

27 particularly when designs and strategies are transferred to other regions and species for
28 which they were not originally designed. Admitting to cases of failure is an essential first step
29 to advancing water resources planning and regulation based on well-informed decision-
30 making processes.

31

32 KEY WORDS: fish pass efficiency; fishway; attraction efficiency; diadromous; fish migration;
33 dams

34

INTRODUCTION

35

36 Volume 28 of *River Research and Applications* (2012) includes a special issue (4) entitled,
37 “*Fish Passage: An Ecohydraulics Approach*”. The publication represents the culmination of
38 several years of work by a team of researchers brought together through a Leverhulme Trust
39 funded international network grant. The aim of the programme was to bridge key gaps in the
40 field of fish passage research identified (Kemp 2012). These gaps were: (1) between
41 disciplines, including the behavioural ecology of fish, fluid dynamics, and engineering; (2)
42 between approaches and methodologies, for example, empirical experimental and field-
43 based research and modelling; (3) between theoretical and applied science; (4) among
44 regions, with participants representing North and South America, Europe and Asia; and (5)
45 among generations, with senior researchers working closely with those in the early stages of
46 their career. A further outcome of the Leverhulme network programme was the stimulation
47 of debate in the sphere of fish passage research and application.

48 In this issue, Williams and Katopodis provide a commentary on the meta-analysis conducted
49 by Bunt et al. (2012), published in the special edition as part of the Leverhulme network
50 outputs. After careful and thorough scrutiny of some of the original data presented, Williams
51 and Katopodis outline their concerns related to the incorrect assignment of attraction and
52 passage metrics to specific fishway types, and the misinterpretation and/or incorrect

53 application of most of the data relating to two types of fishway, the “pool-and-weir” and
54 “vertical slot” designs. In response, Bunt et al. recognise and admit to errors in the
55 information previously presented and provide a corrected version with reanalysis of the data
56 and new results. Bunt et al. emphasise that after this re-analysis the broad conclusions of
57 the original paper remain unchanged. Rarely has data used in analysis of fish passage
58 effectiveness been as rigorously and closely scrutinised as in the case described here, and
59 the debate generated should be of interest to the wider community.

60 Based largely on the outcomes of the Leverhulme international network, this paper provides
61 an overview of the debate initiated during the development of the special issue and that has
62 since progressed over recent years. Interested researchers and practitioners in this field are
63 encouraged to read Bunt et al. (2012) and others papers published in that issue along with
64 the resulting commentary and response presented here. This paper will not focus on the
65 details of the commentary and subsequent response, as the readers will no doubt form their
66 own opinions and conclusions based on the information presented. Instead, some broader
67 points related to the approaches adopted, metrics used, and overall construct of the debate
68 are discussed. Further, the implications of the debate, within the wider context of employing
69 fish passage to mitigate for the negative ecological impacts of river engineering, will be
70 highlighted.

71

72 META-ANALYSIS, THE TRADITIONAL NARRATIVE, AND THE FISH PASSAGE DEBATE

73

74 Bunt et al. (2012) present a meta-analysis describing fish passage effectiveness for different
75 designs. The quantitative review of the results obtained from multiple studies using a meta-
76 analysis approach has been widely adopted in the medical and social sciences for decades
77 (Schulze 2004). Although narrative reviews remain the most common method employed in

78 the biological and ecological sciences, the value of meta-analysis is increasingly recognised
79 and its use more frequently adopted for a wide variety of data (Gurevitch and Hedges 2001).

80 In the sphere of fish passage research, the power of meta-analysis to identify biases in
81 understanding and gaps in knowledge is exemplified by Roscoe and Hinch (2010) and
82 Noonan et al. (2012). Based on the premise that fishways and other passage facilities
83 frequently prevent or delay the passage of fishes, the Roscoe and Hinch (2010) meta-
84 analysis results from a review of 96 peer-reviewed scientific articles that report the
85 effectiveness of fish passage monitoring. Important biases and gaps are identified. The
86 majority of studies focus on adult fish and Salmoniformes. Those conducted in the tropics
87 tend to consider a broader taxonomic scope than those that focus on temperate regions.
88 Consideration of physiological factors during fish pass evaluation is rare. Environmental,
89 structural, and behavioural mechanisms for passage failure are considered in most North
90 American studies, but in only half of those conducted in Europe, South America, and
91 Australia. Few studies monitor the migration of the subject species once they exit the focal
92 fish passage facility. Noonan et al. (2012) also describe clear biases in a quantitative
93 assessment of fish passage efficiency, in this case based on 65 scientific articles.

94 Supporting Roscoe and Hinch (2010), fish other than the Salmoniformes are infrequently
95 considered and when aggregated, the passage efficiency for both upstream and
96 downstream moving fish is lower for non-salmonid species. Similar to Bunt et al. (2012), the
97 Noonan et al. (2012) study highlights variation in efficiency between fishway design,
98 although the results differ. They find that pool-and-weir, pool-and-slot, and natural fishways
99 exhibit the highest efficiencies; Denil and fish locks / elevators the lowest. For upstream
100 moving fish, the efficiency is lower when fishway slope is high, but increases with fishway
101 length and water velocity, indicating hydrodynamics likely exert an important influence. The
102 conclusions obtained from such quantitative reviews provide solid foundations on which to
103 base future recommendations and changes in policies.

104 In the special issue of *River Research and Applications*, Bunt et al. (2012) present a meta-
105 analysis to assess the effectiveness of different fishway designs for upstream moving fish.
106 Focusing on 19 studies that report both attraction and passage efficiency (based on
107 detection of individually marked fish approaching and passing the fishway), they find that
108 attraction is highly variable between designs and descends in order from pool-and-weir,
109 vertical slot, Denil, to nature-like. There is an inverse relationship between mean passage
110 and attraction efficiency, with the highest passage for nature-like fishways, followed by Denil,
111 vertical slot, and pool-and-weir. Of relevance to the current debate, they conclude that, in
112 most cases, existing data are not sufficient to support fishway design recommendations and
113 that more information is needed to design optimal fish passage solutions. In the same issue,
114 Williams et al. (2012) provide a traditional narrative to highlight a historic bias in fish passage
115 research towards economically important salmon in North America and Europe and describe
116 the decades of trial and error required to develop effective facilities. Also of relevance, they
117 suggest that, with sufficient laboratory testing, it is possible to determine hydraulic conditions
118 that fish will actively use as a conduit and develop a fishway that will effectively pass most
119 upstream migrants of any species over a dam of just about any height. This viewpoint is
120 further reinforced by Katopodis and Williams (2016) who continue to emphasise that when
121 sufficient hydraulic and biological knowledge exists for a species, it is possible to construct
122 successful fishways and that with continued advances in science it is hoped that facilitates
123 will one day be created that all species will be able to successfully pass. It is this positive
124 perspective that for some represents one side of the current debate (T. Castro Santos and C.
125 Katopodis pers. comm.). A very different perspective is articulated by Brown et al. (2013) in
126 a paper entitled, "*Fish and hydropower on the U.S. Atlantic coast: failed fisheries policies
127 from half-way technologies*". The authors argue that low passage efficiencies from the first
128 dam to the spawning grounds (mean = 3% for American shad *Alosa sapidissima*) indicate
129 failure. They suggest it is time to admit fish passage does not provide an effective strategy
130 to restore populations of diadromous species and that other options, such as dam removal,

131 may be more appropriate. Superficially, such perspectives appear to represent differing
132 positions in a polarised argument.

133

134 METRICS, MOTIVATION, AND TRENDS IN EFFICIENCY

135

136 The strength of meta-analyses to provide quantitative analysis to summarize knowledge, re-
137 evaluate or integrate conclusions from past studies, and justify recommendations for future
138 research and policy is well-demonstrated. When conducted appropriately, meta-analysis
139 provides a powerful and rigorous alternative to the more traditional, narrative discussions
140 that attempt to make sense of a rapidly expanding literature (e.g. Glass, 1976). However,
141 the results of meta-analyses can also be controversial, with several difficulties that can arise
142 from using meta-data identified (see Greco et al. 2013 for an interesting discussion related to
143 health). A common challenge when aggregating and comparing results collected in multiple
144 studies by different researchers over a range of spatial and temporal scales is the potential
145 for a lack of standardisation in approach and metrics used. In this issue, Williams and
146 Katopodis make considerable effort to define the nomenclature used, including for *fish*
147 *passage effectiveness*. While recognising that attraction, entrance and exit, and time to
148 pass are accommodated in their measure of effectiveness, they fail to provide definitions for
149 the important underpinning efficiency metrics on which this is based. Nevertheless, it is clear
150 that definitions provided in the published literature do vary and the quantitative review of
151 studies that report metrics for measuring different things is problematic, leading to difficulties
152 in their interpretation. It is the recognition of this that is driving current efforts to develop
153 standards for the evaluation of fish passage solutions in Europe (Washburn et al. 2015).

154 Both Noonan et al. (2012) and Bunt et al. (2012) attempt to identify relationships between
155 fishway design and passage performance. Williams and Katopodis (this issue) criticise this
156 approach and argue that the hydraulics created by the fish pass, rather than the design *per*

157 se, is a key factor that governs efficacy, and that common designs can vary considerably in
158 size and slope. While the relationship between hydrodynamics and fish response is
159 undoubtedly a key factor, a focus on analysing performance of different fishway designs is
160 both logical and pragmatic. Guidance on the provision of fish passage solutions (e.g.
161 Armstrong et al. 2010) tend to focus on fishway design, providing recommendations for
162 selection based on specific scenarios of slope, head, and discharge. Rarely are
163 hydrodynamic conditions encountered at fishways adequately recorded in studies of fish
164 passage performance and until they are, the use of design type as a proxy for
165 hydrodynamics, which in the passageway at least can be generalised, makes sense.
166 However, approaches that focus on physical and hydrodynamic characteristics of fish
167 passes (or indeed screening systems) alone, while ignoring inter- and intraspecific variation
168 in behavioural ecology can quickly run into difficulty. One of the greatest challenges of
169 comparing effectiveness of fishway design among studies, and particularly among species,
170 is the limited consideration of variation in patterns of movement and levels of motivation
171 displayed. As already illustrated by Roscoe and Hinch (2010) and Noonan et al. (2012), fish
172 passage research is biased towards the Salmoniformes. The majority of studies focus on
173 the migratory life-stages of anadromous salmonids during which synchronous, seasonal,
174 highly active, and directed movements to reach spatially distinct habitats (e.g. the ocean as
175 smolts, Moore et al. 1998 for Atlantic salmon *Salmo salar*, or river spawning grounds as
176 adults, Hinch and Rand 2000 for sockeye salmon *Oncorhynchus nerka*) within a finite period
177 of time are exhibited. Passage performance metrics, such as attraction, entrance and
178 passage efficiency, and time to pass (a measure of delay) cater well for this movement
179 strategy. High efficiencies, usually reported as percentages, and low time to pass, are
180 considered positive outcomes. However, the movement ecology of many other families of
181 fish is by nature very different and may be far less synchronous, regular, active, and directed.
182 Using a single example to illustrate this point, Zigler et al. (2003) observe large variation in
183 movement of paddlefish (*Polyodon spathula*) in the upper Mississippi catchment based on
184 radio-telemetry data. Some individuals display high site fidelity, others demonstrate long

185 movements (> 420 km of the study site), some groups exhibit synchronous spring migrations,
186 whereas others do not, and probable spawning movements occur in both the upstream and
187 downstream directions.

188 Conceptually, the movements of different life-stages and species of fish might be visualised
189 as positions on a continuum of advection-diffusion processes, with directed migrants having
190 a higher advection coefficient than those that are not (Jonzén et al. 2011; McKenzie et al.
191 2009). Traditional passage performance metrics may be inappropriate for fish with low
192 advection coefficients that show a propensity for more random, non-directed searching
193 motions. Some may consider these species / life-stages to be less motivated to pass
194 structures than directed migrants; yet fragmentation of habitat may be equally as damaging
195 from an ecological perspective. This may explain, at least partially, why some fishway
196 designs appear less efficient for non-salmonids (Noonan et al. 2012) and why interpretation
197 of passage performance when comparing between species should be undertaken with both
198 caution and appreciation of diversity of movement patterns. For example, values of
199 efficiency for fish passes designed primarily for salmon are difficult to interpret when applied
200 to white sturgeon (*Acipenser transmontanus*) on the lower Columbia River. Relative to the
201 number of fish available in the estuary, the numbers passing the most downstream dams
202 annually are relatively low (Parsley et al. 2007), although it remains unclear what proportion
203 of the population would be expected to ascend the river in the absence of river engineering
204 (Jager et al. 2016).

205 Even among the salmonids, there is considerable variation in migratory patterns, with some
206 species (e.g. pink salmon, *Oncorhynchus gorbuscha*) exhibiting relatively fixed patterns of
207 anadromy, whereas others demonstrate variability in traits such as the timing of migration,
208 age at migration, or whether to migrate at all (Bond et al. 2015). Within a species, variation in
209 movement strategies among populations and life-history stages are well-documented, as is
210 the case within populations. For example, brown trout (*Salmo trutta*) can exhibit continuous
211 variation between the extremes of freshwater residency and anadromy (e.g. Etheridge et al.

212 2008) and for those that are not anadromous, patterns of movement vary between
213 components that are described as stationary (high site fidelity) and mobile (e.g. Bridcut and
214 Giller 1993; Diana et al. 2004). Indeed, recent research has described autumn and spring
215 seaward migratory phenotypes among juveniles, with spring migrants exhibiting higher
216 motivation and faster rates of travel (Winter et al. 2016). Furthermore, patterns of movement
217 within individuals can change over fine spatial and temporal scales. A downstream
218 migrating juvenile salmon (smolt) passively transported with the current will display a highly
219 advective motion as the displacement increases linearly with time. However, smolts
220 frequently exhibit periods of activity that limit displacement, which while not diffusive, reflect
221 reduced advection. For example, seaward migrating coho salmon (*O. kisutch*) smolts move
222 in the direction of the current and hold for extended periods in areas of low current velocity, a
223 pattern described as saltatory (Moser et al. 1991). When viewed at fine resolution scales,
224 downstream migrating juvenile salmonids are known to actively reject areas of abrupt velocity
225 transition encountered followed by repeated periodic approach and further rejection (e.g.
226 Kemp et al. 2005). Such intraspecific diversity in movement also likely contributes to the
227 variability in fish passage performance metrics reported for different studies.

228 Previous fish passage focused meta-analyses have neglected to investigate trends in pass
229 performance over the historic timescale of fishway developments. Differences in opinion in
230 the fish passage debate may to some extent, reflect variation in experience dictated by
231 spatial and temporal scales over which fishways have been developed, and target species
232 for which they have been designed. When focusing on a limited number of species at the
233 catchment scale, improvements in fish passage efficiency may be observed over time if
234 sufficient resources are allocated to a process of incremental improvement through research
235 and development driven by well-established legislative obligation (e.g. the Columbia River)
236 (Figure 1 – line A). Under an alternative scenario, efficiency may remain unchanged over
237 long periods of time in regions where there is insufficient legislation or lack of enforcement to
238 ensure adequate resources are allocated to robust monitoring of effectiveness and further

239 research and development to facilitate incremental improvement (Figure 1 – line B).
240 Conversely, effectiveness may decline overall when viewed from a global scale perspective
241 in which fish passage solutions are transferred from regions where they were originally
242 developed for a limited number of species to different biogeographic areas in an effort to
243 cater for the needs of multiple species / communities (Figure 1 – line C). In such cases, not
244 only may overall efficiency decline, but there might also be unintended negative
245 consequences, including enhanced spread of non-native fishes, genes, diseases and
246 contaminants carried by wild and hatchery fish (McLaughlin et al. 2013). Future meta-
247 analyses that attempt to quantify changes in fish passage efficiency over time and between
248 regions, and the occurrence of unintended consequences, will likely prove useful.

249

250 MIXED MESSAGES IN THE FISH PASSAGE DEBATE

251

252 Although conducting and interpreting meta-analyses that attempt to summarise the results of
253 multiple studies on fish pass effectiveness can be challenging, efforts to quantify the
254 variability in passage performance associated with specific designs have proven useful
255 because they provide a basis on which to challenge conventional wisdom. A serious
256 impediment to advancing effective fisheries management and conservation practices stems
257 from an often-held and generally unchallenged view that the negative environmental impacts
258 of river engineering, such as the construction of impoundments, can be effectively mitigated,
259 (e.g. through the provision of fish passes). To some extent, this perspective has arisen from
260 frequent reference in the literature to often-cited examples of well-designed and effective fish
261 passes, such as some of those developed on the Columbia River for upstream moving
262 salmon resulting from several decades of extensive research (Williams 2008). Indeed, it is
263 true that several fish passes installed at the Columbia River dams do work well once salmon
264 find and enter them, although delay continues to exert a challenge (Caudill et al. 2007) and

265 can have important ecological implications (e.g., high energetic expenditure while
266 congregation of high densities of fish may attract predators or facilitate the transfer of
267 disease, McLaughlin et al. 2013). However, it is advisable to interpret consensus apparent
268 in the literature with care, not least because of the potential for publication bias in which
269 positive results demonstrating the effectiveness of solutions may be more likely to reach the
270 public domain. Improved understanding of where and why mitigation efforts fail to work, as
271 well as might be expected, or indeed may themselves have negative effects, will help
272 advance more balanced perspectives.

273 An important question in the development of fish passage solutions around the world is: How
274 transferable are lessons learnt on efficient design and operation between regions and
275 species? Experience from the Columbia River has been widely referred to when considering
276 mitigation of impacts of planned dam construction in different regions (e.g. Ferguson et al.
277 2011 in reference to the Mekong River). For example, in a review of existing research on
278 fish passage and its application to the construction of large dams on the Mekong River
279 (Schmutz and Mielach 2015), citation of examples from the Columbia River occurred no less
280 than 13 times. Further, in a study referring to the Xayaburi Dam currently under construction
281 on the mainstem Mekong River in Laos, Baumann and Stevanella (2012) suggest that
282 fishways developed for fish fauna of temperate regions work relatively well when transferred
283 to tropical rivers. It appears that ignoring poor performance of some fishways, or at least
284 high variability in effectiveness, is common and the paradigm that fish passes provide a
285 universal panacea for the mitigation of negative effects of river engineering on fish
286 populations persists. This portrayal is misleading in two ways: first, when viewed from a
287 catchment perspective, the delivery of effective fish passage has not always been achieved,
288 even on the Columbia River, for many species including salmon. Second, fish passage does
289 not necessarily provide effective solutions when applied elsewhere and in some cases may
290 be environmentally damaging (e.g. Pelicice and Agostinho 2008; McLaughlin et al. 2013).

291 While acknowledging the importance of the Columbia River as a focal point for high quality
292 research related to fish passage, predominantly in relation to Pacific salmon (*Oncorhynchus*
293 species), limitations and failings must also be recognised. This point is illustrated through
294 the consideration of the decline of Pacific lamprey (*Entosphenus tridentatus*) populations, an
295 anadromous species of high cultural and conservation significance. Until relatively recently,
296 the traditional fishways on the mainstem dams were inadequate to facilitate effective
297 upstream passage of adults motivated to reach spawning grounds. Using radio-telemetry,
298 Moser et al. (2002) observed that only 3% of tagged lamprey were able to pass the three
299 most-downstream dams in the lower Columbia River. Driven by such observations and the
300 desire to conserve populations, lamprey specific fish passes have subsequently been
301 developed (Moser et al. 2011). Even for Pacific salmon, catchment scale restoration of
302 stocks through the provision of fish passes has proven an impossible goal, with an estimated
303 loss of one-third of historic habitat (Nehlsen et al., 1991). In one case, it is estimated that
304 1491 barriers in the Willamette and Lower Columbia River catchment block 14,931 km of
305 stream, resulting in the loss of >40% of stream habitat to anadromous fishes (Sheer and
306 Steel, 2006).

307 Inefficient fish passage may reflect the application of solutions to species / guilds and
308 regions for which they were not originally designed. Historic development of fish passage in
309 Europe, dating back to at least the seventh century (Sanz Ronda and Martínez de Azagra,
310 2013), likely represents a combination of river engineering associated with early
311 demographic advance and perhaps the more common occurrence of anadromy at northerly
312 latitudes (McDowall 1988). Despite this long legacy of mitigating for environmental impacts
313 of impoundments, ineffectual fish passage continues to be widely demonstrated in Europe
314 for some species, including those exhibiting motivated and directed migrations. For example,
315 based on the results of a PIT telemetry study on the Yorkshire Derwent, the passage
316 efficiency for a Denil fish pass, a design commonly employed in the UK, for upstream
317 migrating adult lamprey (*Lampetra fluviatilis*) is 0%, even though attraction efficiency is

318 nearly 92% (Foulds and Lucas, 2013). The reader may be forgiven for concluding that such
319 results reflect a lack of interest in this species during the design of fish passage solutions,
320 perhaps due to a lack of commercial or conservation significance. However, historically
321 lamprey were highly valued in England¹, and some fisheries continue in southwestern
322 Europe and northern Baltic countries. Further, lamprey are of high conservation concern,
323 with all three species found in the UK (*L. fluviatilis*, *L. planeri* and *Petromyzon marinus*) listed
324 under Annex II of the European Union Habitats Directive (92/43/EEC).

325

326 In contradiction to the view of Baumann and Stevanella (2012), the application of fish
327 passage solutions developed in northern temperate regions to the tropics, sub-tropics, and
328 neo-tropics is challenging for a multitude of reasons. Not only does the climate and
329 geophysical template (e.g., geology, geography, river type) vary between regions, but so
330 does fish species richness and abundance, diversity of life histories, body morphologies,
331 swimming capabilities, and behaviours. It is perhaps unsurprising, therefore, that the validity
332 of employing not only fish pass designs, but associated management strategies developed
333 in northern temperate regions, has been questioned. Insightful challenges to commonly held
334 views on fish passage have recently emerged from South America, particularly Brazil. There,
335 the scale of many reservoirs means that they, in addition to the dams that create them, pose
336 insurmountable barriers to the movement of eggs, larvae, and adults of many species,
337 potentially rendering fish passage an ineffectual conservation tool (Pelicice et al. 2015;
338 Pompeu et al. 2012 also in the special edition of RRA). Compared to those in many northern
339 regions, the more diverse fish communities that inhabit such systems exhibit a higher
340 complexity of life history and patterns of movement between critical habitats spatially
341 distributed both up- and downstream of dams. Under such circumstances, the provision of
342 fishways may enhance the probability of creating ecological traps in which individual fitness

¹ The city of Gloucester provided monarchs with a pie containing lamprey sourced from the River Severn at Christmas and on other special occasions, a tradition that was re-enacted for Queen Elizabeth's II golden jubilee in 2012 (although the lamprey were not locally sourced). King Henry I reputedly died of 'a surfeit of lampreys' in 1135.

343 is reduced for fish that select to use them (Pelicice and Agostinho 2008). Restoration or
344 conservation of populations will not be facilitated if passage through a fishway increases the
345 probability of predation (Agostinho et al. 2012) or results in those that are successful
346 becoming disoriented in a large reservoir as they attempt to find spawning tributaries,
347 especially if fish are able to access essential habitat in the absence of a fish pass. Perhaps
348 more importantly, in the tropics buoyant eggs and larvae of many long distance migrants are
349 evolved to be carried with the river currents to shallow alluvial habitat during the short time
350 window of development. These life stages produced from successful reproduction upstream
351 that are then unable to reach rearing areas that may be tens or even hundreds of kilometres
352 downstream (due to the presence of a large reservoir) can be considered lost from the
353 system.

354

355

356 DISCUSSION

357

358 Over recent years, the often held view that fish passes provide an effective mechanism to
359 mitigate the impacts of impoundments on fish populations has been challenged. When
360 viewed superficially, it appears that there are two sides to a polarised argument. On the one
361 hand, there is an optimistic vision of the advancement of fish passage solutions for almost
362 any type of barrier given sufficient effort and resources allocated to laboratory testing of
363 fishway designs that accommodates fish response to hydraulics (e.g. Williams et al. 2012;
364 Katopodis and Williams 2016). On the other hand, based on quantifying the wide variability
365 in efficiency of existing fishways (e.g. Bunt et al. 2012; Noonan et al. 2012), others argue
366 that many are ineffectual and it is time to recognise the failure of fish passage as a robust
367 environmental impact mitigation strategy. At best, it provides only a partial solution; a half-
368 way technology (Brown et al. 2013). Evidence for the unintended consequences
369 (McLaughlin et al. 2013) and negative impacts of fish passes themselves (e.g. through

370 altering predator prey dynamics, Agostinho et al. 2012, and creating ecological traps,
371 Pelicice and Agostinho 2008), further reinforces the pessimistic perspective. A more realistic
372 conclusion might be that the allocation of substantial resources to improve the design of fish
373 passes for multiple species/guilds to a level of efficiency that will enable ecological
374 rehabilitation is unlikely achievable globally within the timescales necessary to prevent
375 further excessive deterioration. In view of the continued priority given to the development of
376 water and energy resources at the expense of other ecosystem services (such as fisheries)
377 it is critical to ensure that current policies and practices are based on evidence and are fit for
378 purpose. That the effectiveness of fish passage as an appropriate environmental impact
379 mitigation strategy is currently being scrutinised and questioned reflects an important first
380 step on the road to achieving more sustainable resource management.

381 The polarised fish passage debate, on closer inspection, provides nuanced arguments in
382 which there is agreement on several points - principally that the provision of effective fish
383 passage for multiple species is challenging. Furthermore, instead of considering two sides of
384 a single argument, it is more appropriate to view the debate as representation of positions on
385 a continuum of differing opinion. Examples of areas of consensus include:

386 1) fish passage research and application is biased towards salmonids, and hence northern
387 temperate regions;

388 2) the structural design of fishway types correlates with passage performance, even if the
389 causal relationship is driven by the hydraulics created;

390 3) conditions encountered vary within fishway type, as well as between them, hence
391 explaining some of the variability observed;

392 4) designs that appear to work well for some species (e.g. Pacific salmon on the Columbia
393 River) have been installed elsewhere in the world with the expectation that they will work and
394 yet often they do not;

395 5) there is a lack of information (e.g. on swimming capability and behavioural response to
396 hydrodynamics) on which to base effective fish pass design for most species in the world,
397 (e.g. in South America and Asia);

398 6) concerns exist about the lack of standardised information to quantify passage.

399 Despite the identification of points of agreement, however, the debate is important in
400 initiating reflection on the role of fish passage in river infrastructure planning and
401 development and the probable effectiveness of future policies.

402 The Williams and Katopodis commentary raises concerns about the incorrect use of some
403 data by Bunt et al. (2012), which serves to highlight risks that can be inherent in meta-
404 analyses more generally (Greco et al. 2013). In response, Bunt et al. (this issue) recognise
405 and rectify errors made and provide the results of a re-analysis of the corrected data. It is
406 clear, to this author at least, that attempts to quantitatively summarise the wider published
407 literature on fish passage through meta-analyses (e.g. Roscoe and Hinch 2010; Noonan et
408 al. 2012; and Bunt et al., 2012) have an important role to play in setting future research
409 agendas through challenging conventional views. Further investigation of how fish passage
410 effectiveness has changed over time and among regions is recommended as a useful
411 avenue of future research.

412 For a long time it has been well recognised that river development and associated
413 engineering delivers a variety of societal benefits (e.g. supply of water to industry and
414 agriculture), but has negative impacts on natural capital, including fisheries. One logical and
415 unescapable truth is that the mitigation of impacts through fish passage represents the result
416 of a compromise in which fisheries and conservation is invariably valued lower than the
417 interests of the principal aim of development (e.g. to irrigate land or to generate electricity).
418 Acknowledging the balance of this trade-off emphasises the fact that fish passage and other
419 mitigation strategies will never fully compensate for negative impact of water resource
420 development and utilisation and thus will only provide the partial solution described by Brown

421 et al. (2013). That this is indeed the case is evidenced by the fact that freshwater is one of
422 the most vulnerable to anthropogenic activity of all ecosystems (Malmqvist and Rundle, 2002;
423 Dudgeon et al., 2006) and that flow regulation and abstraction has caused severe declines in
424 the range and abundance of many freshwater vertebrates (Strayer and Dudgeon, 2010). A
425 fundamental question for society is: How much unsustainable development has been
426 consented to based on a myth that fish passage solutions compensate for impacts of river
427 engineering? Future resource planning and management must be based on well informed
428 decision making processes that recognise the variability in fish passage effectiveness, and
429 that it will usually provide only a partial solution, and in some cases can lead to negative
430 outcomes.

431 As part of trade-offs in the water resource and environment nexus, there is a need to
432 improve the quality of information on which to base decisions. Through recognising that fish
433 passes will only partially ameliorate the environmental costs imposed by river infrastructure,
434 there is a need to better evaluate fishway effectiveness and define levels of efficacy needed
435 to maintain or restore populations. Standardised metrics to measure attraction and passage
436 efficiency and length of delay will prove useful, especially if future analysis enables
437 accommodation of levels of motivation for attempted passage. In other scenarios, when
438 directed goal-oriented migratory movements are less well defined, other means to assess
439 the potential of fish passes to restore and / or maintain viable fish populations, e.g. through
440 facilitating adequate gene flow, must be developed (Pompeu et al. 2012). Finally, holistic
441 analysis of cumulative anthropogenic impacts and realistic estimates of the effectiveness of
442 mitigation at the catchment scale is required to inform planners, developers, and regulators
443 on the most appropriate actions relative to aims set. More sustainable infrastructure
444 development will occur only through enhancing the quality of information on which to
445 conduct robust and sound decision making. Appreciating the potential for ineffective or
446 failed environmental impact mitigation will alter the attributed value of alternative options
447 leading to more fully informed judgements on whether or not to develop future infrastructure,

448 repair, rebuild, or modify existing assets, or to remove dams and conserve sites (potentially
449 entire rivers) based on more accurate cost: benefit analyses.

450

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455

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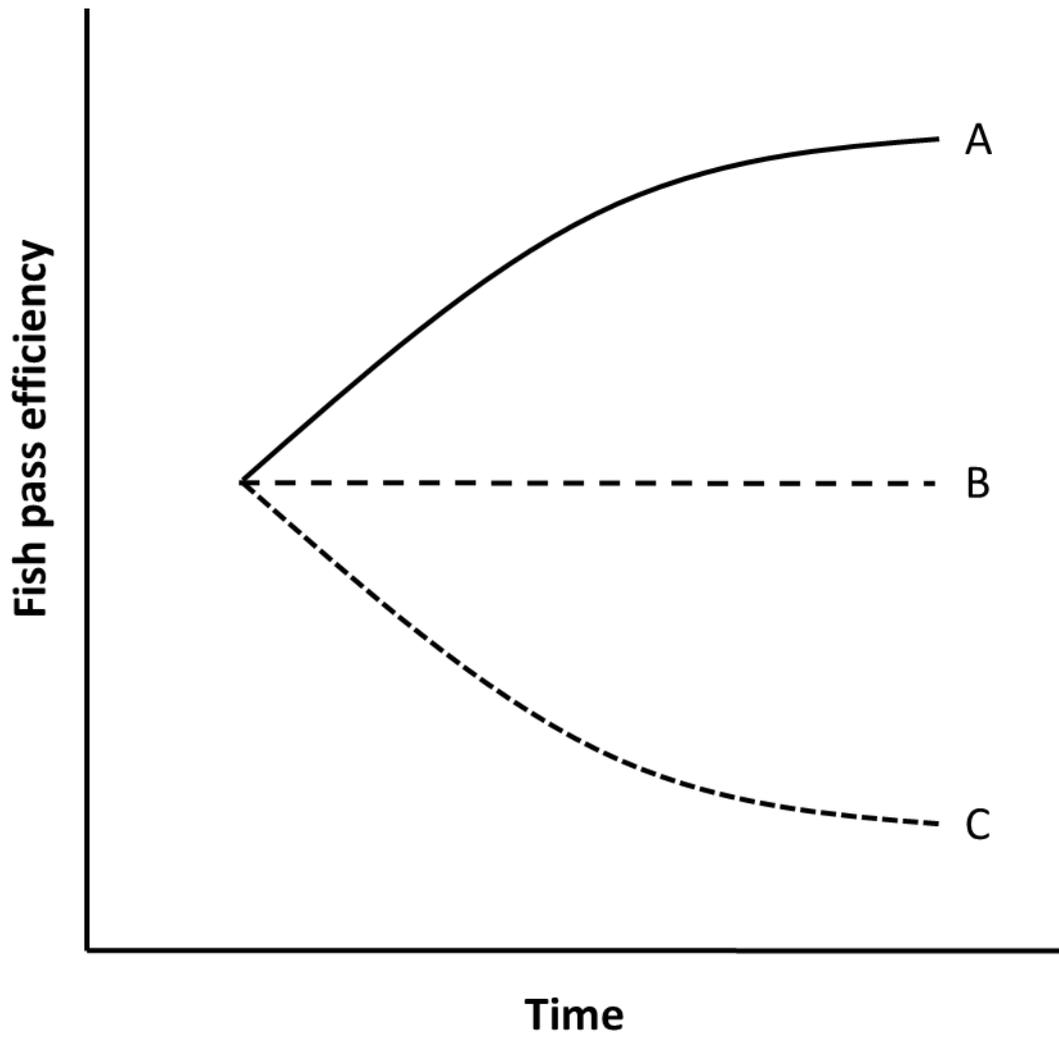
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600

601 **Figure 1. Variation in fish passage efficiency over time for three alternative**
602 **hypothetical scenarios. Scenario A illustrates enhanced passage efficiency for a**
603 **single or a limited number of species at the local scale (e.g. river catchment) as a**
604 **result of monitoring and incremental improvement, perhaps driven by the**
605 **requirements of legislation (solid line). In scenario B (dashed line), efficiency remains**
606 **unchanged, perhaps due to a lack of monitoring and improvement driven by a**
607 **process of research and development. When viewed from a global perspective the**
608 **efficiency of fish passes may decline when transferred to regions and for species for**
609 **which it was not originally designed (scenario C, dotted line). Experience of specific**
610 **scenarios likely influence individuals perspective in relation to the fish passage**
611 **debate.**



612