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5	Harvesting and climate mediate population growth
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Abstract

Climate variability, fishing and predation are the main factors affecting fish population dynamics. In this study, the drivers of population growth variability were investigated for seven fish stocks (2 cod, 4 herring and 1 mackerel stock) in the Gulf of St. Lawrence (NW Atlantic). The annual population growth sensitivity to both recruitment and survival (how much population growth depends on recruitment and survival) was estimated through elasticity analyses before being linked to harvesting history as well as environmental conditions (climate and predation). Stock-specific generalized additive models showed that population growth was most sensitive to recruitment variability with decreasing fish generation time, increasing water temperature and, in some cases, with predation. The dependence of population growth on recruitment, however, was generally close to 0, albeit being higher for pelagic stocks than for demersal ones. This indicates that adult survival was more important than recruitment in shaping population growth and thus population size. As climate mainly acts on recruitment while fishing affects adult survival, management efforts seemed more important than climate variability in regulating population growth, especially for long-lived cod. Nevertheless, population growth may become increasingly dependent on recruitment variability with warming waters, hence, why more flexible management strategies should be developed to cope with these oscillations.

Keywords: cod, herring, mackerel, recruitment, matrix model, Leslie matrix, management.

1. Introduction

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Mechanisms affecting productivity and hence biomass of marine fish populations are still widely unknown (Houde 1987, Szuwalski et al. 2015). Population productivity is determined by the strength of biological processes (e.g. recruitment and somatic growth) which are difficult to investigate since these estimates are mainly available for data-rich stocks. The strength and drivers of population productivity are also space-, time- and species-specific, since they depend on varying life-history parameters and harvesting history. For instance, population growth of exploited species exhibits higher sensitivity to productivity variability than of unexploited species (Hsieh et al. 2006), due to fishery-induced truncation of the age structure (Berkeley et al. 2004, Hutchings & Reynolds 2004, Stige et al. 2017). Hence, recruitment variability has a greater influence on stock size if the mature population consists of a small number of age classes (Stearns 1992, Ottersen et al. 2013), reducing the populations' robustness to environmental variations. Additionally, climate change and predation also affect maturity and survival and consequently the sensitivity of population to recruitment variability (Leggett & Deblois 1994). Therefore, there is a considerable interest and need in understanding population growth changes in temporally varying environments and fishing pressure, not only for ecology but also for conservation and management. In the Northwestern Atlantic, fish populations of the Gulf of St Lawrence (hereafter GSL) are mostly threatened by overexploitation, climate change, and predation by expanding seal populations (Savenkoff et al. 2017). Among the main fish species, mackerel (Scomber scombrus), herring (Clupea harengus) and cod (Gadus morhua) have a long history of fisheries (Swain et al. 2015, DFO 2016, 2017a, b). In addition to the effects of fishing, these stocks experience large fluctuations in biomass, related to environmental variability acting through bottom-up and top-down process on recruitment success (cod: Lambert 2011, Swain & Benoît 2015, mackerel: Plourde et al. 2015, herring: Brosset et al. 2019). Moreover, grey seal (Halichoerus grypus) abundance has sharply increased since the mid-90s in both the northeast and south

GSL (Hammill et al. 2014, Swain & Benoît 2015), potentially increasing predator pressure on herring and cod (Hammill & Stenson 2000). Given the growing concern about fisheries management, and how sensitive population dynamics are to different pressures, it is particularly relevant to understand fish stock fluctuations in the GSL. Indeed, recent examples have shown that untangling the effect of habitat dynamics (e.g. climate-change and predation) and fishing on vital rates (e.g. recruitment or adult survival) led to a better understanding of population dynamics with important implications and improvements for management (Ezard et al. 2010, Thorson et al. 2015, Durant & Hjermann 2017).

The effects of varying vital rates are often integrated into population transition matrix frameworks (Caswell 2001). Based on this, elasticity analyses are commonly applied through transition matrices to investigate the changes in population growth as a function of any specified change in vital rate (i.e. reproduction or survival, Caswell 2007). The elasticity values measure which vital rate generates the greatest change in population growth (de Kroon et al. 1986, Benton & Grant 2000), and thus indicate which is the main driver of population growth variations. Elasticity analysis can therefore be a simple first step in answering important questions in population ecology, as already shown for other diverse taxa (e.g. fish, Gerber & Heppell 2004; turtle, Crawford et al. 2014; butterfly, Flockhart et al. 2015). Such values can be used to pinpoint key life history traits for fisheries management (Rouyer et al. 2011, Hidalgo et al. 2014). Moreover, temporal changes in sensitivity to recruitment and survival can be analyzed to investigate which drivers are essential for modulating importance of recruitment or survival on population growth (Ezard et al. 2010, Durant & Hjermann 2017).

The aim of this study was to assess the contribution of recruitment to population growth (hereafter recruitment elasticity or elasticity) and to identify the main drivers of elasticity variability in the GSL ecosystem. We investigated how age structure, climate, potential predation and fishing pressure affect the importance of recruitment in population growth for seven stocks (4 herring, 2 cod and one mackerel

stock). By considering different stocks belonging to different trophic levels and habitats, as well as having different exploitation histories will allow further understanding of GSL commercial stocks dynamics. Ultimately, given the importance of recruitment and/or adult survival to the population growth found, this will help to identify appropriate management measures on these stocks, which could be helpful to resource managers to anticipate the potential species' response to environmental variability.

2. Materials and methods

The seven commercial fish stocks considered in this study inhabit one or more NAFO areas (Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization, Fig 1.). Three stocks are located in the northern part of the GSL: 4R spring herring, 4R fall herring and northern cod (4RS + 3Pn). Three stocks are located in the southern part: 4T spring herring, 4T fall herring and the southern cod from area 4T. We also analysed a seventh stock, referred to as Canadian contingent mackerel, which migrate between the US and the Canadian east coast (reproducing in the southern GSL around May-July, Moores et al. 1975). These stocks are economically important and their management can be improved, or can benefit from all additional knowledge on population dynamics. Moreover, the seven stocks include demersal (i.e. cod), and pelagic fish (i.e. mackerel and herring) with different population structures (e.g. longevity) as well as contrasting harvest histories, allowing us to conduct a comparative study of population dynamics drivers. These seven stocks were chosen because of the availability of age-structured biological data (annual maturity- and weight-atage) and stock assessment model outputs (annual abundance-at-age and fishing mortality).

2.1 Biological data and estimates

Stock specific data (maturity-at-age) and estimates (abundance-at-age and fishing mortality-at-age) were extracted from assessment reports from the Canadian Department of Fisheries and Oceans for each year (DFO, see Table 1). Recruitment estimates are derived from stock assessment models, and represent abundance at age 1 (mackerel) or age 2 (herring and cod). Annual fishing mortality estimates (F_y) were calculated by averaging the fully selected age classes of the F-at-age matrix ($F_{a,y}$): F_{4-10} for spring and fall 4R herring and F_{4-8} for mackerel and both cod stocks. The two cod stocks (northern and southern), and all the herring stocks were modelled using Virtual Population Analysis (VPA, Swain et al. 2015, DFO 2017b), whereas a newly developed state-space assessment model was used for the mackerel stock (DFO 2017a, Van Beveren et al. 2017). As the use of stock estimates from stock assessment models can introduce some

pitfalls (Brooks & Deroba 2015, Legault & Palmer 2016, Palmer et al. 2016), we only selected stocks with models carefully peer-reviewed and robust against natural mortality and selectivity changes.

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2.2 Environmental data

Annual anomalies were used to describe the temporal environmental variability in the GSL between 1971 and 2014. The selected hydrographic variables from the GSL are, sea ice coverage, sea surface temperature, intermediate and deep-water temperature, St. Lawrence runoffs and deep water salinity (Table 2). Temperature data were obtained from regular monitoring in the GSL (see Galbraith et al. 2018), specifically monthly sea surface temperature in August, and the average between May and November were utilised. Surface temperature may affects the growth and survival of early life stages and juveniles (depending on their spawning season), as already shown for the recruitment process for mackerel (Plourde et al. 2015) and herring (Brosset et al. 2019). Cold intermediate layer (CIL), and deep layer temperature data at 150, 200, 250 and 300m, were used as indicators of habitat and spawning ground suitability for demersal species adult and juvenile stages. Sea ice volume, an index of the temperature, and of the timing of primary producer development, was measured by the Canadian Ice Service by means of aerial surveys and satellite pictures defining ice coverage and thickness (Galbraith et al. 2018). The St. Lawrence runoff (measured using the water level method from Bourgault & Koutitonsky 1999) is a proxy for precipitation and nutrient input in the GSL. Deep-water salinity represents an indicator for the exchange of water masses (i.e., water entry through the Laurentian channel), related to the strength of cold and high level dissolved oxygen Labrador Current water (Galbraith et al. 2018). The selected variables have previously been reported to explain the recruitment dynamics of herring (e.g. water temperature, Brosset et al. 2019), mackerel (e.g. St. Lawrence runoffs and sea surface temperature, Plourde et al. 2015) and cod (water temperature Ouellet et al. 1997), and thus will be important to further understand population growth variability.

2.3 Predation strength

Predation has an influence on population growth, so top-down effects (i.e. the main predators' abundances) should also be considered (Table 2). Most stocks were however assessed with VPA-models assuming constant natural mortality. Because in such cases all residual mortality was assumed to be attributed to fishing, we only test this link for southern cod and mackerel, which presumed a time varying M and a constant M with process error (allowing for deviations in M), respectively (Swain et al. 2015, Doniol-Valcroze et al. 2019). Seals have been described as predators of mackerel and cod in the GSL (Hammill et al. 2013, Swain & Benoît 2015). Therefore, grey seal abundances were considered as potential drivers of cod and mackerel population growth. Seal abundance estimates were obtained for the northeastern and the southern region, the southern seal abundance matching with the southern cod stocks and the sum of seal abundances for both regions matching with mackerel distribution in the GSL.

2.3 Statistical analyses

We aimed to (I) estimate the importance of recruitment on population growth (i.e. elasticity) and (II) determine how this is affected by key parameters such as age structure, longevity, fishing mortality, environmental conditions and natural mortality (potential predators).

2.3.1 Elasticity calculations

To estimate the relative importance of recruitment and survival on population growth for each population, we started by constructing annual Leslie transition matrices A_t to summarize the dynamics of age-structured populations between time t and time t_{+1} (Leslie 1948, Caswell 2007). Annual population-specific abundance-at-age matrices (stock assessment outputs) were compiled to determine the fecundity (i.e. the contribution of each age class a to the recruitment at year t, R) and the survival (i.e. the survival

(*S_i*) between age-class *i* at year *t* and age-class *i* -1 at year *t*-1) of each age-class for each stock. We calculated R as follows:

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$$R_{a,t} = \frac{Rec_t MAT_{a,t-1}}{\sum_{a=1}^{a=a \max} N_{a,t-1} MAT_{a,t-1}}$$

where Rec_t is the recruitment at the year t, $MAT_{a,t-1}$ the proportion of mature at age a and time t-1 (derived from annual scientific sampling programmes) and $N_{a,t-1}$ the abundance for age a at time t-1. The age index a varies between 1 and a max, the older age-class in the population.

Thus, the matrices were used to make future predictions of age-class abundance following the relationship $n_{t+1}=A_t.n_t$ where n_t is the age-class abundance vector at time t. Note that A_t is compiled for the age structure in year t (hence valid only for the time frame year t to year t+1). For each year, survival probability and fecundity of each age-class are included in the transition matrix as follows:

$$At = \begin{bmatrix} R_{1,t} & R_{2,t} & R_{3,t} & \dots & R_{a \max-1,t} & R_{a \max,t} \\ S_{1\text{-}0,t} & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & S_{2\text{-}1,t} & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & S_{a \max-(a \max-1),t} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

In the Leslie Matrix, the fecundity is always in the first row, representing the contributions of newborns from the reproduction of each age class. The survival probabilities are always in the subdiagonal. They represent transitions from one age class to the next. All other entries are 0, because no other transitions are possible. The realized annual population growth rate (r_t) between t and t+1 is given by the logarithm of the dominant eigenvalue of the projection matrices A_t (Caswell 2007).

To evaluate the proportional change in the population growth rate resulting from a known proportional change in recruitment, the transient elasticity method (i.e. changes in population size and structure before reaching population stable stage distribution) defined by Caswell (2001), and described in Durant et al.

(2013) and Durant & Hjermann (2017) was followed. Transient elasticity utilises transient dynamic, which can reveal effects of short-term patterns affecting population dynamics (Caswell 2007). Transient elasticity indicates the relative contribution of recruitment or survival to population growth changes for each year by simulating the population growth from year t to year $t + t_g$ with and without changes in initial recruitment or survival values (Caswell 2001). Thus, for each year, the transient elasticity analysis was performed by increasing the recruitment by 1% for each age class (by manipulating Bi values in the toprow elements of A_t) and simulating population growth for the next t_g years, while holding the other parameters at their original value. The t_g value used was approximately equal to the mean of the year-specific generation time μ_t (the mean age of the parents of the offspring produced by a cohort over its lifetime), according to the recommendations of Caswell (2001) and Durant et al. (2013). The annual generation time μ_t (which changes from year to year, and reflects the hypothetical generation time realized if the rates from a given year are held constant for long enough) is computed from A_t and defined as follows:

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$$\mu_t = \frac{\sum_i i(\prod_{j=1}^{i-1} P_{j,t}) B_{i,t}}{\sum_i (\prod_{j=1}^{i-1} P_{j,t}) B_{i,t}}$$

Where we defined $\prod_{j=1}^{0} P_{j,t} = 1$ (Caswell 2001).

Thus, changes in recruitment at time t will have time to be reflected in the mature population at time $t+t_{\rm g}$ and can be compared between species (Durant et al. 2013). To check if the a priori chosen 1% level of perturbation did not affect the results of the generalized additive model (GAM) analyses (see the next section), a bootstrap procedure (100 replicates) was used to test different perturbation values on the original recruitment ranging from -20 to +20% (i.e. sensitivity analysis). Whatever the level of perturbation chosen, no significant difference was observed in the GAM analyses, so the 1% level of perturbation was kept.

Annual transient elasticity was then calculated as $e_{rec} = N^{incr}_{(t+tg)} / N_{(t+tg)}$ -1 where $N_{(t+tg)}$ is the number of fish in year $t + t_g$ and $N^{incr}_{(t+tg)}$ is the same variable but for the simulated case with 1% increased recruitment in year t. The same approach was implemented for every year of the time series (except those that are less than t_g years from the end of the time series where no elasticity values were determined). Note that following the methods used (Durant & Hjermann 2017), the recruitment (e_{rec}) and survival (e_{sur}) elasticity components were sum to 1 (i.e. $e_{sur} = 1 - e_{rec}$), thereby allowing for the relative contribution of each model parameter to population growth to be easily determined. For example, an e_{rec} close to 1 means that the recruitment has a stronger impact on population growth in comparison to adult survival (and the contrary when e_{rec} is close to 0). This is interesting from a management point of view because when e_{rec} is closer to 0 than to 1, management efforts (modulating adult survival through fisheries) can have a large impact on stock size fluctuations.

2.3.2 Linking elasticity to population and external factors

Generalized additive models (GAMs) are useful to detect ecological interactions (Glaser et al. 2014) and are used as non-parametric approaches (considering both linear and non-linear effects) that generally outperform parametric methods (Megrey et al. 2005). GAMs were applied to relate the fluctuations of elasticity to recruitment to variability of demographic (i.e. generation time, population abundance, fishing mortality and predation), and environmental variables. Analyses were conducted both at a stock-specific level and across all stocks. Stock-specific analyses were performed with GAM, whereas a generalized additive mixed model (GAMM) was used to perform a joint-analysis of all stocks, with stock as a random variable, in order to detect potential general drivers. The models were formulated as follows:

 $E[y] = a + s_1(V_1) + s_2(V_2) + ... + s_n(V_n) + \varepsilon$

Where E[y] is the expected value of the response variable y (i.e. recruitment elasticity), a, is the model intercept, $s_i(V_i)$, is a smooth function of the explanatory variable i, and ϵ , is the error term. Residuals were assumed to follow a beta-distribution as elasticity values are bounded over the interval 0 to 1.

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Before performing model selection, variance inflation factors (VIFs) were calculated between all explanatory variables to detect collinearity. Covariates with the highest VIFs were subsequently removed from the model until the highest VIF value was inferior to 3 (Zuur et al. 2007). Therefore, water temperature at 200 and 250m were not considered in the models tested in this study. To limit potential overfitting, a forward selection approach was used to limit the number of variables that can be present in the most parsimonious models. After every step, each variable that was not already in the model was tested individually for inclusion in the model. The most significant variable was added to the model, as long as its p-value was below a pre-set level (here 0.05). We performed a model selection procedure choosing the model with the lowest Akaike's information criterion (AICc, Burnham & Anderson 2002), corrected for small sample sizes, that also showed $p \le 0.05$ for all variables. Assumptions were examined graphically for selected models (i.e. temporal linear trend and autocorrelation in residuals). To test for optimal model stability and for potential points with high leverage, we then performed a leave-one-out analyses as recommended by Brooks & Deroba (2015). Each data point from the recruitment elasticity time series was omitted systematically and then all possible models were refit to the remaining dataset, to determine the rank of the optimal model found with all data. GAMs were fitted in R using the 'mgcv' package (Wood & Wood 2015). All statistical analyses were performed with R 3.3.2 (R Core Team 2016).

3. Results

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Time series of stock assessment estimates (stock abundance and fishing mortality, Fig. 2), and calculated generation time, population growth and transient elasticity to recruitment (Fig. 3) are displayed for all stocks. Abundance highly fluctuated for all stocks but included long periods of very low abundance for both cod stocks (between 1990 and 2010 for northern cod; since 1992 for southern cod, Fig. 2) and 4T spring herring (since 2003, Fig. 2). Fishing mortality decreased over time for both cod stocks, to reach lower values after 1992 (Fig. 2). In contrast, F mainly increased (sometimes slightly) over time for 4R herring and mackerel, whereas F alternated between periods of low and high values for 4T herring (with low values for both spawning components since 2010, Fig. 2). Generation time alternated between high and low values across time periods with amplitude of around 2.5 years for 4R herring (from 4.55 to 7.34 and from 5.44 to 7.65 for 4R spring and fall herring, respectively) and 3.5 years for mackerel (from 5.80 in the 1970s to 2.13 in 2011, Fig. 3). Generation time amplitudes for cod (from 5.65 to 6.93 and from 6.21 to 7.95 for northern and southern stocks, respectively) and 4T herring (from 4.58 to 5.96 and 4.76 to 5.83 for spring and fall stocks, respectively) were less pronounced (Fig. 3). F consistently had a significant and negative effect on generation time (linear model, p always <0.01 for all stocks). Population growth highly fluctuated and never displayed a clear trend for the herring and mackerel stocks (Fig. 3). Changes were rather periodic for cod with a decrease from the 1980s to the beginning of the 1990s, and an increase to most recent years marked by a short-term decrease during some years at the end of the 2000s. The erec was close to 0 (indicating that the e_{sur} was close to 1) and highly variable for all stocks but differences appeared between stocks (Fig. 3). On average, the lowest e_{rec} values among the stocks studied were estimated for demersal stocks (both northern and southern cod stocks, 0.10±0.03 and 0.09±0.05 mean±SD, range 0.05-0.18 and 0.04-0.24, respectively). The highest e_{rec} values among the stocks studied were estimated for Atlantic mackerel (0.24±0.17, 0.034-0.83). Spring (4R: 0.18±0.16, 0.02-0.75; 4T: 0.17±0.07, 0.06-0.42) and fall herring (4R: 0.14±0.10, 0.04-0.50; 4T: 0.16±0.06, 0.07-0.31) showed

intermediate e_{rec} values, although with more pronounced variability for 4R herring (Fig. 3). Conversely, the e_{sur} is higher for cod than for herring and mackerel.

Deep-sea salinity, the sea ice volume and the CIL index anomalies were highly unstable with alternating positive and negative periods without any long-term trend (Fig. 4). The St. Lawrence runoff anomaly mainly decreased from 1971 to 2003 (with a slight increase from 1990 to 1998), then increased from 2003 to 2014 (Fig. 4). The SST in August and between May and November fluctuated without pattern between 1971 and the 1990's, after which an increase was observed (Fig. 4). Similarly, an increasing trend occurred after 1992 for the deep-water temperature at both 150 m and 300 m (Fig. 4). Seal abundance remained steady at low levels during the 1970s in 4R and 4T, followed by an increase up until 2014, where the highest recorded values since 1970 were observed (Fig. 4).

Stock specific GAM models accounting for the year to year changes in the recruitment elasticity explained between 34% (northern cod) and 62% (southern cod) of the deviance (Table 3). Generation time, water temperature and St. Lawrence runoff were the main variables explaining e_{rec} variability (Table 3). The decrease in the generation time led to an increase in e_{rec} for mackerel, and 3 out of the 4 herring stocks (i.e. 4R spring and both 4T stocks), however, this was not found for cod (Figs. 5&6). The effect of environmental conditions and fishing mortality depended on the stock considered (Table 3). For 4R fall herring, both 4T herring stocks, as well as southern cod, the e_{rec} was positively related to warm conditions (i.e. high surface and/or intermediate water temperature and low ice coverage, Fig. 5&6). St. Lawrence runoff exhibited a positive relationship with northern cod e_{rec} , a negative relationship with 4R spring herring e_{rec} (Fig. 5), and a dome-shape relationship with mackerel (Fig. 6). Higher deep-water salinity was significantly linked to higher e_{rec} for 4R spring herring (Fig. 5). Additionally, a positive effect of F was also found for southern cod (Fig. 4). No effect of stock or predator abundance was found, regardless of the stock considered. In all stocks, leave-one-out analyses showed that the optimal model was very stable

even when years were removed and was not influenced by potential points with high leverage (see Fig. S1).

The selected GAMM model revealed that generation time and water temperature at 150 m were significant variables for explaining recruitment elasticity variability when considering all stocks together ($R^2 = 0.32$, Table 3 and Fig. 7). The generation time had a negative effect on the recruitment elasticity (Fig. 7), smaller generation time being associated with higher e_{rec} values. Water temperature at 150 m had a positive effect, the warmer the temperature, the higher the e_{rec} (Fig. 7). Other environmental variables (surface water temperature, sea ice volume, deep-water salinity, St. Lawrence runoff), as well as fish abundance and F did not significantly explain recruitment elasticity variability when all stocks were considered together (see Fig. S2).

4. Discussion

By compiling biological data for seven of the most important fish stocks in the GSL, this study is the first to report the sensitivity of population growth to recruitment of northwest Atlantic fish stocks. We investigated both the relative importance of changes in recruitment to the annual population growth as well as how fisheries, climate and predation could affect the importance of recruitment. Regardless of the stock considered, adult survival rate (and thus fisheries management) was more important than recruitment to determine fish population growth, as erec values were closer to 0 than 1. The variability of the relative importance of recruitment to population growth was generally explained by age-truncation (i.e shorter generation time) and increased water temperatures, with some stock-specific differences. Specifically, increased waters temperature affected mainly the southern stocks erec, indicating the highest sensitivity of southern population growth to ongoing and future climate change through recruitment variability.

4.1 Effects of generation time, fishing and predation

Reduced generation time increased the dependence of population growth rate upon the recruitment in most stocks, especially for the shorter-lived species considered (i.e. mackerel and herring in the GSL). This finding emphasizes how e_{rec} can be affected by the long-term deterioration of the population age structure (Rouyer et al. 2011, Hidalgo et al. 2012). Additionally, this corroborates the fact that species with the shortest generation time are more sensitive to changes in recruitment when the older age classes are less represented or quasi-absent in the stock (Berkeley et al. 2004). However, 4R fall herring and both cod stocks were not significantly affected by generation time. This indicates that the relationship is not general as it has already been suggested in a similar study on 11 stocks (Durant & Hjermann 2017). Climate and fisheries harvesting can both influence age-structure and thus generation time at different time scales

(Conover & Munch 2002). In this study, we observed a significant negative correlation of generation time with fishing mortality, corroborating with previous studies on population age truncation due to fishing (Ottersen et al. 2006, Rouyer et al. 2011). However, due to the relatively small R^2 of 0.35, factors other than fishing mortality act on generation time variability. For example, environmental variability has been shown to strongly affect age structure (Ottersen et al. 2006). However, environmental long-term changes in the GSL until the beginning of the 2010's was relatively low compared to other regions (Galbraith et al. 2018). Thus, high fishing pressure on larger individuals, through its effect on stock demographic structure, seems to be a very important factor for stock dynamics and sensitivity to recruitment variability in the GSL. This stresses the need for balance harvesting and alternative fisheries attenuating the pressure on old individuals in order to reduce population growth rate sensitivity to recruitment and climate variability. This is also consistent with the observation that the 4R fall herring, as well as both cod stocks have recently experienced low fishing pressure in the GSL and display lower e_{rec} values than other stocks. Stocks exposed to lower fishing pressure may experience weaker generation time variations, thus be less sensitive and more resilient to changes in recruitment (Planque et al. 2010).

For the considered stocks, the direct effect of fishing pressure on elasticity to recruitment was weak and only significant for the southern cod model. This may be because of the lack of variability and pattern in estimated fishing mortality over time, with the exception for 4T Spring herring, southern cod and mackerel. In contrast, the generation time better captured short term elasticity variations and was selected by the model. For southern cod, this suggests that fishing mortality may have a quicker effect on erec than for other stocks. With lower fishing mortality and therefore lower population growth sensitivity to recruitment, cod adult survival (and thus fishing management and/or predation) would have a stronger effect on southern cod stock population growth. When considered (i.e. for southern cod and mackerel), the predation did not displayed any significant effect on elasticity to recruitment. For mackerel, grey seal

predation pressure might be too small to trigger significant effects relative to fishing and environmental changes. This is more surprising for southern cod as predators (e.g. seals) were shown to strongly affect cod population dynamics (i.e. recovery) since its collapse in the 1990's (Swain & Benoît 2015). This sudden increasing predator importance in the mid 1990's could have not been detected due to the 1971-2007 time series used in this study. Moreover, the limited number of predators available with reliable abundance indices, as well as the examination of only the predator abundance to represent the complex dynamics of the trophic links (e.g. cod both is a predator and a prey) may also prevent finding significant link with recruitment elasticity in the GSL.

4.3 Effects of the climate variability

This study considered a large range of environmental variables. Water temperature in particular had an important effect on fish population growth elasticity to recruitment, especially in the southern GSL. For 4R fall herring, 4T herring stocks and southern cod, warmer environmental conditions (through either high surface or intermediate water temperature and/or less ice) were linked to an increase in the dependence of population growth to recruitment. Consequently, these four stocks may be more productive in warmer waters, and their population growth is likely to be more sensitive to climate fluctuations. Indeed, warmer environmental conditions were shown to enhance recruitment for fall herring by favoring the temporal match between food resources and fall herring larvae production (Brosset et al. 2019) but also to induce larger larvae size for cod (Pepin et al. 1997). The temperature effect might have been occurring more clearly in the southern GSL because this area experienced relatively more warming than the northern gulf (Galbraith et al. 2018). Therefore stocks inhabiting this zone, such as 4T herring and southern cod, are expected to experience more pronounced environmental changes and thus to be more susceptible to physical and biological changes related to temperature change. Interestingly, spring herring recruitment is known to be favoured by colder environmental conditions (Brosset et al. 2019), thus an inverse

relationship between e_{rec} and temperature was expected for 4T spring herring. This may be explained because Brosset et al. (2019) used large scale indices which did not only reflect the effect of temperature. Thus, while a direct temperature effect might be positive, it may be counterbalanced by indirect negative temperature effects that are included in the large scale indices. The significant effect of water temperature corroborates those obtained for the northeast Atlantic (Rouyer et al. 2011; Durant et al. 2013, Durant & Hjermann 2017), where population growth became increasingly dependent on recruitment under warmer environmental conditions. This may reflect the large impact of bottom-up processes, known to influence zooplankton communities in the GSL (Plourde et al. 2015), and thus fish recruitment, beneficial for some stocks (i.e. both 4T herring stocks, 4R fall herring and southern cod).

While warming waters seem to always have a positive effect on e_{rec} , the effects of the other environmental variables (salinity, freshwater runoff) were stock-specific, and might be specific to each species biology. For example, freshwater runoff had the inverse effect on e_{rec} for northern spring herring (negative) and cod (positive), while both species are late spring spawners. Since cod and herring larvae prey on distinct plankton species (Fortier & Gagné 1990, Robert et al. 2011), different levels of freshwater runoffs favoring different plankton species may therefore indirectly act on their recruitment (Ouellet et al. 1997, Légaré et al. 2014). Moreover, higher deep-water salinity values, an indicator of nutrient rich deep water entering into the GSL (Galbraith et al. 2018), were shown to only increase 4R spring herring e_{rec} . This suggests that the variability in growth rate dependency to recruitment can result from climate-induced changes affecting both the development and the survival of early life stages, as well as shaping recruitment dynamic through bottom-up changes.

4.4 Management implications and possible consequences for the future

No fish stocks were equally affected by changes in generation time and environmental conditions, corroborating findings of Durant & Hjermann (2017). We considered different stocks for some of the same species, which underlined the specificity of each in terms of their sensitivity to climate change and fishing pressure, as well as the importance of stock- and species- specific management procedures.

Short-lived pelagic species are known to be more dependent on recruitment peaks and optimal environmental conditions in comparison to longer-lived species such as cod (Rouyer et al. 2011). This was shown in the GSL, where pelagic stocks had a relatively higher and more variable e_{rec} compared with a lower e_{rec} exhibited by cod, confirming that long lived species are usually less dependent on recruitment for population growth (Gerber & Heppell 2004, Vélez-Espino et al. 2006). However, regardless of the stock, population growth was consistently determined by adult survival rather than recruitment. This implies that when elasticity is generally inferior to 0.5, as observed, management rather than climate might be responsible for stock size fluctuations. The idea that the population dynamic of the 7 stocks studied is mainly driven by adult survival is encouraging as managers may have larger control over stock size and growth (by modulating fishing mortality), even if current short generation time may also make management measures more uncertain. Moreover, management measures should remain efficient even with climate change, which should help to efficiently maximize adult survival (see Hayes 2000). Nevertheless, some trends need to be recognized and discussed.

Firstly, there was a clear increase in e_{rec} for mackerel after 2000, when its exploitation rate reached maximum levels and its generation time decreased (DFO 2017a, Van Beveren et al. 2017). For this currently overexploited stock, population growth became by consequence increasingly dependent on strong recruitment events and hence environmental changes. Such knowledge is noteworthy for management, as stock recovery will be highly dependent on environmental conditions. Furthermore, in the long-term, unfavourable environmental conditions will probably impact recruitment. Secondly, in the

future, stock-specific growth of all stocks considered may become more dependent on recruitment rather than adult survival, making them potentially more challenging to manage. Waters, particularly in the South (Galbraith et al. 2018), are likely to become warmer (Srokosz et al. 2012), which would result in higher importance of recruitment to population growth. Hence, stocks of longer-lived species like cod might in the future behave more similarly to the dynamics of short-lived populations (Durant & Hjermann 2017). However, predictions were not conducted, as the extrapolation of drivers (e.g. temperature) would potentially result in estimates lying outside of the scope of observations. However, Lee (2017) proposed a novel approach including the possibility for drivers to attain previously unrecorded values, which could be used in further work to determine the potential population growth rate for the next decade.

4.5 Remarks

Stock assessment estimates of population abundance are subject to multiple sources of uncertainty (Brooks & Deroba 2015, Palmer et al. 2016), and results using these estimates should be considered cautiously. Except for mackerel, abundance and fishing mortality estimates come from the same assessment model (i.e. a VPA), keeping the assessment framework uniform among 6 out of 7 stocks. Even if mackerel stock estimates were calculated with a state-space assessment, which differs from the VPA (e.g. it estimates simultaneously observation and process errors), the same care was conducted through checking model assumptions that could strongly influence the stock assessment outputs. Indeed, whichever the assessment model used, we carefully checked for the potential effect of natural mortality misspecification, as it can have an important effect on stock estimates through the interplay between mortality and recruitment. Whenever strong empirical indications to include time-varying mortality existed (i.e. for seal predation on cod, Swain & Benoît 2015), it was considered in the model to avoid increasing recruitment variability. Likewise, the high degree of confidence about stock assessment model

inputs made us confident about potential weak and constant observation error across stocks. Combined with the sensitivity analyses carried out during the stock assessment process, elasticity and leave-one-out analyses, we are confident in the robustness of our results and conclusions against the potential uncertainty from the use of stock estimates for post-hoc analyses. Furthermore, this is strengthened by the consistency of our results with previous studies (Wang et al. 2017, Durant & Hjermann 2017), as well as the corroboration with species-specific differences found in our study and ecological knowledge in the current literature (Plourde et al. 2015, Swain & Benoît 2015, Brosset et al. 2019).

5. Conclusion

The elasticity approach was used to determine population growth sensitivity to recruitment for different fish stocks of the GSL, supporting previous results obtained in the NE Atlantic and Pacific (Durant et al. 2013, Durant & Hjermann 2017). Our results highlight that adult survival is the key factor to restore the considered fish stocks, and that even if low generation time and warming conditions increase, the importance of recruitment to population growth makes these stocks more difficult to manage. This reinforces the ongoing management efforts focussing on the development of methods and management strategies that would result in a more accurate control of fishing effort.

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471						
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Stock		Time period	Data	Source	
_	4R spring Herring	1965-2016 (1971-2008)	Fishing mortality (F ₄₋₁₀) Maturity at age (%) Weight at age (kg) Number at age (10 ⁶)	Unpublished Grégoire et al. (2015), p18, updated to 2016 Grégoire et al. (2015), p12, updated to 2016 Unpublished	
Northeast stocks	4R fall Herring	1965-2016 (1971-2008)	Fishing mortality (F_{4-10}) Maturity at age (%) Weight at age (kg) Number at age (10^6)	Unpublished Grégoire et al. (2015), p31, updated to 2016 Grégoire et al. (2015), p25, updated to 2016 Unpublished	
	North Cod (4RS+3Pn areas)	1974-2015 (1974-2007)	Fishing mortality (<i>F</i> ₅₋₈) Maturity at age (%) Weight at age (kg) Number at age (10 ⁶)	Brassard et al. (2018), p63 Brassard et al. (2018), p54 Brassard et al. (2018), p32 Brassard et al. (2018), p58	
	4T spring Herring	1978-2015 (1978-2009)	Fishing mortality (F ₄₋₁₀) Maturity at age (%) Weight at age (kg) Number at age (10 ⁶)	Swain (2016), p14 Unpublished Leblanc et al. (2015), p39 Swain (2016), p13	
South stocks	4T fall Herring	1978-2015 (1978-2008)	Fishing mortality (F ₄₋₁₀) Maturity at age (%) Weight at age (kg) Number at age (10 ⁶)	Swain (2016), p23 LeBlanc et al. (2015), p73 Leblanc et al. (2015), p56 Swain (2016), p19	
	South Cod (4T+4Vn areas)	1971-2014 (1971-2007)	Fishing mortality (<i>F</i> ₅₋₈) Maturity at age (%) Weight at age (kg) Number at age (10 ⁶)	Swain et al. (2015), p58 Swain et al. (2015), p50 Swain et al. (2015), p28 Swain et al. (2015), p63	
Entire GSL	Mackerel	1968-2016 (1971-2010)	Fishing mortality (<i>F</i> ₅₋₈) Maturity at age (%) Weight at age (kg) Number at age (10 ⁶)	Grégoire & Beaudin (2014), p19, updated to 2016 Gregoire & Beaudin (2014), p15, updated to 2016 Gregoire & Beaudin (2014), p12, updated to 2016 Gregoire & Beaudin (2014), p18, updated to 2016	

Table 2. Environmental data description for the Gulf of St Lawrence and the sources used.

Time period	Data	Description	Source
	Surface temperature	Annual anomaly of upper layer temperature in August an averaged between May and November	Galbraith et al. (2018)
	Cold intermediate layer (CIL) temperature	Annual anomaly of the Cold Intermediate layer (CIL) minimum temperature	Galbraith et al. (2018)
	Deep Temperature	Annual anomaly of temperature at 150, 200, 250 and 300 m	Galbraith et al. (2018)
1971-2016	Annual Ice volume index	Annual anomaly of ice volume and timing of ice melting	Galbraith et al. (2018)
	Deep Salinity	Annual anomaly of the salinity in the water layers >150 m	Galbraith et al. (2018)
	St Lawrence runoff (m³)	Seasonal (Jan–June) freshwater discharge at Québec City	Galbraith et al. (2018)
	Seal abundance	Annual estimation of the number of individuals of both the northeastern GSL and the southern GSL seal	Hammil et al. (2014) for the north part Swain & Benoit (2015) for the south part

Table 3. Details of the best Generalized Additive Models (GAMs) testing the effects of age structure, environmental variability and fishing pressure on transient population growth recruitment elasticity. The GAMM model included the stock as a random variable. Generation time (μ): yearly mean age of spawners producing offspring; F: Fishing mortality for the age range indicated by subscript in Table 1; Deep Sal: Deep water salinity; Freshw: St Lawrence runoffs; SST Aug: sea surface temperature in August; SST May.Nov: sea surface temperature mean between May and November; T 150: intermediate water layer temperature (150 m); CIL: cold intermediate layer temperature; Ice Vol: Ice volume. DEV is the % of deviance explained. The significance of each term is noted as * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001.

650	Stoc	k	Time series	Best GAM Model selected	DEV
651		4R spring herring	1971-2008	Elasticity ~ \mu** + Freshw* + Deep Sal*	58
652	Northeastern stocks	4R fall herring	1971-2008	Elasticity ~ T 150*** + Ice Vol*	42
		Northern cod	1974-2007	Elasticity ~ Ice Vol*** + Freshw**	34
		4T spring herring	1978-2009	Elasticity ~ μ ** + SST May.Nov*	43
	Southern stocks	4T fall herring	1978-2008	Elasticity ~ μ^{**} + SST May.Nov*	38
		Southern cod	1971-2007	Elasticity ~ F*** + CIL*** + SST Aug**	62
	Entire GSL	Mackerel	1971-2010	Elasticity ~ μ^{***} + Freshw*	46
		All stocks (GAMM)	1978-2007	Elasticity $\sim \mu^{***} + T 150^*$	

Figure captions:

Figure 1. Management areas for Atlantic herring, cod and mackerel in the Gulf of Saint Lawrence. Note that the mackerel is managed at the scale of the entire Gulf without distinction between areas.

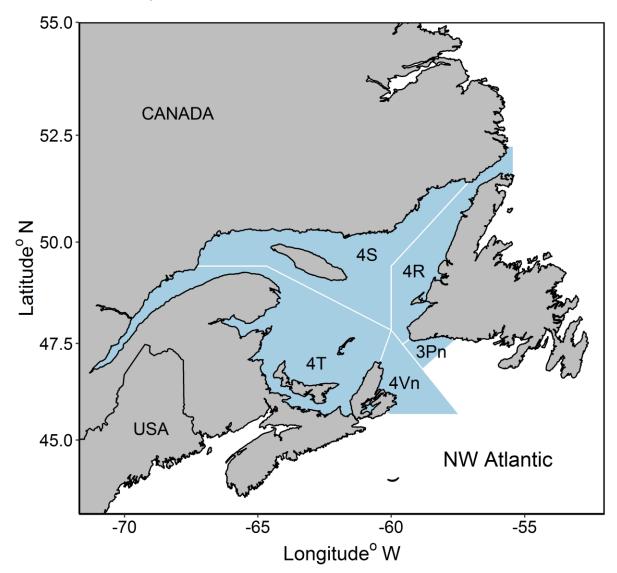


Figure 2. Stock abundance and fishing mortality time series for the 7 stocks of the Gulf of St Lawrence considered in the study (North: 4R spring and fall herring, northern cod; South: 4T spring and fall herring, southern cod; all GSL: Mackerel). Note that ranges on y axes may differ among panels.

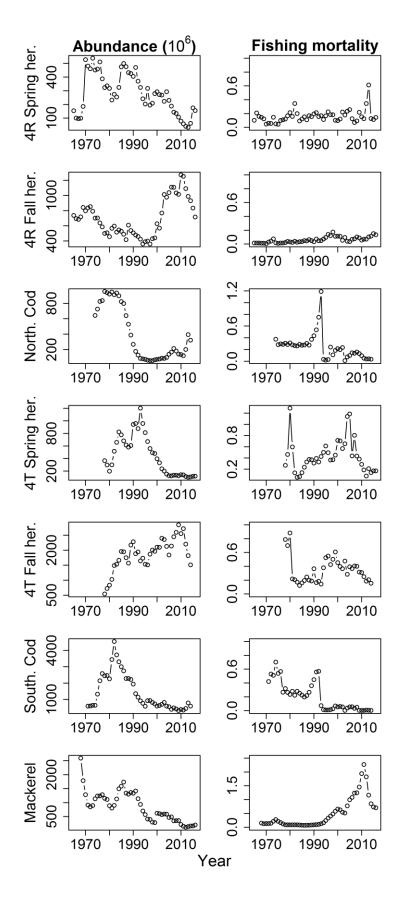


Figure 3. Generation time, population growth (Pop growth) and transient population growth recruitment elasticity time series for the 7 stocks of the Gulf of St Lawrence considered in the study (North: 4R spring and fall herring, northern cod; South: 4T spring and fall herring, southern cod; all GSL: Mackerel). Note that ranges on y axes may differ among panels.

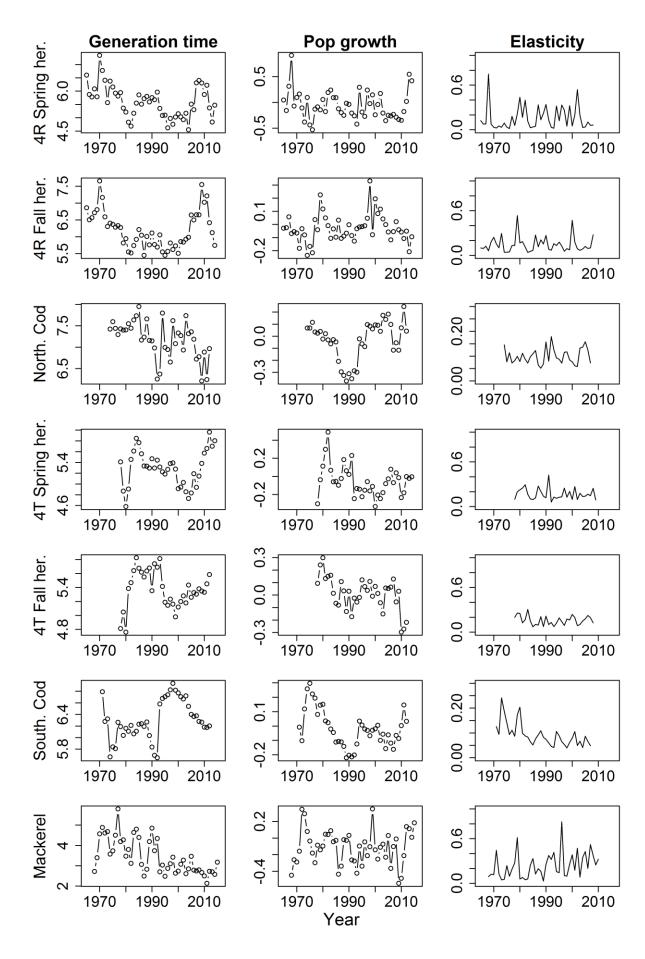


Figure 4. Time series of the environmental parameters anomalies from the Gulf of St. Lawrence (GSL). Deep Sal: deep water salinity; Freshw: St Lawrence runoffs; SST Aug: sea surface temperature in August; SST May Nov: sea surface temperature mean between May and November; T 150: intermediate water layer temperature (150 m); CIL index: cold intermediate layer temperature index; T 300: deep water layer temperature (300 m); Ice Vol: ice volume; eSeals: seal population abundance in the northeast GSL; sSeals: seal population abundance in the south GSL.

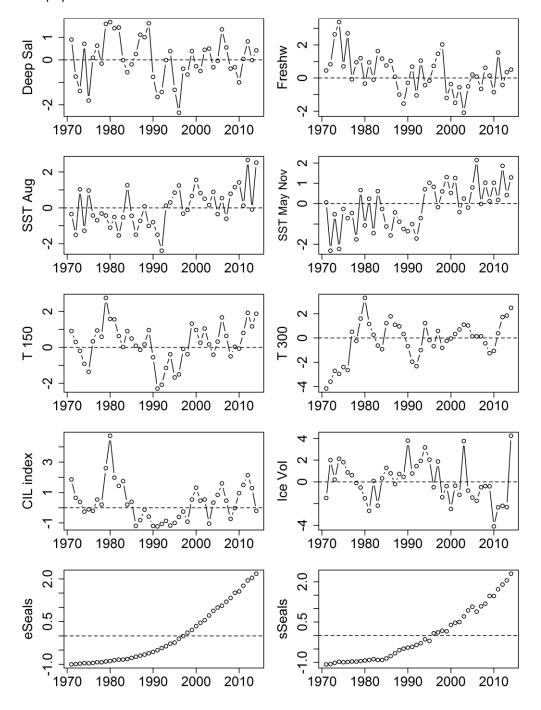


Figure 5. Partial GAM plots for the 3 northern stocks showing the population growth recruitment elasticity (e_{rec}) in response to: generation time (μ); water temperature at 150 m (T 150); deep water salinity (Deep sal); Ice vol: ice volume; Freshw: St Lawrence runoffs. Others environmental variables as well as the fish abundance were never significant. Black dots represent the partial residuals and the solid line represents the estimated mean effect of the independent variables and its 95% confidence interval (dashed lines).

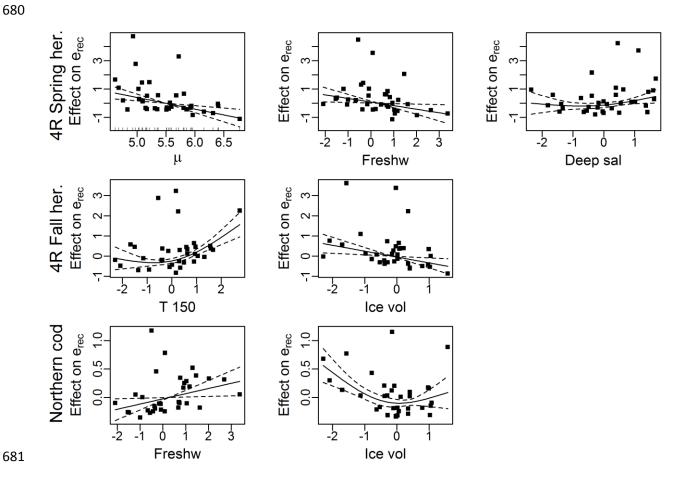
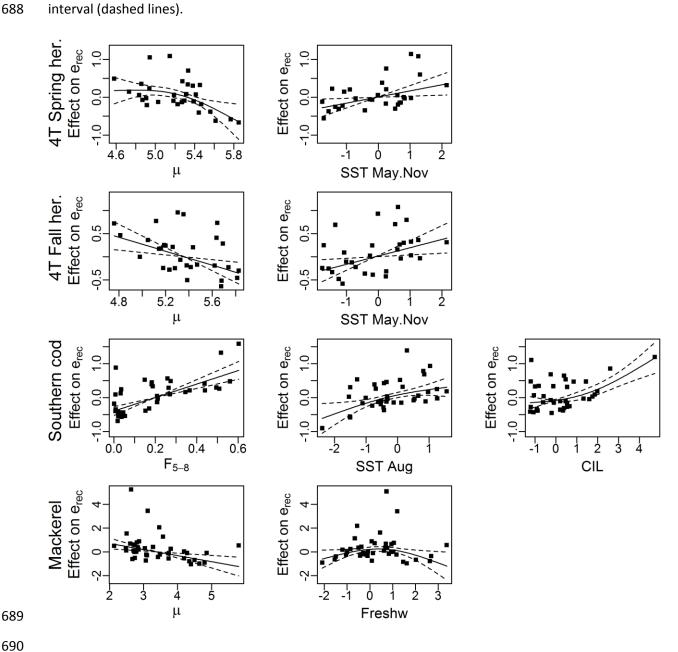
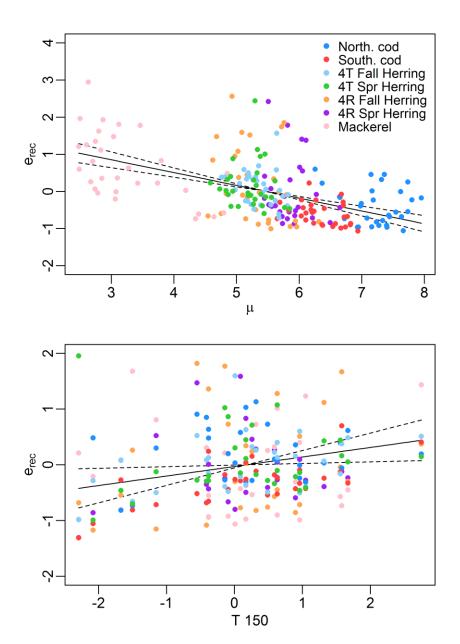


Figure 6. Partial GAM plots showing the population growth recruitment elasticity (e_{rec}) for the 3 southern stocks and the mackerel in response to: generation time (μ); sea surface temperature in August (SST Aug); sea surface temperature mean between May and November (SST May.Nov); cold intermediate layer temperature (CIL); St Lawrence runoffs (Freshw); and fishing mortality (F). Others environmental variables as well as the fish abundance were never significant. Black dots represent the partial residuals and the solid line represents the estimated mean effect of the independent variables and its 95% confidence interval (dashed lines).





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Supplementary material:

Fig S1. Ranking of the optimal elasticity model when the different years are omitted from the analysis (Leave-One Out analysis) for the seven stocks investigated.

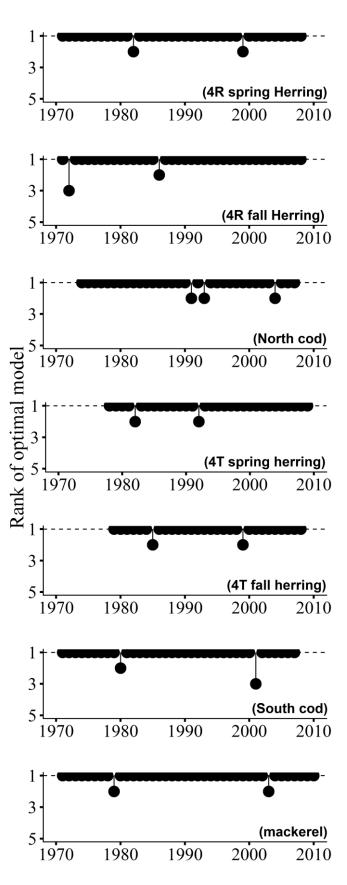


Fig S2. Non significant explanatory variables of the population growth recruitment elasticity variability tested by the generalized mixed effect model (GAMM) considering all stocks merged (with stock as a random variable).

