

Influence of substrate types and morphological traits on movement behavior in a toad and newt species

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Background. Inter-patches movements may lead to genetic mixing, decreasing both inbreeding and population extinction risks, and is hence a crucial step in amphibian metapopulation dynamics. Traveling heterogeneous landscapes might be particularly risky for amphibian species that are sensitive to both terrestrial and aquatic environmental changes. Understanding how amphibians perceive their environment and how they actually move in heterogeneous habitats is an essential step in metapopulation functioning and can be important for conservation policy and management. **Methods**. Using an experimental approach, the present study focused on the movement behavior (crossing speed) on different substrates mimicking landscape components (human-made and natural substrates) on two contrasting amphibian species, the common toad (Bufo bufo), a hopping and burrowing toad, and the marbled newt (Triturus marmoratus), a walking salamander. Considering those species allowed testing the hypothesis that species could react differently to substrate nature, depending on specific ecological requirements or locomotion modes because of morphological and behavioral differences. **Results**. In both species, substrate types influenced individual crossing speed, with individuals moving faster on soil than on cement. We also demonstrated that morphological traits were related to movement behavior (body index or leg length) but depending on sexes. **Discussion**. The simultaneous and comparative study of both amphibian species (anuran vs urodele) provides additional insights into the processes that drive population dynamics and persistence, providing valuable knowledge for biodiversity conservation and management.

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- 2 newt species
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Background. Inter-patches movements may lead to genetic mixing, decreasing both inbreeding 20 and population extinction risks, and is hence a crucial step in amphibian meta-population 21 22 dynamics. Traveling heterogeneous landscapes might be particularly risky for amphibian species 23 that are sensitive to both terrestrial and aquatic environmental changes. Understanding how amphibians perceive their environment and how they actually move in heterogeneous habitats is 24 an essential step in metapopulation functioning and can be important for conservation policy and 25 26 management. 27 **Methods**. Using an experimental approach, the present study focused on the movement behavior (crossing speed) on different substrates mimicking landscape components (human-made and 28 natural substrates) on two contrasting amphibian species, the common toad (Bufo bufo), a 29 hopping and burrowing toad, and the marbled newt (*Triturus marmoratus*), a walking 30 31 salamander. Considering those species allowed testing the hypothesis that species could react 32 differently to substrate nature, depending on specific ecological requirements or locomotion 33 modes because of morphological and behavioral differences. 34 **Results**. In both species, substrate types influenced individual crossing speed, with individuals moving faster on soil than on cement. We also demonstrated that morphological traits were 35 36 related to movement behavior (body index or leg length) but depending on sexes. 37 **Discussion**. The simultaneous and comparative study of both amphibian species (anuran vs 38 urodele) provides additional insights into the processes that drive population dynamics and

persistence, providing valuable knowledge for biodiversity conservation and management.

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- 43 Matrix permeability, inter-patches movements, roads, fragmented landscapes, common toads,
- 44 marbled newts

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Introduction

49	Inter-patches movements, and dispersal in particular, is a key process for maintaining gene flow
50	among populations (Kareiva & Wennergren, 1995; Ronce, 2007) with strong consequences on
51	metapopulation dynamics and population persistence (Clobert et al., 2001; Bowler & Benton,
52	2005; Clobert et al., 2012). Since many decades, the architecture of landscapes has severely
53	changed with the development of human activities. The anthropogenic practices, such as
54	agriculture, urbanization or the expansion of road network, have led to the emergence of
55	discontinuities in the habitat matrix: the continuous patches of habitats became smaller and more
56	isolated from each other, resulting in the well-known habitat fragmentation pattern, associated to
57	habitat loss (Collinge, 2009; Wilson et al., 2016). To ensure a sufficient connectivity among
58	populations in spite of these environmental changes, individuals could be force to adapt their
59	movement behavior (Arendt, 1988; Andreassen & Ims, 1998; Kuefler et al., 2010) and to move
60	further and/or longer across the habitat matrix. This change in movement behavior may increase
61	the costs associated to dispersal by exposing individuals to higher mortality rate during the
62	transience phase (when crossing roads for example; Carr, Pope & Fahrig, 2002) and increasing
63	the population extinction risk. Elucidating how individuals react and adapt their movement
64	pattern in the disturbed landscapes might improve our knowledge in evolutionary ecology.
65	Due to ecological requirements, amphibians are exposed to a variety of habitat types (i.e.
66	both terrestrial and aquatic) throughout their life cycle, often in patchy and heterogeneous
67	landscapes (Marsh & Trenham, 2001). During the terrestrial phase, individual movements are
68	more risky, through predator and UV-B exposures, and desiccation risk (Joly, Morand & Cohas,
69	2003). Many studies have considered the multiple effects of habitat fragmentation - and their
70	related landscape components-on amphibian populations, both at the individual and population



71	levels. Particularly, agricultural landscapes, urban areas and human-made infrastructures
72	negatively affect these species, with a reduction of species richness (Riley et al., 2005; Rubbo &
73	Kiesecker, 2005; Youngquist & Boone, 2014) or gene flow events (Lenhardt et al., 2017). Roads
74	have also been found to be an important barrier to amphibian dispersal, limiting dispersal events
75	(Marsh et al., 2005) and increasing the mortality risk occurring during crossing (Mazerolle,
76	2004a). Nevertheless, some amphibian species can also benefit from certain landscape elements.
77	For instance, drainage ditches may facilitate movement events in the green frog (Mazerolle,
78	2004b), and cane toads seemed to use roads as dispersal corridors in Australia (Brown et al.,
79	2006). Habitat-species interactions are complex and highly specific, as already demonstrated in
80	previous studies (Kolozsvary & Swihart, 1999; Trochet et al., 2016) suggesting that adaptation of
81	movement behaviors to landscape conversion could strongly diverge between species.
82	The costs associated to inter-patches movement can be high (Van Dyck & Baguette,
83	2005) and could lead to high selective pressures on dispersal and associated phenotypic traits
84	(Bonte et al., 2012). According to this expectation, many studies focus on the correlation
85	between movement and phenotypic traits. At the intra-specific level, phenotypic differences
86	related to dispersal ability between individuals have been reported. For instance, larger and/or
87	longer individuals are generally expected to be dispersers, because they should benefit from high
88	level of competition to disperse further (Léna et al., 1998). Evidence for this relationship
89	between body size and movement has been described in many taxa (in insects: Anholt, 1990;
90	Legrand et al., 2015; in mammals: Gundersen, Andreassen & Ims, 2002; Holekamp & Sherman,
91	1989; O'Riain, Jarvis & Faulkes, 1996; in reptiles: Léna et al., 1998; in birds: Barbraud, Johnson
92	& Bertault, 2003; Delgado et al., 2010; in fishes: Radinger & Wolter, 2014). For walking and/or
93	hopping animals, selection for efficient displacement might lead to leg elongation. As a result,



morphological adaptations to movement are also expected to be deduced from estimates of leg length (Moya-Laraño et al., 2008). This correlation between movement and leg length (i.e. hind-95 limb length, hereafter HLL) was demonstrated in some species (in reptiles: Losos, 1990; in 96 spiders: Moya-Laraño et al., 2008; in amphibians: Bennett, Garland & Else, 1989; Choi, Shim & 97 Ricklefs, 2003; Phillips et al., 2006), but still remains unclear. 98 99 One third of the amphibian species are currently threatened worldwide, with 43% of species having declined in the last decades (Stuart et al., 2004). Habitat fragmentation has been 100 identified as one of the most important factor affecting amphibians (Cushman, 2006). 101 Understanding how amphibians perceive their environment and how they actually move in 102 heterogeneous habitats is an essential step in metapopulation functioning and can be important 103 for conservation policy and management. However, despite the crucial importance of inter-patch 104 movements in altered landscapes, little is known about the direct inter-specific interaction 105 between individual movements and the different substrates that individuals can encounter during 106 107 transience in the habitat matrix (Ims & Yoccoz, 1997; Wiens, Schooley & Weeks, 1997; Wiens, 2001; Stevens et al., 2004). To that purpose, the present study focused on the movement 108 behavior (crossing speed) on different substrates mimicking landscape components (human-109 made and natural substrates) on two contrasting amphibian species, the common toad (Bufo 110 bufo), a hopping and burrowing toad, and the marbled newt (Triturus marmoratus), a walking 111 112 salamander. Common toads and marbled newts can live into the same habitat, such as grassland, woodland or agricultural areas, and could therefore face the same environmental pressures 113 during terrestrial movements. Considering those species allowed testing the hypothesis that 114 115 species could react differently to substrate nature, depending on specific ecological requirements 116 or locomotion modes because of morphological and behavioral differences.



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18	Materials & Methods
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L 2 0	Studied species
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122	The common toad (B. bufo) is the most widely distributed, and one of the most abundant anurar
L 2 3	species in Europe (Gasc et al., 1997). This species occupies various habitats such as coniferous,
L 2 4	mixed and deciduous forests, bushlands, but also urban areas such as gardens and parks.
L 2 5	Common toads hibernate singly or in groups from September to February, on land and
2 6	occasionally in streams and springs. Usually, reproduction occurs in February, and large
. 27	numbers of toads disperse to breeding sites (i.e. ponds) where the males compete for mating.
28	After an explosive breeding season, toads leave ponds and return to terrestrial habitats (Gittins,
L 2 9	1983).
130	The marbled newt $(T. marmoratus)$ is a large-bodied urodele species from Western
131	Europe, found in France, Spain and Portugal (Sillero et al., 2014). Reproduction takes place in a
L32	large range of aquatic habitats, including well-vegetated ponds, pools, ditches and streams, from
133	the beginning of March until the middle of August. After breeding, adults leave water bodies by
L34	walking, and join deciduous or mixed woodland, where they found refuges under dead and
135	rotting wood, and other hiding places (Jehle & Arntzen, 2000).
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L37	Sampling and morphological measurements
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139	Our work complies with the international animal care guidelines of the Association for the Study
140	of Animal Behaviour, and all required French permits relating to an authorization of capture,
141	marking, transport, detention, use and release of protected amphibian species; and animal
142	experimentation accreditation n A09-1) have been obtained (permit nos. 09-2014-14 and 32-
143	2014-07) from the DREAL Occitanie ("Direction Régionale de l'Environnement, de
144	l'Aménagement et du Logement"). Ethical approval was included under the protected species
145	handling permit from the DREAL Occitanie. The project was approved by the "Conseil National
146	de la Protection de la Nature" the 14 th of September 2014 and by the "Conseil Scientifique
147	Régional du Patrimoine Naturel (CSRPN)" of the region Midi-Pyrénées the 14 th of October
148	2014.)
149	In total, 83 common toads (68 males and 15 females) and 46 marbled newts (23 males
150	and 23 females) were captured in different ponds to avoid our potential impact on populations in
151	south of France (geographical coordinates: 43.671781 ° N, 0.504308 ° E; 43.076347 ° N,
152	1.351639 ° E), then brought back to the lab for experimentation and released between June and
153	July 2015. During experiments, animals were housed at the Station d'Ecologie Théorique et
154	Expérimentale (Moulis, France) in same-species groups of 4 to 6 individuals in semi-aquatic
155	terrarium of 60×30×30 cm at room temperature. They were fed <i>ad libitum</i> with live mealworms
156	and tubifex worms. For unambiguous identification, all individuals were PIT-tagged (RFID
157	Standards ISO 11784 & 11785 type FDX-B, 1.4×8 mm, 134.2 khz from BIOLOG-ID, France;
158	animal experimentation accreditation n°A09-1) before the experiments following the protocol
159	developed in Le Chevalier et al. (2017). We then measured snout-to-vent length (SVL) and hind
160	limb length (HLL) to the nearest 1 mm and body weight (mass) to the nearest 0.01 g.
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All tests were performed in June and July 2015, after the breeding season when all individuals were in the terrestrial phase. In order to test the crossing capacities of both species, we made them move along two tracks (200 cm long × 10 cm wide × 20 cm high), each filled with two different substrates: cement (human-made) or soil (natural). During the experiments an individuals were chased down the tracks and forced to move by gently poking their back after each stop. Only one individual was tested at a time and we recorded the number of stops (stops) and the crossing speed (in cm/sec) to the nearest 0.1s to travel 200 cm from departure to arrival line. In order to provide reliable estimates of crossing capacity using repeated-measure design while minimizing stress, every individual was tested three times on each substrate with only one trial per day. Each animal were therefore kept in captivity for six days in average (mean \pm SD: 6.37 ± 11.62 ; min-max = 1-35 days; individuals were kept for another experiment not detailed here), during which animals were returned to the aquaria. Because locomotion in amphibians are influenced by temperature (Herrel & Bonneaud, 2012; James et al., 2012; Šamajová & Gvoždík, 2010), all tests were performed in a greenhouse under controlled-temperature conditions (mean \pm SD: $25^{\circ}C \pm 1^{\circ}C$). Some individuals (n = 32) did not complete the 200 cm run (stopping completely or turning back), these individuals and their replicates were removed from the analyses for statistical reasons. We therefore included 77 toads (77 toads \times 3 replicates \times 2 substrates = 462

tests) and 20 marbled newts (20 newts \times 3 replicates \times 2 substrates = 120 tests) in the analyses.

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Statistical analyses





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Mass and HLL were strongly related to SVL ($r_s = 0.866$, P < 0.001, and $r_s = 0.691$, P < 0.001respectively). To avoid collinearity in our model, we used a body index (BI), estimated by the residuals of the regression of log(mass) on log(SVL) (Jakob, Marshall & Uetz, 1996; Denoël et al., 2002), and the relative size of the HLL (named after leg) estimated by the residuals of the linear regression between HLL and SVL. We built linear mixed-effect models (LMMs) for each species using the *crossing speed* (log-transformed) as response variable, individual as a random factor and BI, leg, substrate, sex and first order interactions as fixed effects. Because the crossing speed was strongly related to the number of stops in both species (T. marmoratus: $r_s = 0.543$, P <0.001; B. bufo: $r_s = 0.767$, P < 0.001), we also added stops as covariate in our models. LMMs were performed using the lme4 R-package (Bates et al., 2017).

Model selection was performed using backward selection. Interactions were removed

(2002). If the effect of this variable was not significant, the new model was kept and the

had a significant effect on the response variable. Models were run using R 2.14.2 (R

backward selection was continued. The procedure was stopped when all explanatory variables

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when they were not significant, and the less significant variable was then removed step by step. 197 198 Between each step, successive models were compared using likelihood ratio tests (LRT) to determine the significance of the variable removed, as recommended by Burnham & Anderson

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205 Results

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Development Core Team 2011).



After model selection, the best models explaining variation in *crossing speed* retained *substrates* (soil and cement), *sex* and interactions between morphological traits and *sex* in both species (T. *marmoratus*: $\chi^2 = 5.925$, d.f. = 1, P = 0.015; B. *bufo*: $\chi^2 = 4.769$, d.f. = 1, P = 0.029). *Crossing speed* was significantly lower on soil than on cement (Table 1; Figure 1). *Crossing speed* was also correlated to several morphological traits appending on species.

In the marbled newt, *crossing speed* was related to *BI* with an influence of sexes. Female newts with a high *BI* moved slowly while in males, individuals with a high *BI* crossed faster (Table 1; Fig. 2A). No relationship between *crossing speed* and *leg* was found in the marbled newt. In the common toad, long-legged males moved faster while females with long legs had a weak crossing speed (Table 1; Fig. 2B). In the common toad the *crossing speed* was not related to *BI*.

Discussion

Inter-patches movements may lead to genetic mixing, decreasing both inbreeding and population extinction risks, and is hence a crucial step in amphibian meta-population dynamics. Traveling heterogeneous landscapes might be particularly risky for amphibian species that are sensitive to both terrestrial and aquatic environmental changes. Despite being generally considered as poor-dispersers—even if toads and frogs have a better potential to disperse than newts—many studies showed that amphibians are strongly affected by the landscape structure at a large spatial scale (Riley et al., 2005; Rubbo & Kiesecker, 2005; Youngquist & Boone, 2014; Lenhardt et al., 2017). By comparing movement behavior in both an anuran and an urodele species, we experimentally investigated the influence of substrates and morphological characteristics on movements in species with distinct modes of locomotion. Our results demonstrated that both





species were affected by substrate types, moving significantly slower on a human-made (cement) 230 than on a natural (soil) substrate. Movement behavior was also related to morphological traits, 231 but depending on sexes in both species. 232 233 Influence of substrate type on crossing speed 234 235 Inter-patches movement is expected to depend on the nature of the substrate crossed. Some 236 237 landscape features may be associated with high resistance to movement while others facilitate movement (low resistance). In a previous study, Stevens et al. (2006) experimentally 238 demonstrated that the natterjack toad (Bufo calamita) significantly preferred substrates 239 mimicking forest and bare than those mimicking agricultural lands. In our experiment, the 240 cement substrate represented linear roads, both in its nature (mixture of bitumen and gravel) and 241 length (2 meters wide road), that are often associated with a high mortality rate in amphibians 242 243 (Fahrig et al., 1995). Moreover, roads constitute a very hostile environment for amphibians (dry and warm substrate that could induce a desiccation risk). According to our assumptions, our 244 results showed that substrate type influenced the movement behavior of both species tested, with 245 individuals moving faster (higher crossing speed, Fig. 1; Table 1) on soil than on cement. 246 Consequently on roads, both marbled newts and common toads could be more exposed to traffic, 247 248 and suffer more from both desiccation and mortality risks (Petronilho & Dias, 2005; Santos et 249 al., 2007; Sillero, 2008; Elzanowski et al., 2009; Matos, Sillero & Argaña, 2012). In the context of a contrasted and fragmented landscape, our results corroborated such negative effect of roads 250 251 on amphibians, a finding already demonstrated in studies on population movement at large 252 spatial scale (Fahrig et al., 1995; Carr, Pope & Fahrig, 2002; Sotiropoulos et al., 2013). Here, we





highlighted a direct influence of the substrate on the displacement of two amphibian species, with divergent ecological requirements and locomotion modes. Those results emphasized the importance of road-crossing structure and landscape management at a small spatial scale for amphibian conservation.

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Movement-related traits in both species

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According to our expectations, our results showed an influence of morphological traits on the crossing speed in both species. Various morphological variables enable organisms to be adapted for ecologically effective movement (Bennett, Garland & Else, 1989; Losos, 1990; Choi, Shim & Ricklefs, 2003; Phillips et al., 2006; Moya-Laraño et al., 2008). Anurans have a streamline body with elongated hind limbs, which could make them efficient jumpers. Based on this hypothesis, a meta-analysis among several anuran species actually demonstrated that jumping performances were strongly correlated to hind limbs after correcting by snout-to-vent length (Gomes et al., 2009). We also demonstrated that movement behavior was related to the limb length (*leg*) in the common toad, an association already found in few anuran species (Choi, Shim & Ricklefs, 2003; Phillips et al., 2006). Indeed, long-legged males moved faster than females with long legs (Table 1), which corroborates the idea that limb length may be tightly associated to movement behavior adaptations in anurans. In males, longer legs could facilitate more rapid or longer-distance displacement events for populations (Phillips et al., 2006), as well as generating other advantages such as improved predator evasion and simplifying the negotiation of barriers and obstacles. As a consequence, the mortality risk of longer-legged males could be lower than individuals with short legs. Differences between sexes may be driven by divergent breeding benefits, which could



lead to a trade-off between movement and high energetic costs of reproduction in females. We did not find a similar relationship between leg length and movement behavior in the marbled newts. Indeed in salamander species, authors suggested a trade-off between speed and endurance, which seemed to be not adapted to efficient movement abilities (Bennett, Garland & Else, 1989). More studies on the movement behavior in salamanders are needed to tackle this issue. On the other hand in the marbled newt, we found that males with high body index moved faster than individuals with low body index, independently of substrate (Table 1). Evidence for such relationship has been described in many taxa (Léna et al., 1998; Radinger & Wolter, 2014; Legrand et al., 2015), because larger individuals should benefit from high level of competition to disperse further (Léna et al., 1998). As for the common toad, this difference depending on sexes could be explain by divergent breeding benefits.

Conclusions

Inter-patches movement is a multifactorial process, subject to internal and external factors. Our findings demonstrated effects of substrates and their associated estimated costs to cross them on the movement behavior in two contrasting amphibian species, having divergent modes of locomotion. In particular, individuals were slower in the cement, making them more vulnerable on roads. In both species, we also showed significant relationship between morphological traits and movement behavior. We underlined the importance of considering spatial scale when studying population dynamics, which is a crucial issue in ecological management. The simultaneous and comparative study of both amphibian species (anuran vs urodele) provides





298	additional insights into the processes that drive population dynamics and persistence, providing
299	valuable knowledge for biodiversity conservation and management.
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308	Data Availability
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310	The raw data has been supplied as a Supplementary File.



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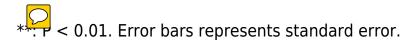


495	Figure caption
496	
497	Figure 1. Crossing speed (in cm/sec) on cement and soil substrates in (a) the marbled newt and
498	(b) the common toad. **: $P < 0.01$. Error bars represents standard error.
499	
500	Figure 2. Relationships between (a) crossing speed (log-transformed) and body index (residuals
501	of the regression of log(body mass) on log(snout-to-vent length) depending on sexes in marbled
502	newts; (b) crossing speed (log-transformed) and leg (residuals between hind limb length and
503	snout-to-vent length) depending on sexes in common toads. Males are in black points and
504	females are in grey points.
505	



Figure 1

Figure 1. Crossing speed (in cm/sec) on cement and soil substrates in (a) the marbled newt and (b) the common toad.



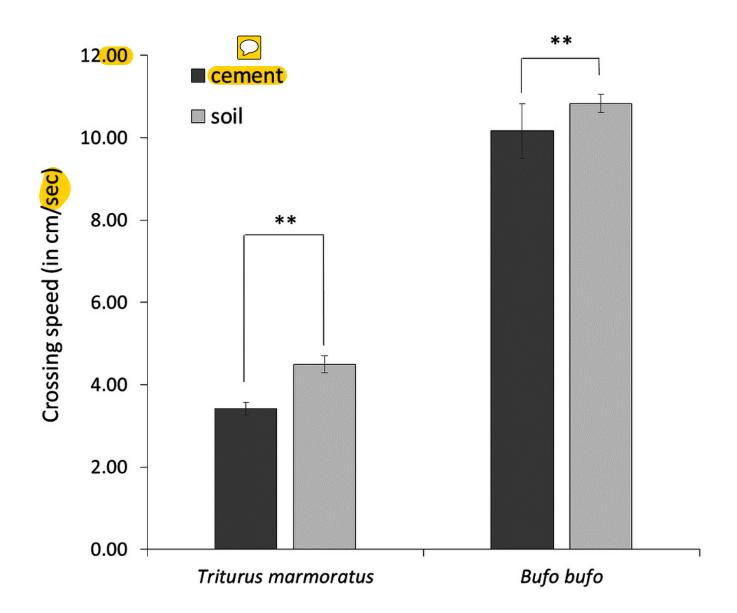




Figure 2

Figure 2. Relationships between (a) crossing speed (log-transformed) and body index (residuals of the regression of log(body mass) on log(snout-to-vent length) depending on sexes in marbled newts; (b) crossing speed (log-transformed) and leg (residuals be

Males are in black points and females are in grey points.

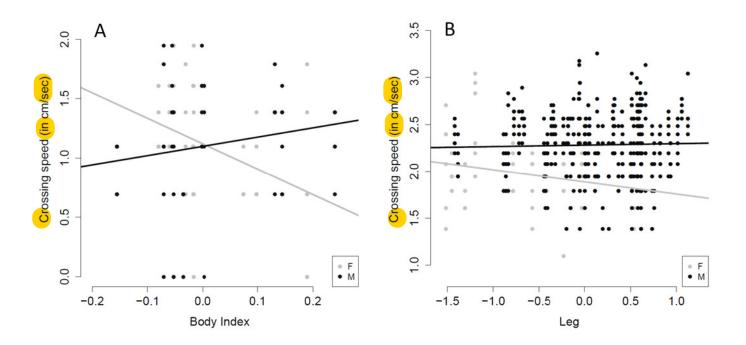




Table 1(on next page)

Table 1. Summary of the best models showing the influence of significant variables on the crossing speed for marbled newt (*Triturus marmoratus*) and common toad (*Bufo bufo*). BI: body index; leg: relative hind-limb length.

***: P < 0.001, ** : P < 0.01, * : P < 0.05.



- 1 Table 1. Summary of the best models showing the influence of significant variables on the
- 2 crossing speed for marbled newt (*Triturus marmoratus*) and common toad (*Bufo bufo*). BI: body
- 3 index; leg: relative hind-limb length. ***: P < 0.001, **: P < 0.01, *: P < 0.05.

5		Marbled newt (Triturus marmoratus)		Common toad (Bufo bufo)			
6		Estimate	P		Estimate	P	
7	(Intercept)	1.415	< 0.001	***	2.843	< 0.001	***
8	Substrate (soil)	0.208	0.003	**	0.060	0.001	**
0	leg	-	-	-	-0.094	0.114	
9	BI	-1.790	0.007	**	-	-	-
10	sex (male)	-0.007	0.947		0.120	0.082	
	BI * sex (male)	2.151	0.021	*	-	-	-
	leg * sex (male)	-	-	_	0.144	0.032	*
	stops	-0.066	< 0.001	***	0.080	< 0.001	***