

**The importance of behaviour in predicting the impact of a novel small-scale
hydropower device on the survival of downstream moving fish**

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25 **Abstract**

26 Further exploitation of hydroelectric power is one strategy that may help European
27 Union member states meet targets to increase the proportion of electricity produced by
28 renewable means. Government subsidies and novel technologies are aiding the
29 development of previously uneconomic, very low-head (< 2.5 m) hydropower sites.
30 Legislation requires that environmental impacts of hydropower development must be
31 assessed and mitigated for. This study incorporated numerical blade strike models
32 (BSMs), open channel flume experiments, and field observations to determine the
33 importance of behaviour when assessing impacts of a novel hydropower device (the
34 Hydrostatic Pressure Converter [HPC]) on downstream moving fish. A Stochastic BSM
35 predicted a lower probability of strike for small fish that travelled downstream faster,
36 and when blades rotated slowly. When empirical data were incorporated into a BSM,
37 predicted probability of strike was in agreement with that observed during a validation
38 test in which freshly euthanized hatchery reared brown trout (*Salmo trutta*) were
39 recorded passively drifting through a prototype HPC under an experimental setting.
40 Forty four percent of trout were struck by a blade, of these, 64% sustained obvious
41 visible physical damage. Behavioural observations of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus*
42 *mykiss*) and European eel (*Anguilla anguilla*) suggest that fish will pass through an
43 unscreened HPC. When behavioural parameters (fish velocity, orientation / degree of
44 body contortion) were incorporated into the BSM, probability of strike increased and
45 decreased for trout and eel, respectively, compared with an assumption of passive drift
46 with the flow. Field observations supported the suggestion that salmonid behaviour may
47 increase risk of mortality during passage through small-scale hydropower devices. This
48 study highlights the importance of considering interspecific variation in behaviour when

49 developing BSMs and conducting Environmental Impact Assessments of hydropower
50 development.

51

52 **Key words: Low-head hydropower, Turbine, Blade strike model, Flume, Fish**
53 **injury**

54

55 **1. Introduction**

56

57 As global energy demand continues to rise, hydropower offers a reliable, highly
58 efficient, long term energy investment (Oud, 2002), and a move away from fossil fuel
59 dependency. As part of a mixed power source portfolio, hydropower facilitates energy
60 security for many nations, whilst contributing towards meeting targets to increase the
61 proportion of electricity generated from renewable sources. In developed regions (e.g.
62 Europe), hydropower operations increasingly focus on small-scale (often defined as \leq
63 10 MW) installations, as larger-scale opportunities have either been exploited or are
64 considered environmentally unacceptable (Paish, 2002). In many countries, a high
65 density of redundant low-head infrastructure (e.g. weirs and mill systems) that was until
66 recently judged economically unsuitable for hydroelectric development, are now being
67 assessed again in light of government subsidies designed to help meet renewable
68 electricity generation targets.

69 Hydropower development can alter water quality and flow regimes, and
70 negatively impact biotic communities, e.g. by impeding movements of aquatic
71 organisms due to the construction of impoundments, or by damaging those that pass
72 through turbines (Čada, 2001; Ovidio and Philippart, 2002; Trussart et al., 2002;

73 Santucci Jr et al., 2005). For fish, downstream passage through turbines can cause injury
74 and mortality due to blade strike, grinding, rapid pressure fluctuations, cavitation, shear
75 stress and turbulence (for overviews see Coutant and Whitney, 2000; Čada, 2001). In
76 Europe, hydropower development and operation must be achieved within constraints
77 imposed by legislation designed to reduce environmental impacts. These include the
78 Convention on Biological Diversity, the Habitats Directive (92/43/EEC), Water
79 Framework Directive (WFD) (2000/60/EC), and Eel Regulation (1100/2007/EC). The
80 WFD, in particular, is often viewed as a constraint to hydropower development as
81 deterioration in ecological quality due to hydromorphological pressures created by
82 impoundments and off-takes is prohibited. Under the WFD, river development should
83 include measures to protect, enhance or restore the aquatic environment. Fish fauna is a
84 key indicator of ecological status and thus requires protection from impacts of
85 development.

86 A variety of techniques are employed to quantify impacts to fish passing through
87 hydropower facilities. Experimental research is conducted to simulate the conditions
88 fish experience during, and to determine the impact of, turbine passage (e.g. exposing
89 fish to high shear stresses using jets of water; Neitzel et al., 2004; Deng et al., 2005, or
90 to rapid pressure changes in enclosed chambers; Stephenson et al., 2010; Brown et al.,
91 2012). Field studies, utilizing mark-recapture and tagging techniques (among others, e.g.
92 Deng et al., 2010) allow empirical injury and mortality rates to be quantified. For
93 example, balloon, radio, and combinations of the two tags (Bell and Kynard, 1985; Stier
94 and Kynard, 1986; Skalski et al., 2002; Ferguson et al., 2007; Calles et al., 2012) are
95 used to identify positions of fish to be retrieved after passage through turbines, enabling
96 evaluation of injury. However, results from field studies are often site specific,

97 considering turbine geometry and operating conditions during the test period, and
98 frequently focus on a limited number of species. Instead, numerical blade strike models
99 (BSMs) provide a generic method to predict damage to multiple species of fish passing
100 downstream through turbines. BSMs are useful decision-support tools prior to
101 installation because they can provide estimates of injury and mortality for alternative
102 turbine designs and geometries, under a range of operating conditions (Ferguson et al.,
103 2008). BSM inputs frequently include direction and velocity of water approaching the
104 turbine, number of blades, rotational speed, and fish body length (Montén, 1985).
105 However, as not all strike events result in acute anatomical damage, BSMs historically
106 over estimate direct mortality (Turnpenny et al., 2000).

107 Behaviour of fish during approach to, and passage through, turbines will
108 influence probability of strike and ultimately mortality rates (Coutant and Whitney,
109 2000). However, behaviour is often ignored when quantifying the impacts of
110 hydropower on downstream moving fish, and as a consequence detailed information is
111 limited (Ferguson et al., 2008). Recent flume studies provide an insight into fine-scale
112 behaviour and how it differs between species. For example, for downstream moving
113 salmonids, abrupt accelerations of velocity, a condition common at turbine intakes, may
114 initiate avoidance and the associated switch from a downstream (negative rheotaxis) to
115 upstream (positive rheotaxis) facing orientation, delaying downstream progress (Kemp
116 et al., 2005; Vowles and Kemp, 2012). In contrast, downstream migrating eels, often
117 considered particularly vulnerable to injury during turbine passage due to their large
118 adult size and elongated bodies, may be more responsive to contact with physical
119 structure than the fine-scale hydrodynamic conditions to which salmonids react (Russon
120 and Kemp, 2011). Such interspecific behaviours are likely to play an important role in

121 the probability of fish entering, and severity of strike during passage through,
122 hydropower turbines. Current BSMs assume fish of a specified length to be oriented
123 perpendicular to blades, or incorporate stochastic models that randomise body length
124 (and thus account for variability in orientation during passage), by running multiple
125 iterations (Deng et al., 2007). Although BSMs can be improved by incorporating
126 empirical information, such as a “mutilation ratio” (a measure of the BSM strike rate
127 relative to injury or mortality observed during validation studies), the identification and
128 incorporation of behaviour into future BSMs is needed to further improve accuracy.

129 To develop the low-head hydropower resource in Europe (and elsewhere) there
130 is a need to progress novel technologies that minimize ecological impacts and ensure
131 environmental legislative standards are met. A new technology, the Hydrostatic
132 Pressure Converter (HPC), similar in appearance to historic waterwheels, has been
133 designed to provide a technical and economic solution to the development of very low-
134 head (here considered to be < 2.5 m) hydropower (Senior et al., 2010). Two designs
135 currently exist (see Senior et al. 2010 for technical details). The first, the Hydrostatic
136 Pressure Wheel (HPW), is suitable for exploiting head differences between 0.3 and 1.0
137 m. The HPW consists of a large diameter wheel with vertical blades, which when
138 moving act as a weir, maintaining the head difference between up- and down-stream
139 (Fig. 1.a, b). The resulting differential hydrostatic pressure acting on the blades causes
140 the machine to rotate around a horizontal axis at the velocity of flow. The second and
141 more complex design, the Hydrostatic Pressure Machine (HPM), operates under the
142 same principal but can exploit head differences between 1.0 and 2.5 m (Fig. 1.c; Senior
143 et al., 2010). HPMs employ a central hub, equal in diameter to the hydraulic head
144 difference. Simplicity in design, in combination with potential for high efficiencies at

145 very low-head differences indicate that these machines provide a technological solution
146 to the challenge of exploiting the underutilized very low-head hydropower resource
147 available within Europe (Senior et al., 2010; Paudel et al., 2013). However, the
148 environmental performance of HPCs has yet to be assessed.

149 The aim of this study was to determine the importance of behaviour when
150 assessing the impact of a novel small-scale hydropower device (the HPC) on
151 downstream moving fish. Four objectives were identified: 1. develop a BSM to estimate
152 the probability of a fish being struck by a rotating HPC blade, it is predicted that strike
153 will increase with fish length and speed of blade rotation, but decrease as fish move
154 downstream faster; 2. validate the BSM using empirical strike data and determine nature
155 of damage sustained during passage; 3. quantify the behaviour of multiple species of
156 fish as they approach a HPC in the presence and absence of visual cues, and incorporate
157 responses into the BSM; 4. assess rates of damage to fish passing through a HPC in a
158 field setting. Findings from this study will help inform the development of BSMs in
159 general and highlight the need to consider multi-species fish behaviour when assessing
160 the environmental impact of hydropower development.

161

162 **2. Materials and methods**

163

164 *2.1. Blade strike model*

165

166 A numerical BSM was developed to predict the probability (P) of the leading
167 edge of a HPW blade striking a downstream moving fish. Fish swimming into the back
168 of a rotating blade was not considered by the model as contact with the blade tip was the

169 area suspected to cause damage to fish. The model was based on the principle that for a
 170 fish to pass through the HPW without being struck by a blade it must pass between the
 171 sweep of one blade and the next. One hundred iterations were computed per model
 172 simulation and P was calculated as:

$$173 \quad P = 100 \left(\frac{N_{\text{strike}}}{N} \right) \quad (1)$$

174 where N_{strike} is the number of model iterations where the fish is struck by a blade and N
 175 is the total number of model iterations. Strike is deemed to occur when the time taken
 176 for the body of the fish to move past the arc of water swept by the blades (T_{fish}) is
 177 greater than the time taken for the next blade to reach the location where the fish
 178 approached the arc (T_{sweep}) (Fig. 2). T_{fish} (sec) is calculated as:

$$179 \quad T_{\text{fish}} = \frac{L_{\text{fish}}}{V_{\text{fish}}} \quad (2)$$

180 where L_{fish} and V_{fish} are the fish length perpendicular to a HPW blade (m) and the
 181 downstream velocity of the fish relative to the ground (m s^{-1}), respectively. T_{sweep} (sec)
 182 is calculated as:

$$183 \quad T_{\text{sweep}} = \frac{L_{\text{sweep}}}{\bar{u}} \quad (3)$$

184 where \bar{u} is the water velocity (m s^{-1}) and L_{sweep} is the arc length between the blade and
 185 fish locations (m) (diagrammatically the same as T_{sweep} in Fig. 2), calculated as:

$$186 \quad L_{\text{sweep}} = (rA_{\text{blade}}) - (rA_{\text{fish}}) \quad (4)$$

187 where r is the radius of the HPW (m). A_{blade} is the location along the arc of the nearest
 188 blade tip to the fish at the time the fish approaches the arc (Fig. 2). This value was
 189 randomised within the model to reflect any point along the arc, from the the location
 190 where the blade tip first sweeps past the base of the channel (pinch point) to a maximum
 191 arc distance upstream equal to the gap between two blades, by adjusting θ in equation 5

192 between 0 and 30° (0.52 rad) unless otherwise stated (see Section 2.2). A_{fish} is the
 193 approach location of the fish along the arc (Fig. 2) and was randomised within the
 194 model (anywhere between the pinch point and the water surface, again by adjusting θ in
 195 equation 5), unless otherwise stated (see Section 2.2). A_{blade} and A_{fish} were both
 196 determined as:

$$197 \quad = \left(\left(\frac{r}{\sin((180-\theta)/2)} \right) \sin \theta \right) \sin(\alpha - ((180 - \theta)/2)) \quad (5)$$

198 where θ is the angle between A_{blade} or A_{fish} and the pinch point (Fig. 2), and α is the
 199 angle between the blade face as it sweeps the pinch point and the channel floor (this was
 200 set at 120° [2.09 rad] based on a prototype HPW used during validation tests; Fig. 2). If
 201 the nearest blade to the fish has already passed A_{fish} or is at the pinch point, then the
 202 probability of the fish being struck by the next blade must be considered. The location
 203 of the second blade is calculated using:

$$204 \quad A_{\text{blade2}} = A_{\text{blade}} + ((2\pi r/r)/n) \quad (6)$$

205 where n is the total number of HPW blades. In these instances the model replaces A_{blade}
 206 with A_{blade2} in equation 4.

207 One hundred BSM simulations were computed, with randomly assigned fish
 208 length (L_{fish}), fish velocity (V_{fish}), and water velocity (\bar{u}) values from a uniform
 209 distribution (within a specified range, see Stochastic BSM Table 1), to determine their
 210 influence on P . As \bar{u} determines the rotational speed of the HPW (in revolutions per
 211 minute, RPM), it is the influence of RPM on P that is subsequently referred to, and is
 212 calculated as:

$$213 \quad \text{RPM} = 60 / \left(\frac{2\pi r}{\bar{u}} \right) \quad (7)$$

214 The HPW geometry (r and n) and water depth (d) remained constant and were
215 based on a quarter-scale prototype HPW used during validation tests (Section 2.2).

216

217 2.2. Model validation

218

219 To validate the BSM, 100 hatchery reared brown trout, *Salmo trutta* (mean total
220 length \pm SD was 27.5 ± 2.9 cm), were euthanized (using an anaesthetic overdose) and
221 individually released 1.5 m upstream of a prototype HPW installed in an outdoor
222 concrete re-circulating flume (60.0 x 2.1 x 0.5 m) at the International Centre for
223 Ecohydraulics Research (ICER) experimental facility, University of Southampton (UK).
224 Water driven by a centrifugal pump was delivered at a constant discharge
225 (approximately 80 L s^{-1}). The HPW had a radius of 0.8 m and 12 blades that spanned
226 the width of the intake channel (0.5 m). The mean mid-column water velocity
227 (measured 20 cm upstream of the blades and at three equidistant points that spanned the
228 intake channel) was 70.4 cm s^{-1} , and depth was 23 cm. Although released perpendicular
229 to the blades, changes in orientation occurred for some fish during passive drift. Passage
230 outcome was determined from video footage and categorised as: 1. 'No contact' with
231 the rotating blades; 2. 'Slap' with the back of a blade after passing the leading edge (no
232 observable external damage); 3. 'Strike' with the leading edge of the blade causing no
233 or minor observable damage (see Section 3.2); and 4. 'Grinding' of the fish between the
234 blade and base of the channel at the pinch point, leading to severe damage (see Section
235 3.2). Visual macroscopic assessment immediately after passage through the HPC and
236 photographs, taken pre- and post-passage, were used to determine the nature of any
237 damage.

238 Fish 'Strike' and 'Grinding' occurred during contact with the leading edge of a
239 blade and were compared with the predictions of two BSMs. The first modelled the
240 validation study setup (subsequently referred to as the Validation BSM, Table 1) and for
241 each model iteration (100 per simulation) randomly assigned fish and blade approach
242 positions (i.e. A_{fish} , A_{blade} and A_{blade2} in the BSM formulation outlined in Section 2.1),
243 and a L_{fish} that corresponded to the mean total length of the euthanized fish. One
244 hundred simulations of the Validation BSM were computed to determine whether the
245 proportion of fish observed being struck by a blade during the validation tests fitted
246 within the model distribution of P . The second BSM (referred to as the Empirical
247 Validation BSM, Table 1) assigned A_{fish} , A_{blade} , and A_{blade2} positions for each iteration
248 according to their observed locations, digitised from video footage, and L_{fish} values
249 based on the actual stream-wise length of fish as they drifted through the blades (thus
250 taking into account variability in orientation as fish passively moved downstream). One
251 simulation (consisting of 100 iterations) was computed for this model.

252

253 2.3. Fish behaviour

254

255 To determine the influence of behaviour on the probability of a blade striking a
256 fish, experiments were conducted in an indoor re-circulating flume (20.4 x 1.4 x 0.6 m)
257 at the ICER facility. Discharge (approximately 100 L s⁻¹) and upstream water depth
258 (18.9 cm) were maintained constant. The HPW had the same geometry as the prototype
259 used during validation tests, but extended across the width of the flume (1.4 m). Mean
260 mid-column water velocity, measured 20 cm upstream of the blades at five equidistant
261 points that spanned the channel width, was 37.9 cm s⁻¹.

262 Rainbow trout, *Oncorhynchus mykiss* (obtained from a local hatchery on 26
263 September 2008; mean total length and mass: 26.3 ± 2.5 cm, 138.2 ± 50.7 g) and
264 actively downstream-migrating adult European eels, *Anguilla anguilla* (sourced from a
265 commercial trapper on the River Stour, Dorset, UK, on 5 September 2008; mean total
266 length and mass: 56.6 ± 8.8 cm, 340.6 ± 174.7 g) were selected as the test species as
267 they represent families of economic and conservation interest with distinctly different
268 life history characteristics and body morphologies. Trout and eels were transported in
269 aerated containers and held in 3000 L (max density: 10.5 kg/m^3) and 900 L (max
270 density: 20.4 kg/m^3) tanks, respectively. Under ambient temperature and natural
271 photoperiod, water quality was maintained using aeration and filtration systems.

272 During the experiments, fish were contained within a section of flume by two
273 fine mesh screens placed 0.07 and 6.7 m upstream of the rotating blade tips. The most
274 downstream screen was installed to prevent fish passing the device where they were at
275 risk of injury from the rotating blades. Black plastic sheeting erected along the length of
276 the flume prevented visual disturbance to the fish. Fish were placed into a perforated
277 container located 6.8 m upstream of the HPW and allowed to acclimatise for a
278 minimum of one hour prior to trials commencing. At the start of each trial fish were
279 released individually and allowed to explore the channel. After one hour, fish were
280 removed from the flume and measured and weighed. Each fish was used once only.
281 Trials were conducted during night and day to determine the influence of visual cues on
282 behavioural response. Night (19:00 – 01:00 hrs) and day (10:00 – 16:00 hrs) trials were
283 conducted between 29 September and 9 October, and 27 and 30 October 2008,
284 respectively. The study was conducted under strictly controlled conditions.
285 Experimental procedure, flume discharge, water depth, and HPW rotational speed

286 remained constant, and water temperature was similar between night ($17.1 \pm 1.1^\circ\text{C}$) and
287 day ($16.0 \pm 1.1^\circ\text{C}$).

288 Overhead and side-view cameras recorded fish behaviour on entering the area 1
289 m upstream of the downstream screen, subsequently referred to as the observation zone.
290 Behaviour was quantified for each trial as: 1. number of entrances to the observation
291 zone; 2. orientation on entry; 3. period of occupancy (sec) within the observation zone;
292 4. downstream fish velocity (represented as V_{fish} in the BSM and subsequently referred
293 to as observed V_{fish} , OV_{fish}); and 5. stream-wise length (perpendicular to the blades and
294 taking into consideration the orientation / contortion of the body, represented as L_{fish} in
295 the BSM and subsequently referred to as observed L_{fish} , OL_{fish}). OV_{fish} and OL_{fish} were
296 determined one second prior to first contact with the downstream screen using video
297 tracking software (Logger Pro v3.8.2, Vernier Software, Beaverton, OR, USA). BSM
298 simulations where L_{fish} and V_{fish} were defined as the mean total length of trout and eel
299 used during behaviour tests (measurements taken after each flume trial) and the velocity
300 at which fish passively drift with bulk flow, respectively (subsequently referred to as the
301 Passive BSM), were compared with simulations where OV_{fish} (13.9 cm s^{-1} [trout] and
302 34.1 cm s^{-1} [eel]) and OL_{fish} (22.7 cm [trout] and 37.8 cm [eel]) were used (values
303 obtained from video footage of the behavioural tests). This model is subsequently
304 referred to as the Behaviour BSM (Table 1).

305 In the BSM simulations, the HPW diameter was doubled to accommodate
306 observed eel body length that would otherwise have resulted in 100% strike rate,
307 independent of whether behaviour was incorporated into the model.

308

309 2.4. Field observations

310

311 As part of the EU Framework 7 research project (HYLOW), field studies were
312 conducted in collaboration with the Division of General and Applied Hydrobiology,
313 Sofia University “St. Kliment Ohridski” (Bulgaria), which assessed the environmental
314 impact of a full scale (10 kW) HPM (2.4 m diameter, 2 m wide, and with 10 blades)
315 installed on a low-head weir on the River Iskar (a tributary of the Danube River),
316 Bulgaria (Uzunova and Kisliakov, 2014). Hatchery reared salmonids (rainbow trout [*O.*
317 *mykiss*] and brook trout [*Salvelinus fontinalis*]) were transported in aerated containers to
318 the study site, and held in perforated pens in the river for at least 2 hours prior to release
319 approximately 2 m upstream of the HPM intake. Fish were able to move upstream away
320 from the release point or pass downstream through the HPM. Mean water velocity at the
321 intake was 66 cm s⁻¹. Fish were divided into four size groups (Table 2). Each group was
322 tested separately and released between 43 and 175 minutes apart. The largest size range
323 utilised live and euthanized fish to allow a comparison between fish exhibiting
324 behaviour versus those passively drifting downstream. Fish were collected downstream
325 using a fyke net positioned in the tailrace. Fish were removed from the net (that was
326 continually checked) and placed into aerated containers immediately prior to
327 macroscopic external examination. Injuries observed were; severing of the body, severe
328 incision / pinch marks, tears / cuts to the skin, fin damage, and scale loss. Direct
329 mortality was recorded if the fish was dead during examination. Injured fish were
330 euthanized after examination and thus not retained for assessment of delayed mortality.
331 Fish not injured during passage were released into the river below the device.

332

333 2.5. Statistical analysis

334

335 Data was assessed for normality and homogeneity of variance using a Shapiro-
336 Wilk and Levene's test, respectively. Non-parametric tests were performed on data that
337 could not be successfully normalised through transformation. For the Stochastic BSM,
338 multiple regression analysis was used to investigate the relationships between L_{fish} , V_{fish} ,
339 RPM and probability of strike (P), and determined how much of the variability in P was
340 explained by these parameters. Standardized beta coefficients (beta coefficients divided
341 by standard error) were calculated to determine the sensitivity of P to each parameter.
342 Pearson's chi-square tests were used to identify differences between the Empirical
343 Validation BSM estimate of P and number of fish observed contacting the leading edge
344 of a HPW blade during evaluation. Mann-Whitney U tests determined if number of
345 approaches, or period of occupancy within the observation zone was influenced by time
346 of day (day or night) or species (trout or eel). The influence of species and BSM type
347 (passive or behaviour) on mean probability of strike (after 100 simulations per model)
348 was analysed using univariate two-way ANOVA.

349

350 3. Results

351

352 3.1. Blade strike model

353

354 The probability of blade strike (P) was positively related to L_{fish} and RPM, but
355 negatively correlated with V_{fish} (Fig. 3). The three variables explained 85% of variability

356 in P ($R^2 = .85$, $F_{3,96} = 176.36$, $p < 0.001$). L_{fish} was the most significant predictor, with
357 RPM and V_{fish} having similar contributions towards P (Fig. 3).

358

359 3.2. Model validation

360

361 The Validation BSM overestimated P compared to that observed (Fig. 4).
362 However, when empirical values for A_{fish} , A_{blade} , A_{blade2} , and L_{fish} were incorporated into
363 the Empirical Validation Model, estimated P did not differ significantly from the
364 observed strike rate during the validation tests (Pearson chi-square: $\chi^2 = 0.18$, d.f. = 1, p
365 = 0.670; Fig. 4).

366 As fish passively drifted through the HPW, the most common outcome was ‘No
367 contact’, followed by ‘Grinding’ (Table 3). Only two fish sustained injuries during
368 ‘Strike’ events; one minor graze to the snout and one small bruise near the caudal fin.
369 All grinding events resulted in visible damage deemed sufficient to have resulted in
370 mortality had fish been alive. During grinding fish were pinched at the small gap
371 (approximately 5 mm) between the blade tip and base of the flume and drawn through
372 the device. This resulted in severe incision at the point of contact with the fish, leading
373 to clear skeletal / internal damage, tears / cuts to the skin, damaged fins, and extensive
374 abrasive scale loss. Strike and grinding occurred in 44% of fish drifting through the
375 HPW, 28 (64% of those struck by a blade) sustained visible damage.

376

377 3.3. Fish behaviour

378

379 Number of approaches to the observation zone did not differ with time of day
380 for trout (Mann-Whitney U: $U = 10.5$, $z = -0.45$, $p = 0.655$) or eels (Mann-Whitney U:

381 $U = 8, z = -1.00, p = 0.340$) so data were pooled across treatments. Eels approached the
382 observation zone more frequently than trout (mean \pm SD = 8.7 ± 5.5 and 1.8 ± 1.4 for
383 eel and trout respectively; Mann-Whitney U: $U = 10, z = -3.07, p < 0.01$). Seventy two
384 and 91% of approaches resulted in contact with the downstream screen (7 cm upstream
385 of the blade tips) for trout and eels, respectively.

386 Orientation differed between species. Overall, trout and eel were predominantly
387 positively and negatively rheotactic, respectively, although for eel, orientation was more
388 variable during the night (Table 4).

389 Occupancy time did not differ with time of day for trout (Mann-Whitney U: $U =$
390 $8, z = -0.94, p = 0.347$) or eels (Mann-Whitney U: $U = 7, z = -1.15, p = 0.251$) so data
391 were pooled across treatments. Period of occupancy did not differ between species
392 (Mann-Whitney U: $U = 38, z = -0.91, p = 0.364$). Neither species avoided the
393 observation zone with mean occupancy times representing a large proportion of the
394 experimental period, considering over 6 m of flume was available for exploration (35.72
395 minutes for trout; 24.47 minutes for eels).

396 Trout moved downstream slower (mean $OV_{\text{fish}} \pm \text{SD} = 13.9 \pm 9.0 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$) than
397 the bulk flow ($\bar{u} = 37.9 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$). In contrast eels tended to drift downstream at a speed
398 that closely matched that of the water velocity (mean $OV_{\text{fish}} \pm \text{SD} = 34.1 \pm 13.0 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$).
399 For trout, OL_{fish} ($22.7 \pm \text{SD } 3.4 \text{ cm}$) was similar to their mean total length ($26.4 \pm \text{SD}$
400 2.7 cm). Due to the contortion of the body, OL_{fish} ($37.8 \pm \text{SD } 11.6 \text{ cm}$) for eels was less
401 than the mean total length ($56.0 \pm \text{SD } 7.4 \text{ cm}$).

402 There was an interaction effect between species (trout or eel) and BSM type
403 (passive or behaviour) on the probability of being struck by a HPW blade (two-way
404 ANOVA: $F_{1, 396} = 4479.06, p < 0.001$). When behaviour was incorporated into the BSM,

405 probability of strike decreased and increased for eel and trout, respectively, in
406 comparison to the passive BSM, where fish were assumed to drift with bulk flow
407 perpendicular to the blades (Fig. 5).

408

409 3.4. *Field observations*

410

411 The proportion of live fish sustaining visible injuries was positively related to
412 total length (Fig. 6). Direct mortality was < 2% for fish smaller than 15 cm in length,
413 but 26% for the largest size range (22 – 31 cm). In contrast, 8% of euthanized fish of the
414 largest size range, which passively drifted through the HPM, sustained damage deemed
415 sufficient to have resulted in mortality had they been alive (Fig. 6).

416

417 4. Discussion

418

419 A primary concern regarding low-head hydropower development is the potential
420 injury of fish due to turbine blade strike (Bracken and Lucas, 2013). A Stochastic blade
421 strike model (BSM) intuitively predicted the probability of strike for fish that pass
422 through a Hydrostatic Pressure Wheel (HPW) to be positively related to body length
423 and blade rotational speed, and negatively related to downstream fish velocity.

424 The BSM designed to simulate conditions created during validation tests
425 (Validation BSM), where euthanized brown trout passively drifted through a HPW in an
426 experimental flume, overestimated probability of strike compared to that observed.
427 There are likely two explanations for this discrepancy. First, the BSM was based on the
428 assumption that fish were evenly distributed through the water column. However,

429 during validation tests, fish were observed to “sink” when passively drifting. On
430 average, this caused fish to be farther away from the sweeping blades, and thus suffer
431 lower strike rates than predicted. Second, deviation in orientation away from the axis
432 parallel to the direction of flow (and perpendicular to the blades) during passive drift
433 resulted in body length exposed to the blades being lower than the mean value used in
434 the BSM. Interestingly, Deng et al. (2007) suggested fish orientation on entry into the
435 plane of water swept by Kaplan turbines to be one of the most significant factors
436 influencing probability of strike. Their BSMs were improved when body length was
437 randomly adjusted at each iteration (according to various uniform or normal
438 distributions), than when assumed to be perpendicular to the blade (Deng et al., 2007).
439 In the current study, bias in fish depth and orientation was controlled for by digitising
440 actual blade and fish locations and incorporating them into an improved BSM (the
441 Empirical Validation BSM) which more accurately predicted probability of strike. The
442 distribution and orientation of fish during passage through hydropower turbines are
443 important considerations when developing BSMs. This information has traditionally
444 been difficult to collect at large hydroelectric dams, but could be more readily attainable
445 at small-scale, low-head hydropower schemes.

446 During validation tests, passively drifting euthanized fish sustained severe
447 damage, deemed sufficient to have caused mortality had they been alive, during events
448 in which they became trapped between the blade tips and the base of the channel. The
449 slow rotational speed of the blades ($< 1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) meant that other contact (e.g. slap and
450 strike) resulted in minor or no physical damage following visual macroscopic evaluation.
451 To reduce risks to downstream moving fish, novel small-scale hydropower devices
452 should eliminate potential “pinch points”. For example, the mortality of adult European

453 eel was reported to be < 1% when passed through an Archimedean Screw Turbine, and
454 injury to large salmonids was eliminated when the leading blade edge was protected
455 with compressible rubber (Kibel, 2008; Kibel et al., 2009). It should be recognised,
456 however, that this study focused on macroscopic physical injury and direct mortality. In
457 reality fish are likely to suffer less easily quantified, sub-lethal effects (such as
458 physiological stress, behavioural alterations, and increased susceptibility to disease or
459 predation), which may compromise individual fitness, and thus should be considered
460 further in future hydropower impact assessments (Cooke et al., 2011).

461 Trout and eels did not exhibit a strong avoidance response to hydrodynamic,
462 visual, or acoustic cues experienced when approaching the intake to the prototype HPW
463 installed in an experimental flume. Indeed, both species spent approximately half of
464 their time in the immediate vicinity upstream of the device, with eels being more active
465 and entering the observation zone more frequently than trout. The lack of avoidance and
466 frequent contact with the screen suggests that neither species was reacting to the screen
467 itself and that if unscreened, would have likely passed through the device.

468 European eel carry a high risk of blade strike due to their elongated body
469 morphology and tendency to swim near the substrate, where turbine intakes are situated
470 (Gosset et al. 2005). Interestingly, when eel behaviour was incorporated into the BSM,
471 probability of strike was reduced as body contortion limits the length available to strike.
472 However, the tendency to be substrate oriented would likely lead to a high probability
473 of grinding between the blade and channel floor. Consequently, severe injury (and thus
474 mortality per strike event) during downstream passage will likely be higher for this (and
475 other) benthic oriented species. In contrast to eels that tended to move downstream
476 passively, trout exhibited strong positive rheotaxis and thus their groundspeed was

477 slower than the flow. The trout exhibited an escape response by swimming back
478 upstream only after making contact with the protective screen. This suggests that the
479 fish used in this study did not perceive the rotating blades as a hazard at close distance.
480 By approaching the blades slowly, trout spent longer in the hazardous area resulting in a
481 higher probability of strike.

482 In comparison between rates of damage to live and euthanized fish that
483 passed through a full-scale Hydrostatic Pressure Machine (HPM) on the River Iskar
484 (Bulgaria), mortality rates for trout of 22-31 cm body length was approximately three-
485 fold greater than would have occurred if they had passively drifted through the device.
486 This is in agreement with the predictions of the BSM that accounts for salmonid
487 behaviour. Mortality rates can be elevated for salmonids due to behaviour exhibited,
488 influencing probability of survival during passage through hydropower turbines when
489 velocities are sufficiently low.

490 Quantifying the influence of behaviour on fish survival during passage through
491 turbines presents an interesting future research challenge. Behaviour may exert a strong
492 influence on probability of strike during passage through small-scale, low-head
493 hydropower devices, but have a less significant effect when applied to traditional large
494 or high-head turbines. For example, at hydroelectric dams on the Columbia River
495 (USA), blades rotate quickly at approx. 80 RPM, and water velocity accelerates rapidly
496 from around 1 m s^{-1} at turbine intakes to $15 - 18 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ at the blades. Fish may be unable
497 to avoid blades, or control orientation and speed of passage under such conditions
498 (Coutant and Whitney, 2000). Conversely, for small-scale, low-head hydropower
499 devices that rotate relatively slowly, and without rapid fluctuations in water velocity,

500 the probability of strike is more likely to be influenced by behaviour, an aspect rarely
501 considered when assessing impacts of hydropower on downstream moving fish.

502

503 **5. Conclusions**

504

505 The environmental impact of novel low-head hydropower technologies requires
506 rigorous assessment to ensure environmental legislative commitments are fulfilled. This
507 study highlights the importance of fish behaviour when assessing variation in
508 probability and severity of blade strike. Behaviour should be considered when
509 developing future BSMs and when conducting Environmental Impact Assessments. For
510 hydropower devices that create a pinch point (such as HPCs), screens should be used to
511 prevent severe damage caused by grinding of fish between moving and stationary
512 components. Screens should direct fish towards bypass systems, providing safe,
513 alternative routes of passage.

514

515 **Acknowledgments**

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521 formulation, and Roger Castle, John Hardeley and Trevor Whyatt for supply of fish.

522

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644
645
646
647

648 **Table captions:**

649

650 **Table 1.** Parameter values used for the BSMs outlined in Section 2.1 (Stochastic BSM),
651 Section 2.2 (Validation and Empirical Validation BSM), and Section 2.3 (Passive and
652 Behaviour BSM). Key model parameters are illustrated in Fig. 2.

653

654 **Table 2.** Size and number of hatchery trout released upstream of a HPM installed on a
655 low-head weir on the River Iskar (Bulgaria), to assess injury / mortality during
656 downstream passage.

657

658 **Table 3.** The passage outcome and frequency of damage sustained to freshly euthanized
659 brown trout ($N = 100$) passively drifting through a prototype HPW.

660

661 **Table 4.** Percent of total approaches to the observation zone (1 m upstream of a
662 prototype HPW), during which fish faced upstream (positive rheotaxis), downstream
663 (negative rheotaxis) or were perpendicular to the flow.

664

665 **Figure captions:**

666

667 **Figure 1.a.** A prototype HPW installed in an outdoor flume at the ICER experimental
668 facility. **b.** The basic operating principle of HPCs. The hydrostatic pressure force ($F_1 -$
669 F_2) causes the device to travel with the water velocity V_l and generate power. Energy
670 conversion becomes a function of the ratio d_2 / d_1 . **c.** A HPM installed on a low-head

671 weir in the River Iskar (Bulgaria). Note the fyke net placed in the dewatered tailrace,
672 used as part of a field evaluation to quantify injury rates to fish.

673

674 **Figure 2.** Schematic representation of the BSM. This fish approaches (A_{fish} , location
675 indicated by X_1) after the sweep of blade 1 (A_{blade} , location indicated by X_2) but will be
676 struck by blade 2 (A_{blade2} , location indicated by X_3) if T_{fish} is greater than T_{sweep} . The red
677 circle marks the pinch point, and the arc swept by the blade tip is shown as a light grey
678 dashed line.

679

680 **Figure 3.** Standardized β coefficients from a multiple regression analysis indicating the
681 sensitivity of P to three parameters; L_{fish} , RPM, and V_{fish} . All parameters significantly
682 contributed to the regression model ($p < 0.001$).

683

684 **Figure 4.** Results of 100 Validation BSM simulations (mean $P = 64.8\%$), the Empirical
685 Validation BSM ($P = 47\%$) and the observed number of euthanized fish being struck by
686 the HPW blade as they passively drifted downstream during the validation tests
687 (observed strike = 44%). The errors bar is + 1 SD of the Validation BSM simulations.

688

689 **Figure 5.** Probability of strike (P) for trout (black bars) and eel (clear bars) when
690 passively drifting through a HPW while perpendicular to the flow (Passive BSM), and
691 when OL_{fish} and OV_{fish} values were incorporated into the model (Behaviour BSM).

692 Errors bars are + 1 SD.

693

694 **Figure 6.** Total percent of hatchery trout that sustained obvious physical injury (black
695 bars) and direct mortality (clear bars) as a result of passage through a HPM installed on
696 the River Iskar (Bulgaria). The percentage for the ‘euthanized’ group reflects physical
697 damage (black bars) and damage deemed sufficient to result in direct mortality had the
698 fish been alive (white bars).

699

Figure 1

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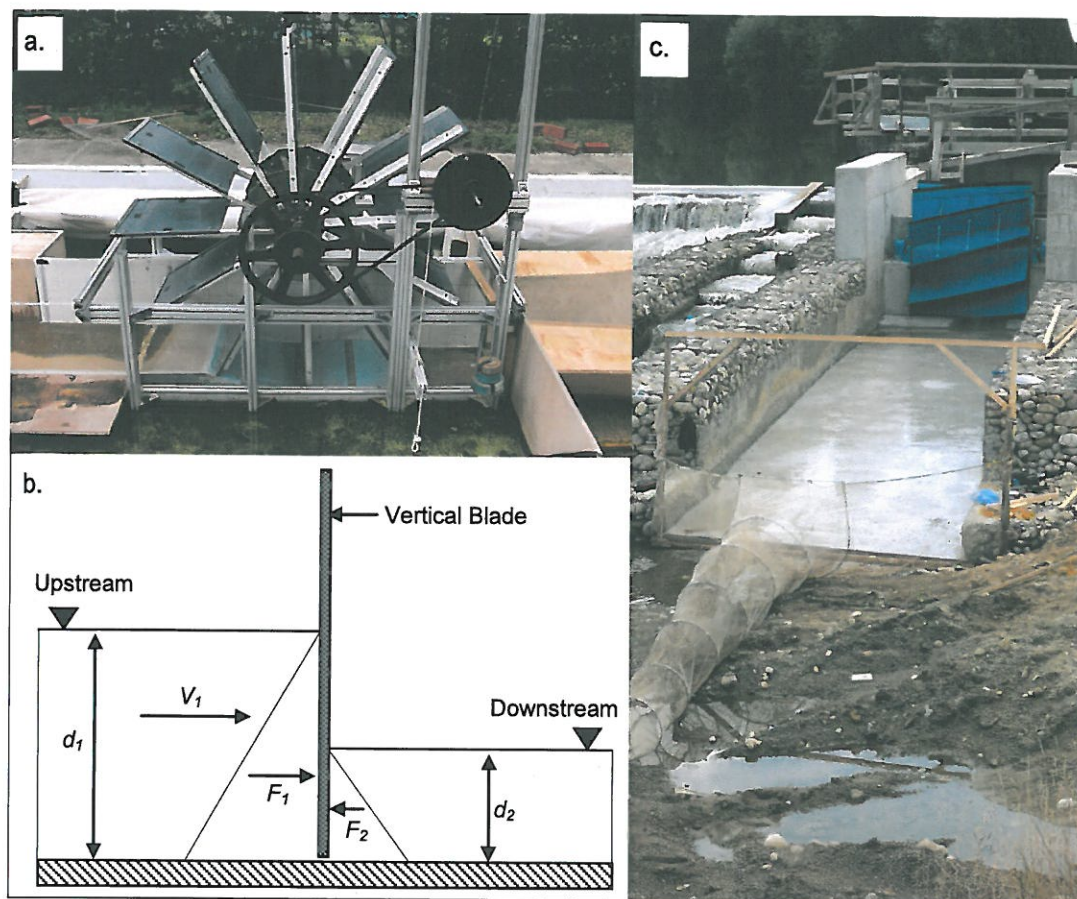


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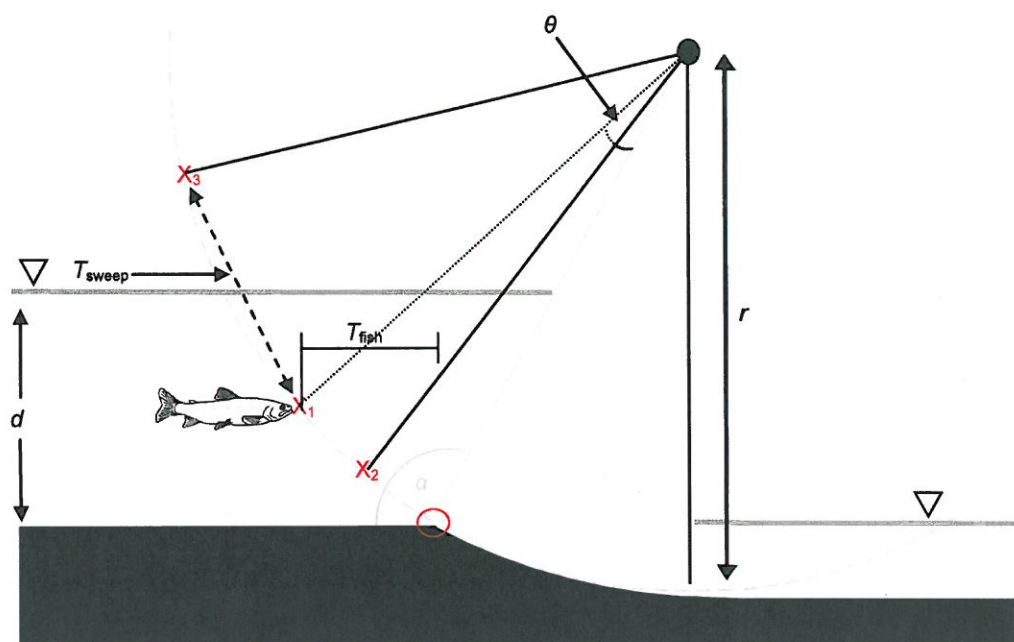


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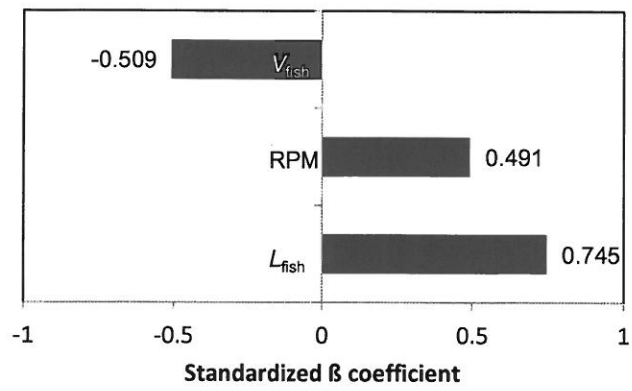


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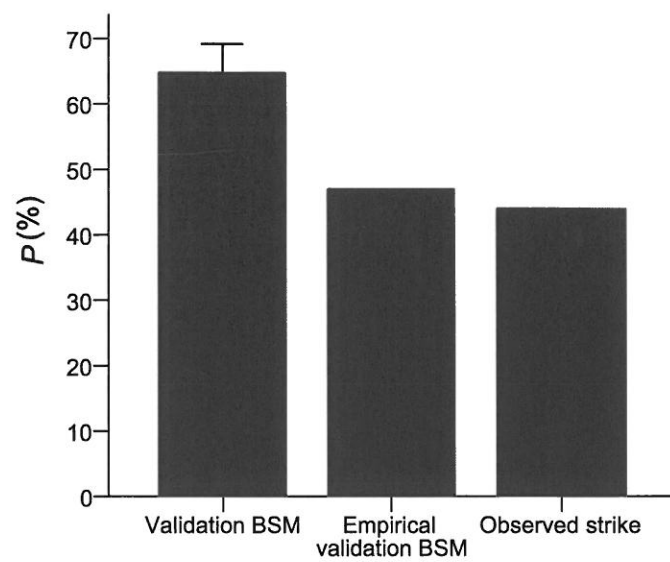


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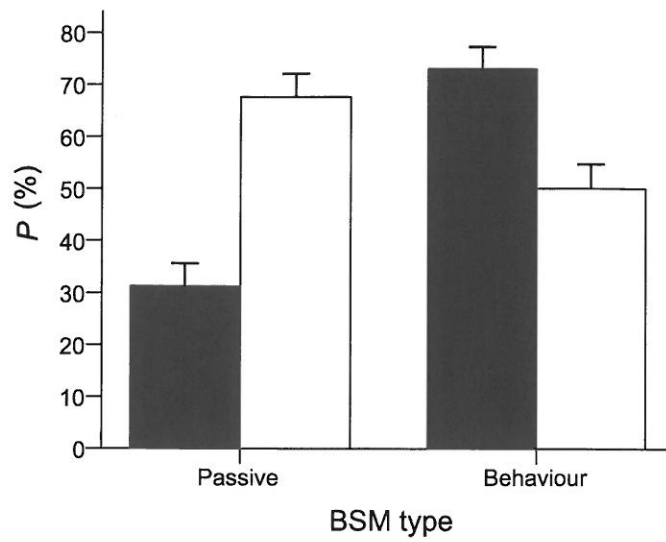


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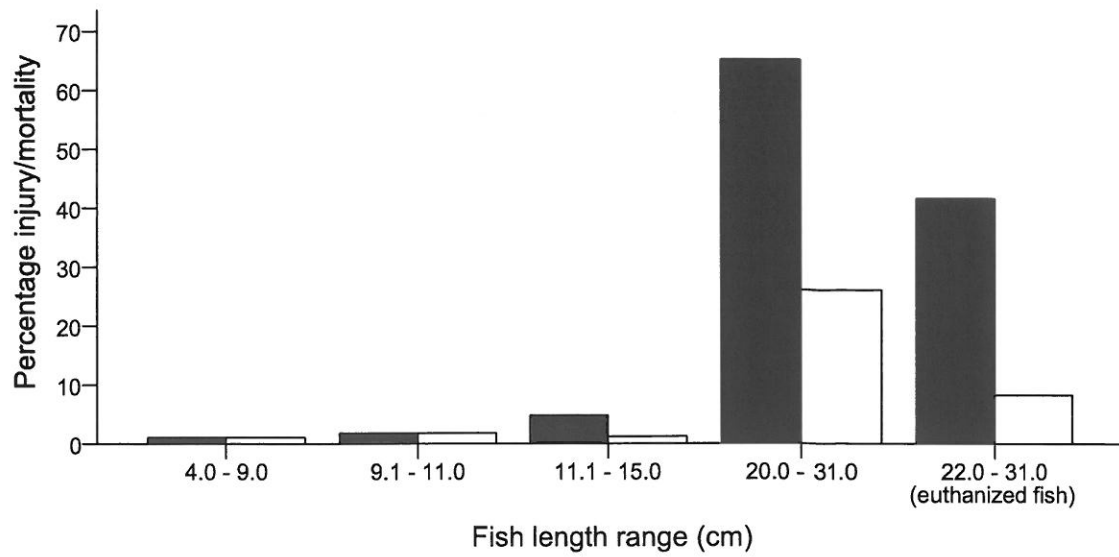


Table 1

Parameter	Stochastic BSM	Validation BSM	Empirical Validation BSM	Passive BSM	Behaviour BSM
r (m)	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.6	1.6
θ (°)	0 – 30 for A_{blade} , 0 – 25 for A_{fish}	0 – 30 for A_{blade} , 0 – 25 for A_{fish}	0 – 30 for A_{blade} , 0 – 25 for A_{fish}	0 – 30 for A_{blade} , 0 – 21 for A_{fish}	0 – 30 for A_{blade} , 0 – 21 for A_{fish}
d (m)	0.23	0.23	0.23	0.38	0.38
α (°)	120 (2.09 rad)	120 (2.09 rad)	120 (2.09 rad)	120 (2.09 rad)	120 (2.09 rad)
RPM	01-Oct	8.4	8.4	2.3	2.3
u (m s ⁻¹)	0.083 – 0.83	0.704	0.704	0.379	0.379
L_{fish} (m)	0.01 – 0.50	0.275	Specified per iteration	0.263 and 0.566**	0.227 and 0.378**
V_{fish} (m s ⁻¹)	0.01 – 1.00	0.704	0.704	0.379	0.139 and 0.341**
T_{fish} (s)	Dependent on L_{fish} and V_{fish}	0.39	Dependent on L_{fish}	0.69 and 1.49**	1.63 and 1.66**
L_{sweep} (m)	Dependent on A_{blade} and A_{fish} *	Dependent on A_{blade} and A_{fish}	Dependent on A_{blade} and A_{fish}	Dependent on A_{blade} and A_{fish}	Dependent on A_{blade} and A_{fish}
T_{sweep} (s)	Dependent on L_{sweep} and u	Dependent on L_{sweep}	Dependent on L_{sweep}	Dependent on L_{sweep}	Dependent on L_{sweep}

* A_{blade} and A_{fish} were randomised based on a uniform distribution during all simulations, apart from the Empirical Validation BSM where positions were specified for each iteration of the model.

** For trout and eel, respectively.

Highlighted cells represent observed L_{fish} and observed V_{fish} values.

Table 2

Size range (cm)	Number	Mean (SD) total length (cm)
4.0 - 9.0	92	8.2 (0.5)
9.1 - 11.0	57	9.7 (0.5)
11.1 - 15.0	84	12.5 (0.7)
22.0 - 31.0	23	27.0 (2.2)
22.0 - 31.0 (euthanized fish)	12	27.5 (2.5)

Table 3

Passage outcome	Frequency of outcome	Frequency damaged
No contact	51	0
Slap	5	0
Strike	18	2
Grinding	26	26

Table 4

Species	Positive		Negative		Perpendicular	
	Day	Night	Day	Night	Day	Night
Trout	88	100	12	0	0	0
Eel	7	26	78	56	15	18