# MORPHOLOGICAL FEATURES USED TO IDENTIFY CHINOOK SALMON SEX DURING FISH PASSAGE 

Joseph E. Merz* and William R. Merz<br>East Bay Municipal Utility District, 1 Winemasters Way, Suite K, Lodi, CA 95240 (JEM)<br>2277 Fair Oaks Boulevard, Suite 190, Sacramento, CA 95825 (WRM)<br>*Correspondent: jmerz@ebmud.com


#### Abstract

We compared several external morphological features for determining sex of adult fall-run chinook salmon (Oncorhynchus tschawytscha) migrating to spawning grounds in the Central Valley of California. Adult fish carcasses of known sex were measured at fish hatcheries or during angler surveys. These data were used to develop predictive morphometric discriminant function models for potential incorporation in an automated monitoring system. The best predictor for determining sex of handled fish was snout length to fork length ratio, which correctly classified $96 \%$ of individuals tested. In contrast, adipose fin length to fork length ratio was the best predictor of sex when measurements were obtained from video images at a fish passage facility. Of these fish, $86 \%$ were correctly identified. Combining both ratios with a third (head length) increased model accuracy to $92 \%$ for video images.


Resumen-Comparamos el uso de varias características morfológicas externas para determinar el sexo de adultos de salmones (Oncorhynchus tschawytscha) durante su migración otoñal rumbo a su sitio de desove en el Valle Central de California. Cadáveres de peces adultos de sexo conocido se midieron en criaderos de pez o durante entrevistas con pescadores. Estos datos se usaron para hacer modelos morfométricos de predicción de función discriminante. El mejor pronosticador para determinar el sexo fue la proporción de la longitud del hocico a la longitud corporal (hasta la bifurcación del ala caudal), que clasificó correctamente $96 \%$ de los individuos probados. En contraste, la proporción de la longitud de la aleta adiposa a la longitud corporal (hasta la bifurcación del ala caudal) fue el mejor pronosticador del sexo de adultos salmónidos cuando las medidas se obtuvieron de imágenes de video en una facilidad del pasaje de pez. De éstos peces, $86 \%$ fueron identificados correctamente. Al combinar ambas proporciones con una tercera (usando la longitud de la cabeza) la precisión del modelo aumentó hasta $92 \%$ para imágenes de video.

Salmonid passage counts at dams are important to fisheries managers for setting fishing seasons, estimating run size, determining inriver survival, estimating escapement to spawning grounds, and establishing and monitoring various compensation and enhancement programs (Hatch et al., 1998; Dauble and Mueller, 2000). Determining the proportion of male and female adult salmonids returning to natal streams for spawning is important in evaluating production goals and estimating stock reproductive potential (Crim and Glebe, 1990). In many cases, physically counting and identifying sex of salmonids at passage facilities is time consuming and expensive (Hatch et al., 1998), and there is a strong interest in developing rapid and practical methods of sexing live fish (Crim and Glebe, 1990).

Sexual dimorphism is common in many salmonid species (Morton, 1965; Grunchy and Vladykov, 1968). Although external determination of the sex of immature Pacific salmon (Oncorhynchus) is difficult (Morton, 1965; Beacham and Murray, 1985), dimorphic secondary sexual characteristics, such as coloration, body and fin shape, and jaw morphology, develop during the spawning run (Beacham and Murray, 1983; Beacham and Murray, 1985; Quinn and Foote, 1994). Dimorphic extremes range from pronounced dorsal humps and distinct kypes in male pink salmon ( $O$. gorbuscha) and sockeye salmon ( $O$. nerka) to less pronounced sexual differences in chinook salmon (O. tschawytscha) (Foerster, 1968; Groot and Margolis, 1991).

Although several computerized systems em-


Fig. 1-Morphometric measurements made on adult chinook salmon collected from the Mokelumne and American rivers, California: A, fork length (FL); B, head length (HL); C, snout length (SNL); D, adipose fin length (AFL); E, adipose fin height (AFH).
ploy automated photography or video recording, the determination of fish sex must still be made by trained personnel (Hatch et al., 1994; Pippy et al., 1997; Hatch et al., 1998). High turbidity, poor lighting, or multiple fish passing the system at one time can impair the ability of the viewer to make an objective assessment, reducing accuracy.

Using predictive morphometric discriminant function models to classify sex of animals in field studies is well documented (Holmgren, 1993; Martin et al., 2000; Love 2002). In this study, we examined the use of various body measurements of fall-run chinook salmon measured directly from hatchery and angler survey specimens and images recorded by underwater video camera at a fish passage facility in the Central Valley of California to determine sex of migrating adults and assess the possibility of incorporating such predictive models into automated monitoring systems.

Methods-We examined 216 (110 female and 106 male) fall-run chinook salmon (fork length range: 468 to $1,071 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) in the fall and winter of 1998 through 2000 from angler surveys and from the Mokelumne River Fish Hatchery on the lower Mokelumne River and the Nimbus Fish Hatchery on the American River. Measurements were taken from freshly killed ( $<12 \mathrm{~h}$ ) fish. For each individual, sex was recorded after internal inspection. Fork length (FL), head length (HL), snout length (SNL), adipose fin length (AFL), and adipose fin height (AFH)
were measured to the nearest 1 mm with a measuring tape (Fig. 1).

We used ratios of HL to FL, SNL to FL, AFL to FL, and AFH to FL to standardize morphological data (Reist, 1985; Beacham and Murray, 1985) and to minimize the effects of measurement error attributable to video lens distortion and fish distance from video lens. We assessed the relationships between these morphometrics and sex by calculating Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients between measures for the total sample and for each sex. Simple linear regression was used to assess the relationship between FL and each of the other measurements recorded. We used one-way analysis of variance to compare the ratios between the sexes (Motulsky, 1995). Linear discriminate function analysis (Straus and Bond, 1990) was used to classify individuals by sex based on the ratios HL:FL, SNL: FL, AFL: FL, and AFH:FL. Analyses were performed with Statistical Programs for the Social Sciences, version 10, software (SPSS, Chicago, Illinois).

A total of 83 ( 27 females and 56 males) upmigrating chinook salmon were recorded at the Woodbridge Dam fish passage facility on the lower Mokelumne River with a closed-circuit color video camera with a $3.6-\mathrm{mm}$, wide-angle lens installed in an underwater housing. Fish were recorded as they passed between a clear Plexiglas panel and a white plastic sheet with black vertical lines spaced at $5-\mathrm{cm}$ intervals inside one of the fish ladder bays. At the end of the monitoring season (15 August through 15 March), 10 -minute to 15 -minute sections were randomly selected from 8 -h videotapes and viewed using a $53.3-\mathrm{cm}$ color monitor. As fish came into view on the monitor, the video was paused and FL, HL,

Table 1—Means and standard deviations for 4 ratios employed with angler and hatchery data for chinook salmon in California. Variables illustrated on Fig. 1.

| Sex | Variable | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | SD | Skewness | Kurtosis |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | ---: | ---: |
| Female | HL: FL | 0.1926 | 0.2503 | 0.2268 | 0.0106 | -0.2213 | -0.0520 |
| $n=110$ | AFL: FL | 0.0385 | 0.0814 | 0.0596 | 0.0078 | 0.1219 | -0.0520 |
|  | AFH: FL | 0.0128 | 0.0371 | 0.0250 | 0.0037 | -0.1241 | 1.8936 |
|  | SNL:FL | 0.0742 | 0.1181 | 0.0870 | 0.0072 | 1.1721 | 3.4247 |
| Male | HL: FL | 0.1835 | 0.2971 | 0.2581 | 0.0154 | -1.1937 | 5.0617 |
| $n=106$ | AFL:FL | 0.0576 | 0.1084 | 0.0405 | 0.0102 | -0.0517 | -0.0046 |
|  | AFH:FL | 0.0215 | 0.0711 | 0.0405 | 0.0063 | 1.1013 | 4.9370 |
|  | SNL:FL | 0.0734 | 0.1570 | 0.1156 | 0.0118 | -0.0572 | 1.8802 |

AFL , and AFH were measured to the nearest 1 mm on the monitor, and sex was determined from the images by trained personnel. Snout measurements obtained with the videotaping technique were unreadable because water turbidity and lens distortion made observation of fish eyes difficult. We assumed that ratios between specific measurements would remain constant for individual fish, swimming parallel to the lens, no matter what distance the fish was from the camera. Twenty-two of these videotaped fish were trapped upstream of the video chamber to assess sex identification accuracy by personnel viewing the tapes.

Results-Neither skewness nor kurtosis for any of the ratios in the hand-measured group exceeded a magnitude of 0.88 (Table 1). However, for each sex, the distribution of SNL:FL was markedly leptokurtic, although skewness for neither sex exceeded a magnitude of 1.19 for this ratio. In each instance, the difference between means of ratios for females was smaller than that of males, while variances of the ratios were no more than 1.7 times smaller. Two ratios did not meet the assumption of homogeneity of variance, HL: FL and AFL: FL. However, if sample sizes are approximately equal, violations of that assumption minimally affect the significance of statistical tests of difference between means, especially if skewness in each group is not extreme and is in the same direction (Samuels and Witmer, 1999). Both conditions are true in these data, suggesting that differences in ratios might be used to differentiate females from males. Relationships of HL, SNL, AFL, and AFH to FL were typically stronger for males than females, but were significant for both sexes for all 4 relationships (Table 2). Strongest and weakest relationships were observed for $\mathrm{HL}: \mathrm{FL}$ and

AFH: FL, respectively (Fig. 2). Means of ratios were significantly different between sexes for all recorded measurements, with $\mathrm{AFH}: \mathrm{FL}(F=$ 484.2; $d f=214 ; P<0.001$ ) and HL: FL $(F=$ 302.8; $d f=214 ; P<0.001$ ) having greatest and smallest differences in mean ratios (Fig. 3).

Linear discriminant function models identified 91 to $96 \%$ of all fish correctly with SNL: FL the best predictor. A multiple regression model using all 4 ratios correctly identified the greatest percent of fish ( $96 \%$ ).

During video-recorded surveys, relationships of HL, AFL, and AFH with FL were significant for both sexes for all 3 relationships. However, differences in means were less obvious for measurements recorded by video than those made by hand. Utilizing the linear discriminant function procedure, morphometric ratios, recorded from video monitoring, correctly classified 71 to $86 \%$ of fish. Using all 3 ratios together provided the greatest accuracy ( $92 \%$ ) in chinook salmon sex identification.

Discussion-In general, male chinook salmon had significantly larger HL, SNL, and AFL to FL ratios than females. Such differences are consistent with other studies on sexual dimorphism (Keenleyside and Dupuis, 1988; Cooper and Vitt, 1989). Overlap in size ratios was most apparent with females and precocious males that were smaller than 60 cm FL. However, even within the Mokelumne River, a system that consistently has high jack to adult ratios (up to $40 \%$ ), we were able to correctly classify $97 \%$ of all chinook salmon measured by hand ( $15 \%$ with $\mathrm{FL}<60 \mathrm{~cm}$ ). We encountered several problems in the video-monitoring assessment, especially turbidity, underwater lighting,

Table 2-Body morphometric ratios used for determining fish sex, associated statistical results, and percent of fish correctly identified for chinook salmon handled and video-recorded in California. Variables illustrated in Fig. 1.

| Variables | Female |  |  | Male |  |  |  | $d f$ | $P$ | Both sexes \% correct |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Mode | $R^{2}$ | $\begin{gathered} \% \\ \text { correct } \end{gathered}$ | Mode | $R^{2}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \% \\ & \text { cor- } \\ & \text { rect } \end{aligned}$ | F |  |  |  |
| Handled |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| HL: FL | 0.23 | 0.79 | 93 | 0.26 | 0.92 | 87 | 303 | 214 | $<0.01$ | 91 |
| SNL: FL | 0.09 | 0.58 | 97 | 0.12 | 0.89 | 94 | 468 | 214 | $<0.01$ | 96 |
| AFL: FL | 0.06 | 0.32 | 95 | 0.09 | 0.69 | 88 | 408 | 214 | $<0.01$ | 92 |
| AFH: FL | 0.03 | 0.27 | 97 | 0.04 | 0.57 | 93 | 484 | 214 | $<0.01$ | 95 |
| All added | 0.41 | 0.81 | 99 | 0.52 | 0.92 | 95 | 176 | 211 | $<0.01$ | 97 |
| All multiplied | 0.0004 | 0.56 | 100 | 0.0007 | 0.74 | 91 | 34 | 214 | $<0.01$ | 96 |
| Video-recorded |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| HL: FL | 0.23 | 0.87 | 67 | 0.27 | 0.85 | 73 | 20 | 81 | $<0.01$ | 71 |
| AFL: FL | 0.06 | 0.64 | 85 | 0.08 | 0.68 | 86 | 49 | 81 | $<0.01$ | 86 |
| AFH: FL | 0.02 | 0.62 | 90 | 0.03 | 0.6 | 77 | 42 | 81 | $<0.01$ | 81 |
| All added | 0.30 | 0.92 | 93 | 0.36 | 0.89 | 91 | 34 | 79 | $<0.01$ | 92 |
| All multiplied | 0.0003 | 0.88 | 100 | 0.0005 | 0.77 | 79 | 64 | 81 | $<0.01$ | 86 |

and distorted wide-angle images (Herbert, 1987). Even so, by combining the 3 recorded measurements, we were able to correctly classify recorded fish $92 \%$ of the time. These data suggest that morphological measurements taken in automated systems (Gatlin et al., 1993; Pippy et al., 1997; Norman, 2001) provide reliable estimates of sex ratio for chinook salmon returning to spawn through fish passage facilities.

Although morphometric relationships for hand-measured chinook salmon from the American and Mokelumne rivers were virtually identical, it is important to note that measure-
ments for adult chinook salmon migrating past fish passage facilities on other systems might be different. This is especially true where monitoring occurs closer to the estuary and secondary sexual characteristics might be less developed. Morphometric differences have been observed for salmonids of the same species, specifically chinook salmon and chum salmon (O. keta), found in separate drainages (Beacham et al., 1988; Kinnison et al., 1998). Therefore, specific morphometric ratios might need to be developed for specific drainages to accurately determine sex of individual stocks moving through these passage facilities.


Fig. 2-Relationships of adipose fin height and head length to fork length of female and male chinook salmon from California.


Fig. 3-Frequency of California female and male chinook salmon adipose fin height and head length measurements divided by fork length measurements.

Great strides are being made in the area of image recording to identify fish species (Scalabrin, 1996; Cadrin and Friedland, 1999; LeFeuvre et al., 2000). Furthermore, image processing and computer analysis programs allow precise measurement, reorientation, scaling, and marker transfer for images of specific organisms recorded by numerous media, including video (Vogt, 1995; Seibert et al., 1996; Zhang et al., 2000). Coupling of these improving technologies with drainage-specific morphometric data as described here might improve the ability to identify fish sex for Pacific salmonid species within fully automated systems, reducing both labor hours and subjective determination of fish sex. Further research is warranted in this area.

We thank L. K. Chan, M. M. Cobleigh, and C. E. Reyes for help collecting fish measurements. M. L. Workman provided significant input to data collection, analysis, and subsequent drafts of this manuscript. We thank the California Department of Fish and Game and Woodbridge Irrigation District for access to their fish passage and hatchery facilities. We appreciate the use of underwater video recording equipment provided by East Bay Municipal Utility District. Constructive comments on an earlier draft by L. R. Brown, J. J. Cech, and J. R. Smith substantially improved the manuscript.

## Literature Cited

Beacham, T. D., and C. B. Murray. 1983. Sexual dimorphism in the adipose fin of Pacific salmon (Oncorhynchus). Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 40:2019-2024.

Beacham, T. D., and C. B. Murray. 1985. Sexual dimorphism in length of upper jaw and adipose fin of immature and maturing Pacific salmon (Oncorhynchus). Aquaculture 58:269-276.
Beacham, T. D., C. B. Murray, and R. E. Withler. 1988. Age, morphology, developmental biology, and biochemical genetic variation of Yukon River fall chum salmon (Oncorhynchus keta) and comparisons with British Columbia populations. Fishery Bulletin 86:663-674.
Cadrin, S. X., and K. D. Friedland. 1999. The utility of image processing techniques for morphometric analysis and stock identification. Fisheries Research (Amsterdam) 43:129-139.
Cooper, W. E., and L. J. Vitt. 1989. Sexual dimorphism of head and body size in an iguanid lizard: paradoxical results. American Naturalist 133: 729-735.
Crim, L. W., and B. D. Glebe. 1990. Reproduction. In: Schreck, C. B., and P. B. Moyle, editors. Methods for biology. American Fisheries Society, Bethesda, Maryland. Pp. 529-553.
Dauble, D. D., and R. P. Mueller. 2000. Difficulties in estimating survival for adult chinook salmon in the Columbia and Snake rivers. Fisheries 25: 24-34.
Foerster, R. E. 1968. The sockeye salmon. Bulletin of the Fisheries Resources Board of Canada 162: 422.

Gatlin, C. L., E. S. Schaberg, W. H. Jordan, B. L. Kuyatt, and W. C. Smith. 1993. Point counting on the Macintosh: a semi-automated image analysis technique. Analytical and Quantitative Cytology and Histology 15:345-350.
Groot, C., and L. Margolis. 1991. Pacific salmon life histories. University of British Columbia, Vancouver.
Grunchy, C. G., and V. D. Vladykov. 1968. Sexual
dimorphism in the anal fin of brown trout (Salmo trutta) and close relatives. Journal of the Fisheries Research Board of Canada 25:813-815.
Hatch, D. R., J. K. Fryer, M. Schwartzberg, D. R. Pederson, and A. Wand. 1998. A computerized editing system for video monitoring of fish passage. North American Journal of Fisheries Management 18:694-699.
Hatch, D. R., M. Schwartzberg, and P. R. Mundy. 1994. Estimation of Pacific salmon escapement with a time-lapse video recording technique. North American Journal of Fisheries Management 14:626-635.
Herbert, T. J. 1987. Area projections of fisheye photographic lenses. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 39:215-224.
Holmgren, K., and H. Wickstroem. 1993. Sex dimorphism in cultured eels (Anguilla anguilla L.). Nordic Journal of Freshwater Research 68:80-90.
Keenleyside, M. H., and H. M. C. Dupuis. 1988. Courtship and spawning competition in pink salmon (Oncorhynchus gorbuscha). Canadian Journal of Zoology 66:262-265.
Kinnison, M., M. Unwin, N. Boustead, and T. Quinn. 1998. Population-specific variation in body dimensions of adult chinook salmon (Oncorhynchus tschawytscha) from New Zealand and their source population, 90 years after introduction. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 55:554-563.
LeFeuvre, P., G. A. Rose, R. Gosine, R. Hale, W. Pearson, and R. Khan. 2000. Acoustic species identification in the Northwest Atlantic using digital image processing. Fisheries Research (Amsterdam) 47:137-147.
Love, J. W. 2002. Sexual dimorphism in spotted gar (Lepisosteus oculatus) from southeastern Louisiana. American Midland Naturalist 147:393-399.
Martin, C. A., J. A. Alonso, M. B. Morales, and C. Pitra. 2000. An approach to sexing young great bustards Otis tarda using discriminant analysis and molecular techniques. Bird Study 47:147153.

Morton, W. M. 1965. The taxonomic significance of the kype in American salmonids. Copeia 4:14-19.

Motulsky, H. 1995. Intuitive biostatistics. Oxford University Press, New York.
Norman, K. E. 2001. An effective and economical solution for digitizing and analyzing video recordings of the microcirculation. Microcirculation 8:243-249.
Pippy, J. H. C., W. G. Whelen, and M. F. O’Connell. 1997. A field guide to counting and measuring salmonids using the silhouette imaging and counting system (SIACS). Canadian Manuscript Report of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 2386.
Quinn, T. P., and C. J. Foote. 1994. The effects of body size and sexual dimorphism on the reproductive behaviour of sockeye salmon (Oncorhynchus nerka). Animal Behavior 48:751-761.
Reist, J. D. 1985. An empirical evaluation of several univariate methods that adjust for size variation in morphometric data. Canadian Journal of Zoology 230:513-528.
Samuels, M. L., and J. A. Witmer. 1999. Statistics for the life sciences, second edition. Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, New Jersey.
Scalabrin, C. 1996. Acoustic identification of marine species. Oceanis 22:51-70.
Seibert, T. F., J. G. Sidle, and J. A. Savidge. 1996. Inexpensive aerial videography acquisition, analysis, and reproduction. Wetlands 16:245-250.
Strauss, R. E., and C. E. Bond. 1990. Taxonomic methods: morphology. In: Schreck, C. B., and P. B. Moyle, editors. Methods for fish biology. American Fisheries Society, Bethesda, Maryland. Pp. 109-140.
Tatsuoka, M. M. 1971. Multivariate analysis. John Wiley and Sons, New York.
Vogt, H. 1995. Video image analysis of coral reefs in Saudi Arabia: a comparison of methods. Beitraege zur Palaeontologie 20:99-105.
Zhang, X. Y., C. K. Sun, and A. M. Wheatley. 2000. A novel approach to the quantification of hepatic stellate cells in intravital fluorescence microscopy of the liver using a computerized image analysis system. Microvascular Research 60:232-240.

Submitted 26 December 2002. Accepted 2 June 2003.
Associate Editor was David L. Propst.

