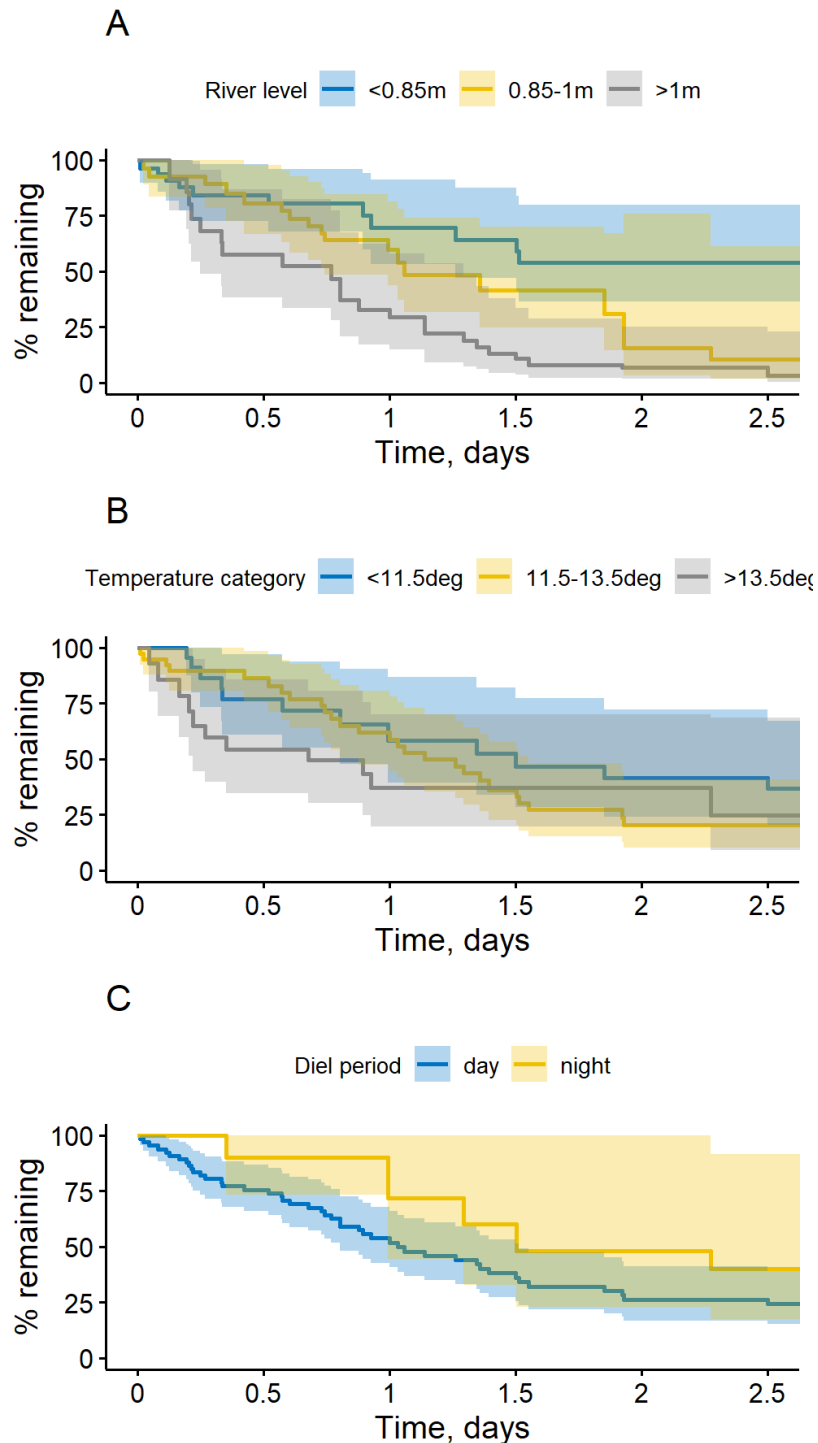


50 Figure 6: Kaplan-Meier depletion curves for passage of weir S2 by acoustic-tagged twaite  
 51 shad. A: The effect of tagging status (newly-tagged versus returning) on passage rates. B: The  
 52 effect of previous success on passage rates by returning individuals. Curves represent % of  
 53 shad that are yet to pass the weir at each time point. Covariates effects presented are from  
 54 individual covariates shown to have a significant effect on passage rates in the top ranked  
 55 mixed-effects Cox model



56  
 57

58 Figure 7: Kaplan-Meier depletion curves for passage of weir S2 by acoustic-tagged twaite  
 59 shad. A: The effect of river level recorded on passage rates. B: The effect of temperature on  
 60 passage rates. C: The effect of diel period on passage rates. For continuous covariates,  
 61 survival distributions are displayed for representative data categories (Goerig et al. 2020).  
 62 Curves represent % of shad that are yet to pass the weir at each time point. Covariates effects  
 63 presented are environmental covariates shown to have a significant effect on passage rates in  
 64 the top ranked mixed-effects Cox models.



65