

1 Revisiting the influence of top-down and bottom-up pressures on Wa hia hé:ta (yellow perch
2 *Perca flavescens* Mitchill, 1814) population dynamics in Kaniatarowanenneh (the Upper St.
3 Lawrence River): Implications for collaborative research
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27 **Abstract**

28 Kaniatarowanenneh (St. Lawrence River) is the outflow of one of the world's largest
29 freshwater ecosystems and its ecological health has implications for resource management. The
30 population dynamics of an ecologically and economically important fish, the Wa hia hé:ta,
31 Mohawk for yellow perch (*Perca flavescens* Mitchill, 1814), are considered by including data
32 that extends to the past century to redress temporal gaps in comparative literature. We found both
33 a significant top-down effect from piscivorous fish as well as a significant bottom-up effect
34 related to total phosphorus on yellow perch relative abundance in the Lake Ontario-Upper St.
35 Lawrence system. Regarding the bottom-up effect, the current state of yellow perch reflects the
36 population size prior to cultural eutrophication (pre-1940s/50s) likely responding to the re-
37 oligotrophication of the system. These findings emphasize the importance of considering
38 historical records in fish population dynamics research to incorporate shifting population
39 baselines into fisheries management. The study also demonstrates the need for collaborative
40 approaches that bring critical new insights and multivocality.

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43 Keywords: fisheries, shifting baseline syndrome, nutrients, predator-prey, Great Lakes

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Résumé

Kaniatarowanenneh (fleuve Saint-Laurent) est l'exutoire de l'un des plus grands écosystèmes d'eau douce du monde et sa santé écologique a des implications pour la gestion des ressources. La dynamique de la population d'un poisson important sur le plan écologique et économique, Wa hia hé:ta (perchaude ou *Perca flavescens* Mitchill, 1814 en mohawk), est examinée en incluant des données qui remontent au siècle dernier afin de combler les lacunes temporelles dans la littérature comparative. Nous avons constaté un effet *top-down* significatif des poissons piscivores, ainsi qu'un effet *bottom-up* significatif lié au phosphore total sur l'abondance relative de la perchaude dans le système du lac Ontario et du haut Saint-Laurent. Concernant l'effet *bottom-up*, l'état actuel de la perchaude reflète la taille de la population avant l'eutrophisation culturelle (avant les années 1940 et 1950) et répond probablement à la réoligotrophisation du système. Ces résultats soulignent l'importance de prendre en compte les données historiques dans la recherche sur la dynamique des populations de poissons afin d'intégrer les changements dans la population de référence dans la gestion des pêches. L'étude démontre également le besoin d'approches collaboratives qui apportent de nouvelles perspectives critiques et de la plurivocité.

Mots clés : pêcheries, syndrome de changement de base de référence, nutriments, prédateurs-proies, Grands Lacs

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74 **Introduction**

75 In the Great Lakes-St. Lawrence system, community engagement is considered necessary

76 for the future health of the basin (Krantzberg et al. 2014). In 2018, the St. Lawrence River

77 Institute of Environmental Sciences in partnership with the Mohawk Council of Akwesasne's

78 Environment Program began pursuing answers to community-driven questions about the health

79 of Kaniatarowanenneh (the Upper St. Lawrence River). This initiative, called the "Great River

80 Rapport" (<https://riverrapport.ca/>), is a collaborative project that engages community members,

81 both Indigenous and Non-Indigenous, and their knowledges to contribute to the understanding of

82 the health of the river. Community consultations from 2018 to 2020 culminated in yellow perch

83 *Perca flavescens* Mitchill, 1814 populations being selected as one of 35 ecological indicators for

84 further research. For Indigenous People, the Wa hia hé:ta or yellow perch are recognised as a

85 being with agency that carry important roles and responsibilities to the Kanienkehaka and were

86 identified as a species of concern in Kaniatarowanenneh through engagement with local

87 communities. Indeed, yellow perch populations have declined in regions of the Upper St.

88 Lawrence River over the past 50 years (e.g., the Thousand Islands, Resseguie and Gordon

89 2020a). Declines have also been reported in other areas of the Great Lakes (e.g., Lake Huron,

90 Fielder 2008; Lake Michigan, Marsden and Robillard 2004). These temporal declines are

91 concerning because yellow perch hold ecological, cultural, and economic importance in the

92 region.

93 As of 2020, the species is the most abundant pelagic fish, the most targeted and harvested

94 species fished recreationally, and contributes the highest biomass of all species caught

95 commercially in Kaniatarowanenneh (OMNRF 2019; OMNRF 2021). These fish are associated
96 with vegetated shorelines throughout the growing season, which provide cover and suitable
97 spawning habitat for the species (Krieger et al. 1983; Brown et al. 2009). Yellow perch are
98 voracious consumers of lower trophic prey (Brown et al. 2009). Their diets can vary
99 ontogenically with a switch from zooplankton to benthic macroinvertebrates and fish when
100 reaching larger size ranges (Scott and Crossman 1973; Brown et al. 2009). Yellow perch are
101 major prey of walleye *Sander vitreus* Mitchill, 1818 and other piscivorous fish including
102 smallmouth bass *Micropterus dolomieu* Lacepède, 1802 and northern pike *Esox lucius* Linnaeus,
103 1758 in the Great Lakes (Scott and Crossman 1973; Hoyle et al. 2017; Pothoven et al. 2017).
104 They are also major prey of piscivorous birds such as the double-crested cormorant
105 *Phalacrocorax auritus* Lesson, 1831 (Johnson et al. 2015), osprey *Pandion haliaetus* Linnaeus,
106 1758 (Dunstan 1974) and bald eagle *Haliaeetus leucocephalus* Linnaeus, 1766 (Van Daele and
107 Van Daele 1980). Yellow perch therefore play an integral role in supporting Great Lakes-St.
108 Lawrence food webs but continue to be subjected to multiple anthropogenic pressures.

109 Based on the biological and physicochemical characteristics of the Lake Ontario system
110 (i.e., relatively species rich and warm water), theoretically, the food webs should be regulated by
111 both bottom-up and top-down pressures (Frank et al. 2007). However, a previous study of Lake
112 Ontario found no evidence of bottom-up controls and only limited evidence of top-down
113 controls, but this study did not include yellow perch and was temporally limited to ~ a decade of
114 data (Bunnell et al. 2014). There are several potential factors that may be contributing to yellow
115 perch declines in the Lake Ontario-St. Lawrence system, including competition (e.g., with round
116 goby *Neogobius melanostomus* Pallas, 1814, Duncan et al. 2011), predation from species such as
117 double-crested cormorants (Burnett 2002), land use changes and dynamics in productivity

118 (Hudon et al. 2011; Giacomazzo et al. 2020), as well as shoreline hardening and overharvesting
119 (Mailhot et al. 2015; Magnan 2020). While some studies have investigated the potential drivers
120 of yellow perch declines in other regions of the Great Lakes (e.g., see Marsden and Robillard
121 2004; Fielder 2008), no research to our knowledge has focused on the specific declines recorded
122 in the Lake Ontario-Upper St. Lawrence River interface. It is important to understand how the
123 above-mentioned factors affect yellow perch populations given the sensitivity of this species in
124 the river. For instance, a large fluvial lake in the lower reaches of Kaniatarowanenneh, Lake
125 Saint-Pierre, has experienced a collapse of yellow perch stocks, thought to have been caused by
126 changes in nutrient inputs from tributaries and overharvesting (Hudon et al. 2011; Mailhot et al.
127 2015; Magnan 2020). A complete moratorium of the yellow perch fisheries has been in place
128 since 2012 in Lake Saint-Pierre to attempt to recover stocks but has unfortunately been
129 unsuccessful to date as the current population size no longer supports sustainable recruitment
130 rates (Hudon et al. 2011; Maillot et al 2015; Magnan 2020).

131 In Kaniatarowanenneh, long-term monitoring of fish communities was initiated in 1977
132 by the New York State Department of Environmental Conservation (NYSDEC) in the American
133 portion of the Thousand Islands through a standardized annual gillnetting program (Resseguie
134 and Gordon 2020a). In the 1980s, this program was expanded to monitor Canadian portions of
135 the Upper St. Lawrence River (Resseguie and Gordon 2020b) along with additional gillnetting
136 programs for the region initiated by the governments of Ontario (Ministry of Natural Resources
137 and Forestry, OMNRF 2021) and Quebec (Ministère des Forêts, de la Faune et des Parcs, La
138 Violette et al. 2003). The establishment of these long-term monitoring programs allowed for a
139 better characterization of yellow perch population trends including the declines over the past

140 several decades (e.g., 1977-2020, Resseguie and Gordon 2020a) and such data have been used to
141 inform fisheries management decisions for the region.

142 In fisheries management, emphasis is often put on harvesting as a major anthropogenic
143 force driving fish stocks, although the need for more holistic frameworks have been identified
144 (Piczak et al. 2022). Specifically, incorporating historic information into present models would
145 improve our understanding of the impact of fisheries on population stocks (Pauly 1995). The
146 failure to do so often leads to miscalculations of what is a desirable state of the natural
147 environment leading to ineffective management, contributing to shifting baseline syndrome
148 which is often seen in fisheries (Soga and Gaston 2018). Through the 20th century, the Great
149 Lakes experienced extensive cultural eutrophication (the excess of nutrients in a water body
150 derived from anthropogenic activity); the fish monitoring programs in Lake Ontario and the
151 Upper St. Lawrence River were initiated near the height of this phenomenon (i.e., in the 1970s;
152 Schelske 1991). No research to date has assessed yellow perch population dynamics pre-1970s in
153 the Lake Ontario-St. Lawrence River system. Commercial fishing records for the region do
154 extend beyond fishery-independent assessments and while they can only be used as a proxy for
155 population abundance trends (Pope et al. 2010), they have the advantage of dating estimates back
156 to the early 1900s (Baldwin et al. 2018).

157 We drew on community concerns related to yellow perch population dynamics to
158 determine the research questions of this project and the efforts to understand the datasets were a
159 direct result of extensive consultation with diverse partners, including data providers, academics,
160 government agencies, First Nations organisations and community members as well as local non-
161 Indigenous community members. The goal of this study was to determine the state and drivers of
162 yellow perch populations in the Lake Ontario-Upper St. Lawrence system through time. To reach

163 this goal, we: (1) determined if commercial harvests data can be used as a proxy for yellow perch
164 relative abundance, and (2) evaluated the impact of top-down (e.g., piscivorous predators) vs.
165 bottom-up (e.g., total phosphorus) pressures on yellow perch populations at both historical and
166 contemporary time frames. This paper is a first step to show the importance of extending the
167 timeframe to include historic data to provide new insights into the health of Kaniatarowanenneh.
168 We open a discussion on the need to conduct ecological research ‘in a good way’ (Reid et al.
169 2023) by engaging local and Indigenous community perspectives with their connection to the
170 land and their deep and long knowledge to provide additional context to the scientific data
171 currently considered in resource management.

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174 **Methods**

175 **Lake Ontario-St. Lawrence system**

176 The Great Lakes-St. Lawrence system is one of the world’s largest freshwater
177 ecosystems, representing ~ 20% of the world’s surface freshwater. More than 30 million people
178 live along its shores, resulting in dramatic alterations to the system (Wuebbles et al. 2019). Lake
179 Ontario is the smallest of the Great Lakes by area measuring 18 960 km² and has a drainage area
180 of just over 60 000 km² (Theberge 1989). At Kingston (ON), Lake Ontario drains into
181 Kaniatarowanenneh, the main natural outflow of the system. The Upper St. Lawrence River,
182 between Kingston and Cornwall (ON), is approximately 180 km long and has a long-term
183 average discharge of ~ 6 800 m³/s (Lefaiivre et al. 2016). Water quality conditions (in particular
184 total phosphorus) in the main channel of the river are largely dominated by the influence of Lake

185 Ontario in the upper reaches (Farrell et al. 2010). Our data were derived from the Lake Ontario
186 and Upper St. Lawrence River (Thousand Islands) portions of the system.

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188 **Gillnetting data**

189 The catch per unit effort (CPUE) for our response variable, yellow perch, along with an
190 indicator of top-down pressure, a piscivorous fish index, were collected through governmental
191 index gillnetting programs. The piscivorous index represented the sum of walleye, northern pike
192 and smallmouth bass CPUE to represent the top-down effect. These species were selected
193 because they represent major yellow perch predators and detailed catch data were available.
194 Yellow perch and the piscivorous fish index CPUE from 1977 to 2020 were obtained from the
195 New York State Department of Environmental Conservation (NYSDEC) long-term fish
196 monitoring dataset. NYSDEC initiated the long-term biomonitoring program in 1977 to track
197 changes in fish communities in the American waters of the Thousand Islands (which is directly
198 adjacent to the outflow of Lake Ontario) as part of their *Warmwater Fisheries Assessment*
199 (Resseguie and Gordon 2020a). Every year between late-July and early-August, the NYSDEC
200 deployed multi-panel gillnets measuring 61 m long by 2.4 m high, with mesh sizes of 38, 51, 64,
201 76, 89, 102, 127, and 152 mm, parallel to the shore at fixed locations. 16 gillnets were deployed
202 annually from 1977-2020; additional gillnets were added to the sampling protocol in later years
203 (1982), but we chose to exclusively use the data from the 16 original nets to ensure that there
204 was no impact/bias of sampling location and unbalanced sampling design on the data (Fig. 1). In
205 2004, multifilament gillnets were updated to monofilament gillnets, and prior multifilament
206 yellow perch catch data were corrected by a factor of 1.35 to account for these changes in
207 gillnetting gear. The correction factor was derived from a paired net comparison (deploying both

208 multi- and mono-filament nets at sites) that determined the extent of the discrepancy in gear on
209 all fish species caught, in which there was a need to correct yellow perch CPUE, but no need to
210 correct walleye, northern pike or smallmouth bass CPUE (Resseguie and Gordon 2020a).

211 Approximately half of the gillnets were deployed in depths ranging from 3-10 m and the other
212 half were deployed in deeper waters with depths ranging from 10.1-18.3 m. The CPUE was
213 expressed as the number of yellow perch or the sum of walleye, northern pike and smallmouth
214 bass (piscivorous fish index) caught per net night (Resseguie and Gordon 2020a).

216 **Historic commercial harvests**

217 The biomass (in lbs) of yellow perch commercial harvests for Lake Ontario and the
218 Upper St. Lawrence River was obtained from 1913-2015 from Baldwin et al. (2018) (Fig. 2).
219 The commercial harvests of piscivorous fish predators were used to assess the potential effect of
220 top-down pressures on yellow perch commercial harvests. It combined both walleye (1918-2015)
221 and northern pike (1913-2015) harvests obtained from Baldwin et al. (2018). Open-access data
222 were available from the Lake Ontario-Upper St. Lawrence system in its entirety and could not be
223 parsed out into different sections thus we treated the data source for the whole system (Baldwin
224 et al. 2018).

225 Commercial harvests were from Lake Ontario and the New York waters of the St.
226 Lawrence River from 1913 – 1941 and harvests from the Ontario waters of the St. Lawrence
227 River were added for the years 1941 – 2015. Therefore, data from Lake Ontario and the Ontario
228 and New York waters of the St. Lawrence River (which extend to the beginning of Lake St.
229 Francis) were included in the analysis. Data originating from the Quebec portions of the Upper
230 St. Lawrence River were not available therefore not included in this study. The commercial

231 harvests data were rounded to the nearest thousand lbs (see Baldwin et al. 2018). The associated
232 fishing effort data were not readily available for this dataset.

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234 **Total phosphorus (TP)**

235 Both contemporary and historic total phosphorus data were obtained to describe the
236 nutrient status of the system through time. To test the relationship between more contemporary
237 total phosphorus concentrations and annual gillnetting data, we used the total phosphorus data
238 from 1977-2019 collected by the Ontario Ministry of the Environment, Conservation and Parks
239 (MECP 2020). Data included weekly total phosphorus concentrations ($\mu\text{g/L}$) from the head of
240 the St. Lawrence River, measured at a depth of 10.5 m at the Kingston – King Street Water
241 Treatment Plant (44.22211, -76.50279), directly upstream from the gillnet locations (Fig. 1).
242 Measurements were not collected in the years 2013 and 2014, therefore these years were not
243 included in the analyses. We calculated average July-August total phosphorus concentrations to
244 match the yellow perch gillnet sampling periods (also sampled in July and August).

245 To test for temporal historic relationships, we used the estimated historic lake water total
246 phosphorus concentrations for Lake Ontario derived from the sediment-inferred total phosphorus
247 (SI-TP) model for the period 1913 to 1977 calculated by Moyle and Boyle (2021). The model
248 was applied to a sediment phosphorus profile taken from the Rochester basin of Lake Ontario
249 (Fig. 1, core G32; Schelske et al. 1988) using a site-specific apparent settling velocity ($v=19$;
250 Chapra and Dolan 2012) to calculate the phosphorus retention coefficient (R_p). Moyle and Boyle
251 (2021) calculated lake-wide total phosphorus concentrations by scaling the sediment core mass
252 accumulation rates to an estimated basin-wide phosphorus burial rate from Kemp and Harper
253 (1976). Based on the core dating, total phosphorus concentrations were estimated for intervals of

254 1-18 years (Moyle and Boyle 2021). Moyle and Boyle (2021) coupled the SI-TP data with
255 published mean annual surface water monitoring data for the region collected from 1978-2010
256 by Chapra and Dolan (2012).

257

258 **Analyses**

259 All statistical analyses were computed in R (v. 4.2.2, R Core Team 2021) and RStudio (v.
260 2022.12.0, RStudio Team 2021).

261 Generalized Additive Models (GAMs) are widely used and represent a flexible
262 regression-based method that relates response variables to predictors using smooth functions
263 (Wood 2017). GAMs are appropriate statistical analyses to model non-linear trends in time series
264 data (Simpson 2018). GAMs were used to 1) determine if commercial harvests data can be used
265 as a proxy for yellow perch CPUE, and 2) determine the effect of piscivorous fish predators (i.e.,
266 top-down pressure) and total phosphorus (i.e., bottom-up pressure) on both yellow perch CPUE
267 and yellow perch commercial harvests. GAMs were performed using the *mgcv* package v1.8-41
268 (Wood 2011). For objective 1, yellow perch CPUE was included as the response variable and the
269 GAM included a thin plate spline for the yellow perch commercial harvests, a Duchon spline for
270 the spatial effect of gillnet location, and a random smooth intercept to account for the year effect.
271 For objective 2, two models were built following a similar framework but at different timescales.
272 To assess the trends over more recent years (1977-2020), the first model included the yellow
273 perch CPUE as the response variable. The thin plate spline was used for the piscivorous fish
274 index CPUE and the contemporary total phosphorus for which modelled top-down and bottom-
275 up pressures, respectively. Latitude and longitude smooth interactions using a Duchon spline was
276 included in the model to account for the spatial effect of the gillnet location, and a random

277 intercept smooth for year was applied to generalize the effect over time. The second model
278 assessed the trends over a historical time scale. It included the yellow perch commercial harvests
279 as the response variable and included a thin spline for the piscivorous fish predator commercial
280 harvests and the historical total phosphorus, and a tensor product interaction to account for the
281 explanatory variables' interaction.

282 A Tweedie error distribution was applied to all GAMs to account for the left-skewed
283 distribution of the response variable. Maximum basis functions (k) were assessed using the
284 `gam.check` function while model diagnostics were validated with the `appraise` function of the
285 *gratia* package. All diagnostic plots suggest normality and homoscedasticity of the residuals
286 (Figs. S1-S3). The absence of temporal autocorrelation was verified using the `acf` and `pacf`
287 functions of the model residuals from the *stats* package (Figs. S4-S6). GAMs were visualized
288 using the *mgcViz* package v0.1.9 (Fasiolo et al. 2018)

289

290 **Results**

291 For objective 1, there was a significant relationship between yellow perch commercial harvests
292 and CPUE in the Lake Ontario-Upper St. Lawrence system (Table 1). There was a positive
293 nearly 1:1 ratio between yellow perch CPUE and yellow perch commercial harvests up until
294 harvests exceeded ~700 000 lbs per year, which then had a negative effect on yellow perch
295 CPUE (occurring in ~10% of years from 1913 to 2010) (Fig. 3). For objective 2, both timescales
296 (contemporary and historic) showed a significant effect of bottom-up and top-down pressures on
297 yellow perch CPUE and commercial harvests (Tables 2, 3). From 1977-2020, the piscivorous
298 fish index had a significant negative effect on yellow perch CPUE when the index reached ~ 20
299 CPUE (Fig. 4B). The same negative trend was detected at the historical timescale; the

300 piscivorous fish predator commercial harvests displayed a negative relationship with the yellow
301 perch commercial harvests (Fig. 5B). From 1977-2020, total phosphorus had a linear positive
302 effect on yellow perch CPUE in the Thousand Islands (Upper St. Lawrence River) up to an
303 approximate threshold of 20 $\mu\text{g/L}$, in which yellow perch CPUE plateaued (Fig. 4A). A similar
304 trend was detected at the historical timescale from 1913-2010 where total phosphorus had a
305 significant positive effect on yellow perch commercial harvests up to a threshold of
306 approximately 15 $\mu\text{g/L}$ after which a negative effect was detected (Fig. 5A). However, at high
307 total phosphorus levels, the null effect was included in the confidence interval (Fig. 5A).

308

309 **Discussion**

310 We examined the driving factors influencing the population sizes of an ecologically,
311 culturally and economically important fish in the Lake Ontario-Upper St. Lawrence system, the
312 Wa hia hé:ta (yellow perch). We found evidence of both top-down predator-derived regulation
313 (i.e., piscivorous fish) and bottom-up nutrient-derived regulation (i.e., total phosphorus) on
314 yellow perch relative abundance in the system (Tables 2, 3, Figs. 4, 5). These findings align well
315 with the theoretical framework developed by Frank et al. (2007), which hypothesized a mix of
316 top-down and bottom-up pressures influencing food webs based on the characteristics of the
317 Lake Ontario-St. Lawrence system. Our findings are however different from a study that found
318 no evidence of top-down predator-derived regulation (i.e., biomass of piscivorous fish) or
319 nutrient-derived bottom-up regulation (i.e., total phosphorus) on Lake Ontario food webs
320 (Bunnell et al. 2014). However, the authors hypothesized that this was due to a lack of analysis
321 of more historical data prior to 1998 (Bunnell et al. 2014). Our study also found some evidence
322 of top-down controls related to the commercial harvesting of yellow perch in the system when a

323 certain threshold (> 700 000 lbs) was reached (Fig. 3), but this extreme pressure was not
324 common (occurring ~10 % of years). Our results indicate that historic commercial harvests data
325 of the Lake Ontario-Upper St. Lawrence River may be used as a proxy for yellow perch relative
326 abundance of the Thousand Islands section of the Upper St. Lawrence River, given the positive
327 linear relationship between CPUE and harvests (up until 700 000 lbs harvested) from 1977-2015
328 (Fig. 3). We recognize that these relationships should be interpreted with caution as they relate
329 data from different spatial scales, with the commercial harvests data originating from the entire
330 Lake Ontario-Upper St. Lawrence River while the gillnetting monitoring data were restricted to
331 the Thousand Islands section of the river. We also cannot conclude if there was a relationship
332 between the gillnetting data and the commercial harvests data prior to the initiation of the
333 gillnetting biomonitoring program specifically. However, we found an overall similar response
334 of yellow perch gillnetting CPUE and yellow perch commercial harvests to predator-abundance
335 and TP, which suggests that they do indeed follow similar trends through time in relation to the
336 drivers (Figs. 4, 5).

337 We found a negative relationship between the number/biomass of piscivorous fish and
338 yellow perch (Figs. 4B, 5B). Predation can contribute considerably to the overall mortality of
339 larval and juvenile fishes (Hartman and Margraf 1993; Zhang et al. 2018). For example, in a
340 large lake in New York (Oneida Lake), walleye consumed between 48-58% of ages 0-1 yellow
341 perch (Van de Valk et al. 1999). In addition, yellow perch contributed between 1-31% of the
342 diets of walleye in Lake Huron (Pothoven et al. 2017). Our results oppose those found in Bunnell
343 et al. (2014) who found a bottom-up effect of prey fish abundance on piscivore biomass.
344 However, Bunnell et al. (2014) did not include yellow perch and their predatory fish were
345 salmonids (i.e., Lake Trout *Salvelinus namaycush* Walbaum in Artedi, 1792 and Chinook

346 Salmon *Oncorhynchus tshawytscha* Walbaum in Artedi, 1792) (Bunnell et al. 2014), which
347 could explain some of the inconsistencies between our results. We found both top-down and
348 bottom-up effects on the yellow perch (Tables 2, 3).

349 In the Lake Ontario-St. Lawrence system, our findings indicate total phosphorus as one
350 of the main driving factors affecting yellow perch relative abundance over the study period. The
351 decline in the yellow perch populations was part of the concerns raised by Akwesasne
352 community members that also informed and shared their perspective on the identified drivers.
353 The century-long commercial harvests data allowed us to uniquely demonstrate that current
354 yellow perch populations likely reflect the population sizes that existed prior to cultural
355 eutrophication, as we suspect as a response to the re-oligotrophication of the system (Figs. 2, 3,
356 S7). The system has experienced considerable changes in productivity over the past century.
357 Early trophic history of Lake Ontario, determined through paleolimnological records, indicate a
358 meso-oligotrophic system between 1800 and mid-1900 in the early phases of European
359 settlement, with moderate increases in total phosphorus after ca. 1850 from runoff and erosion
360 due to land clearing (Schelske 1991). However, between the 1940s and the 1970s, records
361 indicate a period of exponential anthropogenic nutrient enrichment (Schelske 1991) associated
362 with increasing human population size around the basin and related impacts, such as the clearing
363 of land associated with agricultural activities, the installation of domestic sewer systems, and the
364 introduction of phosphate-based detergents (Chapra 1977). This period of increasing nutrient
365 input to the lake shifted the system from meso-oligotrophic to meso-eutrophic (Fig. S7). Due to
366 the degradation of water quality from the eutrophication of Lake Ontario as well as the other
367 Great Lakes, a binational agreement between the USA and Canada (termed “The Great Lakes
368 Water Quality Agreement”) was signed in 1972 to reduce phosphorus inputs in the Great Lakes.

369 Pelagic phosphorus targets originally established by the agreement were met in the 1980s across
370 the Great Lakes (Hecky and DePinto 2020). Total phosphorus appears to have now decreased to
371 levels lower than the historic estimates for Lake Ontario (Fig. S7, Moyle and Boyle 2021), likely
372 due to the invasion of *dreissenid* mussels and associated effects of trapping nutrients in benthic
373 areas, termed “benthification” (Hecky et al. 2004; Farrell et al. 2010; Mayer et al. 2014). The
374 resulting shift in the trophic state of Lake Ontario and consequently, the Upper St. Lawrence
375 River, has significantly impacted the ecology of the system, thus reshaping the biological
376 carrying capacity of the river.

377 The relationship between total phosphorus and yellow perch population size is likely
378 indirect and related to increased productivity of the system with higher nutrient levels.
379 Productivity has been shown to affect the habitat quality (i.e., submerged aquatic vegetation and
380 food sources) of yellow perch in Kaniatarowanenneh (Farrell et al. 2010; Hudon et al. 2011;
381 Giacomazzo et al. 2020). Links between productivity and higher trophic levels have been
382 previously established in Lake Saint-Pierre, a fluvial lake of the St. Lawrence River that is
383 downstream of our study area (Hudon et al. 2011; Giacomazzo et al. 2020). Total phosphorus in
384 Lake Saint-Pierre was positively associated with higher abundances of submerged aquatic
385 vegetation, which were causally linked to higher yellow perch CPUE (Giacomazzo et al. 2020).
386 Lower abundances of submerged aquatic vegetation have been hypothesized to decrease yellow
387 perch survival (e.g., reduced shelter, predator-prey interactions, Giacomazzo et al. 2020).
388 Significantly lower yellow perch biomass was found in sections of Lake Saint-Pierre with low
389 total phosphorus and four times less macrophyte biomass than the mouths of nearby nutrient-rich
390 tributaries (Hudon et al. 2011). In addition, invertebrate biomass was nine times lower at the
391 oligotrophic sites compared to mesotrophic tributary mouths in Lake Saint-Pierre, with

392 significantly less abundant gastropods, littoral zooplankton, oligochaetes and insects (Hudon et
393 al. 2011). Summer zooplankton density also decreased with total phosphorus in the Thousand
394 Islands region of the river from the 1970s-2000s (Farrell et al. 2010). Invertebrates (including
395 zooplankton and benthic macroinvertebrates) are important food items for young-of-the-year
396 (YOY) yellow perch (Brown et al. 2009). YOY yellow perch that do not reach a certain
397 minimum size by the end of their first growing season are more likely to suffer size-selective
398 mortality during winter (Post and Evans 1989). In our study, we found a positive relationship
399 between total phosphorus and yellow perch CPUE (Fig. 4A). The effect of total phosphorus on
400 yellow perch relative abundance plateaued when total phosphorus was $> 20 \mu\text{g/L}$, which is
401 considered a eutrophic state in this system (based on the estimates from Chapra and Dobson
402 1981 for the Great Lakes). Eutrophication can have negative impacts on fish production through
403 shifts in invertebrate communities leading to food limitations for the yellow perch (Hayward and
404 Margraf 1987; Schaeffer et al 2000; Vander Zanden and Vadeboncoeur 2002).

405 Our analysis of commercial harvests and biomonitoring data demonstrated that the Upper
406 St. Lawrence River has experienced baseline shifts in yellow perch stocks. Biomonitoring
407 programs to assess fish communities in the Upper St. Lawrence River began in 1977 (Resseguie
408 and Gordon 2020a). Prior to this period, exponential nutrient enrichment occurred throughout the
409 basin and coincided with a period of peak yellow perch population size. Yellow perch
410 populations have since declined considerably. Hence, the gillnet biomonitoring programs only
411 captured the post nutrient-derived elevated carrying capacity and subsequent decline, therefore,
412 are not representative of the more historic state of the Lake Ontario-Upper St. Lawrence system.
413 Based on the historic commercial fishery harvests data, yellow perch populations have shifted in
414 tandem with the trophic state of the system over the past century, but with a lag in time for

415 nutrients to affect higher trophic levels (Figs. 2, 5A, S7). This assessment highlights the
416 importance of understanding the variability in baseline carrying capacity in relation to trophic
417 state to ensure sustainable fishery practice.

418 Failure to incorporate historic knowledge into contemporary models can lead to shifting
419 baseline syndrome, which has been observed in fisheries across the globe (Pauly 1995; Soga and
420 Gaston 2018). Evidence of shifting baseline syndrome is seen through an altered perception of
421 the condition of the environment between generations (also referred to as “environmental
422 generational amnesia” Kahn 2002) (for examples see Katikiro 2014; Sáenz-Arroyo et al. 2005).
423 Three main reasons have been identified to be causing the shifting baseline syndrome: (1) lack of
424 data (including historic data dating back > 1 generation), (2) loss of interaction with nature, and
425 (3) lack of familiarity with the environment (Soga and Gaston 2018). A European study has
426 shown that most biomonitoring programs were initiated in the late 20th century, failing to capture
427 the full extent of anthropogenic impacts to the natural system (Mihoub et al. 2017). This was also
428 the case for the Upper St. Lawrence River, with gillnet biomonitoring programs starting in the
429 1970s-1990s (La Violette et al. 2003; Resseguie and Gordon 2020a; b; OMNRF 2021), which
430 was within the height of many anthropogenic pressures to the system (i.e., cultural
431 eutrophication). Our results demonstrate that the carrying capacity of yellow perch in the system
432 has shifted twice over the past century, likely driven by bottom-up regulation (once due to
433 cultural eutrophication and once due to re-oligotrophication). In 1984, the government of Ontario
434 implemented the individual transferable quota system for commercial fisheries in the province,
435 which allowed commercial harvests to be more readily tracked (Taylor et al. 2012). Based on
436 available data, between 1993 and 2020, the commercial yellow perch quotas in the Upper St.
437 Lawrence River have either been consistent (Thousand Islands [zones 1-5, 2-5], OMNRF 2021)

438 or have increased over time (Lake St. Francis [zone 1-7], OMNRF 2021), despite the significant
439 decrease in productivity to the system which, as shown in this paper, was associated with a
440 reduction in the yellow perch carrying capacity. Constant or increased quotas/harvests coupled
441 with environmental change reducing fishery stocks leads to production overharvests (harvests
442 exceed biomass production in a given year) (Embke et al. 2019). Further research is needed in
443 the Upper St. Lawrence River to investigate the effects of production overharvests in the region
444 and potentially adjust fishery models accordingly.

445 Changes have been made to the recreational fisheries of the Upper St. Lawrence River,
446 for example, in 2004 a catch limit was set for the Ontario portion of the river of 25-50 yellow
447 perch per day, depending on the licence type (i.e., either conservation or sport fishing licence)
448 (OMNRF 2004). However, yellow perch mortality rates associated with the recreational fishery
449 still greatly outweigh that of the commercial fishery in parts of the Upper St. Lawrence River
450 (e.g., Lake St. Francis, OMNRF 2021). Changes in fisheries management to incorporate shifting
451 baselines are critical at this time given the known sensitivity of the yellow perch stocks to
452 nutrients and overharvesting in the river (as seen by the population decline further downstream in
453 Lake Saint-Pierre, Mailhot et al. 2015). In this study, we identified the historic baseline
454 population for yellow perch in the Lake Ontario-Upper St. Lawrence system which reflects a
455 population estimate closer to the present relative abundance of yellow perch in the river (Fig. 2).
456 We encourage the incorporation of this baseline into the fisheries management of the region.
457 These data do not exist in most locales and do not exist prior to European settlement, thus other
458 methods to incorporate historic information are needed to allow adaptive fisheries management.

459
460 **Implications for collaborative research along Kaniatarowanenneh (the St. Lawrence River)**

461 This paper is an example of the type of research questions we can address using a
462 reflexive and collaborative framework. The project forms part of a larger initiative which
463 highlighted Wa hia hé:ta (yellow perch) population dynamics in Kaniatarowanenneh as of
464 concern following extensive collaborations with rightsholders and stakeholders. Participation of
465 collaborators throughout the analysis and interpretation of the data were central to the scientific
466 findings. To address the questions raised through this collaborative approach, we relied on a
467 variety of data sources, including historic data from sediment cores, commercial fisheries and
468 biomonitoring programs. Despite various challenges in bringing disparate datasets together, the
469 findings from this study demonstrate the benefits that can be realized from commitments to such
470 endeavours, for important fish species, such as, in this case, yellow perch.

471 The standardization of biomonitoring programs across Kaniatarowanenneh would greatly
472 benefit the region and reduce the current challenges of analyzing and interpreting the data across
473 a spatial scale where data collection methods differ. Developing infrastructure for collaboration
474 that is sustainable and “supportive” (meaningful relationship building) would advance the
475 scientific programs along Kaniatarowanenneh. Collaborative structures must include Indigenous
476 Communities and build meaningful relationships to avoid the hyper-mystification of Indigenous
477 Identity and Knowledge. Such knowledge systems manifest in a variety of forms and pathways,
478 that are both conceptual and tangible, and include a non-linear understanding of deep time. An
479 approach of this nature can ensure that data gaps are filled and limited historical data are
480 expanded upon, with input from communities that have long and meaningful cultural
481 connections to the landscape.

482 Future research for this initiative will include studying the ecological connectivity of all
483 aspects of Kaniatarowanenneh and contribute to the wellbeing of the Great River into the future.

484 We will work towards the development of methods that reflect the Kaswentha (Two-Row
485 Wampum) teachings, which is a peace treaty between the Haudenosaunee and Dutch and reflects
486 their mutual commitment to respecting each other's autonomy in perpetuity (Ransom and
487 Ettenger 2001). The objective is not to subsume the two paradigms into each other. Instead, it is
488 meant to inform our collaborative efforts and how these can improve the products of our
489 different knowledge systems answering complex questions. This includes understanding how
490 fish are connected to the land (e.g., shoreline hardening and agricultural runoff), birds (e.g.,
491 cormorants and eagles), invasive species (e.g., round goby, zebra mussels *Dreissena polymorpha*
492 Pallas, 1771 and quagga mussels *Dreissena bugensis* Andrusov, 1897), and other aspects of the
493 ecosystem, including communities of People, and how they will adapt to the challenges these
494 present, along with challenges such as climate change.

495 The language to traverse these communications across paradigms has yet to be created,
496 but the conversation is occurring and requires research, such as the current study, to show the
497 potentiality and value embedded in this labour. We recommend developing a research
498 framework that would benefit from local knowledges which have the potential to provide unique
499 and important historical perspectives to protect Kaniatarowanenneh in the future.

500

501 **Acknowledgments**

502 We would like to thank all members of our team for their efforts and our collaborators for
503 making this project possible. We would like to thank the data collectors/providers for access and
504 the anonymous reviewers for their feedback which significantly improved the paper. The
505 graphical abstract was created by Stephany Hildebrand (Art Director, Visual Communications
506 Specialist) and Kate Schwartz (yellow perch illustration). Thanks to Yves Paradis, Philip

507 Brodeur and other reviewers for feedback and revisions. We would like to thank our funding
508 agencies: Mitacs Accelerate, RBC Foundation, and family foundations. We would like to thank
509 Philip Ling for providing accommodations for a writing retreat.

510

511 **Competing Interests**

512 The authors declare there are no competing interests.

513

514 **Data Availability**

515 Commercial fisheries data (Baldwin et al. 2018): <http://www.glf.org/great-lakes-databases.php>

516

517 Annual total phosphorus data (MECP): [https://data.ontario.ca/dataset/lake-water-quality-at-](https://data.ontario.ca/dataset/lake-water-quality-at-drinking-water-intakes)
518 [drinking-water-intakes](https://data.ontario.ca/dataset/lake-water-quality-at-drinking-water-intakes)

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520 All other data was retrieved from data requests to authors

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776 **Figure Captions**

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778 **Fig. 1.** The Lake Ontario-Upper St. Lawrence River (Thousand Islands) locations of the gillnet
779 (n=16) surveys sampled by the New York State Department of Environmental Conservation
780 (NYSDEC; Resseguie and Gordon 2020a), surface water total phosphorus measurements
781 (sampled at the Kingston Intake centre, MECP 2020) and the sediment core location G32
782 (Schelske 1988) used to model historic total phosphorus concentrations (Moyle and Boyle 2021).
783 Map created with ArcGIS Pro (v. 2.9.2) and World Light Gray Canvas Map (ESRI et al. 2021),
784 projection NAD83.

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786 **Fig. 2.** Yellow perch commercial harvests of Lake Ontario and the Upper St. Lawrence River
787 (Ontario and New York waters) from 1913-2015. Data obtained from Baldwin et al. (2018).

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789 **Fig. 3.** Generalized additive model (GAM) assessing the partial effect of yellow perch
790 commercial harvests (x 1000 lbs) on the yellow perch relative abundance (CPUE), while
791 accounting for spatial effect of gillnet location and the random effect of year. Shaded area
792 indicates the 95% confidence interval, dashed line represents the null effect, and the rug plot
793 (ticks on the x axis) are the observations of the predictor variables.

794

795 **Fig. 4.** Generalized additive model (GAM) assessing the effect of A) total phosphorus (TP;
796 $\mu\text{g/L}$) and B) piscivorous fish (walleye, northern pike and smallmouth bass CPUE) on the yellow
797 perch abundance (CPUE) while accounting for the random effect of year and the spatial effect of

798 gillnet location. Shaded area indicates 95% confidence interval, dashed line represents the null
799 effect, and the rug plot (ticks on the x axis) are the observations of the predictor variables.
800 **Fig. 5.** Generalized additive model (GAM) assessing the effect of A) historical total phosphorus
801 (TP; $\mu\text{g/L}$), and B) the effect of piscivorous predator commercial harvests (PPCH, x 1000 lbs) on
802 the yellow perch commercial harvests (x 1000 lbs) while accounting for the interaction between
803 historical total phosphorus and piscivorous predator commercial harvests. Shaded area indicates
804 95% confidence interval, dashed line represents the null effect, and the rug plot (ticks on the x
805 axis) are the observations of the predictor variables.

Table 1. Statistical summary of the generalized additive model (GAM) of the effect Yellow Perch commercial harvest (x 1000 lbs) on the Yellow Perch relative abundance (CPUE) while accounting for the random effect of year, and the spatial effect of gillnet location. edf indicates the estimated degrees of freedom and Ref.df represents the residual degrees of freedom.

Significant parametric (A) and partial effects (B) are indicated by p -values <0.05 .

A. parametric coefficients	Estimate	Standard Error	t-value	p-value
(Intercept)	2.70	0.05	54.41	<0.0001
B. smooth terms	edf	Ref.df	F-value	p-value
s(Harvest)	3.01	3.34	16.50	<0.0001
s(Year)	20.62	37	1.34	<0.0001
s(Longitude, Latitude)	13.20	15	13.27	<0.0001
R²-adjusted	0.30			
Deviance explained	37.5			

Table 2. Statistical summary of the generalized additive model (GAM) of the effect of total phosphorus (TP, $\mu\text{g/L}$) and piscivorous fish (Walleye, Northern Pike and Smallmouth Bass CPUE) on the Yellow Perch abundance (CPUE) while accounting for the random effect of year, and the spatial effect of net location. Edf indicates the estimated degree of freedom and Ref.df represents the residual degree of freedom. Significant parametric (A) and partial effects (B) are indicated by p -value <0.05 .

A. parametric coefficients	Estimate	Standard Error	t-value	p-value
(Intercept)	2.68	0.06	48.22	<0.0001
B. smooth terms	edf	Ref.df	F-value	p-value
s(TP)	2.34	2.45	15.43	<0.0001
s(Piscivorous fish)	1.00	1.00	5.27	0.022
s(Year)	25.66	39.00	2.04	<0.0001
s(Longitude, Latitude)	12.91	15.00	13.15	<0.0001
R²-adjusted	0.30			
Deviance explained	37.9			

Table 3. Statistical summary of the generalized additive model (GAM) of the effect of historical total phosphorus (TP, $\mu\text{g/L}$) and piscivorous predator commercial harvests (Walleye and Northern Pike, x1000lbs) on the Yellow Perch commercial harvests (x1000 lbs) while accounting for the interaction between historical total phosphorus and piscivorous predator commercial harvests (PPCH). Edf indicates the estimated degree of freedom and Ref.df represents the residual degree of freedom. Significant parametric (A) and partial effects (B) are indicated by p -value < 0.05 .

A. parametric coefficients	Estimate	Standard Error	t-value	p-value
(Intercept)	5.80	0.08	74.03	<0.0001
B. smooth terms	edf	Ref.df	F-value	p-value
s(TP)	3.54	3.84	12.61	<0.0001
s(PPCH)	1.88	2.26	25.66	<0.0001
ti(TP, PPCH)	2.84	3.69	2.47	0.0512
R²-adjusted	0.67			
Deviance explained	75.1			

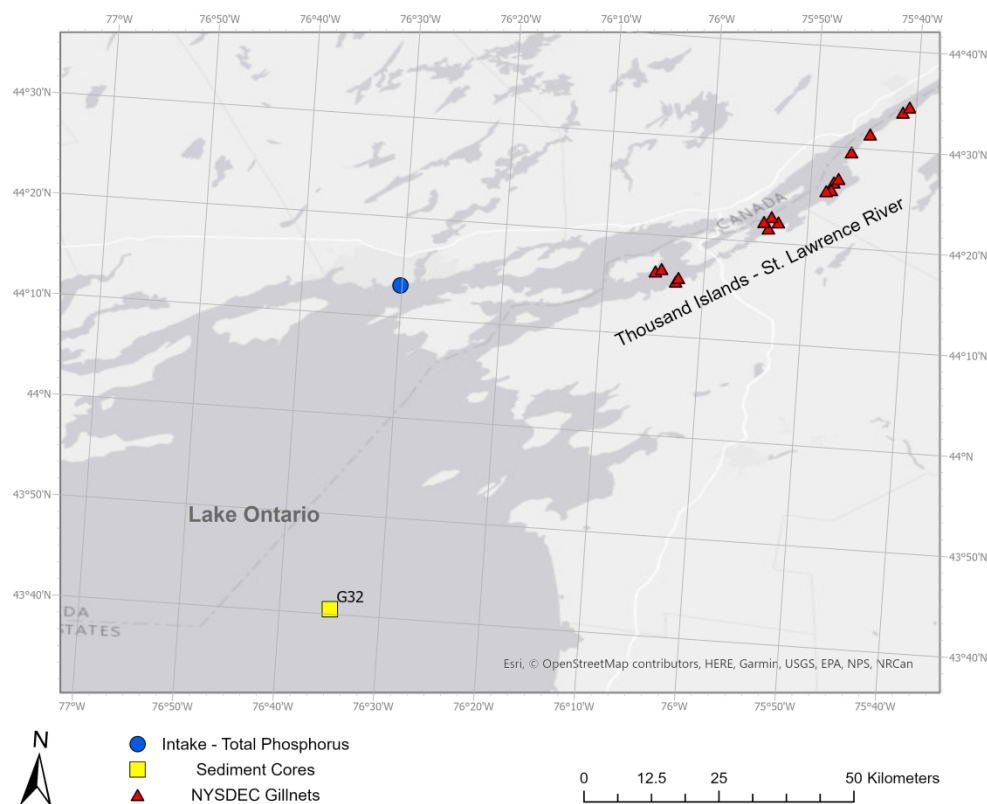


Fig. 1. The Lake Ontario-Upper St. Lawrence River (Thousand Islands) locations of the gillnet ($n=16$) surveys sampled by the New York State Department of Environmental Conservation (NYSDEC; Resseguie and Gordon 2020a), surface water total phosphorus measurements (sampled at the Kingston Intake centre, MECP 2020) and the sediment core location G32 (Schelske 1988) used to model historic total phosphorus concentrations (Moyle and Boyle 2021). Map created with ArcGIS Pro (v. 2.9.2) and World Light Gray Canvas Map (ESRI et al. 2021), projection NAD83.

228x190mm (400 x 400 DPI)

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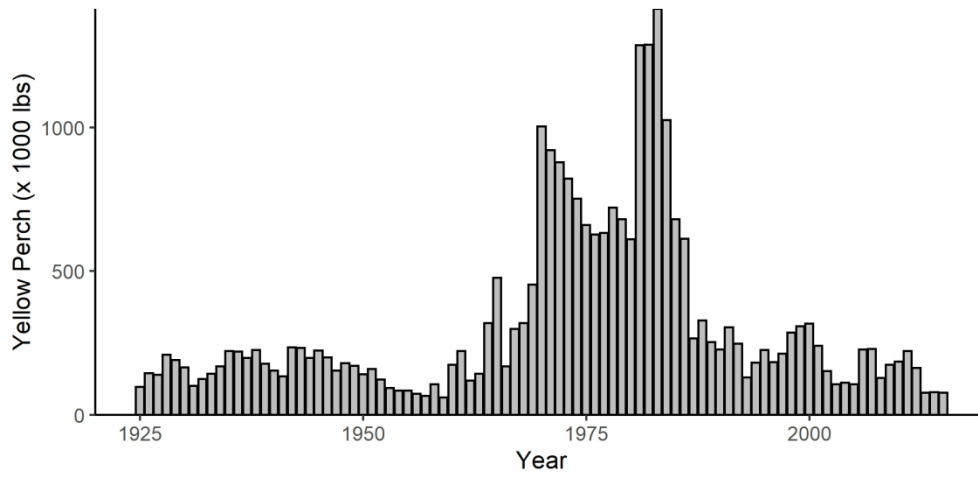


Fig. 2. Yellow perch commercial harvests of Lake Ontario and the Upper St. Lawrence River (Ontario and New York waters) from 1913-2015. Data obtained from Baldwin et al. (2018).

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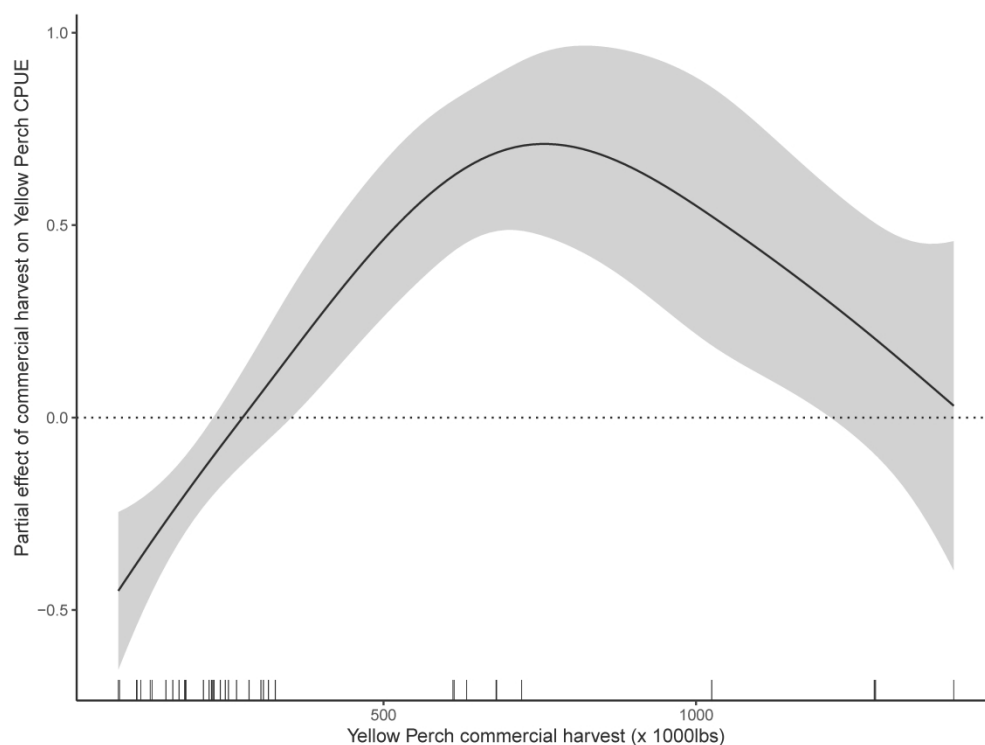


Fig. 3. Generalized additive model (GAM) assessing the partial effect of yellow perch commercial harvests (x 1000 lbs) on the yellow perch relative abundance (CPUE), while accounting for spatial effect of gillnet location and the random effect of year. Shaded area indicates the 95% confidence interval, dashed line represents the null effect, and the rug plot (ticks on the x axis) are the observations of the predictor variables.

516x387mm (236 x 236 DPI)

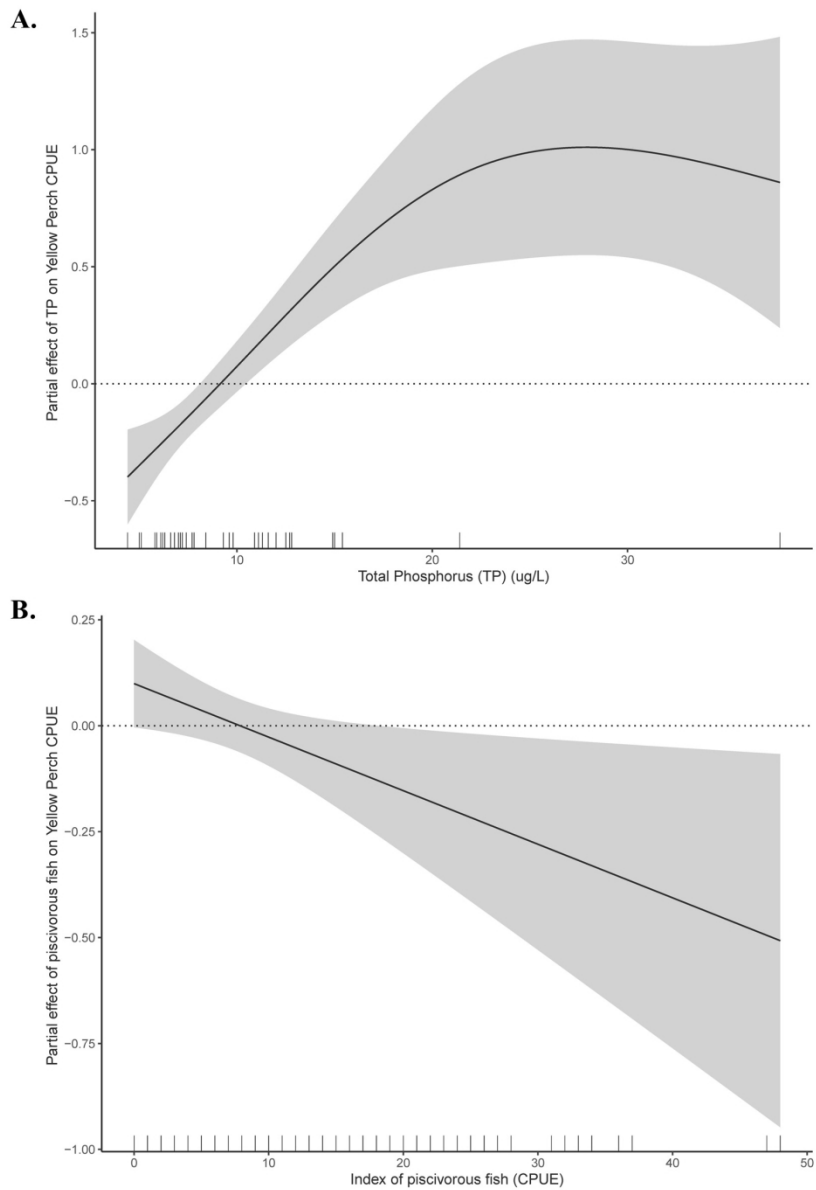


Fig. 4. Generalized additive model (GAM) assessing the effect of A) total phosphorus (TP; $\mu\text{g/L}$) and B) piscivorous fish (walleye, northern pike and smallmouth bass CPUE) on the yellow perch abundance (CPUE) while accounting for the random effect of year and the spatial effect of gillnet location. Shaded area indicates 95% confidence interval, dashed line represents the null effect, and the rug plot (ticks on the x axis) are the observations of the predictor variables.

126x184mm (330 x 330 DPI)

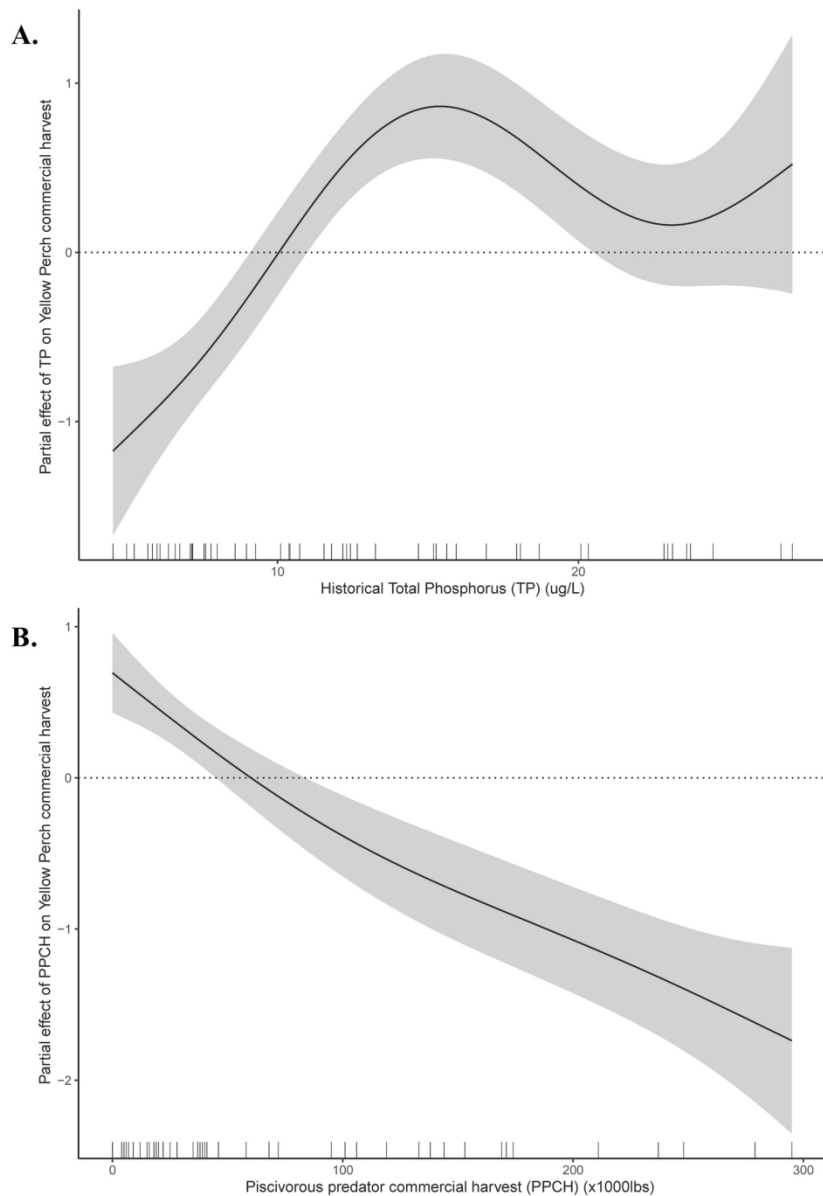


Fig. 5. Generalized additive model (GAM) assessing the effect of A) historical total phosphorus (TP; $\mu\text{g/L}$), and B) the effect of piscivorous predator commercial harvests (PPCH, x 1000 lbs) on the yellow perch commercial harvests (x 1000 lbs) while accounting for the interaction between historical total phosphorus and piscivorous predator commercial harvests. Shaded area indicates 95% confidence interval, dashed line represents the null effect, and the rug plot (ticks on the x axis) are the observations of the predictor variables.

125x179mm (330 x 330 DPI)