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1 **Burrowing behaviour of the European eel (*Anguilla anguilla*): effects of life stage**

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21 **ABSTRACT**

22 The European eel (*Anguilla anguilla*) is a fascinating species, exhibiting a complex life cycle.
23 The species is, however, listed as critically endangered on the IUCN Red List due to an
24 amalgam of factors including habitat loss. This study investigated the burrowing behaviour
25 and substrate preference of glass, elver and yellow stages of *A. anguilla* . Preference was
26 determined by introducing eels in aquaria with different substrates and evaluating the chosen
27 substrate for burrowing. Additionally, burrowing was recorded with a camera in all substrate
28 types and analyzed for kinematics. The experiments showed that all of these life stages sought
29 refuge in the sediments with particle sizes ranging from sand to coarse gravel. Starting from a
30 resting position, they shook their head horizontally in combination with rapid body
31 undulations until half of their body was within the substrate. High-speed X-ray videography
32 revealed that once partly in the sediment, eels used only horizontal head sweeps to penetrate
33 further, without the use of their tail. Of the substrates tested, burrowing performance was
34 highest in fine gravel (diam. 1-2 mm; lower burrowing duration, less body movements and/or
35 lower frequency of movements) and all eels readily selected this substrate for burrowing.
36 However, glass eels and elvers were able to use coarse gravel (diam. > 8 mm) because their
37 smaller size allowed manoeuvring through the spaces between the grains. Further, burrowing
38 performance increased with body size: glass eels required more body undulations compared to
39 yellow eels. Interestingly, the urge to hide within the sediment was highest for glass eels and
40 elvers. Documentation of substrate preference and burrowing behaviour of *A. anguilla*
41 provides new information about their potential habitat use. Considering that habitat alterations
42 and deteriorations are partly responsible for the decline of the eel, this information can
43 contribute to the development of more effective conservation measures.

44 Keywords: Behaviour, Burrow, European eel, Kinematics, sediment

46 INTRODUCTION

47 Despite many biomechanical (e.g. bio-energetic cost; Du Toit et al., 1985) and ecological
48 challenges (e.g. risk of predation for sessile invertebrates (Smith and Merriner, 1985),
49 burrowing is an important behaviour for many invertebrate and vertebrate organisms, both in
50 terrestrial and aquatic environments. Some species constantly occupy the substrate and rarely,
51 if ever, come to the surface, such as South-African mole-rats (*Bathyergus suillus* Shreber
52 1782; Thomas *et al.*, 2013) and earthworms (*Lubricidae*; Lavelle *et al.*, 2001). Other
53 organisms are active on land or in the water column, but are also able to construct burrows for
54 various purposes. American eels (*Anguilla rostrata* Lesueur 1817), for example, construct
55 tunnels that may be used as a hiding place and/or winter refuge (Tomie *et al.*, 2017). The
56 fivefinger wrasse (*Iniistius pentadactylus* L. 1758) burrows into sandy sediments to sleep
57 subsurface at night (Clark, 1983). The common skink (*Scincus scincus* L. 1758), also known
58 as ‘the sandfish’, uses the substrate for subsurface locomotion (Sharpe *et al.*, 2014; Maladen
59 *et al.*, 2011) while many species bury to avoid predation (Griffiths & Richardson, 2006). In
60 addition, burrows give access to other trophic opportunities and can be used as a base for
61 feeding (Bozzano, 2003).

62 Some fishes (e.g. jawfishes, *Opistognathidae*) excavate permanent burrows (Colin, 1973),
63 while others create tunnels that collapse behind them (e.g. sand lances, *Ammodytes* spp.)
64 (Bizarro *et al.*, 2016). Many different burrowing mechanisms have evolved depending on the
65 substrate characteristics, the speed of movement, the magnitude of forces exerted and the type
66 of sediment (Herrel *et al.*, 2011). Examples are burrowing by crack propagation (Dorgan *et*
67 *al.*, 2007), compaction (Wake, 1993), sand swimming (Sharpe *et al.*, 2014; Maladen *et al.*,
68 2011) and sand-diving (Tatom-Naecker & Westneat, 2018). Also among several
69 Anguilliformes, burrowing behaviour has been observed. Anguilliform fish possess two

70 mechanisms for burrowing: tail-first and/or head-first burrowing (De Schepper *et al.*, 2007a;
71 De Schepper *et al.*, 2007b). *A. rostrata*, for example, construct burrows head-first (Tomie *et*
72 *al.*, 2013). On the other hand, the spotted garden eel (*Heteroconger hassi* Klausowitz & Eibl-
73 Eibsefeldt 1959) is an obligate tail-first burrower, while the Indian snake eel (*Pisodonophis*
74 *boro* Hamilton 1822) can use both (De Schepper *et al.*, 2007a).

75 Surprisingly, although burrowing has already been reported for the European eel (*Anguilla*
76 *anguilla* L. 1758) (Schafer, 1972; Christoffersen *et al.*, 2018), many questions about its
77 behaviour remain unanswered. *A. anguilla* is a catadromous species, with mature silver eels
78 spawning in the Sargasso Sea (Miller *et al.*, 2019). From there, leptocephalus larvae move
79 with the Gulf Stream towards the European and North-African coasts, subsequently
80 metamorphosing into unpigmented glass eels (Arai *et al.*, 2000). Glass eels acquire pigment
81 and turn into elvers. Upon reaching a length of 150 mm, eels are classified as yellow eels, the
82 sedentary growing stage (Tesch, 2003; Lafaille *et al.*, 2003). After 3 – 20 years or more,
83 yellow eels undergo a metamorphosis to silver eels, which migrate downstream into the
84 Atlantic Ocean to spawn and subsequently die (Van den Thillart *et al.*, 2007). Worryingly, *A.*
85 *anguilla* is currently labelled as critically endangered according to the IUCN Red List (Jacoby
86 & Gollock, 2014), as glass eel recruitment declined to nearly 1.4% compared to the late 70's
87 in the North Sea and to 6% elsewhere (ICES, 2019). A combination of different factors such
88 as habitat loss (Kettle *et al.*, 2011), migration barriers (Durif *et al.*, 2002), non-native parasites
89 (Palstra *et al.*, 2007), overfishing (Dekker, 2003), pollution (Belpaire *et al.*, 2016), climate
90 change and changes in oceanic currents (Castonguay *et al.*, 1994; Munk *et al.*, 2010) are
91 considered possible causes for this steep decline. To restore the *A. anguilla* population, EU
92 Member States implemented eel management plans (European Eel Regulation no 1100/2007)
93 to ensure 40% silver eel escapement, defined as the best estimate of the theoretical
94 escapement rate if the stock were completely free of anthropogenic influences (European

95 Commission, 2007). With habitat loss being one of the threats for *A. anguilla*, insight into
96 substrate preference and burrowing behaviour over different life stages may engender
97 recommendations for both habitat restoration and selection of suitable habitats for restocking.
98 Hence, this may play an important role in restoring the *A. anguilla* stock.

99 Previous work on American yellow eels found a preference for burrowing into mud substrates
100 (diam. 6-221 μm) during warmer periods and mud and cobble (average diam. 75 mm) in
101 winter (Tomie *et al.*, 2017). For *A. anguilla*, however, it has only been found that elvers prefer
102 coarse gravel for hiding (diam. 12-64 mm; Christoffersen *et al.*, 2018), but this is not
103 necessarily the preferred substrate for burrowing, since elvers can easily enter the interstitial
104 spaces of coarse gravel and therefore do not require active burrowing to enter this substrate
105 (Lecomte-Finiger & Prodon, 1979). In addition, whether other *A. anguilla* life stages show the
106 same sediment preference has not been tested yet. An organism's size relative to that of
107 sediment particles could for example affect burrowing potential and/or sediment preference.
108 Consequently, sediment preference and burrowing performance (*i.e.* burrowing duration, the
109 number and frequency of body movements) might change as the eel becomes larger, with
110 burrowing requiring a relatively higher effort for smaller glass eels compared to larger yellow
111 eels. In addition, the skull of glass eels is not completely ossified yet and thus potentially
112 lacks the robustness required to burrow into dense, hard substrates (De Meyer *et al.*, 2017b).
113 By performing preference experiments on eels of different life stages, the hypothesis that
114 substrate preference and burrowing performance changes as eels become larger can be tested.
115 Specifically, we expect glass eels and elvers to prefer less compact substrates (coarse and fine
116 gravel; larger interstitial spaces), whereas larger yellow eels, being able to exert higher forces,
117 could prefer more compact substrates (sand; small interstitial spaces) to create stable burrows.
118 Moreover, we evaluate whether the preferred substrate is linked to the most efficient

119 burrowing performance (lower burrowing duration, less body movements and/or lower
120 frequency of movements).

121 Determining substrate preference in different life stages allows the identification of habitats
122 that can act as growing areas and are thus suitable for eels (e.g. for restocking measures), but
123 also of degraded habitats that require restoration. As such, this study can play an important
124 role in the conservation of *A. anguilla*.

125 **METHODS**

126 *Sample collection and housing*

127 In this study, we investigated the burrowing behaviour of the colonizing and sedentary life
128 stages (*i.e.* a cross-sectional study of glass, elver and yellow eel stage), since these life stages
129 are directly associated with substrates and thus potentially show burrowing behaviour. Glass
130 eels are unpigmented eels of ca. 70 mm in length, while elvers are defined as fully pigmented
131 eels < 150 mm and yellow eels as eels > 150 mm. Yellow eels were classed as small [151-300
132 mm], medium [301-450 mm] and large [>451 mm] (Laffaille *et al.*, 2003). In total, 28
133 individuals were used (the small sample size was due to limited catch numbers). Age was not
134 determined as this requires lethal sampling. Sex was not determined as the gonadal system
135 only starts developing during the yellow eel stage (Tesch, 2003) and requires dissection. The
136 care and use of experimental animals were in accordance with Belgian legislation (EC
137 approved by ethical committee EC2018-063).

138 Glass eels (N=10), elvers (N=3) and small yellow eels (N=4) were obtained from the tidal
139 sluice 'Maertenssas' (Bredene, Belgium) using fyke nets (mesh size = 1 mm) attached to the
140 sluice in March 2019. In addition, medium (N=3) and large yellow eels (N=8) were captured

141 downstream from the tidal weir in the freshwater part of the Zeeschelde (Merelbeke, Belgium,
142 N=9) using double fyke nets (mesh size = 8 mm) and at the Veurne-Ambacht pumping station
143 (Nieuwpoort, Belgium; N=2) using fyke nets (mesh size = 8 mm) attached to the gravitational
144 discharge openings in August 2018. Eels were transferred to the laboratory and acclimatized
145 to the new water conditions by gradually adding water from the experimental tank. Eels were
146 temporarily anesthetized with clove oil (0.1 ml/L) in the laboratory (Walsh and Pease, 2002)
147 and the total length (TL, to the nearest mm), measured from the tip of the snout to the tip of
148 the caudal fin, and body weight (W, to the nearest mg) of each eel was measured. Afterwards,
149 the eels were kept in an aerated water tank until fully recovered.

150 Elvers and yellow eels were marked individually by injection with green or yellow Visible
151 Implant Elastomer (VIE) staining (Northwest Marine Technology, Inc., USA) in different
152 parts of the lip. VIE staining was used because this method has no significant effect on
153 survival and does not affect the eel's locomotor behaviour (Imbert *et al.*, 2007). Elvers and
154 yellow eels similar in size (maximal difference of 10 cm) were housed together, with a
155 maximum of four individuals per aquarium (120x55x50 cm, water depth = ca. 40 cm). A
156 maximum of three easily identifiable glass eels (based on degree of pigmentation) were
157 housed together (40x20x25 cm, water depth = ca. 20 cm). All aquaria were filled with fresh
158 water (salinity < 0.5 ‰) and fitted with rocks and tubes to hide in. Water temperature of the
159 housing and testing aquaria was on average 14 ± 1.95 °C. Glass eels were fed *Daphnia* spp.,
160 while elvers and yellow eels were fed *Tubifex* spp., chironomid larvae and earthworms
161 (*Dendrobena veneta* Michaelsen 1890), ad libidum. In the laboratory, no artificial light was
162 used and natural light-dark cycles were retained. Before the experiment, we evaluated
163 whether the eels were in good physical condition (i.e., were active, showed cryptic behaviour
164 in their housing aquaria and had no visible abrasions). Experimental trials were conducted
165 during the day in random order. When eels were transferred to the experimental tanks by

166 means of a small tank, they were acclimatized by gradually adding water from the
167 experimental tank to avoid any abrupt physiological changes. After data collection, all
168 individuals were returned into the wild (Zeeschelde, Merelbeke, Belgium). Yellow eels were
169 captive for seven months. Glass eels and elvers were captive for three weeks.

170 *Sediment Preference*

171 To test whether eels prefer a certain sediment type, they were individually introduced
172 in aquaria containing three substrate types: sand (diam. < 1 mm), fine gravel (diam. 1-2 mm)
173 and coarse gravel (diam. 8-12 mm) (Table 1). Sediment depth ranged from 5 cm for glass eels
174 to 20 cm for yellow eels. This depth was chosen based on the maximum burrow depth of
175 American yellow eels (Tomie *et al.*, 2013). All specimens were randomly introduced at a side
176 of the aquarium. A minimum of two and a maximum of six replicates were obtained per
177 individual. Both the random introductions and the low numbers of replicates were used to
178 minimize eel learning behaviour. Maximum three trials were done per individual a day to
179 minimize fatigue effects. Upon introduction, the researchers distanced themselves behind a
180 corner to prevent the eel from seeing them. When eels immediately dug into the substrate
181 upon introduction (11% of the cases), this was not taken into account for determining
182 substrate preference, since these individuals may not have chosen a sediment type. Instead,
183 they may have buried themselves into the sediment type closest to their introduction location
184 in the aquarium. As soon as the eel burrowed into a substrate, the trial was considered
185 complete. Trials took a maximum of 60 minutes. If no burrowing behaviour was observed
186 within this time limit, the observation was considered as “non-burrowing”. As we observed
187 that glass eels and elvers showed a strong preference to move between the interstitial spaces
188 of the coarse gravel (see Results), a separate set-up with only sand and fine gravel was used to
189 determine which of these two substrates glass eels and elvers preferred to effectively bury
190 themselves (three replicates per individual).

191 *Videography and High-speed X-ray Videography*

192 To evaluate the burrowing behaviour of eels, all eels were introduced into aquaria
193 containing either sand or fine gravel (Table 1) and burrowing was recorded with three JVC-
194 HD Everio GZ-GX cameras (50 fps). The cameras were positioned such that burrowing could
195 be recorded in dorsal, lateral and frontal views. Coarse gravel was left out of this experiment,
196 as glass eels and elvers swam inbetween the interstitial spaces, rather than actually burrowing,
197 and because yellow eels did not select this substrate (see Results). A minimum of two and a
198 maximum of six replicates were obtained per specimen for each substrate. If no burrowing
199 behaviour was observed within 60 minutes of introduction, the recordings were considered as
200 "non-burrowing". Several factors were considered in determining which recordings were
201 included in the analysis. Only recordings on which the eels were completely within the
202 substrate and were completely in the field of the camera view were used. In addition,
203 recordings where water turbidity was too high to track the movement of the eel accurately
204 were left out of the analysis. After this selection, 217 recordings were obtained.

205 In order to track the eel's movements underneath the substrate, which is impossible
206 with visible-light cameras, high speed X-ray video recordings were applied (**Ethical**
207 **approval ECD2019-01**) using two elvers and two small yellow eels. Since it's impossible to
208 detect the eel in sand or gravel due to the high radio-opacity of these silicates, couscous
209 (diam. 1-3 mm) was used as an experimental substrate. When compacted and moistened, this
210 granular medium approximates natural sediment reasonably well, as was demonstrated in
211 previous research on digging moles (Lin *et al.*, 2019). The couscous was compressed prior to
212 each digging event. Because the X-ray movies did not clearly distinguish between water and
213 couscous, a piece of metal was placed on the couscous surface to visibly mark this interface in
214 X-ray movies. After compression, couscous depth was 15 cm, both for elvers and for yellow
215 eels. X-ray videos were recorded at 500 fps, with 70kV, and 50mA using the 3D2YMOX

216 system (Sanctorum *et al.*, 2019). In addition, the above-substrate behaviour was recorded with
217 a visible-light Redlake MotionPro 2000 camera (125 fps), synchronized with the X-ray
218 movies.

219 *Burrowing Technique and Performance*

220 To evaluate whether substrate preference was related to burrowing performance, the
221 video-recordings were used to evaluate the burrowing technique. These recordings were
222 analyzed frame by frame in VirtualDub. Snout-touch was used as the initiation point, and the
223 point at which the tail was completely covered by substrate as the end point. Three different
224 parameters were analyzed: (1) total burrowing duration, from snout-touch till tail-covered, (2)
225 duration of the eel making accelerated body undulations and (3) total number of body
226 undulations needed to construct a burrow. The first three variables were obtained from 94
227 recordings in fine gravel and 97 in sand. Counting of body undulations was possible for 85
228 and 74 recordings in fine gravel and sand, respectively. Subsequently, body undulation
229 frequency was calculated as total number of body undulations (parameter 4) divided by the
230 time that the eel made accelerated swimming motions (parameter 2). In addition, the angle
231 between the head and sediment was measured using ImageJ (Abràmoff, Magalhães & Ram,
232 2004).

233 Kinematic analyses were performed to study burrowing behaviour in more detail,
234 using visible-light videography recordings. For this, only the high-quality recordings where
235 the eel moved without stopping or changing direction were retained, resulting in a total of 22
236 recordings: six burrowing sequences of glass eels (N = 3 for both sand and fine gravel) and
237 elvers (N = 3 for both sand and fine gravel) and ten burrowing sequences of small yellow eels
238 (N = 6 for sand, N = 4 for fine gravel). Each AVI file was converted as a JPEG sequence
239 using VirtualDub. Subsequently, the X and Y coordinates of the tip of the tail on each frame

240 were obtained using ImageJ (Abràmoff, Magalhães & Ram, 2004). This body point was
241 chosen as it was easily detectable on all video recordings during the whole burrowing
242 sequence. X and Y coordinates were plotted against time to visualize the number and the
243 amplitude of tail movements. No high-quality recordings were obtained for medium and large
244 yellow eels, since the tip of the tail could not easily be distinguished in the video recordings.

245

246 *Statistical Analysis*

247 The number of individuals choosing each substratum was compared with the predicted
248 number if the choice was random using a Chi-square test. The null hypothesis states that all
249 sediment types will be chosen equally. If one sediment type was chosen more often than
250 predicted by the null hypothesis ($0.01 < p < 0.05$), it was defined as a moderate preference for
251 that particular substrate. If differences were significant at the $p < 0.01$ level, their preference
252 was considered strong. In addition, Chi-square tests were used to evaluate whether substrate
253 preferences differed significantly between subsequent life stages. To determine whether
254 burrowing performance (specifically: burrowing speed, total number of body undulations and
255 body undulation frequency) differed significantly between sand and fine gravel, Welch Two
256 Sample t-tests were performed for each size class (assumption of homogeneity not met). To
257 detect differences in burrowing speed, total number of body undulations and body undulation
258 frequency between size classes, ANOVAs were performed for both sand and fine gravel.
259 Subsequently, Post-Hoc Tukey HSD Tests were used to evaluate whether subsequent life
260 stages differ in performance measures. Statistical analyses were conducted in R version 3.5.0
261 (R Core Team, 2018).

262 RESULTS

263 *Sediment Preference*

264 The sediment preference did not differ significantly between glass eels and elvers (Table 2),
265 both having a significant preference for coarse gravel (Chi-square test: $\chi^2_2 = 48.6$, $P < 0.01$
266 and $\chi^2_2 = 12.67$, $P < 0.01$ respectively). The subsequent small yellow eel stage differed
267 significantly in preference from glass eels and elvers (Table 2), strongly preferring fine gravel
268 over the other substrates (Chi-square test: $\chi^2_2 = 12.83$, $P < 0.01$). Medium and large yellow
269 eels did not construct burrows in 20% and 29% of the trials respectively (Table 2). No
270 significant difference in sediment preference was observed between small and medium yellow
271 eels and between medium and large yellow eels (Table 2). Medium and large yellow eels
272 showed respectively a moderate and strong preference for fine gravel (Chi-square test:
273 Medium: $\chi^2_2 = 7$, $P = 0.03$; Large: $\chi^2_2 = 17.82$, $P < 0.01$).

274 Glass eels, elvers and small yellow eels did not show burrowing behaviour when selecting
275 coarse gravel; they simply swam through the interstitial spaces. To determine the preferred
276 substrate for burrowing, these eels were also introduced in aquaria with only sand and fine
277 gravel substrates. Fine gravel was selected over sand in the majority of the replicates,
278 independent of life stage (Table 2). However, this preference was only significant for glass
279 eels (Chi-square test: $\chi^2_2 = 34.91$, $P < 0.01$).

280 *Burrowing Technique*

281 *Kinematics and X-ray videography*

282 Identical burrowing behaviour was observed in sand and fine gravel, independent of life
283 stage. The burrowing sequence generally consisted of four phases. Each burrowing sequence
284 started with the eel lying with its ventral side on the substrate. During phase one (P1), the eel
285 lifted its body until its head made an angle of on average $36^{\circ} \pm 6^{\circ}$ (mean \pm S.D.; based on 54
286 measurements of 18 specimens) with the substrate. It then moved its snout vertically into the
287 substrate, while also sweeping its head laterally in the horizontal plane. This way, the eel
288 started penetrating the substrate. Subsequently, in phase two (P2), the eel used full body
289 undulations with a high amplitude and frequency. As the eel advanced further into the
290 substrate, body undulations continued at a lower intensity (lower amplitude and frequency),
291 which corresponds to phase 3 (P3). Finally, phase four (P4) initiated when about half of the
292 body was within the substrate and corresponded to the ceasing of body undulation movements
293 above the water-substrate interface (Figure 1). X-ray video analysis further revealed that at
294 the onset of this phase the eel made a curvature within the sediment and then used within-
295 substrate movements to burrow further in a more horizontal direction. For this, the eel mainly
296 relied on horizontal head sweeps, with the rest of the body acting as an anchor. After being
297 completely burrowed, the snout of the eel often appeared at the substrate surface. In some
298 cases, the end of the tail remained above the substrate surface as well. When initial attempts
299 of burrowing failed, the eel restarted this process at another location. While the burrowing
300 sequence was identical for all life stages, glass eels showed alternative behaviour during P3
301 (fine gavel: 23%; sand: 56% of the cases). Specifically, the amplitude of the body undulations
302 decreased substantially while the body undulation frequency first increased and then remained
303 constant. Phase 4 then did not take place as glass eels kept using body undulation movements
304 during the entire burrowing sequence.

305 The above description held for sand and fine gravel. Coarse gravel, however, was not selected
306 by medium and large yellow eels, while glass eels, elvers and small yellow eels did not

307 actually burrow into this substrate, but rather swam through the interstitial spaces between
308 these larger particles (see above).

309 *Burrowing Performance*

310 *Burrowing duration*

311 Elvers and small yellow eels burrowed significantly quicker in fine gravel than in sand
312 (Welch Two Sample t-test: $t_{24} = 2.81$, $P < 0.01$ and $t_{41} = 3.76$, $P < 0.01$ respectively; Figure
313 2), whereas no significant difference between the substrates was observed in glass and large
314 yellow eels (Welch Two Sample t-test: $t_{113} = 1.10$, $P = 0.27$ and $t_7 = 2.34$, $P = 0.05$
315 respectively). Medium yellow eels were left out of this analysis, since too few replicates were
316 obtained.

317 Among life stages, significant differences in burrowing duration (from snout-touch till tail-
318 covered) were observed in both sand (ANOVA: $F_4 = 8.74$, $P < 0.01$) and fine gravel
319 (ANOVA: $F_4 = 7.38$, $P < 0.01$). Post-hoc Tuckey tests revealed that glass eels burrow
320 significantly slower than elvers in fine gravel (Tuckey Test: $P_{adj} = 0.02$), but not in sand
321 (Tuckey Test: $P_{adj} = 0.98$). In turn, burrowing duration did not differ between elver and
322 small yellow eels (Tuckey Test: $P_{adj} = 0.97$ for sand and $P_{adj} = 0.95$ for fine gravel). As
323 medium yellow eels were left out of the analysis, we compared the burrowing duration
324 between small and large yellow eels. The latter were significantly slower in constructing
325 burrows in both substrates (Tuckey Test: $P_{adj} < 0.01$ for sand and $P_{adj} = 0.02$ for fine
326 gravel). In general, elvers, small and medium yellow eels burrowed faster than glass eels and
327 large yellow eels (Figure 2).

328 *Body undulations*

329 All eels required more body undulations to construct a burrow in sand than in fine
330 gravel (Table 3; Figure 3). The number of body undulations differed significantly between the
331 two substrates for glass, elver and small yellow eels (Welch Two Sample t-test: $t_{61} = 2.91$, $P <$
332 0.01 for glass eels; $t_{16} = 2.68$, $P = 0.02$ for elvers and $t_{28} = 3.36$, $P < 0.01$ for small yellow
333 eels). No clear trends were observed in body undulation frequency between the two
334 substrates, independent of life stage. Accordingly, none of the t-tests found significant
335 differences in undulation frequency between the two substrates (Welch Two Sample t-tests:
336 $t_{60} = 1.70$, $P = 0.09$ for glass eels, $t_{23} = -1.28$, $P = 0.21$ for elvers, $t_{35} = -2.00$, $P = 0.05$ for
337 small yellow eels and $t_7 = -0.03$, $P = 0.98$ for large yellow eels).

338 When comparing the required number of body undulations for burrowing across life stages,
339 significant differences were found in both sand (ANOVA: $F_4 = 5.18$, $P < 0.01$) and fine
340 gravel (ANOVA: $F_4 = 15.67$, $P < 0.01$). Post-hoc Tuckey tests revealed that glass eels
341 required significantly more body undulations than elvers both in sand and fine gravel (Tuckey
342 Test: $P_{adj} = 0.02$ for sand and $P_{adj} < 0.01$). Also, the body undulation frequency differed
343 significantly between life stages in the two sediment types (ANOVA: $F_4 = 19$, $P < 0.01$ for
344 sand, $F_4 = 16$, $P < 0.01$ for fine gravel). Body undulation frequency tended to decrease with
345 body size (Figure 3). Elvers had a higher body undulation frequency than small yellow eels
346 (Tuckey Test: $P_{adj} = 0.02$ for sand, $P_{adj} = 0.03$ for fine gravel). In turn, small yellow eels
347 had a higher frequency than large yellow eels, but this was only significant in fine gravel
348 (Tuckey Test: $P_{adj} < 0.01$).

349 DISCUSSION

350 Our study shows that *A. anguilla* is an efficient head-first burrower, contrary to the views of
351 De Schepper (2007c) and Herrel *et al.* (2011). The burrowing mechanism is similar to that

352 described for *A. rostrata* and the speckled worm eel (*Myrophis punctatus* Lütken 1852)
353 (Tomie *et al.*, 2013; Able *et al.*, 2011). Eels form burrows by forcing their head, followed by
354 their body, into the substrate with the aid of rapid body undulations and horizontal head
355 sweeps. Schafer (1972) reported that yellow-stage *A. anguilla* make burrows by swimming
356 rapidly through open water followed by ramming their heads into the substrate, while
357 continuing body and tail undulations. However, no such behaviour was observed during this
358 study, even though the aquaria were large enough to allow it. Instead, burrowing always
359 started from a resting position, from where eels tilted their head and pushed their snout into
360 the substrate (P1). Next, body undulations occurred at high frequencies and high amplitudes
361 (P2), subsequently followed by a substantial decrease in undulation frequency and amplitude
362 (P3; Figure 1). This change in frequency and amplitude could be related to substrate
363 fluidization. By using rapid body movements, species can decrease the weight of the
364 overlying sediment, increase the distance between substrate particles and reduce the friction
365 between the grains, thus facilitating burrowing into the substrate (Dorgan *et al.*, 2006). Such
366 behaviour has indeed been observed in several burrowing species (Gidmark *et al.*, 2011.
367 Baumgartner *et al.*, 2008. Tatom-Naecker & Westneat, 2018) and might thus also be
368 applicable for *A. anguilla*. The initial high frequency might be necessary to initiate substrate
369 fluidization, with the subsequent lower frequency being necessary to retain this. Alternatively,
370 the changes in frequency and amplitude might be due to a change between locomotion in
371 water and in a granular substrate. The eel, initially completely surrounded by water, used high
372 frequency and high amplitude body undulations to penetrate the sediment and experience very
373 little resistance from the water. When burrowing proceeded, the resistance imposed by the
374 substrate increased, causing a dampening of the undulation frequency and amplitude. When
375 the body undulations ceased (P4), eels could then use the body underneath the substrate as an

376 anchor to propel themselves forward. Finally, it is possible that both substrate fluidization and
377 changes in resistance have a mutual effect on the frequency and amplitude.

378 While Aoyama *et al.* (2005) stated that anguillid eels only burrow into muddy sediments, our
379 study shows that this is not the case for *A. anguilla*. Similarly, Tomie *et al.* (2017) showed
380 that yellow stage *A. rostrata* preferred mud over cobble in summer, but chose mud and cobble
381 at similar frequencies during winter. Moreover, Aoyama *et al.* (2005) suggested that Japanese
382 eels (*Anguilla japonica* Temminck & Schlegel 1846) construct mud burrows only when other,
383 more spatially complex habitats are unavailable. During the experiments of this study, supra-
384 substrate hiding material was not offered and the hypothesis whether *A. anguilla* prefer hiding
385 in supra-substrate materials (e.g. vegetation, rocks,...) over active burrowing was not tested.
386 Recent research indicated, however, that in 62% of the trials, *A. anguilla* (small yellow eel
387 stage) preferred making burrows in sand, fine and coarse gravel, even when supra-substrate
388 hiding materials were present (Steendam *et al.*, 2017). Whether this is also the case for the
389 other life stages requires further research. Furthermore, our study was limited to three
390 sediment types. We acknowledge that eels possibly show burrowing behaviour and different
391 preferences when other substrate types (e.g. mud and cobble – which were not included in this
392 study) are available (Tomie *et al.*, 2017). Given their phenotypic plasticity and occurrence in
393 a wide range of freshwater, transitional and marine habitats (e.g. Daverat *et al.*, 2006), they
394 can encounter a variety of substrates during their life cycle, from fine silt to large cobbles.
395 Nonetheless, the results of this study on a selection of three sediment types illustrate that
396 European glass eels, elvers and yellow eels readily hide in bottoms and hence indicate the
397 importance of substrates for the various life stages.

398 *Impact of life stage and size on burrowing performance and*
399 *substrate preference*

400 *Anguilla anguilla* inhabit a variety of habitats, including lakes, rivers, marshes and estuaries
401 (Tesch, 2003), but can also be found in coastal marine habitats without ever entering fresh
402 water (Tsukamoto *et al.*, 1998) or move between different salinity zones (Daverat *et al.*,
403 2006). There appears to be a link between the habitat where an eel occurs and its body size
404 (Laffaille *et al.*, 2003): small eels are mainly found in shallow habitats with a high abundance
405 of aquatic vegetation, whereas larger eels tend to be found in deeper habitats with small to
406 intermediate abundances of aquatic vegetation. Here, we show that all tested life-stages of *A.*
407 *anguilla* (glass eels, elvers and yellow eels) are able to burrow into a variety of substrates and
408 that also substrate preference depends on life stage and body size; young glass eels and elvers
409 preferred less compact substrates, especially coarse gravel, confirming earlier observations of
410 Christoffersen *et al.* (2018). However, glass eels and elvers did not actively burrow in this
411 substrate, but rather swam through the interstitial spaces, indicating that this material can act
412 as a hiding space. Contradicting to the observations of Christoffersen *et al.* (2018) who
413 reported that elvers spent 30 min searching for favourable substrata, we observed that glass
414 eels and elvers quickly selected a substrate to burrow in (ca. 3 minutes per trial, Pers. Obs.).
415 From the yellow eel stage onwards, fine gravel (diam. 1-2 mm) was preferred, with the
416 preference for this substrate becoming more pronounced with increasing eel size. As such, our
417 expectation that larger eels would prefer the more compact sandy substrates for burrowing is
418 rejected.

419 In general, eels chose substrates that require the least body undulations and lowest body
420 undulation frequency and are thus energetically the least costly. As glass eels and elvers were
421 able to simply swim through the gaps between the coarse gravel particles, they preferred this

422 substrate. However, when there was no coarse gravel to hide in, they preferred fine gravel
423 over sandy substrates, as this allows the fastest and easiest burrowing. Sandy substrates are
424 more compact in comparison to fine gravels and might be more difficult to fluidize and will
425 provide more resistance during burrowing. Yellow eels, too large to hide between the
426 interstitial spaces of the coarse gravel, actively preferred the fine gravel over the other
427 substrate types. Moreover, burrowing performance increased with body size as well, with the
428 large yellow eels requiring the least body undulations and lowest undulation frequencies and
429 glass eels requiring the most body undulations and highest frequencies to burrow into the
430 substrate. This thus supports the hypothesis that burrowing performance differs between life
431 stages.

432 Based on our results, we hypothesize that burrowing performance might increase with body
433 size (Figure 4). A first potential explanation is that glass eels are still in full musculoskeletal
434 development (De Meyer *et al.*, 2017b). Secondly, biomechanical scaling theory also predicts
435 an increase in burrowing performance with increasing size: for an eel growing isometrically,
436 the increase in propulsive power (i.e. propulsive force multiplied by velocity) will be faster
437 (proportional to muscle mass, so increasing with length to the third power) than the increase
438 in snout surface and body cross-sectional area (increasing with length to the second
439 power). This implies that throughout growth larger eels should be capable of exerting higher
440 pressures by its snout on the substrate to penetrate a substrate at a given absolute velocity
441 (assuming that eel's head tissues are structurally capable of withstanding such higher
442 pressures). The observed decrease in body undulation frequency for larger eels concurs with
443 the general observation that tail beat frequency tends to decrease with body size in fish
444 (Bainbridge, 1958), as swimming kinematics are fine-tuned to hydrodynamic efficiency
445 (Gazolla *et al.*, 2014), and presumably also because of some metabolic constraints on the
446 scaling of muscle power (Hill 1950).

447 It could be expected that higher burrowing performance will be associated with more frequent
448 burrowing behaviour. However, no burrowing behaviour was observed in 20% of the medium
449 and 29% of the large yellow eel trials. In contrast, glass, elver and small yellow eels always
450 looked for shelter in the sediment. This contrasting result could be related to the energetic
451 costs of burrowing *versus* predation risk. For anguillid eels, hiding from predators could be
452 especially important because their burst swimming speed to flee predators is slower than that
453 of fusiform fish (Wolter and Arlinghaus, 2003). Accordingly, eels react to disturbances either
454 by burrowing or by pulling back into denser vegetation, rather than by fleeing (Westerberg *et*
455 *al.*, 1993). The use of burrows as a hiding spot during the day concurs with the observation
456 that *A. anguilla* often left their burrow as soon as darkness fell (pers. obs. in lab). Large
457 yellow eels, however, likely have a lower predation risk through their larger body size and
458 might prioritize saving energy over making burrows, potentially explaining the presence of
459 non-burrowing events during our experiments (which took place during the day). In contrast,
460 for smaller eels, the predation risk is higher and predator avoidance through burrowing might
461 be prioritized over energy loss. To test this hypothesis, it would be interesting for future
462 studies to evaluate burrowing behaviour in absence/presence of predators.

463 While our study provides important insights in the burrowing behaviour of *A. anguilla*,
464 several biological factors, including presence of food and predators, were excluded during the
465 experiments. Hence, only the physical characteristics of the offered substrates determined
466 selection of the preferred substrate. Further research is necessary to determine whether other
467 environmental variables influence burrowing behaviour. Nyman (1972) found, for example,
468 that burrowing behaviour depends on water temperature; eels are more likely to burrow in
469 cold water, whereas little to no burrowing behaviour is observed in warm water (>16° C).
470 However, whether temperature influences substrate preference as well and whether this is
471 linked to body size has not been examined yet. Similarly, recent reseach showed that the

472 preference of *A. anguilla* eelers for small pebbles (16 – 32 mm) as a hiding place is not
473 altered by piscivore chemical cues (Nilsson *et al.*, 2020). However, future research is
474 necessary to determine whether predator presence has an effect on the preferred substrate for
475 burrowing.

476 *Conservation implications of burrowing*

477 Anthropogenic changes to substrates could negatively impact burrowing species, for example,
478 by increasing exposure to sediment-bound pollution. Benedetti *et al.* (2008) indeed found that
479 eels readily absorb contaminants (especially heavy metals) from sediments and accumulate
480 them in their liver tissues. During migration, these contaminants are released by lipolysis
481 inside the body, where they can subsequently affect the eel's metabolism, disrupt
482 gonadogenesis or impair the production of high quality gametes. Increased exposure to sea-
483 and riverfloor pollutants can thus have detrimental effects on the eel's spawning success
484 (Robinet & Feunteun, 2002). In addition, burrowing fishes suffer from the increase in anoxic
485 and hypoxic waters caused by increased anthropogenic eutrophication (Diaz & Rosenberg,
486 2008). Because eels in burrows respire water from the water column (Tomie *et al.*, 2013), an
487 increase in anoxic or hypoxic bottom waters could mean a loss of habitat.

488 Finally, bottoms of many coastal areas, estuaries, and inland waters have been profoundly
489 altered by anthropogenic activities including dredging (Gage *et al.*, 2005), run-off and erosion
490 (Colodey & Wells, 1992), and the extraction of sand and gravel (de Groot, 1986). These
491 activities, together with potential effects of pollution (Sühling *et al.*, 2016) and/or severe
492 occurrences of hypoxia (Schmidtke *et al.*, 2017) can alter the spatial distribution of the
493 vegetation community and even lead to changes in sediment type (ICES, 2015). Because not
494 all substrate types, such as mud, have been evaluated in this study, we cannot recommend
495 which substrate types should be preserved for eel conservation. Still, our results are important

496 for eel conservation, as we clearly demonstrate that substrate preference differs depending on
497 life stage and body size. Consequently, measures in terms of habitat restoration or
498 preservation should take into account that not all eels might be affected equally by specific
499 measures. Moreover, the clear preference of small eels for coarse gravel (Christoffersen *et al.*,
500 2018, Nillson *et al.*, 2020) suggests that installing coarse gravel beds, both at areas with
501 absence of supra-substrate hiding material, such as canals with limited riparian and
502 submerged vegetation, and at migration barriers with eel ladders where glass eels accumulate,
503 could be beneficial for eel survival by lowering the predation risk, decreasing intra-specific
504 competition for space (Westerberg *et al.*, 1993) and/or by providing a safe base for feeding
505 (Bozzano, 2003; Ménard *et al.*, 2008). The eel's diet includes prey items such as amphipods
506 and chironomids (Thurow, 1985; Provan & Reynolds, 2000), which can easily and safely be
507 obtained from burrows. As such, providing and retaining proper growing areas is crucial for
508 eel conservation. This study thus illustrates the importance of fully understanding the eel's
509 ecology for implementing proper management measures.

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- 519 • C. S. performed the experiments, analyzed the data, prepared figures and tables,
520 reviewed and revised drafts of the paper.
- 521 • P. V. contributed materials, reviewed and revised drafts of the paper.
- 522 • S. V. W. designed the experiments, contributed materials, reviewed and revised drafts
523 of the paper.
- 524 • J. D. M. designed the experiments, contributed materials, reviewed and revised drafts
525 of the paper, approved the final draft.

526 **Significance Statement**

527 European management plans are currently failing to reach the goals set to restore the critically
528 endangered European eel population. A lack of knowledge about the eel's ecology and
529 behaviour can partially explain this. Here, we show that the urge to burrow and the preferred
530 substrate changes during the eel's ontogeny, with eels generally preferring the substrate that
531 allows the quickest burrowing. These insights provide useful information for implementing
532 more appropriate and concrete management plans.

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738 **Figure legend**

739 **Figure 1:** Schematic representation of the burrowing sequence of *Anguilla anguilla* (L. 1758).
740 This sequence is composed of four distinct kinematic phases. P1: The eel tilts its head after
741 which the snout is pushed into the substrate. P2: Full body undulations occur with a high
742 amplitude and frequency. P3: The amplitude and frequency of body undulations minimize.
743 P4: Body undulations cease and only horizontal head sweeps within the substrate occur to
744 completely drag the tail into the sediment.

745 **Figure 2:** Boxplots of burrowing duration in sand and fine gravel for different size classes of
746 *Anguilla anguilla* (L. 1758). (a) total time needed to construct a burrow. GE: glass eels, ELV:
747 elvers (<150 mm), SYE: small yellow eels (151-300 mm), MYE: medium yellow eels (301-
748 450 mm), LYE: large yellow eels (>451 mm). For the medium yellow eels, only 1 individual
749 was included: 2 measurements were made in sand and 3 in fine gravel.

750 **Figure 3:** Burrowing performance of *Anguilla anguilla* (L. 1758). (left) Mean number of
751 body undulations per individual in sand (S) and fine gravel (FG). (right) Mean body
752 undulation frequency per individual in sand (S) and fine gravel (FG). GE: glass eels, ELV:
753 elvers (<150 mm), SYE: small yellow eels (151-300 mm), MYE: medium yellow eels (301-
754 450 mm), LYE: large yellow eels (>451 mm).

755 **Figure 4:** Schematic representation of how burrowing urge and performance may change
756 during the eel's life cycle. BLUE: relation between burrowing performance and life stage.
757 Glass eels are the least efficient life stage for burrowing. Burrowing performance is
758 hypothesized to follow the displayed curve. RED: relation between burrowing urge and life
759 stage. For glass eels and elvers, burrowing is of high importance, but becomes less important
760 as eels increase in size.

Figure 1

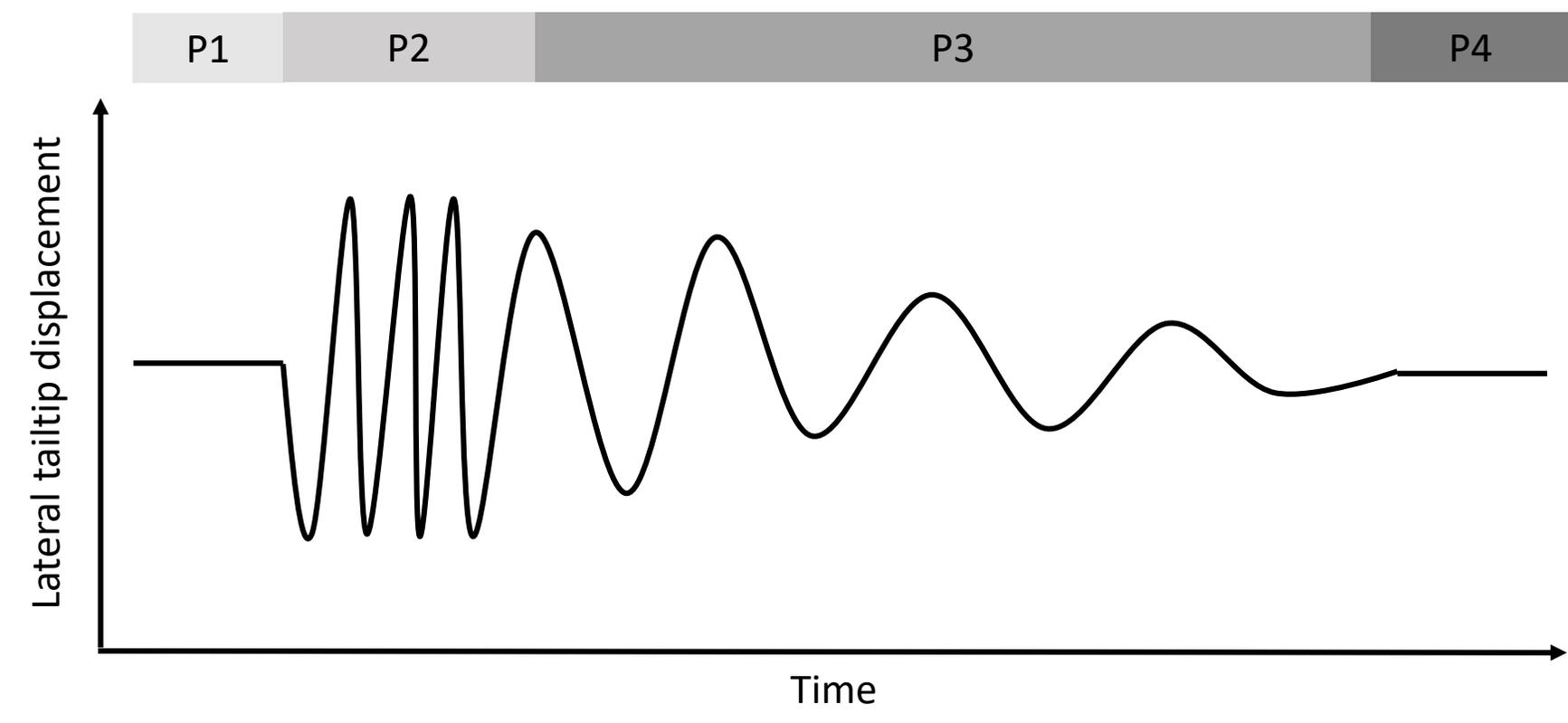
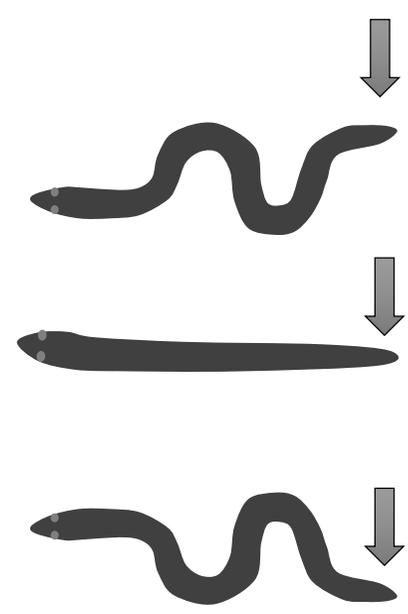


Figure 2

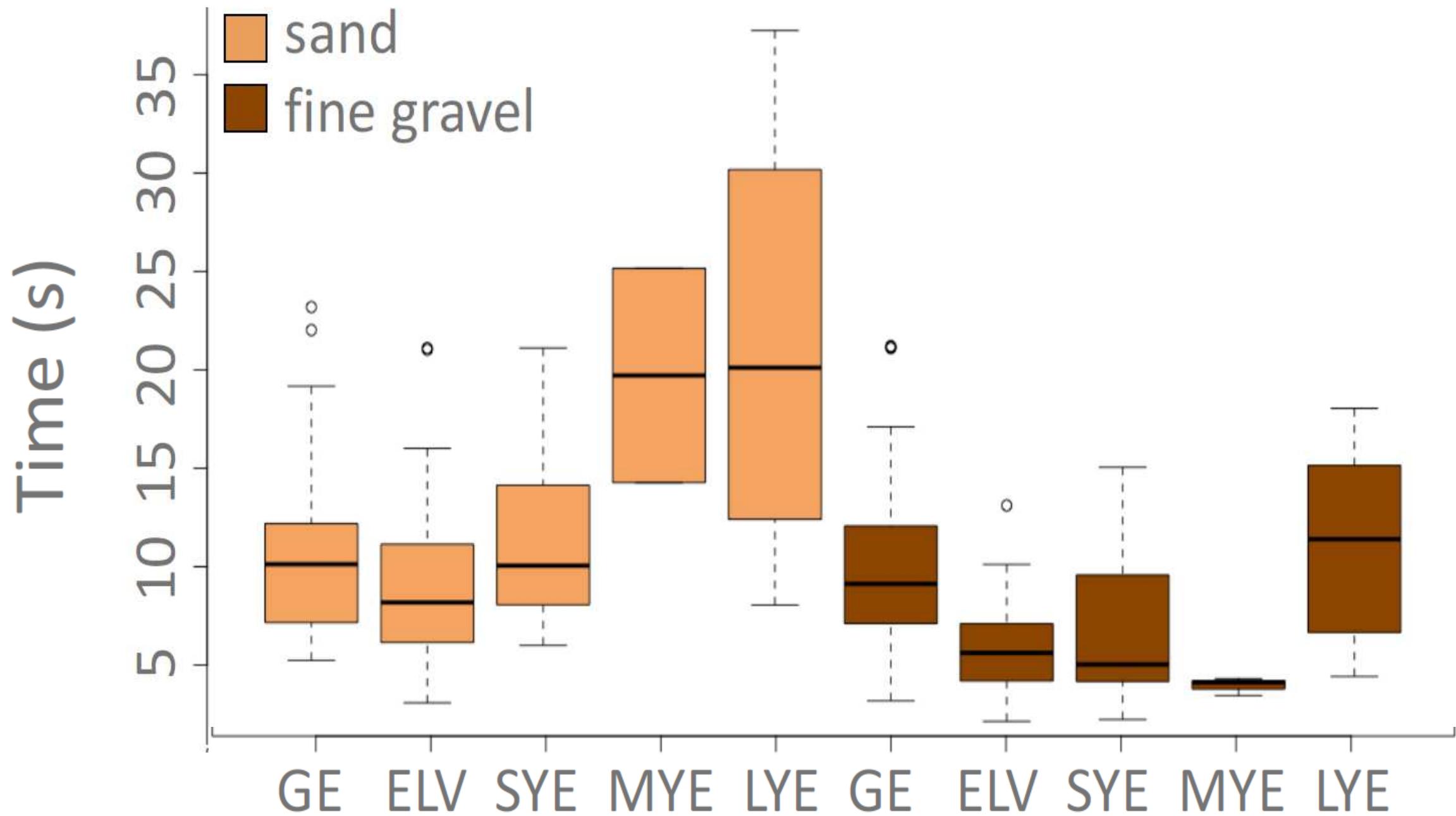
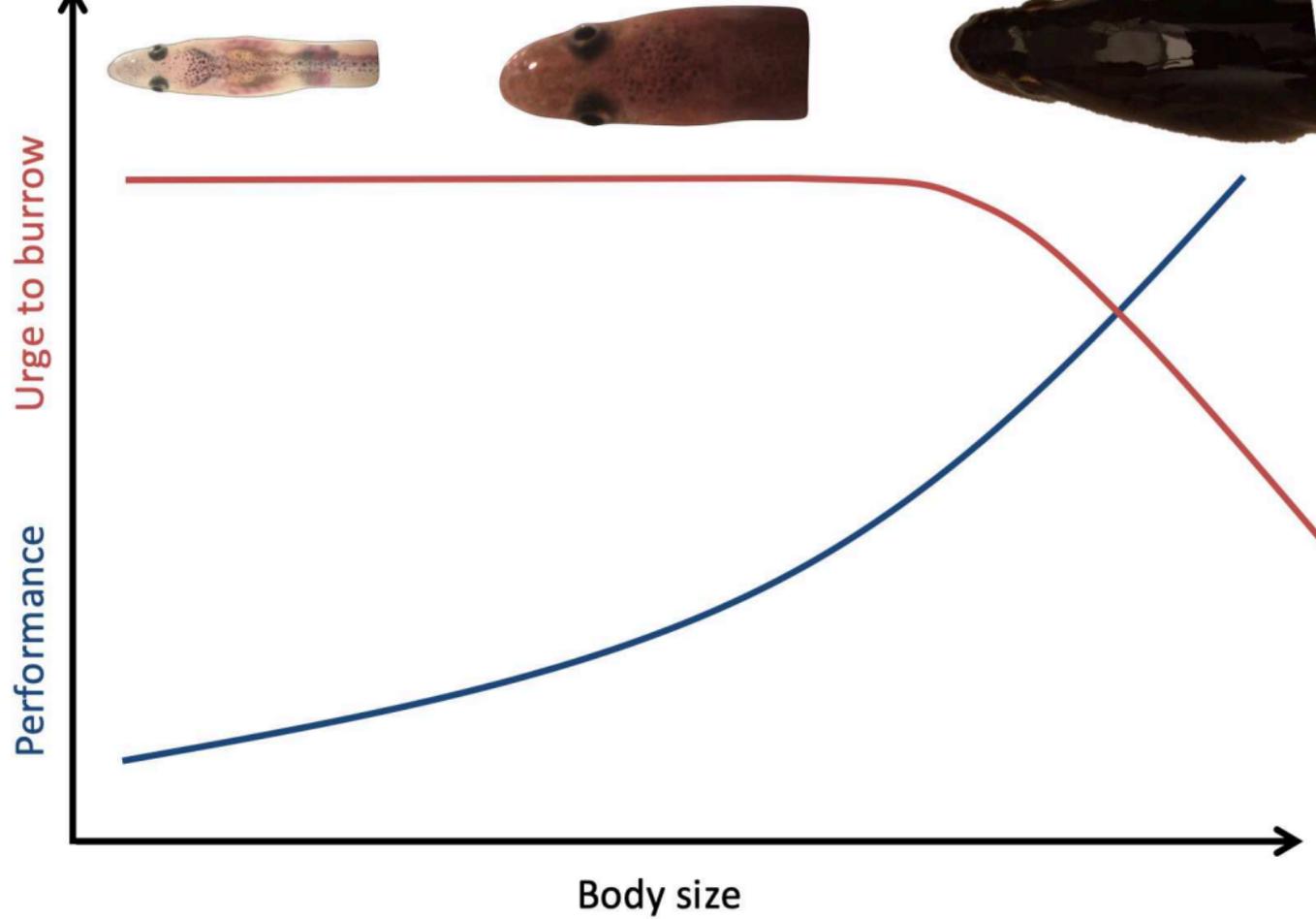


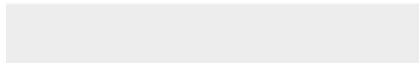
Figure 4





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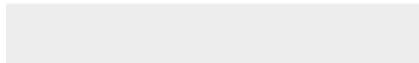
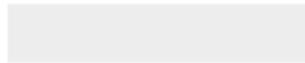
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