

PRE-PRINT of JFishBiol doi 10.1111/jfb.13314

1 Title:

2 Evidence for long term change in length, weight and migration phenology of anadromous

3 spawners in French Atlantic salmon *Salmo salar*

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16 Running headline:

17 Changing salmon size and phenology in France

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19 Abstract

20 We provide new data on Atlantic salmon *Salmo salar* life history traits across France, using a
21 recreational angling database coming from fed by a mandatory catch declaration scheme over
22 a large temporal (1987-2013) and spatial (n = 34 rivers) scale including three regions (genetic
23 units). We reported new insights on changes in *S. salar* life history traits, with a decline in
24 individual length, weight and a delay in the migration phenology of adult *S. salar* returning to
25 French rivers. Similarities in time trends between regions may be attributable to common
26 changes in environmental conditions at sea. Results also revealed different rates of change
27 between early maturing fish (1SW fish) and late maturing fish (2SW fish), phenotypic traits
28 being less variable and less impacted by environmental variations in freshwater returning
29 2SW fish than in 1SW ones. This study highlights the necessity to account for the variability
30 in life history strategies when exploring mechanisms of phenotypic change in *S. salar*.
31 Detailed data on *S. salar* in France have long been missing from the literature. This large
32 scale study on French populations contributes to reduce the gap in knowledge by providing
33 further empirical evidence of a global pattern in *S. salar* life history shared by all populations
34 across the Atlantic Ocean, which is consistent with the widespread hypothesis of global
35 response of populations to a major ecological mechanism during the marine phase of the life
36 cycle.

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39 Keywords

40 body size, environmental buffering, environmental variability, life history strategy, *Salmo*
41 *salar*

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43 Introduction

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46 Global climate warming in the Atlantic Ocean is responsible for rising sea surface
47 temperature since the 1970's ([Levitus et al., 2000](#); [Polyakov et al., 2009](#)). There is also strong
48 evidence that climate change is altering ecosystem functioning, which is driving a major shift,
49 observable across multiple trophic levels, in the North Atlantic ([Durant et al., 2004](#);
50 [Beaugrand et al., 2008](#)). Concomitantly, Atlantic salmon *Salmo salar* L. 1758 populations
51 have suffered a tremendous decline in abundance across their distribution range ([Jonsson &](#)
52 [Jonsson, 2004](#); [Chaput, 2012](#); [ICES, 2016](#)), together with marked changes in life history traits
53 and population structure. In particular, a decline in the proportion of late maturing fish has
54 been reported for many European and North American stocks ([Baglinière et al., 2004](#); [ICES,](#)
55 [2016](#); [Jonsson et al. 2016](#); [Otero et al. 2012](#)). Those changes have been accompanied by
56 declines in age-specific length and weight of fish ([Aprahamian et al., 2008](#); [Bacon et al.,](#)
57 [2009](#); [Jonsson et al. 2016](#)), together with a delay in adult migration timing ([Todd et al., 2012](#);
58 [Valiente et al., 2011](#)). Such changes are expected to affect population growth rate, raising
59 concerns about the viability of this species of great patrimonial and economical value.

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62 Identifying the causal link between latent driving factors and those phenotypic changes is
63 difficult and may consist in one of the greatest challenges for fisheries ecology, and for *S.*
64 *salar* in particular ([Crozier & Hutchings, 2014](#)). Due to a complex life cycle shared between
65 freshwater and the marine environment, diadromous fishes are vulnerable to various factors of
66 stress in a hierarchy of spatial scales ([Armstrong et al., 1998](#); [Mather et al., 1998](#); [Lindburg &](#)
67 [Waldman, 2009](#)). Evidence now accumulates for a major impact of changes in the marine

68 environment encountered by *S. salar* (Jonsson & Jonsson, 2004; ICES, 2016; Jonsson *et al.*,
69 2016). Both direct and indirect effects of rising sea surface temperature have been proposed.
70 Temperature increase would impede post-smolt growth (Friedland *et al.*, 2000, 2005). In
71 addition, temperature increase would decrease the productivity of North Atlantic pelagic food
72 web, thus indirectly affecting feeding opportunities for salmon at sea (Friedland *et al.*, 2000;
73 Peyronnet *et al.*, 2007; McCarthy *et al.*, 2008; Jensen *et al.*, 2011). In particular, the
74 abundance and/or energy content of key pelagic crustaceans and small pelagic fish, on which
75 *S. salar* largely prey, may have declined (Beaugrand & Reid, 2012; Friedland *et al.*, 2013;
76 Mills *et al.*, 2013; Miller *et al.*, 2014). Recent stock rebuilding in some pelagic fish competing
77 for similar resource as *S. salar* may further amplify this process (Jonsson *et al.* 2016;
78 Mäntyniemi *et al.*, 2012).

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81 Simultaneous temporal trends in growth, length, weight and/or phenology variations have
82 been observed in Norway (Jensen *et al.*, 2011), Ireland (Quinn *et al.*, 2006), and Scotland
83 (Summers, 1995; Todd *et al.*, 2008; Bacon *et al.*, 2011). Given that those populations breed in
84 very distant rivers, the existence of a large-scale mechanism taking at sea has been suggested.
85 To go further, large scale data for Southern populations is required to confirm the influence
86 and the extent of such global change. Yet, precise ecological and demographic mechanisms
87 that underline those changes are still not clear (Crozier and Hutchings, 2014). Despite elusive
88 causes, there is a need to better understand the factors regulating *S. salar* response to ongoing
89 environmental change, for management and policy purposes.

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92 In *S. salar*, anadromous adults mature after one winter at sea (1SW) or more than one winter
93 at sea (MSW, i.e. up to five years) (Hutchings & Jones, 1998; Aas *et al.*, 2011). The
94 differences in their respective life history traits (e.g. body size, growth rate, age at maturity,
95 fecundity or migration timing) reflect the strategy of resource allocation to growth, survival
96 and reproduction (Cody, 1966; Williams, 1966; Schaffer, 1983; Stearns, 1976). Under this
97 strategy, alternative tactics seem to be partially determined by sex and genes (Fleming, 1996;
98 Barson *et al.*, 2015). Females, whose breeding success is strongly related to body size
99 (Fleming, 1996), are more abundant among MSW, while males tend to mature earlier i.e.
100 most of them are 1SW (Hutchings & Jones, 1998; Aas *et al.*, 2011). Thus, any change in
101 resource availability or more generally in environmental conditions at sea is likely to induce
102 contrasted response in 1SW and MSW, because of difference in their resource allocation
103 (Stearns, 1976; Gaillard *et al.*, 1989; Reznick *et al.*, 1996). In Southern Europe, growing areas
104 at sea used by MSW are farther away than in 1SW, resulting in an even greater contrast in
105 mortality during sea migration between tactics. For instance, somatic growth might be more
106 impacted by poor environmental condition at sea in 1SW, as energy allocation might be
107 primarily dedicated to maturation in this group. Also, differences in age and sex-ratio between
108 sea-age classes may confer different ability in buffering external forcing in 1SW and MSW,
109 as already observed in mammals for instance (Coulson *et al.*, 2001). Monitoring life history
110 traits by sea age class is essential to better understand and predict species response to ongoing
111 global changes and provide sound insights for the management of *S. salar* across its
112 distribution range (Armstrong *et al.*, 1998; Mather *et al.*, 1998).

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115 In this study we investigated the long term change in length, weight and migration phenology
116 of French *S. salar* populations over the last three decades, using a recreational angling

117 database coming from fed by a mandatory catch declaration scheme over a large spatial (n =
118 34 rivers) scale. Although the available literature accumulates evidence of temporal changes
119 in life history traits in a high number of *S. salar* populations, only few results concern
120 Southern Europe rivers (Valiente et al., 2011) and no results have been published for France
121 so far. Extending the geographical range for which evidence of changes are documented is a
122 prerequisite to test for the hypothesis of a common response of *S. salar* to environmental
123 conditions at sea, and then refine our understanding of the factors driving those reported
124 changes. We described how *S. salar* length, weight, body condition factor and annual
125 migration timing have changed over the period 1987-2013 in French rivers. We investigated
126 whether common patterns could be detected in geographically distant populations. We then
127 tested the hypothesis of a tactic-dependent response to environmental variation in *S. salar*.
128 Finally, we assessed the difference in individual response in 1SW and MSW, by analyzing the
129 relative rate of change in key life history traits between 1SW and MSW over the study period.
130 Overall, results brought new contributions to the understanding of the demographic and
131 evolutionary forces that control *S. salar* response to environmental change in the Southern
132 part of the species distribution range.

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136 MATERIALS & METHODS

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138 Recreational fishery data

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141 Analyses are based on the French recreational angling database fed by a mandatory catch
142 declaration scheme over a large temporal (1987-2013) and spatial (n = 34 rivers) scale. In
143 France, *S. salar* recreational rod and line fishery takes place in more than 40 rivers of the
144 Atlantic and Channel coasts, which are characterized by uneven spatial distribution and river
145 profiles. These rivers are mainly localized in three regions that represent more than 90% of
146 French *S. salar* abundance: Normandy, Brittany and Aquitaine (Fig. 1). This regional
147 stratification results from previous analyses of both the genetic structure of French *S. salar*
148 populations and based on their demographic and morphometric characteristics (Prévost, 1987;
149 Perrier *et al.*, 2011). In addition to recreational fishery, a small commercial fishery takes place
150 in the Adour River, Aquitaine region (on average 10.5 % of the annual salmon catches). The
151 fishing season extends from the beginning of March to the end of October for rod fishing and
152 to the end of July for commercial fishing. Since 1987, *S. salar* fishery rely on a national
153 compulsory catch declaration scheme which offers a national sampling survey of adult *S.*
154 *salar* and feed one of the largest dataset for salmonid fishery in Europe. Catch data are
155 collected by anglers and centralized by the National Center for the Interpretation of Salmonid
156 Catches. For each fish caught, the recorded data are date (D, day of the year), river, size (L,
157 total length in mm), weight (W, in g) and a sample of scales. All scales are analyzed
158 following a standardized protocol (Baglinière *et al.*, 1985) to estimate both the time spent in
159 freshwater during the juvenile phase (freshwater age) and the time spent at sea during the
160 adult phase of the life cycle, i.e. (sea-age). Current French populations are mainly composed
161 of one sea winter (1SW), two sea winters (2SW) and rarely three sea winters (3SW) salmon.
162 However, because of the unbalanced fishing effort between sea-age classes (being historically
163 more intense on large 2SW fish than on 1SW ones), the data do not allow us to draw any
164 inference on the relative abundance of the two tactics and its variation over time.

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167 The ordinal date of capture (D) was considered as an index for the date of river entry. Indeed,
168 as already discussed in Bacon et al. (2009), the rod capture data mostly concerns newly
169 arrived fresh-run fish, often caught in lower parts of rivers just after their entry in freshwater.
170 Several studies have shown that the movements and capture rates of *S. salar* decline rapidly
171 after river entry (e.g., Thorley et al., 2005), suggesting that *S. salar* may be harder to catch by
172 rod after several days in freshwater.

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175 Because salmonids are considered to have a standard body shape, we used the condition
176 coefficient of Fulton (K) as a proxy for *S. salar* body condition. It is calculated for each fish
177 as $K = W/L^3$ (Bolger & Connolly, 1989; Nash *et al.*, 2006).

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180 Quality control and data processing

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183 Fish spending three winters at sea became scarce in French populations while repeat spawners
184 are very rare (Baglinière & Porcher, 1994). Data from those fish were too few to allow
185 reliable statistical analysis. They were thus removed from the study. Unrealistic combination
186 of length and weight (i.e., K outside the range [0.4, 1.6]) coming from erroneous records,
187 were discarded. The date of capture was also used as a filter criterion on the dataset. In
188 France, *S. salar* migration is depending on sea age and hydrological conditions, with a MSW
189 early run and a 1SW summer run (Baglinière & Porcher, 1994). Some years, late records are
190 observed in the dataset, which correspond to a late upstream migration from the estuary as no

191 late run of “silver fish” are recorded on index rivers with fish trap facilities in France (e.g.
192 Scorff River, E. Prévost, pers. com.). Also, the recorded length and weight of fish caught late
193 in the season may be a biased proxy of the phenotypic traits of those fish at the time of their
194 return. Indeed, fish caught late in the season often stayed several weeks in river waiting for
195 favorable river discharge conditions to migrate upstream to spawning grounds. During this
196 waiting period, fish may lose weight and the length of males may start to increase with the
197 development of secondary sexual characters, such as the elongation of the upper jaw in the
198 male salmon ([Maise & Baglinière, 1986](#); Baglinière & Porcher, 1994). Because sexual
199 dimorphism is large enough to allow sex determination in salmon from September, we
200 decided to only consider fish caught until the end of August for our analysis. Furthermore,
201 fishery management could interfere with fish sampling, with late running fish being more
202 likely to be under-represented in the dataset. Indeed, since 1994, *S. salar* recreational fishery
203 in French rivers closes to preserve the targeted stock of spawners as soon as the allocated
204 river-specific quota is reached (catch release is not implemented in France; Porcher & Prévost
205 (1996)). Fishing closure often took place early in the season, leading to an uneven sampling of
206 fish in fall.

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209 In total, our analysis included 27,709 individual records (11,466 1SW fish and 16,243 2SW
210 fish) collected over the period 1987-2013 on 34 rivers. Sample size per river was too small,
211 thus records from single rivers were pooled into three study regions (Normandy, Brittany, and
212 Aquitaine) to reduce sampling noise (Table I, Fig. 1). Despite an unbalanced number of river
213 per regions and contrasted river profiles, this regionalization of the catch data reflects the
214 spatial distribution of *S. salar* abundance in France. Populations from the Loire River and
215 from Northern France, which represent less than 5% of the records, were excluded from the

216 dataset for three main reasons: i) salmon fishing in the Loire River has been forbidden since
217 1994; ii) salmon catches in Northern France are low; iii) stocking practice takes place on all
218 these rivers, which may mask ecological signals ([Le Cam *et al.*, 2015](#)).

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221 Statistical analyses

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223 Characterizing temporal trends and the impact of covariates

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226 Temporal trends in D, L, W and K (see Supporting Information A1 and A2) were analyzed
227 using Generalized Additive Models (GAM) as implemented in the R package *mgcv*, V. 1.8-6
228 ([Wood, 2011](#)) to capture the non-linearity in the data. Independent models were built for each
229 of the four response variables, here denoted Z for genericity. The effects of the sea-age class
230 (1SW or 2SW), and regions (Normandy, Brittany, Aquitaine) were introduced as categorical
231 effects, and the Year was considered as a continuous variable in the non-parametric smooth
232 trend. The most complex model considered was:

$$233 Z_{Y,A,R,i} \sim A \times R + s(Y, A \times R) + \epsilon_i,$$

234 where $Z_{Y,A,R,i}$ is the variable D, L, W or K for any fish i of sea-age A, caught at year Y in
235 region R, 'A×R' is a sea-age by region interaction, $s(Y, A \times R)$ is a sea-age by region specific
236 smooth time trend, and ϵ_i are independent and identically distributed residuals $\sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ for
237 any individual fish i . To test for the existence of trends specific to sea-age and region, simpler
238 nested models without time trend, or with identical time trend for each region and/or sea-age
239 were considered. Competing models were compared using the Akaike Information Criterion
240 (AIC; Burnham & Anderson, 2002). The reduction of the model deviance as the models get

241 more parameters (i.e. increase in complexity) was also used to comment on the relative
242 importance of the covariates in explaining the data variability. No data transformation was
243 needed as the residuals from the models did not reveal any departure from the assumptions of
244 normality and homogeneity of variance.

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247 Common fluctuations among regions

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250 Time trends in each life history trait were then examined to test for common temporal
251 fluctuations among regions (for any sea-age strategy). To ensure that two regions would not
252 appear to be correlated simply because both showed comparable long-term trends, any long
253 term trend (low frequency) in the data was first removed by fitting a spline a priori forced to
254 be very smoothed by fixing the degree of freedom to 5 in the GAM procedure. Correlations
255 across years between any two regions were then analysed on the de-trended time series by
256 calculating the Pearson correlation coefficient. Following the methodology developed in
257 Pyper and Peterman (1998), the significance of the correlation was tested using modified
258 Student t-tests with a reduced degree of freedom to correct for any remaining autocorrelation
259 in the de-trended time series.

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262 Comparing rates of change between strategies

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265 We investigated the relative rate of change in life history traits (L, W and K) over the study
266 period to test for potential difference in the intensity of the response between strategies (1SW
267 or 2SW). The average rate of change (in % per year) of each life history trait was directly
268 estimated as the slope of a linear model over time, based on standardized data. The effects of
269 the sea-age and region on the rate of change were introduced as categorical effects, and the
270 year was considered as a continuous variable. Nested models without time trend or with time
271 trends identical for each region and/or sea-age (additive models) were also considered. The
272 best models were selected using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC; Burnham &
273 Anderson, 2002). Then for each region, the difference in the rate of change (i.e. slope) in the
274 1SW and 2SW strategies were tested using the Wald test using the ‘*glht*’ function of the
275 ‘*multcomp*’ R package that automatically corrects for multiple comparison.

276

277 RESULTS

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279 Differences in mean life history traits between regions and sea-ages

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282 For each trait (L, W, K and D), the data was best explained by a GAM including both an
283 average term and a smoothed temporal trend specific to each combination of region and sea-
284 age (Table II). The average interaction term (region by sea-age) explained most of the
285 observed variability in the data, revealing high differences in the average level of life history
286 traits across sea-age classes and regions. The strongest difference occurred between the North
287 West (Normandy and Brittany) and the South West (Aquitaine) regions. Fish from Aquitaine
288 were noticeably larger and heavier than fish from Normandy and Brittany for both 1SW and
289 2SW fish. 1SW fish from Normandy were also heavier than in Brittany, but no clear
290 difference was detected in 2SW fish between the two regions. 2SW fish from Aquitaine were
291 caught later than fish from Normandy and Brittany, the average difference in the date of river
292 entry between the three regions being much weaker for 1SW. Comparatively, the smoothed
293 time trends explained a much lower part of the deviance, even when considering an
294 interaction with sea-age and/or region (Table II).

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296

297 Time trends in life history traits and common fluctuations between regions

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300 Overall, the nonlinear smoothed temporal trends on the 1987-2013 period revealed a general
301 delay in the date of river entry and a decrease in fish weight and length (Figure 2). However,

302 time trend were specific for each region and sea-age. In particular, the coefficient of condition
303 of fish was more contrasted between sea ages than the other life history traits. K exhibited a
304 clear downward trend in 1SW fish but remained rather stable in 2SW fish. Changes in the date
305 of capture also exhibited differences between regions and sea age. 1SW fish from Normandy
306 and Brittany showed the most important delays of return migration, with a lag of up to 40
307 days throughout the study period. Meanwhile, the observed delays for 2SW fish and 1SW fish
308 in Aquitaine were only 20 days. Besides, smoothed time trends also suggested synchronous
309 fluctuations across regions with a 7-8 years period, with high similarity between Brittany and
310 Normandy (Figure 2). Variations in size and weight suggested a common temporal pattern
311 across regions, characterized by repeated declines in both phenotypic traits around years
312 1990, 1998 and 2007.

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314

315 The analysis of correlations between de-trended time series further support the hypothesis of a
316 synchronous change in L, W, K or D across regions (Table III). Indeed, for each trait, most of
317 the correlations between regions were positive and significant, even after accounting for
318 autocorrelation. The strongest correlations between regions were found for L and W. The
319 strongest correlations were also found between Brittany and Normandy, which are
320 geographically close. Correlations between more distant regions (i.e. Brittany and Aquitaine,
321 Normandy and Aquitaine) were generally weaker. Also, with the exception of D, between-
322 region correlations seemed stronger in 2SW fish than in 1SW fish.

323

324

325 In general, the date of river entry showed opposite trends to length and weight, a later date of
326 river entry being associated with a decline in the length and weight of fish. Interestingly, those

327 opposite smoothed time trends were also associated with negative correlations at a shorter
328 time scale, with 7-8 years periodicity in the date of river entry being in antiphase with those of
329 length and weight (Figure 2).

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331

332 Rate of change over the study period (1987-2013)

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335 Consistently with the analyses of non-linear trends, average rates of change in traits were
336 almost all negative (Figure 3) and depended upon both region and sea-age (based on AIC and
337 explained deviance, not shown). Overall, pairwise comparison tests of the difference between
338 rate of change in traits (per sea-age and per region) revealed a stronger decline in W, L and K
339 for 1SW fish than for 2SW fish. The largest rates of change were found for weight, with an
340 average rate of -1.00% per year for 1SW fish and -0.32% per year for 2SW in Brittany. The
341 body condition of 1SW fish declined by 0.20 % (Aquitaine) to 0.51 % (Normandy) per year
342 while the rate of change in K was close to zero for 2SW and could even be positive in some
343 regions. The relative rate of change in L was not different in 1SW and 2SW (p-value > 0.05),
344 fish having lost on average 0.10% (Brittany) to 0.20% (Aquitaine) of their initial body length
345 per year between 1987 and 2013.

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348 DISCUSSION

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351 Our analysis provides new insights on temporal changes in *S. salar* life history traits across
352 France over the last three decades, and contributes to reduce the gap in knowledge by
353 providing further empirical evidence of a long suspected change in life history of *S. salar*
354 throughout its entire distribution area. Using a large dataset from rod and line and commercial
355 catches, we describe a decline in individual length, weight, together with a delay in the
356 migration phenology of adult *S. salar* returning to French rivers. Our analysis highlighted
357 similarities in time trends between regions, but the rate of change in life history traits clearly
358 depends upon the tactic at sea.

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361 Strength and limitation of the data

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364 Time trends in *S. salar* life history traits were analyzed using catch data from recreational and
365 commercial salmonid fishery. This unique dataset provides a large scale observatory of wild
366 French *S. salar* populations. Commercial fisheries of *S. salar* are almost all closed since the
367 early 1990's (ICES, 2016), and scientific data are only available for a few rivers and generally
368 cover only short periods of time. By contrast, recreational hook and line fishery are operating
369 in almost all rivers across the species distribution range. Thus, when available catch data
370 provides to date the broadest spatio-temporal sampling of *S. salar* populations across several
371 countries (Bacon *et al.*, 2009; Valiente *et al.*, 2011; Fjørtoft *et al.*, 2014).

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373

374 The advantages offered by the large spatial and temporal coverage of this fishery dataset are
375 balanced by the difficulty to control the sampling effort. Recreational fishery data might

376 indeed suffer from non-random sampling caused by fishery management rules and intrinsic
377 variability in fishing effort (Bacon *et al.*, 2009). Although catch data virtually come from
378 newly arrived fresh-run fish only (Thorley *et al.*, 2005; Bacon *et al.*, 2009), the date of capture
379 may still provide a biased estimate of the date of river entry, and this bias may differ between
380 regions. For instance, fish from Aquitaine generally undertake a longer journey in freshwater
381 before being caught (longer rivers) than fish from Brittany and Normandy (smaller and
382 shorter rivers). Hence, the late migration timing reported for Aquitaine (2SW) may be partly
383 explained by a specific spatial setting compared to the other regions rather than by a latter
384 return to coastal waters. This late migration can also reflect a distinct flow regime in early
385 spring, that is driven by melting snow on the Adour - Gaves rivers (where most catches come
386 from). By contrast, we assume that our results on the relative variability and the rate of
387 change in this trait within a given region are robust.

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389

390 By removing catches made in the end of fishing season, our analysis might miss key
391 ecological signal. In particular, we would not be able to detect any potential compensatory
392 mechanism that would occur between early and late migrating fish. For instance one can
393 hypothesize that a decline in body size among studied fish might be balanced by an increasing
394 number of large fish in a potential late run. Although we cannot rule out such a process, the
395 late captures represented only a small proportion of fish in France, which may thus have a
396 limited impact on our results. Migration monitoring using a fish trap on the Scorff River
397 shows that less than 10% of all 1SW and 2SW fish were trapped in fall, with no evidence of
398 growth compensation (E. Prévost, pers. com.).

399

400 Lastly, although raw data were available at the scale of single rivers, samples were pooled at
401 the regional scale to dampen the effect of uncontrolled sampling variability and local
402 heterogeneity. Indeed, the low signal-to-noise ratio due to low sample size or uncontrolled
403 variation of the fishing effort in space and time for single rivers (e.g., due to alleged report of
404 the fishing effort from one river to the other within the fishing season) would impede the
405 detection of time trends. Aggregating data on several rivers of the same region helped
406 disentangling the temporal variation attributable to large scale environmental change, from
407 local factors.

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410 Evidence for change in phenotypic traits

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413 In France, differences in average phenotypic traits and migration date were detected between
414 regions. Interestingly, those patterns have already been described in previous analyses on
415 older data (Prévost, 1987), thus highlighting the stability of the regional contrast over several
416 decades. As discussed previously, the date of river entry may be overestimated in Aquitaine
417 due to uneven sampling design across regions. Genetic drivers of the migration timing may
418 also be considered (Hansen & Jonsson 1991). But this effect is unlikely to explain weight and
419 length differences. Such phenotypic differences are likely to reflect distinct genetic pools
420 (Perrier at al., 2011).

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422

423 Overall, this study highlighted important change in phenotypic traits in French *S. salar*
424 populations over the period 1987-2013. In all regions, we detected a significant decline in fish

425 length and weight, as well as a delay in the date of river entry. Results are consistent with
426 patterns already reported in several other rivers in Northern Europe. Similar declines in *S.*
427 *salar* length (about 1 cm per decade), weight (200-400 g per decade) or 1SW body condition
428 have been observed in Scotland (Bacon *et al.*, 2009; [Todd *et al.*, 2011](#)), Ireland (Quinn *et al.*,
429 2006), Norway ([Jonsson *et al.*, 2016](#)) or North America ([Friedland *et al.*, 2005](#)). The observed
430 delay in migration timing (about 5-10 days per decade) is also congruent with previous
431 findings in Scotland (Youngson *et al.*, 2002; Todd *et al.*, 2012), England (Aprahamian *et al.*,
432 2008) or Spain (Valiente *et al.*, 2011).

433

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435 Moreover, our correlation analysis highlighted common inter-annual fluctuations in
436 phenotypic traits across all three French regions. Interestingly, we detected more similarities
437 in the temporal variability of those traits between neighboring French Northern regions
438 (Brittany and Normandy) than between these two Northern regions and the more distant
439 Aquitaine. These results support the hypothesis of a segregation of populations by distance
440 (Jensen *et al.*, 2011; [Juanes *et al.*, 2004](#); [Perrier *et al.*, 2011](#)), which may be driven by spatial
441 or temporal segregation in post-smolt migration route and feeding zone at sea (Bacon *et al.*,
442 2009; Jensen *et al.*, 2011) or to a difference in river profiles ([Juanes *et al.*, 2004](#); Valiente *et*
443 *al.*, 2011). French *S. salar* populations face environmental conditions that differ in many ways
444 from the conditions encountered by Northern Europe populations (e.g. longer migration
445 routes, higher freshwater temperature, high anthropic pressure ...). However, the impact of a
446 large scale phenomenon in the marine environment, initially described in Northern Europe,
447 seemed to prevail in France as well. Therefore, by providing empirical evidence for Southern
448 populations, our study nicely complements existing literature to better describe the “big
449 picture”.

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452 A response to marine environmental change

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455 Taken together, results suggest a globally coherent response across French populations and

456 beyond, in Northern Europe. They strongly support the hypothesis of a common

457 environmental mechanism affecting *S. salar* population throughout its distribution area.

458 Temporal similarities across regional patterns, e.g. time series varying in phase or antiphase,

459 strongly suggest a response to common environmental drivers jointly impacting the marine

460 phase of the life cycle of different populations spawning in distant rivers. Several studies

461 suggested that a major decline in growth condition would be responsible for the decrease in *S.*

462 *salar* length and weight ([Friedland *et al.*, 2000](#); [Peyronnet *et al.*, 2007](#); [McCarthy *et al.*, 2008](#);

463 [Jensen *et al.*, 2011](#)), while within river migration timing increased. As a mechanism, it has

464 been suggested that bottom-up control on food resources during the early marine phase of

465 post-smolts may have negatively impacted both growth and survival ([Friedland *et al.*, 2009](#);

466 [Jensen *et al.*, 2011](#); [Beaugrand & Reid, 2012](#)). Triggered by ocean warming, a major trophic

467 shift in the North Atlantic Ocean has been documented in the 1990s, with reported changes in

468 zooplankton communities up to seabird population dynamics ([Durant *et al.*, 2004](#); [Beaugrand](#)

469 [et al., 2008\). As a result, decrease in prey abundance and energetic quality may have altered](#)

470 *S. salar* growth potential at sea ([Otero *et al.*, 2012](#), [Mills *et al.*, 2013](#)). [Jonsson *et al.* \(2016\)](#)

471 further noted that direct effect of temperature are unlikely to explain observed changes but

472 argued in favor of an impact of stock rebuilding in the Herring *Clupea harengus* L. 1758, or

473 in other Clupeides species, which may compete for resources with salmon smolt, as observed

474 in the Baltic Sea.

475

476

477 It has been demonstrated that the mortality of fish at sea is size dependent (Lorenzen, 1996;
478 Gislason *et al.*, 2010). In particular, *S. salar* marine mortality is believed to be mostly caused
479 by predation and will then be size- and growth-dependent ([Friedland *et al.*, 1993](#); [Friedland *et al.*, 2000](#)), i.e. larger and more robust fish have a higher probability to escape predation. As a
480 consequence, decreasing growth rate at sea may also be responsible for a decline in marine
481 survival, as also suggested by synchronous patterns across Northern Europe reported by
482 several authors ([Friedland *et al.*, 1993](#); [Friedland *et al.*, 2000](#); [Peyronnet *et al.*, 2007](#); [Chaput
483 2012](#)). However, our catch data do not inform about survival in French populations.
484 Nevertheless, *S. salar* monitoring using a fish trap on the Scorff river showed substantial
485 change in marine survival, the average return rate decreasing from 10,3 % (1997-2003) in the
486 2000's to 4,8 % in recent years (2009-2013) (ICES, 2016).

488

489

490 The temporal coherence (i.e. direct anti-phase) in declining length/weight and delaying run
491 migration observed in our populations appeared compatible with such a degradation of
492 feeding conditions at sea. Within a given sea-age class, the spawning run lasts several weeks,
493 and its seasonal timing is expected to be driven by the tradeoff between reproduction and
494 survival. The reproductive benefit associated with extra feeding opportunities at sea would be
495 balanced against the risk of mortality during an extra time at sea ([Clark, 1994](#)). As a
496 consequence, decreasing growth rate may call for an extra time at sea, aiming at maximizing
497 growth potential, as observed in some Scottish rivers ([Todd *et al.*, 2012](#)). However, if
498 resource conditions turn out to be so degraded, the decline in growth rate would be too large
499 to be compensated by a mere delay in the date of river entry. Such a mechanism may generate

500 opposite patterns of temporal variability in migration timing and length or weight (using de-
501 trended data), as observed in French populations. Interestingly, Valiente *et al.* (2011) also
502 reported negative correlations between medium term fluctuations of length/ weight and the
503 date of river entry.

504

505

506 Different responses between 1SW and 2SW

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508

509 Our results stressed that the relative change in weight and condition of returning *S. salar* was
510 weaker and less variable in 2SW than in 1SW. Similar differences between 1SW and 2SW
511 seemed to be present in Scottish (Bacon *et al.*, 2009) and Norwegian populations (Jonsson &
512 Jonsson, 2004) as well. Thus, there is a need to better account for differences in *S. salar*
513 anadromous tactics to better understand the demographic and ecological mechanisms
514 underlining population changes.

515

516

517 1SW and 2SW *S. salar* have first similar migration routes at the beginning of their journey at
518 sea and then separated migration routes where they may encounter different growth condition
519 at sea. One cannot exclude that change in the feeding condition experienced by 1SW has been
520 more stringent than in 2SW fish, thus explaining a weaker decline in 2SW weight. A
521 proportionally lower decrease in the length of 2SW fish may also point at some compensatory
522 mechanism. For instance, 2SW may move toward more favorable feeding grounds which
523 would then support a higher growth rate over the second year at sea (Auer *et al.*, 2010; Hogan
524 & Friedland, 2010). However, this hypothesis appears poorly supported by recent studies that

525 analyzed growth patterns on fish scales for Northern populations, showing that growth
526 increment in 2SW during the second year at sea was not significantly higher than growth rate
527 over their first year at sea ([Hogan & Friedland, 2010](#); *Jensen et al.*, 2011; *Jonsson et al.*,
528 2016).

529

530

531 In *S. salar*, the duration of the marine phase of the life cycle may reflect different strategy of
532 resource allocation between key fitness components (e.g. survival, growth, reproduction).

533 Intrinsic difference in allocation rule may generate contrasted response to a given change in

534 resource availability between 1SW and 2SW fish. Females are largely dominant among 2SW

535 fish ([Baglinière & Porcher, 1994](#); [Fleming, 1996](#); [Barson et al. 2015](#)), thus suggesting that

536 difference in allocation rule between 1SW and 2SW could emerges from difference in

537 allocation rules between males and females. Noteworthy, males and females have specific

538 physiological and behavioral constraints over the reproduction period; they are also

539 characterized by distinct tactics at sea. In *S. salar*, female's fitness is more strongly driven by

540 body size than male's one because sexual maturation process requires greater energetic needs

541 in females than in males (i.e. to maximize fecundity). The tight dependence between sex and

542 sea age classes might explain the difference in individual's response to changes in

543 environmental conditions between sea ages classes. As a result, 1SW fish (preferentially

544 males) might have favored activities related to survival at the expense of mass gain, and 2SW

545 fish (preferentially females) might have favored a large body size as a way to maximize

546 fecundity in surviving individuals, as suggested by our data.

547

548

549 In more details, the rate of change was not uniform for all life history traits in 1SW and 2SW.
550 Actually, we highlighted a similar response in 1SW and 2SW across regions for body length.
551 In *S. salar*, growth and body size are considered as key drivers of marine survival and female
552 fecundity (Thorpe *et al.*, 1984; [Fleming, 1996](#); [Jonsson *et al.*, 1996](#)). But a large body size is
553 also a key feature of reproduction success in anadromous males, as it confers an advantage in
554 terms of intra-sexual competition for mate ([Fleming, 1996](#)). Therefore fish length appears as
555 an important fitness component (Marschall *et al.*, 1998) in both males and females, i.e. in both
556 1SW and 2SW fish. Not surprisingly, length happened to be the most preserved life history
557 trait in our analysis: low variability and weak decline. Similarly Todd *et al.* (2008) reported a
558 disproportional decline in body weight compared with length in Scottish 1SW fish (22% vs.
559 4% declines, respectively). This pattern seems consistent with the life history theory, which
560 states that phenotypic traits the more strongly connected to fitness are expected to be the more
561 preserved - or canalized - against environmental stochasticity ([Stearns & Kawecki, 1994](#);
562 [Pfister, 1998](#); [Caswell, 2001](#); [Gaillard & Yoccoz, 2003](#)). At the population level, the relative
563 conservatism in body length, compared to other traits, can be perceived as a positive signal for
564 population viability.

565

566

567 Conclusion

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569

570 This large scale study on French populations contributes to reduce the gap in knowledge by
571 providing further empirical evidence of a long suspected change in life history of *S. salar*
572 throughout its North East distribution area. Results also revealed different rates of change
573 between 1SW and 2SW fish, thus pointing out the importance of considering the complexity

574 of life history strategies when exploring mechanisms of changes in *S. salar* phenotypic traits.

575 We hope that this long due analysis for France would encourage other authors to make their

576 dataset available to the scientific community, which is a prerequisite to improve our

577 understanding of major cross-border ecological mechanisms.

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579

580 Acknowledgments

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583 The authors are grateful to the National Center for the Interpretation of Salmonid Catches for

584 running the national catch declaration scheme on Atlantic salmon in France, with the

585 technical and financial support of INRA 1036 U3E (R&D unit Onema-INRA « Gest'Aqua »).

586 Lucie Montorio was funded by the 'Region Bretagne' and INRA.

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814

815 Tables

816 Table I. Sample size: number of 1SW and 2SW *S. salar* per region considered in the study.

Age	Normandy	Brittany	Aquitaine
1SW	3716	12053	959
2SW	3110	9577	3870

817

818

819 Table II. Modelling date of river entry, length, weight and condition in *S. salar* caught in
 820 France as a function of sea age (A), region (R) or year (Y). Deviance explained, F-test p-
 821 values and delta AIC are presented for each model. s() indicated GAM smoothing.
 822

Covariates	Date of river entry		Length		Weight		Condition	
	Dev exp	Δ AIC	Dev exp	Δ AIC	Dev exp	Δ AIC	Dev exp	Δ AIC
A×R	61.26	-91970	71.94	-153634	68.68	-91117	3.34	-11314
A×R+s(Y)	63.7	-1790	72.84	-889	70.17	-1335	5.24	-533
A×R + s(Y,by=A)	64.47	-572	72.95	-95	70.29	-96	6.26	-283
A×R+s(Y,by=A×R)	64.95	-313	73.17	-161	70.55	-177	6.65	-61

823

824

825 Table III. Cross-correlations in date of river entry, length, weight and condition between
 826 regions for each sea-age class. The significance of the tests is presented as follow: “***”,
 827 “**”, “*” and “.” correspond to p-values inferior or equal to 0.001, 0.01, 0.05 and 0.1,
 828 respectively. The p-values are corrected to account for the autocorrelation in the times series.
 829

	Normandy / Brittany	Normandy / Aquitaine	Brittany / Aquitaine
1SW Date	0.46*	0.38*	0.01
1SW Length	0.35.	0.56**	0.57**
1SW Weight	0.46*	0.44*	0.68***
1SW Condition	0.47*	0.34.	0.45*
2SW Date	0.32.	0.01	-0.02
2SW Length	0.75***	0.54**	0.52**
2SW Weight	0.86***	0.57**	0.42*
2SW Condition	0.66***	0.46*	0.25

830

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832 Figure captions

833 Figure 1. Description of the three regions considered in the analysis: Normandy, Brittany and
834 Aquitaine. In each region, the name of the rivers that provided *S. salar* captures are presented.

835

836 Figure 2. Change in the date of river entry, length, weight and condition in 1SW and 2SW *S.*
837 *salar* from Normandy, Brittany and Aquitaine.

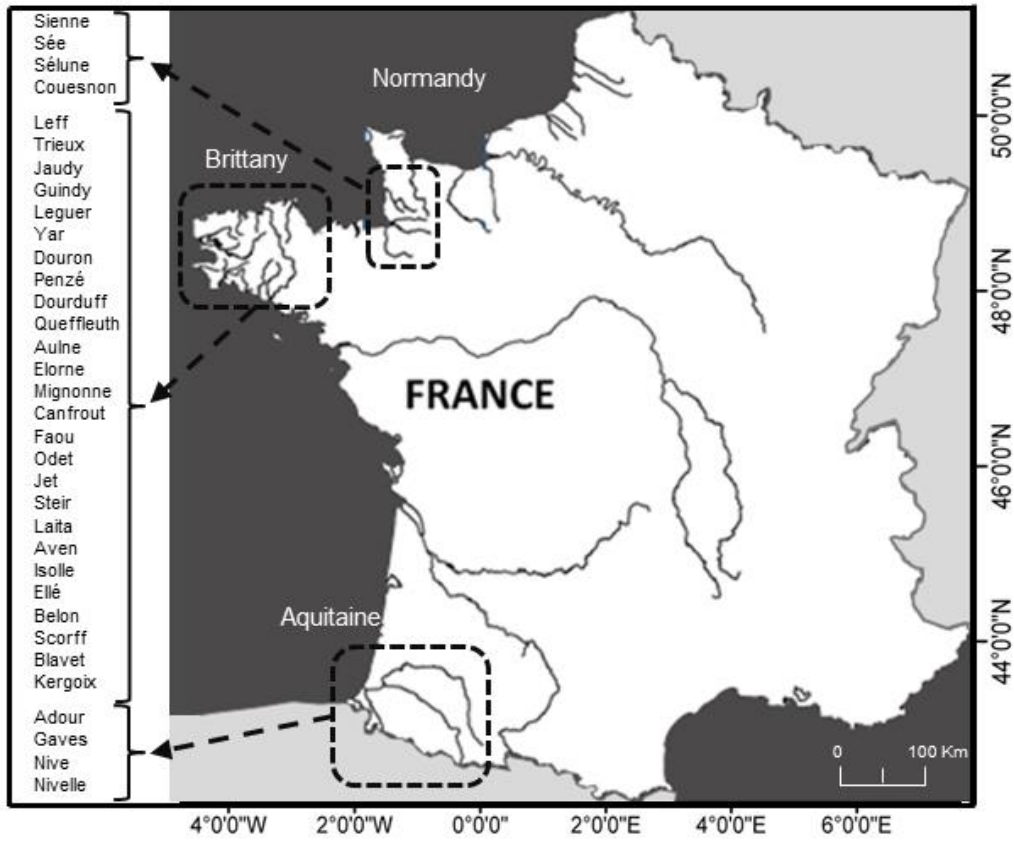
838

839 Figure 3. Linear rate of change in the date of river entry (D), length (L), weight (W) and
840 condition (K) in 1SW and 2SW *S. salar* from Normandy (N), Brittany (B) and Aquitaine (A).
841 The the difference in the rates of change between 1SW and 2SW was assessed with a Wald
842 test. The significance of the test is presented as follow: “****”, “***”, “**” and “.” correspond to
843 p-values inferior or equal to 0.001, 0.01, 0.05 and 0.1, respectively.

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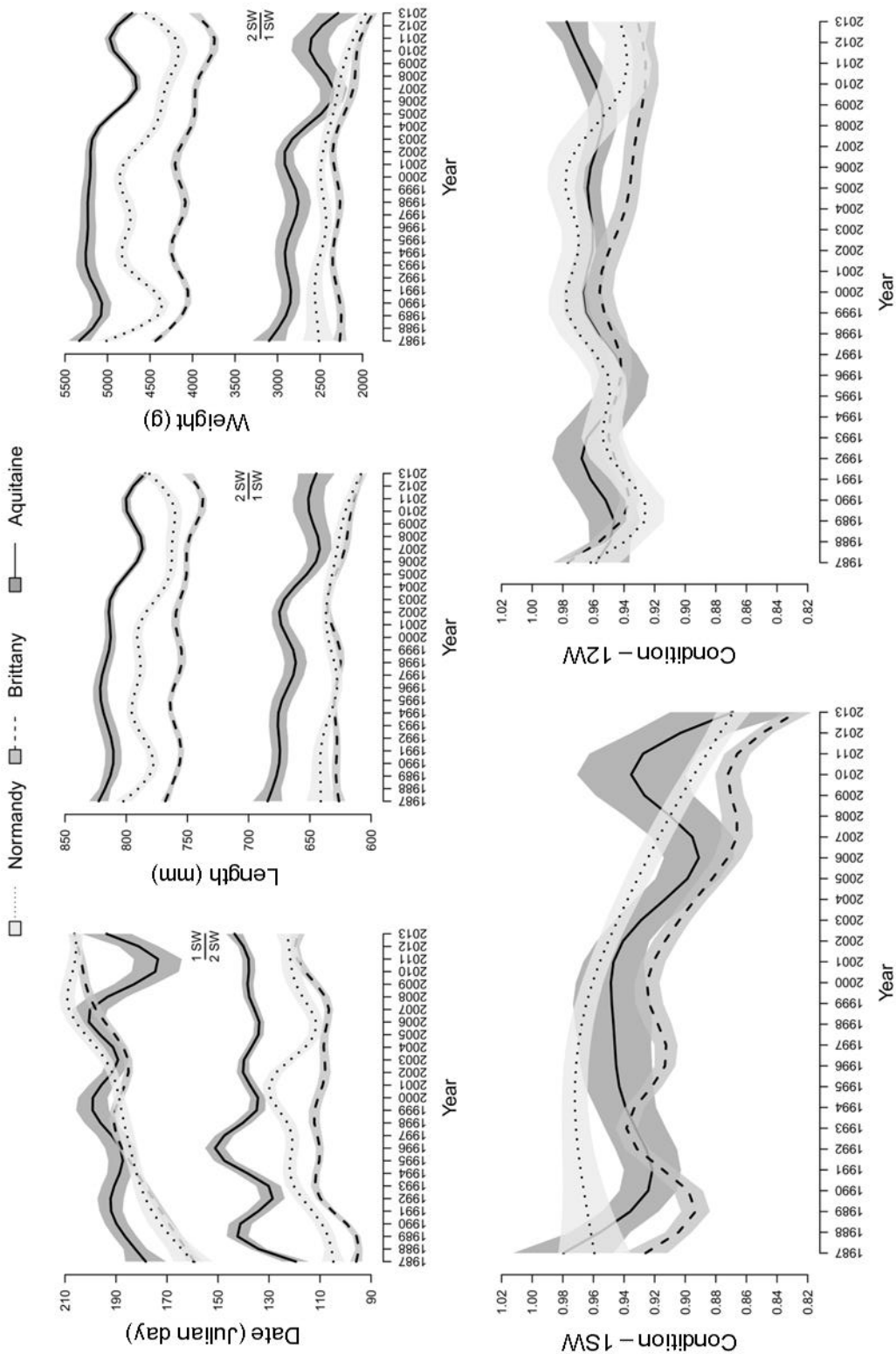
846 Figure 1



847

848

849 Figure 2

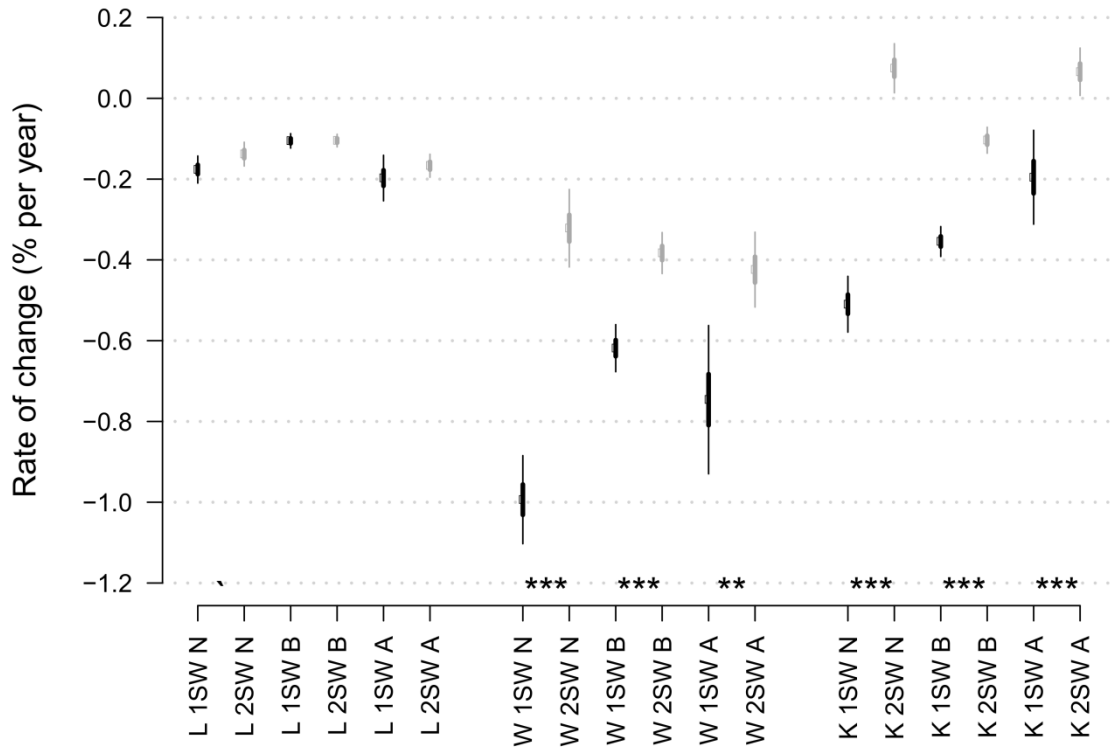


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853 Figure 3



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856 Supporting information

857 Figure captions

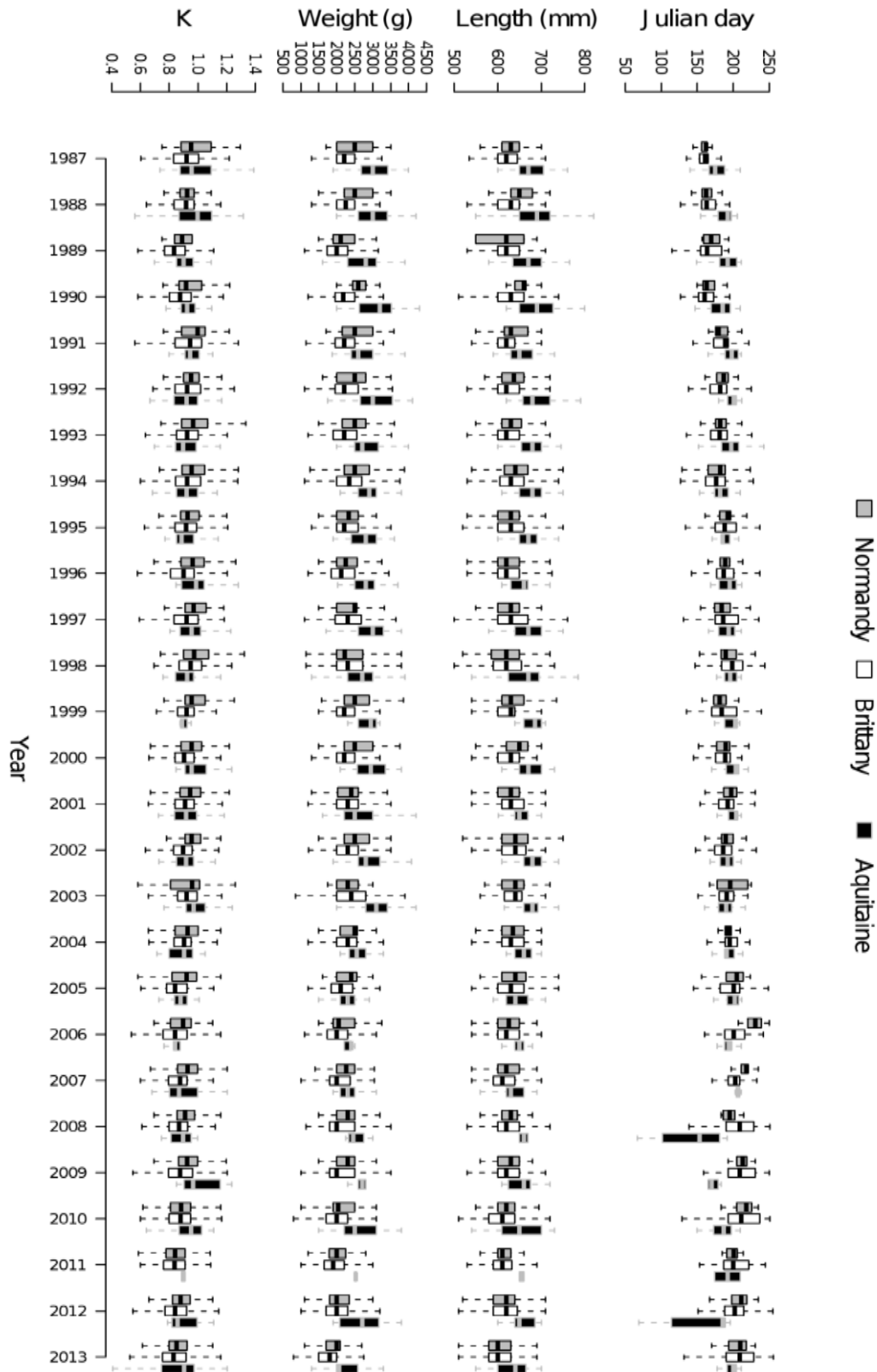
858

859 Figure A1. Boxplots of raw data for the date of river entry, the length, the weight and the
860 condition (K) of 1SW fish caught by the French hook and line recreational salmon fishery
861 (spring and summer catches).

862

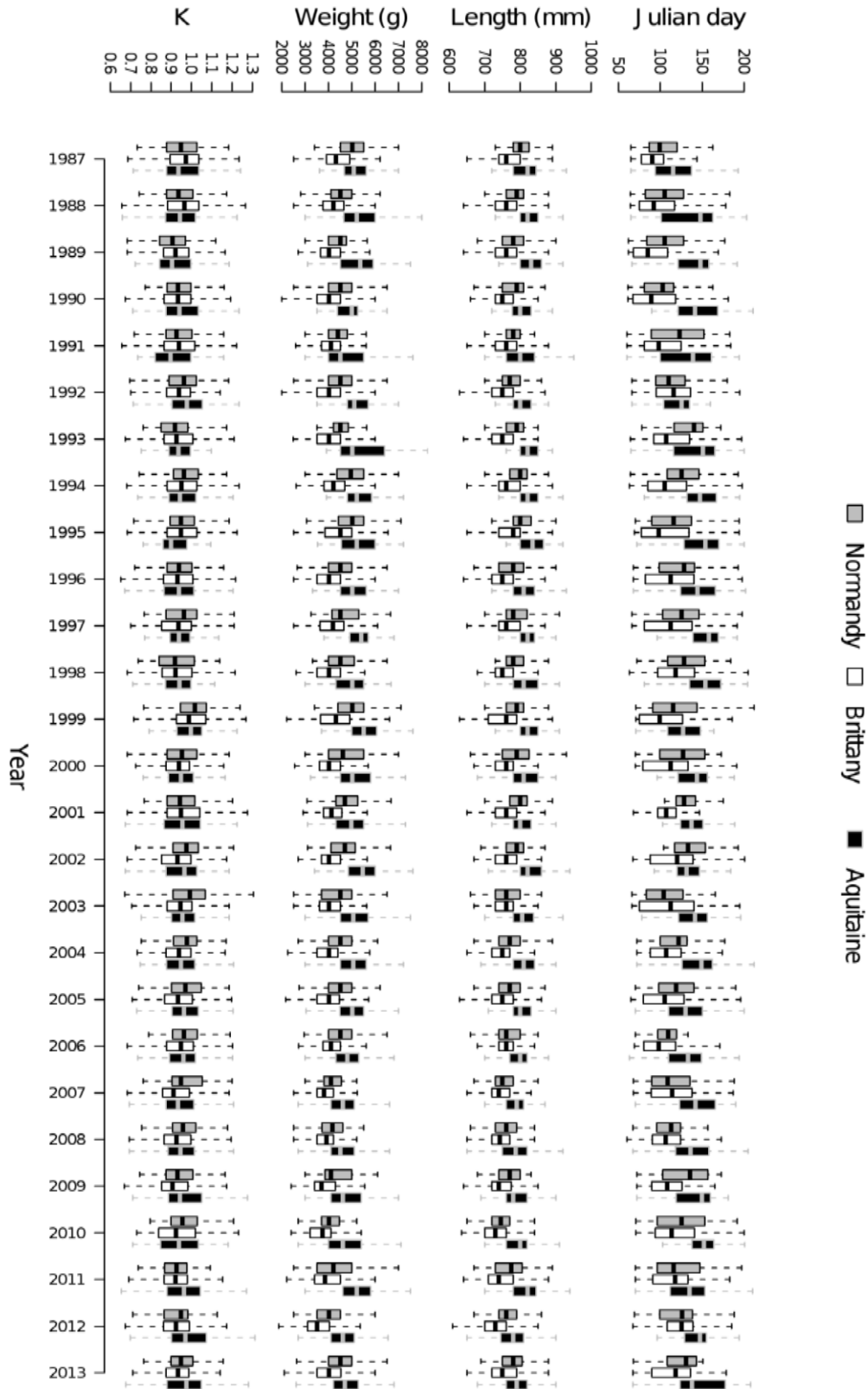
863 Figure A2. Boxplots of raw data for the date of river entry, the length, the weight and the
864 condition (K) of 2SW fish caught by the French hook and line recreational salmon fishery
865 (spring and summer catches).

866



867

868 Figure A1.



869

870 Figure A2.