

1 Individual genotype but not phenotype predicts river migration 2 success in Atlantic salmon

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28 **Keywords:** Animal migration; salmon; SNPs; genome scan; Geometric morphometrics;
29 telemetry

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31

32 **Abstract**

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34 Migratory species typically undertake demanding long-distance journeys, across different
35 habitat types during which they are exposed to multiple natural and anthropogenic stressors.
36 Mortality during migration is typically high, and may be exacerbated by human-induced
37 pressures. Understanding individual responses to these selection pressures is rarely attempted,
38 because of the challenges of relating individual phenotypic and genetic data to migration
39 success. Here we show distinct Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP) sets significantly
40 differentiated between Atlantic salmon smolts making successful migrations to sea and those
41 that failed to migrate, in two different rivers. In contrast, morphological variation was not
42 diagnostic of migration success. Populations from each river were genetically distinct, and
43 while different genes were possibly implicated in migration success in each river, they related
44 to common biological processes (for example osmoregulation and immune and stress
45 response). Given that migration failure should quickly purge polymorphism at selected SNPs
46 from a population, the question of how genetic diversity in these populations is maintained is
47 an important one. Standing genetic variation could be maintained by different life history
48 strategies and/or environmentally driven balancing selection. Our work highlights the
49 importance of preserving genetic diversity to ensure evolutionary resilience at the population
50 level, and has practical implications for management.

51

52 **Introduction**

53

54 Animal migration has evolved independently many times across the Animal Kingdom (Dingle
55 & Drake, 2007; Bowlin et al., 2010; Shaw, 2016). Migration events can involve large numbers
56 of individuals moving between different habitats and regions, and these events play a key
57 ecological and socio-economic role in natural and human communities (Bauer & Hoyer, 2014).
58 Migratory species typically rely on multiple habitats to complete their life cycle and often
59 undertake demanding long-distance journeys exposing themselves to numerous natural and
60 anthropogenic stressors, such as predation, adverse weather conditions, pathogens, pollution,
61 artificial constructions and harvesting (Alerstam, Hedenström & Åkesson, 2003). Mortality
62 during migration is typically high and can be exacerbated by human-induced pressures, such
63 that it impacts upon migratory populations and the ecosystems that depend on them (Wilcove
64 & Wikelski, 2008; Harris et al., 2009; Middleton et al., 2013; Klaassen et al., 2014; Baker et
65 al., 2020). With an ongoing global decline of migratory species (Wilcove & Wikelski, 2008),
66 a better understanding of the factors causing mortality in migration is urgently required to
67 predict responses of migratory populations to future environmental challenges and implement
68 incisive conservation actions.

69 Recent advances in telemetry technology have made it possible to investigate migratory
70 behaviours of species both temporally and spatially (Doherty et al., 2017; Thorup et al., 2023).
71 This has enabled a better understanding of the exogenous factors directly influencing migration
72 mortality (Thorstad et al., 2013; Hays et al., 2003; Palacín et al., 2017; Weinz et al., 2020).
73 Organisms require a suite of specific morphological, physiological and behavioural adaptive
74 features to successfully complete a migratory cycle (Justen & Delmore, 2022). Given the
75 phenotypic and genetic variation found in most populations, it is reasonable to expect that some
76 genetic or phenotypic traits are more likely to increase migration success than others. However
77 which traits these might be remains poorly understood.

78 Genomic tools have recently been applied to identify factors regulating migratory behaviour at
79 the population or species level. Several studies have discovered the genetic basis for migratory
80 features such as migration timing and distance, orientation and propensity to migrate, with

81 specific genomic regions linked to these traits (Zhu et al., 2009; Liedvogel, Åkesson & Bensch,
82 2011; Hecht et al., 2012; O'Malley et al., 2013; Hess et al., 2014; Hecht et al., 2015; Pritchard
83 et al., 2018; Waples, Naish & Primmer, 2020; Justen & Delmore, 2022). However,
84 understanding the genomic basis on which selection could act at an individual level to dictate
85 migration success has rarely been attempted (but see Bourret, Dionne & Bernatchez, 2014),
86 despite the fundamental insights it could provide into how populations might respond to
87 selection, and the implications for management of conservation genetics of migratory species.
88 An important phenotypic trait expected to influence migration success is body morphology
89 (Minias et al., 2013). Morphological variation (i.e. body shape and size) can affect behaviour,
90 resource use, survival and reproductive success of individuals (Wainwright 1994; Skulason &
91 Smith, 1995; Fruciano, Tigano & Ferrito, 2011). The effect of morphology on movement is
92 particularly evident in fish because of a direct link to swimming performance (Pakkasmaa &
93 Piironen, 2000; Fisher & Hogan, 2007; Drinan et al., 2012; Stelkens et al., 2012; Páez &
94 Dodson, 2017). Chapman et al. (2015) found a direct correlation between migration propensity
95 and body shape, while other studies have demonstrated an increased ability and 'motivation'
96 to pass river barriers in relation to size, fat content and morphology (Newton et al., 2018;
97 Lothian et al., 2020; Goerig et al., 2020). Nevertheless, research on migration survival and
98 mortality as a consequence of body shape variation (as opposed to size; Kennedy, Gale &
99 Ostrand, 2007; Hostetter et al., 2012; Romer et al., 2013; Furey et al., 2016; Lilly et al., 2022)
100 is still lacking.

101 Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* Linnaeus) is a migratory species of socio-economic importance
102 that has suffered substantial declines over the past 40 years (ICES, 2021) due to multiple abiotic
103 and biotic factors not yet fully understood (Forseth et al., 2017; Dadswell et al., 2022). The
104 Atlantic salmon has a complex life cycle, which includes two long distance migration stages;
105 a long-distance feeding migration from freshwater to sea as a juvenile (smolt) and an adult
106 returning spawning migration from sea to freshwater. In addition it is a philopatric species,
107 accurately homing to its natal spawning grounds (Thorstad et al., 2010). Fidelity to a specific
108 river limits gene flow among populations and has been shown to promote the evolution of local
109 adaptation through natural selection, genetic drift, and bottlenecks (Garcia De Leaniz et al., 2007;
110 Fraser et al., 2011). The seaward migration of smolts constitutes a key life-stage for Atlantic
111 salmon and provides an ideal opportunity to study the genetic and phenotypic components that
112 may differentially affect the ability of individual animals to successfully complete their
113 migration. The identification of genetic and phenotypic traits could play a vital role in local
114 management of Atlantic salmon (Bernos, Jeffries & Mandrak, 2020).

115
116 Here, we analysed genomic and morphological data of migrating Atlantic salmon smolts in
117 two rivers. We wanted to test to what extent (I) Atlantic salmon populations in the two rivers
118 were genetically distinct, and (II) migration success by seaward migrating smolts could be
119 predicted by specific genomic regions and/or morphological traits.

120

121 **Methods**

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123 **Sampling, tagging and study design**

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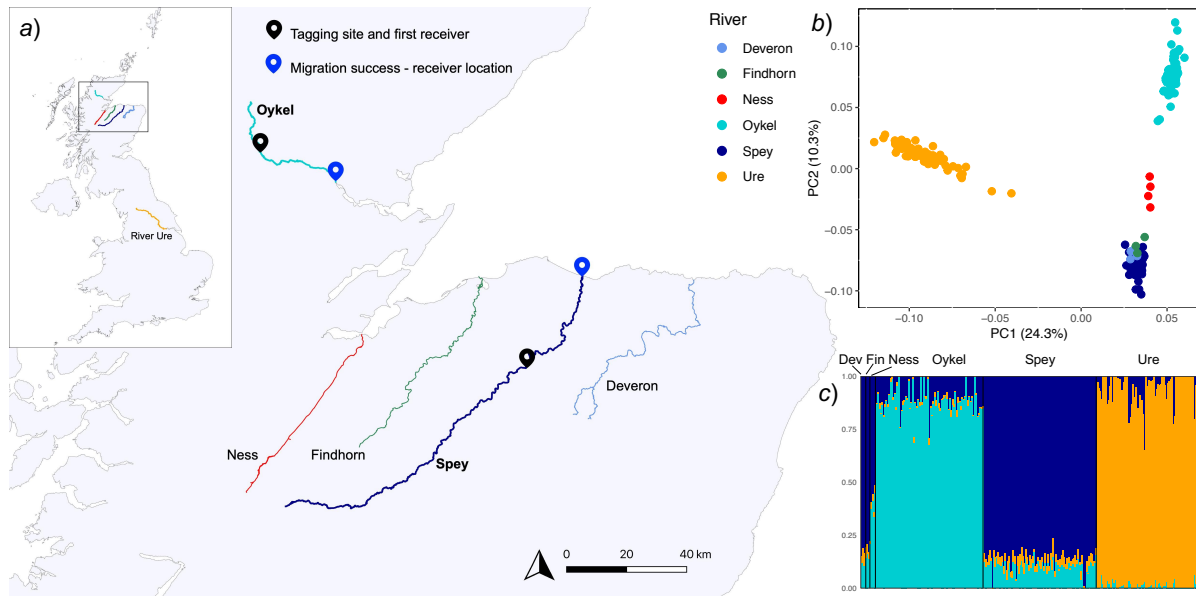
125 The study reported here formed part of a wider acoustic telemetry study to examine migratory
126 behaviours and migration success in juvenile salmon (smolts) on their first migration from natal
127 rivers to sea (see Whelan, Roberts & Gray, 2019). Atlantic salmon were captured between 11
128 April and 3 May 2019 from the rivers Oykel (57°59.640' N, 4°48.282' W) and Spey (57°24.960'
129 N, 3°22.602' W), Scotland, using 1.5 m diameter rotary screw traps and a box trap (Fig. 1).

130 Fish were anaesthetised in MS222 and tagged with Vemco V7-2L acoustic transmitters (7mm
131 diameter, 19.5mm length, 1.5g in air, 137 dB re 1 μ Pa @ 1m, acoustic transmission repeat cycle
132 of 28 seconds \pm 10 seconds, InnovaSea, Bedford, Nova Scotia, Canada). For more details on
133 the tagging and release procedure see Lilly et al. (2022). Before being tagged, fish were
134 measured (fork length, mm), weighed (g), and photographed. Photographs of the left side of
135 each fish were taken from approximately 30 cm directly above the fish, with a Fujifilm FinePix
136 XP130 Compact Digital Camera on a background reference scale. An adipose fin-clip was also
137 taken from every fish and stored in 96% ethanol for later DNA extraction.

138 Two acoustic monitoring receivers (InnovaSea VR2Tx) were deployed in each river, one of
139 which was immediately downstream of the tagging site (0.2 and 0.6 km in the rivers Oykel and
140 Spey, respectively; Fig. 1). The second receiver was deployed at the river mouth (Fig. 1). Of
141 all the salmon tagged and released in the two rivers (Oykel, $n = 149$, Spey $n = 150$), 91.9 and
142 96.7% respectively were detected by the first receiver after release. Of these, 78 (Oykel) and
143 82 (Spey) smolts were randomly selected for this study, distributed evenly between migratory
144 outcomes ensuring a balanced design. Fish from both rivers were allocated into two groups
145 based on their migratory outcome; 1) fish detected on the second and final river receiver were
146 categorised as ‘successful’ river migrants, and 2) fish only detected on the first receiver were
147 considered as ‘unsuccessful’ river migrants (Table 1, Fig. 1). To assess receiver detection
148 efficiency, additional receivers deployed as a part of the broader telemetry study in the marine
149 coastal waters of the Moray Firth were used. Since all smolts detected in marine waters were
150 also detected by the two freshwater receivers, detection efficiency was determined to be 100%,
151 meaning that no fish were wrongly miscategorised as unsuccessful migrants as a result of
152 missed detections at the second river receiver.

153 To assess whether the study rivers harboured genetically differentiated Atlantic salmon
154 populations, the genetic variation across rivers in the Moray Firth (Fig. 1) was investigated. In
155 addition to fish from the study rivers Oykel and Spey, Atlantic salmon smolts from the rivers
156 Findhorn ($n = 3$; 57°25.05' N, 3°53.35' W), Deveron ($n = 4$; 57°30.45' N, 2°42.35' W) and
157 Ness ($n = 4$; 57°27.17' N, 4°15.35' W) were included in the analysis. To further contextualise
158 the relative genetic diversity of these rivers, Atlantic salmon samples from the River Ure,
159 England ($n = 76$; 54°16.19' N, 1°44.57' W) were also included in the analysis (Fig. 1). Fish
160 from the Findhorn, Deveron and Ness were sampled in Spring 2019 using rotary screw traps,
161 while fish from the Ure were captured employing backpack electric fishing equipment
162 (Electracatch 24 V DC input, 200-400 V, 100 W, 50 Hz Pulsed DC, variable pulse width
163 output).

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 166 **Figure 1.** The study area (a) and genetic structuring (b, c) of salmon populations from rivers flowing
 167 into the Moray Firth (Scotland), with samples from the River Ure (England, a) top left panel) for
 168 comparison. Tagging locations and acoustic receivers are shown in map (a). The principal components
 169 analysis (PCA) and the ADMIXTURE analysis plots are based on 44,504 SNPs pruned for linkage
 170 disequilibrium. In the PCA scatterplot (b), dots represent individual fish, and variance (%) explained
 171 by the first and second axes are shown. Colours correspond to rivers. In the ADMIXTURE plot (K=3;
 172 c) each fish individual is represented by a vertical bar. ‘Dev’ and ‘Fin’ are abbreviations for the rivers
 173 Deveron and Findhorn, respectively.

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176 **Table 1.** Classification of smolts (*n*) in the rivers Oykel and Spey based on tracking results.

River	Unsuccessful	Successful	Total river migration	
			distance	
Oykel	36	42	30.5 km	
Spey	35	47	50.1 km	

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179 Genomic analyses

181 *DNA extraction, genotyping and quality control*

182 DNA was extracted from adipose fin samples employing a modified Mu-DNA: Tissue protocol
 183 (Sellers et al., 2018) using a solid phase reversible immobilization (SPRI) magnetic bead
 184 capture method (adapted from Rohland & Reich, 2012) to isolate high molecular weight DNA.
 185 The DNA samples were sent to the Centre for Integrative Genetics (CIGENE, Ås, Norway) for
 186 genotyping, including biological and technical replicates to ensure consistency across plates.
 187 A custom 220,000 SNP (Single Nucleotide Polymorphism) Affymetrix Axiom array designed
 188 for Atlantic salmon (see Barson et al., 2015 for details) was used for data generation. Following
 189 the manufacturer’s instructions, only SNPs categorised as PolyHighResolution and
 190 NoMinorHom were used for analyses, while SNPs with unknown position were excluded from
 191 the dataset, leaving 213,945 available loci for genomic investigation. We then performed
 192 quality control (QC) and filtering of SNPs data in PLINK version 1.9 and 2.0 ([www.cog-
 193 genomics.org/plink/1.9/](http://www.cog-genomics.org/plink/1.9/) and [www.cog-
 genomics.org/plink/2.0/](http://www.cog-genomics.org/plink/2.0/); Purcell et al., 2007; Chang et

194 al., 2015). SNPs were filtered for Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (PLINK 1.9. command: `--hwe`
195 `0.001`) to remove genotyping errors. Additionally, SNPs were screened for minor allele
196 frequency (`--maf 0.05`) and genotype missingness (`--geno 0.1`), and individuals with a high rate
197 of missing SNPs (`--mind 0.1`) were discarded from analyses. Full siblings were also removed
198 using PLINK 2.0 (`--king-cutoff 0.25`). In the migration success analyses, these QC steps were
199 performed separately for the rivers Oykel and Spey and resulted in the retention of 198,336
200 SNPs and 82 individual fish from the River Oykel and 201,475 SNPs and 78 individuals from
201 the River Spey. The fish used in this analysis were the same employed for morphometric
202 investigations, but included two additional individuals which were not photographed. For the
203 regional population structure analyses (paragraph below), QC was performed on all rivers
204 together and SNPs in high linkage disequilibrium were pruned in PLINK 1.9 (`--indep 50 5 1.4`)
205 leaving 44,504 unlinked SNPs available for analysis.

206

207 *Regional rivers genetic structuring*

208 To investigate the genetic variation across rivers in the Moray Firth (Fig. 1), a principal
209 component analysis (PCA) was performed in PLINK 1.9 using individuals from the rivers
210 Oykel, Spey, Findhorn, Deveron, Ness and Ure. Using the same samples, ADMIXTURE v.1.3.
211 (Alexander, Novembre & Lange, 2009) was used to infer the most likely number of genetic
212 clusters (K, testing from K=1 to K=6), that was determined based on the lowest cross-validation
213 error.

214

215 *Outlier analysis and gene annotation*

216 To detect SNP markers with unusually high levels of allelic differentiation between successful
217 and unsuccessful migrants in each river, two different approaches were computed using the
218 unpruned SNP dataset. In the first approach, the R (R Core Team, 2022) package ‘OutFLANK’
219 v. 0.2 (Whitlock & Lotterhos, 2015), which estimates among-groups F_{st} for each locus was
220 used. For the second, the allele-based chi-squared association test in PLINK 1.9 (command: `--`
221 `assoc`) was implemented. See code (<https://tinyurl.com/salmon-migration-success>) for details
222 about parameters used to run these analyses. Outlier loci in ‘OutFLANK’ were identified by
223 applying a q-value < 0.05 threshold, while outliers in the association test in PLINK were
224 determined as the top 0.1% SNPs ranked by P-values. Acknowledging the inherent risk of false
225 positives in genome scan analyses (Luu, Bazin & Blum, 2017), a robust bootstrapping
226 methodology was employed. For each river, 200 bootstrap replicate datasets were generated
227 by randomly removing one fish from each of the migratory groups (successful and
228 unsuccessful). Each of these datasets was examined independently, with 100 analysed using
229 ‘OutFLANK’ and the other 100 using the PLINK association test. Only the outliers that were
230 consistently detected in all 200 bootstrap replicates by both methods were retained for
231 subsequent analysis. Outliers were visualised using the ‘qqman’ v. 0.1.8 R package (Turner,
232 2014). A PCA of the outliers was computed in PLINK on the complete dataset including all
233 fish and the resulting PCA plot was employed to visually test if these outlier SNPs effectively
234 separated successful and unsuccessful migrating salmon smolts in the two rivers.

235 For each river, the ten genes closest to each outlier SNP were extracted using the *closest*
236 function in the software bedtools 2.29.1 (Quinlan & Hall, 2010) and the genes within 10 kb
237 upstream and downstream of outlier SNPs were filtered in R (Wellband et al., 2019). The
238 potential functions of these genes were assessed by examining the gene ontology (GO)
239 biological process terms associated with each gene, using the R package ‘Ssa.RefSeq.db’ v.
240 1.2 (Grammes, 2016) and literature searches. For these analyses, the NCBI *Salmo salar*
241 Annotation Release 100 (ICSASG_v2) was used as a reference genome.

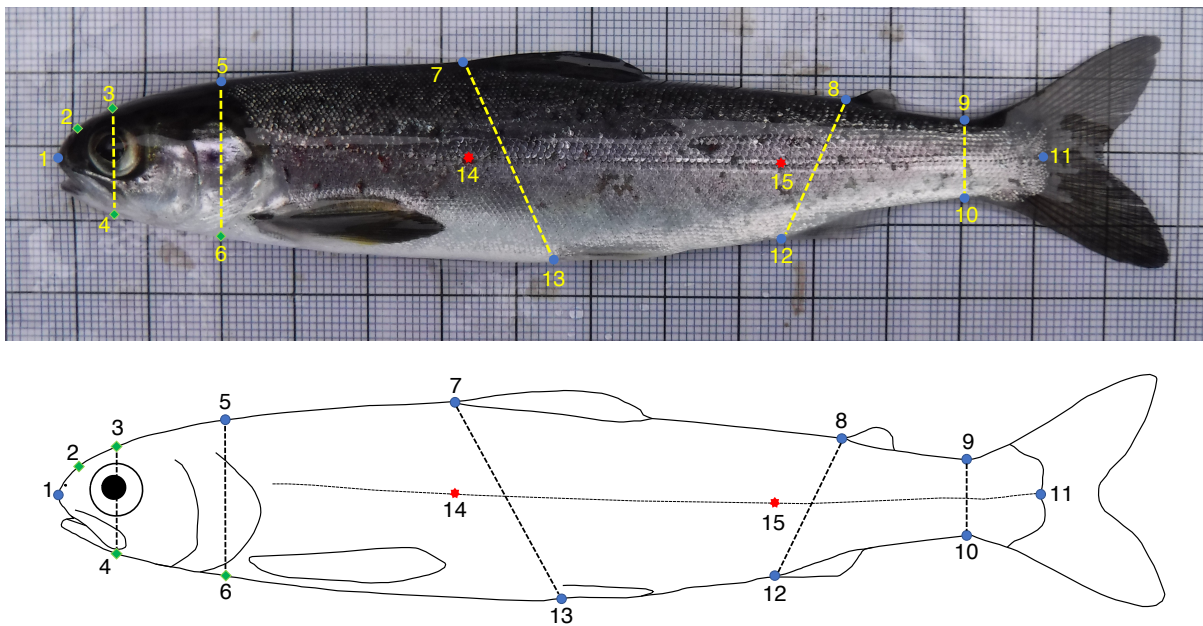
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243 **Morphometric analyses**

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245 *Landmark digitisation*

246 Fish morphology was analysed using length (mm), weight (g), Fulton’s condition factor (K;
247 Nash, Valencia & Geffen, 2006) and geometric morphometrics (GM). The GM analyses were
248 based on photographs of 158 salmon (Spey $n = 77$, Oykel $n = 81$). The images of each fish were
249 imported into tpsUtil v. 1.78 (Rohlf, 2019) and randomly shuffled using the *Randomly order*
250 *specimens* function so that the operator was blind to the river-of-origin of the specimens. Nine
251 fixed and 4 semi- landmarks (Fig. 2) were digitised on each image by a single operator using
252 tpsDig v. 2.31 (Rohlf, 2017) using a subset of landmarks from the scheme proposed by
253 Moccetti et al. (2023). Furthermore, five linear body measurements (Fig. 2) used as proxy of
254 body slenderness which has been associated to swimming ability were also included (e.g.,
255 Pakkasmaa & Piironen, 2001; Drinan et al., 2012). Landmark coordinates were imported into
256 R and analysed using the ‘geomorph’ and ‘RRPP’ v. 4.0.4 packages (Adams et al., 2021; Baken
257 et al., 2021; Collyer & Adams, 2021). Preliminary analysis revealed body bending as a major
258 source of shape variation in the dataset. This was corrected by employing landmarks 1, 14, 15
259 and 11 (see Moccetti et al., 2023 for details). All subsequent analyses were performed on
260 landmarks 1-13 only. PCA plots were produced with the ‘ggplot2’ package (Wickham, 2016).
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263 **Figure 2.** Fixed (blue circles) and semi (green diamonds) landmarks and linear measurements used for
264 the geometric morphometrics analyses of Atlantic salmon smolts (image modified from Moccetti et al,
265 2023). Landmarks 14 and 15 (red stars) were used to correct for body arching. **(1)** Tip of snout; **(2)**
266 Midpoint between 1 and 3; **(3)** Directly above middle of eye; **(4)** Perpendicular to 3; **(5)** Dorsal surface
267 posterior of cranium; **(6)** Perpendicular to 11; **(7)** Anterior insertion point of dorsal fin; **(8)** Anterior
268 insertion point of adipose fin; **(9)** Dorsal insertion point of caudal fin; **(10)** Versal insertion point of
269 caudal fin; **(11)** Posterior midpoint of hypural plate; **(12)** Anterior insertion point of anal fin; **(13)**
270 Anterior insertion point of ventral fin; **(14)** Lateral line - perpendicular to 7; **(15)** Lateral line -
271 perpendicular to 12.

272

273 The following analyses were performed separately for each river. First, we tested whether
274 successful and unsuccessful migrating fish in the two rivers were different in length (mm),
275 weight (g) or Fulton’s condition factor using *t*- and *Mann-Whitney U*- tests depending on the
276 data distribution. Fulton’s condition factor (K) was calculated as: $K = 100 \times W.L^{-3}$, where $W =$

277 weight (g) and L = length (cm). We next tested for a difference in body shape between
278 successful and unsuccessful fish, and whether these differences were consistent across rivers.
279 A generalised Procrustes analysis (GPA) was performed to remove effects not related to body
280 shape through translation, scaling and rotation of the landmark configurations (Rohlf & Slice,
281 1990). The residual effect of fish size on body shape was tested using Procrustes ANOVAs,
282 with Procrustes coordinates used as a response variable and log centroid size used as an
283 independent variable with a randomised residual permutation procedure (10,000 iterations). No
284 significant effect of size on shape was found in either river ($p > 0.05$). To visualise body shape
285 of successful and unsuccessful fish, a PCA was performed on the Procrustes-aligned
286 coordinates of fish of each migration category from each river. Procrustes ANOVAs and t -tests
287 were subsequently used to test for differences in body shape and linear distances between fish
288 with different migratory outcomes. For linear distance and length, weight and condition factor
289 comparisons, significance values were Bonferroni corrected to limit the increased error rate
290 correlated with multiple testing (Rice, 1989).

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294 **Results**

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296 **Genomic analyses**

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298 *Regional rivers genetic structuring*

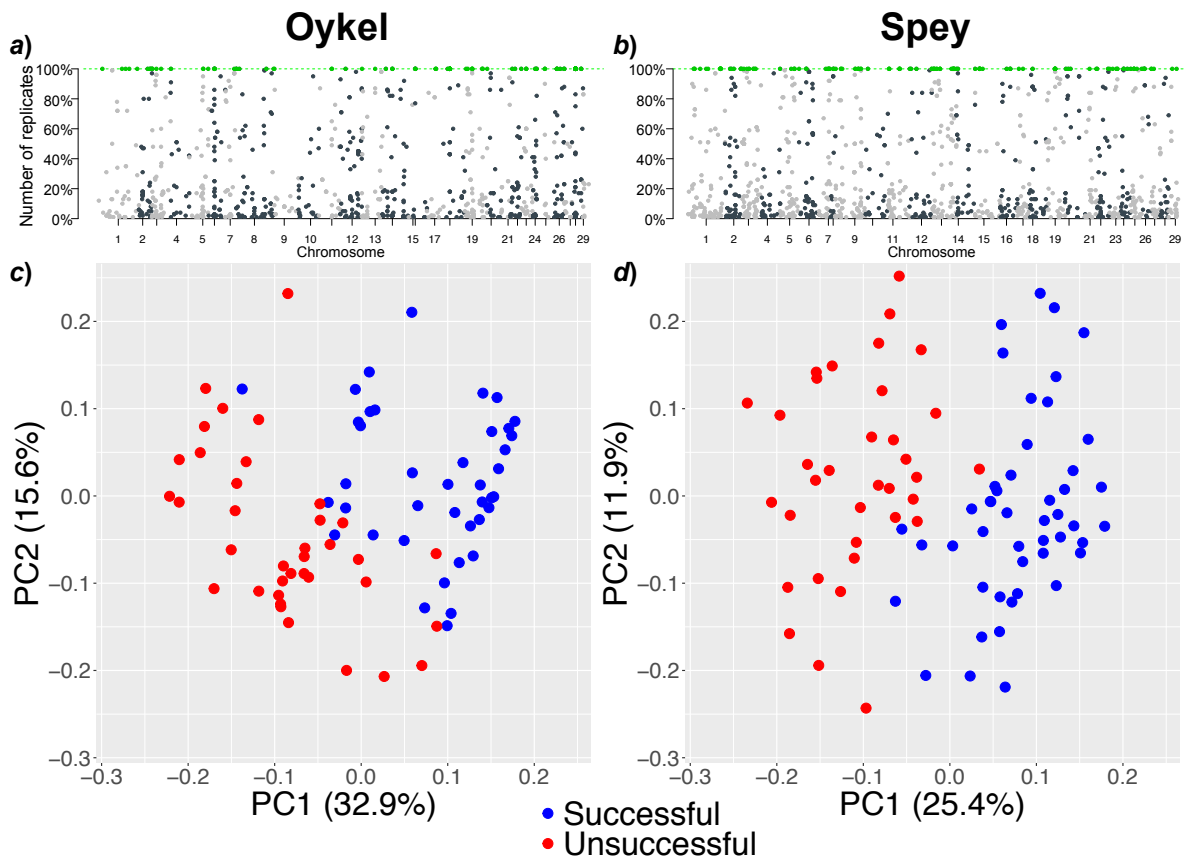
299 The study rivers Spey and Oykel were genetically differentiated from one another (Fig. 1). The
300 second Principal Component (PC2) successfully separated the fish from the River Ness,
301 geographically located between the Oykel and the Spey, from all the other rivers (Fig. 1). Fish
302 from the rivers Deveron and Findhorn clustered with the spatially adjacent River Spey (Fig. 1).
303 PC1 separated the more geographically distant River Ure, situated in northern England, from
304 all Scottish rivers flowing into the Moray Firth (Fig. 1). Similarly, ADMIXTURE analysis
305 identified three different genetic clusters consisting of the rivers Oykel, Spey and Ure, with the
306 rivers Deveron, Findhorn clustering with the Spey, while the Ness was admixed with the rivers
307 Oykel and Spey.

308

309 *Genomic regions linked to migratory outcome*

310 There was a consistently high false discovery rate (FDR) observed across methods and
311 bootstrap replicates in both rivers. On average, only 11.7% of outlier SNPs were detected by
312 'OutFLANK' or PLINK in all 100 replicates. Specifically, the FDR was 10.8% ('OutFLANK')
313 and 10.7% (PLINK) in the Oykel dataset and 14.4% ('OutFLANK') and 10.7% (PLINK) in
314 the Spey. Seventy outlier SNPs were consistently detected by both methods in all bootstrap
315 replicates for migrating fish in the River Oykel, and 67 outliers for fish from the River Spey
316 (Supplementary files 1, 2). None of the outlier SNPs were found in fish from both rivers. The
317 PCA computed on this subset of outlier loci confirmed their ability to distinguish between
318 successful and unsuccessful fish along PC1 axis for each river (Fig. 3).

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Figure 3. The Manhattan-style plots (*a*, *b*) show all outlier SNPs (dots) identified in bootstrap replicated datasets using ‘OutFLANK’ in each river. The outliers consistently detected in 100% of replicates and used for analysis are highlighted in green. The y-axis shows the proportion of replicated datasets where each individual outlier SNP was identified. The x-axis displays the position of the SNPs along the genome with chromosome numbers. The analogous plots for the association test in PLINK are shown in Supplementary Figure 1. *c* and *d*; Principal components analysis scatterplots based on 70 (Oykel) and 67 (Spey) outlier SNPs between successful (blue) and unsuccessful (red) migrant Atlantic salmon smolts. Each dot represents an individual fish. Variance (%) explained by the first and second axes is also shown.

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Gene annotation

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There were 50 and 48 putative coding regions (hereafter genes) within 10 kb of the outlier SNPs’ locations in the Oykel and Spey fish, respectively (Supplementary file 3). None of these genes were identified as outliers in fish from both rivers. Eight and 12 genes contained more than one outlier SNP within the 10kb region in the Oykel and Spey samples, respectively (Supplementary file 3). The two genes enclosing the highest number of outlier SNPs were the *anion exchange protein 2-like* (encompassing 18 SNPs, River Oykel) and the *collagen alpha-1(I) chain-like* (encompassing 10 SNPs, River Spey).

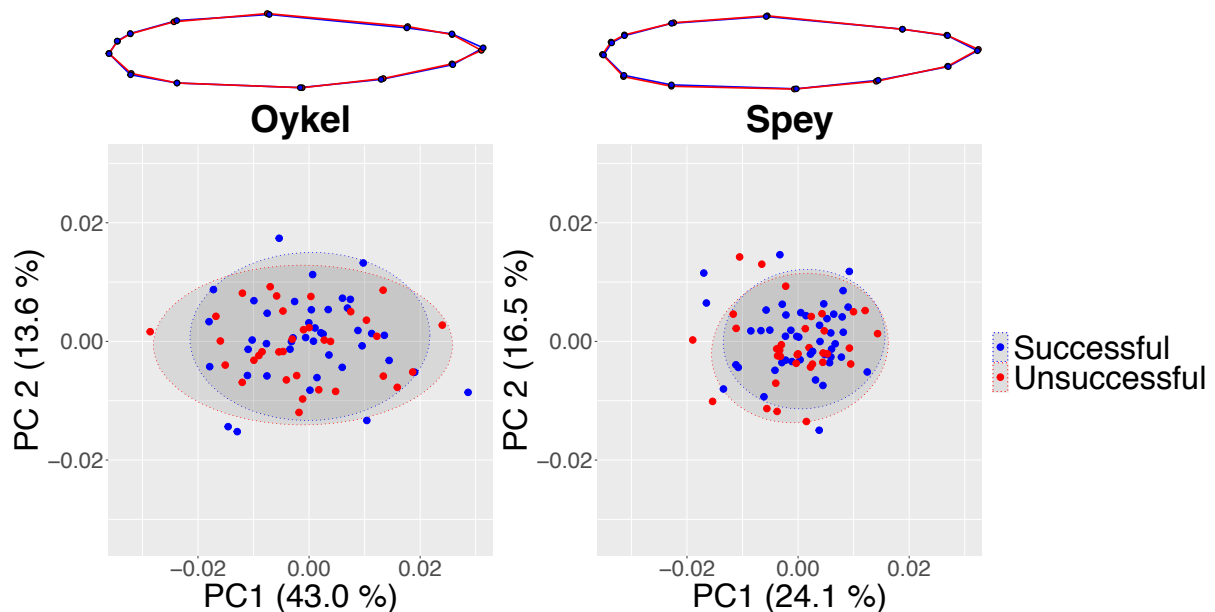
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Morphological differences between successful and unsuccessful salmon

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There were no differences in length, weight or Fulton’s condition factor between successful and unsuccessful migrating smolts ($p > 0.07$; Supplementary Figure 2, Supplementary Tables 1, 2). Procrustes ANOVAs based on the 13 landmark coordinates did not show significant differences in body shape between successful and unsuccessful smolts in either of the two

348 rivers ($p > 0.31$; Fig. 4, Supplementary Table 3). Likewise, after Bonferroni correction (new
349 α value = 0.005), comparison of body linear measurements did not show any significant
350 difference between migrating groups ($p > 0.04$; Supplementary Tables 4, 5).
351



352
353 **Figure 4.** Mean body shape projections (top) and principal components analysis scatterplots (lower
354 panel) show an absence of shape difference between the migratory groups. Procrustes-aligned
355 coordinates of successful (blue) and unsuccessful (red) Atlantic salmon, where dots represent individual
356 fish are shown below. Variance (%) explained by the first and second axes and 95% confidence ellipses
357 are displayed. Projections show a complete overlap of the blue (successful) and red (unsuccessful) lines
358 in both rivers despite magnifying morphological differences three times to aid visualisation.
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361 Discussion

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363 Our work shows that distinct SNP sets were significantly differentiated between Atlantic
364 salmon smolts making successful migrations to sea and those that failed to migrate to sea in
365 two different rivers. In both rivers, the outlier SNPs predicting individual migration success
366 were near several genes that could be relevant for migration, but we found no evidence of
367 phenotypic differences in body shape between successful and unsuccessful Atlantic salmon
368 river migrants.

369 Categorising genes containing outlier SNPs by biological function highlighted similar
370 processes across the study rivers. In fish from both rivers, genes putatively linked to
371 osmoregulation, immunity, stress, and nervous, sensory, muscular, skeletal and cardiovascular
372 system development and activity were detected.

373 Candidate genes linked to general neuronal, cardiovascular and skeletal functions may play an
374 important role in migration, but a direct link to smolt migration success is hard to determine.
375 Furthermore, given the susceptibility of gene annotation to false positives, it is important to
376 exercise caution when attempting to establish such correlations (Pavlidis et al., 2012).
377 Nevertheless, osmoregulation and immune response are processes shown to play an important
378 part in salmonid migration. In the Oykel and in the Spey outlier SNPs were located within or
379 near (within 10 kb) several candidate osmoregulatory genes. These genes were associated with
380 a range of processes including ion transmembrane and water transport, renal activity, response
381 to salt stress and hyperosmotic response. Noteworthy it is the identification of the *anion*

382 *exchange protein 2-like* gene, encompassing 18 of the 70 outlier SNPs detected in the Oykel.
383 This gene is associated to GO terms involved in osmoregulatory processes, such as chloride
384 and bicarbonate transmembrane transport (Wilson, Wilson & Grosell, 2002; Grosell, 2006).
385 Osmoregulation and individual ability to undergo physiological changes required for seawater
386 entry has been shown to be important to increase chances of survival and predator avoidance
387 in seaward migrating salmonid smolts (Kennedy, Gale & Ostrand, 2007) and could play a role
388 in migration success of Atlantic salmon smolts in the last tidal kilometres of the Oykel and
389 Spey where transitional zone between freshwater and saltwater occurs.

390 Immunity related and stress response genes were also widely detected in association with the
391 outlier SNPs separating successful and unsuccessful river migrants in fish from both the Oykel
392 and Spey. Studies using proteomics in Pacific salmon (*Oncorhynchus* spp.) have found
393 significant correlation between migratory outcome, expression of specific immune-related
394 genes and viral and parasite-induced infection burden (Miller et al., 2011; Jeffries et al., 2014;
395 Furey et al., 2021; Mauduit et al., 2022). The stress hormone cortisol has also been found to be
396 a good predictor of migration success in salmonids (Birnie-Gauvin et al., 2019). Our findings
397 now highlight the potentially important role of pathogens driven selection in Atlantic salmon
398 migration success. An additional factor that requires further investigation, is the possibility that
399 there are individual differences in response to the tagging process, since there are also immune
400 genes annotated with GO terms involved in blood coagulation and response to wounding. To
401 determine migration patterns, all the fish in our study were tagged, so although this is not a
402 confounding factor in our design, this finding warrants further investigation.

403 While particular SNP sets allow us to predict migratory outcome of Atlantic salmon smolts in
404 the Oykel and Spey, analyses of length, weight, body condition and body shape did not find
405 any significant difference between successful and unsuccessful migrants in either of the rivers.
406 This is somewhat surprising given the importance that morphology plays in swimming
407 performance in fish (Webb, 1978; Webb, 1984; Fisher & Hogan, 2007; Langerhans & Reznick,
408 2010; Assumpção et al., 2012), the specific hydrodynamic characteristics required to
409 effectively migrate in running waters (Langerhans & Reznick, 2010; Brodersen et al., 2014),
410 and that size, body shape and condition may also be important in anti-predatory behaviour
411 (Domenici et al., 2007). However, we did find a difference in smolt morphology between rivers
412 (Mocchetti et al., 2023) and there is genetic differentiation of the Oykel and Spey salmon
413 populations indicating reproductive isolation between these geographically close populations,
414 likely facilitated by fine-scale homing. Different evolutionary and demographic histories,
415 (evidenced by the geographic structure we find between river populations) combined with
416 different contemporary ecological selection pressures will therefore lead to different traits
417 being linked to migration success. For example, there were no genes that contained outlier
418 SNPs nor GO processes in common in Atlantic salmon from both the Oykel and Spey.

419 Overall, we found that migratory outcome for individual salmon smolts in given rivers, in a
420 given year, could be predicted from a subset of SNPs consistently detected through
421 bootstrapping approach. We next need to understand the ecological and environmental factors
422 which could determine those subsets, by adding temporal replication so that we can better
423 understand the limits of our study. From an evolutionary and conservation point of view, the
424 mechanism through which the observed genetic diversity could be maintained needs to be
425 identified, given that migration failure should theoretically quickly purge polymorphism at
426 selected SNPs from a population. We propose that variation in life history could maintain
427 standing genetic variation for environmentally driven balancing selection (Mérot et al., 2020).
428 ‘Partial’ migration (Shaw, 2016), where only a portion of the population migrates, is common
429 in several taxa and may be responsible for maintaining high genetic diversity if migratory and
430 resident individuals interbreed (Pulido, 2011). Within-population differences in migratory
431 strategies (e.g. timing, duration and routes) between age-classes and sexes are also well known

432 phenomena (Cristol, Baker & Carbone, 1999). These sub-groups are exposed to different biotic
433 and abiotic conditions potentially selecting for different genotypes that may maintain the gene
434 pool diversity within the population (Dingle & Drake, 2007; Wittmann et al., 2017; Briedis &
435 Bauer, 2018). Alternative migratory and reproductive tactics are well documented in Atlantic
436 salmon (Fleming, 1998; Thorstad et al., 2010; Birnie-Gauvin, Thorstad & Aarestrup, 2019),
437 thus individuals with different life histories experiencing temporally and spatially fluctuating
438 selection can interbreed and induce genetic mixing. Typically, the life history of Atlantic
439 salmon involves seaward migration followed by a return to their natal river to spawn, but a
440 number of males (and occasionally females, Birnie-Gauvin, Thorstad & Aarestrup, 2019)
441 become sexually reproductive in freshwater as morphological juveniles before migrating to sea
442 ('precocious male parr'; Lepais et al., 2017). Their contribution to paternity could be substantial
443 (ca. 60% in one study, Saura et al., 2008). The number of years spent in freshwater before
444 smolting, and at sea before upstream spawning migration can also vary considerably (Thorstad
445 et al., 2010). Finally, unlike Pacific salmon species, a non-negligible proportion of Atlantic
446 salmon survive reproduction (especially females), return to the ocean as 'kelt' and spawn
447 multiple times (Hedger et al., 2009). Weather and ecological conditions can change
448 dramatically among and within years inducing different selective pressures on migrating smolts
449 and other salmon life stages. For instance, variations in water discharge and temperature may
450 affect ecological factors such as migration timing (Thorstad et al., 2010), predation (Kennedy,
451 Gale & Ostrand, 2007; Hostetter et al., 2012) and pathogen infection (Wagner et al., 2005) as
452 well as passage of artificial migration barriers (Marschall et al., 2011). Clearly, all these
453 variables may differentially alter the allele frequencies under selection and help maintain
454 standing genetic variation. Straying between rivers could also be a source of genetic diversity
455 (Palstra, O'Connell & Ruzzante, 2007; Keefer & Caudill, 2014), although we found no
456 evidence of this in our study.
457 From a conservation point of view, understanding and predicting these selection pressures
458 could be invaluable in managing existing populations, and could inform stock selection where
459 hatchery-reared individuals are used to augment populations (Jepsen, Nielsen & Deacon, 2003;
460 Koed et al., 2020; Waples, Naish & Primmer, 2020).
461 Overall, our findings show that migration success could be linked to specific genotypes and
462 highlight the importance of preserving genetic diversity for conservation, to allow populations
463 to respond to potential heterogeneity between years, and the increased variability that long-
464 term climate change may produce. Our next challenge is to understand in detail the selection
465 pressures and associated genetic changes in populations facilitating conservation success and
466 ensuring a future for these iconic species.
467
468

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479

480 **Ethics**

481 For fish samples from the rivers Oykel, Spey, Deveron, Findhorn and Ness, the care and use
482 of experimental animals complied with the UK Home Office animal welfare laws, guidelines
483 and policies (UK Home Office Licence PPL 70/8794) and was approved by the University of
484 Glasgow Animal Welfare and Ethics Review Board (AWERB). Atlantic salmon from the River
485 Ure were treated in compliance with the UK ASPA (1986) Home Office project licence number
486 PD6C17B56.
487

488 **Competing interests**

489 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.
490

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