Taking full advantage of the diverse assemblage of data at hand to produce time series of abundance: a case study on Atlantic salmon populations of Brittany

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Abstract :

Estimation of abundance with wide spatiotemporal coverage is essential to the assessment and management of wild populations. But, in many cases, data available to estimate abundance time series have diverse forms, variable quality over space and time and they stem from multiple data collection procedures. We developed a hierarchical Bayesian modelling (HBM) approach that take full advantage of the diverse assemblage of data at hand to estimate homogeneous time series of abundances irrespective of the data collection procedure. We apply our approach to the estimation of adult abundances of 18 Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar) populations of Brittany (France) from 1987 to 2017 using catch statistics, environmental covariates, and fishing effort. Additional data of total or partial abundance collected in four closely monitored populations are also integrated into the analysis. The HBM framework allows the transfer of information from the closely monitored populations to the others. Our results reveal no clear trend in the abundance of adult returns in Brittany over the period studied. lations d'animaux sauvages. Dans de nombreux cas, toutefois, les donnees disponibles pour l'estimation de series chronologidifferentes procedures. Nous avons elabore une approche de modelisation bayesienne hierarchique (MBH) pour tirer pleinement parti de l'assemblage varie de donnees disponibles pour estimer des series chronologiques homogenes d'abondance, quelle que soit la procedure de collecte de donnees. Nous appliquons l'approche a l'estimation de l'abondance d'adultes dans 18 populations de saumon atlantique (Salmo salar) de Bretagne (France) de 1987 a 2017, en utilisant des statistiques sur les prises, des covariables faisant l'objet d'une surveillance etroite sont aussi integrees a l'analyse. Le cadre de MBH permet le transfert d'information l'abondance des adultes de retour en Bretagne au cours de la periode etudiee. [Traduit par la Redaction]

60 **INTRODUCTION**

61 For assessing past and current conservation status of fish populations and providing fisheries 62 management advice, reliable time series of abundance are required. At a single spatio-63 temporal unit, e.g. a population a given year, catch reflects abundance up to a scaling factor, 64 the proportion of adult removed by harvesting, also called the exploitation rate. Abundance 65 can be statistically inferred (i.e. estimated) from an observed catch under the premise the 66 latter results from a random process conditioned by the underlying abundance of the 67 harvestable population and the exploitation rate. Provided this process is explicitly modeled, 68 the accuracy and precision of the abundance estimate relies primarily, but not only, on our 69 ability to assess the exploitation rate. Information on changes in exploitation rates, resulting 70 for example from variations in harvesting effort, in the efficiency of catching gears or from 71 environmental factors, may be difficult to monitor. In the absence of such information, 72 abundance cannot be estimated from catch data without making strong assumptions on 73 exploitation rates, and even then, the estimates can be strongly biased if the assumptions are 74 wrong (Hilborn and Walters 1992; Arreguin-Sanchez 1996; Maunder and Punt 2004). 75 Abundance can also be estimated independently from catch. But catch statistics are often 76 more widely available over space and time than fisheries independent data. Hence, the 77 fisheries scientist often faces the dilemma of using abundance estimates from fisheries independent data with limited spatio-temporal coverage versus potentially less reliable 78 79 estimates from fisheries catch but with a wider spatio-temporal coverage.

80 When abundance estimates, derived from fisheries independent data gathered under 81 controlled scientific protocols are simultaneously available with catch statistics offering a wider 82 spatio-temporal coverage, there can be a way out of this dilemma. Exploitation rate can be 83 estimated and extrapolated over other spatio-temporal units. To improve precision and 84 accuracy, this extrapolation may benefit from taking into account covariates that are correlated 85 with variations over space and time of exploitation rate or abundance. The value of the 86 Hierarchical Bayesian Modelling (HBM) framework (Gelman et al. 2013; Congdon 2014) in 87 such cases, where availability of data vary between observation units, has been well

88 established, especially in ecology (Clark 2003; Royle and Dorazio 2008; Cressie et al. 2009; 89 Parent and Rivot 2012). The HBM framework facilitates the joint treatment of heterogeneous 90 data sets: it allows the borrowing and transfer of information between data-rich and data-poor 91 spatio-temporal units, while accounting for the associated uncertainty (e.g. Prévost et al. 2003; 92 Brun et al. 2011). HBM also facilitates estimation for spatio-temporal units with missing data 93 (e.g. Clark and Bjørnstad, 2004) and prediction for new units with no observed data (e.g. 94 Prévost et al. 2003). In this paper, we show by means of a case study on Atlantic salmon how 95 HBM enables abundance estimation over a large set of spatio-temporal units from a 96 heterogeneous dataset made of fisheries catch, fisheries independent abundance data, 97 fishing effort and environmental covariates.

98 Atlantic salmon reproduce in freshwater, where juveniles grow before undertaking long-99 distance migrations in the ocean to feeding areas. They return to their natal rivers to spawn 100 (after one or two years at sea, exceptionally three; Webb et al., 2007). Due to this homing 101 behavior, each river flowing into the ocean is usually considered as holding (at least) one 102 distinct salmon population. This specificity poses a special challenge to resource conservation 103 and management. Indeed, there are hundreds of Atlantic salmon populations (King et al. 104 2007), whose conservation status may vary greatly as a result of contrasted local 105 characteristics, even between neighboring rivers (NASCO 2019). The river scale is the 106 relevant and recommended spatial scale for the management of salmon stocks. But obviously, 107 even though salmon (Atlantic and Pacific) are among the most studied species (Prévost and 108 Chaput 2001), it is not conceivable to survey rigorously every individual river population. To 109 circumvent this difficulty, long term scientific population monitoring has targeted so-called 110 "index rivers" from which more precise knowledge on stock size, i.e. on abundance of adult 111 returns, can be obtained and ultimately transferred to unmonitored rivers. Atlantic salmon is a 112 species of great fishing interest (both commercial and recreational) and catch statistics are 113 often compiled on a river-by-river basis. These data provide an opportunity to tailor the 114 information brought by index rivers to other rivers in order to better appraise the abundance 115 of adult returns of any exploited population. The need to take the best advantage possible of

the data at hand for estimating abundance is particularly acute for Atlantic salmon. The
species has undergone a general decline of abundance during the last four decades (Chaput
2012; ICES 2019; Olmos et al. 2019). Many populations are impacted or threatened (if not yet
extirpated for a significant proportion) by human activities (e.g. damming, contamination,
fisheries), including through climate change (Piou and Prévost 2013; NASCO 2019).

121 Over the last twenty years, the HBM framework has been repeatedly used to estimate abundance in Atlantic salmon (e.g. Rivot and Prévost 2002; Rivot et al. 2008; Brun et al. 2011; 122 123 Massiot-Granier et al. 2014; Dauphin et al. 2017, 2019). Among this now relatively wide 124 selection of papers, two are of more specific interest with regards to the question addressed 125 herein. Rivot et al. (2008) present a HBM to estimate juvenile salmon abundance over a set 126 of spatio-temporal units from successive removal data (i.e. catch by electrofishing). They 127 jointly treat units with two successive passes and others with only a single pass. They use 128 catch to estimate abundance and they extrapolate the probability of capture, analogous to an 129 exploitation rate, from units with two passes to units with one pass. But they make limited use 130 of covariates for explaining spatiotemporal variations (i.e. restricted to year and dichotomous 131 habitat type effects), and their data set is homogenous in terms of data collection procedure 132 (i.e. electrofishing census only). The more general HBM framework proposed by Brun et al. 133 (2011) allows to derive homogenous series abundance estimates from multiple data collection 134 procedures (DCPs). The homogeneity refers to the definition of the abundance time series 135 which is not contingent upon the various DCPs used. The key feature of Brun et al. (2011) 136 approach resides in the explicit modelling of each of the DCPs by which the observed data 137 stem from the unknown abundance. The DCPs may vary according to the spatio-temporal 138 units considered and they can be influenced by covariates. In the present paper, we take 139 inspiration from Brun et al. (2011) by considering fishing as a DCP that covers the full set of 140 spatio-temporal units of interest. Others DCPs (e.g. partial counting devices) may contribute 141 additional data on a subset. Finally, abundance may be fully known, an option not considered 142 by Brun et al. (2011), on another subset.

143 We demonstrate our approach with a case study on 18 populations of Atlantic salmon in 144 Brittany, France (Fig. 1). A complete set of 31 years (1987-2017) of angling catch is available 145 for each river. Fisheries independent DCPs provide additional information on abundance for 146 4 populations over part of the study period: the adult returns are known on the Scorff (1994-147 2017) and the Elorn (2007-2017), while only partial counts are available for the Aulne (1999-148 2017) and the Couesnon (1996-2015). Fishing effort data and environmental covariates (river 149 size and flow) are also used. All materials needed to run the model (data sets, model script, 150 etc) and to produce estimates, tables and figures presented in this paper are available at the 151 following link: https://gitlab.com/clebot/abundance.

153 MATERIALS AND METHODS

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155 When catch statistics are available over wide set of spatio-temporal units together with fishery 156 independent abundance estimates covering only a restricted subset, estimating abundance 157 over the full set of spatio-temporal units can be undertaken by extrapolating over the units 158 where only catch statistics are available the information gained about the exploitation rates 159 from the units with both catch and fishery independent abundance estimates. To proceed to 160 this extrapolation, we propose a novel HBM approach which originality resides in a common 161 modeling of the relationship linking catch, exploitation rate and abundance, irrespective of the 162 fact the latter is fully unknown, estimated with error (i.e. partially observed) or directly observed 163 (i.e. fully known). The HBM setting allows for variations across spatio-temporal units, while 164 enabling the transfer of information between them. The use of this single catching process 165 model aims at facilitating the transfer of information from the data rich spatio-temporal units 166 (i.e. with abundance and catch) to the data-poor ones (i.e. with catch only) when proceeding 167 to statistical inference. The approach is further refined by including covariates, both 168 environmental or fishery related, that can help explaining spatio-temporal variations of 169 exploitation rate or abundance.

These modeling guidelines are quite general irrespective of the species or the spatio-temporal setting of interest. We put them in practice on our case study on Atlantic salmon. We start by describing the data at hand, followed by the modelling details, with first (i) the common modelling of the catching process and next the hierarchical structure and the covariate effects set on (ii) exploitation rate and (iii) abundance. The specification of prior distributions, the implementation of the Bayesian inference and elements of evaluation of model performance are subsequently presented.

177

178 1. Study site and fishing regulation

In France, freshwater fisheries targeting Atlantic salmon (mainly recreational angling by rodand line) are regulated. A specific license is required and the regular fishing season is divided

in two periods; from mid-March to mid-June and from mid-June to mid-September. Fishing dates are established every year at the river scale with some variations between rivers and years. Multi-sea winter (MSW) fish return to rivers first and 89% of their catch is made during the first fishing period. To limit the exploitation of MSW fish, their removal is not allowed outside the first fishing period (i.e. no fish larger than 67 cm can be kept). The return migration of one-sea winter fish (1SW) occurs later in the year, essentially after mid-June and 92% of the 1SW catch is made after this date.

188 The declaration of salmon catches in rivers became mandatory in 1987 and nine years later, 189 river-specific annual Total Allowable Catches (TACs) were established (Prévost and Porcher 190 1996). In Brittany, TACs are defined for 26 rivers but only the main 18 rivers are considered 191 in this study (Fig. 1). These TACs are specific to each sea age category (i.e. MSW and 1SW). 192 They are updated on a multiannual basis according to available assessment data. The in-193 season monitoring of catches is essential, allowing managers to close the fishery if the TAC 194 is reached before the prescribed end of the fishing period. As the 1SW TAC has never been 195 reached in any river to date, an extension of the second fishing period from mid-September to 196 mid-October (even late October in some circumstances) has also been established for some 197 rivers some years. We consider this extension as a third fishing period.

198

199 2. Data

a. Catch

Atlantic salmon catches are collated in a database managed by the "*Centre National* d'Interprétation des Captures de Salmonidés" (CNICS,
 https://www6.rennes.inrae.fr/u3e eng/ABOUT-US/Organisation/The-migratory-fish-

hub/CNICS). We extracted time-series of annual catches by sea age category for our 18 salmon populations over the period from 1987 to 2017. Sea age is interpreted from the analysis of fish scales samples that fishermen must provide for every fish caught when declaring their catch.

b. Covariates of the exploitation rates

210 River angling catch is related to the number of returning adults through an exploitation rate, 211 which in turn depends on fishing effort. The number of fishing licenses issued annually and 212 the duration of fishing periods are the only information available on fishing effort. The number 213 of licenses is only known at the regional scale (i.e. Brittany) and cannot be allocated on a river 214 per river basis. This number varies minimally over time (coefficient of variation (CV): 11% over 215 the period of study) and preliminary analyses (not reported here) did not show it had an effect 216 on the variations of the exploitation rate estimates over time. Thus, the number of licenses 217 has been discarded from our analysis. The duration of the fishing periods is known for every 218 river every year. Hence, for each river and each fishing period, the time-series of fishing effort 219 from 1987 to 2017 corresponds to the number of days when fishing is allowed. Fishing effort 220 is considered separately by fishing period.

Rod and line catches of salmon can be correlated over time with river flows as they influence angling success (Gee 1980). In Brittany, river flows are mainly driven by regional and seasonal patterns of precipitations that are mostly common to all rivers. Three regional river flow indices, one per fishing period, were derived using a subset of nine rivers for which flow measurements were available for the period 1987 to 2017. For each river, we selected the gauging station nearest to the estuary and computed annual indices by averaging the daily discharge measurements across days and rivers for each fishing period.

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c. Abundance of adult returns from monitored rivers

For the Scorff (Fig. 1), the total abundance of adult returns by sea age category (1SW and MSW) have been estimated since 1994 using capture-mark-recapture techniques (Servanty Royer and Prévost 2016; Buoro et al. 2019). Fish are marked at a trapping facility located at the head of tide and, recaptures are made above this site and no angling catch occurs downstream from it. Sea age is determined from interpretation of scales collected from sampled fish. 236 On the Elorn (Fig. 1), direct counting of salmon has been undertaken since 2007 using a video-237 recording unit located 2.5 km upstream from the head-of-tide. There are very few (if any) rod 238 and line catches below the counting facility. Total returns of 1SW and MSW adults are 239 determined based on the individual length (1SW fish are significantly shorter, more than 10 240 cm on average, than their MSW counterparts) and the date of observation of each fish 241 (Dartiguelongue 2017). Given the methods used to quantify adult returns on the Scorff and 242 the Elorn, the estimates of returns are considered to be known without error. The exception is 243 for the Elorn in 2007 when the video-counting was only set up in mid-April, after the beginning 244 of the period of river entry of MSW individuals. The number of MSW fish counted in 2007 is 245 thus considered as a partial count of the MSW returns.

246 Information on adult returns is also collected from counting devices on the Aulne (video 247 recording; Fig. 1) since 1999 and on the Couesnon since 1996 (acoustic recording and 248 trapping; Fig. 1). For both rivers, the characteristics of the facilities and the observation 249 procedures only provide partial counts. On the Aulne, the counting device is installed at a dam, 250 at the upstream end of the adjoining fishway. Under high flow conditions some fish may cross 251 the dam directly without using the fishway. On the Cousenon, the beam of the acoustic 252 recorder only covers part of the section of the river. At both sites, the distinction between 1SW 253 and MSW individuals is also based on length and date of observation.

254

d. River area

Abundance of Atlantic salmon populations are strongly dependent on the size of the home river that supports the juvenile production (Prévost et al. 2001). The size can be quantified by the water surface area that support juvenile production (i.e. productive area), expressed in 100 m² of riffle-rapid equivalent (RRE), with riffles and rapids being the preferred habitats for juvenile salmon (Bagliniere and Champigneulle 1982; Prévost and Porcher 1996). For the rivers of Brittany, habitat areas are derived from habitat cartography data and are regularly updated.

263

Page 13 of 54

264 3. Model overview

265 The simplified direct acyclic graph presented Fig. 2 describes the general conditioning structure of the model (see also supplementary material A for the full DAG). At the bottom of 266 267 the graph are observed data, i.e. the catches, that are conditioned by other model quantities 268 but do not condition any other quantity. At the top of the graph are the model parameters ψ 269 and the observed covariates, i.e. the regional flow index Q, the river size S and the fishing 270 effort E; that condition other model quantities but are not conditioned by any other quantity. In 271 between, are latent variables θ , i.e. intermediate quantities useful to conceptualize the process 272 giving rise to the data, and the quantities of ultimate interest to be estimated, i.e. the 273 exploitation rates u and the number of adult returns N, the latter being conditioned by river 274 size S. The catch C is assumed to depend on the adult return abundance N and the 275 exploitation rate u, also called the probability of capture. Part of the variations of the 276 exploitation rate is explained by two covariates, the regional flow index Q (i.e. environmental 277 conditions) and a river-specific measure of fishing effort E, i.e. the duration of the fishing 278 period. The parameters ψ govern the variations over time (year, t), space (river, r) and sea 279 age (a) of the latent variables θ and the quantities of ultimate interest in a hierarchical 280 structure. Most of the model parameters ψ are specific to the fishing period (p). Note that the 281 adult abundances are observed or unknown, according to the river and the year.

282

283 4. Model details

284 Observable quantities and covariates are denoted by capital Roman letters and unobservable 285 quantities by Greek or Roman lowercase letters. The notation $x|y \sim distribution(y)$ refers to the 286 conditional distribution of x given y. Subscripts indicate the year t, the river r (from 1 =Couesnon to 18 = Blavet; Fig. 1), the sea age category a (1 for MSW and 2 for 1SW), and/or 287 the fishing period *p* (from 1 to 3). A superscript identifies the relationship between variables 288 within the hierarchical structure of the model, that is, μ^q is the mean of the distribution of the 289 290 quantity denoted q. In linear models, intercepts are denoted α and covariate coefficients or 291 effects are denoted β . These linear model parameters may also be numbered when 292 necessary. See also Tab. 1 for the definition of all model quantities.

293

a. Exploitation

The catch $C_{t,r,a}$ of sea age category *a*, in river *r*, in year *t* is assumed to result from a binomial draw in the total number of adult returns $N_{t,r,a}$ with a probability of capture $u_{t,r,a}$ (1) subsequently referred to as the exploitation rate.

298

299 (1) $C_{t,r,a}|N_{t,r,a}, u_{t,r,a} \sim \text{Binomial}(N_{t,r,a}, u_{t,r,a})$

The binomial distribution can accommodate variations in the probability of capture among individuals provided they are independent relative to the capture process (Mäntyniemi et al. 2005). Angling tests fish individually, capture them one by one and we have no evidence showing that the catch of any given fish would change the behavior of its counterparts and render them more or less catchable. Independence therefore appears as a simple and reasonable default hypothesis in our case. Overdispersed alternatives to the binomial distribution (e.g. beta-binomial) could be used if warranted.

307 The survival to fishing 1 - $u_{t,r,a}$, is modeled by means of three survival rates $s_{t,r,p}$ (2).

308

309 (2) 1 -
$$u_{t,r,a} = \prod_{p=1}^{3} (s_{t,r,p})^{I_{t,r,a,p}}$$

where $s_{t,r,p}$ is the survival for MSW fish when p=1, for 1SW in the absence of third fishing period when p=2 and for 1SW during the third fishing period only when p=3. The index p of the fishing periods is used here because MSW fishing is only allowed during the first one and 1SW fish are essentially caught during the second and the third. Note however that the very few (i) MSW individuals that may be caught and declared by mistake outside period 1 or (ii) 1SW individuals caught prior to the beginning of the second period, are included in the catch data modeled at equation (1). 317 According to this formulation, the fishing survival probabilities $1 - u_{t,r,a}$ results from three 318 survival events, binary indicators $(I_{t,r,a,p})$ specifying which apply to each sea age category, in any given year and river. For the MSW fish, the binary indicators $I_{t,r,1,1}$ equals 1 while the $I_{t,r,1,2}$ 319 320 and $I_{t,r,1,3}$ are 0. Note however that, due to some exceptional fishery closures, $I_{t,r,1,1}$ may equal 321 0 in some years for some rivers (e.g. for the Yar in 2016 and 2017). For the 1SW fish, $I_{tr,2,1}$ 322 equals 0 and $I_{t,r,2,2}$ is almost always 1, while $I_{t,r,2,3}$ equals 0 or 1 according to whether the third 323 fishing period is allowed by managers. $I_{t,r,2,2}$ may exceptionally equal 0 to account for fishery 324 closures occurring the years where water levels were extremely low during summer. Under 325 this formulation, 1SW fish have to sequentially survive to a second exploitation event when 326 the third period is open.

327 The log-log scaled $s_{t,r,p}$ survival rate is related to fishing effort (number of days) and flow using 328 a linear-normal formulation (3 and 4). The log-log transformation is a standard link function which converts the survival rates, varying between 0 and 1, into a quantity, denoted $v_{t,r,p}$, 329 varying from -∞ to +∞ and thus amenable to linear normal modeling (Congdon 2014). We 330 331 considered river flow as a covariate explaining part of the temporal variability of the exploitation 332 rates because it may influence the migration activity of the fish (Thorstad et al. 2008) and 333 ultimately angling success (Gee 1980). The flow and effort covariates are measured over the 334 fishing periods most relevant to the sea age category considered, i.e. the first one for MSW 335 and the second and third ones for 1SW. The linear model coefficients are assumed to vary 336 according to the river for each fishing period and between the fishing periods. Indeed, the 337 effects of fishing effort and flow on the exploitation rate potentially differ because fishing 338 practices and the behavior of the fish may change according to the season and the fish 339 characteristics (Gueguen and Prouzet 1994). In the first period, only MSW fish, which are 340 mostly females, are subject to exploitation. The second period corresponds to the peak of 341 1SW fish river entry, which are smaller and have a more balanced sex ratio (if not dominated 342 by males). In the third period, fishing only occurs on 1SW fish, but many have already spent 343 several weeks in freshwater without feeding and they are closer to spawning time. For

344 consistency with the linear-normal structure of the model, the flow $(Q_{t,p})$ and fishing effort 345 $(E_{t,r,p})$ covariates, which are strictly positive in their natural scale, are log transformed. 346 Centering of the log transformed covariates is undertaken thereafter using their empirical 347 mean per fishing period $(M_p^{log(Q)} \text{ and } M_p^{log(E)})$ to facilitate inferences.

348

349 (3)
$$v_{t,r,p}|\mu_{t,r,p}^{v}, \tau_{p}^{v} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_{t,r,p}^{v}, \tau_{p}^{v})$$

350 (4)
$$\mu_{t,r,p}^{v} = \alpha_{r,p}^{v} + \beta 1_{r,p}^{v} \times \left[\log (Q_{t,p}) - M_{p}^{\log(Q)} \right] + \beta 2_{r,p}^{v} \times \left[\log (E_{t,r,p}) - M_{p}^{\log(E)} \right]$$

351

352 where r_{ρ}^{ν} is the precision of the normal distribution.

To account for variations among rivers, the intercepts $a_{r,p}^{\nu}$ and the $\beta 1_{r,p}^{\nu}$ and $\beta 2_{r,p}^{\nu}$ coefficients are river specific and are hierarchically modeled assuming normal distributions with means ($\mu_{p}^{\alpha}, \mu_{p}^{\beta 1}, \mu_{p}^{\beta 2}$) and precisions ($r_{p}^{\alpha}, r_{p}^{\beta 1}, r_{p}^{\beta 2}$), respectively, specific to a period (5, 6 and 7).

357 (5)
$$\alpha_{r,p}^{\nu}|\mu_{p}^{\alpha}, \tau_{p}^{\alpha} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_{p}^{\alpha}, \tau_{p}^{\alpha})$$

- 358 (6) $\beta 1_{r,p}^{v} | \mu_{p}^{\beta 1}, \tau_{p}^{\beta 1} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_{p}^{\beta 1}, \tau_{p}^{\beta 1})$
- 359 (7) $\beta 2_{r,p}^{v} | \mu_{p}^{\beta 2}, \tau_{p}^{\beta 2} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_{p}^{\beta 2}, \tau_{p}^{\beta 2})$

360

361 b. Adult returns

362

363 The number of adult returns $N_{t,r,a}$ is assumed to be Poisson distributed with a mean parameter

364 $n_{t,r,a}$ defined for each year t, river r, and sea age category a (8). Overdispersed alternatives to

the Poisson distribution (e.g. negative-binomial) could be used if warranted.

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367 (8) N_{t,r,a}|n_{t,r,a} \sim \text{Poisson}(n_{t,r,a})
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368

369 Adults returns are either observed as on the Scorff and the Elorn, partially observed as on the 370 Couesnon and the Aulne (and the Elorn in 2007 for MSW fish), or unknown in any other 371 instances (Fig. 1). On the Couesnon, available partial counts were most likely a minor fraction 372 of the actual number and there was no additional knowledge about the proportion of counted 373 fish. We opted for a mere data censoring, the observed count NC_{t.r.a} being the lower bound of the corresponding Poisson distribution. On the Aulne (and the Elorn MSW in 2007), first trials 374 375 using data censoring led to gross over estimation of adult returns, with unrealistically high 376 values relative to the river size. In addition, the partial count is considered to be relatively close 377 to the "true" value and there is additional expert knowledge about the proportion being 378 counted. We thus chose to model these data differently from those of the Couesnon, and 379 opted for modeling the partial counting process of adult returns by means of a binomial 380 distribution, with the "true" abundances of adult returns $N_{t,r,a}$ corresponding to the total number 381 of trials and a counting probability of adult returns $p_{t,r,a}$ (9).

382

383

3 (9) $NC_{t,r,a}|N_{t,r,a}, p_{t,r,a} \sim \text{Binomial}(N_{t,r,a}, p_{t,r,a})$

384

We used additional expert knowledge to constrain the counting probabilities. First, considering the *a priori* high efficiency of the counting device, we assumed that the counting probabilities of MSW returns were higher than MSW exploitation rates ($u_{t,r,1}$ in equation 1). Second, we further assumed that the counting probabilities are higher for 1SW compared to MSW fish. Lower river flow during the upstream migration window of 1SW fish (mostly in summer), with fewer flood events, make the counting device more efficient than during MSW migration
window (mostly in spring). Both hypotheses were implemented using left-truncated uniform
distribution for the counting probabilities (10 and 11).

393

394 (10)
$$p_{t,r,1}|u_{t,r,1} \sim \text{Uniform}(u_{t,r,1}, 1)$$

395 (11) $p_{t,r,2}|p_{t,r,1}$ ~ Uniform ($p_{t,r,1}$, 1)

To assess the impact of these assumptions derived from available local expertise, we also used unconstrained uniform probability distribution for $p_{t,r,1}$ and $p_{t,r,2}$ (see supplementary material B).

399 In Atlantic salmon, population size is constrained by and positively dependent on river size 400 (Prévost et al. 2001). Poisson parameter $n_{t,r,a}$ of the adult return distributions (8) is the mean 401 number of adult returns per sea age category. Hence, it is computed as the product of the 402 river size S_{tr} and the adult density $\delta_{tr,a}$ per unit of river size (12). In accordance with common 403 practice, the riverine wetted area that supports the juvenile production which the returning adults originates from is used as a measure of river size (e.g. Prévost et al. 2003). To avoid 404 405 very low values of $\delta_{t,r,a}$ and facilitate inferences, unit of river size used was defined as 100 m² 406 of riffles and rapids equivalents.

407

408 (12)
$$n_{t,r,a} = \delta_{t,r,a} \times S_{t,r}$$

409

410 Densities of each sea winter category are computed as a proportion of the total density of 411 adults returning to each river ($d_{t,r}$), 1SW and MSW combined (13).

412

413 (13) $\delta_{t+a,r,a} = d_{t,r} \times q_{t,r,a}$

Δ	1	4
т		-

The 1SW proportion $q_{t,r,1}$ ($q_{t,r,2} = 1 - q_{t,r,1}$ being the MSW proportion) is assumed exchangeable among years and rivers and modelled by a logit-normal distribution (14). Note sea-age proportion is considered by juvenile (i.e. smolt) migration year as it is expected to be less variable than by year of adult returns which combine two different juvenile cohort of potentially variable strength.

420

421 (14) logit $(q_{t,r,1})|\mu^q, \tau^q \sim \text{Normal } (\mu^q, \tau^q)$

422

423 where μ^q and r^q are the mean and the precision in the logit scale.

Despite standardization by river size, adult densities still vary according to year and river. The log scaled $d_{t,r}$ are thus assumed to be normally distributed with a common precision (r^d) and a mean $\mu_{t,r}^d$ resulting from the sum of a grand mean $\alpha 1^d$ with additive year $\alpha 2_t^d$ and river $\alpha 3_r^d$ random effects (15, 16, 17 and 18).

428

- 429 (15) $\log(d_{t,r}) \mid \mu_{t,r}^{d}, \tau^{d} \sim \text{Normal}(\mu_{t,r}^{d}, \tau^{d})$
- 430 (16) $\mu_{t,r}^{d} = \alpha 1^{d} + \alpha 2_{t}^{d} + \alpha 3_{r}^{d}$
- 431 (17) $\alpha 2_t^{\alpha} | r^{\alpha 2} \sim \text{Normal} (0, r^{\alpha 2})$
- 432 (18) $\alpha 3_r^d | r^{\alpha 3} \sim \text{Normal } (0, r^{\alpha 3})$

433

434 where $r^{\alpha 2}$ and $r^{\alpha 3}$ are the precisions of the year and river effects respectively.

436 5. Prior probability distributions and Bayesian inference

437 Independent prior probability distributions are assigned to the parameters of the model, i.e. 438 the quantities of the model not conditioned by any other quantity. No prior knowledge was 439 available to us regarding these parameters so we opted for vague priors probability 440 distributions (Tab. 2) to ensure that our posterior distributions reflect primarily the information brought by the data. The structure of our model being essentially linear-normal, we stuck to 441 the standard choice of using normal distributions, with 0 mean and large variance, for the 442 443 parameters related to the coefficients of the linear relations and gamma distributions, with small shape and inverse-scale for the precisions $(\tau_{\rho}^{v}, \tau_{\rho}^{\alpha}, \tau_{\rho}^{\beta 1}, \tau_{\rho}^{\beta 2}, \tau^{q}, \tau^{d}, \tau^{\alpha 2}, \tau^{\alpha 3})$. 444

445

446 The joint posterior distribution of all unknown quantities was approximated using Markov chain 447 Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling. All computations were carried out with the JAGS® software 448 (version 4.2.0.; Plummer 2003) running in rjags, Coda and Dclone packages of R (version 449 3.3.0, www.r-project.org). Three chains with contrasted starting points were run in parallel. 450 After an initial phase of 2,000 iterations for sampler adapting, 10⁷ values were drawn for each 451 chain. The convergence of the MCMC sampling was evaluated using the Gelman-Rubin 452 (Rubin and Gelman 1992) diagnostics and Geweke stationarity tests as implemented in the 453 Coda R package. For all the model parameters, upper limits of the Gelman-Rubin statistics 454 were close to 1 (always lower than 1.1), indicating a good mixing of the MCMC chains, and 455 Geweke tests were successfully passed (i.e. Geweke statistics within its asymptotic 95% 456 probability interval). A subset of 12 000 values from the three chains (1 iteration out of 500 for 457 each chain) was used to approximate the posterior distributions. Running 5, 50 and 95 458 percentiles were examined graphically in order to verify they were stable at the end of the 459 MCMC sampling. This was done for all the quantities for which these quantiles are presented 460 in the Fig. 3 to 7 or in the text.

461

462 6. Posterior checking

The agreement between the model *a posteriori* and the observed data was assessed by means of the χ^2 discrepancy measure according to the approach proposed by Gelman et al. (1996). This was done separately for the catch data and the observed abundance on the Scorff and the Elorn (see supplementary material C for more details).

467 Cross-validation was also conducted by five successive removals of a fifth of the years with
468 data from the observations of abundance collected on the Elorn (2008-2017) and on the Scorff
469 (1994-2017). The observations removed were compared with their posterior estimates (see
470 supplementary material D).

471

472 7. Sensitivity to the quality and quantity of fisheries independent data on abundance
473 We assessed the sensitivity of the posterior inferences to the availability and quality of
474 fisheries independent data on abundance by contrasting various hypothetical data scenarios.
475 The baseline scenario (S0) corresponds to the data as described in the Data section. In the
476 sequel, the others scenarios are described relative to S0, i.e. everything not mentioned
477 remains as in S0.

478 The scenarios S1x replace the abundance data on the Scorff (1994-2017) and the Elorn 479 (2007-2017) by estimates with random error, assumed normal around the values used in S0. 480 Indeed, considering the adult returns are fully known is oversimplifying. For the Scorff, they 481 are estimated from mark-recapture techniques. The average CV of the estimates are 0.15 for 482 MSW fish and 0.07 for the 1SW ones (see http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3275148 for details). 483 On the Elorn, the counting device operates almost all year round. Although there is a 484 correction made for the short periods of time when the counting device is off, there is no 485 quantification of the uncertainty associated to this correction procedure (Dartiguelongue 2017), in addition to some limited errors due to the ageing based on fish length and date of 486 487 observation. We used two levels of uncertainty applied equally to all the adult returns data: 488 the first corresponds to the average CV by sea age category observed on the Scorff (S1a) 489 and the second corresponds to its double (S1b).

490 The other scenarios vary the quantity of data available, with either reduction or augmentation. 491 The reduction scenarios S2x correspond to the removal of the observations of abundance 492 collected on the Elorn (S2a), the removal of every other year of observation on the Elorn and 493 on the Scorff (S2b) and the removal of the partial counting data from the Couesnon and the 494 Aulne (S2c). The last three scenarios S3x assume that more data were available, by using a random draw in the posterior distribution under S0 as observed data. Scenario S3a considers 495 496 that the abundance was fully known for entire period of study on the Scorff and the Elorn. 497 Scenario S3b considers that in addition adult returns were also known on the Penzé and 498 scenario S3c adds the Aven to the observed abundance data (Fig 1).

All these scenarios were contrasted by examining the average standard deviation of the posterior estimates they produced for both the abundance in log-scale and the exploitation rates in log-log-scale. The average was calculated over data-poor (i.e. with catch data only) spatio-temporal units as they are those of primary interest. To facilitate the comparison between scenarios, the same subset of rivers was used to compute the average, i.e. the 12 rivers that were always data-poor whatever the scenario considered (thus excluding the Scorff, the Elorn, the Aulne, the Couesnon, the Penzé and the Aven; Fig. 1).

506 **RESULTS**

507

508 Marginal posterior distributions of the model parameters have a lower dispersion and most 509 often modified means compared to those of their prior distributions (Tab. 2; supplementary 510 material E). The updating of the prior distributions is clear and indicates that our posterior 511 inferences are mostly reflecting the information brought by the data.

The *a posteriori* checking of standardized residuals of the exploitation rates reveal no clear contradiction with the assumption of their normal *i.i.d.* distribution. The χ^2 discrepancies and associated p values did not reveal any clear inconsistency between the observed catch or abundance (Scorff and Elorn) and the same type of data predicted by the model *a posteriori* (p-values from 0.490 to 0.726; supplementary material C). Cross-validation conducted on the Scorff and Elorn observation of abundance show good agreement between the data removed and their estimates (supplementary material D).

519 The precision of estimation of the abundance of the adult returns and of the exploitation rate 520 (Fig. 3) is little sensitive to the introduction of measurement errors for the Scorff or the Elorn 521 observations of abundance (scenarios S1a and S1b), or to the removal of every other 522 observation from the Scorff and the Elorn (scenario S2b) or to the removal of the partial counts 523 data from the Couesnon and the Aulne (scenario S2c). In contrast, the number of rivers with 524 observed data significantly influences the precision of estimation, especially that of 525 abundance. The removal of the Elorn observed data (scenario S2a) increases the uncertainty 526 of estimates while the addition of new rivers with observed data lead to a reduction (scenarios 527 S3b and S3c). Note that the mere completion of the data series of the Scorff and the Elorn 528 has little effect on the estimation precision (scenario S3a).

For the remainder of this paper, only the results obtained under the baseline data scenario S0are presented.

531

532 1. Exploitation

533 During the first fishing period, there is an overall positive effect of river flow on the exploitation rates (posterior probability of $\mu_1^{\beta 1} > 0$: 100%). At the river scale, the flow effect is significant 534 (i.e. posterior probability of being positive is above 90%) in 12 out of 18 cases, and for the 6 535 536 remaining rivers, posterior medians of effects are positive (Fig. 4). Fishing effort defined as 537 the length of the fishing season has an overall significant and positive effect on the exploitation rate only during the second fishing period (posterior probability of $\mu_2^{\beta 2} > 0$: 99%). For this 538 539 period, the medians of the posterior estimates are positive for all rivers and the effects are 540 significantly positive (i.e. probability of being positive > 95%) for five rivers. There is no 541 general, significant and consistent effect of effort across rivers for the first and third fishing 542 periods. For the first period, there are some contrasted effects among rivers with significantly 543 positive and negative effects for six rivers whereas in the third period, there is only one river 544 with a significant and negative effect of effort, the Couesnon (Fig. 4).

545 The exploitation rate of MSW fish is estimated to be almost three times higher on average (0.15) than that of 1SW fish (0.06) (probability the difference is positive: 92%;Tab. 3). The 546 547 decision to open a third fishing period increases the 1SW fishing mortality resulting in an 548 average exploitation rate of 0.08, compared to 0.03 when fishing is closed after the second period. The precision of the exploitation rates estimates varies according to the quality of data 549 550 available. When abundances are observed, CVs of exploitation rate estimates are low and 551 equal to 18% and 16% on average for MSW and 1SW fish respectively. In contrast, the highest 552 average CVs are for spatio-temporal units where abundances are not observed (MSW: 45%; 553 1SW: 63%). Intermediate precision is obtained when abundances are partially observed (Tab. 554 3).

555 Times series of exploitation rates estimates by sea age category may exhibit contrasted 556 patterns through time according to the river. For the majority of the rivers it varies around the 557 mean without clear trend, as shown for the Penzé (Fig. 5.d and supplementary material F). In 558 contrast, the MSW exploitation rates of the Elorn (Fig. 5.a) and the Aulne (Fig. 5.b) decrease 559 whereas they increase for the Couesnon (Fig. 5.c). For 1SW individuals, two levels of

560 exploitation rates are generally observed depending on the opening vs closure of the third 561 fishing period. This is clearly visible for the Penzé (Fig. 5.h.) and the Couesnon (Fig. 5.g.). For 562 the Couesnon, exploitation rates increased dramatically in the last three years to a maximum 563 of 0.43 in 2015. The Aulne exhibits a very singular pattern with a strong rise of the 1SW 564 exploitation rate leading to a peak in 1996 followed by a decrease back to a level just above 565 that observed at the beginning of the time series (Fig. 5.f.).

566

567

2. Abundance of adult returns

568 The $\alpha 1^d$ posterior mean (-1.23; Tab. 2) corresponds to a mean density of 0.3 adult per 100 m² of productive area. The posterior distributions of the year effects show strong yearly 569 570 variations in the abundance of adults at the regional scale without any clear temporal trend (Fig. 6.a). The lowest estimated abundance overall is in 2010 (median year effect = -0.62 in 571 572 the log scale): it corresponds to an average yearly density of adults reduced by half relative to 573 the overall mean. Conversely, the highest estimated abundance was in 1996 corresponding 574 to a yearly mean density 1.5 times higher than the overall mean. Most of the posterior medians 575 of the river effects are positive and less than 1 except for four small rivers, the Leff, the Jaudy, 576 the Yar and the Queffleuth, where they are negative (Fig. 6.b).

Associated with the precision of the exploitation rates, the precision of the abundance estimates is dependent on the quality of the data available (Tab. 3). The CVs are null when abundance is observed. The average CVs are almost 2 times lower when there are partial observations of abundance than when there are no fishery-independent observations. In the most common case of no fishery-independent data, the uncertainties of the annual abundance estimate remain relatively high.

583 This lack of precision does not preclude the ability of improved understanding of temporal 584 patterns of variations in abundance. In the time series of abundance by sea age category of 585 the Elorn, the Aulne, the Couesnon and the Penzé presented for the sake of illustration (Fig.

586 7), posterior medians vary by a factor of 9 for MSW and of 7 for 1SW abundances. Good and 587 bad years are then clearly distinguished, as for instance the peak of abundance for the Aulne 588 in the mid-nineties (Fig. 7.b and Fig. 7.f). For the Couesnon, there is also a tendency of higher 589 adult abundance in recent years, especially for 1SW fish (Fig. 7.c and Fig. 7.g). These are 590 notable exceptions to the general absence of clear temporal patterns or trends for the other 591 rivers studied. (Fig. 7.d and Fig. 7.h; supplementary material G).

593 **DISCUSSION**

594

595 The ultimate goal of our work was to develop a statistical modelling approach to estimate 596 abundance time series by taking the fullest advantage of the diverse assemblage of data at 597 hand, namely in-river angling catch, total or partial counts of adult returns, environmental 598 covariates (i.e. river size and flows) and fishing effort. To do so, we drawn from the general 599 HBM framework proposed by Brun et al. (2011) to derive homogenous series of population(s) 600 abundance from multiple DCPs. We first considered fishing as a DCP that applies to the full 601 set of spatio-temporal units. We designed a model describing the process generating catch 602 from the underlying abundance. Its formulation is the same whatever the spatio-temporal unit 603 considered, irrespective of the availability of fisheries independent information on the 604 abundance of adult returns. Partial observations of abundance are additional DCPs, explicitly 605 modelled using two different techniques, i.e. binomial draw or data censoring, to account for 606 the local specificities of the counting facilities. But unlike Brun et al. (2011), we also considered 607 that abundance was known for a sub-set of the spatio-temporal units of interest. Finally, river 608 size, flows and effort measures were used as covariates conditioning abundance or 609 exploitation rate.

610 The joint treatment of our heterogeneous assemblage of data in a single HBM framework 611 allowed the transfer of information from data-rich to data-poor spatio-temporal units when 612 proceeding to the estimation of homogeneous time series of abundance for the full set of rivers 613 and years, while accounting for their associated uncertainty. As it is often the case, the data-614 rich units were of limited spatio-temporal scope. Abundance was known, in addition to catch 615 and covariate data, only for the Scorff for most years of the time series and for the Elorn in 616 more recent years. This is insufficient for providing an overall view of the variations and 617 patterns of evolution of abundance for the full set of rivers and years. The data-poor units, for 618 which only catch and covariate data are available, make the bulk of the set of spatio-temporal 619 units of interest. Although these data are informative to some extent about abundance, they 620 are not sufficient for deriving meaningful estimates of abundance. An intermediate situation

621 occurs some years on the Aulne and the Couesnon when adult returns were partially counted. 622 When combined with the catch data by means of a consistent HBM framework that jointly 623 treats the full set of spatio-temporal units, the fisheries independent data on abundance 624 become more valuable. Indeed, they provide an opportunity to scale the catch to the 625 abundance and to fit the fishing process model. When proceeding to the statistical inference, 626 the information brought by the fisheries independent observations of abundance is conveyed 627 from the data rich units to the data-poor ones by the parameters of the catching process model 628 which are shared by all the spatio-temporal units. The strength of the data available 629 determines the uncertainty of the abundance estimates, as shown (i) when comparing the 630 units for which abundance is partially observed with the data-poor ones (Tab. 3) or (ii) by the 631 sensitivity of the estimation precision to the quantity of fully observed abundance data (Fig. 632 3). The quantity of abundance observations and the number of rivers over which they are 633 distributed, are also key for the accuracy of the estimation of the mean parameters governing 634 the hierarchical modelling of both the exploitation rate and the abundance, which in turn 635 influence more directly the inferences about the data-poor units than about the data-rich ones. 636 Ultimately, the more information is available, the less uncertain and the more accurate the 637 inferences are.

638 The quality of the observation data and their associated uncertainty, at least in our case study 639 and within the domain of situations tested in the present paper (i.e. up to a doubling of the 640 standard deviation of measurement errors observed on the Scorff), has a limited effect on the 641 precision of the estimation of abundance or exploitation rate. Hence, the simplification of 642 ignoring the uncertainty of the rather precise estimates of adult returns of the Scorff and the 643 Elorn appears justified. When the uncertainty of the estimates obtained for data-poor units is 644 high relative to that of the abundance observations, the complexification of the modelling 645 required for the explicit integration of the observation errors seems unwarranted.

In this paper, we present essentially one model formulation. Given the ultimate objective of
our work (i.e. the estimation of salmon abundance time series by taking the fullest advantage
of the diverse assemblage of data at hand including fisheries catch) and the illustrative

649 purpose of our case study, the testing of alternative hypotheses by means of alternative model 650 formulation was not of primary interest. Other formulations have been tried through the 651 process of elaborating the model version that is ultimately presented. Here as well we followed 652 Brun et al (2011) and adopted their step by step approach of increasing model complexity 653 guided by successive posterior model checking at each step. This approach was preferred to 654 multimodel inferences based on the averaging over various models according to some weighting criterion. Although conceptually attractive, as it allows to incorporate model 655 656 uncertainty, multimodel inferences are practically difficult given the complexity of our model 657 and the associated computational burden, not to mention the choice of the weighing criterion 658 which is also a matter of debate (Gelman and Rubin 1995; Tenan et al. 2014; Ver Hoef and 659 Boveng 2015).

660 As it stands, our model does not acknowledge any sequential dependence (i.e. 661 autocorrelation) over time and/or space (i.e. between neighbouring rivers) in the abundance 662 or the exploitation rates of adult salmon. Explicit spatio-temporal modelling is certainly an 663 avenue for further work because spatio-temporal autocorrelation is widespread in ecological 664 processes and fisheries. It would increase the complexity of a model already quite complex 665 though. Caution is required to ensure the data needed to allow the posterior identification of 666 spatio-temporal autocorrelation, and in the end the provision of meaningful estimates of 667 abundance, are available. In our case study, this remains dubious as even with the model 668 currently used, the estimates of the quantities of ultimate interest, i.e. the abundances and to 669 a lesser degree the exploitation rates, are still fairly imprecise with the data at hand.

The relevance of our approach and the associated model is reinforced by the interest of the results we obtained for population and fisheries management advice and their agreement with additional knowledge and expertise not formally included in the model or the data. Without any *a priori* assumptions introduced in our model, MSW exploitation rates are estimated to be three times higher on average than 1SW exploitation rates. Such size-selective exploitation toward larger individuals is common in both aquatic and terrestrial habitats (Fenberg and Roy 2008). It has been observed in other Atlantic salmon populations of Spain (Consuegra et al. 677 2005; Saura et al. 2010), UK (Gough et al. 1992; Quinn et al. 2006; Thorley et al. 2007) and 678 Finland (Borgstrøm et al. 2010). Thorley et al. (2007) proposed three explanations for this 679 pattern: a longer upstream migration of MSW individuals, a possible higher catchability of 680 MSW individuals due to higher river flow and lower abundances (See Thorley et al. 2007 for 681 more details). In addition, the timing of the fishing season can contribute to size-selective 682 exploitation (Saura et al. 2010; Harvey et al. 2017), as for example being a consequence of a longer MSW fishing period. Although the MSW fishing period used to be longer than 1SW 683 684 fishing period, in recent years this pattern has been reversed in Brittany. Still the MSW 685 exploitation rates remain higher, hence MSW selective exploitation rates in Brittany must be 686 defined by other factors than the timing of the fishing season. An explanation might reside in 687 the behaviour of anglers, who would preferentially target the larger MSW fish. In Brittany, data 688 on fishing effort allocation over time and space allowing to test this hypothesis are scarce. 689 Salanié et al. (2004) characterized the fishing effort applied on Atlantic salmon populations of 690 Brittany in 2002, a year when the duration of the fishing periods were similar for the two sea 691 age categories. They showed that anglers were selective on the sea age category with almost 692 60% of the fishing trips directed for MSW fish.

693 Overall positive effects of fishing duration and flow indices on exploitation rates were 694 estimated in this study. Such a result was expected based on the available literature (e.g. Gee 695 1980; Davidson et al. 1996; Quinn and Deriso 1999). But for each covariate, its effect was 696 detected for only one of the three fishing periods, namely the first fishing period for flow and 697 the second fishing period for fishing effort. The absence of a significant flow effect during the 698 second and third fishing periods might be a consequence of river flows generally being low 699 with too limited variation to observe an effect on exploitation rate during these periods. It may 700 also be due to the fact that the effect of river flow on salmon migration behaviour remains 701 somewhat elusive (Thorstad et al. 2008; Milner et al. 2012). The absence of a fishing effort 702 effect challenges the relevance of using the duration of fishing period as the fishing effort 703 index. Indeed, we suspect that the fishing period duration does not reflect the actual effort 704 resulting from anglers' activity. This lack of relevance of fishing period duration as an index of 705 fishing effort is reinforced by the apparently inconsistent variations in the intensity and 706 direction of its effect on exploitation rate between rivers (Fig. 4). There may be several reasons 707 for this lack of effect of fishing period duration. First, for a given fishing period duration, the 708 number of fishing trips may vary according to anglers' perception of catch opportunity, the 709 latter depending on both environmental conditions and perceived abundance of fish. 710 Redistribution of effort among rivers by anglers during the fishing season may also contribute 711 to blur its relationship with the exploitation rates. In addition, increased intensity of exploitation 712 may result in a more rapid attainment of the TAC and thus result in a shorter fishing period 713 duration in some instances.

714 Overall abundance of adult returns shows no clear trend over the last 30 years in Brittany (Fig. 715 6.a). This lack of trend applies to the vast majority of the rivers studied. It differs from the 716 general patterns reported elsewhere of a widespread North Atlantic decline in abundance over 717 the last four decades (Chaput 2012; ICES 2019). It may also appear surprising since the rivers 718 in France are at the southern edge of the distribution range of the species (Webb et al. 2007), 719 and as such would be expected to be negatively impacted by global warming (Lassalle and 720 Rochard 2009). But mere niche modelling approaches such as Lassalle and Rochard (2009), 721 designed to answer broad scale (continent wide) and long term (end of century) questions, 722 tells us little about shorter retrospective and localised impacts of ongoing climate change. 723 Moreover, Brittany is located significantly above the historical southern edge of the species 724 distribution area (in Portugal). So far, environmental conditions have likely not become 725 detrimental to Atlantic salmon in Brittany rivers (Piou and Prévost 2013; Bal et al. 2014). When 726 considered more carefully, the reported overall declining trend of abundance of Atlantic 727 salmon occurred mainly from the mid 70's to the beginning of the 90's (Chaput 2012). We 728 likely failed to detect this early decline because our study period starts in 1987. Still, recent 729 work from Olmos et al. (2019) suggests a downward trend in salmon returns for France even 730 over the period considered in our study. Abundance estimates from Olmos et al. (2019) are 731 derived from catch series and assumed exploitation rates (based on expert judgement) of 732 various fisheries, whereas in this study exploitation rates are estimated from multiple sources of data. The apparent discrepancy between Olmos et al. (2019) and our results may also be
due to the fact they consider Brittany only. Although it is the region of France holding the
majority of the salmon rivers left in the country, the national scale declining pattern might be
driven by other regions.

737 The estimates of abundance for the Aulne and the Couesnon are exceptions to the general 738 stationary pattern of abundance. The Aulne has a unique pattern of adult returns in the mid 739 90's that are twice as high as for the rest of the study period. This sudden rise in the 740 abundances is most likely a consequence of massive juvenile stocking in this river in the early 741 90's. The revealing of this temporal pattern was not contingent on the hypotheses made 742 regarding the counting probabilities on this river (see supplementary material B). Although for 743 taking advantage of all the information available, the explicit consideration of local expert 744 knowledge is advisable for tailoring the best possible model to the situation at hand, it was not 745 key in our case study. In the Couesnon, the increasing trend of abundance is associated to 746 sustained efforts to enhance access and migration to spawning and nursery habitats, to 747 improvements in water quality, and possibly to the effects of some stocking as well. Again, the 748 ability of our HBM approach to reveal river specific patterns that make sense, relative to 749 ancillary information not a priori introduced in the modelling, supports its relevance.

750 Beside temporal patterns, river specific effects are also of interest. Most notably, lower 751 abundances, relative to the productive area available, are estimated for the Leff, the Jaudy, 752 the Yar and the Queffleuth (Fig. 6.b). The very low adult returns in the Queffleuth may at least 753 partly be a consequence of the severe impediments to upstream fish passage in its upper 754 estuary. For the three other rivers, there is no obvious explanation and further investigations 755 are needed to disentangle at least three potential causes, namely low juvenile production, 756 dispersion of adults to neighbouring rivers, or underestimation of adult returns due to 757 overestimation of angling exploitation. The last factor cannot be ruled out and is a potential 758 limitation of this modelling approach. Indeed, although the hierarchical structure of our model 759 is key to enable us to estimate the abundance of adult returns from catch data only, it tends 760 to homogenize average exploitation rates among rivers (so called "shrinkage" towards the 761 mean) when little river specific data are available for contrasting exploitation intensity between 762 rivers. This may result in an overestimation of the exploitation rates for rivers with low 763 exploitation intensity, which in turn leads to an underestimation of the abundance. This could 764 apply to the three rivers cited above which have very low reported catches and are bordered 765 by two bigger and potentially more attractive rivers for anglers, the Trieux and the Léguer. 766 Better river specific data on fishing effort or additional fisheries independent data on 767 abundance would certainly help to alleviate this concern.

768 The HBM approach we have proposed to offer a way out of the fisheries scientist dilemma 769 framed in the introduction of this paper. It essentially relies on the joint modelling of catch 770 statistics and fisheries independent data on abundance, potentially including direct 771 observation of the latter. Two key points are the disposal of catch statistics for the full set of 772 spatio-temporal units of interest and a single formulation of the process generating catch from 773 abundance, irrespective of the availability or not of fisheries independent data. The latter can 774 vary in nature (e.g. scientific surveys) as long as they lead to a measure of abundance which 775 is considered as a reference indicator which estimation is deemed relevant over a wider set 776 of spatiotemporal units. For the exploitation model, we proposed a version suited to our case 777 study, but other options may be warranted to adapt to other contexts. To do so, many of the 778 concepts and techniques found in classical fisheries science textbooks (e.g. Hilborn and 779 Walters 1992; Quinn and Deriso 1999) may be taken up. Beyond the details of the modelling 780 required to adapt to a given case study, the modelling guidelines we have put in practice are 781 quite general irrespective of the species considered. But undoubtedly, our HBM approach is of special interest in salmon, be it Pacific or Atlantic. 782

Salmon species are both fragile and most wanted by fishermen, both commercial and recreational. Their conservation is therefore a matter of great concern and the assessment of their populations and fisheries is required. The singularity of salmon species resides, inter alia, in their anadromy and their homing behaviour. From a population and fisheries assessment perspective, anadromy is very advantageous. Any individual in a population may migrate twice (even more for repeat spawners) in its life through a limited section of river or estuary, thus 789 providing great opportunity for direct observation of population abundance by various counting 790 techniques (e.g. trapping, video-recording) or by means of mark-recapture protocols. But at 791 the same time, the homing translates into a challenge as it leads to the structuring of the 792 species into a myriad of populations to be assessed separately. Despite the opportunity for 793 collecting very informative fisheries independent data on abundance, the required facilities 794 can only be deployed over limited numbers of populations, essentially for operational and 795 financial constraints. In the face this ambivalent situation, we propose to tap the fact that 796 salmon species are also fished in their natal rivers or estuaries and these fisheries are most 797 often surveyed. Indeed, fishing records with wide spatio-temporal coverage are available. Our 798 HBM approach has been designed to take the best advantage of catch statistics for 799 broadening the scope of abundance estimation well beyond the populations surveyed 800 according to fisheries independent protocols. Our case study on is an good illustration in this 801 respect.

802 In Atlantic salmon the need to expand the provision of abundance estimates of adults returns stems also from the recommendations of the North Atlantic Salmon Conservation 803 804 Organization (NASCO) for the management of Atlantic salmon Fisheries (NASCO 2009). By 805 putting priority on conservation, NASCO conditions the exploitation of any salmon population 806 to its assessment relative to so-called conservation limits (CL). This assessment requires to 807 have both estimated abundance and determined a CL. The default approach recommended 808 by NASCO is to express the CL in terms of spawner abundance and to base its determination 809 on a stock-recruitment analysis. In Brittany, the salmon populations management attempts to 810 fulfill NASCO recommendations. CLs have been set to all populations, but the comparison 811 with the abundance of adult returns is only achieved for the Scorff. This type of situation is not 812 exceptional and, because of the general lack of estimates of adult returns at the river scale, 813 the comparison with CLs is conducted on a minority of rivers throughout the area of distribution 814 of the species (ICES 2019). Our proposed approach offers a good opportunity to enhance 815 both the assessment and the management of salmon populations in accordance with NASCO 816 guidelines. In Brittany, it will also contribute to a better definition of CLs. Juvenile recruitment data are collected by electrofishing over the full set of rivers of our case study. Thanks to the
adult returns estimates derived from our HBM approach, they have been used in a regional
meta-analysis of stock-recruitment relationships which has led to the definition of new CLs.

820 At the international level, the status of Atlantic salmon is assessed at the scale of regional 821 stock complexes (6 in North American and 10 in Europe; Chaput 2012; ICES 2019). This 822 assessment is conducted under the auspices of the International Council for the exploration 823 of the sea (ICES) and is used to provide management advice for distant fisheries (at 824 Greenland and off the Faroes Islands) operating on mixed populations originating from both 825 sides of the Atlantic. Recently, new life-cycle models have been developed (Massiot-Granier 826 et al. 2014; Olmos et al. 2019, 2020). They not only improve over previous assessment 827 approaches but also open the door for a better understanding of the ecology of salmon at sea. 828 These new models assimilate aggregated series (i.e. at the scale of the regional stock 829 complexes) of in-river adult salmon returns. These series are currently produced by the 830 scientific experts of the ICES North Atlantic Salmon Working Group. The methods used are 831 diverse and still lack documentation and standardization. Our HBM approach offers a 832 possibility for improvement on these two aspects as it can be easily used for deriving regionally 833 aggregated estimates of abundance by summing over rivers.

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Page 39 of 54

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Notation	Definition	Equation	Туре
t	Year from 1987 (<i>t</i> =1) to 2017 (<i>t</i> =31)		
r	River from the Couesnon River ($r=1$) to the Blavet River ($r=18$)		
а	Sea age category: MSW (a=1) and 1SW (a=1)		
p	Fishing period: MSW fishing period ($p=1$), 1SW fishing period ($p=2$) and extension of the 1SW fishing period ($p=3$)		
Exploitati	on		
C _{t,r,a}	Catch of sea age category <i>a</i> made year <i>t</i> in the river <i>r</i>	(1)	Y
U _{t,r,a}	Exploitation rate of sea age category <i>a</i> made year <i>t</i> in the river <i>r</i>	(2)	θ
I _{t,r,a,p}	Binary indicator specifying which fishing period p must be applied to each sea age category a , in any given year t and river r	(2)	Х
V _{t,r,p}	Complementary log-log scaled exploitation rate of the fishing period p for year t in river r	(3)	θ
$\mu_{t,r,p}^{v}$	Mean of the linear-Normal model set on $v_{t,r,p}$	(3) and (4)	θ
$\tau_{ ho}^{ m v}$	Precision of the linear-Normal model set on $v_{t,r,p}$	(3) and (19)	Ψ
$\alpha_{r,p}^{v}$	Intercept of the linear-Normal model set on $v_{t,r,p}$	(4) and (5)	θ
$\beta 1_{r,p}^{v}$	Flow coefficient of the linear-Normal model set on $v_{t,r,p}$	(4) and (6)	θ
Q _{t,p}	Flow index of fishing period <i>p</i> and year <i>t</i>	(4)	Х
$\beta 2_{r,p}^{v}$	Fishing effort coefficient of the linear-Normal model set on <i>Vt,r,p</i>	(4) and (7)	θ
E _{t,r,p}	Fishing effort expressed as the duration of the fishing period p , the year t in the river r	(4)	Х
$\mu_{ ho}^{lpha}$	Mean of $\alpha_{r,p}^{\nu}$ Normal distribution	(5)	Ψ
$ au_{ ho}^{lpha}$	Precision of $\alpha_{r,p}^{v}$ Normal distribution	(5) and (19)	Ψ
$\mu_p^{\beta 1}$	Mean of $\beta 1_{r,p}^{\nu}$ Normal distribution	(6)	Ψ
$T_{\rho}^{\beta 1}$	Precision of $\beta 1_{r,p}^{\nu}$ Normal distribution	(6) and (19)	θ
$\mu_p^{\beta 2}$	Mean of $\beta 2_{r,p}^{\nu}$ Normal distribution	(7)	Ψ
$\tau_{ ho}^{eta 2}$	Precision of $\beta 2_{r,p}^{\nu}$ Normal distribution	(7) and (19)	Ψ

Adult returns

N _{t,r,a}	Number of adults of sea age category a returning to river r the year t	(8)	Y*
n _{t,r,a}	Mean of <i>N_{t,r,a}</i> Poisson distribution	(8) and (14)	θ
NC _{t,r,a}	Partial count of adult returns of sea age category a in the Couesnon River from 1996 to 2015 and in the Aulne River from 1999 to 2017 (and the Elorn MSW in 2007)	(9)	Y
p _{t,r,a}	Counting probability of adult returns of sea age category a in river r the year t	(9), (10) and (11)	θ
S _{t,r}	River size of river r in year t expressed in as 100 m ² of riffles and rapids equivalents	(12)	Х
δ _{t,r,a}	Adult return density per unit of river size of sea age category a in river r the year t	(12) and (13)	θ
d _{t,r}	Total density of adults (1SW and MSW combined) returning to each river r in year t	(13) and (15)	θ
q _{t,r,a}	Proportion of sea age category <i>a</i> in river <i>r</i> the year <i>t</i>	(14)	Θ
μ^q	Mean of $q_{t,r,1}$ logit-Normal distribution	(14)	Ψ
<i>T</i> ^q	Precision of $q_{t,r,1}$ logit-Normal distribution	(14) and (19)	Ψ
$\mu^d_{t,r}$	Mean of the log-Normal linear model set on $d_{t,r}$	(15) and (16)	Θ
τ^{d}	Precision of the log-Normal linear model set on $d_{t,r}$	(15) and (19)	Ψ
α1 ^d	Intercept of the log-Normal linear model set on $d_{t,r}$	(16)	Ψ
$\alpha 2_t^d$	Additive random effect of the year for the log-Normal linear model set on $d_{t,r}$	(16) and (17)	Θ
a3r ^d	Additive random effect of the river for the log-Normal linear model set on $d_{t,r}$	(16) and (18)	Θ
$r^{\alpha 2}$	Precision of $\alpha 2_t^d$ Normal distribution	(17) and (19)	Ψ
$\tau^{\alpha 3}$	Precision of $\alpha 3_r^d$ Normal distribution	(18) and (19)	Ψ

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Tab. 1 Definitions of the model quantities. Type : Ψ : Parameters; θ : Latent variables; X: Covariates; Y: Observable random quantities. 1024

Parameter	Prior distribution			Marginal p	Marginal posterior distribution		
	distribution	mean	sd	mean	sd		
Exploitation I	rates						
μ ^α	Normal	0	10	-1.96	0.22		
μ ^α	Normal	0	10	-4.05	0.30		
μ ^α	Normal	0	10	-3.49	0.31		
$\mu_1^{\beta 1}$	Normal	0	10	0.41	0.11		
μ ^{β1}	Normal	0	10	0.02	0.18		
$\mu_3^{\beta 1}$	Normal	0	10	0.08	0.19		
μ ^{β1}	Normal	0	10	-0.04	0.24		
μ ^{β2}	Normal	0	10	0.70	0.30		
$\mu_3^{\beta 2}$	Normal	0	10	-0.12	0.49		
Abundances							
μ ^q	Normal	0	10	1.30	0.07		
$\alpha 1^d$	Normal	0	10	-1.23	0.22		
Precision par	rameters						
т ^ү	Gamma	1	3.16	14.50	4.46		
T ₂ V	Gamma	1	3.16	1.70	0.26		
T ₃ V	Gamma	1	3.16	3.87	1.43		
τ ^α	Gamma	1	3.16	5.67	4.36		
T2 ^α	Gamma	1	3.16	1.41	0.81		
τ ₃ α	Gamma	1	3.16	1.93	1.47		
τ ^{β1}	Gamma	1	3.16	15.91	9.20		
$T_2^{\beta 1}$	Gamma	1	3.16	8.58	6.81		
$T_3^{\beta 1}$	Gamma	1	3.16	11	7.99		
$T_1^{\beta 1}$	Gamma	1	3.16	1.94	1.27		
τ ^{β2}	Gamma	1	3.16	2.46	2.87		

$T_3^{\beta 2}$	Gamma	1	3.16	0.78	0.83
Tq	Gamma	1	3.16	9.61	1.63
т ^d	Gamma	1	3.16	4.07	0.60
$T^{\alpha 2}$	Gamma	1	3.16	11.61	3.56
$T^{\alpha 3}$	Gamma	1	3.16	3.43	2.48

- **Tab. 2** Statistical summaries (mean and standard deviation) of prior and marginal posterior
- 1029 distributions of the model parameters (see also supplementary material D)

	Mean	CV			
		Abundance	Abundance	Abundance not	Combined
		observed	partially observed	observed	Compilied
Exploitation rates					
MSW (u _{t,r,1})	0.15	18%	31%	45%	43%
1SW (u _{t,r,2})	0.06	16%	38%	63%	58%
Abundances					
MSW (N _{t,r,1})	145	-	36%	55%	50%
1SW (N _{t,r,2})	512	-	32%	52%	48%

¹⁰³¹

Tab. 3 Mean and CV of the posterior estimates of exploitation rates and abundances by sea
age category. Coefficients of variation (CV) of posterior distributions are averaged over the
full set of years and rivers and separately for three subsets according to the quality of the
information available on abundance (observed, partially observed and not observed).
Combined refers to the full set of rivers and years irrespective of their observation status.

1038 LIST OF FIGURES

1039

Fig. 1 Rivers of Brittany considered in this study (Base map source: https://www.data.gouv.fr;
map projection: RGF93). Rivers are figured in blue. Black lines outline the edges of the
watershed associated to each river. A number from 1 to 18 is allocated to each river following
a north-eastern to south-eastern rotation (1: Couesnon, 2: Trieux, 3: Leff, 4: Jaudy, 5: Léguer,
6: Yar, 7: Douron, 8: Queffleuth, 9: Penzé, 10: Elorn, 11: Mignonne-Camfrout-Faou, 12: AulneDouffine, 13: Goyen, 14: Odet-Jet-Steïr, 15: Aven-Ster Goz, 16: Ellé-Isole, 17: Scorff and 18:
Blavet).

Fig. 2 Simplified Direct Acyclic Graph (DAG) showing the conditioning structure of the model. Model quantities are represented by circles or ellipses, except covariates which are represented by rectangles. They are filled with grey if the quantity is fully observed (known), in white if fully unknown and with stripes if only partly observed. The arrows represent conditioning and are pointing to the conditioned quantity. Frames represent a repetition of structure over the spatial (river, r) or temporal (year, t) units, sea age (a) and fishing period (p). See text for more detailed explanations.

Fig. 3 Uncertainty of the estimation of exploitation rate and abundance according to various data scenarios (see text; sub-section Sensitivity to the quality and quantity of fisheries independent data on abundance in the Materials and methods section). The average of the standard deviation of the posterior distributions of the exploitation rates (log-log scale) and of the abundances (log-scale) are calculated always for the same set of 12 rivers that are datapoor whatever the data scenario considered.

Fig. 4 Marginal posterior distributions of the covariate effects on the complementary log-log scaled exploitation rate (Equation 3, 4 et 5). For each fishing period, the hierarchical mean of the covariate effect is presented before the effect of every river. The median (dot) and the 90% BCI (line) of the posterior distribution are displayed. Black: 0 is not included in the 90%

1064 BCI. Grey: 0 is included in the 90% BCI.

1065 Fig. 5 Time series of annual posterior distributions of exploitation rates by sea age category 1066 (MSW and 1SW) from 1987 to 2017 for the Elorn (a and e), the Aulne (b and f), the Couesnon 1067 (c and g) and the Penzé (d and h). The median (dot) of coefficients and the 90% BCI (line) of 1068 the posterior distributions are displayed. The shade of grey indicates the quality of information 1069 available for population abundance: black when abundance is observed, light grey when 1070 abundance is not observed and dark grey when abundance is partially observed. For 1SW 1071 exploitation rates, empty dots are used when fishing was extended over a third period in 1072 autumn.

Fig. 6 Marginal posterior distributions of year (a) and river (b) effects of the adult density (log scale, equation 16, 17 and 18). The median (dot) of the effects and the 90% BCI (line) of their distributions are displayed. For river effects, the shade of grey indicates the quality of information available for population abundance: black when abundance is observed (for at least part of the study period), light grey when abundance is not observed and dark grey when abundance is partially observed.

Fig. 7 Time series of posterior distributions of yearly adult abundance by sea age category (MSW and 1SW) from 1987 to 2017 for the Elorn (a and e), the Aulne (b and f), the Couesnon (c and g) and the Penzé (d and h). The median (dot) and the 90% BCI (line) are displayed. The shade of grey indicates the quality of information available for population abundance: black when abundance is observed, light grey when abundance is not observed and dark grey when abundance is partially observed. When abundance is observed only a dot is displayed.

1085







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