Rearing more wild-like fish for stocking – does it work?



LOCAL AND GLOBAL INITIATIVES:

HOW SCIENCE SUPPORTS MANAGEMENT ACTIONS ON DIADROMOUS FISH

Rearing more wild-like fish for stocking – does it work?

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The Problem:

Stocked hatchery fish perform worse than wild conspecifics and often have unnatural behaviour

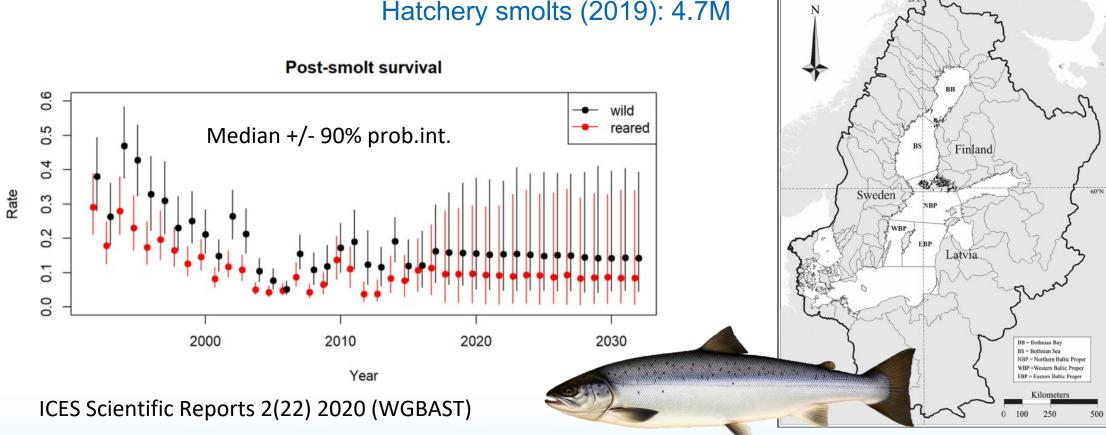
We assume that something in the rearing environment makes the fish less wild-like



Example: Baltic salmon (Salmo salar)

Wild smolts (2019): 2.8M

Hatchery smolts (2019): 4.7M

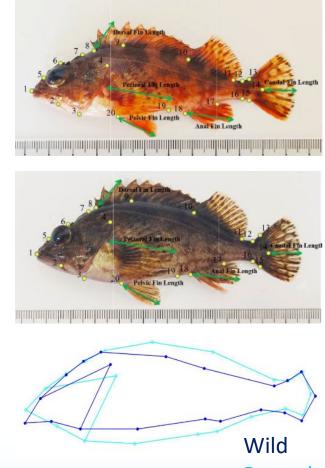




Differences between wild and reared fish

- Morphology/Anatomy: head/body proportions, jaw morphology, fin size, brain size, % fat, colour, etc.
- **Behaviour:** Boldness, foraging ability, antipredation, social interactions, migration ability etc.
- Cognition: Memory, learning rate, etc.

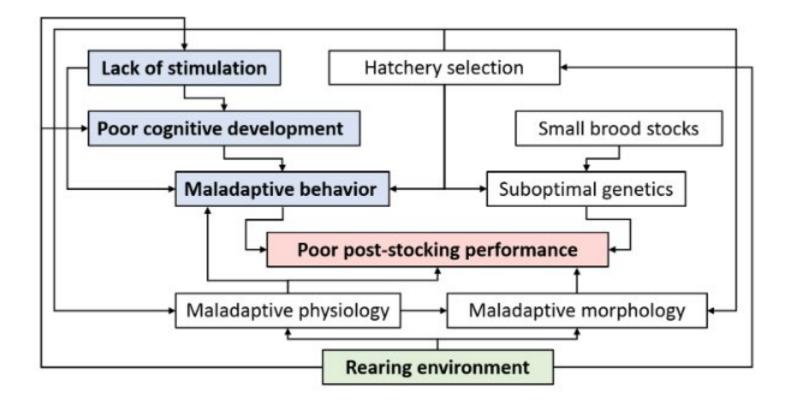








Hypothetical causation of maladaptive traits



Näslund 2021, Bull. Mar. Sci.



The problem of poor performance of stocked fish is well known, since at least the early 1900's:

•'These fish [Atlantic salmon] have become so tame that they are unsuitable to persist in the struggle for survival as it is manifested in nature, [...] their innate natural caution is completely vanished.'

- Sörensen 1919 (Skr. S. Sv. Fiskerifören.)

•'In strength and capability the difference was as between day and night; the wild natural fry hugged the shore singly or in very small schools, and when pursued made for a hiding place with frenzied erratic dashes. Hatchery fry when liberated swam aimlessly about, and only after repeated onslaughts of trout and ducks, during which they lost heavily, were they herded into shallow water'

- Robertson 1919 (Tr. Am. Fish. Soc.)

The problem has been recognized for over a century!

Howard Schuck 1948 (Progr. Fish-Cult.):

- 1. Too much fats and carbohydrates in diet
- 2. Overfeeding: detrimentally high growth rates
- 3. Lack of exercise
- 4. Artificial conditions, little foraging for food is necessary
- 5. Relative freedom from predators
- 6. Stable water temperatures
- 7. Domestication of hatchery breeders
- 8. Intentional/unintentional selection for good hatchery performance, i.e. high growth and egg production
- 9. Absence of live natural food
- 10. Suboptimal transport and release procedures



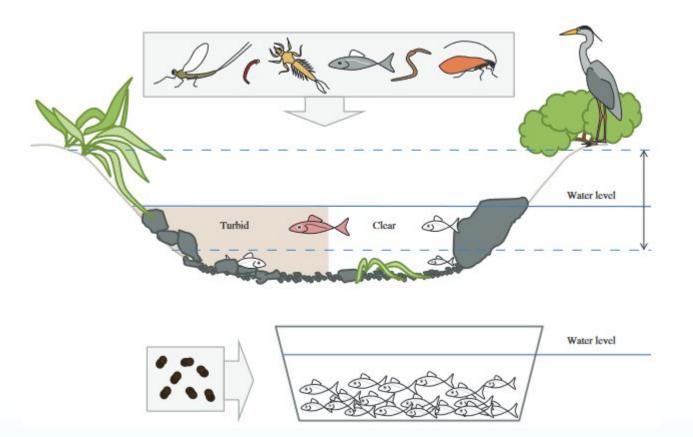




Expansion of hypotheses over time

Schuck's list extended (Johnsson et al. 2014, J. Fish. Biol.)

11. Absence of sensory stimulation (e.g. Blaxter 1970)
12. Absence of physical structure and environmental variation (e.g. Salvanes et al. 2013)
13. Unnaturally high densities (e.g. Brockmark et al. 2010)





Factors related to learning and cognition

- 4. Artificial conditions, little foraging for food is necessary
- 5. Relative freedom from predators
- 9. Absence of live natural food
- 11. Absence of sensory stimulation
- 12. Absence of physical structure and environmental variation
- 13. Unnaturally high densities

Don't learn to search for food Don't learn to avoid predators Don't learn to handle prey No brain stimulation Don't learn to navigate complex environments Don't learn appropriate social behaviour

Proposed solutions

- Live food and foraging training
- Predator exposure
- Environmental enrichment (complexity and variation)
- Reduced densities

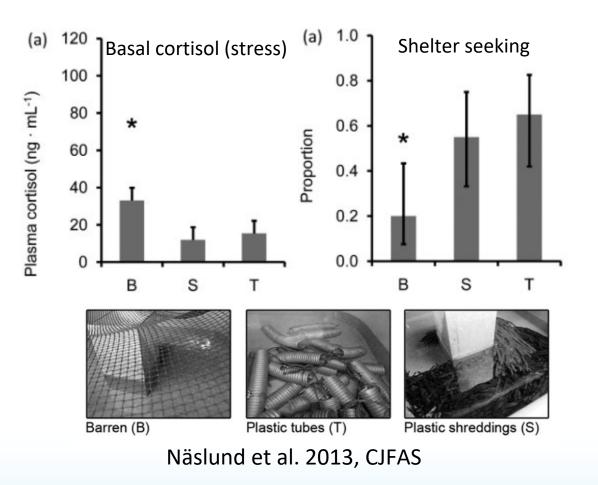


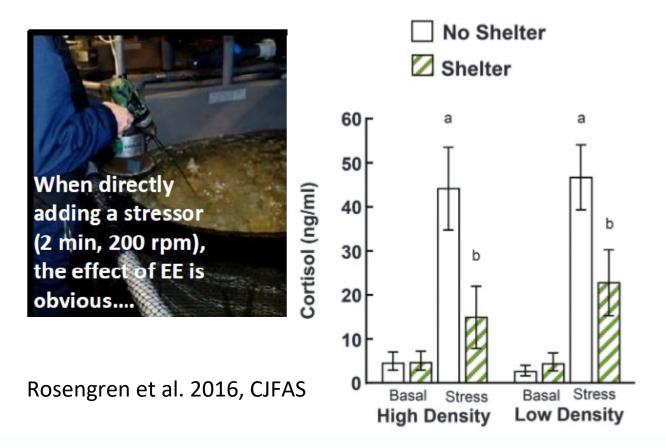
Some examples



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Environmental complexity – stress and behaviour



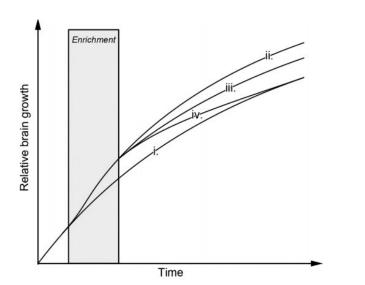






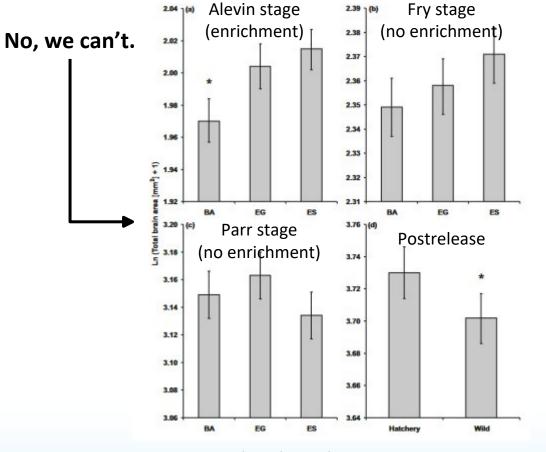
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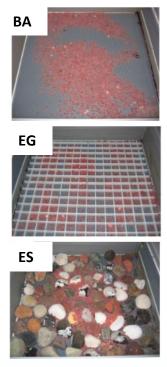
Environmental complexity – brains



Kihslinger & Nevitt 2006, J. Exp. Biol. Enrichment \rightarrow larger brains.

Can we modify the brain growth trajectory, by early life enrichment?





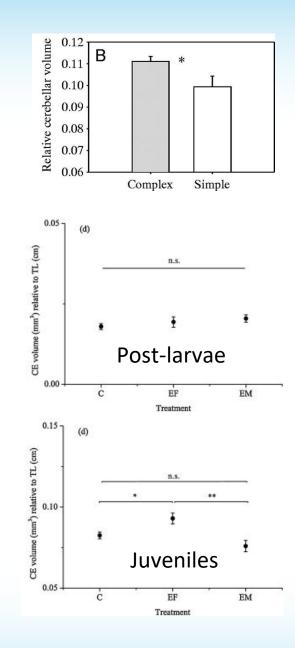
Näslund et al. 2012, CJFAS



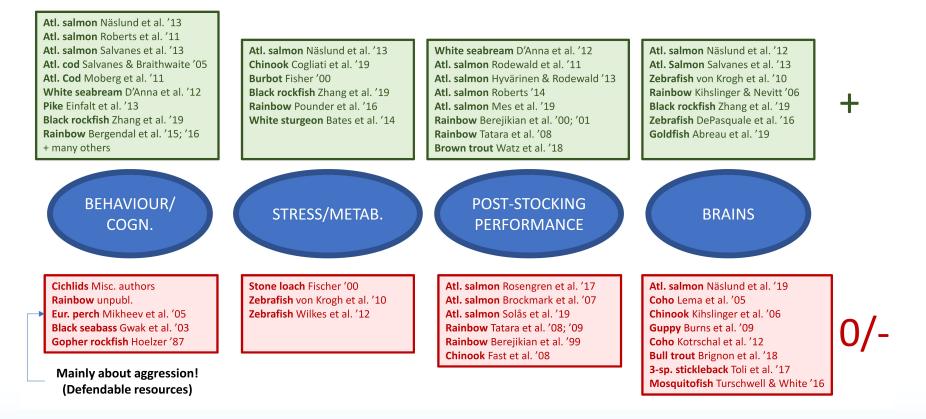


Environmental complexity – brains - it's complex....

- Kihslinger & Nevitt 2006 found positive enrichment effects on the hindbrain (cerebellum) in steelhead trout
- Zhang et al. 2019 (Appl. Anim. Behav. Sci.) find variable enrichment effects on the various brain regions in rockfish (depending on life-stage)
- In one of our studies we find no effects on the hindbrain from enrichment, but positive effects of higher density (Näslund et al. 2019, Environm. Biol. Fish.).
- Effects may be species-specific, life-stage-specific, or even dependent on confounding factors (higher densities in complex environments?)
- Furthermore, we just assume that brain size is a positive trait for post-release performance field studies needed, but difficult...

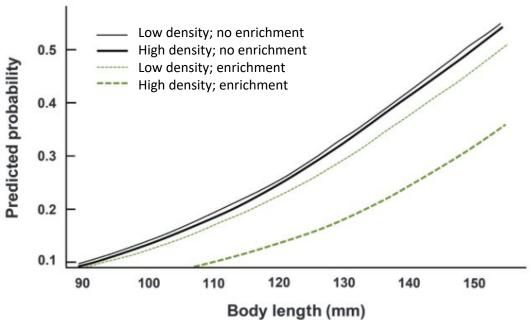


Environmental complexity – brains - it's complex....





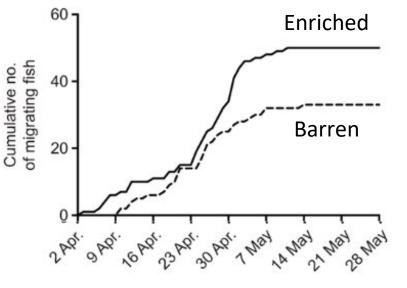
Environmental complexity – post-stocking performance



River Imsa, Norway



No positive effects of enrichment on smolt migration, effect depending on density (high: 150 ind/m^2; low: 50 ind/m^2). (Rosengren et al. 2017)

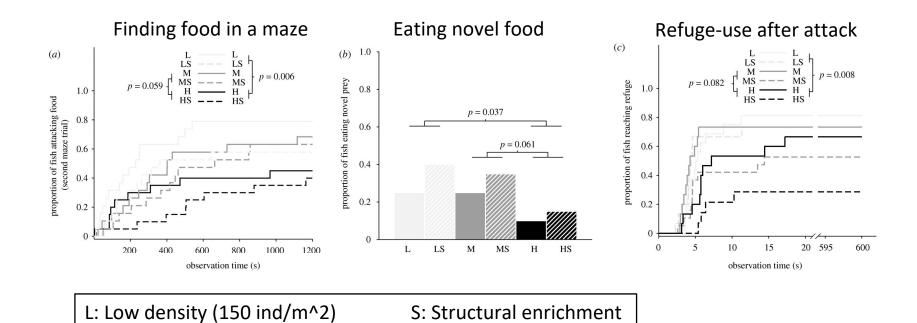


A later study on the <u>same population</u>, by a different research group, found positive effects of enrichment (65 ind/m²; fish released earlier into the river). (Mes et al. 2019, J. Exp. Biol.)



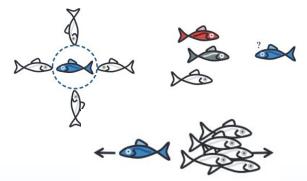
Density reduction – behaviour/cognition

Brockmark et al. (2010, Proc. R. Soc. B) found that brown trout reared at lower densities performed better in cognitive trials (finding food in a maze, eating novel food, and using refuges after predator attack). Enrichment had no significant effects.



HYPOTHESIS:

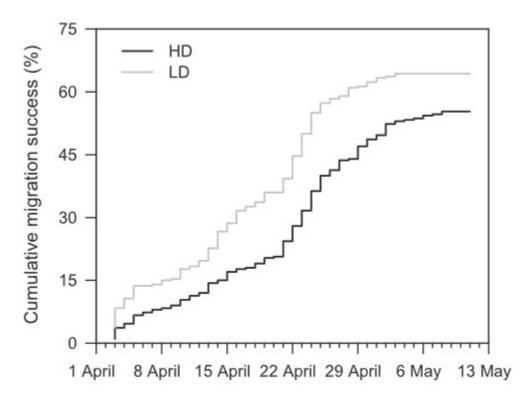
Lower densities are more similar to natural environments, which stimulates the cognitive ability through e.g. resource defence, individual recognition, individual decisionmaking, etc.



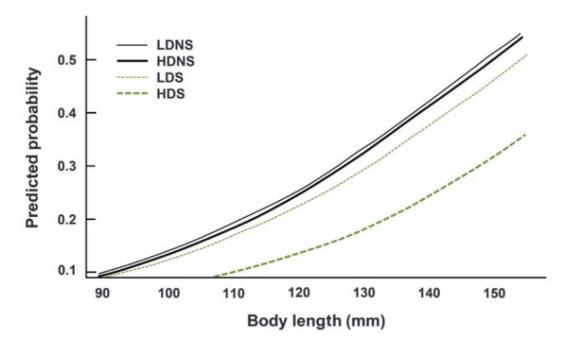
M: Medium desnity: (600 ind/m^2)

H: High density: (2500 ind/m^2)

Density reduction – post-stocking performance



Salmon reared in low density (500 ind/m²) survive better than salmon reared at higher density (1500 ind/m²) during smolt migration (Larsen et al. 2016)



Results can vary! In our Norwegian study, we find that smolt migration is poorer in high-density fish, but only when combined with environmental enrichment. (Rosengren et al. 2017)



Density reduction – post-stocking performance

Large scale post-stocking experiment in River Imsa, Norway

Experimental treatments:

- Food fat content (HF: high or LF: low)
- Density: (HD: high or LD: low)

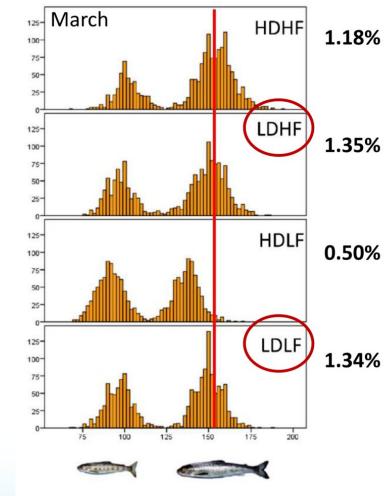
Monitoring returns to the river (1 SW)

Results:

Low fat content in high density = not good at all Low density treatments = best

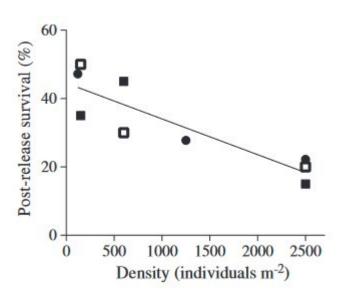
(Unpublished)



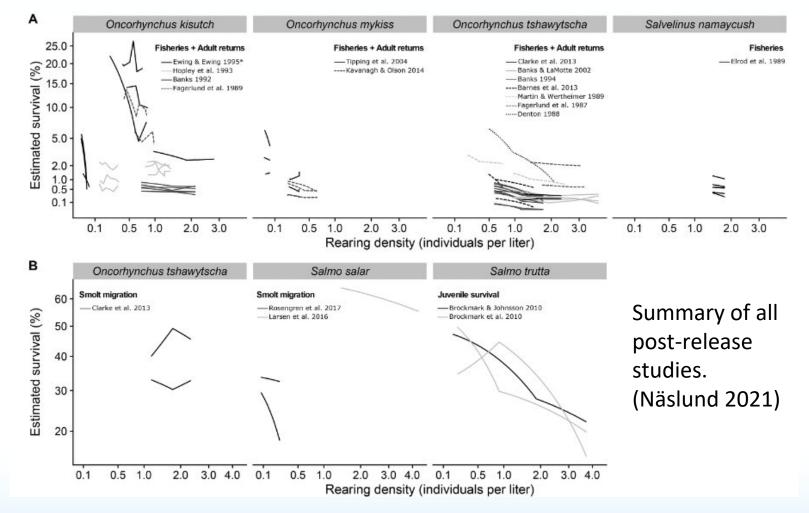




Density reduction – post-stocking performance



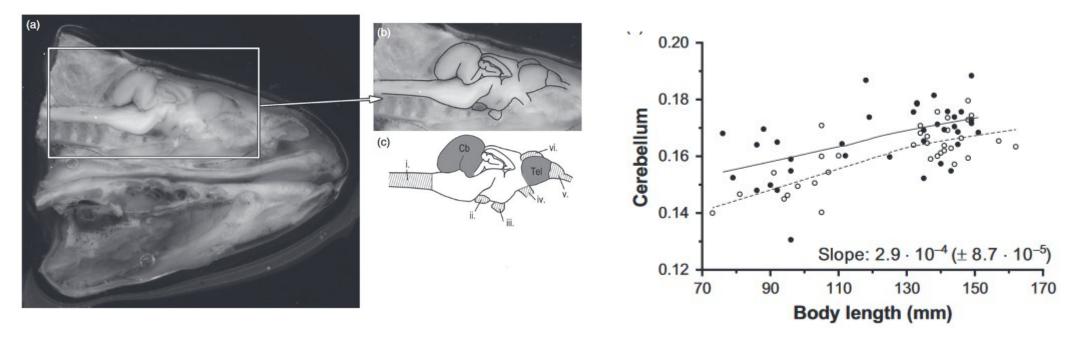
Post-stocking survival of brown trout in streams is better when reared at lower densities (studies by Brockmark et al, summarized in Johnsson et al. 2014)



Interreg

Atlantic Area

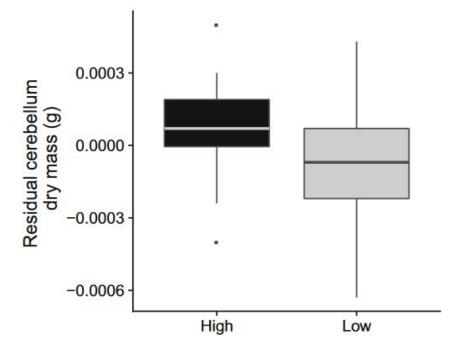
Density reduction – brains



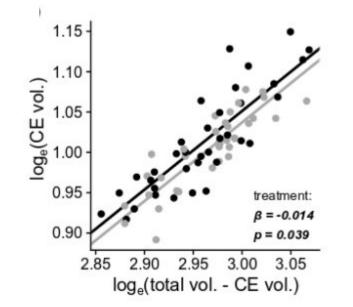
Fish rered in higher density (1500 fish/m²) had **larger hind brain** than fish reared in lower density (500 fish/m²). Nevertheless, the lower density fish performed better after release (Näslund et al. 2017, J. Zool.; same experiment as Larsen et al. 2016)



Density reduction – brains



Hind brain was also larger in higher density in Norwegian salmon – but no effect of environmental enrichment! (Näslund et al. 2019, Environ. Biol. Fish.; same experiment as Rosengren et al. 2017)



Similarly, hind brain is bigger in salmon reared in groups as compared with isolation-reared salmon. (Guo et al. 2022, J. Fish Biol.)



Training – live food handling and foraging

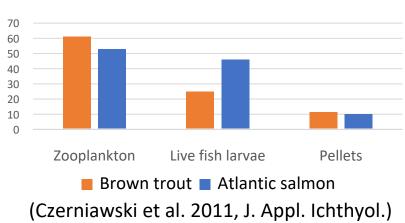
Summary from review paper: Näslund 2021, Bull. Mar Sci

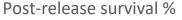
Hypothesis: Inexperience with live food leads to inefficient foraging, which can be mitigated by providing live food or foraging training in the hatchery.

Most studies show positive effects. Effects are <u>often very rapid</u> (few trials necessary to improve skills)

Few fish will starve to death immediately after release, and learning opportunities will be present in nature. *Does it matter if we train the fish?*

Perhaps. Novel environment, stress, predators, etc. may reduce the learning opportunities after release. Few post-release studies, but often positive results. Lab-evidence is, however, not enough.







Training – predation avoidance

Summary from review paper: Näslund 2021, Bull. Mar Sci

Hypothesis: Inexperience with predators leads to predation vulnerability, which can be mitigated by providing experience of predators or predator cues hatchery.

Some, but not all, species have innate predator recognition skills.

Effect of live predator experience is generally strong (often one exposure can enough – but may not be legal in some countries.

Effect of predator cues (chemical or visual – but no direct contact) – seems to work when coupled with intraspecific alarm cues – more variable effects when using only predator cues.

In contrast to starvation effects, post-release predation effects are acutely important. One predator encounter may lead to death.

Predator memory retention:

June suckers: <10 days (Archer & Crowl 2014) Brook charr: >10 days (Mirza & Chivers 2000) Rainbow trout:

- At least 21 days (Brown & Smith 1998)*
- Less than 9 days (Berejikian et al. 1999)*
- * Similar exposure time (8-10 min), but different life-stages!

Several studies show that responses differ at different life-stages!



Training – more examples



Note! Summaries of all relevant papers are found in the supplement!

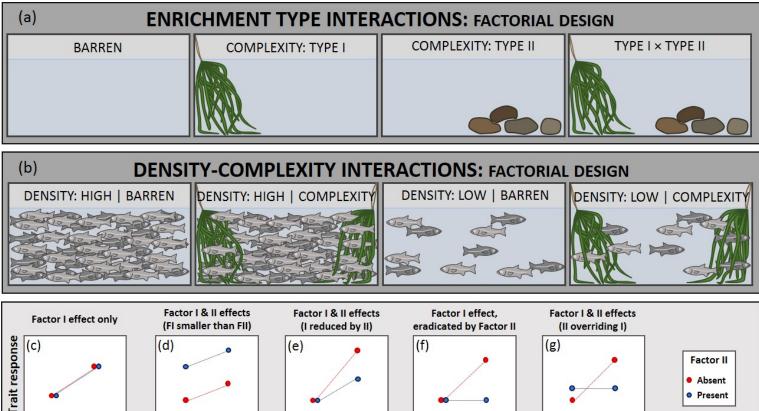


Where to go next within this field of research?

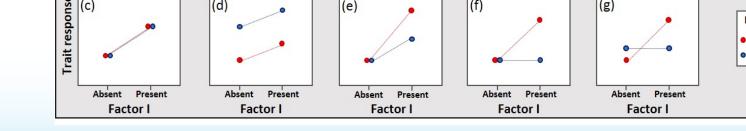


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Need to investigate interactive effects, using factorial designs: (structure types/flow/substrate/tank colour, etc).

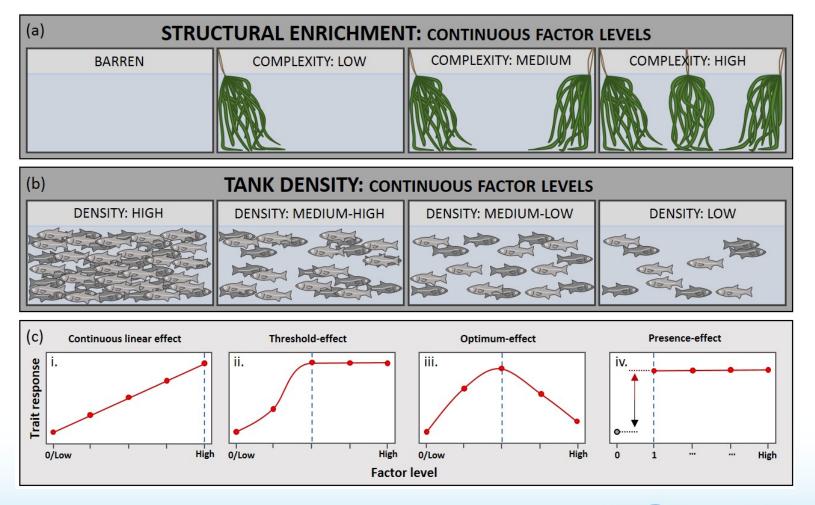


Too many combinations? Fractional factorial design: carefully chosen subsets of a factorial design – strategically confounding factors, limiting the analyses to e.g. 2-way interactions.



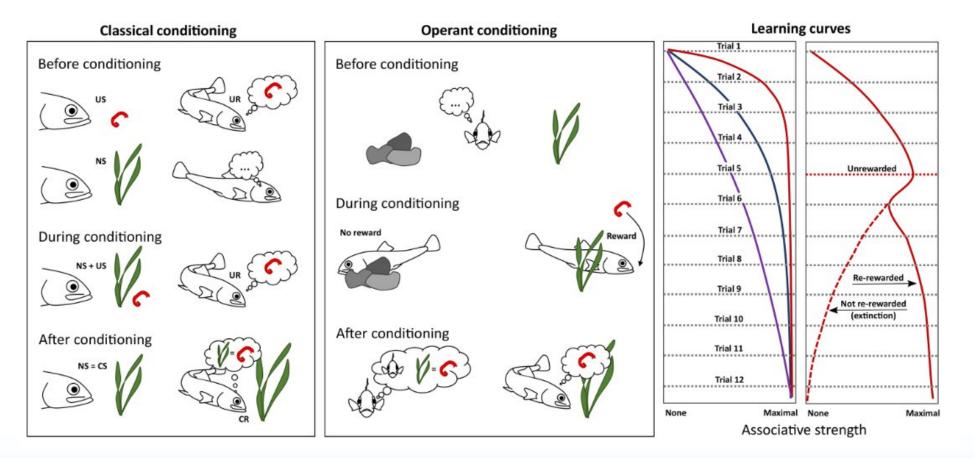
LOCAL AND GLOBAL INITIATIVES: HOW SCIENCE SUPPORTS MANAGEMENT ACTIONS ON DIADROMOUS FISH

Detecting non-linearity requires multiple levels of the factor





Training programmes for fish



Important to take influence from the field of cognition science!

- How many learning • trials are needed? Learning curves measuring associative strength
- How long is the effect • retained? **Extinction effects**







Publishing results

- One major danger that may lead to wasted money is too optimistic interpretation of results - a focus only on significance omits the importance of effect size. The important question to ask is "How large does an effect have to be to lead to a positive post-stocking effect?" To answer this question we will need to do field studies on released fish.
- Focus on only significance could encourage data torture and phacking (testing until significance).
- Negative results need to be published these are as important as the positive results, in particular since the field approaches the stage of meta-analyses. An unthankful task, but not that hard...





Take-home messages

- There are potentially positive effects from various training protocols, enrichment and density reduction, but <u>effects vary a lot and are likely species-</u> <u>and stage specific</u>.
- We need more multi-level experiments to detect possible non-linear responses.
- Test interaction effects among different solution treatments
- More field studies required!
- Publish negative results!

"We have been too content with turning out a nice looking report of the number of fish hatched, reared, and presumably planted; and not sufficiently concerned with what actually happened to the fish afterward" – WM Keil 1935

Thank you for listening!



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LOCAL AND GLOBAL INITIATIVES: HOW SCIENCE SUPPORTS MANAGEMENT ACTIONS ON DIADROMOUS FISH

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Comparative (multi-spp.) studies are largely missing, particularly at the species level, but could help in building knowledge about how ecological traits are important for performance under different culture conditions.

- How do different species and populations react to intervention?
- Are some species or populations more or less influenced than others?

Existing studies suggest there are potentially important effects that need further exploration in more species and in postrelease studies.

- How do different ontogenetic stages of a species respond to interventions?
- Does it matter at which life-stage an intervention is introduced?

Broodstock variation could be an important factor to consider, in addition to preparing the animals for a life in nature.

- What is the effect of genetic diversity in the reared animals on different intervention outcomes?
- Is there a genetic component affecting the responsiveness to interventions?

How are different phenotypes [relating to behavior ("personality"), morphology, coloration, stress responsiveness, etc.] affected by interventions?

- Are specific phenotypes promoted over others when an intervention is applied and, if so, how does the surviving
 part of the stocked population compare with the phenotype distribution of natural populations and standardreared groups?
- Do different phenotypes require different amounts of training (e.g., different numbers of live-food exposures, depending on level of neophobia)?



Few studies specify end goals for their interventions, apart from a vague aim of improved performance. Which behavioral and cognitive traits are critical for postrelease performance, and which are not? How much do cultured animals differ from wild ones in those traits? What are the specific goals when aiming for culturing a wild-like phenotype?

More large-scale studies following up on results from small laboratory experiments are needed; several studies suggest that scale matters.

• How can successful experimental results be applied in large-scale production?

What is the timespan of intervention effects?

- How long is the memory window of the learned skills, and how much does it vary among individuals?
- For how long postrelease do cultured animals from an altered environment differ compared to standard-reared and wild individuals?

Distinguishing whether animals are reinforced or habituated during repeated or prolonged interventions, making optimization of interventions in relation to stocking date possible.

 How does retention of effects depend on the level of exposure (e.g., number of learning trials, length of training trials, or length of exposure to an altered environment)?



Responses to different types of food or predators after conditioning training need to be measured to understand how generalized the trained responses are.

• Can the cultured animals generalize learned responses to situations similar, but not identical, to the training situation?

Get a picture of the generality of responses to a specific intervention, and how to optimize the intervention.

• How do different varieties of the same type of factor (e.g., different prey species, predator cues, enrichment structures, etc.) affect performance?

Design experiments that can detect nonlinear patterns, to optimize interventions.

• How do different levels of the same factor, along continuous scales (e.g., different length of exposure, amounts of enrichment structures, or densities) affect performance?

Find out whether we get additive or non-additive (either more or less than additive) effects of applying several types of interventions.

• How do different types of interventions interact?

