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SURFING THE TIDE: HOMEWARD MIGRATION OF SEA TROUT (*Salmo trutta*) IN A PATAGONIAN RIVER.

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Abstract:	<p>This study evaluates the influence of marine and freshwater conditions on the timing of river entry and upstream migration of sea trout (<i>Salmo trutta</i>) in the Grande River of Tierra del Fuego, Patagonia. We analysed the in-river catch-and-release records from a group of fishing lodges that dominate the Grande River fishery during January-April 2008 (n=5,029 fish) as a function of environmental variables: tidal amplitude, stage in the lunar cycle, river discharge, and river water temperature along the homeward migration season. We first discuss the value of the daily catch rate as an abundance index in the Grande river; then, we analyse the temporal structure of the tidal cycle in the Grande River estuary, a macro-tidal environment with a mean tidal amplitude of 5.7 m, and analyse the fit of a Generalized Additive Model to trout catches on a daily basis in four sections along the river to identify the environmental variables that may disproportionately affect trout abundance throughout the homeward migration. Fish catches in each section of the river were differentially affected by specific environmental variables: tidal amplitude had a positive and significant effect on catches in the three lower river sections, whereas water temperature and river discharge significantly affected catches in upper sections (positive effect of temperature; negative effect of discharge). Catches in the lower section clearly reflect the river entry stage of the homeward migration, with a bi-modal shape significantly correlated with the tidal cycle. The first peak was composed mainly of larger multi-sea-winter trout that move upstream, whereas the second one had a wider range of fish lengths, including a large proportion of small and maybe non-reproductive trout that overwinter in the lower river. Based on our results, we conclude that the large tides in the Grande River estuary strongly affect the river entry timing of sea trout. The underlying mechanisms of this effect may be a combination of increased odor recognition and increased tidal transport modulated by the seasonal tidal cycle, which operates on trout during coastal migration to produce the pulses observed in the Grande River sea trout run. In the middle and upper section of the river, where the tidal effect at river entry was</p>

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1 **SURFING THE TIDE: HOMEWARD MIGRATION OF SEA TROUT (*Salmo***
2 ***trutta*) IN A PATAGONIAN RIVER.**

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33 and Frontiers Travel (Wexford, Pennsylvania).

34 **ABSTRACT**

35 This study evaluates the influence of marine and freshwater conditions on the timing of
36 river entry and upstream migration of sea trout (*Salmo trutta*) in the Grande River of
37 Tierra del Fuego, Patagonia. We analysed the in-river catch-and-release records from a
38 group of fishing lodges that dominate the Grande River fishery during January-April 2008
39 (n=5,029 fish) as a function of environmental variables: tidal amplitude, stage in the lunar
40 cycle, river discharge, and river water temperature along the homeward migration season.
41 We first discuss the value of the daily catch rate as an abundance index in the Grande
42 river; then, we analyse the temporal structure of the tidal cycle in the Grande River
43 estuary, a macro-tidal environment with a mean tidal amplitude of 5.7 m, and analyse the
44 fit of a Generalized Additive Model to trout catches on a daily basis in four sections along
45 the river to identify the environmental variables that may disproportionately affect trout
46 abundance throughout the homeward migration. Fish catches in each section of the river
47 were differentially affected by specific environmental variables: tidal amplitude had a
48 positive and significant effect on catches in the three lower river sections, whereas water
49 temperature and river discharge significantly affected catches in upper sections (positive
50 effect of temperature; negative effect of discharge). Catches in the lower section clearly
51 reflect the river entry stage of the homeward migration, with a bi-modal shape
52 significantly correlated with the tidal cycle. The first peak was composed mainly of larger
53 multi-sea-winter trout that move upstream, whereas the second one had a wider range of
54 fish lengths, including a large proportion of small and maybe non-reproductive trout that
55 overwinter in the lower river. Based on our results, we conclude that the large tides in the
56 Grande River estuary strongly affect the river entry timing of sea trout. The underlying
57 mechanisms of this effect may be a combination of increased odor recognition and
58 increased tidal transport modulated by the seasonal tidal cycle, which operates on trout

59 during coastal migration to produce the pulses observed in the Grande River sea trout run.
60 In the middle and upper section of the river, where the tidal effect at river entry was
61 dissipated as upstream migration progressed, trout catches increased with water
62 temperature and decreased with river discharge, which may operate through their
63 influence on in-river migration rate and abundance, but also through changes in
64 catchability.

65 **KEY WORDS:** *Salmo trutta*, anadromy, migration timing, spring-neap tidal cycle,
66 GAM, Patagonia.

67 INTRODUCTION

68 Migration is a critically important behaviour within the life cycle of anadromous
69 salmonids and has been a major theme in salmonid research for decades since the
70 pioneering works of Hasler (1966) and Harden Jones (1968). Much has been learnt about
71 the mechanisms guiding the migratory behaviour throughout different stages of the life
72 cycle of salmonids, the environmental and genetic bases underlying the migratory
73 behaviour, and how they give rise to population-specific migration patterns (Quinn,
74 2018). River entry is an essential phase in the life cycle of anadromous salmonids, during
75 which fish are exposed to coastal, estuary and river conditions including pollution,
76 fisheries, and various man-made obstructions. Understanding the seasonal timing in river
77 entry and upstream migration and its dependence on environmental drivers can provide
78 valuable information for space and time-specific fish conservation and management
79 efforts, including fisheries regulations, restoration programs, dam operations, and effluent
80 management. Disentangling the relative effect of marine and freshwater conditions during
81 the ocean-river transition along the homeward migration, however, has proven to be a
82 difficult challenge, mostly because of the multiple confounding factors operating at
83 different domains and scales, and the complexities of interpreting responses from mixed-

84 stock populations (Hays, 2013). The aim of this study is to analyse the effect of major
85 marine and freshwater conditions during the homeward migration of a self-sustained
86 population of sea trout *Salmo trutta* L. 1758 introduced in the Grande River in Tierra del
87 Fuego, Patagonia, with a particular emphasis on the effect of the neap-spring tidal cycle.

88 The homeward migration in anadromous salmonids starts with the oceanic
89 migration to coastal waters, continues along coastal waters to estuarine waters (Hansen
90 *et al.*, 1993), followed by river entry and upstream migration (Quinn, 2018; Jonsson &
91 Jonsson, 2011). The factors initiating the homeward migration from the high sea are not
92 fully known (Sloman *et al.*, 2005; Jonsson & Jonsson, 2011); ocean conditions, sea-
93 surface temperature (Hodgson *et al.*, 2006), and currents are known to have an influence,
94 along with intrinsic factors such as sexual maturation or circannual rhythms, both
95 synchronized to photoperiod (Bromage *et al.*, 1993; Ueda *et al.*, 2000). The timing of
96 river entry has been associated with river discharge (Huntsman, 1948; Alabaster, 1970;
97 Potter, 1988; Smith *et al.*, 1994; Jonsson & Jonsson, 2002), river water temperature
98 (Jonsson & Jonsson, 2002), circadian rhythms and light intensity (Potter, 1988; Smith &
99 Smith, 1997), winds (Hayes, 1953; Banks, 1969), daily tidal cycle (Hayes, 1953; Stasko,
100 1975; Potter, 1988; Smith & Smith, 1997; Erkinaro *et al.*, 1999; Karppinen *et al.*, 2004),
101 and tidal currents (Potter, 1988; Bourque *et al.*, 1999). The upstream migration has been
102 correlated with different environmental factors, the most important being river discharge
103 (Huntsman, 1948; Hayes, 1953; Banks, 1969; Alabaster, 1970; Hodgson *et al.*, 2006;
104 Jonsson *et al.*, 2018) and freshwater temperature (Trepanier *et al.*, 1996; Hodgson *et al.*,
105 2006). Other factors cited are circadian rhythms and light intensity (Banks, 1969).

106 The association between the spring-neap tidal cycle and spawning migration in
107 anadromous salmonids is part of fishermen's lore, especially in places with large tidal
108 amplitude such as Southern Patagonia, and it is anecdotally commented on by biologists

109 around the world. However, such a relationship has seldom been demonstrated. Several
110 studies have identified a relationship between river entry and the daily tidal cycle (Hayes,
111 1953; Stasko, 1975; Potter, 1988; Smith & Smith, 1997; Erkinaro *et al.*, 1999; Karppinen
112 *et al.*, 2004), as well as the relationship of return timing and fish movement in estuarine
113 waters with tidal currents (Potter, 1988; Bourque *et al.*, 1999). But only one work before
114 ours analysed the influence of the spring-neap tidal cycle on salmonids migration; Hayes
115 (1953) in a study conducted on *Salmo salar* in La Have River, Nova Scotia, found that
116 peaks in the tidal cycles, representing daily increasing differences between high and low
117 tides, seemed to be effective in concentrating Atlantic salmon in the estuary and initiating
118 a run into the river. Spring-neap tidal cycle is particularly underestimated as an
119 environmental influence on the spawning migration of anadromous fishes, perhaps
120 because of the intricacies of disentangling the effects of tidal and lunar cycles (Jellyman
121 & Lambert, 2003). The moon phase and the relative position of Sun-Earth-Moon are the
122 driving factors of tidal forces on the earth's oceans, but tides respond locally in timing
123 and range to the shape of the shoreline and the near-coast bathymetry (Knauss, 1978).
124 Therefore, the potential of tides to operate as a significant driver of fish migrations varies
125 greatly throughout the world, maybe playing an important role in some locations and not
126 in others.

127 The aim of the present study was to evaluate the effect of marine and freshwater
128 environmental factors on the timing of river entry and upstream migration of anadromous
129 brown trout (*Salmo trutta*) in the Grande River of Tierra del Fuego. We use catch records
130 from the local sport fisheries, collected throughout the migration season and along
131 different river sections, from the estuary and upwards, as an abundance index to capture
132 the relative effect of marine and freshwater variables over time and space. The
133 characteristically wide tide amplitude of the Southern Atlantic Ocean, also highly variable

134 along the spring-neap cycle, exposes the migrating fish to different tidal conditions,
135 providing an excellent setting to evaluate the tidal influence.

136

137 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

138 **STUDY SYSTEM**

139 The Río Grande is the largest river in Tierra del Fuego (53°47' S, 67°41' W), with
140 a length of 180 km and an average annual discharge of 40 m³ s⁻¹. It is a free-flowing
141 stream that runs from the Andes range in Chile and across the steppe in Argentina to the
142 Southern Atlantic Ocean. Its hydrography is dominated by snowmelt and rainfall, with
143 important freshets in the spring and minimum flows in the summer. The estuary is 15 km
144 long and shallow (Figure 1) with a strong tidal influence. The tides are semi-diurnal and
145 present a neap-spring cycle with a two-week period, with an average amplitude of 5.6 m,
146 a minimum amplitude of 1.9 m and a maximum of 8.6 m (SHN, 2011, for the period
147 2007-2011, Figure 2).

148 Brown trout is native to the Northeast Atlantic Ocean but has been widely
149 introduced worldwide (MacCrimmon & Marshall, 1968). Brown trout populations have
150 been established throughout Patagonia since 1909 (Pascual *et al.*, 2002). The
151 southernmost populations, found in the Gallegos River, the Grande River, and other
152 Atlantic rivers of Tierra del Fuego, have developed an anadromous cycle (called sea
153 trout), with high marine growth and sustain important sport fisheries. The Grande River
154 is the most important sea trout fishery in Argentina and it is usually considered by
155 fishermen and international fishing magazines as the premier sea trout river in the world
156 (Simpson, 2003; Purnell, 2016; Casalnuovo *et al.*, 2018), with an annual catch of well
157 over 5,000 fish (O'Neal & Stanford, 2011). Within the Argentinean sector, catches take

158 place mainly in six fishing lodges located along 70 km of the river that operate under a
159 “catch and release” system.

160 FISH CAPTURE AND ENVIRONMENTAL DATA

161 The fish data used in this study correspond to records collected by trained fishing
162 guides in the four most important lodges in the Grande River (María Behety, Toon Ken,
163 Villa María and Kau Tapen, Figure 1) between January and mid-April 2008. The study
164 area covered by the operation of these four lodges corresponds to the 52 km of the river
165 where most of the fishing takes place, between river kilometres (RK) 25 and 77 from the
166 ocean (Figure 1). Downstream from this area, there is a stretch with no fishing (the first
167 15 km) and a public fishing stretch (the next 10 km), here the river is strongly influenced
168 by tides. Upstream from the study site, there is a 15 km river section up to the Chilean
169 border with difficult access and light fishing. Fishing in Chile is much less significant
170 than on the Argentinean side.

171 Trout were landed, measured (for fork length, girth anterior to the dorsal fin, and
172 weight), and released back to the river by fishing guides from the four lodges that
173 participated in the study, trained by biologists following a standard protocol (O’Neal &
174 Stanford, 2011). The directions were to record every single fish caught so, besides the
175 eventual missed individual, practically the whole catch in these four lodges was recorded.
176 The daily catch rate (number of fish per day) in each section of the river was here used as
177 an index of fish abundance throughout the season. The Grande River fishery is a highly-
178 priced, fully booked fishery, where the number of rods allowed per lodge per day is
179 regulated by provincial legislation (between four and nine). Lodges operate at total
180 capacity throughout the season, and fishing takes place in two shifts (AM and PM) under
181 all-weather conditions. Every lodge keeps a fishing log where catches are recorded daily,
182 including information on the pools visited, trophy catches, type of flies and lines used,

183 etc., at both daily shifts. The fishing logs in the lodges included in this study show no
184 gaps in outings during the 2008 fishing season, so we are confident that fishing effort
185 remained stationary throughout the season, not biasing catch rate as an index of fish
186 abundance. Other factors potentially affecting catch rate or catchability besides
187 abundance are accounted for during our analyses and interpretation of results. Catches
188 registered in the public fishing stretch and in two other lodges in the river were purposely
189 excluded from the analyses due to the lack of systematic and complete records. The area
190 and lodges included in this study, on the other hand, produce most of the catches in the
191 Grande River every year and throughout the season.

192 Angling has proved to be an adequate sampling method for monitoring several
193 wild salmonid populations (Crozier & Kennedy, 2001; Thorley *et al.*, 2005). In particular,
194 compared to other catch techniques (i.e. spinning and gillnet), fly-fishing is the least size-
195 selective sampling method (Leclerc & Power, 1980; Hetrick & Bromaghin, 2006). In the
196 Grande River, fly-fishing catches the full range of anadromous fish sizes with a slight
197 bias towards larger size classes. The size-frequency of fly-fishing catches peaks at the 50-
198 70 cm range compared to the size-frequency of migrating fish peaking at 40-60 cm as
199 estimated by a Dual-frequency Identification Sonar scan (Niklitschek *et al.*, 2012).

200 The tidal height data were drawn from tidal charts of the Argentinean Navy
201 Hydrography Service (SHN, 2011) for the Port of Río Grande (53°47' S, 67°39' W). The
202 tidal amplitude was calculated on a daily basis throughout the upstream migration
203 (December to April) as the difference between the maximum and the minimum tidal
204 height registered on each day. Moon data, corresponding to the percentage of the moon
205 illuminated each day at 8 pm, were provided by the Naval Observatory of Buenos Aires
206 (Observatorio Naval de Buenos Aires). River discharge and freshwater temperature data
207 come from a gauging station located at the river kilometre (RK) 130 (53° 53.5' S, 68°

208 52.9° W; Figure 1), managed by the Chilean National Water Administration (DGA,
209 2015), which was the unique station with hydrometric records for the Río Grande River
210 in 2008. As tributaries within Argentina are relatively small and with the same general
211 hydrologic regime as the main river, hydrological data at this station are expected to
212 reflect conditions experienced by the fish within the study area. To consider the temporal
213 delay between taking the measure (at RK 130) and its effect on catches (in RK 25-77),
214 we applied a five-day moving average filter in our analyses (see below).

215 ANALYSES

216 In order to examine the effect of environmental factors on the timing of river entry
217 and upstream migration, catch rates were considered in the context of potential
218 explanatory variables. The length of the river where lodges operate and where catches
219 were registered (river kilometres, RK, 25 to 77 from the sea) was divided into four
220 sections of 13 kilometres long each, designated as A (closer to the sea) to D upstream
221 (Table 1; Figure 1). Catches in the lower section are expected to represent river entry
222 timing closely, while catches in the upper sections are expected to represent a
223 combination of upstream migration with search and holding phase, as described in Finstad
224 *et al.* (2005).

225 Tidal amplitude was first analysed to characterise the spring-neap tidal cycle in
226 the study area; an auto-correlogram (Diggle, 1990) of tidal amplitude was used to
227 summarise the general seasonal pattern. Then, the relationship between tidal amplitude
228 and the percentage of moon illuminated was examined by linear and additive models in
229 order to determine the degree of their association. Both analyses were conducted using
230 data from 2007 to 2011. The lag of the effect of spring-neap tidal cycle on the abundance
231 of *S. trutta* at different river sections from A to D was analysed by correlating daily
232 catches in each section with daily tidal amplitude during the 2008 fishing season using

233 cross-correlograms and varying time lags from 0 to 40 days. The lags producing the
234 higher correlation were used to evaluate tidal amplitude in the model. River discharge
235 and freshwater temperature data were included in the model with a five-day moving
236 average filter to smooth local changes in the time series produced at RK 130; because
237 they were expected to be irrelevant when affecting catches at RK 25-77, around five days
238 later. The date of catch, as the day number within the year, was included in the model to
239 account for the general pattern or run strength throughout the season.

240 The relationship of catch rate with water temperature, river discharge, tidal
241 amplitude, percentage of the moon illuminated, and day number was evaluated separately
242 for each river section using Generalized Additive Models (GAMs; Hastie & Tibshirani,
243 1990; Wood, 2006) as they are useful to model nonlinear relationships between fish
244 species abundance and environmental variables (Wood, 2014; Alcaraz-Hernández *et al.*,
245 2016), and because an exploratory data analysis suggested a lack of linearity for some
246 variables. Sea trout catch rates were described by a negative binomial distribution (Harris
247 & Milner, 2007) to allow for overdispersion of the data. Multicollinearity of predictor
248 variables was evaluated with Pearson correlation coefficients with a threshold of $|r| > 0.7$
249 among any pair of variables (Dormann *et al.*, 2013). In addition, the Variance Inflation
250 Factor (VIF) was calculated and a cut-off value of $VIF > 5$ (Zuur *et al.*, 2009) was used.
251 The models were also tested for concurvity, a generalisation of collinearity that allows
252 for nonlinear relationships among the set of predictor variables. GAMs were fitted using
253 the penalized likelihood estimation method developed by Wood (2008) which has been
254 proved highly robust to concurvity; therefore, values of estimate concurvity < 0.6 were
255 considered acceptable. When higher levels of concurvity were detected, one correlated
256 variable was removed at a time, continuing with the reduced model having the lowest
257 AIC and highest deviance explained. The GAMs were estimated using penalized cubic

258 regression splines (Wood, 2014). Smoothing parameter estimation was achieved using
259 restricted maximum likelihood (REML) following recommendations in Marra and Wood
260 (2011). After fitting models, the shape of the relationship between each of the habitat
261 parameters and daily catch was analysed. Variable selection was made by a backward
262 stepwise elimination process based on Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) as suggested
263 in Zuur *et al.* (2009) applying parsimony and Delta-AIC <2 criterion. The percentage of
264 deviance explained was used as a measure of model fit (Wood, 2006) and it was also
265 considered in the model selection process.

266 Segregation in the migration timing by fish size was analysed within each river
267 section through linear regressions (McCullagh & Nelder, 1989) between fish length or
268 weight and day number. In addition, the distribution of fish length and weight by fortnight
269 and by section throughout the season was inspected. All statistical analyses were carried
270 out in R (version 3.3.0, 2016-05-03; R Core Team, 2016). GAMs were implemented using
271 the gam function in the R package "mgcv" (Wood, 2006).

272

273 **RESULTS**

274 **FISH CAPTURE AND ENVIRONMENTAL DATA**

275 A total of 5,029 sea trout were caught between January 1 and April 13 during the
276 2008 fishing season, with a daily average of 49.3 ± 24.5 fish and a range of 1-122 fish
277 day⁻¹. The largest catches occurred in section A, decreasing towards the upstream
278 sections (Figure 1, Table 1). Mean river discharge during the fishing season was 15.5 m^3
279 s^{-1} (range 11-28 $\text{m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$), with a maximum during the first half of January, followed by a
280 drop to level off at around $12 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Figure 3). Water temperature varied from 1.6 to

281 14.7° C with a mean of 9.3° C, a maximum around January 25 and then started to decrease
282 (Figure 3).

283 The auto-correlogram of tidal amplitude (Figure 4, upper panel) shows a 15-day
284 tidal cycle ($r = 0.008$, $p < 0.001$) and a more significant 29-day cycle ($r = 0.90$, $p < 0.001$).
285 During the 2008 fishing season, at the mouth of the Grande River, tidal amplitude
286 fluctuated from 2.5 to 8.0 m with a mean of 5.7 m. The 29-day tidal cycle is characterised
287 by a low-neap, spring, high-neap, spring sequence (Figure 4, lower panel). There was not
288 a strong linear relationship between tidal amplitude and percentage of moon illuminated
289 at any lag (lag 0: $r = 0.0067$, $p = 0.117$; lag 15, stronger relationship found: $r = 0.012$, p
290 $= 0.0432$), and the nonlinear relationship at a 12-day lag was the stronger one, with an
291 explained deviance of 47.2% ($p < 0.001$).

292 DATA ANALYSES AND MODELS

293 Cross-correlograms between daily catches in different river sections and daily
294 tidal amplitude during the 2008 fishing season show significant and positive correlations
295 in the three lower river sections (Figure 5), with lags (in days) 7 in section A, 13 in section
296 B, and 23 in section C. No significant correlation was found in section D. The general
297 pattern is an increase in the time lag in the upriver direction with a decrease in the
298 significance. Those lags were used in the inputs of GAM models to evaluate the effects
299 on daily catches of tidal amplitude together with other variables.

300 Analysis of multicollinearity on predictive variables resulted in no critical
301 problems of collinearity, and no variable surpassed the cut-off value of Variance Inflation
302 Factor > 5 . The analysis of concurvity indicated that nonlinear relationships between
303 predictive variables included in the best models appeared only in section D and related to
304 “day number”, a variable that could be carrying the effect of river discharge and/or river
305 temperature.

306 The fit of GAMs to daily catch rates with different explanatory variables indicates
307 that fish catches in each section of the river are differentially affected by specific
308 environmental variables (Figure 6 and Table 2). Day number had a significant effect on
309 the daily catch in section A with two local maxima around day numbers 30 and 68, and a
310 marginally significant effect in section D. Tidal amplitude had a positive and significant
311 effect on catches in the three lower river sections (A, B and C). The percentage of moon
312 illuminated was only marginally significant for section C. And, water temperature and
313 river discharge significantly affect catches in upper sections (B, C and D), with a positive
314 effect of temperature and a negative effect of discharge.

315 The mean length and weight of the trout caught decreased with time over the
316 season in section A (linear regression; p-value <0.001). However, the proportion of
317 variance explained by the models was low (length: $R^2 = 0.04$, weight: $R^2 = 0.012$). In
318 section B, mean fish length also decreased over time (p-value = 0.02), but with an even
319 higher unexplained variance ($R^2 = 0.005$), whereas mean fish weight did not change
320 significantly over time (p-value = 0.59). In sections C and D, neither mean length nor
321 mean weight changed over time (p-value >0.5). The length distribution registered in
322 section A changed over time, from unimodal around 75 cm in January to bimodal around
323 40 and 75 cm in February and March. This shift in size frequency over time, from
324 unimodal to bimodal, is preserved upstream, most clearly in section B and to some extent
325 in upper sections (Figure 7). The weight frequency distribution shows a large increase in
326 catches of smaller fish, below 2 kg, during the last fortnight of February and March,
327 particularly in the lower section A. The pulse of small fish is also detected in section B
328 during March, getting less important in the upper sections (Figure 8).

329

330

331 **DISCUSSION**

332 The strong relationship between fish catches and day number in the lower river
333 section near the ocean, together with its characteristic two-peak pattern and the very low
334 catches at the beginning and end of the season, suggests that the migratory *Salmo trutta*
335 population in the Grande River is made up by an early and a late run. Although
336 catchability is expected to change over the season responding to changes in fish
337 physiology, behaviour and activity (Laughton, 1991; Young & Hayes, 2004), potentially
338 affecting catch rate and therefore abundance estimation, we could not identify any driver
339 that could have a two-peak effect on abundance. The catch rate pattern over the season is
340 most likely reflecting actual changes of abundance due to pulses of fish entering the river
341 from the estuary, with section A being a transition area to freshwater from the estuary.
342 The less clear pattern in the next two upper sections or even increasing in the uppermost
343 section supports the idea of these sections being holding areas or areas with more local
344 migrations. Unlike other salmonids that migrate straight to the spawning grounds, it is
345 common for sea trout to make a stepwise progression with erratic movements before
346 establishing on spawning areas (Finstad *et al.*, 2005). As trout disperse along the river,
347 the patterns at entry become weaker and unrecognised by the model. The increase in
348 catches in the upper section with day number could be due to an accumulation of fish
349 over time or could be an indirect effect of water temperature and/or river discharge that
350 significantly affect catches in the three upper sections.

351 The change in size frequency making up the two peaks of the run indicates that
352 different parts of the population are differentially involved in the two periods. The first
353 peak is composed mainly of larger multi-sea-winter trout that progress upstream, whereas
354 the second one is composed of a wider range of fish lengths, including a large proportion
355 of small fish. The much lower representation of these small fish in upper sections used

356 by mature fish suggests that they may be non-reproductive trout that overwinter in the
357 lower river. This result is consistent with those of a radio-tracking study conducted in the
358 Grande River where trout tagged later in the season were smaller and remained mostly in
359 the lower reaches of the river (Casalinuovo, 2014). The negative relationship between the
360 time of river entry and fish length or sea age has been reported before for *S. trutta* (Jonsson
361 & Gravem, 1985) and *S. salar* (Jonsson *et al.*, 1990; Trepanier *et al.*, 1996; Jokikokko *et*
362 *al.*, 2004; Quinn *et al.*, 2006; Borgstrøm *et al.*, 2010) elsewhere. Jonsson *et al.* (1990)
363 found that one-sea-winter *S. salar* in the Imsa River returned later in the season than
364 multi-sea-winter *S. salar*.

365 The abundance of trout in the lower section of the river was strongly dominated
366 by the tidal cycle, an effect that, projected upstream, was detected in catches as far as 60
367 km upstream from the river mouth and 45 km above the limit of tidal energy penetration,
368 with an expected increase in lag time. Since we controlled for the lunar cycle in the
369 modelling exercise, which proved a non-significant effect on catches as observed in
370 Kuparinen *et al.* (2009), we are very confident that the tidal effect is unrelated to changes
371 in catchability but it is an actual effect on trout abundance. The association between
372 migration timing and tides has received some attention in the past. Erkinaro *et al.* (1999)
373 found that river entry of Atlantic salmon in the Tana River was more intense during high
374 and ebbing tides. Smith and Smith (1997) found that river entry of Atlantic salmon in the
375 Aberdeenshire Dee, Scotland, tended to occur during ebb tide. However, influences of
376 tidal cycles on fish migration and movement were usually analysed either through the
377 lunar cycle (Jellyman & Lambert, 2003) or considering only the diel cycle (Smith &
378 Smith, 1997; Bourque *et al.*, 1999; Erkinaro *et al.*, 1999; Karppinen *et al.*, 2004) or the
379 15-day, spring-neap, cycle (Brenner & Krumme, 2007) without taking into account the
380 full complexity of tidal cycles. In the Grande River, the auto-correlation of the 29-days

381 cycle was found to be much stronger than the 15-days cycle (Figure 4, upper panel) due
382 to the occurrence of high-neap and low-spring tides every other neap-spring cycle. River
383 entry may be stimulated by extreme high spring tides and restricted by extreme low neap
384 tides rather than by the regular spring and neap tides. To our knowledge, only one study
385 in the literature had proposed that the seasonal tide cycle affects homeward migration in
386 salmonids; Hayes (1953) observed that peaks in the tidal cycles representing increasing
387 daily differences between high and low tides seemed to be effective in concentrating
388 Atlantic salmon in the estuary and initiating a run into the LaHave River.

389 The specific mechanism by which increasing tidal amplitude may stimulate river
390 entry in salmonids is unknown. The most straightforward conceivable mechanism would
391 be tidal transport (Gibson, 2003) of fish concentrating in the estuary and coastal areas to
392 upstream areas, producing pulses that mirror the strength of the tides. Stasko (1975) found
393 that migrating Atlantic salmon in the Miramichi River estuary achieved overall upstream
394 progress by drifting with flood tidal currents and by stemming the ebb currents. Bourque
395 *et al.* (1999) using hydrodynamic and salmon migration models found that tidal currents
396 directly affect return timing. But tides also affect the strength of the freshwater signal into
397 the estuary and adjacent coastal areas. It is widely accepted that salmon and trout use their
398 olfactory system to recognise their natal stream during the coastal phase of the spawning
399 migration (Hasler, 1966; Døving *et al.*, 1985; Dittman & Quinn, 1996; Ueda *et al.*, 2007),
400 and several studies have associated climatic, marine and fluvial conditions that increase
401 the freshet (i.e., onshore winds, high tide, and increased flow) with an increase of
402 salmonids concentration in river estuaries (Hayes, 1953; Banks, 1969; Smith & Smith,
403 1997; Erkinaro *et al.*, 1999). The large tidal amplitude characteristic of the Grande River
404 estuary is likely to project a large tidal prism of freshwater into marine coastal areas,
405 intercepting homeward migrating sea trout and acting as a gulping mechanism drawing

406 them into the estuary. This increase in odor recognition combined with an increased tidal
407 transport, both modulated by the seasonal tidal cycle, could produce the observed pulses
408 in the Grande River sea trout run, where we found that tides are the dominant factor
409 affecting trout abundance in the lowest section closest to the estuary.

410 Trout catches in the middle and upper section of the river, on the other hand,
411 increase with water temperature and decrease with river discharge, which can operate
412 through their influence on in-river migration rate and abundance (Trepanier *et al.*, 1996;
413 Quinn *et al.*, 1997; Erkinaro *et al.*, 1999; Forsythe *et al.*, 2012; Jonsson *et al.*, 2018), but
414 also through changes in catchability (Clarke *et al.*, 1991; Aprahamian & Ball, 1995;
415 L'Abée-Lund & Aspås, 1999). Low temperature is expected to lower metabolism, fish
416 activity and, therefore, catchability (Jonsson & Jonsson, 2011), whereas high discharge
417 in rivers typically affects the access of fishermen and their catching efficiency.

418 The Grande River sea trout fishery, with its detailed and spatially explicit catch
419 record, simplified population and habitat structure, and strong tides, provides a unique
420 setting for studying salmonid migration and fishery interactions at the ocean-freshwater
421 interphase. We expect that the conceptual model of upstream migration of sea trout
422 developed in this paper will provide valuable information to support fish conservation
423 and management.

424

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437 **CONTRIBUTIONS**

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671

672 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

673 Figure 1. Grande River in Tierra del Fuego in Southern Patagonia. The black lines
674 delimit the sampling sections of sea trout catches, four river sections of 13 km long
675 each: **Section A** from river kilometre (RK) 25 to 38; **section B**, from RK 38 to 51;
676 **section C**, from RK 51 to 64 and; **section D**, from RK 64 to 77. The black point
677 labelled as **HS** is the localisation of the hydrometric station at the RK 130. The white
678 pentagons are the localisation of the four most important fishing lodges; María Behety
679 (**MB1 and MB2**), Toon Ken (**TK**), Villa María (**VM**) and Kau Tapen (**KT**).

680 Figure 2. Neap-spring tidal cycle (solid line) at the mouth of the Grande River on the
681 Atlantic Coast of Tierra del Fuego. Lunar cycle (dashed line) and lunar phases (white
682 circle = full moon; black circle = new moon).

683 Figure 3. River discharge (dashed line) and freshwater temperature (solid line) at the
684 Grande River during the 2008 fishing season; Jan 1-Apr 13.

685 Figure 4. Cyclicity of tidal amplitude at Grande River mouth. Upper panel: ACF,
686 autocorrelation function, data from 2007 to 2011. Lower panel: Daily amplitude during
687 2008 and the 2008 fishing season (inside the rectangle).

688 Figure 5: Cross-correlograms between daily catches and daily tidal amplitude in each
689 section of Grande River at lags from zero to 40 days, during the 2008 fishing season. a:
690 section A, from river kilometre (RK) 25 to 38; b: section B, from RK 38 to 51; c:
691 section C, from RK 51 to 64; and d: section D, from RK 64 to 77 from the river mouth
692 in upstream wise (see Figure 1).

693 Figure 6: Generalized additive model output of environmental predictors showing their
694 relationship with *Salmo trutta* daily catches during the 2008 fishing season in different

695 sections of the Grande River as depicted in Figure 1. Predictive variables are date (Day
696 Number), tidal amplitude with 7 (section A), 13 (section B), 23 (section C) and 36
697 (section D) days lag (Tidal Amplitude), percentage of moon illuminated (Moon),
698 freshwater temperature (Temperature), and river discharge (Discharge). Plots of
699 significant variables correspond to best models (p -value <0.0001 , ***; $0.001<p$ -
700 value <0.01 , **; $0.01<p$ -value <0.05 , *) and plots of non-significant variables correspond
701 to full models. Shaded areas are the 95% confidence limits. For more details see Table
702 2.

703 Figure 7: Length frequency in *Salmo trutta* catches by fortnight and river sections (as in
704 Figure 1) in Grande River in 2008, from January 6 to April 12.

705 Figure 8: Weight frequency in *Salmo trutta* catches by fortnight and river sections (as in
706 Figure 1) in Grande River in 2008, from January 6 to April 12.

707
708

709 Table 1. Total, daily average and daily range (minimum and maximum record for a single
710 day) of sea trout (*Salmo trutta*) catches by section of Grande River. Kilometre of river
711 (KR) is the beginning and the end of each river section from the estuary mouth upstream
712 wise.

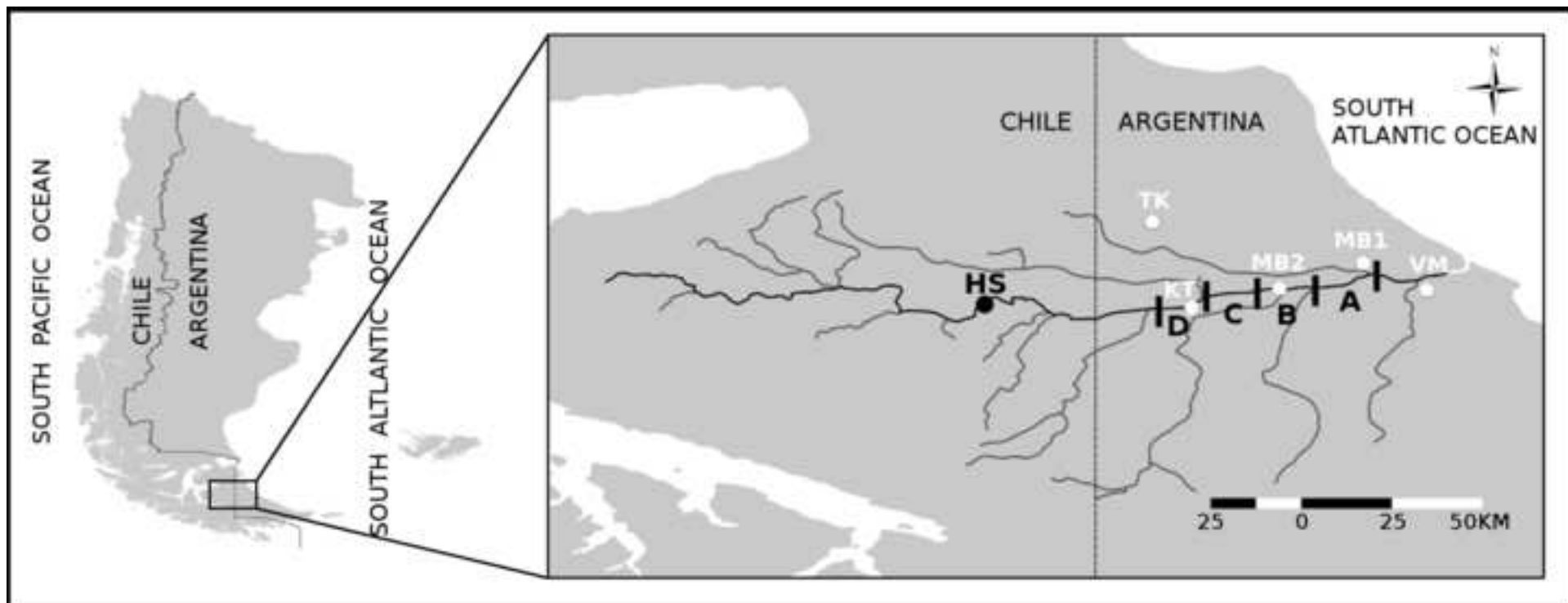
Section	KR	total catches	daily average	daily range
A	25 – 38	2,731	26.7	0 – 65
B	38 – 51	1,144	11.2	0 – 37
C	51 – 64	463	4.5	0 – 19
D	64 – 77	332	3.2	0 – 11
Total		5,029	49.3	1 – 122

713
714

715 Table 2: Summary of full and best Generalized Additive Models (GAMs) for *Salmo*
716 *trutta* catches in each section of Grande River (section A, from river kilometre (RK) 25
717 to 38; section B, from RK 38 to 51; C: section C, from RK 51 to 64; and section D,
718 from RK 64 to 77 from the river mouth in upstream wise, see Figure 1). Predictive
719 variables are: date (Day Number), tidal amplitude with 7 (section A), 13 (section B), 23
720 (section C) and 36 (section D) days lag (amplitude_lag), percentage of moon
721 illuminated (moon), freshwater temperature (temperature), and river discharge
722 (discharge). Effective degrees of freedom (e.d.f.). Percentage of deviance explained (%
723 dev.exp.). P-value significance: p-value<0.0001, ***; 0.001< p-value<0.01, **; 0.01<p-
724 value<0.05, *.

River section	Predictive variable	Full model			Best model		
		% dev.exp.	e.d.f.	p-value	% dev.exp.	e.d.f.	p-value
Section A	Day Number	54.5	3.6	0.010*	52.4	5.5	<0.001***
	amplitude7lag		1	0.006**		1	0.005**
	Moon		1	0.072			
	temperature		1	0.347			
	discharge		2.6	0.152			
Section B	Day Number	28.4	2.1	0.745	27		
	amplitude13lag		1	0.027*		1	0.014*
	Moon		1	0.711			
	temperature		2.0	0.073		2.2	<0.001***
	discharge		3.3	0.046*		3.5	0.019*
Section C	Day Number	53.7	2.0	0.069	43.1		
	amplitude23lag		1	<0.001***		1	0.005**
	Moon		1	0.010**		1	0.033*
	temperature		1	0.007**		1	<0.001***
	discharge		4.1	<0.001***		4.2	<0.001***
Section D	Day Number	27.2	2.5	0.057	24.5	2.5	0.023*
	amplitude36lag		1.7	0.556			
	Moon		1	0.557			
	temperature		1.3	0.022*		1	0.003**
	discharge		1	0.020*		1	0.030*

Figure 1



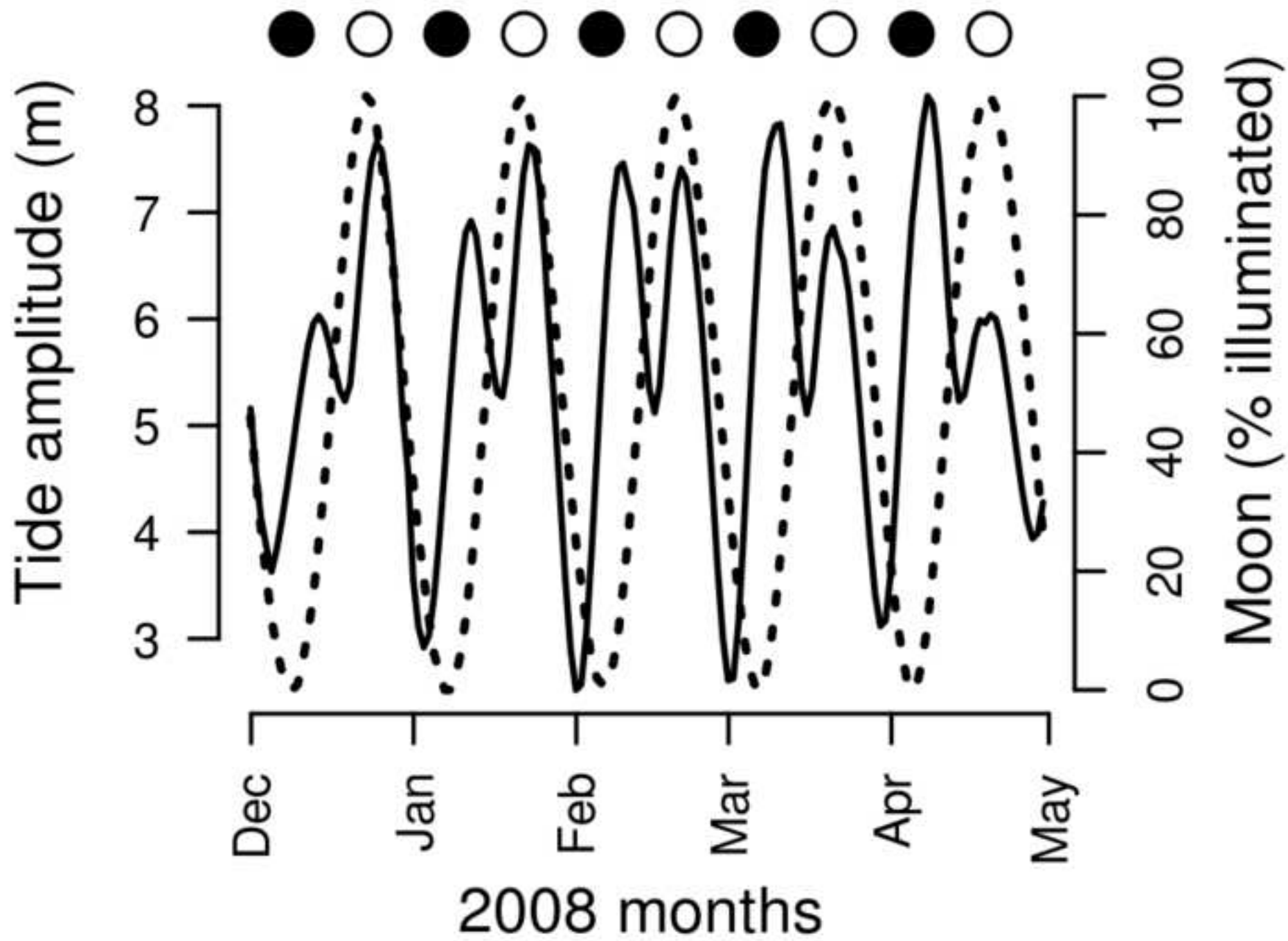
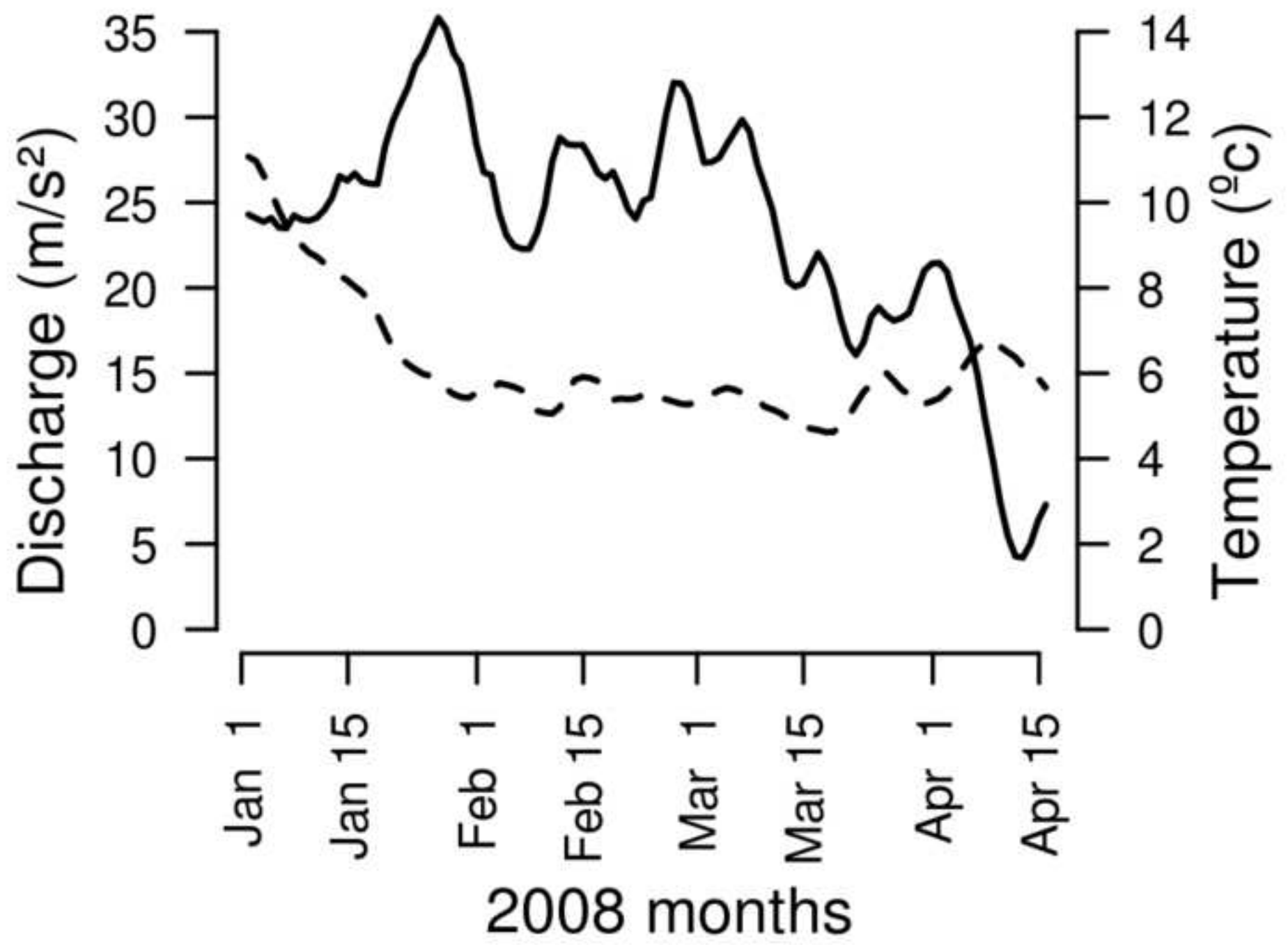
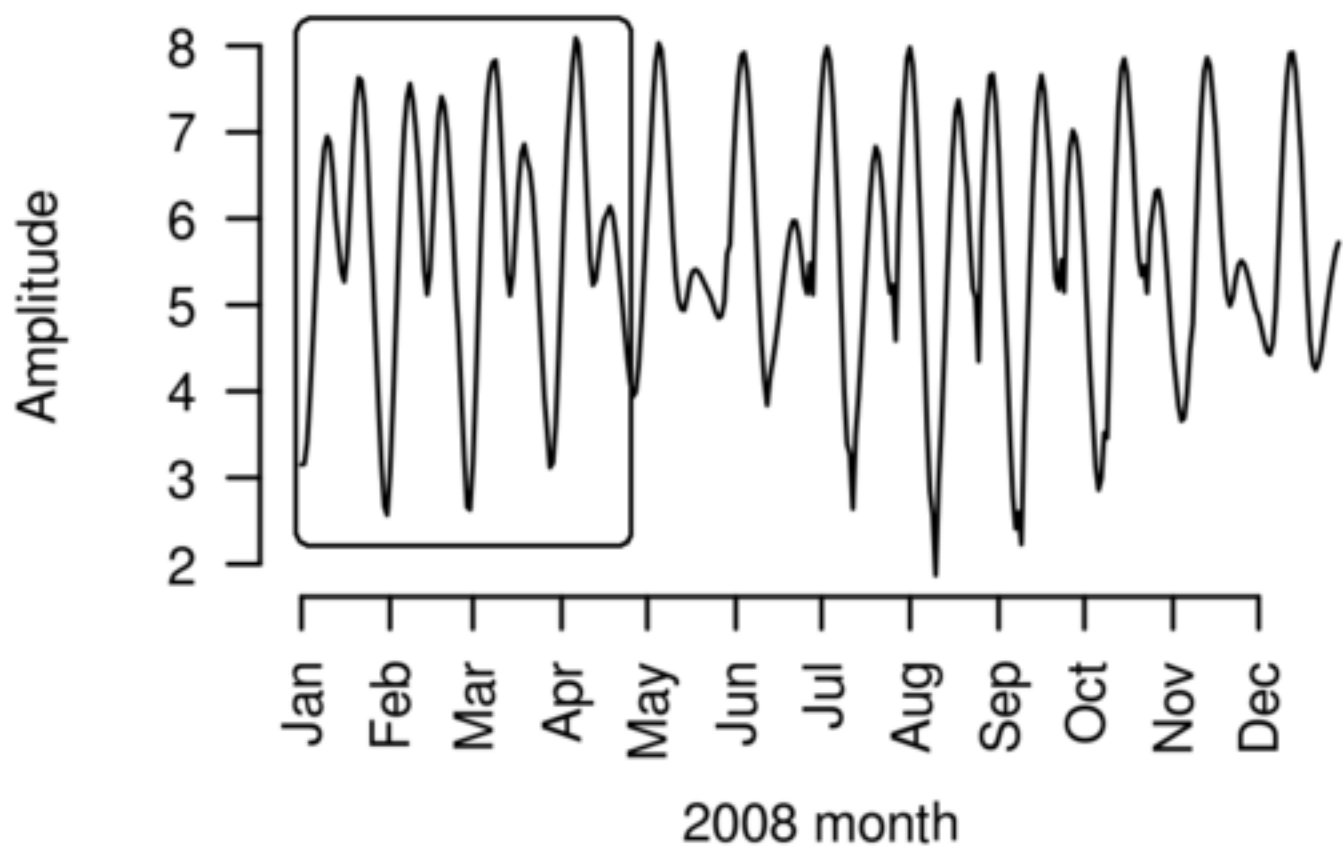
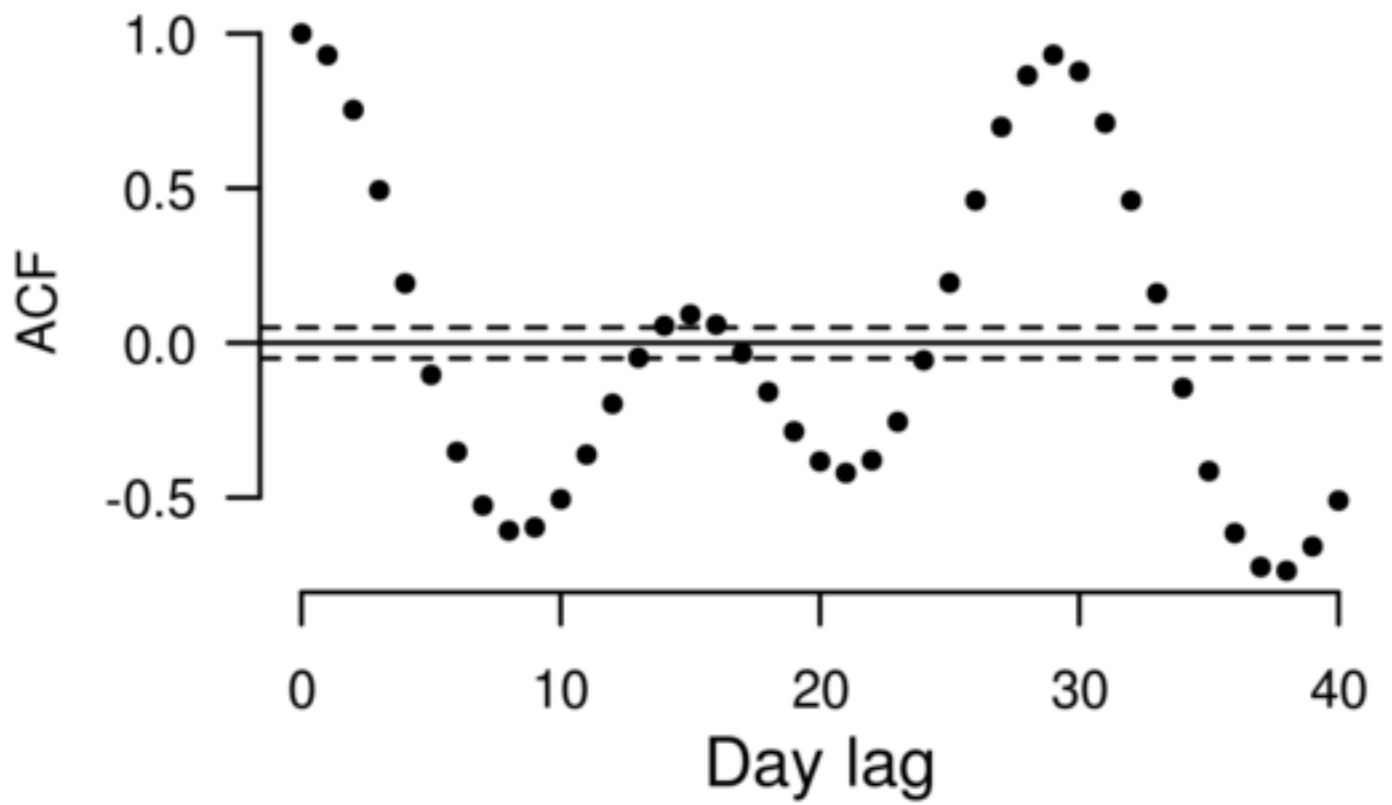
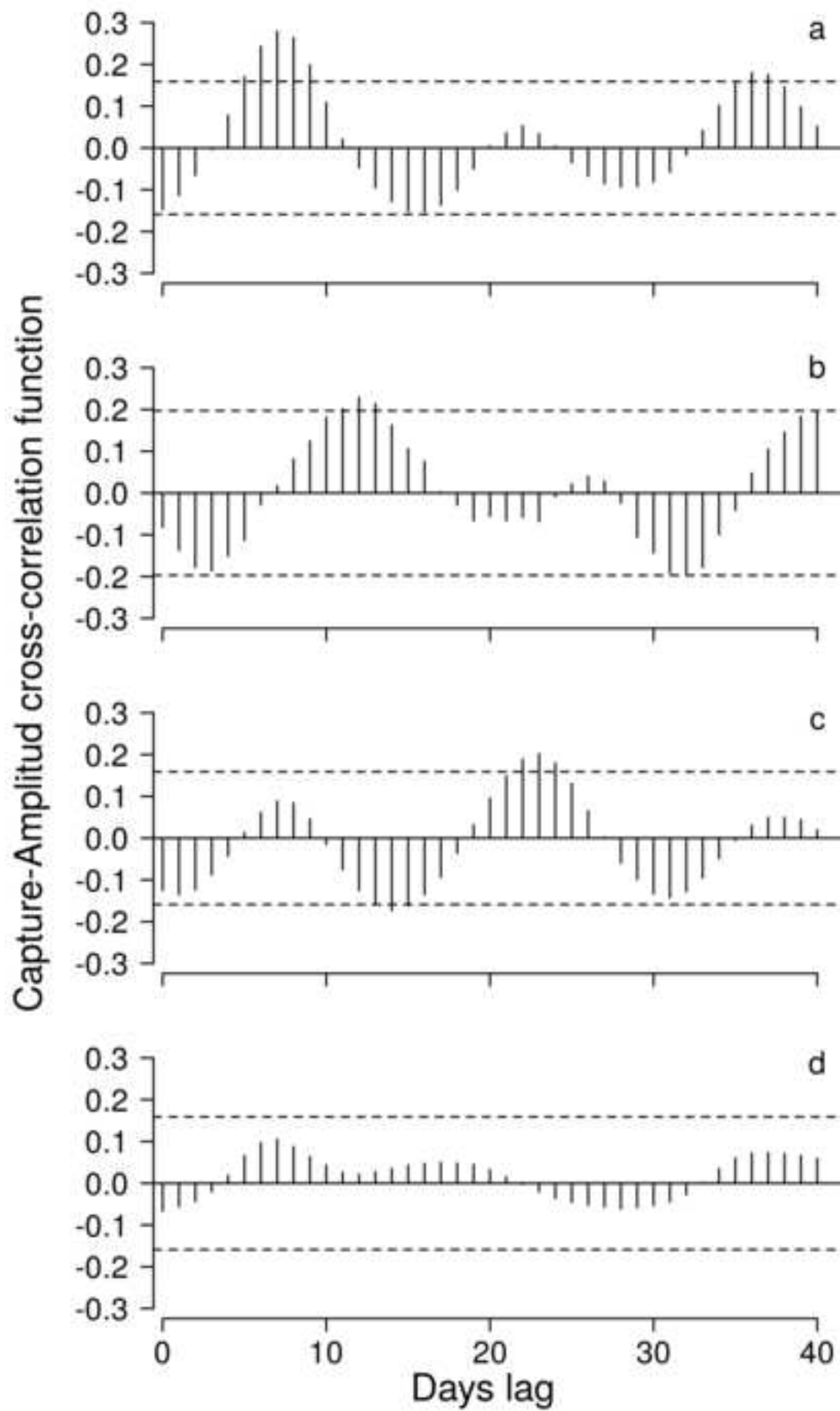


Figure 3







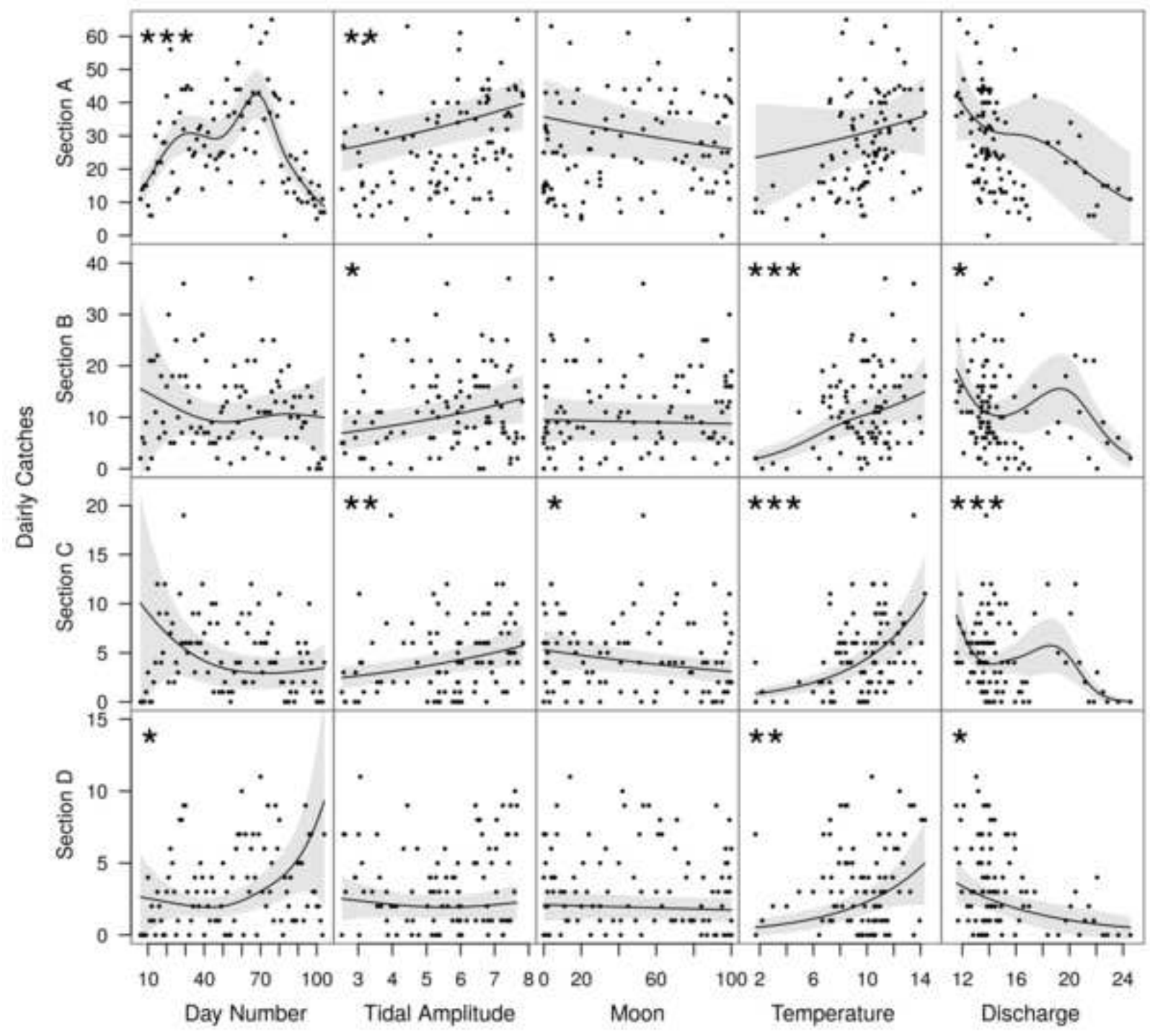


Figure 8

