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# Is shape in the eye of the beholder? The reproducibility of geometric morphometric analyses on live fish

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## Abstract

Geometric morphometrics is widely used to quantify morphological variation between biological specimens, but the fundamental influence of operator bias on data reproducibility is rarely considered, particularly in studies using photographs of live animals taken under field conditions. We examined this using four independent operators that applied an identical landmarking scheme to replicate photographs of 291 live Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) from two rivers. Using repeated measures tests, we found significant inter-operator differences in mean body shape, suggesting that the operators introduced a systematic error despite following the same landmarking scheme. No significant differences were detected when the landmarking process was repeated by the same operator on a random subset of photographs. Importantly, in spite of significant operator bias, small but statistically significant morphological differences between fish from the two rivers were found consistently by all operators. Pairwise tests of angles of vectors of shape change showed that these between-river differences in body shape were analogous across operator datasets,

42 suggesting a general reproducibility of findings obtained by geometric morphometric studies.  
43 In contrast, merging landmark data when fish from each river are digitised by different  
44 operators had a significant impact on downstream analyses, highlighting an intrinsic risk of  
45 bias. Overall, we show that, even when significant inter-operator error is introduced during  
46 digitisation, following an identical landmarking scheme can identify morphological  
47 differences between populations. This study indicates that data sharing across research  
48 groups can potentially yield reliable results provided all operators involved digitise at least a  
49 sub-set of all data groups of interest.

50

## 51 **Introduction**

52 Landmark-based geometric morphometrics (GM) is a quantitative approach widely used to  
53 describe the shape of biological specimens and its covariation with other biological and  
54 environmental factors (Zelditch et al., 2004; Webster & Sheets, 2010). Morphological  
55 variables are quantified using a set of Cartesian landmarks located on distinct homologous  
56 anatomical points, and observed body shape variations are then displayed through user-  
57 friendly graphical representations (Zelditch et al., 2004; Mitteroecker & Gunz, 2009; Adams,  
58 Rohlf & Slice, 2013). GM is a powerful technique capable of detecting even tiny  
59 morphological differences among groups of specimens (Mitteroecker & Gunz, 2009; Webster  
60 & Sheets, 2010), but is highly sensitive to measurement errors introduced during data  
61 acquisition, which can affect subsequent analyses and produce inaccurate results (von  
62 Cramon-Taubadel, Frazier & Lahr, 2007; Fruciano, 2016; Robinson & Terhune, 2017; Fox,  
63 Veneracion & Blois, 2020). This is particularly problematic when such morphological  
64 differences are erroneously regarded as biologically meaningful variation (Fruciano, 2016).

65

66 Surprisingly, despite GM being a widely used technique, researchers rarely consider  
67 measurement error in their study design and statistical analyses (Fruciano, 2016; Fox,  
68 Veneracion & Blois, 2020). Measurement error can be introduced at different stages of the  
69 data acquisition process, i.e. when positioning specimens in front of the imaging device  
70 (camera or scanner), during image capture and landmark digitisation (Arnqvist &  
71 Mårtensson, 1998; Muir, Vecsei & Krueger, 2012; Fruciano et al., 2020; Fox, Veneracion &  
72 Blois, 2020). Indeed, the so-called inter-operator (or inter-observer) error during landmarking  
73 has been found to be one of the most critical factors affecting GM analyses because different  
74 operators tend to position what should be homologous landmarks in slightly different  
75 locations (Ross & Williams, 2008; Dujardin, Kaba & Henry, 2010; Campomanes-Álvarez et  
76 al., 2015; Fruciano, 2016; Fruciano et al., 2020; Fox, Veneracion & Blois, 2020).  
77 Importantly, inter-operator error can be substantial and potentially obscure biological  
78 variation, making data sharing and comparisons of landmarked datasets difficult (Shearer et  
79 al., 2017).

80

81 Intra-operator (or intra-observer) error has also been shown to significantly affect GM  
82 analyses (Wilson, Cardoso & Humphrey, 2011; Fox, Veneracion & Blois, 2020). Intra-  
83 operator error is introduced when specimens are inconsistently digitised by a single operator  
84 and can be influenced by several factors, including landmarking experience or time between

85 landmarking sessions (Fox, Veneracion & Blois, 2020). However, the magnitude of intra-  
86 operator error is invariably modest compared to inter-operator discrepancies (Cardoso &  
87 Saunders, 2008; Dujardin, Kaba & Henry, 2010; Wilson, Cardoso & Humphrey, 2011;  
88 Robinson & Terhune, 2017; Shearer et al., 2017; Thoma et al., 2018; Fox, Veneracion &  
89 Blois, 2020), indicating a general good precision in digitisation by individual operators (but  
90 see Engelkes et al., 2019).

91

92 The degree and impacts of operator error in GM studies have been tested for a range of  
93 organisms, anatomical structures, preservation methods and image acquisition devices  
94 (Fruciano, 2016; Fruciano et al., 2020; Fox, Veneracion & Blois, 2020). Nevertheless, most  
95 studies have focussed on images of specific human, bone or plant structures acquired under  
96 identical (laboratory) conditions (e.g., Ross & Williams, 2008; Cardoso & Saunders, 2008;  
97 Gonzalez, Bernal & Perez, 2011; Wilson, Cardoso & Humphrey, 2011; Viscosi & Cardini,  
98 2011; Shearer et al., 2017; Carayon et al., 2019; Engelkes et al., 2019; Messer et al., 2021).  
99 Few have investigated images of live animals (but see Fruciano et al., 2020), despite  
100 commonly being used when it is not possible to euthanise samples for ethical reasons or  
101 research purposes. Undeniably, such photographs, especially if taken under field conditions,  
102 are more likely to result in subsequent measurement error (relative to preserved specimens)  
103 (Muir, Vecsei & Krueger, 2012), thereby restricting the utility of such datasets (Webster &  
104 Sheets, 2010). Understanding the prevalence, magnitude and implications of inter- and intra-  
105 operator error during the landmark digitisation process for photographs of live animals could  
106 facilitate data sharing and open science practices.

107

108 With the increasing focus on reproducibility in science (Baker, 2016), and an  
109 acknowledgment that sharing data can accelerate scientific progress, assessing whether live  
110 animals digitised repeatedly by single versus multiple operators produce consistent results  
111 and conclusions is essential. Data exchange, such as crowdsourcing, is opening new frontiers  
112 in GM research, enabling large-scale studies, which use unprecedented sample sizes, to be  
113 conducted within a short time frame (Thomas, Bright & Cooney, 2016; Chang & Alfaro,  
114 2016). Such studies, involving several operators collecting shape data, can potentially address  
115 key questions in evolutionary biology and other disciplines (Cooney et al., 2017; Hughes et  
116 al., 2022). However, pooling landmarked datasets from multiple operators can increase the  
117 degree of measurement error (Fruciano et al., 2017; Evin, Bonhomme & Claude, 2020), but  
118 the consequences of inter-individual operator error when sharing datasets remain poorly  
119 understood.

120

121 The aim of this study was therefore to determine whether GM analyses on photographs of  
122 live animals are reproducible. To accomplish this, four independent operators digitised the  
123 same photographs of sedated Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) sampled in two rivers,  
124 following a shared landmarking scheme. The shape data and results obtained by the four  
125 operators were then compared and contrasted to assess the magnitude of inter- and intra-  
126 operator error, and infer the potential for meaningful data sharing.

127

## 128 **Material & Methods**

129

### 130 *Study design*

131

132 Salmon were captured from the River Spey (57° 24.960' N 3° 22.602' W) and River Oykel  
133 (57° 59.640' N 4° 48.282' W) in Scotland using a 1.5 m diameter Rotary Screw trap during  
134 their smolt stage, i.e. on their first migration to sea. The sampling occurred in the context of a  
135 tracking study aiming to identify areas and causes of smolt mortality during their seaward  
136 migration (see Whelan, Roberts & Gray, 2019). Fish were photographed in the field under  
137 anaesthetic before being tagged and released to the river after recovery. Photographs of the  
138 left side of each fish were taken freehand from approximately 30 cm directly above the fish,  
139 with a Fujifilm FinePix XP130 Compact Digital Camera with fish on a background reference  
140 scale. Photographs were taken by a team of eight people who met prior to field work to  
141 standardise methods as far as possible. Our study here focusses on inter-operator variation  
142 downstream of photography, but variation caused by variation between individual  
143 photographers would be worthy of future study. The care and use of experimental animals  
144 complied with the UK Home Office animal welfare laws, guidelines and policies (UK Home  
145 Office Licence PPL 70/8794) and was approved by the University of Glasgow Animal  
146 Welfare and Ethics Review Board (AWERB).

147

148 The GM analyses were based on photographs of 291 salmon (Spey  $n = 144$ , Oykel  $n = 147$ ).  
149 The images were imported into tpsUtil v. 1.78 (Rohlf, 2019) and randomly shuffled using the  
150 relevant function so that operators were blinded to the river-of-origin of the specimens.  
151 Twenty-two landmarks were digitised on each image by four independent operators (Op.1,  
152 Op.2, Op.3 and Op.4) using tpsDig v. 2.31 (Rohlf, 2017) and following an identical scheme  
153 (Fig. 1). All landmarks were fixed. Landmarks (1), (2) and (3) were placed using the *curves*  
154 *tool* in tpsDig, with the curve starting at landmark (1) and ending at landmark (3). Landmark  
155 (2) was automatically placed as equidistant between landmarks (1) and (3) using the *by*  
156 *length* option and choosing *number of points* = 3. The three points along the curve were then  
157 converted to fixed landmarks using the *Append tps Curve to landmarks* function. The  
158 landmark positions chosen were those commonly used in studies on salmonids (e.g.,  
159 Boulding et al., 2008; Muir, Vecsei & Krueger, 2012; Simonsen et al., 2017; Goerig et al.,  
160 2019; Dermond, Sperlich & Brodersen, 2019). In addition, the first ten fish for each river,  
161 after using the *randomly order specimens* function in tpsUtil, were consecutively landmarked  
162 a further two times (i.e. three times in total) by each operator to evaluate the intra-operator  
163 consistency in digitisation.

164

165 Landmark coordinates from all operators were imported as unique files into R (R Core Team,  
166 2021) and analysed using the 'geomorph' and 'RRPP' v. 4.0.4 (Adams et al., 2021; Baken et  
167 al., 2021; Collyer & Adams, 2021), 'Morpho' v. 2.8 (Schlager, 2017), and  
168 'GeometricMorphometricsMix' v. 0.0.8.4 (Fruciano, 2018) packages. Plots were produced  
169 with the 'ggplot2' package (Wickham, 2016), while projections of body shape variation  
170 between groups were generated with the *plotRefToTarget* function in 'geomorph'.

171

172 The landmark data were then used to test if: (1) similar mean body shapes were obtained by  
173 all operators; (2) any morphological differences between salmon from the two different rivers  
174 were detected by all operators; (3) identified between-river differences were consistent across  
175 all operators; (4) divergent datasets from different operators could be merged; and (5) the  
176 magnitude of intra-operator error was similar across operators.

177

178 *Preliminary analyses*

179

180 First, a generalised Procrustes analysis (GPA) was performed to remove effects not related to  
181 body shape through translation, scaling and rotation of the landmark configurations (Rohlf &  
182 Slice, 1990). A preliminary principal component analysis (PCA) conducted on superimposed  
183 coordinates revealed body bending as a major source of shape variation, a known issue in  
184 morphometric studies on fish (Valentin et al., 2008). To remove the bending effect, the  
185 *unbend* function in *tpsUtil* was used, employing landmarks 1, 21, 22 and 17, which normally  
186 lie in a straight line in salmonids (Arbour, Hardie & Hutchings, 2011; Dermond, Sperlich &  
187 Brodersen, 2019). All subsequent analyses were performed on landmarks 1-20 only. A new  
188 GPA on coordinates with the bending deformation removed was then executed and outlier  
189 specimens were investigated for each operator using the *plotOutliers* function in ‘geomorph’.  
190 Two specimens digitised by one operator were found to be very different to the other  
191 individuals and were therefore removed from the dataset of all four operators, leaving 289  
192 samples for analyses (Spey  $n = 144$ ; Oykel  $n = 145$ ). Another GPA using the landmark data  
193 without outliers was then implemented.

194

195 *Test 1. Were similar mean body shapes obtained by all operators?*

196

197 To investigate whether results produced by a single operator are accurate and reproducible,  
198 we tested differences in the mean body shapes of fish digitised by independent operators.  
199 First, a between-group PCA (Boulesteix, 2004) was computed to explore variations between  
200 the four operators. Between-group PCA is a type of discriminant analysis used to maximise  
201 segregation between known groups which, unlike canonical variate analysis (CVA), does not  
202 overestimate the degree of distinction among groups (Mitteroecker & Bookstein, 2011). The  
203 leave-one-out cross-validation operation was implemented to quantify the proportion of fish  
204 specimens correctly assigned to the operator who digitised them.

205

206 To investigate whether landmarking by multiple operators introduced bias, i.e. systematic  
207 error affecting body shape (*sensu* Fruciano, 2016), differences in the mean body shapes of the  
208 fish digitised by the four independent operators were tested using Hotelling’s  $T^2$  as  
209 implemented by the *repeated\_measures\_test* function in ‘GeometricMorphometricsMix’. To  
210 compute the differences in mean body shapes, a PCA was performed on all Procrustes-  
211 aligned coordinates of all operators, and the scores for all the PC axes (i.e. 100% variance  
212 explained) of each operator were then used in a repeated measures test as an approximation  
213 of shape.

214

215 *Test 2. Were morphological differences between salmon from different rivers detected by all*  
216 *operators?*

217

218 We next tested whether there was a difference in body shape between rivers, and whether the  
219 operators were consistent in identifying any differences. The following analyses were  
220 performed separately for each operator. First, a GPA was computed on landmark coordinate  
221 datasets obtained by each operator with outliers removed (see end of *Preliminary analyses*).  
222 The effect of fish size on body shape was tested using Procrustes ANOVAs (*procD.lm*  
223 function in ‘geomorph’), with Procrustes coordinates used as an outcome variable, the log  
224 value of centroid size and ‘River’ as independent variables and a randomised residual  
225 permutation procedure (10,000 iterations). A small but significant effect of size on shape was  
226 found for all operators ( $P$ -values  $< 0.0001$ ,  $r^2 = 0.022$ – $0.034$ ). Procrustes coordinates were  
227 therefore adjusted for allometry by using residuals from a regression of shape against  
228 centroid size + ‘River’. Procrustes ANOVAs were then used to compare mean body shape  
229 between rivers, while another between-group PCA was implemented to quantify the  
230 proportion of fish correctly assigned to the river of origin, for each of the four datasets.

231

232 *Test 3. Were identified between-river differences consistent across all operators?*

233

234 To assess if body shape differences between rivers were analogous across operators, pairwise  
235 angles (Li, 2011) of vectors of shape change between fish from the rivers Spey and Oykel  
236 were computed. The *TestOfAngle* function in ‘GeometricMorphometricsMix’ based on the  
237 analogous function implemented in ‘Morpho’ was used, as performed by Fruciano et al.  
238 (2020). Specifically, we calculated the pairwise angles among between-group principal  
239 components obtained using ‘River’ as the grouping factor within each operator subset of  
240 digitisations (one between-group PC axis - herein bwgPC - per operator) to test if they  
241 followed the same “direction”, i.e. if the shape differences between rivers were  
242 approximately the same for all operators.

243 Furthermore, bwgPC1 vectors of between-river differences for each operator were compared  
244 (test of angles) with bwgPC1-3 vectors of inter-operator differences obtained in *Test 1*. In this  
245 way, it was possible to determine whether or not biological body shape differences between  
246 rivers and artefactual variation among operators were similar (following the same  
247 “direction”).

248 Finally, the magnitude of shape differences between rivers obtained by each operator was  
249 examined with the *dist\_mean\_boot* function in ‘GeometricMorphometricsMix’. This function  
250 was used to perform a bootstrap estimate of the shape distance between the two rivers and  
251 allowed us to test if the amount of shape difference between the rivers Spey and Oykel was  
252 consistent across different operators or, on the contrary, one or more operators detected larger  
253 or smaller between-river differences than the others.

254

255 *Test 4. Can divergent datasets from different operators be merged?*

256

257 The two operators producing the most dissimilar mean shapes were used to simulate a worst-  
258 case-scenario process of data pooling, in which two independent researchers perform their  
259 own GM study each on different rivers, but following the same landmarking scheme. Inter-  
260 operator analysis showed that Op.2 and Op.4 produced the most dissimilar body shapes  
261 (greatest Euclidean distance), so from these, two datasets were created: one comprising shape  
262 data from the River Oykel digitised by Op.2 (herein Op.2-Oykel) and the River Spey data  
263 digitised by Op.4 (herein Op.4-Spey) and *vice versa*, i.e. the River Spey data digitised by  
264 Op.2 (herein Op.2-Spey) and the River Oykel data digitised by Op.4 (herein Op.4-Oykel).  
265 For both datasets, differences between rivers were tested with Procrustes ANOVA, as  
266 described earlier. Then, a between-group PCA was performed and the resulting bwgPC1  
267 separating the two rivers was used to run a test of angles to compare between-river  
268 differences detected by these two separate datasets. We also compared these latter between-  
269 river differences with those found when using the complete datasets of all four operators  
270 including both rivers (see section above). This enabled us to test whether any between-river  
271 differences as a result of different operators outweighed any biological differences between  
272 rivers found when using the complete intra-operator datasets.

273

#### 274 *Test 5. Quantifying intra-operator error*

275

276 A GPA was computed separately on landmark coordinates obtained by each operator re-  
277 digitising a sub-sample of 20 fish (ten per river). Individual consistency in landmarking was  
278 then investigated using PCA and tested using repeated measures tests. To test for differences  
279 in mean body shapes between digitisation trials, a PCA was performed on the Procrustes-  
280 aligned coordinates of each operator separately and the PC scores of each trial were then used  
281 in the repeated measures tests as an approximation of shape. Repeatability among digitisation  
282 trials was also calculated for each operator using the intraclass correlation coefficient (Fisher,  
283 1958). A one-way Procrustes ANOVA was computed using individual fish as a categorical  
284 variable (Fruciano, 2016). The resulting mean squares were used to calculate repeatability by  
285 applying equations presented in Arnqvist & Mårtensson (1998) and Fruciano (2016). Here,  
286 repeatability measured variation in the three independent digitisations of the sub-sample of  
287 20 salmon relative to the variability among specimens, i.e. the biological variation among all  
288 fish samples. Repeatability assumes a value of between zero and one, with one indicating  
289 100% repeatability and an absence of measurement error (Arnqvist & Mårtensson, 1998;  
290 Fruciano, 2016). Finally, a Procrustes ANOVA with individual fish specimens ('ID') as the  
291 main factor and 'operator' nested within 'ID' was run to test the relative contributions of  
292 biological variation ('ID') and variation introduced by inter-operator ('ID:operator') and  
293 intra-operator (residual) error.

294

## 295 **Results**

296

297 *Test 1. Were similar mean body shapes obtained by all operators?*

298

299 Despite digitising replicate photographs with homologous landmarks, fish specimens were  
300 correctly assigned to their operator based on body shape with 82.6% accuracy by the  
301 exploratory between-group PCA (Fig. 2, Supplementary Table 1). There was a significant  
302 operator effect on mean body shape, with all pairwise tests displaying highly significant  
303 differences between operators ( $P$ -value  $< 0.001$  for all comparisons; Table 1), supporting the  
304 exploratory between-group PCA (Fig. 2). The Euclidean distances between means, i.e. the  
305 measure of the extent of shape change, highlighted different distances among pairs of  
306 operators, with the smallest difference (0.00992) occurring between Op.1 and Op.3 and the  
307 greatest between Op.2 and Op.4 (0.02270). The between-group PCA scatterplot (Fig. 2)  
308 broadly reflected these results along axis 1 (71.8% of variance), with Op.1 and Op.3  
309 overlapping extensively and Op.2 and Op.4 being furthest apart. The anatomical differences  
310 among operators were concentrated mainly on the head (Fig. 3, Supplementary Fig. 1), with  
311 major areas of disagreement being the snout, eye, mouth and posterior of the cranium.  
312 Morphological dissimilarities were more or less pronounced depending on the operator  
313 comparisons (Fig. 3).

314

315 *Test 2. Were morphological differences between salmon from different rivers detected by all*  
316 *operators?*

317

318 There were significant differences in body shape between fish from different rivers (Spey and  
319 Oykel; Table 2), with between-group PCA (Supplementary Table 2) separating them for all  
320 operators (72.2% mean classification success rate). The fish from the River Oykel had a  
321 greater body depth, more pronounced caudal peduncle, larger eye, longer mouth and more  
322 pointed snout than those from the River Spey (Fig. 4).

323

324 *Test 3. Were identified between-river differences consistent across all operators?*

325

326 All comparisons of the “direction” of body shape variation between rivers were significant  
327 for all operators, meaning that the way in which shape differed between the rivers Spey and  
328 Oykel was approximately the same for all operators (Table 3). In contrast, pairwise  
329 comparisons of between-river and between-operator differences were mostly non-significant,  
330 with only two of 12 tests generating  $P$ -values  $< 0.05$  (Table 3; Supplementary Table 3). This  
331 indicates that the shape variation between rivers and operators were divergent and not  
332 collinear. Estimated mean distances between rivers computed through bootstrapping were  
333 similar across operators, as shown by the widely overlapping confidence intervals (Table 4),  
334 suggesting that different operators did not influence the magnitude of shape difference  
335 detected between the rivers Spey and Oykel.

336

337 *Test 4. Can divergent datasets from different operators be merged?*

338

339 There were significant differences in body shape between fish from the rivers Spey and  
340 Oykel digitised separately by Op.2 and Op.4 (Table 5). Notably, shape variation explained by  
341 the rivers was markedly higher for these merged datasets compared to the between-river



342 differences detected by single operators ( $r^2 = 0.18-0.26$  vs.  $0.03-0.04$ , respectively; Tables 2  
343 and 5). Similarly, the between-group PCA separated fish from different rivers with a higher  
344 accuracy than the analogous analysis performed on individual operator datasets (93.1% vs.  
345 72.2% mean classification success rate, respectively; Supplementary Tables 2 and 4).  
346 The comparison of the “direction” of between-river body shape variation detected by the two  
347 merged datasets from Op.2 and Op.4 was highly significant ( $P$ -value  $< 0.0001$ ;  
348 Supplementary Table 5), meaning that the way in which shape differed between the rivers  
349 Spey and Oykel was approximately the same regardless of the selected dataset. However,  
350 only half of the comparisons were found to be significant when comparing the two Op.2 and  
351 Op.4 merged datasets with the complete within-operator datasets including both rivers  
352 (Supplementary Table 5), indicating that the river differences detected by combined and  
353 individual operator datasets were only partly similar.

354

#### 355 *Test 5. Quantifying intra-operator error*

356

357 There was extensive overlap among landmarking trials, suggesting a high consistency in  
358 digitisation across all operators (Fig. 5). Pairwise comparisons supported this since none of  
359 the mean body shapes differed significantly between repeated digitisations ( $P$ -values  $> 0.81$ ;  
360 Table 6). All four operators achieved the highest landmarking consistency between trials 2  
361 and 3, as indicated by the smallest Euclidean distance values (0.002-0.005). Repeatability  
362 was also high for all operators (0.892-0.975), indicating high landmarking precision (Table  
363 7). Nested Procrustes ANOVA showed that 57.5% of the morphological variation within the  
364 subset of 20 fish was explained by individual fish ('ID'), while 34.8% and 7.8% of the  
365 variation was attributable, respectively, to inter- ('ID:operator') and intra- (residual) operator  
366 digitisation error (Supplementary Table 6).

367

## 368 **Discussion**

369 We show here that independent operators applying an identical landmarking scheme to  
370 replicate photographs of live Atlantic salmon taken in field conditions yielded significantly  
371 different mean body shapes (*Test 1*). However, morphological differences between salmon  
372 from different rivers were detected by all operators (*Test 2*), and these were consistent  
373 differences across all operators (*Test 3*), provided they landmarked both rivers and not one  
374 each (*Test 4*). Furthermore, intra-operator error calculated on a subset of samples was  
375 minimal, suggesting that it did not have a significant influence on the body shape results  
376 obtained by the different operators (*Test 5*).

377

378 Despite digitising replicate photographs with homologous landmarks, all the operators  
379 produced significantly different mean body shapes. The high rate (82.6%) of specimens  
380 assigned to the correct operator by the between-group PCA suggests that the operators  
381 introduced a systematic error, which created four identifiable body shapes despite following  
382 the same landmarking scheme. This digitisation bias is likely to have been introduced by  
383 operators consistently applying personal, fine-scaled landmarking rules in addition to the  
384 general scheme. The fact that the differences among operators were localised mainly in the

385 head region (landmarks 1-12) may be explained by the less discrete and recognizable nature  
386 of these landmarks compared to those located on well-defined anatomical loci, such as fin  
387 intersections (landmarks 13-20). This suggests that the use of unambiguous landmarks can be  
388 an effective way of reducing measurement error in GM (Fagertun et al., 2014; Campomanes-  
389 Álvarez et al., 2015, Fruciano et al., 2017). The effect of sliding semi-landmarks (i.e. placed  
390 on non-discrete points along curves and surfaces; Bookstein, 1997; Gunz & Mitteroecker,  
391 2013) on measurement error was not tested here, but Evin, Bonhomme & Claude (2020)  
392 found that, even though they are more difficult to digitise than those located on well-defined  
393 anatomical loci, semi-landmarks can reduce the amount of inter-operator error because GPA  
394 “spreads” the error ubiquitously among all geometric coordinates. It would be useful to fully  
395 understand how inter-operator error varies with and without the incorporation of semi-  
396 landmarks.

397

398 In GM studies, digitisation is typically performed by a single operator, leaving the question  
399 of whether multiple operators digitising the same set of images would generate different  
400 results. This could undermine the reliability of findings presented by many GM  
401 investigations, particularly those using images of live animals taken in field conditions,  
402 which are potentially more prone to measurement error (Webster & Sheets, 2010; Muir,  
403 Vecsei & Krueger, 2012). In our study, however, we found that inconsistencies between  
404 operators did not mask small, but significant morphological differences between fish from the  
405 rivers Spey and Oykel, which were consistent across operators. The fact that, as shown by  
406 tests of angles and bootstrapped estimates of mean distances, all the operators detected  
407 analogous between-river differences, strongly suggests that they were biologically authentic.  
408 Similarly, Fruciano et al. (2020) found that preservation methods significantly affected the  
409 body shape of brown trout (*Salmo trutta* L.), but the subsequent between-groups  
410 classification was similar regardless of preservation method. As suggested by Fruciano et al.  
411 (2020), this could be because the shape variation detected by the operators between the rivers  
412 Spey and Oykel was not significantly affected by inter-operator differences in landmarking  
413 because they were not collinear (i.e. they followed different “directions”, as shown by the  
414 angle comparisons).

415

416 Conversely, merging landmark data of fish from the rivers Spey and Oykel digitised by two  
417 distinct operators (Op.2 and Op.4, *Test 4*) had a significant impact on subsequent analyses  
418 and produced contrasting results. As shown by Procrustes ANOVA and between-group PCA  
419 classification rate, shape differences between rivers in the merged datasets were greater than  
420 those detected by single operators, suggesting they were artificially inflated by inter-operator  
421 digitisation error. Angle comparisons showed that the river differences detected by combined  
422 and individual operator datasets were partly dissimilar. Overall, these findings point towards  
423 a potential risk in pooling datasets from multiple operators when there are confounding  
424 biological factors, as highlighted by other studies (Fruciano et al., 2017; Evin, Bonhomme &  
425 Claude, 2020). Distinct operators obtained analogous results when they landmarked both  
426 rivers (and not one river each as in *Test 4*). This suggests that operators digitising at least a

427 sub-set of all data groups of interest (rivers in this case) may be an effective way of  
428 mitigating inter-operator error and potentially enabling data sharing.

429

430 In contrast to the inter-operator effects described in this study, we found no statistical  
431 evidence of intra-operator effects on the quantification of fish morphology. On the contrary,  
432 we found a very high level of repeatability across trials for all operators. This corroborates  
433 previous studies that showed intra-operator error to be limited (e.g. Cardoso & Saunders,  
434 2008; Dujardin, Kaba & Henry, 2010; Wilson, Cardoso & Humphrey, 2011; Robinson &  
435 Terhune, 2017; Shearer et al., 2017; Thoma et al., 2018; Fox, Veneracion & Blois, 2020).  
436 Interestingly, for all operators, landmarking consistency was highest between their last two  
437 trials, suggesting that they ‘learnt’ where to place the landmarks with increasing experience  
438 of the images. However, it should be noted that the first trial was performed while digitising  
439 all specimens, whereas trials 2 and 3 were performed consecutively after digitising the full  
440 dataset, which may have artificially inflated precision, with operators “remembering” their  
441 landmarking choices in trial 2 during trial 3.

442 The negligible impact of intra- compared to inter-operator error was also clearly shown by  
443 the percentage of variance explaining shape variation in the sub-sample of 20 fish (*Test 5*,  
444 7.8% vs. 34.8%, respectively). Interestingly, the percentage of variance explained by inter-  
445 operator error (34.8%) is similar to that reported by Fruciano et al. (2020) for brown trout  
446 photographed in the field (30.1%), and supports previous studies that identified inter-operator  
447 effects as the major source of error in GM analyses (Ross & Williams, 2008; Dujardin, Kaba  
448 & Henry, 2010; Campomanes-Álvarez et al., 2015; Fruciano, 2016; Shearer et al., 2017; Fox,  
449 Veneracion & Blois, 2020).

450

## 451 **Conclusions**

452 Overall, we show that, even when significant inter-operator error is introduced through  
453 digitisation, following an identical landmarking scheme can be an effective tool to obtain  
454 robust and reliable results, even without accounting for variation introduced by the  
455 photography process, which was not quantified here. This implies that GM studies based on  
456 common landmarking schemes are potentially reproducible, even when analyses are based on  
457 images of live specimens taken in the field, as in the current study. Nevertheless, since  
458 operator error can vary between studies and is impossible to determine *a priori*, we  
459 recommend assessing the magnitude and effects of landmarking error by using multiple  
460 operators for a sub-set of samples, as here, to improve confidence in study results. If  
461 landmark data merging is required, we recommend that all the operators involved digitise at  
462 least a sub-set of all data groups of interest.

463

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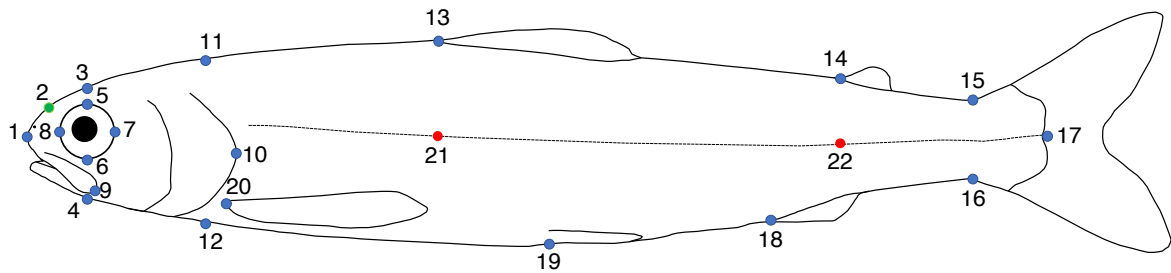
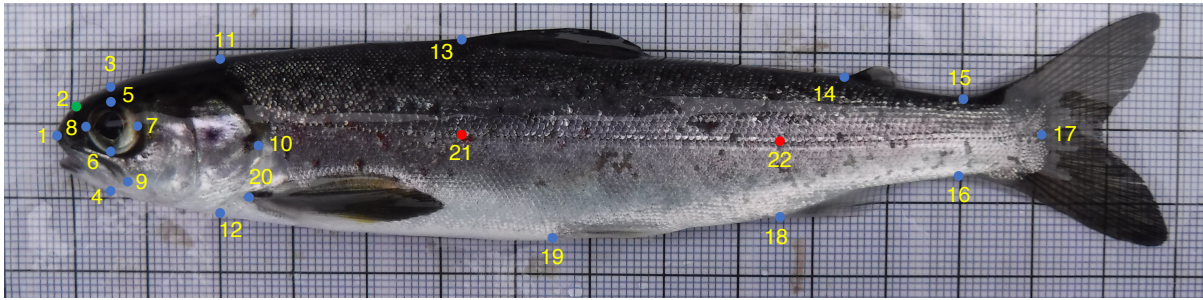
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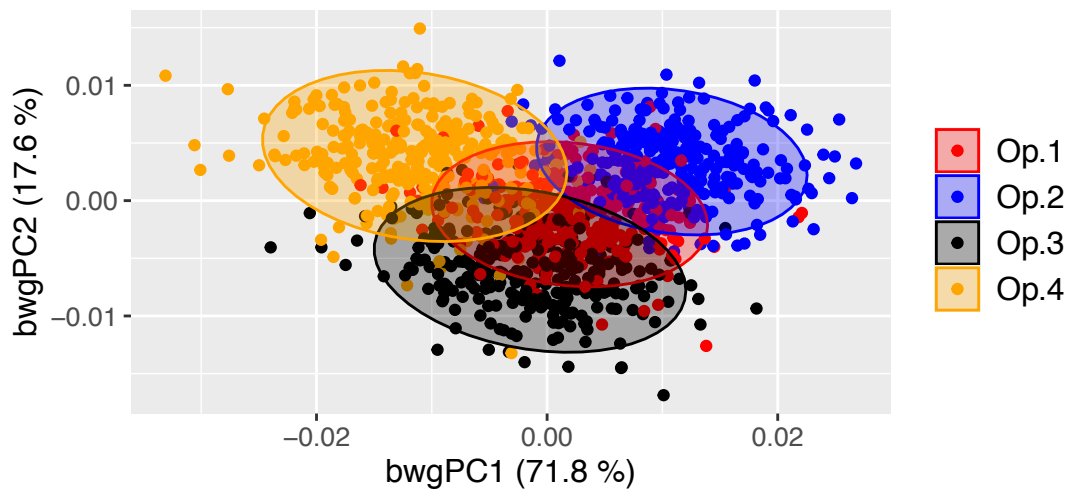
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**Figure 1.** Landmarks used for the geometric morphometrics analyses of Atlantic salmon smolts. **(1)** Tip of snout; **(2)** Midpoint between 1 and 3; **(3)** Directly above middle of eye; **(4)** Perpendicular to 3; **(5)** Midpoint of top of eye (directly below 3); **(6)** Midpoint of bottom of eye (directly below 3); **(7)** Midpoint of posterior of eye; **(8)** Midpoint of anterior of eye; **(9)** End of maxillary bone; **(10)** Posterior of bony operculum; **(11)** Dorsal surface posterior of cranium; **(12)** Perpendicular to 11; **(13)** Anterior insertion point of dorsal fin; **(14)** Anterior insertion point of adipose fin; **(15)** Dorsal insertion point of caudal fin; **(16)** Directly below 15; **(17)** Posterior midpoint of hypural plate; **(18)** Anterior insertion point of anal fin; **(19)** Anterior insertion point of ventral fin; **(20)** Anterior insertion point of pectoral fin; **(21)** Lateral line - perpendicular to 13; **(22)** Lateral line - perpendicular to 18.





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660 **Figure 2.** Between-operator PCA scatterplot showing the cross-validated scores along the  
661 first two between-group principal components (bwgPCs). Dots represent individual Atlantic  
662 salmon ( $n = 289$ ) landmarked by four independent operators (different colours). Between-  
663 operator variance (%) explained by the first and second axes is shown.

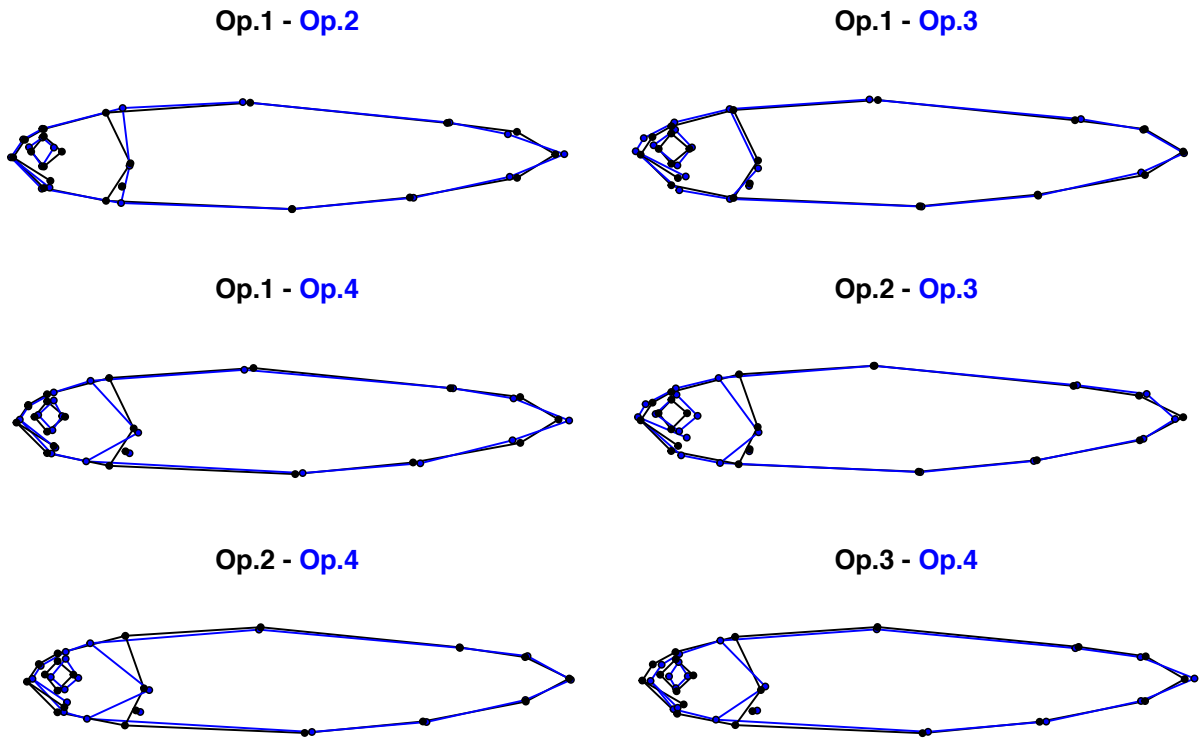
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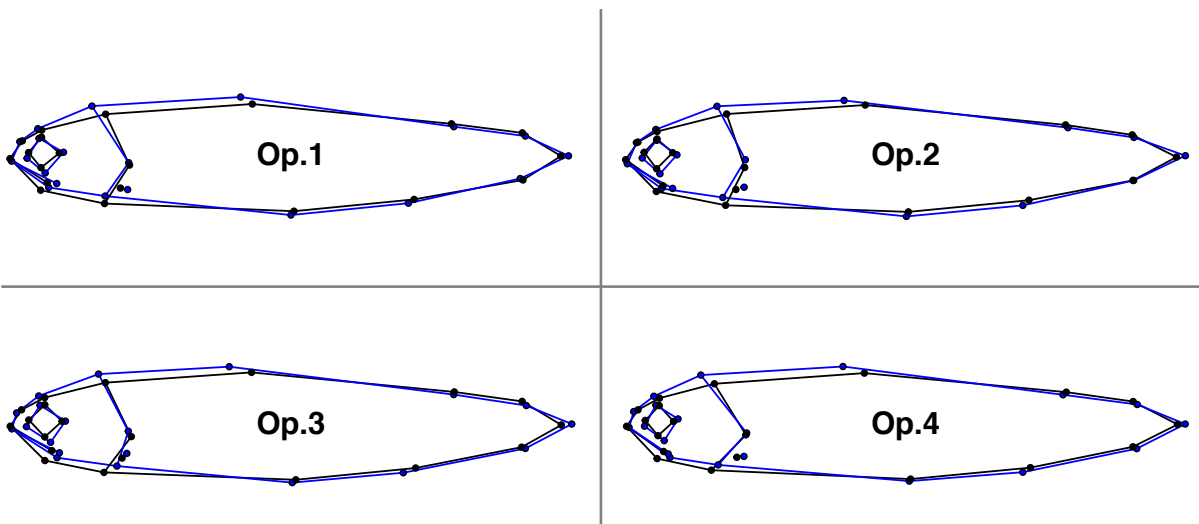
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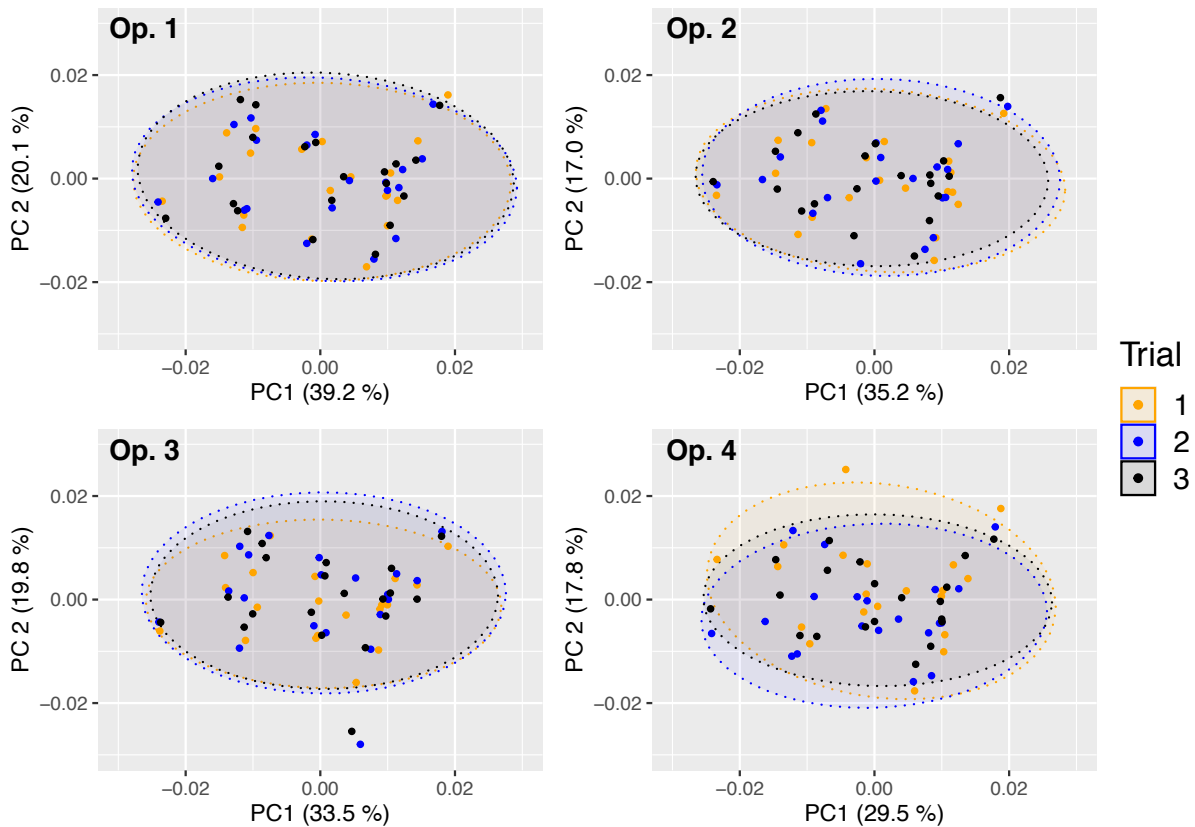
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**Figure 3.** Pairwise comparisons of the mean body shape of 289 Atlantic salmon landmarked by four independent operators. Morphological differences were magnified five times to aid visualisation.



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**Figure 4.** Comparisons of the mean body shape of 289 Atlantic salmon in the rivers Spey (black) and Oykel (blue) landmarked by four independent operators. Morphological differences were magnified six times to aid visualisation.



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**Figure 5.** Principal components analysis scatterplots of Procrustes-aligned coordinates for 20 Atlantic salmon in three landmarking trials by four independent operators. Dots represent individual fish. Variance (%) explained by the first and second axes and 95% confidence ellipses are shown.

## Tables

**Table 1.** Pairwise comparisons of the body shape of 289 Atlantic salmon landmarked by four independent operators based on Hotelling's  $T^2$ .

Comparison	Euclidean dist.	Hotelling's $T^2$	$F$	$P$ -value
Op.1 vs. Op.2	0.01249	6687.53	163.19	$< 1 \times 10^{-6}$
Op.1 vs. Op.3	0.00992	7394.42	180.44	$< 1 \times 10^{-6}$
Op.1 vs. Op.4	0.01569	6372.29	155.50	$< 1 \times 10^{-6}$
Op.2 vs. Op.3	0.01575	12100.50	295.28	$< 1 \times 10^{-6}$
Op.2 vs. Op.4	0.02270	7484.90	182.65	$< 1 \times 10^{-6}$
Op.3 vs. Op.4	0.01425	6717.82	163.93	$< 1 \times 10^{-6}$

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699 **Table 2.** Procrustes ANOVA summary statistics of effect of river-of-origin on the body  
700 shape of 289 Atlantic salmon landmarked by four independent operators.

Operator	Df	SS	$r^2$	$F$	$Z$	$P$ -value
Op.1	1	0.002760	0.02928	8.6573	4.832	0.0001
Op.2	1	0.003487	0.03363	9.9865	5.5316	0.0001
Op.3	1	0.004730	0.04228	12.671	5.8035	0.0001
Op.4	1	0.004028	0.03465	10.302	5.8474	0.0001

701 Df = Degrees of freedom, SS = Sum of squares,  $F = F$  statistics,  $Z =$  Effect size

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704 **Table 3.** Pairwise tests of angles between body shape differences among rivers and operators.  
705 Measurements of angles (degrees) between bwgPC1 vectors (below the diagonal) and  $P$ -  
706 values (above the diagonal) are shown. Significant  $P$ -values (in bold) indicate that shape  
707 change vectors are similar to each other. Additional comparisons with bwgPC2 and bwgPC3  
708 vectors of shape difference among operators are reported in Supplementary Table 3.

	<b>Op.1</b> (Spey vs. Oykel)	<b>Op.2</b> (Spey vs. Oykel)	<b>Op.3</b> (Spey vs. Oykel)	<b>Op.4</b> (Spey vs. Oykel)	<b>bwgPC1</b> (among operators)
<b>Op.1</b> (Spey vs. Oykel)		<b>2.0 x 10<sup>-16</sup></b>	<b>5.5 x 10<sup>-12</sup></b>	<b>4.8 x 10<sup>-15</sup></b>	<b>0.028</b>
<b>Op.2</b> (Spey vs. Oykel)	25.1°		<b>2.2 x 10<sup>-12</sup></b>	<b>2.5 x 10<sup>-13</sup></b>	<b>0.037</b>
<b>Op.3</b> (Spey vs. Oykel)	33.4°	32.5°		<b>7.0 x 10<sup>-20</sup></b>	0.288
<b>Op.4</b> (Spey vs. Oykel)	27.4 °	30.5°	20.2°		0.168
<b>bwgPC1</b> (among operators)	72.5	73.7	84.8	81.1	

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712 **Table 4.** Estimated mean and median shape distance (with confidence intervals) between the  
713 rivers Spey and Oykel obtained by each operator.

Operator	Mean distance	Median distance	Lower CI extreme	Upper CI extreme
Op.1	0.00651	0.00649	0.00526	0.00783
Op.2	0.00726	0.00722	0.00593	0.00871
Op.3	0.00834	0.00832	0.00688	0.00978
Op.4	0.00782	0.00781	0.00649	0.00921

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723 **Table 5.** Procrustes ANOVA summary statistics of effect of river-of-origin on the body  
724 shape of 289 Atlantic salmon based on combined datasets of Op.2 and Op.4.

<b>Dataset</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>SS</b>	<b><math>r^2</math></b>	<b><math>F</math></b>	<b><math>Z</math></b>	<b><math>P</math>-value</b>
Op.2-Oykel	1	0.024607	0.18193	63.825	7.4748	0.0001
Op.4-Spey						
Op.2-Spey	1	0.040397	0.26930	105.77	7.0742	0.0001
Op.4-Oykel						

725 Df = Degrees of freedom, SS = Sum of squares,  $F$  =  $F$  statistics,  $Z$  = Effect size

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728 **Table 6.** Pairwise comparisons of the body shape of 20 Atlantic salmon in three landmarking  
729 trials by four independent operators.

<b>Operator</b>	<b>Trials</b>	<b>Euclidean dist.</b>	<b>Hotelling's <math>T^2</math></b>	<b><math>F</math></b>	<b><math>P</math>-value</b>
Op.1	1 vs. 2	0.00262	69.11016	0.1914	0.97
	1 vs. 3	0.00353	129.63507	0.3591	0.89
	2 vs. 3	0.00167	20.58643	0.0570	0.99
Op.2	1 vs. 2	0.00394	42.34704	0.1173	0.99
	1 vs. 3	0.00407	60.60636	0.1679	0.98
	2 vs. 3	0.00245	51.99629	0.1440	0.98
Op.3	1 vs. 2	0.00389	50.95239	0.1411	0.98
	1 vs. 3	0.00405	59.86808	0.1658	0.98
	2 vs. 3	0.00158	17.94435	0.0497	0.99
Op.4	1 vs. 2	0.01339	197.45520	0.5470	0.81
	1 vs. 3	0.01026	166.04592	0.4600	0.84
	2 vs. 3	0.00457	71.89377	0.1992	0.96

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732 **Table 7.** Repeatability values for the three landmarking trials on 20 Atlantic salmon by four  
733 independent operators.

<b>Operator</b>	<b>Repeatability</b>	<b>Procrustes ANOVA <math>r^2</math> (%)</b>
Op.1	0.975	94.9
Op.2	0.955	91.3
Op.3	0.947	89.9
Op.4	0.892	81.5

