
Modeling marine shad distribution using data from French bycatch fishery surveys

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Abstract :

In the last few decades, there has been a marked decline in the number of shad (*Alosa alosa* and *A. fallax*) landed in France, which prompted the French committee of the International Union for Conservation of Nature to list shad as a 'Vulnerable' species in 2010. The freshwater phases of shad life cycles have been extensively studied, but the marine phases remain poorly understood. The present study aimed to provide new insights into shad ecology by describing the marine distributions of twaite and allis shad using a presence/absence model based on bycatch data from commercial fishery surveys. Depth and salinity were identified as the main factors influencing shad distribution. Both species were primarily located in shallow areas, at depths of between 0 and 100 m. As expected for anadromous species, low-salinity areas were preferred. Substrate and latitude played minor roles in the observed distribution of shad. Our results suggest that latitudinal migration between winter and summer habitats does not occur in twaite and allis shad populations. Furthermore, substrate does not appear to be a key factor contributing to shad distribution. A better understanding of the distribution of shad species throughout their life cycles, particularly in the open sea where they are vulnerable to bycatch, would help in the selection of key protected areas for the sustainability of shad populations.

Keywords : *Alosa alosa*, *Alosa fallax*, Distribution, Migration, Binomial model

Introduction

Shads are a group of anadromous fish species that mature in the sea and spawn in the midstream to upstream sections of rivers, although there are also some landlocked populations. Shads have been extensively studied, particularly in North America. There are two sympatric shad species inhabiting the coastal Atlantic waters of Western Europe (i.e., the Atlantic Ocean), namely, the allis shad (*Alosa alosa*) and the twaite shad (*Alosa fallax*). Since the end of the 20th century, a marked decline in the size and number of shad populations has been observed throughout European coastal waters (Limburg & Waldman 2009). Several causes have been identified, including dam construction, overfishing, water quality, degradation of spawning grounds (Bagliniere & Elie 2000, De Groot 2002, Limburg & Waldman 2009), and the Allee effect (i.e., a positive correlation between population density and growth rate) (Rougier et al. 2012). In the Gironde basin, which is known to host the largest populations for both species, stakeholders responded to this reduction by imposing a total moratorium on the shad fishery in 2008. Other conservation measures are also already in place.

48 One example is the framework of the marine application of the EC Habitat Directive
49 (92/43/EEC), which compels European Member States to build a network of sites (i.e., the
50 Natura 2000 network) that guarantees the conservation or restoration of populations of
51 species listed in Annex II (which includes shads) and their associated marine and estuarine
52 habitats. To date, France has listed approximately 207 marine sites under the Habitats and
53 Birds Directives, covering more than 41,000 km² of its territory. For shads, Natura 2000 sites
54 were designated using the “best expert judgment”; exact judgments could not be made
55 because the distribution of shads at sea remains largely unknown. Principal Natura 2000
56 sites designated for shads (and other diadromous fish species) correspond to estuaries and
57 river plumes of large catchments in the Bay of Biscay, such as the Loire and Gironde rivers,
58 which are known to host important shad populations. Additional data on the actual
59 distribution of shad at sea would clarify the accuracy of the Natura 2000 network sites.

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61 However, information pertaining to shads in marine areas remains largely unknown.
62 To the best of our knowledge, only Taverny & Elie (2001) and Sabatié (1993) have studied
63 the spatiotemporal distribution and feeding habitats of European shads at sea. On the basis
64 of an analysis of 20 scientific trawl survey campaigns (1016 stations) conducted between
65 1986 and 1989, Taverny & Elie (2001) demonstrated that twaite shads were distributed
66 primarily at water depths <50 m. Allis shads were observed in waters deeper than 100 m.
67 The distributions of allis and twaite shad showed that they aggregated and were located in
68 the river mouths of the most important watersheds (the Gironde and Loire). However, shad
69 distributions at sea could have changed since the late 1980s as a result of marine trophic and
70 thermal changes; thus, it is important to update and expand upon this information using a
71 more recent dataset. Shads are not targeted at sea but are caught as bycatch. Bycatch is a

72 critical source of mortality for marine species, and so-called “trash fish” species (the
73 importance of which in marine food webs is now being recognized). Finally, data on shad
74 ecology and distributions at sea are required in order to implement efficient conservation
75 policies.

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77 To increase knowledge on the distribution of shads at sea, we used a large and recent
78 (2003–2010) dataset comprising observations taken onboard fishery fleets (i.e., the ObsMer
79 program). The present study aimed to use these data to develop a habitat suitability model
80 and predict distribution maps for allis and twaite shads. Combined with an analysis of
81 seasonal variations, knowledge of their spatial marine distribution and ecology could permit
82 more effective management, such as a relevant delimitation of the Natura 2000 network at
83 sea.

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

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Fisheries data: the ObsMer program

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In France, ObsMer program manages all the marine observations required by fisheries
regulations. It aims to gather information to minimize bycatch and assess the incidental
catches of endangered species, mainly cetaceans and turtles but also migratory fish, such as
shads. Onboard, scientific observers randomly sampled bycatch from 9049 commercial
catches between 2003 and 2010. In the Obsmer database used in the present study, the
mesh sizes of trawls ranged from 6 mm (glass eels boats) to 320 mm (tuna boats). 43
different gears were used, to catch 68 different marine species, from the coast to the
continental slopes. Preliminary analysis showed that, with the great number of different

95 fishing gears and different target species, the number of fishing operations likely to capture
96 shads remained steady in time and space.

97 Allis and twaite shads were systematically reported, when present, thus assuring no
98 false absence in the sample/trawl. Observations included the dates, locations of the trips
99 (i.e., latitude and longitude), fishing gear, and the number of twaite and allis shads (when
100 present). The data used in this study were collected from the mid of Bay of Biscay to the
101 English Channel, ranging from 51.08 to 45.22°N and -6.09 to 1.45°E (Fig. 1). Fish total length,
102 for the few samples reported, ranged from 50 to 690 mm for allis shads and from 100 to 640
103 mm for twaite shads. This length range indicated that juveniles (i.e., <100 mm) and mature
104 adults (i.e., >430 mm) were included in the database. However, as biometry was rarely
105 reported, possible juveniles were not separated from adults in the analyses. About 84 % of
106 shads observed in this database were collected with only 5 different fishing gears, that were
107 the gears the most commonly used by professional fishermen (60 % of total effort was made
108 by them). Previous analysis showed that there is no spatial bias in gear type, no seasonal
109 bias in the location of trawls and nets associated with shad bycatch. We thus assumed that
110 the present bycatch data are representative of shad distribution at-sea.

111 The limited number of observations with biometry did not allow us to account for
112 differences in measurements among the various types of fishing gear utilized. Therefore,
113 only presence/absence data were used. These data, sometimes considered “basic”, can lead
114 to inferences regarding the ecology and distribution of a species (MacKenzie 2005, Vojta
115 2005).

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Grid system principle

118 Shads are not frequently present in the catches of the database. Thus, data were
119 unbalanced in favor of the absence of shad, which did not allow either a correct fit for the
120 habitat suitability model or robust distribution mapping. Indeed, Liu et al. (2005)
121 recommended a good balance between the presence and absence data so that the
122 threshold value separating the modeled probabilities of presence into presence or absence
123 is ~ 0.5 .

124 As the occurrence of shads was rare in the collected samples, we assumed that a
125 single observation of a shad in a specific site was an indication that the site contained
126 suitable shad habitat, even if absence was recorded more frequently. Following this
127 assumption, we divided the study area into a regular grid of 20×20 km. For each grid cell,
128 the central point was assigned a value of one if at least one individual was observed within
129 the grid cell, and a value of zero was assigned for the total absence of shad; no value was
130 assigned if no observation was made. This grid cell dataset was used for the modeling. A
131 sensitivity analysis completed the approach by testing for the effect of 10×10 -km and $40 \times$
132 40 -km grid cells. This methodology has been presented by Keil et al. (2013).

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Environmental descriptors

135 Habitat suitability modeling allows the presence/absence data to be linked to
136 environmental descriptors. Environmental variables that might influence shad distribution at
137 sea were selected for testing in the models and included the following: (i) depth, which has
138 been cited as a strong structuring factor (Taverny & Elie (2001)); (ii) salinity and
139 temperature, which are known to have direct physiological effects on anadromous fish
140 (Zydlewski et al. 2003, Boisneau et al. 2008); (iii) latitude, which is considered a proxy for
141 large-scale temperature regimes and ecosystem functioning; and (iv) the substrate, which

142 can be considered a proxy for food availability. The average value of the environmental
143 variables was allocated to the grid cell centers. Variables were obtained from the following
144 sources:

145 - Bathymetry was produced by the SHOM and Ifremer at 200-m resolution (Loubrieu
146 et al. 2001). This was transformed to a class factor for statistical analyses as follows: 0–50 m,
147 50–100 m, and 100–150 m. No shad were found deeper than 150 m.

148 - A sediment map was provided by IFREMER (modified from Chassé & Glémarec
149 (1976); Larssonneur et al. (1979); Lesueur & Klingebiel (1986)). Three classes of sediment
150 were used according to grain size: mud (≤ 2 mm), sand (> 2 mm and ≤ 4 mm), and gravels or
151 coarse grains (> 4 mm); the sediment size allocated to a grid cell was the size that was most
152 represented in the cell.

153 - Salinity (‰) and temperature (°C) in surface were provided by the MARS3D
154 hydrodynamical model at a 4-km resolution (Lazure & Dumas 2008), coupled to ECOMARS3D
155 for the physical parameters (PREVIMER project). Both variables were extracted as monthly
156 means. Three salinity classes (i.e., 31–33, 33–35, and > 35 PSU) and six temperature classes
157 (i.e., 8–10, 10–12, 12–14, 14–16, 16–18, and 18–20°C) were utilized.

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Temporal descriptors

160 Spatial distributions of organisms such as fish may vary depending on the time of year,
161 as a result of temporal changes in trophic or reproductive behaviors.

162 Three temporal scales were examined in the models, including seasonal (four
163 modalities: spring, summer, autumn, and winter), bimonthly (i.e., every 2 months with six
164 modalities starting in January/February and ending with November/December), and monthly
165 (12 modalities) scales.

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Selectivity of fishing gear

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Modeling process

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Logit(p0/1) ~ Temporal parameters + Environmental factors × Temporal scale (Eq. 1)

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The grid system approach did not account for the fishing gear. However, it is well known that different types of fishing gear have different selectivities. The ObsMer data revealed the presence of shad primarily in trawl and net fishing. In order to evaluate this potential bias, we performed a preliminary test that did not reveal a geographic trend in the use of fishing gear, indicating that the use of each type of fishing gear occurred in similar proportions throughout each square of the grid system. No temporal effect of each fishing gears was observed in preliminary tests.

A generalized linear model (GLM) was applied to the presence/absence survey data (binomial model with a logit link function) in order to describe the distribution of the two shad species with respect to the temporal parameters (i.e., month of capture, bimonthly period, or season) and environmental factors as follows:

All possible combinations using one to five physical parameters, including interactions when relevant, were tested. The model that best fit the observed data and allowed predictions was chosen according to two indicators: (i) the accuracy of the prediction was estimated using a bootstrap cross-validation, and null and residual deviances for each validation were averaged to obtain a mean deviance explained by the cross-validation; and

189 (ii) the parsimony of the model was evaluated based on the Akaike Information Criterion
190 (AIC) (Akaike 1974).

191 For cross-validation, a random subset of 80% of the dataset was used for parameter
192 estimation. The probability of presence and the explained deviance for each of the
193 remaining 20% of the observations (validation dataset) were calculated. This procedure was
194 replicated 1000 times, and the mean explained deviance was calculated for each model
195 tested. Models with all possible combinations of variables were tested using the same 1000
196 estimation–validation random subsets. Models yielding the smallest AIC with the best mean
197 explained deviance were retained for the analysis and utilized for predicting the habitat
198 suitability distribution of shads. To evaluate the efficiency of the selected model, the Area
199 Under the Curve (AUC) method (Hanley & McNeil 1982) was performed, giving the
200 percentage of good predictions in the previous cross-validation loops.

201 Figures representing the effects of the physical parameters in the following results
202 section are shown with the uncertainty of prediction for the average effects of variables. The
203 average effect of a variable was obtained from the following method: for each combination
204 of the other factors, a prediction of the probability of presence was obtained from Eq. 1. The
205 predictions for each combination of factors were then averaged to obtain the mean variable
206 effect. Uncertainty was estimated by Monte Carlo sampling (5000 trials) in the estimation
207 distribution of each parameter needed to compute the prediction in Eq. 1.

208 All descriptive statistics, models and prediction maps were made with the R CRAN
209 free software environment (<http://cran.r-project.org/>). Probability values were considered
210 statistically significant for $p < 0.05$.

211 **RESULTS**

212 ***Grid and seasonal approach selection***

213 The change in the spatial grid resolution (10 × 10 km, 20 × 20 km, or 40 × 40 km) revealed no
214 influence on the selected combination of physical parameters and yielded only marginal
215 visible changes in the predicted distributions. Hence, only the 20 × 20-km grid resolution is
216 discussed hereafter. For the temporal scale, only the 6 × 2-month scale is presented in the
217 results section. The monthly scale was too small to allow a robust estimation of the
218 parameters; the amount of presence data was too limited and the number of degrees of
219 freedom was too high when using interactions between temporal and physical parameters.
220 Conversely, the seasonal scale was too coarse to capture the temporal variability in shad
221 distributions.

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Models selected and evaluation

224 According to the two selection methods (smallest AIC with the best mean explained
225 deviance *via* cross-validation), the distributions of both shad species were best explained by
226 the following factors (Eq. 2):

227

228 **logit(Shad_{0/1})** ~ Salinity:factor (2-month period)

229 + factor (Depth):factor (2-month period)

230 + factor (Sediment):factor (2-month period)

231 + Latitude:factor (2-month period)

232 where **Shad_{0/1}** is the shad probability of presence.

233 These AUC indexes were 0.8151 for allis shads, and 0.7697 for twaite shads.

234

235

Analysis of allis shad model factors

236 The effect of depth dominated the explained deviance of the allis shad data (Table 1).
237 Although significant, the effect of sediment was low. Allis shad showed a clear global
238 preference for low salinity areas (31–33 PSU), shallow areas (<100 m), low latitude areas,
239 and muddy substrates (Fig. 2).

240
241 Taking into account the temporal variation, we present the following general overview for
242 allis shad (Fig. 3):

243 *Depth:* The combination of depth with the 2-month temporal scale showed slight
244 variations in depth preference in the fifth temporal class (September–October) and presence
245 in deeper areas during March–April (Fig. 3).

246 *Salinity:* Shad appeared to be present in areas of low salinity (31–33 PSU) during most
247 of the year, but this preference was inverted in the fifth class (September–October) (Fig. 3).

248 *Latitude:* The preference for low latitude areas (Fig. 2) was clear for 10/12 months of
249 the year, including March–December. The difference was less notable from January to
250 February, when the probability of presence was low (Fig. 3).

251 *Substrate:* The differences in the substrate effects changed throughout the year (Fig.
252 2). Although gravel appears to be an unsuitable substrate for shads, the differences between
253 sand and mud may have arisen from a sampling effect.

254

255 ***Analysis of twaite shad model factors***

256 Depth was the main factor influencing the presence of twaite shad (Table 2). The effect
257 of sediment had a probability of $P = 0.055$, but the cross-validation approach showed a gain
258 in explained deviance, thus reflecting its importance in predictions. The analysis indicated a

259 strong global preference for areas of low salinity, depth, and latitude, and areas that contain
260 gravels.

261

262 *Depth:* According to the model, shallow depths were clearly preferred throughout the
263 year, except from January to February, when the probability of twaite shad presence was
264 low (Fig. 5).

265 *Salinity:* The preference for lower salinity was primarily correlated with the period
266 from January to April; the repartition of twaite shads was homogeneous throughout the
267 remaining months of the year (Fig. 5).

268 *Latitude:* The effect of latitude was small but was retained in the selection method
269 because it appeared to be changing throughout the year, thus showing a higher probability
270 of presence in the north from January to April and in the south throughout the remainder of
271 the year (Fig. 5).

272 *Substrate:* The positive effect of a hard substrate was more pronounced from January
273 to March but was almost insignificant throughout the remainder of the year (Fig. 5).

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276 ***Distribution prediction for Allis and twaite shads***

277 Prediction maps were generated using the models selected and merged with the
278 physical variables maps. For allis shads, the maps predicted distributional patterns for the
279 following three time periods (Fig. 6):

280 (i) during the first 2 months (January and February), allis shads would be minimally
281 present in the sea and primarily localized near estuaries or in coastal areas, mainly in Natura

282 2000 areas; (ii) from March to August their presence was predicted in coastal areas; and (iii)
283 from September to December, the models predicted the presence of shad in oceanic waters.

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286 Although the three temporal distributions observed in the twaite shad prediction maps
287 were similar to those for allis shad, some differences were noted (Fig. 7):

288 (i) From January to February, twaite shad were predicted to occur primarily in the
289 English Channel; (ii) from March to August, a high concentration of twaite shads was
290 predicted in coastal waters, including areas protected by the Natura 2000 network; they
291 were also predicted to occur in coastal waters more often than the allis shads; and (iii) from
292 September to December, they were predicted to move to oceanic waters.

293

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DISCUSSION

295 There is a considerable lack of knowledge with regard to the distribution of European
296 shad species in the sea, which limits the development of efficient population management
297 policies. The absence of shad fisheries at sea may explain the lack of interest; commercial
298 fisheries prevail only in estuaries. Additionally, very few scientific studies have focused on
299 the ecology of shad during the marine stages of their life cycles. The present study aimed to
300 compensate for this gap in knowledge by using marine fisheries bycatch data, which
301 provided new information on shad species ecology and distribution.

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303

Limitations of the methodology

304 Our model and the sensitivity analysis were built using bycatch data. To date, studies
305 using bycatch data are not widespread (see for instance Dell et al. (2011)). We assumed that
306 bycatch data could be used to model habitat preferences for two main reasons:

307 (i): shads are not a target species because their population is limited and not commercially
308 interesting for a professional exploitation.

309 (ii): even if shads are by-caught, it is « classical » clupeidae-like species, with morphology,
310 size and biology similar at numerous commercial species, like Atlantic herring or Atlantic
311 mackerel, suggesting the presence of shads in commercial surveys targeting these species.

312 (iii): commercial fisheries data are often considered biased with respect to mapping species
313 distributions because fishers choose to target species at the center of their distribution to
314 maximize catches and minimize search costs (Dell et al. 2011). In the present study, we have
315 used a consequent database (>9000 trawls) using a numerous of different fishing gears (43)
316 and with a large range of mesh size used (6-320 mm), that were not focused on shads and
317 therefore are not biased. The use of such database could reduce the potential bias linked to
318 bycatch. Preliminary analysis was also done to support this conclusion.

319 Then, we think it is reasonable to assume that bycatch data are adequate to model species
320 presence.

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322 These commercial fisheries focused on large fish (with the exception of specific
323 fisheries such as those for glass-eels or shrimps). In this context, it is relevant to address the
324 question of the representativeness of the size distribution in the catches. Records of fish
325 length were not sufficiently accurate to be integrated into the models. A simple descriptive
326 analysis showed that the smallest total length of an individual fish in the database was 50
327 mm, suggesting that young-of-the-year [i.e., <100 mm (Lochet 2006)] samples could be

328 integrated into the ObsMer database. Future studies should integrate information on fish
329 size in the analyses because habitat use patterns might be size/age dependent; however, it is
330 reasonable to assume that the models were sufficiently representative of the entire shad
331 population in the field. Another limit may be the absence of data for areas closer to the
332 English coasts; this may create bias with regard to the effect of high latitude. Thus, the
333 northernmost effects, particularly for twaite shad, should be interpreted with caution.

334

335 *Model efficiency*

336

337 The first indications of the efficiency of the model developed in the present study were
338 the good AUC index observed in the cross-validation procedure, showing that more of 76 %
339 of predictions from both models (allis and twaite shads) were goods.

340 Moreover, the depth effect observed in the current model is in accordance with the
341 literature. Allis and twaite shad were not observed at depths >150 m, which was used as a
342 limit for the model. The factor analysis from our models showed that allis and twaite shads
343 primarily selected depths of 0–50 m. Into the wild, allis shad around Morocco are found at
344 depths of 30-150 m, near areas of summer upwelling (Sabatié 1993). Allis and twaite shad
345 were also found to inhabit shallow waters, 15 to 115 m, along the northwest coast of France
346 (Taverny & Elie 2001). In our model, fish were caught from depths of 15 to 115 m. In total
347 100 % and 78 % of twaite and allis shad, respectively, were caught at depths <100 m. Twaite
348 shad tended to occur at shallower depths than the allis shad ((Baglinière & Elie 2000), like in
349 our model (Figures 2 & 4).

350

351 Moreover, the oceanic distribution of another shad species, the American shad *A.*
352 *sapidissima*, along the Pacific coast of North America is primarily confined to the continental
353 shelf (Pearcy & Fisher 2011). No evidence for large-scale seasonal migrations has been found
354 for this area (Pearcy & Fisher 2011), although such migration has been reported for the
355 Atlantic coast (Neves & Depres 1979), corroborating the results from our model. In this
356 study, shad were caught in shallow waters (depths <150 m). Along the Atlantic coast, the
357 majority of shad have been captured at depths <100 m (Neves & Depres 1979).
358 Nevertheless, some shad were caught at greater depths, 150 to >200 m (Neves & Depres
359 1979) and an increased frequency of shad presence was found at depths >60 m (Bethoney et
360 al. 2013). This association to deeper areas corresponded to shad winter habitats (Neves &
361 Depres 1979, Bethoney et al. 2013).

362

363 The salinity was also preliminary described like a migration factor for American shads
364 (Dodson et al. 1972). The authors showed that the high increase in salinity was a
365 physiological dam for the inland migration of shads, requiring meandering between salt and
366 freshwater.

367

368 All these studies lead to confirm the results from our model. However, for American
369 shad again, Legget & Whitney (1972) that the water temperature was the main cue for
370 inland migrations. The authors showed that 90% of the runs take place when river
371 temperatures are between 16 and 19.5°C. But in our model, the water temperature was
372 tested but not selected by AIC and cross-validation selections. We can assume that the water
373 temperature was correlated with the interaction between depth and month, leading to its
374 reject by the selection procedure.

375

376 ***Latitudinal effect: Do fish remain in the same geographic area throughout the year?***

377 Latitudinal factors appear to have marginal effects on the distribution of twaite and
378 allis shad: the probability to capture shads is nearly the same along the latitudinal gradient.
379 On the basis of a global analysis, the distribution of allis shad was slightly more southerly
380 than that of the twaite shad. This result is in accordance with Baglinière & Elie (2000) who
381 highlighted that the most important allis shad population was found in the mouth of the
382 Loire River (France, 47.2654°N), the southernmost region of the present study area. Our
383 analysis showed a twaite shad preference for more northern latitudes, which is in
384 accordance with the literature. From an extensive bibliography review, Lassalle et al. (2008)
385 identified the presence of allis shad from the Sebou estuary (Morocco) to the Solway Firth
386 (United Kingdom), with small populations in Sebou. Baglinière & Elie (2000) observed an
387 important twaite shad population in the Coastal waters of United Kingdom and North Sea.

388 According to our bimonthly analysis, no change in latitude effect was observed for allis
389 shad, which may suggest the absence of massive latitudinal migration between winter and
390 summer habitats. This indicates that, globally, allis shad populations remain in the same
391 geographic area throughout the year, undertaking only longitudinal (i.e., river to ocean)
392 migrations. Nevertheless, individual surveys are required to confirm this migration pattern
393 because the picture provided by the bycatch data may conceal individual variation in space-
394 use behavior. Conversely, a slight difference was observed for twaite shad, which may be
395 due to variation in the timing of their upstream migration from south to north.

396

397 ***Substrate preference: An opportunist trophic cline?***

398 The sensitivity analysis from our model showed that there was a greater presence of
399 allis shad in areas with muddy substrates than in areas with other types of habitats. From
400 the output of the model, twaite shad showed a weak preference for gravels. It is generally
401 accepted that fish diet and home-range substrate are profoundly linked. Allis shad feed on a
402 wide range of planktonic crustaceans; larger adults feed on small schooling fish (Whitehead
403 1985, Rochard & Elie 1994). Twaite shad are more ichthyophagous, feeding on small fish and
404 crustaceans (Whitehead 1985, Rochard & Elie 1994). This difference in shad diets could
405 explain the difference in substrate preferences. The preference for soft bottoms and hard
406 substrates for allis shad and twaite shad, respectively, was more pronounced during periods
407 yielding higher probabilities for the presence of shad overall or for each species.

408

409 ***Allis shad pattern of oceanic movements***

410 Our results from the model for allis shad movement patterns at sea over the course of
411 a year are in accordance with the classical view of the life cycles of anadromous species
412 derived from freshwater or estuarine observations; they also could provide additional
413 information on movement patterns within marine habitats (e.g., distribution and timing).

414 Of note, the model used in the current study was able to analyze temporal variations
415 in the distribution of shads. In winter (January and February), allis shad were preferentially
416 present in the 0–50 m depth class and low salinity areas of the coastal and estuarine regions.
417 However, the model predicted low occurrence probabilities, which indicated that a large
418 portion of the shad populations had not been sampled at sea. It appears that the shads
419 inhabited the inner estuaries or rivers during this period. From March to August, model
420 showed that allis shad were primarily shown to live in coastal areas, with a preference for
421 shallow depth and low salinity environments. Taking into consideration the migration

422 phenology and information available from reproductive studies in riverine environments,
423 this shift in distribution may be related to the spawning migration. During the last part of the
424 year, allis shad were observed to move from coastal to oceanic areas. This movement was
425 also confirmed by the factor analysis, which indicated minimal differences in depth and
426 salinity preferences. Because allis shad are primarily semelparous (Baglinière & Elie 2000),
427 we cannot conclude that this movement corresponds to the downstream migration of post-
428 reproductive adults. Nevertheless, the young-of-the-year may have reached a length of 100
429 mm by this time of the year (Lochet 2006), suggesting that they could be integrated into the
430 ObsMer database, and therefore our model. Hence, this migration could comprise some
431 iteroparous adults and young-of-the-year individuals.

432

433 ***Twaite shad pattern of migration***

434 From the outputs of the model, twaite shad exhibited similar patterns of movement to
435 allis shad; the prediction maps and factor analysis also suggested an annual three-step
436 marine distribution. Some slight differences were noted, however. From January to
437 February, twaite shad were mainly located in English waters, with an almost uniform
438 distribution (with no preference for shallow depth areas). In the second step, with regard to
439 allis shad, movement toward coastal areas was observed between March and August, with a
440 strong preference for areas of shallow depth and low salinity. We can assume that this
441 represents iteroparous adults and young-of-the-year fish. This assumption is in accordance
442 with Baglinière & Elie (2000). In the last part of the year, the results suggest a strong
443 movement toward oceanic areas. Because twaite shad are iteroparous (Baglinière & Elie
444 2000), this movement could represent a second annual migration, from coastal to oceanic

445 areas. The distribution of recorded fish lengths also suggests that young-of-the-year
446 individuals were present in the migrating population (Baglinière & Elie (2000)).

447

448 On the basis of the model global analysis, allis shad distribution was slightly more
449 southerly than that of the twaite shad. This is in agreement with Baglinière & Elie (2000),
450 who showed that the most important allis shad population was found in the mouth of the
451 Loire River (France, 47.2654°N). Lassalle et al. (2008) found allis shad to be present from the
452 Sebou Estuary (Morocco) to the Solway Firth (United Kingdom), with small populations in
453 Sebou. Indeed, Baglinière & Elie (2000) noted an important twaite shad population in the
454 United Kingdom and North Sea.

455 Moreover, according to our bimonthly analyses, no change was observed for allis shad
456 distribution. We can suppose that there is no important latitudinal migration between the
457 winter and summer habitats, suggesting that, globally, allis shad populations remain in the
458 same geographic area throughout the year, performing only longitudinal (i.e., river to ocean)
459 migrations. The fact that allis shad only perform longitudinal migrations may have to do with
460 the populations being greatly reduced in size, but it is impossible to clearly conclude with
461 our data, without precise abundance information.

462

463 ***Pertinence of the Natura 2000 network at sea***

464 The results of the current study indicate that the Natura 2000 areas are not entirely
465 pertinent for shad protection management. Allis and twaite shads inhabit a high proportion
466 of the Natura 2000 areas only from January to April and March to June, respectively. Indeed,
467 although shads live in relatively shallow waters, their life cycle is not limited to coastal
468 regions, and thus managing this species *via* Natura 2000 management is necessary but not

469 sufficient. Moreover, although the two most important French basins (Loire and Gironde)
470 are included in the Natura 2000 network, there are additional basins that could be
471 considered equally as important for shad distribution according to our models. For instance,
472 to date, the Vilaine and Scorff rivers in Brittany (middle of the area) have been excluded
473 from the Natura 2000 network; however, they are high probability areas for shad presence.
474 The present modeling approach, therefore, could be used as a tool for the selection of
475 additional protected sites.

476

477

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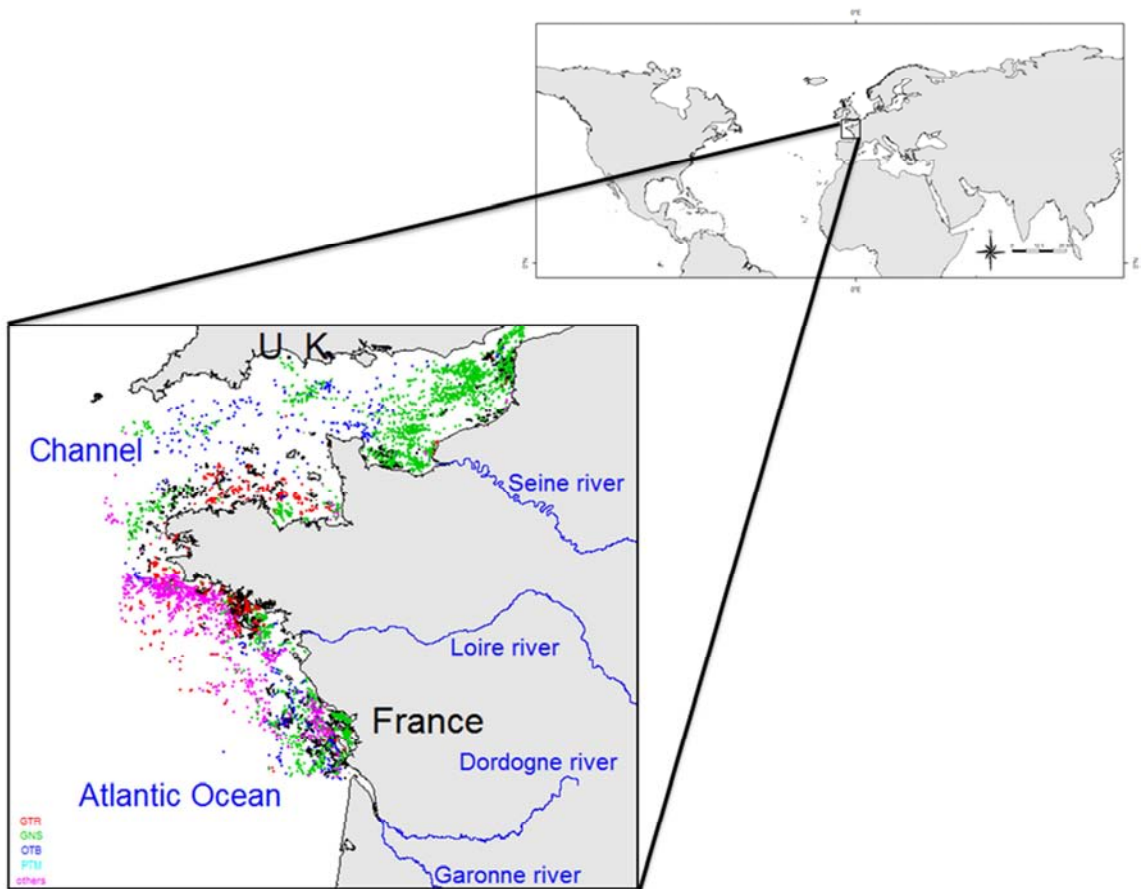
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TABLES AND FIGURES

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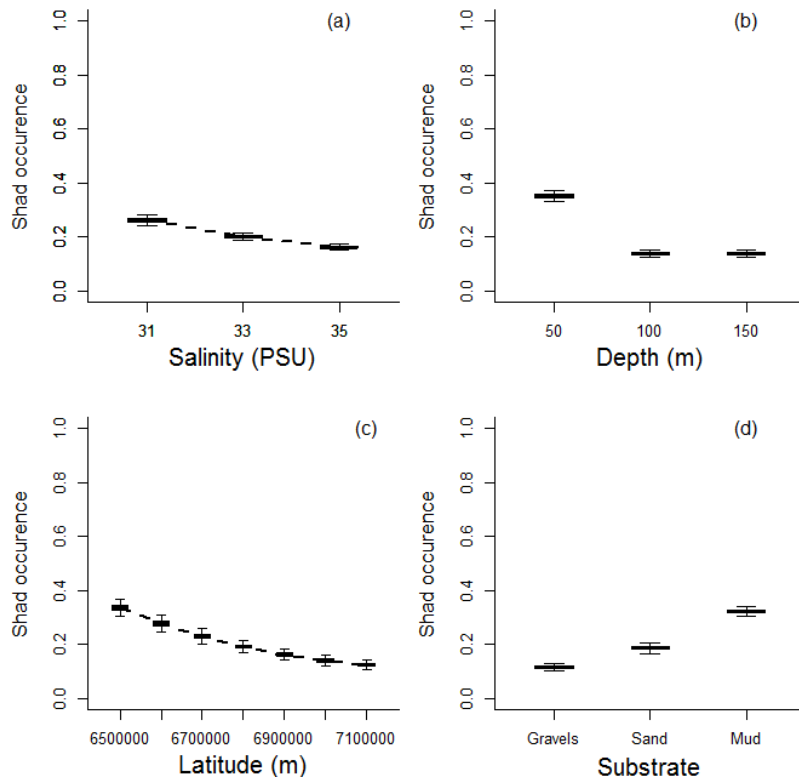
Figure 1: Global position of study site. Locations of all commercial surveys from dataset. Trammel-nets (GTR) have caught 19.97 % of shads. Fixed gill nets (GNS): 18.69 %. Benthic bottom otter trawls (OTB): 16.31 %. Midwater trawl (PTM): 15.55 %. Others: 29.48%.

Table 1. Analysis of deviances for the *Alosa alosa* binomial generalized linear model

	Degrees of freedom	Explained deviance (%)	P-value
Salinity:factor (2-month period)	6	6.19	4.40e-13
Latitude:factor (2-month period)	6	5.98	1.33e-12
Factor (Depth):factor (2-month period)	18	7.82	2.91e-11
Factor (Sediment):factor (2-month period)	9	2.32	1.87e-3
Total (%)		22.31	

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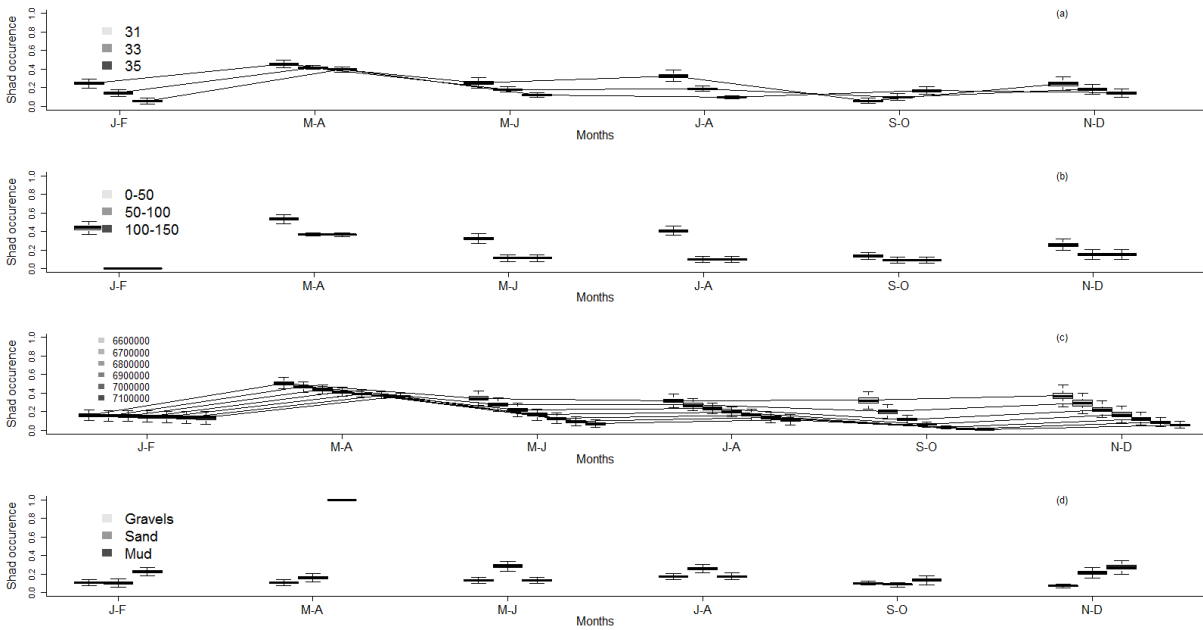
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582 Figure 2: Global effects of the four main parameters on the allis shad occurrence: (a) salinity (PSU); (b) depth
 583 (m); (c) latitude (m); and (d) substrate.

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587

588 Figure 3 : Two-month period approach for allis shad: temporal change for the four main parameters: (a) salinity
 589 (PSU); (b) depth (m); (c) latitude (m); and (d) substrate. X-axis: from J-F (January-February) to N-D
 590 (November-December)

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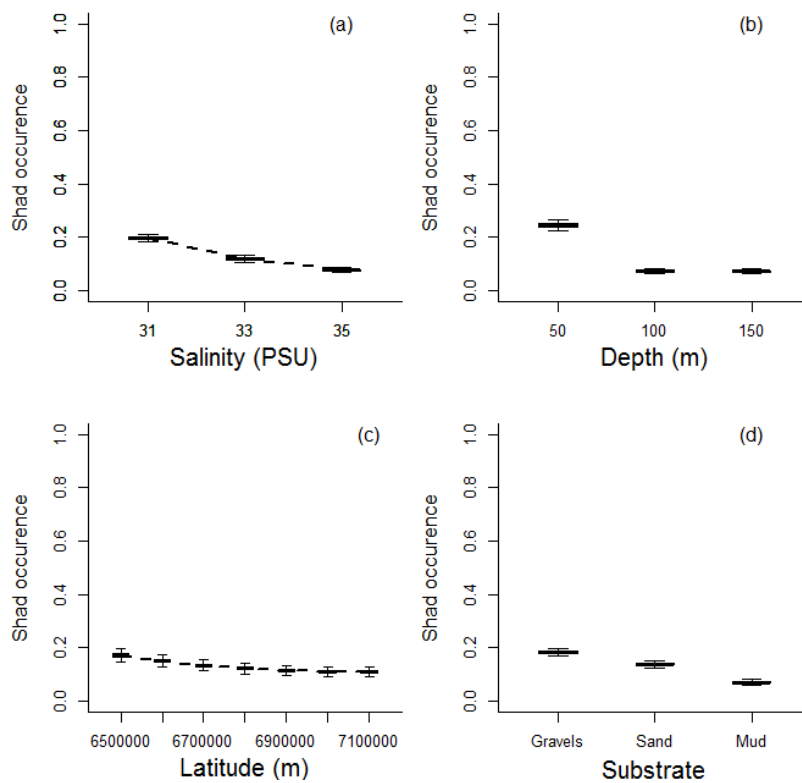
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Table 2: Analysis of deviances for the *Alosa fallax* binomial generalized linear model

	Degrees of freedom	Explained deviance (%)	P-value
Salinity:factor (2-month period)	6	3.95	2.18e-06
Latitude:factor (2-month period)	6	5.77	9.96e-10
Factor (Depth):factor (2-month period)	18	9.74	1.38e-11
Factor (Sediment):factor (2-month period)	10	0.95	5.49e-1
Total (%)		20.41	

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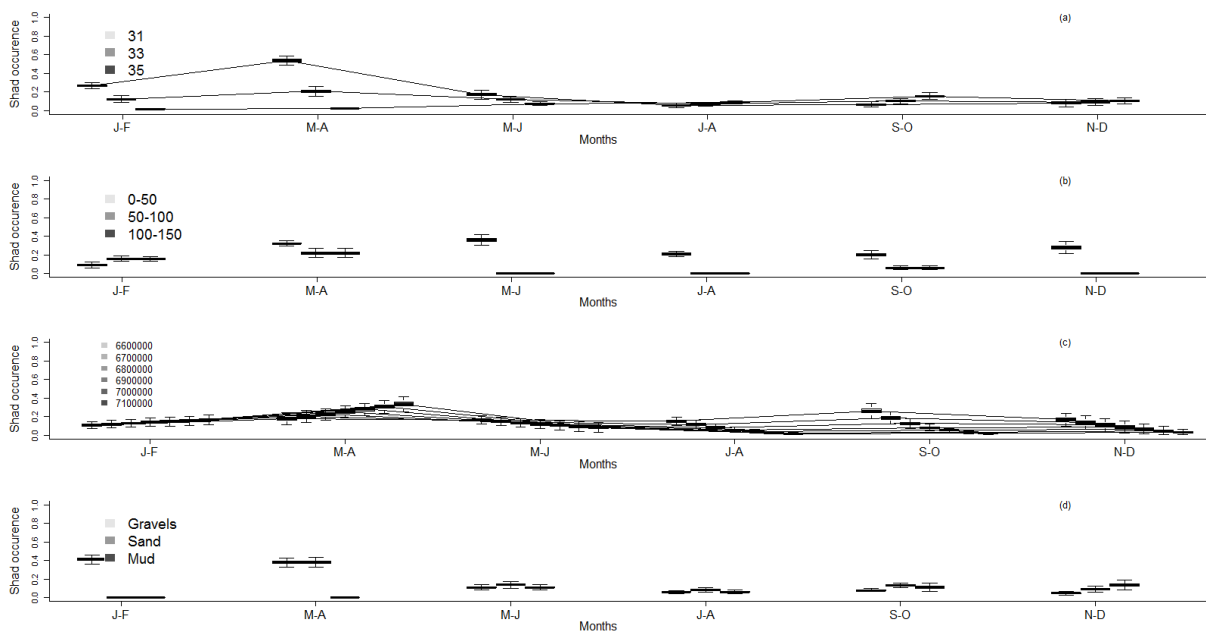
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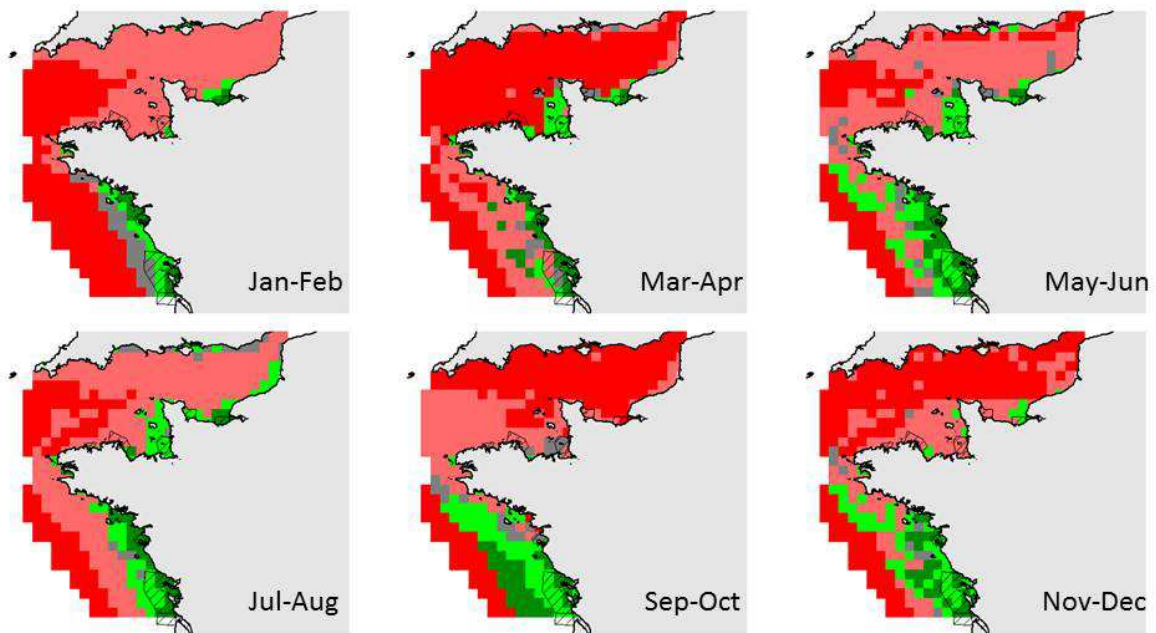
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Figure 4: Global effects of the four main parameters on the twaite shad occurrence: (a) salinity (PSU); (b) depth (m); (c) latitude (m); and (d) substrate.



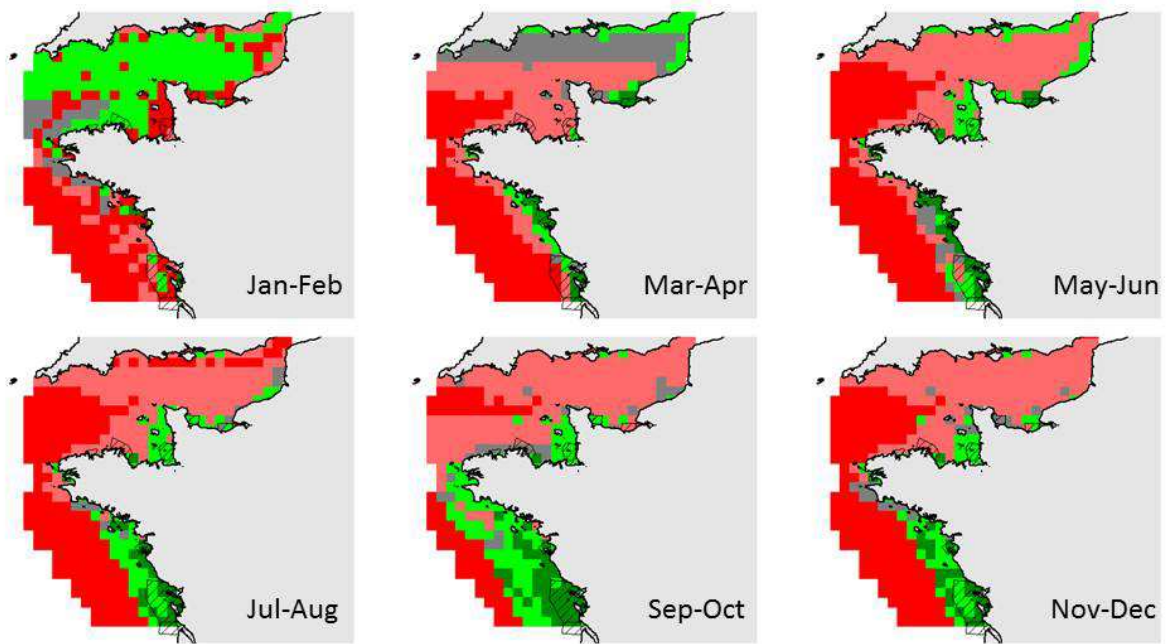
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602 Figure 5: Two-month period approach for twaite shads: temporal change for the four main parameters: (a)
 603 salinity (PSU); (b) depth (m); (c) latitude (m); and (d) substrate. X-axis: from J-F (January-February) to N-D
 604 (November-December)
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606

607 Figure 6: Prediction maps for allis shad (20 × 20-km cells) in the 2-month period approach. Dark green:
 608 probabilities ranging from 1 to 0.8. Light green: probabilities ranging from 0.8 to 0.6. Gray: probabilities ranging
 609 from 0.6 to 0.4. Pink: probabilities ranging from 0.4 to 0.2. Red: probabilities ranging from 0.2 to 0. Probabilities
 610 <0.4 may indicate the absence of shad. Striped areas indicate Natura 2000 shad-designated sites.
 611
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614

615 Figure 7: Prediction maps for twaite shad (20 × 20-km cells) in the 2-month period approach. Dark green:
 616 probabilities ranging from 1 to 0.8. Light green: probabilities ranging from 0.8 to 0.6. Gray: probabilities ranging
 617 from 0.6 to 0.4. Pink: probabilities ranging from 0.4 to 0.2. Red: probabilities ranging from 0.2 to 0. Probabilities
 618 <0.4 may indicate the absence of shad. Striped areas indicate Natura 2000 shad-designated sites.