

Adaptation, persistence and management of Atlantic salmon in a metapopulation context

Amaia Lamarins

► To cite this version:

Amaia Lamarins. Adaptation, persistence and management of Atlantic salmon in a metapopulation context. Cellular Biology. Université de Pau et des Pays de l'Adour, 2022. English. NNT: 2022PAUU3040 . tel-04125779

HAL Id: tel-04125779 https://theses.hal.science/tel-04125779

Submitted on 12 Jun2023

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.





UNIVERSITY OF PAU AND PAYS DE L'ADOUR

DOCTORAL SCHOOL 211 - SCIENCES EXACTES ET LEURS APPLICATIONS

PhD THESIS

to obtain the title of **Doctor of Philosophy**

Speciality: Physiology & Biology of Organisms - Populations - Interactions

Adaptation, persistence and management of Atlantic salmon in a metapopulation context

Defended on December 7th, 2022, by

Amaïa LAMARINS



JURY MEMBERS

- President Katja ENBERG (Pr.)
- Reviewer Marie NEVOUX (Dr.)
- Reviewer Nicolas Schtickzelle (Pr.)
- Examiner William H. SATTERTHWAITE (Dr.) UC
- Supervisor Mathieu BUORO (Dr.)
- Supervisor Stephanie CARLSON (Pr.)

OFFICE FRANÇAIS DE LA BIODIVERSITÉ UMR DECOD Université catholique de Louvain UC Santa Cruz UMR ECOBIOP UC Berkeley

University of Bergen



Acknowledgments

"Tu verras, la thèse ça passe trop vite...", eh bien, je le confirme ! À moins d'être tombée dans l'une de ces fameuses failles spatio-temporelles, ces trois années de thèse sont réellement passées super vite, et en particulier grâce à de nombreuses personnes, qui m'ont, de près ou de loin, aidé dans mon travail ou juste égayé ma vie. J'aimerais sincèrement les remercier.

Tout d'abord, je souhaiterais remercier mon encadrant principal, Mathieu Buoro, pour beaucoup de choses. Premièrement, pour m'avoir donné cette opportunité d'effectuer mon stage de M2 aux États-Unis. Cette expérience a été une étape importante, à la fois professionnelle et personnelle, qui a ensuite débouché sur l'opportunité de réaliser cette thèse, toujours en collaboration avec les États-Unis. J'aimerais te remercier pour tout le soutien régulier que tu m'as apporté pendant ces 3 années de thèse. C'était super agréable pour moi de pouvoir te poser des questions, d'échanger, de réfléchir ensemble (parfois tard) sur les résultats (souvent) complexes de ce modèle qui nous a et nous posera encore bien des questions. Je te suis aussi reconnaissante de ton soutien pour tout ce que j'ai pu entreprendre en dehors de la science, que ce soit la bourse et la mobilité Fulbright, l'organisation de NoWPaS, les participations aux conférences, ou encore l'enseignement.

Je souhaiterais aussi chaleureusement remercier Étienne Prévost et Stephanie Carlson pour leur encadrement si bienveillant tout au long de la thèse. Merci aussi à Stephanie pour m'avoir aidé lors de mes mésaventures berkeleyniennes. Merci à la direction du labo, Étienne et Valérie Bolliet, pour leur accueil chaleureux.

Un grand merci à Jacques Labonne et Sylvie Muratorio pour leurs relectures avisées de mes articles, et le réseau démo-génétique pour avoir réalisé un super travail collectif sur le papier de review de notre approche de modélisation. Un grand merci à François de Coligny pour m'avoir initié au code Java et pour nous avoir aidé dans la construction de la nouvelle version du modèle sous Capsis.

Merci à Joëlle Chat pour m'avoir invité à collaborer sur son article sur la dispersion des truites. Merci à Colin Bouchard pour ses conseils sur la thèse en général, pour son aide technique sur l'utilisation (de dernière minute) de LATEX, mais aussi pour nos échanges rugbystiques (Aupa BO). Merci aussi à Charlotte Evangelista pour ses conseils sur l'après thèse. Un grand merci à mon comité de thèse, à savoir Charlotte Récapet, Phil Crowley, Emanuel Fronhofer, et Marie Nevoux, pour m'avoir grandement conseillé lors de mes deux comités et en dehors.

Merci à mon jury de thèse, Marie Nevoux, Nicolas Schtickzelle, Katja Enberg, et Will Satterthwaite d'avoir accepté d'évaluer mon travail, ainsi que pour nos échanges particulièrement intéressants lors de ma soutenance.

Un chaleureux remerciement à Pantxika pour son aide et sa patience à toute épreuve concernant les tâches administratives – entre les missions et l'organisation de NoWPaS, cela n'a pas été de tout repos ! Mais pourtant, il paraîtrait que c'est facile ... ;) J'aimerais également remercier l'équipe d'organisation, les keynote speaker, et les participants de NoWPaS 2022 pour avoir rendu cette édition inoubliable. Merci également à l'UAR pour leur aide administrative.

J'aimerais également remercier l'équipe technique ; même si nous n'avons pas travaillé ensemble pour ma thèse (eh oui, la modélisation...), c'était un plaisir de vous accompagner sur le terrain et lors des manips des autres – c'est une chance d'avoir une équipe technique ! Je remercie Nicolas Jeannot pour m'avoir embarqué sur les pêches de septembre sur le Scorff, c'était un plaisir !

Merci à Tewann Beauchard pour la réalisation de son stage M1 sous ma supervision et celle de Mathieu, c'était un plaisir de partager mon expérience avec le modèle.

La thèse, c'est aussi de super rencontres avec les autres doctorants. Bon Marius on se connaissait déjà d'avant, mais c'est vraiment pendant la thèse que j'ai pu découvrir (ou subir je ne sais pas trop) ton humour et ta gentillesse. Les copines, Dorinda et Léa, vous êtes toutes les deux des rayons de soleil. C'était également un plaisir de partager des bonnes bières avec les anciens et les nouveaux doctorants ECOBIOP, à savoir Louise, Clément, Lucie, Mélanie, Edel, Stellia, ainsi que ceux de NuMEA. À Berkeley, je souhaiterais remercier les doctorants pour m'avoir permis de les aider pendant leur terrain dans de super coins, ainsi que Nayiba, Shizue et Eddie pour m'avoir accueilli dans leur maison où je me sentais si bien.

Enfin, je pense que je n'aurais pas vécu cette thèse de cette façon si je n'avais pas mes deux sports pour me changer les idées. La danse, le sourire des copains, la générosité de Samantha et Davi, j'ai beaucoup appris sur la confiance en soi et en les autres. Le rugby, cette bande de copines, apprendre à « poser le cerveau », à se surpasser, à se donner pour l'équipe. J'espère quand même ne pas avoir laissé trop de neurones sur le terrain, ça peut être utile...

Et puis pour finir, un grand remerciement à ma famille, maman, papa, Oihan, Christine et Jean-Marie pour la confiance que vous avez en moi, même si vous « ne comprenez pas grand-chose à ce que je fais ». Gautier, je ne te remercierai jamais assez pour ton soutien pour la thèse et pour après, pour tout.

Un grand merci à tous.

Abstract

In a context of rapid environmental changes and anthropogenic pressures, there is an urgent need to better understand the responses of species and to provide recommendations on how we can manage and conciliate human activities with the functioning of ecosystems. However, there is often a mismatch between the scale of species functioning, threats, and management actions. In particular, even if dispersal is a ubiquitous trait in organisms, implications of connectivity and spatial structure for adaptation, persistence, and management of populations are still poorly appreciated for numerous species. This is the case of Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar), for which eco-evolutionary dynamics, exploitation and management of populations are rarely considered within a metapopulation perspective. Yet, growing evidence shows individuals and gene flow among populations of salmon. Motivated by this context, this thesis aims to use an innovative multi-scale approach, from genes to metapopulation, to 1) better understand the capacities of adaptation and persistence of exploited populations of Atlantic salmon and 2) explore management practices that would meet both objectives of conservation and exploitation. Using a spatially explicit demo-genetic agent-based model, I simulated a network of interconnected populations of Atlantic salmon based on the metapopulation of Brittany. Through several scenarios, I explored the influence of a gradient of dispersal rates, various spatial genetic structures, the spatial configuration of populations, and spatial management strategies on the demographic (e.g., stability, persistence) and eco-evolutionary (e.g., life history traits, genetic diversity) dynamics of interconnected and exploited local This thesis highlighted a non-linear relationship between dispersal populations. rates and the stability of the metapopulation, resulting in an optimal portfolio effect for dispersal rates around 20% in a homogeneous network. At local population scale, I demonstrated phenotypic changes induced by density-dependent effects modulated by dispersal, as well as an increase in genetic diversity within populations. Simulations also showed adaptation of local populations was fostered by dispersal between initially diverse populations, providing general support for the adaptation network theory. However, the spatial configuration of populations also played an important role in their evolutionary trajectories by modulating dispersal patterns. Ultimately, this thesis showcased a slight benefit from a spatialized management strategy protecting source populations from exploitation, especially for high dispersal rates. Contrasted and complex evolutionary consequences emerged from the different

management strategies in interaction with dispersal. I conclude that it is critical to account for complex interactions between dispersal, eco-evolutionary processes, and spatial structure of populations to better understand and manage Atlantic salmon response to environmental change and anthropogenic pressures. This thesis also encourages empirical knowledge about dispersal rates and metapopulation structure of this species, and advocates for conservation actions according to the portfolio and adaptation network approach, protecting connectivity and biocomplexity in the face of uncertainty. My thesis opens up further perspective of work and illustrates the potential of our modelling approach as a prospecting tool for theoretical and applied research on metapopulations.

Keywords: dispersal, spatial structure, adaptation network, management, Atlantic salmon, exploitation, model, demo-genetic, portfolio effect

Résumé

Dans un contexte de changements environnementaux rapides et de pressions anthropiques, il est urgent de mieux comprendre les réponses des espèces et d'apporter des recommandations sur la manière de gérer et de concilier les activités humaines avec le fonctionnement des écosystèmes. Cependant, il existe bien souvent un décalage entre l'échelle du fonctionnement des espèces, celle de leurs menaces, et celle des actions de gestion. En particulier, bien que la dispersion soit un trait ubiquite parmi les organismes, les implications de la connectivité et de la structure spatiale pour l'adaptation, la persistance, et la gestion des populations sont encore peu considérées pour de nombreuses espèces. Cela est le cas du saumon Atlantique (Salmo salar), une espèce pour laquelle les dynamiques éco-évolutives, l'exploitation et la gestion des populations sont rarement appréhendées dans une perspective métapopulationnelle. Pourtant, des évidences croissantes montrent des flux d'individus et de gènes entre populations de saumon. Motivée par ce contexte, cette thèse a pour objectif d'utiliser une approche innovante et multi-échelle, du gène à la métapopulation, afin de 1) mieux comprendre les capacités d'adaptation et de persistance de populations exploitées de saumon Atlantique et 2) d'explorer des pratiques de gestion qui respecteraient des objectifs de conservation mais aussi d'exploitation. À l'aide d'un modèle démo-génétique à base d'agent et spatiallement explicite, j'ai simulé un réseau de populations interconnectées de saumon Atlantique basé sur la métapopulation de Bretagne. À travers plusieurs scénarios, j'ai exploré l'influence d'un gradient de taux de dispersion, de diverses structures génétiques spatiales, de la configuration spatiale des populations, et de strategies de gestion spatialisées sur les dynamiques démographiques (e.g., stabilité, persistance) et éco-évolutives (e.g., traits d'histoire de vie, diversité génétique) de populations locales interconnectées et exploitées. Cette thèse a mis en évidence une relation non-linéaire entre les taux de dispersion et la stabilité de la métapopulation, avec un effect portfolio optimal pour des taux de dispersion autour de 20% pour un réseau homogène. À l'échelle des populations locales, j'ai démontré des changements phénotypiques induits par des effets densité-dépendants modulés par la dispersion, ainsi qu'une augmentation de la diversité génétique au sein des populations. Les simulations ont également montré que l'adaptation des populations locales était favorisée par la dispersion entre des populations initialement diversifiées, confortant ainsi la théorie des réseaux d'adaptation. Cependant, la configuration spatiale des populations a également joué un rôle important sur leurs trajectoires évolutives en modulant les patrons de dispersion. Enfin, cette thèse a illustré un léger avantage pour une stratégie de gestion protégeant les populations sources de l'exploitation, en particulier pour des taux de dispersion élevés. Des conséquences évolutives contrastées et complexes ont également emergé des différentes stratégies de gestion en interaction avec la dispersion. Je conclus de cette thèse qu'il est essentiel de tenir compte des interactions complexes entre la dispersion, les processus éco-évolutifs et la structure spatiale des populations pour mieux comprendre et gérer la réponse du saumon Atlantique aux changements environnementaux et aux pressions anthropiques. Cette thèse encourage également les connaissances empiriques sur les taux de dispersion et la structure des métapopulations de cette espèce, et plaide pour des actions de conservation selon l'approche portfolio et de réseau d'adaptation, en protégeant la connectivité et la biocomplexité. Ma thèse ouvre de nouvelle perspectives de travail et illustre le potentiel de notre approche de modélisation comme outil de prospective pour la recherche théorique et appliquée sur les métapopulations.

Mots-clés: dispersion, structure spatiale, réseau d'adaptation, gestion, saumon Atlantique, exploitation, modèle, démo-génétique, effet portfolio

Contents

1	Intr	oducti	ion	1
	1.1	Meta	POPULATION ECO-EVOLUTIONARY DYNAMICS, PERSISTENCE	
		AND M	IANAGEMENT	3
		1.1.1	Species facing environmental changes	3
		1.1.2	Spatial dispersal: a multicausal life history trait	3
		1.1.3	Metapopulation eco-evolutionary dynamics	9
		1.1.4	Stability, persistence, and adaptation of metapopulations	16
		1.1.5	Management of metapopulations	20
	1.2	SALMO	ONIDS AS A RELEVANT CASE OF STUDY	23
		1.2.1	Species of several interests	23
		1.2.2	Salmonids in a metapopulation context	24
		1.2.3	The case of Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar)	29
	1.3	THESI	S AIMS AND MANUSCRIPT STRUCTURE	34
2	The	e benef	its of eco-evolutionary agent based modelling approaches	37
	2.1	CHAL	LENGES EVALUATING DISPERSAL AND METAPOPULATION	
		DYNAI	MICS IN NATURE	39
	2.2	The	NEED OF ECO-EVOLUTIONARY, SPATIALLY-EXPLICIT, AND	
		AGEN	Г-BASED APPROACHES	40
	2.3	Impor	RTANCE OF INTERINDIVIDUAL INTERACTIONS IN ECO-	
		EVOLU	JTIONARY POPULATION DYNAMICS	42
		2.3.1	Introduction	45
		2.3.2	How to model eco-evolutionary feedback loops: from analytical	
			models to DG-ABMs	48
		2.3.3	Objective and method for the literature review	54
		2.3.4	Synthesis of the literature review	54
		2.3.5	DG-ABMs to better understand eco-evolutionary feedback loops	59
		2.3.6	Extending in space, time and levels of organisation	61
		2.3.7	DG-ABMs to assist management strategies	63
		2.3.8	Taking advantage of ABMs for DG-ABMs	64
		2.3.9	Conclusion	65
		2.3.10	Supplementary materials	66
	2.4	Exist	ING METAPOPULATION DG-ABMS	69
	2.5	CHAP'	TER HIGHLIGHTS	71

3	Imp	olicatio	ons of dispersal in Atlantic salmon	73
	3.1	Intro	DDUCTION	77
	3.2	Modi	EL DESCRIPTION: METAIBASAM, A SPATIALLY STRUCTURED	
		VERSI	ION OF IBASAM	80
		3.2.1	Key features of IBASAM	84
		3.2.2	Model improvements: a genetic basis of growth and a growth –	
		3.2.3	survival trade-off	87
		0.2.0	context	87
		3.2.4	Model parameterization and outputs	90
	3.3	Appl	ICATION: CONSEQUENCES OF A GRADIENT OF DISPERSAL BATES	00
		ON LO	DCAL POPULATIONS AND METAPOPULATION DYNAMICS	91
		3.3.1	Scenario and parameterization	91
		3.3.2	Simulations outcomes analysis	92
	3.4	DISCU	JSSION	99
	3.5	SUPP	LEMENTARY MATERIALS	106
		3.5.1	Growth-survival trade-off in river	106
		3.5.2	MetaIBASAM parameterization	108
		3.5.3	Environmental conditions simulation	111
		3.5.4	Populations' density of juveniles (parr $0+$)	115
		3.5.5	Populations' life-history traits by considering all individuals	
			phenotypes (philopatric adults and immigrants)	115
	3.6	Chap	TER HIGHLIGHTS	117
4	The	e impo	ortance of network spatial structure as a driver of eco	-
	evo	lutiona	ary dynamics	121
	4.1	INTRO	DDUCTION	125
	4.2	METH	HODS	128
		4.2.1	Model overview	128
		4.2.2	Scenarios, simulations, and model parameterization	130
	4.0	4.2.3	Simulation outcomes analysis: Local adaptation / maladaptation	132
	4.3	RESU		134
		4.3.1	Dispersal and diversity among populations with a simple spatial	104
		1.2.2	configuration	134
		4.3.2	Dispersal and diversity among populations with a complex	100
		4.9.9	spatial configuration	138
		4.3.3	Among populations diversity and spatial configuration also	1 4 1
	4 4	Deere	influence within populations diversity	141
	4.4	DISCU	JSSION	143

	4.5	SUPPI	Lementary materials $\ldots \ldots 149$
		4.5.1	Growth-survival trade-off and emerging growth potential
			optimal value
		4.5.2	Asymmetry of dispersal patterns
		4.5.3	Temporal evolution of traits in all populations
		4.5.4	Relationships between local and metapopulation trait mismatch,
			and between evolutionary rate and the proportion of immigrants 160
		4.5.5	Local trait mismatch, evolutionary rate and demography
			according to spatial configuration
		4.5.6	Demography of local populations
		4.5.7	Diversity of immigrants composition
		4.5.8	Reproductive success
	4.6	Снар	TER HIGHLIGHTS
_	2.6		
5	Ma	nagem	ent strategies of exploited Atlantic salmon metapopulation 173
	5.1	INTRO	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
	5.2	METH	$10DS \dots \dots$
		5.2.1	A spatially realistic demo-genetic agent-based model 180
		5.2.2	Scenarios of local exploitation rate, management strategies, and
		5 0 0	dispersal rate
	50	5.2.3 D=	Simulations outcomes analysis
	5.3	RESUI	$LTS \dots \dots$
		5.3.1	Demographic consequences
		5.3.2	Evolutionary consequences
	- 1	5.3.3	Phenotypic and life history strategy consequences
	5.4	DISCU	JSSION
	5.5	SUPPI	LEMENTARY MATERIALS
		5.5.1	Relationship between PFA and MER using a population
		0	dynamics model
		5.5.2	Compensatory effect of immigration on exploitation 203
	FC	5.5.3 Outro	Dynamics of source-sink structure with exploitation 207
	0.6	СНАР	TER HIGHLIGHTS
6	Tow	vards a	more flexible modeling approach 209
	6.1	INTRO	DDUCTION \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots 211
	6.2	Mode	EL DESCRIPTION $\ldots \ldots 213$
		6.2.1	Purpose and patterns
		6.2.2	Entities, state variables and scales
		6.2.3	Process overview and scheduling

		6.2.4	Design concepts	216
		6.2.5	Initialization	218
		6.2.6	Input data	218
		6.2.7	Submodels	220
	6.3	DISCU	SSION	243
		6.3.1	Model structure and innovations	243
		6.3.2	Perspectives	243
	6.4	SUPPL	EMENTARY MATERIALS	246
	6.5	СНАР	FER HIGHLIGHTS	256
7	Gen	eral di	scussion	257
	7.1	MAIN	RESULTS AND IMPLICATIONS	259
		7.1.1	Metapopulation eco-evolutionary dynamics	259
		7.1.2	Implications of dispersal for Atlantic salmon dynamics and	
			management	261
	7.2	DISCU	SSION OF OUR MODELLING APPROACH	264
		7.2.1	DG-ABMs, a great but challenging potential for metapopulation	
			research	264
		7.2.2	Interaction between modelling and empirical work	266
	7.3	Persp	PECTIVES	267
		7.3.1	Dispersal mechanisms	267
		7.3.2	Climate change	268
		7.3.3	Spatial structure	270
		7.3.4	Genetic architecture	271
	7.4	What	Also is a PhD	272
	7.5	Conci	LUDING REMARKS	273
	Bibli	iograph	y	274

A Sea trout straying rate decreases as distance from river mouth increases 325

List of Figures

1.1	Conceptual framework of the proximate causes influencing dispersal	6
1.2	The four types of metapopulations.	11
1.3	Conceptual framework of population eco-evolutionary dynamics within	
	a metapopulation context.	15
1.4	Conceptual framework of an adaptation network.	19
1.5	Illustration of the main threats affecting freshwater fishes	23
1.6	Temporal trends of the Atlantic salmon catches, abundance, and exploitation rates over the distribution range.	30
1.7	The Atlantic salmon life cycle.	31
1.8	Distribution of colonized rivers by Atlantic salmon in France from the	
	18th to the 21st century	32
1.9	Overview of the chapters of the thesis.	35
2.1	Examples of interindividual interactions.	47
2.2	Different approaches to model eco-evolutionary feedback loops	50
2.3	Conceptual scheme of DG-ABMs	53
2.4	Graphical summary of the publications associated with the first WOS	
	query	67
2.5	Graphical summary of the publications associated with the second WOS	
	query	68
3.1	Conceptual framework of the MetaIBASAM model.	86
3.2	Additions into MetaIBASAM from IBASAM.	88
3.3	Ratio between immigrants and emigrants and visualisation of the network.	93
3.4	Estimation of the PE according to the mean-variance method	94
3.5	Schematic representation of local populations synchrony $/$ asynchrony.	95
3.6	Distribution of the PE, synchrony, local populations CV and quasi	
	extinction risk.	97
3.7	Median smolt size, philopatric adult 1SW size, genotypic value of male sea maturation threshold, and proportion of 1SW in philopatric adult	
	returns.	98
3.8	Median genetic variance.	99
3.9	Theoretical framework of the adaptation network theory	05
3.10	Temporal evolution of growth potential genotypic value and 1SW adult	
	size with and without growth-survival trade-off	07

3.11	Processes details to compute the theoretical growth potential optimal value	108
3.12	Mapping of the coastal rivers related to the 15 populations of Brittany included in the model	110
3.13	Posterior distributions of the autoregressive parameter a of the water- air temperature -flow discharge relationship. Median values and 95% credible intervals are represented	110
3.14	Quantile-quantile diagram between the observed and predicted (over 10 iterations of the model) water temperatures.	113
3.15	Median over simulations of populations last 5 years median parr density (by m2) for each scenario of dispersal	116
3.16	Median over simulations of populations last 5 years median adult 1SW size and proportion of 1SW in adult returns for each scenario of dispersal.	116
3.17	Diagram representing the demographic, phenotypic and genotypic changes induced by the "optimal" dispersal rates (10%-20%) according to our study	110
11	Schematic representation of the interplay between digneral and both	110
4.1	components of spatial structure.	129
4.2	Schematic representation of the spatial genetic structure and the spatial configuration of the network for each scenario.	131
4.3	Distributions of local populations trait mismatch, evolutionary rates and metapopulation demography for different spatial genetic structures.	135
4.4	Temporal evolution of the genetic value of growth potential of philopatric adults and immigrants and populations demography for	
4.5	different spatial genetic structures in examples of populations Temporal evolution of the genetic value of growth potential of philopatric adults and immigrants and populations demography for	137
4.6	different spatial configurations in examples of populations	140
	and spatial configurations	142
4.7	Theoretical optimal value of phenotypic growth potential based on mean individual Lifetime Recruitment Success	140
4.8	Distributions of the ratio Immigrants / Emigrants of each of the	149
	15 populations for different spatial genetic structures and spatial configurations of populations.	150
4.9	Spatial configuration and distribution of genetic diversity of the simulated networks of each scenario for a dispersal rate of 10%.	151

4.10	Temporal evolution of the genetic value of male river maturation threshold of philopatric adults and immigrants for each scenario of dispersal rate and spatial distribution of diversity in each of the 15	
	populations.	153
4.11	Temporal evolution of the genetic value of male sea maturation threshold of philopatric adults and immigrants for each scenario of dispersal rate and spatial distribution of diversity in each of the 15	
	populations	154
4.12	Temporal evolution of the genetic value of female sea maturation threshold of philopatric adults and immigrants for each scenario of dispersal rate and spatial distribution of diversity in each of the 15	
	populations.	155
4.13	Temporal evolution of the genetic value of growth potential of	200
	philopatric adults and immigrants for each scenario of dispersal rate	
	and spatial distribution of diversity in each of the 15 populations	156
4.14	Temporal evolution of the genetic value of growth potential of	
	philopatric adults and immigrants for each scenario of dispersal rate	
	and spatial configuration in each of the 15 populations	157
4.15	Temporal evolution of the phenotypic value of growth potential of	
	philopatric adults and immigrants for each scenario of dispersal rate	
4.10	and spatial distribution of diversity in each of the 15 populations.	158
4.10	remporal evolution of the phenotypic value of growth potential of	
	and spatial configuration in each of the 15 populations	150
4 17	Relationship between the local trait mismatch and the metapopulation	105
1.11	trait mismatch of populations, and between the evolutionary rate of	
	populations and the proportion of immigrants for the different spatial	
	genetic structures and spatial configurations.	161
4.18	Distributions of the local trait mismatch and evolutionary rates of	
	populations and metapopulation demography for the different scenarios	
	of spatial configuration	162
4.19	Temporal evolution of the local populations demography for the	
	different spatial genetic structures	164
4.20	Temporal evolution of the local populations demography for the	1.0-
4.01	different spatial configurations.	165
4.21	Temporal evolution of the averaged coefficient of variation of growth	
	and spatial configurations	166
		100

4.22	Temporal evolution of the average Lifetime Reproductive Success (LRS) of philopatric individuals and immigrants for each population for a dispersal rate of 10% and a random spatial distribution of diversity	170
5.1	Schematic representation of the three management strategies tested in the study.	183
5.2	Relative abundance of returns (PFA) of the metapopulation for the different management strategies and dispersal rates.	186
$5.3 \\ 5.4$	Portfolio effect and synchrony of the metapopulation	187
5.5	over the metapopulation	188
5.6	male and female anadromous thresholds over the metapopulation Relative average of phenotypic values of returning adults, juveniles and	189
5.7	smolts over the metapopulation	191
5.8	metapopulation	192
5.9	management strategies using a simple population dynamics model Relative PFA over time of an example sink population (the Leff) for	200
5.10	a gradient of local exploitation rates, dispersal rates and the three management strategies	203
	for a gradient of local exploitation rates, dispersal rates and the three management strategies.	204
5.11	Ratio Immigrants/Harvest over time of an example sink population (the Leff) for a gradient of local exploitation rates, dispersal rates and the	
5.12	three management strategies	205
5.13	(the Trieux) for a gradient of local exploitation rates, dispersal rates and the three management strategies	206
	metapopulation exploitation rates, dispersal rates (colors intensity) and the three management strategies (colors)	207
 6.1 6.2 6.3 6.4 6.5 	Life cycle, submodels (SM) and processes (in italics) of the model Reproduction, sexual selection and redd creation	 215 223 226 228 235
0.0	niver growin, sea growin, and anotation processes	230

6.6	Temporal evolution of growth potential genotypic value and 1SW adult
	size with and without growth-survival trade-off
6.7	Process of survival in river and sea
6.8	Maturation process
6.9	Migration processes
6.10	Global scheme of the spatial and temporal framework of the model
	processes
7.1	Feedback loop between DG-ABMs and empirical work
7.2	Diagram of the conclusions and perspectives (dotted boxes) of the thesis.272
7.3	Poster of the NoWPaS 2022 held in France

List of Tables

1.1	Summary of the literature review	26
1.2	Distribution of the type of connectivity measured in the literature review.	27
2.1	Interindividual interactions and associated evolvable traits modelled in DG-ABMs.	56
2.2	Association between the category of evolvable traits considered in each DC ABM, and the type of each availation are feedback considered.	57
2.3	Publications excluded during the literature review.	57 66
3.1	Comparison between MetaIBASAM and existing modeling frameworks to explore metapopulation dynamics of salmonids	81
3.2	Parameters values of growth-survival trade-off in river.	106
3.3	Description and selected values of modified or new model parameters	100
24	Distance matrix between river estuaries (km). Population indicator is	109
0.4	from 1 to 15	110
3.5	Prior and posterior distributions of the parameters of the water-air	110
0.0	temperature -flow discharge relationship	112
3.6	Prior and posterior distributions of the parameters of the water flow	± ± =
	sinusoidal model.	114
3.7	Prior and posterior distributions of the parameters of the air	115
		110
5.1	Scenarios design of dispersal rates, local exploitation rates, and	
	management strategies.	183
6.1	Example of data file for river climate	219
6.2	Example of data file for rivers spatial structure.	219
6.3	Genetic parameters to provide at initialization.	219
6.4	Entities and variables of the model	246
6.5	IBASAM parameter descriptions and selected values required in the	
	submodels	249
6.6	IBASAM parameter descriptions and selected values for individuals	
	initialization.	254

Chapter 1 Introduction

Rapid environmental changes and anthropogenic pressures such as exploitation, contamination, fragmentation and climate change lead to a global decline of biodiversity, threatening ecosystems functioning and the services they provide to the human society. With these increasing pressures, conflicting demands emerge between conservation and exploitation of natural resources among stakeholders which manifest themselves at local, regional and global scales. In this context, there is an urgent need to better understand response of species to these pressures and to provide recommendations on how we can manage and conciliate human activities with the functioning of species and ecosystems. This is particularly critical for aquatic ecosystems which face many threats (e.g., water extirpation, loss of connectivity) and provide resources to the society, economy, and human welfare.

However, there is often a mismatch between the scale of species functioning, threats, and management actions. In particular, *population* is usually the scale of study and management (e.g., a river, a meadow) while most populations of species are spatially interconnected by movement of individuals, i.e., dispersal, and form a *metapopulation*. This metapopulation functioning might have consequences on the ability of species to respond to environmental changes but also for their management. Moreover, increasing attention is given for a more comprehensive consideration of the processes facilitating the adaptation of organisms to changing ecosystems, which include acclimatization (phenotypic plasticity), genetically based evolution through natural selection (also known as genetic adaptation), and movement toward more suitable habitats (dispersal). Considering the multiple eco-evolutionary processes as well as their interactions is then mandatory to appreciate the response of organisms. Finally, there is also a mounting interest in the value of diversity for the persistence, resilience and management of populations. We need to adopt a portfolio approach by considering and protecting the biocomplexity at multiple levels (from genes to ecosystems) in the face of upcoming and unpredictable environmental changes.

This thesis focuses on a salmonid species, the Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*). Salmonids species, and Atlantic salmon in particular, are relevant species in this context. They are emblematic, patrimonial, economic, threatened species, for which there is a strong demand for improving their conservation while maintaining their exploitation. They are also characterized by a broad diversity of life histories, which give them great interest in the context of the portfolio approach. Importantly, salmonids are emblematic species of philopatry (commonly called *homing* in the Salmosphere) and the implications of dispersal are particularly overlooked for their management.

Motivated by this context, this thesis aims to use an innovative multi-scale approach (from genes to metapopulation) to 1) better understand the capacities of adaptation and persistence of exploited populations of Atlantic salmon and 2) explore management practices that would meet both objectives of conservation and exploitation within a metapopulation framework. The main questions I investigated are the following:

How connectivity (i.e., metapopulation functioning) and diversity influence meta-populations eco-evolutionary dynamics, stability and persistence?

Are there management strategies that meet both conservation and exploitation objectives by considering metapopulation structure?

In this introductory chapter, I introduce the main knowledge and identify gaps in the field covered by the thesis, i.e., metapopulation eco-evolutionary dynamics, management, within the context of salmonids and more specifically of Atlantic salmon. After having identified the main gaps, I decline the objectives of the thesis and introduce the following chapters and the manuscript structure.

1.1 METAPOPULATION ECO-EVOLUTIONARY DYNAMICS, PERSISTENCE AND MANAGEMENT

1.1.1 Species facing environmental changes

Understanding the drivers of ecological stability is needed to better appreciate the response of populations to environmental changes and define sustainable management practices that favor their conservation. The persistence of species facing environmental changes is strongly related to their capacity of adaptation via eco-evolutionary processes (Reed et al., 2011b). In a simple way, species either accommodate, adapt, move, or disappear. Indeed, eco-evolutionary processes include the processes of acclimatization (i.e., phenotypic plasticity, or accommodation) and genetically based evolution through natural selection (i.e., genetic adaptation; Ghalambor et al., 2007; Brandon, 2014). Dispersal, whether spatial or temporal, can also favor species responses to environmental changes by spreading the risk of reproductive failure (Buoro and Carlson, 2014).

1.1.2 Spatial dispersal: a multicausal life history trait

1.1.2.1 Dispersal definition

Spatial dispersal (hereafter dispersal) can be defined as the movement of individuals between the natal area and the first breeding area (natal dispersal), or between two successive breeding areas (breeding dispersal), with potential consequences for gene flow (Clobert et al., 2001; Ronce, 2007; Matthysen, 2012). Dispersal is often named "migration" but I consider the migration term referring to any movement of individual without an ultimate influence on reproduction location, such as seasonal migration. While dispersal is a ubiquitous trait in nature (Clobert et al., 2012), its strength depends on species ability to disperse and on landscape permeability (Schtickzelle et al., 2006). It can be active (e.g., a bird flight between two forests) or passive (e.g., a seed falling from a tree). Dispersal is thus highly variable, ranging from small passive movements to complex processes involving exploration behavior and social interactions (Matthysen, 2012). A conceptual approach described dispersal as a multi-phase life history process (Clobert et al., 2009), composed of the three following stages : i) emigration or departure (leaving natal habitat), ii) transfer or transience (movement), and iii) immigration or settlement (arrival in the novel habitat). Dispersal decisions often rely on information of individuals themselves and their environment (biotic, abiotic, social; informed dispersal, Clobert et al., 2009).

1.1.2.2 Multicausality of dispersal

Dispersal is known to be multicausal (Matthysen, 2012), i.e. a diversity of proximate causes, non exclusive, are identified in the literature. Each of the three stages (emigration, transfer, and immigration) can be influenced by i) individual phenotypic condition (e.g., size, Anholt, 1990; sex, Li and Kokko, 2019), ii) environmental factors (e.g., kin competition, Moore et al., 2006), and social interactions, as well as their interactions (Box 1.1; Clobert et al., 2009; Matthysen, 2012; Bitume et al., 2013).

Box 1.1: Proximate causes of dispersal

Phenotypic-dependence

In a similar environment, some individuals will disperse whereas others will not, i.e. dispersal is not random, which may explain phenotypic variation between dispersing and philopatric individuals (Cote et al., 2010). Inter-individual variation in dispersal propensity can be related to several phenotypic traits (Bowler and Benton, 2005; Clobert et al., 2009) and involves suites of traits (dispersal syndromes, Clobert et al., 2009; Cote et al., 2010). For instance, sexbiased dispersal is very common in the animal kingdom (Gros et al., 2008; Li and Kokko, 2019), while age and body size are also individual traits which may trigger dispersal (Dufty and Belthoff, 2001). An active metabolism combined with strong wing muscles and an appropriate body shape is an example of a dispersal syndrome in insects that rely on wings to disperse long distances (Zera and Denno, 1997). These inter-individual variations often interact with the context or condition in which individuals are (see condition-dependence).

Condition-dependence

Individuals often evolve in a spatially and temporally variable environment, and their internal propensity to disperse is largely interacting with external factors of their environment (abiotic and biotic, Bowler and Benton, 2005; Clobert et al., 2009, Fig. 1.1). According to a large body of literature, the main factors reported in empirical studies are listed below:

• **Density**: during the emigration process, positive density-dependent propensity to disperse has been demonstrated for a diversity of taxa (e.g.,

vole, Aars and Ims, 2000, spider, De Meester and Bonte, 2010, butterfly, Nowicki and Vrabec, 2011), reducing exploitative and interference competitive interactions (Bowler and Benton, 2005). By contrast, other studies demonstrated negative density-dependent relationship between emigration rate and density (e.g., Ims and Andreassen, 2005). Group-living advantages such as predation dilution, facilitation of foraging and mating opportunities, and other Allee effects may explain this pattern. However, the combination of these different factors is often not well represented by linear relationships and more complex shapes are expected (Kim et al., 2009; Harman et al., 2020). During the settlement process, density dependent immigration is also observed when larger population sizes reflect favourable environmental conditions and attract more immigrants (e.g., Fernández-Chacón et al., 2013).

- Habitat quality: closely related to population density, the quality of an habitat may influence emigration behavior, such as food availability (Hanski et al., 2002). Habitat quality may also influence immigration process; empirical evidence showed greater immigration into higher quality patches (Schneider et al., 2003).
- Interspecific interactions: competitive, host-parasite, prey-predator interactions with other species may also determine the suitability of an habitat for an individual and dispersal (Bowler and Benton, 2005).
- Sex ratio: variation in dispersal may emerge from variation in the sex ratio if competition is asymmetric between sex and if the sex ratio determines the mating success (Colwell and Naeem, 1999).
- **Relatedness**: dispersal can be triggered to avoid inbreeding and kin competition by kinship of individuals in the same habitat. This proximate cause assumes that individuals have the capacity for kin recognition (Bitume et al., 2013).
- Patch size and isolation: as a result of the edge to size ratios, patch size is negatively correlated with emigration rate for a variety of taxa (e.g., butterflies, Baguette et al., 2000, other insects, Kindvall, 1999, voles, Andreassen and Ims, 2001), although confounding effects of covarying

factors such as density (Hambäck and Englund, 2005) or relatedness (Léna et al., 1998) may explain these patterns. Patch size can also affect immigration by increasing the probability to be located by a dispersing animal (Kindvall and Petersson, 2000). Additionally, the isolation of a patch can determine the chance on successful movement due to the accumulating costs of dispersal with distance moved (Bowler and Benton, 2005).



Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework of the proximate causes influencing dispersal. Internal (phenotypic-dependence) and external (condition-dependence) factors can influence each of the three dispersal stages. From Clobert et al., 2009.

This very brief overview highlights the diversity of factors which, in interaction, may influence dispersal at the individual level. Note also that the shapes of conditiondependent dispersal relationships are not fixed and may evolve (Kisdi, 2012). Globally, conditional dispersal enables organisms to escape local unfavorable conditions and to prospect actively for more favourable conditions (Matthysen, 2012) over the short term.

1.1.2.3 Fitness and ultimate causes of dispersal

Even if dispersal behavior is likely to be triggered by the proximal causes, dispersal is also driven by ultimate causes (Box 1.2). Indeed, the interindividual variability in dispersal propensity is very likely to have a genetic basis (Saastamoinen et al., 2018), especially via the genetic basis of the multiple traits that contribute to the capacity to disperse (e.g., production of wings, Zera and Brisson, 2012). Occurring at the individual scale, the dispersal behavior is characterized by several costs and benefits and can be under selection to reduce its costs and maximize individual fitness (Bonte et al., 2014). From an evolutionary perspective, the evolution of dispersal as a life-history strategy results from the balance between these costs and benefits, i.e., dispersal is adaptive when the gain in fitness of moving to a new location is higher than its costs (Box 1.2). Importantly, inclusive fitness (Hamilton, 1964), i.e., direct individual fitness added to the fitness of kins weighted by their relatedness, has to be considered to fully understand the costs-benefits balance driving dispersal.

Box 1.2: Ultimate causes of dispersal

Ultimate causes of dispersal which favor the evolution of dispersal traits include (Gandon and Michalakis, 2001; Bowler and Benton, 2005):

- Competition avoidance: by leaving crowded habitats and settling in low density environments, dispersal behavior may reduce deleterious effects of mate and resource competition with conspecifics or heterospecifics (Bitume et al., 2013), and allows to prospect for more favorable conditions (e.g., availability and quality of mates).
- Kin interactions: kin selection on individuals selects for traits which increase inclusive fitness, i.e., the fitness of the individual and its relatives, despite the direct costs of the trait (Hamilton, 1964). Thus, dispersal can be selected for to limit kin competition within the population of birth and spread competition among other populations with non siblings individuals. Kin competition has been the cornerstone of theoretical arguments for the evolution of dispersal in stable environments. It was first showcased by Hamilton and May (1977) and further demonstrated by several studies (Gandon and Michalakis, 1999; Bach et al., 2006; Poethke et al., 2007). Conversely, philopatry may be selected for in the case of cooperative behavior between related individuals (García-Ruiz et al., 2022).

- Inbreeding avoidance: the deleterious effects of inbreeding are expected to select for dispersal, allowing related individuals to be spread over habitats (Gandon, 1999).
- Habitat stochasticity: Theoretical studies showed that stochasticity in demographic dynamics (Travis and Dytham, 1998) and patch quality should select for dispersal (McPeek and Holt, 1992), although it might not always be the case (Poethke et al., 2003). From the viewpoint of reproducing individuals, dispersal can be seen as a risk spreading (Den Boer, 1968) or bet hedging strategy: dispersal increases the variance in expected fitness by distributing offspring from the same parents over different conditions of several habitat patches.

Costs associated with dispersal are also multiple; they may be classified into energetic (e.g., movement energetic expenditure), time (e.g., time not invested in foraging behavior), risk (e.g., predation risk), and indirect opportunity costs (e.g., quality of destination habitat), as defined in Bonte et al. (2012), and may apply during the three stages of the dispersal process. Departure costs gather the cost of development of structures enabling dispersal (e.g., wings) at the expense of fitness related life history traits (e.g., body size, Solbreck, 1986, mating opportunities, Sack and Stern, 2007), of exploration and preparation behaviors (Young and Monfort, 2009). During the transfer phase, the energetic cost of movement (Roff, 1977) and increased mortality probability due to predation exposure or resource limitation (e.g., Pietrek et al., 2009) are often the main costs identified. Lastly, settlement costs include mortality in unsuitable or crowded habitats (Ólafsson et al., 1994) or lower fitness in the recipient environment because of local adaptation (outbreeding, Marr et al., 2002).

Thus, dispersal may emerge as a life history strategy related to individual fitness, but can also affect ecological and evolutionary patterns by modifying population dynamics (via the movement of individuals) and population genetics (through gene flow). In turn, population dynamics and genetics may influence selective pressures on dispersal-related traits and feedback on the evolution of dispersal. Density-dependence of dispersal is the most evident way of feedback between dispersal and population dynamics (Clobert et al., 2004). Dispersal thus appears as a central trait in ecological and evolutionary processes of species, and is central to the theory of metapopulations by favoring the flow of individuals among inter-connected populations with potential consequences for metapopulation eco-evolutionary dynamics, stability, and persistence.

1.1.3 Metapopulation eco-evolutionary dynamics

1.1.3.1 Metapopulation definition

A metapopulation can be defined as an assemblage of spatially discrete populations (hereafter local populations) of the same species, connected together by some degree of dispersal (Levins, 1969, 1970). Given that species commonly occupy metapopulations naturally, and the rate and scale at which habitat fragmentation is occurring around the globe (Harrison and Bruna, 1999), developing conceptual frameworks to describe spatial population dynamics is a central focus of conservation biology (Tilman and Kareiva, 1997; Dieckmann et al., 2000; Marsh and Trenham, 2001).

Levin's metapopulation model and theory first formalized the process of local extinction and colonization of a collection of patches that are either occupied or vacant, which is characteristic of metapopulations (Levins, 1969, 1970). The simplicity of this model made it very powerful and provided key insight on the regional persistence, despite local extinctions, provided by metapopulation functioning and sufficient dispersal among patches. This work initiated a large body of theoretical and experimental work on metapopulation ecology and raised awareness of the significance of spatial structure for population dynamics.

Further, metapopulation theory was extended by Hanski (2004), who integrated and highlighted the influence of population size and isolation on patches turnover rate into his model (Hanski, 1998). It was followed by several variants from structured metapopulation models including demographic dynamics of patches (Gyllenberg et al., 1997) and ultimately spatially explicit models (Hanski, 1994).

Metapopulation theory may be applied to a broad range of organisms which occupy spatially distinct habitats interconnected by dispersal, and thus a large range of metapopulation structures may be encountered. Several types of metapopulations have been described based on patch configuration (size and distance), the level of connectivity, and the relative rates of extinction and colonisation (Box 1.3 Fig. 1.2; Harrison, 1991; Harrison and Taylor, 1997).

Box 1.3: Metapopulation types

- The **classical Levins-type** metapopulation is characterized by local populations occupying discrete patches of suitable habitat at substantial risk of extinction, with potential colonization, leading to a high population turnover among patches and an intermediate occupancy.
- The mainland-island metapopulation type is very close to the island biogeography theory (MacArthur and Wilson, 1963, 1967) that was developed in parallel and in interaction with the metapopulation theory. It is characterized by high levels of variation in patch size and asymmetrical connectivity, with individuals occupying small and isolated patches and larger patches constituting a mainland source. Source-sink dynamics (Pulliam, 1988) follow the same type of metapopulation, but movement of individuals between patches is driven by differences in patch quality rather than patch size. Excess individuals from highly productive patches (sources) disperse to low productivity patches (sinks) that cannot support populations on their own (Pulliam, 1988; Dias, 1996). Dispersal may thus allow a species to occur at sites where local recruitment alone would not be sufficient for population persistence.
- The **patchy** populations type presents high levels of connectivity and may occur when colonisation exceeds extinction.
- Conversely, **non-equilibrium** populations type occurs when local extinction greatly exceeds colonisation so that vacant patches are never or very rarely re-colonised. If local extinction is high, non-equilibrium populations eventually become extinct.



The omnipresence in nature of classical metapopulations was recently questioned and most spatially structured populations can be classified as patchy or mainlandisland metapopulations (Fronhofer et al., 2012). Although it is tempting to classify different spatially structured populations into different metapopulation types for the ease of use (Harrison and Taylor, 1997), the existence of a great diversity of landscapes most probably leads to a great diversity of "metapopulation structures" (Hanski and Gaggiotti, 2004a). Thinking in terms of metapopulation types with delineated patches can be conceptually useful but should be considered a simplification.

1.1.3.2 Dispersal and metapopulation eco-evolutionary dynamics

Dispersal, via the movements of individuals and gene flow, may strongly affect the eco-evolutionary dynamics of local populations and metapopulations as a whole.

Demographic consequences

First, from a demographic perspective, dispersal of individuals from neighbouring occupied patches favors long-term persistence of metapopulations by the colonisation of new patches during range expansion or the recolonisation of patches that has gone extinct (Ebenhard, 1991). This process is a crucial component of metapopulations; while single population may not survive for long, the movement of individuals between patches ensures metapopulations can persist in the long-term. The immigration of individuals into small populations close to extinction, known as demographic rescue effect (Brown and Kodric-Brown, 1977; Hill et al., 2002), is also an essential positive effect of dispersal which may greatly contribute to local populations growth (Reichert et al., 2021) and reduce risk of extinction. However, a strong level of connectivity between populations have been shown to increase population synchrony and the probability of simultaneous extinctions (Heino et al., 1997). Dispersal can indeed act to synchronize population dynamics over a spatial scale that depends on dispersal distance (Lande et al., 1999; Paradis et al., 1999; Ranta et al., 1999; Larroque et al., 2019) and with an intensity which depends on dispersal level. In experimental metapopulations of drosophila, high rates of dispersal led to population synchrony while lower rates did not (Dey and Joshi, 2006).

Direct and plastic phenotypic changes

From an evolutionary perspective, the immigration of individuals into populations may also have phenotypic effects. These phenotypic effects may be direct, especially in the case of non random dispersal with respect to phenotype, changing the distribution of phenotypes in the populations to which and from individuals migrate (Benton and Bowler, 2012). More indirectly, phenotypic changes might also be induced by changes of population dynamics via plasticity. For instance, changes of local densities, stage-structure, and competition induced by migration patterns can influence life history traits (see chapter 3). Moreover, emigration from a population could free some resources in these populations because access to resources is density-dependent (Keeley, 2001), while the rising density from immigration into the recipient populations would affect phenotypes such as growth rate due to density-dependent effects. In fact, many biological and ecological processes are density-dependent, such as survival (Frederiksen and Bregnballe, 2000), reproduction (Wauters and Lens, 1995), growth (Pacoureau et al., 2017), and even sexual selection (Clutton-Brock et al., 1997), and all of these factors can influence the dynamics of populations.

Evolutionary consequences

Moreover, dispersal can induce gene flow altering the genetic composition within and between populations (Barton, 1992). Individual movements away from a patch can also reduce inbreeding and its deleterious effects (Keller and Waller, 2002), but immigration is likely to promote outbreeding, especially if the spatially separated populations are locally adapted to heterogeneous environments (Felsenstein, 1976; Lenormand, 2002; Débarre et al., 2013). Indeed, the mean fitness of a local population is reduced if migrants come from populations adapted to other conditions and likely to be poorly adapted to local conditions (migration load, Whitlock, 2004). However, this effect may depend on the intensity of gene flow which is not always proportional to dispersal intensity. Gene flow can be higher than dispersal (e.g., via disassortative mating, or hybrid vigour, Ebert et al., 2002), while maternal or environmental effects can create phenotypic mismatches and reduce the establishment of immigrants (Marshall et al., 2010). Another effect of dispersal on evolutionary dynamics can be observed at range margins, where founder effects can drive mutations fixations rapidly (McInerny et al., 2009). Population structure and connectivity may also have themselves an effect on the evolutionary mechanisms leading to trait evolution. For instance, genetic drift being a function of effective population size, its speed might be influenced by connectivity level (Wang and Caballero, 1999). In a context of uniform selection among habitats, the efficiency of selection (weaker response to selection) may be affected by the kin structure generated by population structure; if a genotype perform better than other, it will reduces resource availability for others, that are likely relative individuals sharing similar alleles (Whitlock, 2004). Through the change of density, dispersal might finally influence selective pressures on traits such as competition.

Life history traits evolution

Despite the description of several examples of how spatial structure of metapopulation might significantly affect the evolution of life history traits, a phenomenon called 'the metapopulation effect' by Olivieri and Gouyon (1997), the evolution of life history traits is mostly studied in single large homogeneous populations, and studies on evolution of traits in a metapopulation perspective often focus on the evolution of dispersal propensity (Friedenberg, 2003; Fjerdingstad et al., 2007). Indeed, a large amount of theoretical work has been done on the evolution of dispersal in a metapopulation context. Several studies focused on the evolution of dispersal in the case of spatial and temporal heterogeneity (Ronce and Olivieri, 1997; Ronce et al., 2000; Heino and Hanski, 2001; Parvinen et al., 2020), while others examined it in the context of habitat loss (North et al., 2011). Theoretical work also demonstrated the evolution of dispersal in response to kin competition (Bach et al., 2006; Poethke et al., 2007), density and condition dependent dispersal (body condition dependent, Bonte and De La Peña, 2009, density dependent, Travis et al., 1999). Studies on the evolution of other life histories in a metapopulation context are still relatively scarce (but see age at maturity, de Jong et al., 2000, reproductive effort, Ronce and Olivieri, 1997). Additionally, little is known about how metapopulation structure, e.g. via the genetic structure or demographic asymmetries, may constrain or favor the evolution of life history traits, playing both on the directionality of selection and the amount of genetic variation (Ronce and Olivieri, 2004).

Eco-evolutionary feedbacks

Overall, dispersal and spatial structure of populations may have a complex influence on local populations demographic and evolutionary dynamics due to the multiplicity of implications of dispersal and their interaction. In particular, dispersal patterns may influence local populations dynamics and genetic composition, which in turn may affect dispersal patterns themselves. In other words, spatial population dynamics therefore arise as an emergent property of a system of spatially connected patches, where each patch is itself a system of linked genetic, phenotypic and population dynamics which may influence and be influenced by dispersal patterns (Benton and Bowler, 2012, Fig. 1.3). Metapopulations eco-evolutionary dynamics may be particularly complex to understand due to these eco-evolutionary feedbacks that are receiving growing attention. They have been reviewed with the angle of connectivity change in Bonte et al. (2018), since habitat fragmentation can affect the cost-benefit balance of dispersal and impose a different selective pressure, which ultimately impacts populations dynamics and connectivity. Experimental work led by Fronhofer and Alternatt (2015) also illustrated such feedback; in their study, range expansion selects for increased dispersal, likely due to spatial selection and kin competition, which in turn feedbacks on distribution of population densities, which are low in range cores and high in margins, likely via trade off with foraging efficiency. A theoretical study from the same authors showed that network topology and connectivity lead to dispersal evolution which feedback on the network genetic structure and occupancy (Fronhofer and Alternatt, 2017). However, clear demonstration of these eco-evolutionary feedbacks are still scarce, likely due to the complexity of simultaneously track trait changes and

population demography in a network of populations. Yet, acquiring insights in how the eco-evolutionary feedbacks between population dynamics, dispersal, life history evolution and the spatial structure of the landscape affect the distribution of species is essential for population conservation.



Figure 1.3: Conceptual framework of population eco-evolutionary dynamics within a metapopulation context. Local population shows its own eco-evolutionary feedback between demographic dynamics and genetic / phenotypic composition, while dispersal may interfere through emigration and immigration. As a life history trait, dispersal is also included in the eco-evolutionary feedback linking demographic and genetic dynamics. Adapted from Benton and Bowler (2012).

GAP 1: Eco-evolutionary dynamics of metapopulations

There is a lack of knowledge about the life history traits evolution within metapopulation, in particular how spatial structure of genetics and demography influence evolutionary dynamics and the feedback on genetic and demographic patterns.
1.1.4 Stability, persistence, and adaptation of metapopulations

By affecting the eco-evolutionary dynamics of local populations, dispersal may therefore influence the persistence, stability and adaptation of spatially structured populations. Regarding the persistence and capacity of adaptation of species to environmental changes, most attention has been focused at the population scale, where local adaptation to local selective pressure such as environmental conditions or anthropogenic activities (e.g., exploitation) provides persistence of populations. However, in the case of metapopulations, a set of locally adapted populations with potential variable selective pressures may generate biocomplexity (Hilborn et al., 2003), both at the levels of phenotypic/genotypic characters (life histories) but also in terms of asynchrony of demographic dynamics.

Biocomplexity and the portfolio effect

This biocomplexity may generate a diversity of response of populations to environmental changes and has a stabilizing effect increasing persistence of the whole This effect has been called the portfolio effect (PE) and is similar to network. the risk-spreading function of financial portfolios. The portfolio effect in ecology and evolution describes how diversity or biocomplexity of components of a system, which can lie in the demographic, phenotypic or genotypic levels, favor the ecological stability of the whole system (Schindler et al., 2015, Fig. 1.4). It is very close to the diversity-stability relationship demonstrated in community ecology where the diversity of species increases the stability and resilience of a community and ecosystem (Elmqvist et al., 2003; Loreau and de Mazancourt, 2013; Thibaut and Connolly, 2013), and can apply at various scales. In particular, the portfolio effect can describe how asynchronous responses of individuals (within-population, Bolnick et al., 2011; Abbott et al., 2017), populations (between-population, Schindler et al., 2010; Harrison et al., 2020) or species (interspecific, Vargas et al., 2022) increase the stability of the whole system. At the metapopulation scale, genetic distance and spatial variation in the environment can lead to local adaptation and adaptive divergence in life history traits. Different demographic dynamics across populations may emerge from this diversity of response in addition to stochasticity between populations dynamics, ultimately fostering populations network stability (Hilborn et al., 2003; Braun et al., 2016). There has been increasing interest in a portfolio approach to conservation decision-making to foster the resilience of populations to environmental perturbations (Anderson et al., 2015; DuFour et al., 2015; Hobbs et al., 2017). However, while the portfolio approach

recognizes the importance of a diversity of populations, it fails to appreciate the role of the interconnection between them in forming a network.

Homogenizing effect of dispersal

The diversity of populations maintained by metapopulation functioning and the resulting stability of the metapopulation can also be altered by dispersal. Indeed, dispersal might synchronize the dynamics of local populations, resulting in the correlation of temporal fluctuations in population density between localities with potential negative consequences on the persistence of metapopulations (Paradis et al., 1999; Kendall et al., 2000; Liebhold et al., 2004; Carlson and Satterthwaite, 2011). Several studies showcased the erosion of portfolio effects by increased synchrony levels of populations (Moore et al., 2010; Satterthwaite and Carlson, 2015; Sullaway et al., 2021). While synchronization between populations is mainly attributed to the synchronization of environmental conditions (Moran effect), dispersal can also affect the synchronization of population dynamics but these effects are context dependent (Yang et al., 2022). Moreover, dispersal and gene flow might reduce local adaptation and the mean fitness of the recipient populations via the introduction of maladapted individuals into habitats with particular environmental conditions (Ronce and Kirkpatrick, 2001; Schiffers et al., 2013), and therefore reduce genetic diversity between populations via this homogenizing effect (Lenormand, 2002; Settepani et al., 2014; Tinnert and Forsman, 2017). Thus, dispersal could lead to a global reduction of the biocomplexity and diversity of responses to environmental changes within the metapopulation (Fig. 1.4). However, this constraining effect of gene flow on adaptive divergence might depend on dispersal level (Garant et al., 2007) and local adaptation can also reduce immigrant's fitness and dispersal consequences in terms of gene flow (Mobley et al., 2019). Altogether, these "detrimental" effects of dispersal can affect metapopulation stability and persistence, leading to "anti-rescue" effects (Harding and McNamara, 2002).

Rescue effects of dispersal

However, additionally to demographic rescue effects, studies have demonstrated that in sink populations, moderate levels of migration may also provide other rescue effects when combined with diversity within a network of populations (Carlson et al., 2014 for review). First, the genetic rescue (Keller and Waller, 2002; Whiteley et al., 2015) describes the influx of genetic variation provided by gene flow which reduces inbreeding within local populations and prevents the fixation of deleterious alleles. Second, the evolutionary rescue (Bell and Gonzalez, 2011; Gonzalez et al., 2013) describes the genetic adaptation of a population to environmental change that would otherwise have caused its extinction and have first been looked at in populations closed to dispersal (Gomulkiewicz and Holt, 1995; Carlson et al., 2014). But the central role of dispersal in evolutionary rescue, via the increase of standard genetic variation and/or the introduction of individuals with heritable adaptive alleles which may favor genetic adaptation of the population, have further received attention (Bell and Gonzalez, 2011; Uecker et al., 2014).

Altogether, dispersal and biocomplexity, interacting together, might foster persistence, adaptation and stability of metapopulations through adaptation networks, as defined by Webster et al. (2017) (Fig. 1.4). These adaptation networks allow ecological and evolutionary options within the network that favor adaptation to uncertain environmental changes. It is thus essential to study the relative contribution of these mechanisms in a dynamic system of spatially structured populations to better understand the potential for management actions which could favor the stability and resilience of natural resources. However, dispersal and diversity of response are rarely studied in a unified framework and studies exploring management practices in this context are scarce.

GAP 2: Adaptation network

The adaptation network theory still needs to be evaluated in a unified framework, with dispersal and diversity of response effects interacting together.



Figure 1.4: A) Conceptual framework of an adaptation network, with biocomplexity emerging from the diversity of local populations dynamics providing portfolio effects and interacting with dispersal and its rescue effects, ultimately fostering the adaptation, stability and persistence of metapopulations. B) Schematic illustration of the portfolio effect: a diversity of populations dynamics and life histories lead to the stability of the metapopulation dynamics. C) Schematic illustration of the homogenizing effect of dispersal, which synchronizes populations dynamics and homogenizes life histories, ultimately reducing the stability of the metapopulation.

1.1.5 Management of metapopulations

Targeting key populations

Considering metapopulation dynamics into the design of management practices is a promising path to follow. But it faces difficulties related to i) the complexity of metapopulation functioning, ii) the general lack of knowledge of the systems to be managed, and iii) the limitations of means and resources to monitor them. As pointed out by Cabeza et al. (2004b), designing reserves among a network of habitats or populations is a fundamental problem in conservation biology. Given the limited resources for conservation (political and economical), and the maintenance of human activities, it is not possible to protect all habitats and there is a need to identify areas to be set aside as reserves primarily. In the literature, several guidelines emerge from work based on biodiversity i.e. species richness. In particular, there is an emphasis on the design of reserve networks instead of single sites preservation, and selection of protected areas is often based on the ideas of representativeness and complementarity. Indeed, area protection is often hindered by a lack of knowledge, for example about the existence and location of species, and protected areas often contain a sample of biodiversity. Thus, selection of protected areas based on their representativeness and complementarity of available biodiversity aims to conserve most of biodiversity in a limited number of areas (Kirkpatrick, 1983; Margules et al., 2002). For example, algorithm based on species richness index or coverage targets and occurrence probabilities derived from habitat models have been proposed to identify ideal reserves spatial configuration (Cabeza, 2003; Cabeza et al., 2004a).

These simple approaches lead to the selection of reserves based on static patterns of species presence/absence only. Yet, spatiotemporal populations dynamics may change these patterns and targeted criteria may not be met anymore, compromising long-term persistence of species. For example, Margules et al. (1994) showed that original site selection was inadequate to preserve initial plant species after 11 years, because it didn't account for species spatial turnover. An alternative could be to consider stochasticity in population dynamics. For instance, Moilanen and Cabeza (2002) performed simulations with a stochastic metapopulation model (IFM) to integrate stochasticity in the spatiotemporal dynamics of a metapopulation of an endangered butterfly. They were able to identify a set of patch clusters giving the lowest metapopulation extinction rates in a certain time scale. Another stochastic model highlighted that unexpected habitat patches (sinks) could play an important role in the resilience of a metapopulation of birds (Foppen et al., 2000). Also, the design of

reserves within a metapopulation would largely depend on factors such as dispersal ability: if the dispersal ability of a species is limited, it might be better to protect sites close together; by contrast, protecting more scattered sites would be relevant if long distance dispersal is possible (Cabeza et al., 2004b). Unfortunately, network design is mainly based on presence-absence of species and considering the dynamics of populations and landscapes have been mostly overlooked despite recommendations that conservation biologists should consider local population dynamics for management of metapopulations (Baguette and Schtickzelle, 2003).

Considering the evolutionary dynamics in the design of protect areas might also be of major importance. For example, Poethke et al. (2011) showed theoretically that improvement of habitat quality of a fraction of patches might result in a reduced dispersal propensity as an evolutionary response which might prevent recolonization events. This response can ultimately lead to a global decline of populations and increased extinction risk. Thus, dispersal itself may evolve as a response to management practices (e.g., stocking, selective exploitation), a topic that has not yet been fully explored.

Conservation under the portfolio approach

An alternative management strategy that could address the issue of the lack of knowledge of the system to be managed, as well as the complexity of the mechanisms at stake, is the portfolio approach. Indeed, approaches built on a predict-andprescribe paradigm, whereby conservation priorities are based on predictions of the responses of species to projected environmental conditions, might be flawed. Based on low predictive power and uncertainty of future conditions, such approaches have proven risky for conserving financial portfolio and they may also apply to ecosystem management. Alternatively, portfolio conservation advocates to manage for uncertainty by promoting population response diversity to foster stable ecological system and the ecosystem services they provide (DuFour et al., 2015; Hobbs et al., 2017). According to Moore and Schindler (2022), efforts to conserve biodiversity and generate habitat complexity will help to maintain species stability and persistence, via a diversity of future options for an unpredictable future. Webster et al. (2017) propose an approach to natural resource management focusing on creating adaptation networks to generate ecological and evolutionary options that favor the adaptive processes of acclimatization, natural selection, and ecological reorganization. By prioritizing portfolios of biological and ecological combinations, management

could increase the probability that winning combinations can arise, persist and spread facing environmental changes. Anderson et al. (2015) illustrated this with a metapopulation model, showing that preserving a diversity of thermal tolerance could ensure persistence of salmon populations facing environmental changes. They suggest that management practices should conserve not only the populations but also the processes promoting thermal tolerance diversity, i.e. the genetic diversity and habitat heterogeneity. Similarly, Walsworth et al. (2019) showed that, considering evolutionary capacity of coral reefs, protecting habitat diversity and connectivity fosters adaptation to climate change rather than focusing conservation on thermal refugia. This approach is attracting more and more attention (Colton et al., 2022; Moore and Schindler, 2022), but remains only rarely evaluated in theoretical and applied research of metapopulations conservation.

GAP 3: Metapopulation management

Management of populations rarely considers the metapopulation structure. If this is the case, the evolutionary processes and their consequences are often underestimated. Management via the portfolio approach still needs to be investigated.

1.2 SALMONIDS AS A RELEVANT CASE OF STUDY

1.2.1 Species of several interests



Figure 1.5: Illustration of the main threats affecting freshwater fishes.

Salmonid fishes are relevant species to explore metapopulation functioning and response to environmental changes. First, most of these species are of patrimonial interest and have considerable value in recreational and commercial fisheries. Second, most of them are migratory species, sharing their life cycle between several habitats; in particular, they are anadromous, i.e. they are born in river and migrate to the sea to grow before coming back to rivers to reproduce. This complex life cycle makes them sensitive to several threats, such as barriers to migration (e.g., dams, Lindley et al., 2006), habitat loss (McClure et al., 2008), multi-origin pollution (Arkoosh et al., 1998), climate change (Jonsson and Jonsson, 2009; Crozier et al., 2021) and overfishing

(Christensen et al., 2003). Like other freshwater fish, they are threatened by the combination of these threats (Fig. 1.5).

Third, salmonid species are also well known for their great diversity of life history strategies such as semelparity vs iteroparity, migratory vs non-migratory, variation in age and size at maturation, or size at migration (Hutchings and Jones, 1998). This diversity of life history strategies is linked to phenotypic plasticity (Pavlov et al., 2008; Mangel and Satterthwaite, 2016; Erkinaro et al., 2019) and variability in the genetic basis of traits (e.g., age at maturation, Barson et al., 2015; Lepais et al., 2017).

1.2.2 Salmonids in a metapopulation context

Salmonid fishes represent an excellent system for exploring the influence of dispersal on metapopulation and local population dynamics. Indeed, they should be considered in a metapopulation perspective (Garant et al., 2000; Rieman and Dunham, 2000), as the three conditions defined by Schtickzelle and Quinn (2007) are fulfilled: i) the spawning habitat is discrete, ii) there is asynchrony between the dynamics of local populations, and iii) there are evidences of dispersal (Keefer and Caudill, 2014). Quinn (1984) proposed philopatry and dispersal as alternative and evolutionary stable strategies in salmonids (Kaitala, 1990). Hendry et al. (2004) also discussed how salmonids could provide insight into the evolution of philopatry and dispersal, commonly called "homing" and "straying" respectively for salmonids. Indeed, salmonids are often represented as an emblematic example of philopatric species which perform "homing" to the natal river (Salmenkova, 2017), while the somewhat pejorative term "strayers" is often used to describe individuals that disperse among populations (Schtickzelle and Quinn, 2007). The principal mechanism of homing identified is an olfactory imprinting of the chemical characteristics of the water of natal sites during the juvenile stage (Hasler and Scholz, 1983). By contrast, "straying" is rather explained by mistakes of individuals to return to their natal river, and consequences of dispersal for ecoevolutionary dynamics remain overlooked in salmonids despite evidences of various dispersal strategies across species (Schtickzelle and Quinn, 2007; Atlantic salmon, Jonsson et al., 2003; Sockeye salmon, Peterson et al., 2016; Chinook salmon, Pearsons and O'Connor, 2020).

Literature review

To illustrate this, I performed a literature review on the Web of science advanced research query using the following keywords: "Species (see below) AND (dispersal

OR straying OR gene flow) NOT (juvenile OR lice)". Note that this literature research is limited from 1955 to 21st February 2022 and to articles reported in WOS, excluding grey literature (e.g., technical reports). The search focused on the following species: Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*), Coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*), Chum salmon (*Oncorhynchus keta*), Pink salmon (*Oncorhynchus gorbuscha*), Sockeye salmon (*Oncorhynchus nerka*), Chinook salmon (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*), Steelhead trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*), and Brown trout (*Salmo trutta*).

From the 8 queries we performed on the WOS, only 42% (n=310 over 7 species) on average of the studies were relevant to our literature review about dispersal consideration in salmonids (Table 1.1, see Lamarins and Buoro, 2023 for the final database). Among them, a lot of studies focused on the genetic structure, evolutionary history of populations without estimating the gene flow or migration rate (47% of the studies on average, especially for Chum and Sockeye salmon in proportion). Several of the reported studies do estimate dispersal but on hatchery, farm escapees, or transplanted fish (15% of the studies on average, especially on Atlantic salmon, Chinook salmon and steelhead trout) which have been shown to stray more than wild individuals (Quinn, 1993; Jonsson et al., 2003). In other words, only a small number of studies report dispersal between wild populations (33% of the studies on average) and even less provide estimates (27% of the studies on average). In their review, Keefer and Caudill (2014) reported differences in the number of studies between species: 6 studies measuring emigration rates in Atlantic salmon, while 10 for Steelhead, 18 for Chinook salmon (both ecotypes), but also 5, 2, 4, and 1 for Coho, Sockeye, Pink and Chum salmon, respectively. However, most of these estimates are influenced by hatchery fish. My literature review revealed a small and similar number of studies estimating emigration rates between wild populations of these species (Table 1.1, n=4, 2, 3, 1, 1, 4, and 1 respectively).

Methods generally include genetic differentiation, identification, tagging, sometimes otolith chemistry, and a combination of them, allowing to estimate gene flow, emigration rate and immigration rate (Table 1.2). In contradiction with the review of Keefer and Caudill (2014), I did not notice a predominance of emigration rates estimations relative to immigration, but rather a good representativity of gene flow, emigration and immigration rates allowing a global view of dispersal in all species. A very small proportion (16%) of wild dispersal studies intended to identify individual (e.g., sex), environmental (e.g., temperature), or population (e.g., density) factors influencing dispersal rates (Table 1.2, see Lamarins and Buoro, 2023 for the studies references).

Table 1.1: Summary of the literature review. For each species, I report the number of studies listed by the WOS query, and the subset focusing on genetic differentiation (both on hatchery and wild fish), estimating dispersal on hatchery fish or on wild fish, and the number of studies modeling metapopulation dynamics with a consideration of dispersal. For studies using models or reporting dispersal in wild populations, I also report the number of studies discussing or evaluating the implications of dispersal for conservation or management (***). * Non relevant studies gather work focusing on the wrong species, juvenile dispersal, introgression impacts, or parasite dispersal. ** I only consider estimates of anadromous dispersal (not gene flow between residents).

Species		Atlantic	Coho	Chum	Pink	Sockeye	Chinook	Steelhead	Brown trout
WOS total		193	26	28	130	51	85	136	148
Non relevant [*]		104	14	14	120	24	42	71	98
Genetic differentiation		34	4	12	5	17	14	22	21
Hatchery dispersal		25	1	0	0	0	12	33	2
Wild dispersal (estimates)		27(18)	(5)	(2)	(5)	9(7)	14 (12)	$9 (4)^{**}$	25 (19)**
Model including dispersal		3	2	0	0	1	3	1	2
Conservation perspective***	None	18	5	1	4	6	7	5	21
	Discussed	10	1	1	1	3	7	4	5
	Evaluated	2	1	0	0	1	3	1	1

Table 1.2: For the subset of studies estimating dispersal for wild populations (72 in total, in ()), distribution of the type of connectivity measured (gene flow, emigration rate, or immigration rates, or combinations), and number of studies evaluating factors influencing dispersal propensity (individual, population, or environmental factors) - specific studies identified are indicated in [], and refer to the WOS list of references available at: https://doi.org/10.57745/RCMAGH.

Species	Atlantic	Coho	Chum	Pink	Sockeye	Chinook	Steelhead	Brown trout
Gene flow	9 [1-9]	2 [19-20]	0	0	2 [31-32]	3 [38-40]	1 [50]	10 [54-63]
Emigration rate	3 [10-12]	0	0	3 [26-28]	1 [33]	2 [41-42]	2[51-52]	2 [64-65]
Immigration rate	5 [13-17]	2 [21-22]	1 [24]	1 [29]	2 [34-35]	5 [43-47]	1 [53]	3 [66-68]
Em. $+$ Im. rates	0	1 [23]	0	1 [30]	0	1 [48]	0	0
Gene flow $+$ Em. rate	0	0	1 [25]	0	0	0	0	0
Gene flow $+$ Im. rate	0	0	0	0	2 [36-37]	1 [49]	0	4 [69-72]
All	1 [18]	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Dispersal factor	5 [3,7,10,11,13]	0	0	1 [26]	2 [31,35]	2 [47,48]	1 [50]	1 [54]

Finally, this literature review revealed that studies considering the metapopulation perspective and evaluating dispersal implications for conservation or management for salmonid dynamics are very rare (12 over the 8 species, Table 1.1). This subset of studies were largely performed through modeling analysis and focused on the demographic consequences only, or interplay with local adaptation, or applied problems around buffering introgression by farm fish or barrier removal choice. For example, Bowlby and Gibson (2020) and Fullerton et al. (2011) investigated the demographic consequences of dispersal within salmonids metapopulations; however, they did not explore genetic consequences and their potential interplay with demography (i.e., ecoevolutionary feedback loops). The theoretical work of Lin et al. (2017) is particularly relevant to our objective, however they only focused on two populations. Castellani et al. (2015) evaluated the role of immigration on introgression buffering. Moreover, less than half (34% on average) of the studies reporting or estimating dispersal discussed the implications of dispersal for salmonid conservation and management (Table 1.1, see Lamarins and Buoro, 2023 for the studies references). When they did, the discussions mostly focused on the preservation of genetic diversity and local adaptation by limiting or promoting gene flow, and the recolonization and restoration potential vs stocking practices. Bett et al. (2017) reviewed the observed consequences of dispersal in small populations of Pacific salmon and "encourage further discussion and research on the potential effects of recipient straying".

Altogether, studies focused on genetic differentiation or based on hatchery straying, likely because studying the connectivity between wild populations is very challenging. Thus, dispersal is increasingly appreciated in salmonids but still understudied in wild populations, with few studies estimating emigration and immigration rates at large temporal and spatial scales. These rare studies, despite some limitations (e.g., limited detection of strays, small samples, Jonsson and Jonsson, 2017), show a high variability between years (Jonsson et al., 2003) and locations (Consuegra et al., 2005), suggesting the need for regional evaluation of connectivity. Despite early studies highlighting homing and straying as evolutionary strategies (Kaitala, 1990; Hendry et al., 2004), the implications of straying in salmonids dynamics remain underappreciated.

GAP 4: Dispersal in salmonids

Evidence of dispersal ("straying") in salmonids are numerous, but their implications for salmonids persistence, adaptation, and management remain overlooked.

1.2.3 The case of Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar)

Atlantic salmon distribution ranges from rivers from Portugal, Spain and New England (USA) in the south of its range to sub-Arctic Canada and Russia in the north. Across its range, this species provides economic, social and cultural benefits to the human society. Salmon is for example culturally important in many indigenous communities, but the most obvious benefit is fishing: Atlantic salmon is harvested for a long time by a diversity of fisheries operating in river (recreational fisheries) but also in estuary and at sea (commercial fisheries). Nowadays, most of the catches are in river (ICES, 2021). Although the presence of barriers to migration continues to play a major role, intense exploitation before the 1980s likely contributed to a decline of salmon abundance observed at the range scale via the pre-fishery abundance (Fig. 1.6). The rate of decline was the most dramatic between 1980 and 1990, and slowed down after 1990, likely related to the creation of the NASCO (North Atlantic Salmon Conservation Organization) and global limitations of commercial fishery from 1983. Since then, the total catch number dramatically decreased but populations continue to decline (Fig. 1.6).

1.2.3.1 A complex life cycle

Atlantic salmons share their life cycle between the river, where they reproduce, and the sea, where they grow (Fig. 1.7). During the winter, returning adults and mature juveniles (called "sneakers") spawn in stream gravels and lay their gametes into a nest (called "redd"). Then, eggs develop and hatching occurs the following spring, where alevins rely on their yolk sac for their nutrition, until they emerge from the gravels as "fry" and start feeding. During summer, these juveniles (called "parr") may adopt three life history strategies: they can either i) mature in freshwater (precocious maturation, mainly males) and reproduce in river the following winter, ii) migrate to the sea as "smolts" the following spring, or iii) stay an additional year in freshwater. Parr adopting the migration strategy undergo a strong physiological and morphological change known as "smoltification", allowing them to adapt to the salt water. Migrating smolts then grow at sea at least one year, and can mature after one sea- winter (1SW) or stay in the ocean for multiple years ("multiple sea-winter" or MSW) before returning to the river to reproduce and continue the cycle. Most spawning individuals die after spawning but some survive, undergo another migration to the sea and may spawn another time as iteroparous individuals (Bordeleau et al., 2020).

This complex life cycle shows the diversity of life histories that can be followed



Figure 1.6: Temporal trends of the Atlantic salmon (A) catches, (B) abundance, and (C) exploitation rates over the distribution range. From ICES (2021) and NASCO (2019) reports. (A) Total reported catches (in tonnes). (B) Pre-fisheries abundance (C) Proportion of 1SW / MSW harvested.

by Atlantic salmon individuals, from residency to anadromy, from semelparity to iteroparity, with variable age at maturation, migration, and reproduction (Fleming, 1998; Hutchings and Jones, 1998; Klemetsen et al., 2003).



Figure 1.7: The Atlantic salmon life cycle. Illustration: Jenny Proudfoot, from NASCO (2019) report.

1.2.3.2 Dispersal

As highlighted by the literature review (Table 1.1), dispersal of Atlantic salmon is still overlooked in wild populations. In most of the representation of their life cycle, such as Fig. 1.7, dispersal is not represented as an alternative strategy of philopatry. Yet, genetic analyses demonstrated the existence of strong gene flow between populations suggesting a metapopulation functioning (e.g., Consuegra et al., 2005; Consuegra and García de Leániz, 2007; Perrier et al., 2011), although such genetic analyses do not provide evidence of contemporary dispersal and gene flow is not necessarily a metric for dispersal. Instead, a very few studies estimated dispersal rates in wild populations using capture-mark-recapture programs (Jonsson et al., 1991, 2003; Consuegra et al., 2005; Kuparinen et al., 2010). However, such estimates are often affected by observational bias (e.g., not all potential recipient populations are monitored, spatial heterogeneity in capture effort, etc.) and do not reflect the effective dispersal (reproductive success of dispersers). Moreover, spatio-temporal variation in dispersal propensity should be expected (for spatial, Kuparinen et al., 2010; for temporal, Jonsson et al., 2003). Based on both genetic and tagging methods (see Lamarins and Buoro, 2023), the average emigration and immigration rates reported for wild Atlantic salmon populations are 14.4% and 15.6%, respectively, although based on a small number of studies (Jonsson et al., 1991, 2003; Castric and Bernatchez, 2004; Consuegra et al., 2005; Fraser et al., 2007; Dionne et al., 2008; Kuparinen et al., 2010; Valiente et al., 2010; Jonsson and Jonsson, 2017). The natural colonization of rivers also provides empirical evidence of long-distance dispersal in Atlantic salmon (Perrier et al., 2010). The difficulty to assess dispersal in the wild might explain why the metapopulation context of this species is still poorly appreciated as for other salmonids (Birnie-Gauvin et al., 2019), and why the consequences for the dynamics of local populations, their persistence as well as their conservation and management practices are ignored (Schtickzelle and Quinn, 2007).

1.2.3.3 The Brittany case of study

At the southern range of its distribution, Atlantic salmon is particularly threatened and classified on the national UICN red list of threatened species. Indeed, its distribution over the french rivers dramatically reduced over centuries. The last watersheds where wild populations are persisting are mostly located in the south-west of France, in the Nivelle and Adour watersheds, and in the Brittany and Normandy coastal rivers (Fig. 1.8).



Figure 1.8: Distribution of colonized rivers by Atlantic salmon in France from the 18th to the 21st century. From Bretagne Grands Migrateurs.

Populations established in Brittany are particularly interesting in the context of my thesis. First, juvenile and adult abundances are monitored for up to three decades, and used to determine conservation limits (Lebot et al., 2022). Second, a genetic study led by Perrier et al. (2011) showed a low genetic differentiation among Brittany populations despite their large spatial distribution, suggesting that dispersal and gene flow are occurring within this network of rivers. Third, one river from Brittany, the Scorff, is one of the four study sites within the research observatory network (ORE DiaPFC) and benefits from a long term monitoring program started in 1993. It is also an "index" river used by the Atlantic salmon working group of the International Council for the Exploration of the Sea (ICES). Through part sampling, smolt and adult trapping, a lot of knowledge can be acquired on the population dynamics and life histories strategies. For example, Buoro et al. (2010) provided insight into evolutionary trade-offs between life history strategies of Atlantic salmon by using data from this monitoring program. As the salmon catches have to be reported, we have good estimates of exploitation rates by rivers, on average 15% and 6% for MSW and 1SW, respectively (Lebot et al., 2022). However, dispersal and metapopulation structure are not considered in management. The river is still defined as the main management scale (ICES, 2021), and exploitation rates are applied by population. Estimated return rates are often confused with marine survival (an important indicator) without taking dispersion into account.

1.3 Thesis aims and manuscript structure

Objectives

Through this introductory section, I identified 4 main gaps of knowledge on metapopulation eco-evolutionary dynamics and management of salmonids. First, GAP 1 identified a lack of knowledge on the influence of spatial structure of genetic diversity and population dynamics on the evolutionary dynamics of populations, while GAP 2 emphasizes the need to study adaptation networks in a single framework. GAP 3 highlights that management of population rarely considers metapopulation functioning and evolutionary processes, and GAP 4 acknowledges that this is particularly the case for salmonids for which dispersal implications are overlooked.

Disentangling multiple effects of metapopulation functioning with complex and diverse spatial structures, life history strategies and eco-evolutionary processes is a stricking challenge but inevitable if we want to elucidate the role of adaptation network and to favor the persistence of Atlantic salmon populations facing an uncertain future.

Manuscript organisation

This thesis aimed to contribute in filling these gaps through three main chapters (3, 4 and 5) by using *in silico* experiments, i.e., simulations of Atlantic salmon life cycle (Fig. 1.9). The second chapter explains the rationale and puts forward the type of modelling approach used in this thesis. This chapter highlights that the study of populations dynamics would gain from being studied in a framework representing eco-evolutionary processes and explicit spatial structure of populations. Then, using this modelling approach, chapter 3 addresses GAP 4 by investigating the implications of dispersal for the stability, persistence and diversity of Atlantic salmon populations. In addressing GAPS 1 and 2, chapter 4 examines the adaptive capacity of populations within an adaptation network, and focuses on the influence of spatial structure on the eco-evolutionary dynamics of populations. Chapter 5 builds on GAP 3 by comparing alternative spatialized management strategies that take into account the metapopulation structure and evolutionary processes within a single framework. Chapter 6 presents a new version of our modelling approach I am developing to overcome the limitations of the first version of the model that I encountered during my work, while integrating new findings about A. salmon ecology. This version is still under development and was not used for analysis presented below. Finally, I discuss my main results and propose perspectives for future work on the topic in Chapter 7.



Figure 1.9: Overview of the chapters of the thesis.

CHAPTER 2

The benefits of eco-evolutionary agent based modelling approaches



"All models are wrong, but some are useful." - George E. P. Box

Contents

2.1	Сна	LLENGES EVALUATING DISPERSAL AND METAPOPULATION	
	DYN	AMICS IN NATURE	39
2.2	Тне	NEED OF ECO-EVOLUTIONARY, SPATIALLY-EXPLICIT,	
	AND	AGENT-BASED APPROACHES	40
2.3	IMPO	ORTANCE OF INTERINDIVIDUAL INTERACTIONS IN ECO-	
	EVOI	LUTIONARY POPULATION DYNAMICS	42
	2.3.1	Introduction	45
	2.3.2	How to model eco-evolutionary feedback loops: from analytical	
		models to DG-ABMs	48
	2.3.3	Objective and method for the literature review $\ldots \ldots \ldots$	54
	2.3.4	Synthesis of the literature review	54
	2.3.5	DG-ABMs to better understand eco-evolutionary feedback loops	59
	2.3.6	Extending in space, time and levels of organisation $\ . \ . \ .$.	61
	2.3.7	DG-ABMs to assist management strategies	63
	2.3.8	Taking advantage of ABMs for DG-ABMs	64
	2.3.9	Conclusion	65
	2.3.10	Supplementary materials	66
2.4	EXIS	TING METAPOPULATION DG-ABMs	69
2.5	Сна	PTER HIGHLIGHTS	71

In this second chapter, I introduce the rationale and overview of the modeling approach I used to study eco-evolutionary dynamics and perform *in silico* experiments led in the chapters 3, 4, and 5. Further details on the model used are presented in chapter 3.

2.1 CHALLENGES EVALUATING DISPERSAL AND METAPOPULATION DYNAMICS IN NATURE

Evaluating metapopulation dynamics primarily requires estimations of dispersal rates within a network of populations. Several quantitative methods allow estimations of philopatry or dispersal rates at ecological time scales. First, direct measurements can be obtained via mark-release-recapture techniques. For example, tagging juveniles and sampling returning adults for the presence of tags in a local population allows to estimate the proportion of fish immigrating from other populations (number of untagged adults divided by the total number of adults, e.g. steelhead, Schroeder et al., 2001). Surveys of the surrounding populations also help estimating the proportion of fish that disperse from the local population (number of tagged adults at all non natal sites divided by the total number of tagged adults, i.e. at natal and non natal sites, e.g. Atlantic salmon, Jonsson et al., 2003; Consuegra et al., 2005). However, this emigration rate is often underestimated, because all potential non natal sites are rarely sampled, or with limited sampling efforts. Through chemical signatures, otoliths also provide natural tags that can be analyzed on returning adults to estimate immigration rate for example (e.g., sockeye salmon, Hendry, 2001; chinook salmon, Hamann and Kennedy, 2012). Further, methods of individuals assignment to source populations via phenotypic or genotypic features using discriminant functions, mixed stock analyses or assignment tests allow discrimination between immigrants and residents and estimations of dispersal rates (Hansen et al., 2001; e.g., sockeye salmon, Lin et al., 2008; chinook salmon, Ford et al., 2015). More indirect methods estimate the amount of gene flow based on measurement of among populations genetic divergence at neutral genetic loci (e.g., Atlantic salmon, Elo, 1993), for example using Wright's method (Wright, 1931). However, assumptions such as the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, random migration and equal populations are often not met (Whitlock and Mccauley, 1999). These indirect estimates are also reflecting evolutionary history and past dispersal, and may be of limited use for population ecologists.

Despite the diversity of methods, investigating metapopulation eco-evolutionary

dynamics and the response of dispersing species to environmental changes with field study can be very challenging. Indeed, it requires monitoring programs at very large spatial and temporal scales, considering many processes, mechanisms, and organization levels, from genes to metapopulation (Baguette et al., 2017). For example, the understanding of eco-evolutionary loops is hindered by the challenges to simultaneously track trait changes and population demography in networks of populations. Moreover, the exploration of various management strategies and their ecological and evolutionary consequences is nearly impossible in nature because addressing these questions would involve experimental intervention on natural populations, such as modifying the quality of source or sink habitats, or altering dispersal patterns. Applying this approach to natural populations may thus not only be technically difficult, but also questionable on ethical and legal aspects.

Modelling approaches may address these different challenges. First, there are few or no limitations on the scales of study, whether spatial or temporal. Indeed, one can work from the gene to the ecosystems, and on ecological or evolutionary time scales. Second, models can be used as virtual laboratories, evaluating a multitude of scenarios without degrading the habitat or threatening the species. Models also allow the tracking of many response parameters simultaneously, such as genetic structure, population demography, or life history traits diversity. However, there are many different modelling approaches available to address metapopulation dynamics, each with their own benefits and limits. Another challenge is to choose which approach is the most appropriate for the question at hand and depending on the amount of data available for parameterization.

2.2 The need of eco-evolutionary, spatiallyexplicit, and agent-based approaches

In general, existing modelling approaches have been used for various purposes and do not satisfy all the criteria needed for an ideal metapopulation model, such as variation in patch size, explicit spatial location of populations, explicit modelling of local population dynamics, stochasticity, evolutionary processes... First, the Levins model was developped to provide general analysis of classical metapopulation dynamics by assuming infinite habitat patches, equally connected, and by ignoring local population dynamics and focusing on patch occupancy (Hanski, 1999). Structured metapopulation models, extending the Levins model, include local population dynamics but they also do not consider the explicit spatial structure of the populations (Hanski, 1999).

Spatially explicit approaches have been extensively used to consider the influence of the spatial structure of habitat and populations on the metapopulation dynamics. Lattice models, where the set of habitats patches is represented by a regular lattice, are very common in the literature (e.g., Bascompte and Sole, 1996). They may be appropriate for general questions but they are not ideal for representing real landscapes. Spatially realistic simple models (Hanski, 1999), a variant of the Levins model considering spatial locations of a finite number of patches, consider the colonization process as function of distance, and extinction as function of patch size. The incidence function model (IFM) also considers explicit patch size and distance, but includes more stochasticity and uses Markov chains (Hanski, 1999). These previous models, based on dynamics of patch occupancy (called SPOMs, Stochastic Patch Occupancy Models), i.e. assuming network of habitat patches with only two possible states, occupied or empty, are parsimonious models that have been widely employed. They allow to simply isolate and understand the effects of metapopulation components, but at the expense of realism.

Baguette (2004) questioned the general capacity of SPOMs to predict the dynamics of metapopulations in the "real, natural world". He argued that these models particularly apply to classical metapopulation types, but that this type occur very rarely in nature. Moreover, it is increasingly important to capture the processes resulting in the observed dynamics of metapopulations, especially in the face of a changing world (Evans, 2012). Incorporating complex biological details leads to process-based models, by adding within patch dynamics for example. In particular, individual based simulation models (IBM), with careful parameterization, are increasingly being used to simulate the complexity of species life cycle and generate new insights and predictions on how complex spatial systems respond to changes (DeAngelis and Grimm, 2014; Stillman et al., 2015). For instance, Radchuk et al. (2013) used an IBM to predict population viability of a butterfly species (Boloria eunomia) under climate change scenarios by considering the effects of environmental factors on the survival of immature life stages. These bottom-up models, by integrating variation and interactions between individuals, can be more powerful and accurate than patch-based metapopulation models (Harrison et al., 2011).

However, an evolutionary perspective is required to study species responses to environmental changes (Urban et al., 2016). Demo/eco-genetics IBMs are particularly adapted to the study of metapopulation eco-evolutionary dynamics; by including the genetic basis of traits and their transmission, they allow life history traits evolution and their interaction with demographic effects (Dunlop et al., 2009). In such modeling approaches, individual fitness is not defined *a priori* and rather emerges from individual variation in fitness related traits and inter-individual interactions, themselves resulting from populations dynamics. Populations dynamics results in turn from individuals decisions and traits (genotype, phenotype), and eco-evolutionary loops may arise (Stillman et al., 2015). Thus, demo-genetic approaches seem particularly suited for the study of adaptation networks, allowing to explore the consequences of dispersal at different scales, from genes to metapopulations, in a unified framework (Baguette et al., 2017).

Overall, I believe that a modelling approach which is i) spatially explicit, ii) agent/ individual-based, and iii) demo-genetic provides a coherent framework to evaluate metapopulation eco-evolutionary dynamics and the theory of adaptive networks.

2.3 Importance of interindividual interactions in eco-evolutionary population dynamics

This section corresponds to an article published in the Evolutionary Applications journal (Lamarins et al., 2022b), which puts forward models that meet the challenges previously identified for the study of eco-evolutionary responses of metapopulations. In particular, we focused on the importance of integrating interindividual interactions in eco-evolutionary models to better reflect the dynamics of populations. This work is part of a scientific network gathering researchers interested in this modeling approach and is the result of a collective effort.

Lamarins, A., Fririon V., Folio D., Vernier C., Daupagne L., Labonne J., Buoro M., Lefèvre F., Piou C., and Oddou-Muratorio S. (2022). Importance of interindividual interactions in eco-evolutionary population dynamics: The rise of demo-genetic agent-based models. *Evolutionary Applications*.

Importance of interindividual interactions in eco-evolutionary population dynamics: the rise of demo-genetic agent-based models

Amaïa Lamarins¹, Victor Fririon², Dorinda Folio¹, Camille Vernier³, Léa Daupagne¹, Jacques Labonne¹, Mathieu Buoro¹, François Lefèvre², Cyril Piou³ and Sylvie Oddou-Muratorio¹

¹Université de Pau et des Pays de l'Adour, E2S UPPA, INRAE, ECOBIOP, Saint-Pée-sur-Nivelle, France

²Ecologie des Forêts Méditerranéennes, URFM, INRAE, Avignon, France ³CIRAD, UMR CBGP, Montpellier, France

Abstract

The study of eco-evolutionary dynamics, which favours the convergence of ecological and evolutionary time scales, is of growing interest in the current context However, many eco-evolutionary studies overlook the role of of global change. interindividual interactions, which are hard to predict and yet central to selective values. Here, we aim to put forward models that simulate interindividual interactions in an eco-evolutionary framework: the demo-genetic agent-based models (DG-ABMs). Being demo-genetic, DG-ABMs consider how ecological and evolutionary processes Being agent-based, DG-ABMs follow populations of interacting are intertwined. individuals with sets of traits that vary among the individuals. We argue that the ability of DG-ABMs to take into account the genetic heterogeneity - that affects individual decisions/traits related to local and instantaneous conditions differentiates them from analytical models, another type of model largely used by evolutionary biologists to investigate eco-evolutionary feedback (EEF) loops. Based on the review of studies employing DG-ABMs and explicitly or implicitly accounting for competitive, cooperative, or reproductive interactions, we illustrate that DG-ABMs are particularly relevant for the exploration of fundamental, yet pressing, questions in evolutionary ecology across various levels of organisation. By jointly modelling the effects of management practices and other eco-evolutionary processes on interindividual interactions and population dynamics, DG-ABMs are also effective prospective and decision support tools to evaluate the short- and long-term

evolutionary costs and benefits of management strategies and to assess potential trade-offs. Finally, we provide a list of the recent practical advances of the ABM community that should facilitate the development of DG-ABMs.

Keywords: eco-evolutionary dynamics, demo-genetic models, eco-genetic models, agent-based models, DG-ABMs

2.3.1 Introduction

Understanding and anticipating populations' response to changes in environmental and anthropogenic pressures requires conceptual and modelling approaches coupling ecological and evolutionary processes. This is largely motivated by the increasing realisation that ecological and evolutionary responses of populations can occur on similar temporal scales, with potential consequences on dynamics from gene to ecosystem (Carroll et al., 2007). The burgeoning literature investigating ecoevolutionary dynamics illustrates this growing interest (Dunlop et al., 2009; Schoener, 2011; Romero-Mujalli et al., 2019; Oddou-Muratorio et al., 2020; Bassar et al., 2021).

The conceptual framework of eco-evolutionary dynamics depicts feedback loops between response processes at different levels of biological organisation in a contemporary time scale (Pelletier et al., 2009; Hendry, 2017; Govaert et al., 2019). These feedback loops acknowledge that (1) genetic diversity and its architecture determine the demographic structure and population dynamics through phenotypic expression; (2) demographic structure and population dynamics determine evolutionary processes, i.e., genetic drift, selection and gene flow, which in turn (3) determine genetic diversity. As an illustration of such feedback, the competition between trees within a forest results in a selection process contributing to genetic evolution, while the genetic composition of the tree population drives interindividual competition and forest productivity (Pretzsch, 2021). To account for feedback loops, eco-evolutionary models must integrate inheritance mechanisms and the multiple driving forces controlling the dynamics of the distributions of heritable traits across generations (Bassar et al., 2021).

One of these key drivers of selection are the interactions between individuals within populations, as they directly or indirectly affect individual fitness at the core of any evolutionary dynamics (Maynard Smith, 1974; Webber and Vander Wal, 2018). We focus here on *within*-population interindividual interactions (i.e., competition, cooperation, and mating) affecting the demographic dynamics (growth, reproduction, mortality) and ultimately individual fitness or even inclusive fitness (Box 2.1). In essence, the outcome of such interactions is eminently stochastic and contextdependent, and population structure itself is part of the context. It is now recognised that the structure of social networks within a population may affect natural selection and traits evolution through indirect genetic effects (traits affected by genes in other individuals, Wade et al., 2010; Kazancıoğlu et al., 2012; Fisher and McAdam, 2017; Marjanovic et al., 2022). Additionally, these networks are themselves dynamic, since changing the social environment may influence an individual's later decisions in a social interaction, leading to rapid shifts in networks' structures (Farine and Whitehead, 2015). For instance, individuals are able to modify their mating tactics, which diminishes the selection they endure (Oh and Badyaev, 2010), and thus affects selection at the population level. Likewise, the distribution of phenological traits (e.g., flowering or maturation time) shapes mating opportunities within plant and animal populations, and possibly leads to assortative mating (here, the positive correlation of phenology between mates). Compared to random mating, assortative mating can either deplete or increase the genetic variance available for selection depending on whether the environment is stable or changing, with contrasted consequences on genetic adaptation (Godineau et al., 2022). Unfortunately, the interindividual interactions are usually little appreciated in eco-evolutionary models, with potential consequences on our understanding of the full range of eco-evolutionary responses.

Box 2.1: Interindividual interactions involved in population eco-evolutionary dynamics

Here, we focus on interactions between conspecific individuals within a population- mainly competition, cooperation, and mating - which directly drive the processes of mortality, growth, and reproduction (e.g., Fig. 2.1 A, C, D below) and whose variations subsequently induce evolutionary changes. This also includes the variety of ecological interactions indirectly impacting demography, such as exchange of information (e.g., on predator, or resource availability), movement (e.g., to escape predation or competition) or group behaviour (e.g., affecting predator's avoidance or resistance, Fig. 2.1 A, B below).



Figure 2.1: A) School of common minnow (*Phoxinus phoxinus*) individuals maintained in an experimental tank at INRAE, Saint-Pée-sur-Nivelle, France. Schooling behaviour in this species is supposed to be both an anti-predator and a foraging optimisation strategy (Photo: ©INRAE - Stéphane Glise). B) Fifth instar hoppers of gregarious desert locust basking in the morning sun within herbaceous plants of the Mauritanian desert; grouping behaviours and bright coloration in desert locust (*Schistocerca gregaria*) are supposed to be an anti-predator strategy (Photo: © JIRCAS - Koutaro Ould Maeno). C) Sea lamprey (*Petromyzon marinus*) spawning in the Nive River (South-western France). Species from the Petromyzontidae family are semelparous, but the number of mates is highly variable among species (Photo: ©INRAE - Stéphane Glise). D) Beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) trees with late and early phenologies on Mont-Ventoux, France. Phenological mismatch limits male more than female reproductive success (Photo: ©INRAE – Frédéric Jean)

The major reason why we focus on local (i.e., within-population), variable, conspecific interactions is that evolution is a population-specific process, primarily fuelled by differences in individual fitness arising from the response to abiotic and biotic environments, the latter including the social context. Interspecific interactions may also shape the within-population social context and contribute to evolution: for instance, the existence and strength of plantpollinator interactions define the social context within which selfing may evolve (Katsuhara et al., 2021). Trophic interactions may contribute to the resource context within which functional traits related to resource acquisition may evolve (Kang and Thibert-Plante, 2017). On a macroevolutionary timescale, intraand inter-specific competition for resources can drive speciation (Gavrilets et al., 2007; Weber et al., 2017). However, considering interspecific interactions without genetic variation in at least one of the partners of the interaction is not enough to model the dynamic feedback loop between ecological interactions, fitness, and the genetic composition of the population. This is particularly why predation was not considered as a focal interaction in this review: indeed, when predation is investigated from the point of view of the variation of a prey's trait conferring variable avoidance ability from the predator, or from the variation of a predator's trait conferring variable ability to catch prey, then it becomes a trait involved in competition among prey to escape predators, or among predators to catch prey (e.g., Labonne and Hendry, 2010).

Our objectives here are to put forward models that explicitly or implicitly account for variable within-population interindividual interactions in an eco-evolutionary framework: the demo-genetic agent-based models (DG-ABMs). After defining these models, we survey the literature to illustrate how DG-ABMs can be used to investigate fundamental issues in evolutionary ecology, as well as to assist the management of natural populations facing environmental changes.

2.3.2 How to model eco-evolutionary feedback loops: from analytical models to DG-ABMs

At the very core of the eco-evolutionary models is the need of specifying the genetically variable and heritable traits, their impact on the focal organism's life history, and the ecological embedding that determines how life-history traits affect and are affected by environmental conditions and the demographic context (Dieckmann and Ferrière, 2004). This can be achieved by various approaches (Fig. 2.2). First, there is a long tradition in evolutionary ecology to rely on analytical models (differential-

equation and difference equation models) which offer elegant solutions and provide general knowledge on elementary eco-evolutionary feedback (EEF) loops, generally at the cost of simplifying hypotheses. Among the most common analytical formalisms of EEF loops are (1) adaptive dynamics models (Dieckmann and Ferrière, 2004), which incorporate ecological realism, in particular, the notion that the success of any given strategy depends on its frequency within the population, but often bypass the complexity of genotype-phenotype relationship (for instance by assuming asexual reproduction, clonal inheritance); (2) evolutionary quantitative genetics models (Slatkin, 1978; Pease et al., 1989; Kirkpatrick and Barton, 1997), which integrate the genotype-phenotype map with population demography (e.g., density-dependence) but where other ecological changes remain independent from the population dynamics; and (3) integral projection models (IPM, Smallegange and Coulson, 2013), which use population models classically developed in population dynamics to describe the evolution of continuous characters in a quantitative genetics framework. We purposely do not mention traditional optimisation models, such as stochastic dynamic programming used to represent individual behaviour (e.g., life history decisions) and development (e.g., growth and sexual maturity) and their consequences for population dynamics (Mangel, 2015), as these models do not specify the genetic basis of traits, which is mandatory for EEF. The main limitation of the above-listed analytical approaches is that they consider evolutionary and ecological processes (be they deterministic or stochastic) to be homogeneous within groups of individuals (the population or life stages), whereas group composition constantly varies in terms of phenotypes and genotypes, affecting individual decisions, linked to local and instant conditions, and their outcome at the group level (i.e., emerging effects).

Yet the question of individual heterogeneity and its effects has long preoccupied eco-evolutionary ecologists. For several decades, simulations using agent-based models (ABMs, also called individual-based models or IBMs in ecology) were used to investigate more complex scenarios and explore unexpected EEF, with approaches spreading on a spectrum of complexity well described by DeAngelis and Mooij (2005). On the one side of the spectrum, some ABMs were developed to validate and/or explore the predictions made with analytical models, replace these models and/or eventually nurture their future development. To keep these ABMs as simple as possible, individuals usually have a minimum number of attributes and fitness does not depend on interindividual interactions. For instance, by coupling a niche-based model with individual-based demo-genetic simulations, Cotto et al. (2020) investigated the evolutionary constraints related to alpine plant response to a changing climate. The



Figure 2.2: Different approaches to model eco-evolutionary feedback loops. This scheme summarises the main differences between two major modelling approaches used to investigate eco-evolutionary dynamics: analytical models on the left and Demo-Genetic Agent-Based Models (DG-ABMs) on the right. Their main difference is that analytical models consider evolutionary and/or ecological processes to be homogeneous within groups of individuals (the population or life-stages), whereas DG-ABMs can account for phenotypic and genotypic variation in groups of individuals, its effects on individual decisions/traits linked to local and instant conditions, and their outcome at the group level (i.e., emerging effects). In particular, some (although not all) DG-ABMs model interindividual interactions, and their effects on individual fitness, which emerge in part from these interactions.

key originality of their approach is to model individuals as spatial points across a complex climatic landscape, where the individual phenotypes are explicitly linked to climatic variables and where the optimal phenotype is prescribed by the niche-based model and varies through time. They use a classical multi-stage life cycle model (from seeds to adults) where individual survival and ultimately fitness increases when the multivariate phenotype is close to the optimal phenotype but is independent of the phenotype of other individuals. This typical top-down approach aims at extending classic analytical models into more complex domains with the assistance of ABMs.

On the other side of the spectrum, some ABMs employ a specific bottom-up approach to fully integrate individual interactions and their outcome over time and space within a population, the result of which will dictate the strength and direction of evolutionary processes at the population level (Huston et al., 1988; DeAngelis and Mooij, 2005). These ABMs acknowledge that individuals have inherently non-uniform interactions with each other, and that the consequences of the variation in traits mediating interindividual interactions are better described by rule-based simulations than by mathematical models. Accordingly, these approaches depict the interactions between individuals and their effects on individual fitness, accounting for the social context, and observe the resulting dynamics in terms of distributions of heritable traits and demography. We hereafter refer to these ABMs as Demo-Genetic Agent-Based models, DG-ABMs (another possible acronym would be Eco-Genetic ABMs).

DG-ABMs can be defined as individual-based (meta)population dynamics models with heritable trait variation and phenotype-dependent interactions between individuals (Box 2.2). A key feature of DG-ABMs is that fitness variation emerges mechanically from interactions between individuals (as opposed to assuming an *a priori* fitness function) and gives rise to the evolution of patterns structuring the population diversity and its dynamics (e.g., genetic architecture, spatial genetic structure). Typical examples of emerging fitness variation are spatially structured individualbased models focusing on dispersal evolution (Bach et al., 2006; Poethke et al., 2007; Kubisch et al., 2013). Indeed, these studies demonstrated that genetic structure and kin competition emerge from the spatial design of their DG-ABMs, when coupled with the genetic basis of dispersal and competition (here implicitly accounted for). Hence, dispersal evolves to reduce kin competition and increase inclusive fitness, ultimately driving back kin structure within populations. This is radically different from assuming a prescribed relationship between traits and fitness, as done in analytical models and some ABMs (e.g., Cotto et al., 2020). We argue here that this bottom-up construction of fitness in DG-ABMs provides different and new insights into various fundamental and applied questions in ecology and evolution, and illustrate further our point of view by a review of the literature.

Box 2.2: An overview of demo-genetic agent-based models (DG-ABMs) and on how they model interindividual interactions

Conceptual scheme of DG-ABMs (Fig. 2.3).

Modelling interindividual interactions: ABMs have the general capacity to represent both <u>direct</u> interactions among agents (i.e., when one agent identifies one or more other agents and directly affects them, e.g., by having some kind of contest with them, eating them, or choosing them to mate) and
<u>mediated/indirect</u> interactions (when one agent affects others indirectly by producing or consuming a shared resource).

The choice to model these interactions <u>explicitly or implicitly</u> in DG-ABMs depends on the interaction type, the degree of realism/complexity desired, and on the focal, evolvable trait(s) involved in the interaction (see Table 2.1 for examples of these traits). Direct reproductive interactions are most often explicitly modelled, through variable mate preference or competitiveness among potential mates (e.g., Chevalier et al., 2022), or assortative mating for a variable phenological trait (e.g., Soularue and Kremer, 2014). This is also the case of direct cooperative interactions, where the mechanisms involved (e.g., in grouping behaviour) are usually explicitly represented (Van Der Post et al., 2015; de Jager et al., 2020).

Indirect interactions such as competition for resources can be implicitly modelled through density-dependence functions. For instance, most DG-ABMs investigating fisheries-induced evolution assume that increasing density will lead to increasing competition, the competition strength also depending on individual size (Piou and Prévost, 2012; Ivan and Höök, 2015). By contrast, some DG-ABMs consider competition in an explicit prey-predator (Costa et al., 2016) or consumer-resource (Kang and Thibert-Plante, 2017) system; in these cases, the level of the resource and the consumption process at each time step are explicitly modelled, and the traits involved in the interaction can be more realistically represented (e.g., gill-raker count in Kang and Thibert-Plante, 2017).

DG-ABMs applications: DG-ABMs also offer the opportunity to study ecoevolutionary dynamics at multiple levels of organisation and spatio-temporal scales. At population scale, habitat structuring and variation in the abiotic environment can be included to account for selection, stochastic events and subdivision of the social environment. These models also allow simulations of several populations' dynamics connected through dispersal with potential gene flow, such as in a metapopulation case. At a higher level, community dynamics can be modelled through interspecific interactions between individuals from directly or indirectly interacting species.



Figure 2.3: Individuals (or agents) are characterised by their phenotypic traits, determined by their genotype, the environment, and interactions between them (denoted GxE). The agents together define the population, hence determining its diversity and structure, where interindividual interactions shape the social environment. This social environment influences population dynamics, which ultimately drives evolutionary processes (drift, selection, gene flow). Fitness variations (e.g., survival, fecundity variation) emerge from different outcomes of interindividual interactions (e.g., mating, competition, cooperation, information exchange) and give rise to evolution of traits via the trans-generational response to selection. This framework, highlighting the feedback loop central to eco-evolutionary approaches, is the core part of DG-ABMs and is identified by solid (units) / dashed (units' properties) line boxes and bold arrows.

2.3.3 Objective and method for the literature review

In their recent review of individual-based modelling of eco-evolutionary dynamics, Romero-Mujalli et al. (2019) illustrated how ABMs have been applied to assess organisms' and populations' responses to environmental change, but overlooked whether these ABMs accounted or not for interindividual interactions. Here, we specifically reviewed DG-ABMs in which fitness variation emerges mechanically from interactions between individuals.

To that aim, we searched the Web of Science Core Collection between 1955 and 2022 for various combinations of key-words (Suppl. Mat. Fig. 2.4 and 2.5). A first query using (Individual-based model* OR IBM*) AND (eco-evol* OR demo-genet* OR demogenet^{*} OR ecogenet^{*} OR eco-genet^{*}) returned 138 publications. By using the terms (Agent-based model OR ABM) instead of (Individual-based model* OR IBM*), we obtained 15 publications indicating that the eco-evolutionary community has not appropriated the term ABM despite its broader meaning (e.g., Railsback and Grimm, 2019). Of all these 153 publications (see Table S1 in Lamarins et al., 2022b), only 54 included the terms ((interindivid* OR inter-individ* OR individ*) AND interact*). After excluding reviews, technical publications, book chapters, preprint and duplicated studies (Suppl. Mat. Table 2.3), we retained 120 publications. Finally, as we were interested in studies using a DG-ABM approach, we checked if these 120 remaining publications (1) use an IBM; (2) simulate dynamics over multiple generations; (3) represent (direct or indirect) interactions between conspecific individuals; (4) represent individual variation in the interaction-related trait(s); (5) consider that part of this variation is heritable. With this method, we filtered out 45 additional publications that did not satisfy these five criteria, resulting in a total of 75 publications using DG-ABMs where interindividual interactions affect fitness. Using a snowball approach, we found 14 additional references cited in or citing the 75 selected publications (see Table S3 in Lamarins et al., 2022b and Lamarins et al., 2022a for the final database). Note that the difficulties we encountered in selecting studies using DG-ABMs with interindividual interactions from the WOS illustrate the need for clearer referencing based on key-words better shared by the community.

2.3.4 Synthesis of the literature review

In the selected 89 studies, competition was by far the most considered interaction (79 studies), followed by reproductive interactions (38 studies) and cooperative interactions (4 studies only). We found 32 studies accounting for two types of

interaction simultaneously.

On average, 1.9 traits (between 1 and 19 traits) per study were considered as The nature of evolvable trait(s) depended on the interaction type, the evolvable. species/kingdom considered and the level of generality/realism/precision of the model (following the classification of models properties of Levins, 1966). We distinguished eight categories of evolvable traits (Tables 2.1 and 2.2): 1) traits related to growth and/or maturation thresholds (36 studies); 2) traits related to mating (12 studies); 3) dispersal traits (12 studies); 4) traits related to cognitive behaviour and information exchange (six studies); 5) traits related to energy acquisition or allocation (six studies); traits related to 6) defence (five studies) or 7) virulence (two studies); 8) and finally, abstract traits - meaning that they do not correspond directly to a measurable trait - generally related to competitive ability or/and assortative mating (17 studies). We found seven studies considering two types of traits simultaneously. While some of these traits directly mediate interindividual interactions (e.g., mating traits for reproduction, behavioural traits for cooperation), most of them indirectly impact interactions. For instance, dispersal traits or movement preferences are often associated with avoidance of competition and/or predation, or mate search for reproduction (Travis et al., 2012; Fronhofer and Alternatt, 2017). Traits related to growth, maturation and energy acquisition or allocation, influence individual size, which often plays a major role in the outcome of competition.

Table 2.1: Interindividual interactions and associated evolvable traits modelled in DG-ABMs. To illustrate the categories of traits considered as evolvable in the reviewed DG-ABMs, we listed some examples (see Lamarins et al., 2022a) depending on the interaction type considered (IT): competition (C), reproduction (R) or cooperation (Coo).

IT	Evolvable traits category	Examples	Examples of references (species/kingdom)	
	1) Growth/	Size at emergence	Fielding 2004 (grasshopper); Ayllón et al. 2016, 2018 (trout)	
С	maturation	Threshold for size at migration	Piou and Prévost 2012, 2013 (salmon)	
		Growth rate	Kang and Thibert-Plante 2017 (alewife); Moya-Laraño 2011 (generic); Travis et al. 2010 (plant)	
	2) Abstract trait	Competitive abilities	Gascuel et al. 2015; Pontarp et al. 2015; Ward and Collins 2022 (all generic for species community)	
	4) Dispersal trait	Prospecting of habitat quality	Fronhofer et al. 2011; Ponchon et al. 2021 (generic)	
		Dispersal distance	LaRue et al. 2019 (sea rocket); Leidinger et al. 2021 (plant)	
	5) Behaviour	Movement preference	Hrycik et al. 2019 (perch)	
	0) <i>D</i> 0110 (10 01	Drifting	Mazzucco et al. 2015 (shrimps)	
	6) Energy, allocation	Functional traits related	Ivan and Höök 2015 (perch); Mollet et	
		to energy acquisition	al. 2016 (plaice)	
	7) Defence	Toxin production	de la Peña et al. 2011 (plant-herbivores)	
	T) Defence	Abstract defence	Costa et al. 2016; Urban et al. 2019 (generic)	
	8) Virulence	Pathogen virulence	Papaïx et al. 2018; Rimbaud et al. 2018 (plant pathogen)	
D	1) Growth/ Threshold for size at maturity		Ayllón et al. 2016, 2018 (trout); Piou and Prévost 2012, 2013 (salmon); Kane et al. 2022 (trout)	
к		Slope/intercept of the maturation reaction norm	Dunlop et al. 2007 (bass)	
	3) Mating	Selfing or self-incompatibility	Kirchner et al. 2006; Katsuhara et al. 2021 (plant)	
		Mate choice (preference, competitiveness), mate search	Berec et al. 2018; Chevalier et al. 2022 (generic) ; Labonne and Hendry 2010 (guppy) ; Nathan et al. 2019 (trout)	
Coo	2) Abstract trait	Mutualistic or antagonistic trait	Maliet et al. 2020 (generic)	
	5) Cognitive behaviour	Grouping, schooling behaviour Attachment density	Van Der Post et al. 2015 (generic); Reuter et al. 2016 (fish) de Jager et al. 2020 (mussel)	

Trait astaram-	Type of eco-evolutionary feedback								
Trait category	Ecology-	Microevolution-	Macroevolution-	Management-	Spatial-	Number of			
	focused	focused	focused	focused	focused	studies			
Growth/Maturation	6	2	3	16	3	30			
Abstract trait	2	7	8			17			
Dispersal	2				9	11			
Mating	2	5		1		8			
Cognitive behaviour	2	1	1		2	6			
Defence	1	2			1	4			
Energy acquisition or allocation	2	1		1		4			
Virulence				2		2			
Mating and growth/maturation			1	2		3			
Mating and Energy						_			
acquisition or allocation		Ţ				1			
Growth/maturation and Defence				1		1			
Growth/ maturation and Dispersal					1	1			
Growth/ maturation									
and Energy				1		1			
acquisition or				1		1			
allocation									
Number of studies	17	19	13	24	16	89			

Table 2.2: Association between the category of evolvable traits considered in each DG-ABM, and the type of eco-evolutionary feedback considered.

57

These evolvable traits are at the core of the EEF loop in DG-ABMs, since fitness variation emerges from interactions among individuals that differ in these traits, giving rise to population dynamics in terms of both distribution of evolvable traits and demography. We distinguished five main types of EEF in the reviewed DG-ABMs (Table 2.2). We found 17 "Ecology-focused" DG-ABMs, with a high level of realism in the demographic and ecological processes, and incorporating a "dose" of evolutionary processes to gain a better understanding of the ecological/demographic behaviour. In these DG-ABMs, evolvable traits were most often growth/maturation traits, but six other trait categories were considered. Then, we found 19 "Microevolutionfocused" DG-ABMs, with a high level of generality in the evolutionary processes, and incorporating a "dose" of demographic and ecological processes to gain a better understanding of the evolutionary behaviour at a contemporary timescale. Similarly, there were also 13 "Macroevolution- focused" DG-ABMs, dedicated to the understanding of speciation at a macroevolutionary time scale. In these "Microor macroevolution-focused" DG-ABMs, the evolvable trait was most often abstract, but mating traits were also often considered. Then, we identified 24 "Managementfocused" DG-ABMs, used to address how management practices interfere with the EEF loop with a high level of precision; in these DG-ABMs, evolvable traits were most often growth/maturation traits. Finally, we found 16 "Spatial-focused" DG-ABMs, used to investigate EEF in a spatially explicit context (e.g., metapopulation). These DG-ABMs investigated in particular the evolution of dispersal traits.

Another characteristic of DG-ABMs is the type of inheritance framework used to model genetic variation in the evolvable traits. We found that 64 studies (71.9%) used a Mendelian inheritance process either in a population genetic framework (one locus, possibly multi-allelic, which directly determines the phenotype) or combined with a quantitative genetic framework (several loci, together with the environment, which govern trait variation). Besides, 22 studies (24.7%) used an infinitesimal quantitative genetic framework (where each offspring inherits the mean of the two parent's genetic values), and two studies (2.2%) tested for population versus quantitative genetic framework. Note that our definition of DG-ABM is larger than the one suggested by some authors (e.g., Frank and Baret, 2013), who proposed to reserve the term "eco-genetic" to models based on a quantitative genetics framework, and the term "demo-genetic" to models based on a population genetics framework. Beyond these general typologies, we illustrate below the main applications of the reviewed DG-ABMs, through selected examples.

2.3.5 DG-ABMs to better understand eco-evolutionary feedback loops

Accounting for variable within-population interindividual interactions in a bottomup approach allows DG-ABMs to better investigate the emergence of fitness variation resulting from several complex eco-evolutionary processes and the interactions between them. Accounting for the stochastic and context-dependent outcomes of competitive, cooperative, or reproductive interactions can change the predicted evolution of lifehistory traits compared to an approach where the relationship between traits and fitness is prescribed. Below, we emphasise relevant studies from our literature review which investigate these three types of interaction.

We start with examples of DG-ABMs considering explicit competitive interactions within species. Fielding (2004) investigated competition in grasshoppers and showed that contrasted optimal values of life history traits can emerge from different types of localised interindividual interactions, i.e., exploitative or size-based competition. In their DG-ABM of trout population, Ayllón et al. (2016) observed the emergence of different eco-evolutionary outcomes due to explicit competitive interactions for food in a changing environment. These two DG-ABMs with explicit competitive interactions were built from well-tested demographic models, and additionally considered that the same traits (size at emergence and maturity size threshold) could evolve and interact with the spatial distribution of food resources to shape population dynamics. Most often in the reviewed DG-ABMs focusing on single species adaptive dynamics, competition is implicitly considered, e.g., through a density-dependence function. In a perch species, Ivan and Höök (2015) showed variable patterns of energy allocation along individual ontogeny, resulting from the interplay between plastic and adaptive responses to selection and density-dependent competition for food. Using a DG-ABM representing competition among individuals choosing different life-history tactics, Piou and Prévost (2013) and Piou et al. (2015) showed that climate change may modify salmon population dynamics through plastic responses of individual size. These two DG-ABMs acknowledge the main role of individual size on competition, and incorporate both genetic and plastic variation in this trait to gain a better understanding of the adaptive population dynamics in future, changing environments.

Integrating behavioural interactions between individuals and EEF is logically critical to understand the evolution of sociality and **cooperation**. Van Der Post et al. (2015) investigated how grouping, a taxonomically widespread social process, co-

evolved with two cooperative social behaviours: anti-predator vigilance and foraging. In a simulation experiment where behavioural processes were specified through 19 variable traits, but not the cost and benefits of each decision strategy, they showed eco-evolutionary interactions between group size and vigilance with an evolutionary trajectory towards bigger groups and less vigilance, eventually leading to fission into small groups with high vigilance and back. Accounting for heritable interindividual differences and environmental heterogeneity in resource distribution, Reuter et al. (2016) were able to relate landscape structure to the evolution of schooling behaviour and collective foraging in fish. Although these studies mostly focused on how cooperation can emerge in models where costs and benefits are not explicitly specified but related to other behavioural traits, reverse strategy, where cooperation is the evolvable trait, could also be used to investigate adaptive dynamics.

Reproductive interactions are an obvious major driver of demographic dynamics, and "Ecology-focused" DG-ABMs are particularly suitable to investigate this issue in an eco-evolutionary framework. For instance, to explore how mating behaviour and population size jointly affect fitness components or population growth rate through Allee effects, Berec et al. (2018) considered the rate of mate search as evolvable and found different optimal values of search rates for populations at different densities, resulting in lower Allee thresholds in populations kept at lower densities. DG-ABMs are also relevant to examine the interplay between demographic processes and the mating system when self-incompatibility (Kirchner et al., 2006) or sterility (Nonaka and Kaitala, 2020) occur as a direct consequence of the genotype.

Reproductive interactions are also known to drive evolutionary dynamics (Maan and Seehausen, 2011), and explicit representation of mating interactions is important as sexual selection can sometimes oppose natural selection (Labonne and Hendry, 2010), or eventually reinforce it (Soularue and Kremer, 2014). Mate choice strongly depends on the population structure, making the outcome challenging to predict yet rarely random (Klug and Stone, 2021). DG-ABMs, by allowing to represent explicitly sexual interactions, are particularly adapted to explore the evolution of traits considering the dynamic aspects of mating systems, such as when sexual preference and competition over mating partners occur, while still accounting for natural selection (Nathan et al., 2019; Chevalier et al., 2022). In this context, growth traits, or traits related to life-history decisions such as migration or maturation, are often chosen as key traits to jointly consider size-dependent survival and reproductive interaction and their possible interactions (Piou et al., 2015; Ayllón et al., 2019*b*). Another application is the investigation of sexual dimorphism, which can arise when a given trait is subject

to different selection pressures in males vs females (or even opposing pressures in the case of sexual conflict), but has a shared genetic basis between the sexes. Höök et al. (2021) showed how sex-specific plasticity for size could evolve by looking at perch evolutionary response to environment. Kane et al. (2022) showed that optimal migration propensity differed among males and females in trout, and that populations could adapt to environmental change across a range of intersex genetic correlations for migration propensity, which influence the magnitude of sexual conflict.

2.3.6 Extending in space, time and levels of organisation

In most examples detailed above, eco-evolutionary dynamics are modelled within a non-spatially explicit population. However, the spatial arrangement of habitats shapes animal movements or gametes propagation, and therefore also shapes social interactions and sexual networks (He et al., 2019). Since they allow fine-scale explicit representation of habitats as well as individual movements, DG-ABMs are well suited to represent **spatial evolutionary dynamics**. Focusing on the evolution of dispersal, Fronhofer and Alternatt (2017) showed how EEF can emerge from a simple spatially-explicit DG-ABM. Depending on network topology and connectivity, variable evolutionary stable dispersal strategies emerged from their model via kin competition, and lead to EEF by changing back the network's demography and genetic structure. Hrycik et al. (2019) explored the importance of environmental cues in perch vertical movement. By allowing movement rules in response to these cues to evolve, they illustrated the role of DG-ABMs in determining appropriate movement rules in spatially-explicit ecological modelling. Travis et al. (2010) used a mechanistic DG-ABM approach to model the evolution of seed dispersal in plant populations, accounting for likely trade-offs between traits in a patchy landscape. Additionally, sexual selection can determine the reproductive success of immigrants in populations and thus the strength and direction of demo-genetic consequences of dispersal (e.g., demographic rescue, evolutionary rescue vs gene swamping). For instance, Soularue and Kremer (2014) highlighted the major importance of gene flow and assortative mating in shaping the genetic differentiation between populations in a heterogeneous environment.

Interactions between conspecific individuals are at the core of DG-ABMs. In addition, considering explicitly higher levels of organisation (e.g., community level) to represent **interspecific interactions** may ultimately change the evolutionary outcomes expected from single species systems (Weber et al., 2017; terHorst et al.,

2018). We found examples of such multispecies DG-ABMs used to investigate mating interactions: for instance, using an ABM in which two plant species share the same pollinators, Katsuhara et al. (2021) highlighted that the evolution of selfing without pollinator assistance (autonomous selfing) may increase population growth rates of inferior competitors and consequently favour long-term coexistence via an evolutionary rescue. Furthermore, McDonald et al. (2019) showed that the strength of intraspecific competition for mates may result from sexual interactions with heterospecifics, which may interfere with sexual selection (i.e., interspecific reproductive interference).

Most of the reviewed multispecies DG-ABMs focused on competitive interactions, in an explicit prey-predators' or community context. For instance, Kang and Thibert-Plante (2017) illustrated that considering trophic interactions and the genetic basis of functional traits within a single model could improve the understanding of evolutionary morphological changes in fish. Hillaert et al. (2020) showed that in a fragmented habitat, the presence of predators selects for increased herbivore movement and hence larger herbivore size. Demo-genetic models of plant-virus interactions allowed to investigate the emergence of plant viral genotypes breaking down plant qualitative resistance genes (Fabre et al., 2009). Ecological interactions at the community level may drive selection within species, and selection may affect in return the processes of species assembly at a community scale (Leidinger et al., 2021). Finally, as multispecies DG-ABMs represent both intra-and interspecific complexity, they are especially suited to address macroevolutionary consequences of interspecific interactions, such as speciation (Gavrilets et al., 2007; Weber et al., 2017). We found several examples of macroevolution-focused DG-ABMs developed to investigate adaptive radiation, i.e., the rapid diversification of a single lineage into many species with a great diversity of ecological strategies (Gascuel et al., 2015; Pontarp et al., 2015b; Ward and Collins, 2022). These models generally consider a limited number of abstract, phenotypic traits reflecting the competitive ability of the focal individual with all the other individuals of the local patch. The distance between these ecological phenotypes within a patch drives exploitative competition, while heritable variation of the ecological phenotype fuels the processes of local adaptation and speciation.

Overall, it appears that DG-ABMs have a large potential to address fundamental eco-evolutionary questions accounting for multiple drivers of fitness, and are increasingly used in an integrative way, allowing effects to flow up and down between organisation levels.

2.3.7 DG-ABMs to assist management strategies

Another key feature of DG-ABMs is their capacity to model the effects of management practices on individuals and their interactions, together with that of other ecoevolutionary processes. Hence, by allowing emerging effects, DG-ABMs can also be efficient prospective tools to elaborate and assess management strategies. When management consists of demographic control of populations, in particular through individual phenotype-based choices, it can deeply impact all demographic processes and population genetic composition, and therefore the intensity and direction of the evolutionary processes (Lefèvre et al., 2014). For example, selective fishing (or harvesting) directly affects competition among surviving fish (or trees), while genetic composition determines optimal fishing (or harvesting) patterns. In particular, different DG-ABMs were used to understand how selective fishing can affect the demography and evolution of fish populations (fisheries-induced evolution), through cascading and sometimes counterintuitive effects on population demographic structure, growth and maturation thresholds (Wang and Höök, 2009; Piou et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2017; Ayllón et al., 2018). By simultaneously modelling the plastic and genetic responses of individuals, DG-ABMs can also disentangle the role of selective fishing and environment in the observed and predicted population declines and phenotypic changes (Piou et al., 2015).

When evolutionary dynamics and land use planning decisions are linked, DG-ABMs also represent valuable decision support tools. For example, Papaïx et al. (2018) and Rimbaud et al. (2018) used a spatially explicit demo-genetic model to assess the joint effect of crop cultivar deployment strategies in space and time and key pathogen life-history traits on epidemiological dynamics, resistance durability and long-term evolutionary control. Using a DG-ABM, Mims et al. (2019) found strong effects of spatial connectivity on demo-genetic outcomes in reintroduced bull trout populations, and allowed identification of watershed areas with higher persistence probabilities.

In the case of **hybridization** between native/wild and introduced/domesticated gene pools, DG-ABMs allow to study the impact of management on the dynamics of crossing within and between gene pools, which depends on differential social interactions (e.g., mating preference) and genetic performances (e.g., local adaptation) between gene pools (Castellani et al., 2015; Nathan et al., 2019). In this context, DG-ABMs are an effective means of developing genetic enrichment strategies in a prospective approach (which genetic resources and which deployment modalities for which risks?), and conversely of evaluating strategies aimed at preserving the local

gene pool from unwanted introgression.

In these different case studies, DG-ABMs offer a relevant framework to evaluate the short- and long-term evolutionary costs and benefits of management actions and to assess potential trade-offs between them. For example, they allow to address the issue of exploiting a population or a metapopulation (e.g., fishing, wood production) while preserving its genetic value and diversity, or to determine how to minimize the risks of demo-genetic collapses of populations facing climate change. Furthermore, by controlling the social context of populations, management drives the overall ecological processes and thus affects biotic and abiotic stressors, the susceptibility of populations to these stressors, and selection intensity (Jactel et al., 2009).

2.3.8 Taking advantage of ABMs for DG-ABMs

The above-listed examples from our literature review illustrate the diversity of interindividual interactions, adaptive traits and ecological processes that can be investigated using DG-ABMs. This diversity is a strength, but requires active strategies to better identify possible links between similar models developed to answer different questions, and to structure the community of developers and users of these Identified as agent-based models, DG-ABMs can benefit from multiple models. advances in the ABM community. The flexibility of the approach ranges from very simple and generic models to very complex and specific models, depending on model assumptions and objectives (Edmonds and Moss, 2005). A wide panel of tools and methodologies are available to explore DG-ABMs (Thiele et al., 2014). The exponential increase of genomic databases should help in the calibration/validation of DG-ABMs (Rudman et al., 2018). The use of description protocols such as Overview, Design concepts and Details (ODD) protocol ensures the replicability and enhances the understanding of the models (Grimm et al., 2020). The TRACE framework (Grimm et al., 2014) is also a powerful tool for planning, documenting, and assessing model development, analysis and application. Software for ABM development have increased in simplicity, quality, speed of computation and reliability and allow sharing pieces of code easily (Dufour-Kowalski et al., 2012); in particular, quantitative genetic libraries can be plugged into existing population dynamic models to describe the genetic architecture of adaptive traits (e.g., "Genetics" library in CAPSIS, Dufour-Kowalski et al., 2012; Oddou-Muratorio and Davi, 2014). Software for complex model exploration have been proposed (Reuillon et al., 2013). Complex and multi-authored models may use modelling notebooks to keep trace of all steps of conceptualisation, model development, implementation and exploration in order to enhance the confidence of end-users of DG-ABMs in the management communities (Ayllón et al., 2021). Finally, the publication of model codes on specific dissemination platforms is encouraged in the ABM community (e.g., https://www.comses.net/ codebases/). All these recommendations should benefit the development of DG-ABMs.

Intrinsically, DG-ABMs conception requires a multidisciplinary approach integrating multiple levels of knowledge and can be used in interdisciplinary research projects as a tool of interaction among disciplines. Agent-based models are also used as frontier objects in several contexts (Le Page and Perrotton, 2017; Reilly et al., 2021). As such, DG-ABMs are important tools in interacting with management or other end-user communities that need to incorporate evolutionary processes in their decisions. Although this has not been done so far, DG-ABMs could even be developed as part of a participatory modelling approach (Le Page et al., 2010) to integrate the knowledge of a diverse community of experts that need to manage constantly evolving ecosystems. Finally, they should become essential to adaptive management with an evolutionary perspective (Groot and Rossing, 2011).

2.3.9 Conclusion

In complement to the analytical models traditionally employed by evolutionary ecologists to investigate EEF loops, this review puts forward DG-ABMs, which are individual-based (meta)population dynamics models with heritable trait variation and phenotype-dependent interactions between individuals. Our literature review illustrates how the bottom-up construction of fitness in these DG-ABMs allows them to provide new insights into various fundamental and applied questions in ecology and evolution.

Previous reviews of the literature have indicated that ABMs in general are not used to address general questions in ecology and evolution, but have a more "narrow" or "pragmatic" scope (DeAngelis and Grimm, 2014). We advise modellers working on eco-evolutionary processes to carefully consider the benefits of accounting for the effects of interactions between individuals on fitness in their approach, since it might significantly affect the direction and magnitude of evolution. This is true for theoretical investigations as well as for more applied objectives, since these eco-evolutionary mechanisms also operate on rather short time scales (a handful of generations). Using a dedicated term - such as DG-ABM - would facilitate a distinction between categories of modelling approaches, highlighting the specifics of eco-evolutionary models accounting for interindividual interactions and their variations, and the potential differences in their respective predictions.

2.3.10 Supplementary materials

The Table 2.3 focuses on original publications of models that were not retained. The sub-categories a) to d) correspond to other models than IBMs. The sub-category e) corresponds to models applied on a time scale of maximum 1 generation, i.e., without evolution. The sub-category f) corresponds to models which do not represent neither explicit nor implicit interactions between conspecific individuals. Finally, the sub-category g) corresponds to models including interindividual interactions, but either without individual variation in the interaction-related trait(s), or with purely plastic variation in these traits. The category "Not appropriate" gathers: 15 reviews, seven technical publications (introducing a new software without specific investigation of an eco-evolutionary issue), five publications related to cell biology model (without any link to ecology), three book chapters, one conference proceeding, one preprint and one duplicated study.

Catogory	Sub Catagory	Number of	
Category	Sub-Category	publications	
	a) Concept paper	1	
	b) Niche model	1	
Original publication	c) Differential equation model	1	
of a new model but	d) Integral Projection Model	0	
of a new model but	(IPM)	2	
	e) ABM without evolution	7	
	f) DG-ABM without interactions	16	
	g) DG-ABM with interactions		
	18		
DG-ABM with interind	74		
Not appropriate (review	33		
	74		

Table 2.3: Publications excluded during the literature review.



Figure S1a: Distribution over time of the 138 selected publications associated to "IBM" and "eco-evolution" keywords. Keywords: (Individual-based model* OR IBM)* AND (eco-evol* OR demo-genet* OR demogenet* OR eco-genet*). WOS 1955/01/01-2022/07/01.

Figure S1b: WOS categories of the 138 selected publications associated to "IBM" and "eco-evolution" keywords. Keywords: (Individual-based model* OR IBM)* AND (eco-evol* OR demo-genet* OR demogenet* OR eco-genet*). WOS 1955/01/01-2022/07/01.



Figure 2.4: Graphical summary of the publications associated with the first WOS query.



Figure S1c: Distribution over time of the 15 selected publications associated to "ABM" and "eco-evolution" keywords. Keywords: (Agent-based model* OR ABM)* AND (eco-evol* OR demo-genet* OR demogenet* OR ecogenet* OR eco-genet*). WOS 1955/01/01-2022/07/01.

Figure S1d: WOS categories of the 15 selected publications associated to "ABM" and "eco-evolution" keywords. Keywords: (Agentbased model* OR ABM)* AND (eco-evol* OR demo-genet* OR demogenet* OR eco-genet*). WOS 1955/01/01-2022/07/01.



Figure 2.5: Graphical summary of the publications associated with the second WOS query.

2.4 EXISTING METAPOPULATION DG-ABMS

In the light of these conclusions, we aimed at using a demo-genetic agent-based approach to explore metapopulation eco-evolutionary dynamics in the case of Atlantic salmon. A large number of DG-ABMs are already existing for fishes and salmonids especially. However, these models have been built for single closed populations, For example, Jager et al. (2001) evaluated the consequences without dispersal. of life history variation on population viability of the white sturgeon (Acipenser Such models have also been used to evaluate the impact of transmontanus). exploitation and selective mortality on the evolution of life history traits in brook charr (Salvelinus fontinalis, Thériault et al., 2008), smallmouth bass (Micropterus dolomieu, Dunlop et al., 2007) and freshwater fish similar to lake whitefish (Coregonus clupeaformis) and walleye (Sander vitreus, Wang and Höök, 2009). The effects of environmental conditions and anthropogenic disturbances can also be examined with DG-ABMs, such as the effects of floods on growth rates of the marble trout (Salmo marmoratus, Vincenzi et al., 2012), of temperature increase on migration timing of sockeye salmon (Oncorhynchus nerka, Reed et al., 2011a), or the influence of migration barriers and stocking on the abundance and genetics of the brown trout (Salmo trutta, Frank and Baret, 2013).

A very few DG-ABMs consider the metapopulation perspective for salmonids species. The model of Castellani et al. (2015) on Atlantic salmon incorporates the influence of immigration, but does not consider emigration and is also built for a single population. The model of Ayllón et al. (2016) on brown trout is spatially explicit but rather focuses at the microhabitat scale. More generic models have nevertheless been developped to simulate dynamics of metapopulations. Nemo provides an evolutionary and populations genetics modelling framework to simulate life history trait evolution in a metapopulation context, with a large diversity of population models available (Guillaume and Rougemont, 2006). SimAdapt has been developped to simulate adaptation and population dynamics with a particular focus on the influence of the landscape, which is represented as a cellular automaton (Rebaudo et al., 2013). RangeShifter also allows to simulate complex population dynamics on spatially explicit landscapes (grid cells), with a detailed process of dispersal divided into 3 phases (emigration, transfer and settlement, Bocedi et al., 2014). ALADYN also provides a modeling framework of adaptive dynamics but in a continuous landscape (Schiffers and Travis, 2014). Finally, CDMetaPOP allows the simulation of patch demographic and genetic dynamics interconnected by dispersal (Landguth et al., 2017). However, these models generally represent simple life cycles, far from the complexity of salmonids life histories. Two exceptions of DG-ABMs applied to salmonid metapopulations have been found in the literature. Landguth et al. (2017) applied their DG-ABM (CDMetaPOP) to brook trout, with a dispersal process, density-dependent and independent life history traits, but a fixed spatially explicit fitness for each genotype (not emerging from eco-evolutionary dynamics). Lin et al. (2017) extended a model from Bromaghin et al. (2011) on sockeye salmon, but it focuses on two populations only.

On Atlantic salmon, only population-level DG-ABMs have been developped. The model IBSEM of Castellani et al. (2015) focused on the influence of gene flow from nonlocal and domesticated conspecific individuals on genetic and demographic changes of a wild population. The model IBASAM of Piou and Prévost (2012) has been used to evaluate the evolutionary and demographic consequences of climate change and exploitation scenarios on Atlantic salmon populations (Piou and Prévost, 2013; Piou et al., 2015). There is thus room for an extension of such models to the metapopulation scale.

2.5 CHAPTER HIGHLIGHTS

In this chapter, I explained the rationale of using a modelling approach which is i) spatially explicit, ii) agent/ individual-based, and iii) demo-genetic to evaluate metapopulation eco-evolutionary dynamics and the theory of adaptation networks. I also identified gaps regarding existing metapopulation DG-ABMs, especially lacking for salmonid species and their complex life cycle. The main lessons of this chapter are the following:

Chapter 2 highlights

- Multiple challenges related to the study and measure of dispersal in the wild hamper our understanding of the eco-evolutionary dynamics of metapopulations;
- Modelling approaches may address these issues;
- Stochastic Patch Ocuppancy Models (SPOMs) have been widely used to study metapopulations but they only provide a limited insight into metapopulation dynamics;
- Spatially explicit agent-based demo-genetic approaches (DG-ABMs) provide a coherent framework to study these dynamics, in particular through the emergence of fitness related to inter-individual interactions and heritable fitness related traits;
- This approach appears as a relevant tool to explore response of metapopulations to selective pressures and their management;
- Few DG-ABMs are applied to metapopulations, even less to salmonids, and none for Atlantic salmon.

Chapter 3

Implications of dispersal in Atlantic salmon



Contents

3.1	Inti	RODUCTION \ldots 7
3.2	Moi stru	DEL DESCRIPTION: METAIBASAM, A SPATIALLY UCTURED VERSION OF IBASAM
	3.2.1	Key features of IBASAM
	3.2.2	Model improvements: a genetic basis of growth and a growth – survival trade-off
	3.2.3	Dispersal modeling: extending IBASAM into a metapopulation context
	3.2.4	Model parameterization and outputs
3.3	App DISP MET	ELICATION: CONSEQUENCES OF A GRADIENT OF PERSAL RATES ON LOCAL POPULATIONS AND APOPULATION DYNAMICS
	3.3.1	Scenario and parameterization
	3.3.2	Simulations outcomes analysis
3.4	Disc	$CUSSION \ldots $
3.5	SUP	PLEMENTARY MATERIALS
	3.5.1	Growth-survival trade-off in river
	3.5.2	MetaIBASAM parameterization
	3.5.3	Environmental conditions simulation
	3.5.4	Populations' density of juveniles (parr $0+$)
	3.5.5	Populations' life-history traits by considering all individuals phenotypes (philopatric adults and immigrants)
3.6	Сна	PTER HIGHLIGHTS 11

In the light of Chapter 2 conclusions, we here propose a DG-ABM (Demo-Genetic Agent-Based Model) that includes the processes and organisational scales required to study the adaptation and management of Atlantic salmon populations within a metapopulation context and that will be used in the following chapters. In this chapter, the model is presented as well as an application study investigating the consequences and implications of dispersal in Atlantic salmon populations. The model presented here (MetaIBASAM) is an extension of a previously developped model at the population scale (IBASAM) by the ECOBIOP lab, and it is noteworthy that its extension is the result of several contributions and is far from being exclusively mine. This chapter corresponds to an article published in the Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences (Lamarins et al., 2022c), and first includes the main body of the article and then the supplementary materials.

Lamarins, A., Hugon F., Piou C., Papaïx J., Prévost E., Carlson S. M., and Buoro M. Implications of dispersal in Atlantic salmon: lessons from a demo-genetic agent-based model. (2022). *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences*.

Implications of dispersal in Atlantic salmon: lessons from a demo-genetic agent-based model

Amaïa Lamarins¹, Florèn Hugon², Cyril Piou³, Julien Papaïx⁴, Etienne Prévost¹, Stephanie M. Carlson⁵ and Mathieu Buoro¹

¹Université de Pau et des Pays de l'Adour, E2S UPPA, INRAE, ECOBIOP, Saint-Pée-sur-Nivelle, France
²LMAP, UMR 5142, CNRS/UPPA/E2S UPPA, Anglet, France
³CIRAD, UMR CBGP, Montpellier, France
⁴INRAE, BioSP, Avignon, France
⁵Department of Environmental Science, Policy and Management, University of California-Berkeley, Berkeley, CA, USA

Abstract

Despite growing evidence of spatial dispersal and gene flow between salmonid populations, the implications of connectivity for adaptation, conservation, and management are still poorly appreciated. Here, we explore the influence of a gradient of dispersal rates on portfolio strength and eco-evolutionary dynamics in a simulated population network of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) by extending a demo-genetic agent-based model to a spatially explicit framework. Our model results highlight a non-linear relationship between dispersal rates and the stability of the metapopulation, resulting in an optimal portfolio effect for dispersal rates around 20%. At local population scale, we also demonstrate phenotypic changes induced by density-dependent effects modulated by dispersal, and a dispersal-induced increase in genetic diversity. We conclude that it is critical to account for complex interactions between dispersal and eco-evolutionary processes and discuss future avenues of research that could be addressed by such modeling approaches to more fully appreciate responses of Atlantic salmon to environmental changes and investigate management actions accordingly.

Keywords: Atlantic salmon, demo-genetic agent-based model, dispersal, ecoevolutionary dynamics, metapopulation, portfolio effect, synchrony

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Rapid environmental changes and associated selection pressures are affecting the adaptive capacity and persistence of many species globally (Ceballos et al., 2015). Consequently, there is considerable interest in understanding species responses to current and predicted global changes (Urban et al., 2016). This ambitious goal requires not only a consideration of the different processes and mechanisms facilitating species adaptation, persistence, and stability but also their interactions. Ideally such processes and interactions would be studied in a single, integrative framework and the field of eco-evolutionary dynamics provides such a context (Hendry, 2017). Ultimately, this framework should guide management and conservation practices to maintain adaptive capacity and persistence of natural resources.

The main eco-evolutionary processes underlying species adaptation and responses to environmental changes include phenotypic plasticity (or acclimatization) and genetic adaptation of traits in response to natural selection (Reed et al., 2011b). These processes shape a great diversity of life-history traits that can be phenotypic (e.g., growth, behavior) or phenological (e.g., reproduction timing). These life-history traits are not only influenced by environmental and genetic factors, but also by complex interactions between individuals (e.g., sexual selection) and demographic processes such as density-dependence effects. Accounting for relevant eco-evolutionary processes (e.g., sexual selection) and their underlying mechanisms (e.g., genetic architecture and transmission) in empirical and theoretical approaches is necessary to fully appreciate populations dynamics and responses to environmental changes.

Dispersal or the movement of individuals from their natal population to a different breeding population, is ubiquitous in nature and is also a process that promotes species responses to environmental change by spreading the risk of reproductive failure (Ronce, 2007; Buoro and Carlson, 2014). There is growing appreciation – from both theory and empirical studies - of the causes and consequences of dispersal (Clobert et al., 2009, 2012). For example, dispersal and gene flow among interconnected populations can induce genotypic and demographic consequences on recipient populations (Cayuela et al., 2018). This may prevent the extirpation of local populations via rescue effects (see Carlson et al., 2014 for review) but also lead to "anti-rescue effects" (Harding and McNamara, 2002) and reduce metapopulation diversity through the homogenizing effect of dispersal (Paradis et al., 1999; Lenormand, 2002). Within a metapopulation context (Hanski, 1998), the connectivity among populations is critical because it has consequences for the dynamics of local populations and the whole metapopulation. Thus, we would expect eco-evolutionary dynamics of a metapopulation to differ from that of a single population taken in isolation, highlighting the need to consider ecoevolutionary processes, feedback loops, and the spatial structure of populations within a single, coherent framework.

More generally, the resilience of ecological systems, such as a metapopulation, relies on the connectivity and the diversity of responses of its components (Elmqvist et al., 2003; Webster et al., 2017). Indeed, there is growing recognition that a diverse network of populations can promote overall stability of population complexes and resource flows (e.g., fishery yields, Schindler et al., 2010). Ecological portfolio theory emphasizes the importance of biocomplexity, or life history diversity within and among populations (Hilborn et al., 2003; Abbott et al., 2017), as well as asynchronous dynamics among populations as factors contributing to stability of population complexes (Schindler et al., 2010, 2015). The portfolio effect has been studied extensively in imperiled and exploited salmonid species, especially for Pacific salmonids (e.g., Moore et al., 2010; Carlson and Satterthwaite, 2011; Anderson et al., 2015). However, the potential influence of dispersal among salmon populations on portfolio strength has received less attention (but see Yeakel et al., 2018).

Dispersal rates are often considered low in salmonids (Schtickzelle and Quinn, 2007; Birnie-Gauvin et al., 2019), even though identification of dispersers (or "strayers") and dispersal rates remain difficult to assess in wild populations. For instance, Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar) is well known for its great diversity of life-history strategies linked to phenotypic plasticity (Mangel and Satterthwaite, 2016; Erkinaro et al., 2019) and genetic basis of life history traits (e.g., age at maturation, Barson et al., 2015; Lepais et al., 2017), but it is also commonly presented as a highly philopatric species (Salmenkova, 2017). Yet, evidence of dispersal behavior and gene flow have been reported between several populations of Atlantic salmon (e.g., Consuegra et al., 2005, see Keefer and Caudill, 2014 for review), allowing recolonization and expansion (Makhrov et al., 2005; Perrier et al., 2010; Pess et al., 2014). However, few studies have estimated dispersal rates between wild populations of Atlantic salmon (but see Jonsson et al., 1991, 2003; Consuegra et al., 2005; Jonsson and Jonsson, 2017), and even fewer discuss or assess the potential consequences of metapopulation functioning on conservation and management of Atlantic salmon populations (but see Castellani et al., 2015; Bowlby and Gibson, 2020). As suggested by Schtickzelle and Quinn (2007), future work should strategically consider salmon dynamics from a metapopulation perspective.

Modeling approaches can overcome the difficulties associated with examining

dispersal consequences in nature. Among them, classical metapopulation theory, demographic, patch occupancy models (Hanski, 1998, 1999; Sutherland et al., 2014; Bowlby and Gibson, 2020 for salmonids), as well as evolutionary analytical models (Berdahl et al., 2015; Yeakel et al., 2018), have advanced general concepts in metapopulation functioning and persistence. Mechanistic eco-evolutionary models such as Demo-Genetic Agent-Based Models (DG-ABMs, also called Eco-Genetic ABMs) provide a complementary and flexible approach for simulating the complexity of a species life cycle (DeAngelis and Grimm, 2014; Stillman et al., 2015) and assessing the demo-genetic consequences of dispersal in a unified framework. By integrating variation and interactions between individuals, as well as explicit genetic basis of traits and their transmission, this approach allows life-history traits to evolve in interaction with demographic effects in response to environmental and anthropogenic pressures (Dunlop et al., 2009; Johnston et al., 2019). Recently, several generic metapopulation DG-ABMs have emerged such as Nemo (Guillaume and Rougemont, 2006), SimAdapt (Rebaudo et al., 2013), RangeShifter (Bocedi et al., 2014, 2021) or CDMetaPOP (Landguth et al., 2017). Several specific DG-ABMs represent the complex life cycle of salmonid species (e.g., Thériault et al., 2008; Ayllón et al., 2016), but only two studies incorporate dispersal between populations to our knowledge. Landguth et al. (2017) simulate a network of non-native Eastern Brook Trout (Salvelinus fontinalis) populations and evaluate efficiency of fish removal management strategies taking into account dispersal between patches. Lin et al. (2017) extended a single population model of sockeye salmon (Oncorhynchus nerka) to two populations to assess the consequences of dispersal on local adaptation and demography. We build on this general approach, but with a focus on Atlantic salmon, to explore dispersal implications within a realistic network of populations and an eco-evolutionary framework.

Our ultimate goal is to shed light on the potential implications of dispersal on the portfolio effect and eco-evolutionary dynamics in Atlantic salmon. To do so, we extended a demo-genetic agent-based model of Atlantic salmon (IBASAM, Piou and Prévost, 2012) to a metapopulation context. The original IBASAM model was developped to evaluate eco-evolutionary responses to climate change and selective exploitation (Piou and Prévost, 2013; Piou et al., 2015). It includes most of the knowledge available today on the eco-evolutionary processes and mechanisms of this species. However, IBASAM was designed to mimic a single population with complete philopatry, so we incorporated a dispersal process to simulate a realistic network of fifteen Atlantic salmon populations (Bouchard et al., 2022). By doing so, our model allows an investigation of the consequences of dispersal on local populations and network dynamics at the demographic, phenotypic, and genotypic levels. In this article, we first describe the main features of the model. Second, we test a gradient of dispersal rates and examine consequences for network stability, synchrony, local extinction risk, and life-history traits. Finally, we highlight pending questions that could be addressed with a more explicit consideration of dispersal, including basic studies related to eco-evolutionary dynamics of Atlantic salmon metapopulations and practical management questions relevant to connected populations of this exploited species.

3.2 MODEL DESCRIPTION: METAIBASAM, A SPATIALLY STRUCTURED VERSION OF IBASAM

The model presented here is a simple extension of the Individual-Based Atlantic Salmon Model (IBASAM) proposed by Piou and Prévost (2012) incorporating a dispersal process, which we call "MetaIBASAM". There are several existing modeling frameworks that would allow exploration of metapopulation dynamics of salmonids; we highlight the most relevant to our work in Table 3.1, including their key strengths, and summarize our rationale for extending IBASAM here. In particular, we sought a mechanistic model with potential for eco-evolutionary feedback loops (which excluded strictly demographic and analytical models; e.g., Bowlby and Gibson, 2020; Yeakel et al., 2018), integrating dispersal (which excluded demo-genetic models based on single population; e.g., IBASAM), and simulating the complexity and specificity of the Atlantic salmon life cycle (which excluded more generic and specific metapopulation demo-genetic models; e.g., Nemo, RangeShifter and models from Landguth et al., 2017 and Lin et al., 2017). For all of these reasons, we moved forward expanding the IBASAM model to the metapopulation scale.

Table 3.1: Comparison between MetaIBASAM and existing modeling frameworks to explore metapopulation dynamics of salmonids (generic models also included). SS=spatial structure; Em=emigration; Im=immigration.

References	Model type	Species	Dispersal/ Connectivity	Eco-evolutionary dynamics	Key mechanistic processes
Bowlby and Gibson (2020); Fullerton et al. (2011)	Population dynamics models, graph theory	Salmonids	 Explicit SS: multiple populations, size and distance Em: fixed emigration rate Im: distance dispersal kernel 	No	No
Berdahl et al. (2015); Yeakel et al. (2018)	Analytical model/ adaptive dynamics, quantitative genetic model	Generic, Salmonids	 Not explicit SS/ two populations Em: inherited probability/ density-independent or dependent Im: random destination 	 Inherited ecological trait Fitness: mismatch trait-site optimum (fixed) 	No
				Cor	ntinued on the next page

References	Model type	Species	Dispersal/ Connectivity	Eco-evolutionary	Key mechanistic
Guillaume and Rougemont (2006); Rebaudo et al. (2013); Bocedi et al. (2014); Schiffers and Travis (2014); Landguth et al. (2017)	Demo-genetic agent-based model of metapopulation (Nemo, SimAdapt, RangeShifter, ALADYN, CDMetaPOP)	Generic	 SS: grid landscape Em: fixed emigration rate/ density- dependent/ individual trait Im: random destination among nearest/ distance dispersal kernel 	 Multi locus system Spatially explicit fitness for each genotype (fixed) 	Simple life cycle
Landguth et al. (2017)	Demo-genetic agent-based model of metapopulation (CDMetaPOP)	Brook trout	 SS: grid landscape Em: fixed emigration rate Im: distance dispersal kernel 	 Multi locus system Spatially explicit fitness for each genotype (fixed) 	 Growth ~ temperature Survival ~ patch fitness, density Maturation ~ size Sexual selection

References	Model type	Species	Dispersal/ Connectivity	Eco-evolutionary dynamics	Key mechanistic processes
Lin et al. (2017)	Demo-genetic agent-based model of two populations (extension from Bromaghin et al., 2011)	Sockeye salmon	SS: two populationsEm: fixed emigration rate	 Multivariate quantitative genetic model Fitness: mismatch trait-site optimum (fixed) 	 No growth: inherited length, age at maturation Survival ~ density, phenotype Sexual selection
MetaIBASAM	Demo-genetic agent-based model of metapopulation (extension from IBASAM, Piou and Prévost, 2012)	Atlantic salmon	 SS: multiple populations, size and distance Em: fixed emigration rate Im: dispersal kernel (distance and attractivity) 	 Bi-allelic multi locus system Emerging fitness from fitness-related traits 	 Growth~temperature, flow, density, genetic Survival~temp., flow, density, growth potential, size Maturation (precocious and at sea) ~ energetic reserves and genetic thresholds Size dependent migration Sexual selection

MetaIBASAM aims to simulate a network of interconnected Atlantic salmon populations and to explore the consequences of dispersal at demographic, phenotypic, and genotypic levels in a unique and coherent framework. This simulation tool is a demo-genetic agent-based model representing explicitly the life cycle of the species, individual life histories from birth to death, reproduction, and transmission of individual traits to successive generations. The full description of IBASAM is available from earlier studies (Piou and Prévost, 2012, 2013; Piou et al., 2015), but we present the key features, model improvements (i.e., growth potential heritability and growthsurvival trade-off) and the main addition to MetaIBASAM: the dispersal process.

3.2.1 Key features of IBASAM

3.2.1.1 Modeling the life cycle of Atlantic salmon at the individual scale

IBASAM aims to mimic the Atlantic salmon life cycle. Atlantic salmon is an anadromous species with a freshwater phase where reproduction (in winter) and development of juveniles (in spring) occur, and an ocean phase where anadromous fish migrate and grow. During summer, juveniles face two alternative tactic decisions: maturing in freshwater (precocious maturation, males only reproducing the next winter), or migrating to the sea the following spring (as "smolt"). Those who do not mature in freshwater or migrate to the sea in their first spring can stay one more year in freshwater before maturing or migrating to the ocean. Individuals that migrate to the ocean join a common growth area (Olmos et al., 2019) where they can mature after only one year at sea ("one sea- winter" or 1SW) or stay in the ocean for multiple years ("multiple sea-winter" or MSW) before returning, most of the time, to their natal river to reproduce. Atlantic salmon are iteroparous but most of them die following their first breeding season (low degree of iteroparity, Bordeleau et al., 2020). Salmonids are considered emblematic of species with philopatric behavior (Salmenkova, 2017), but dispersal occurs regularly (in Atlantic salmon, Jonsson et al., 2003; Consuegra et al., 2005).

Within the model framework, each individual is described and followed during its complete life cycle. Individuals are characterized by 44 variables including, e.g., sex, age, size, location, state of migration/maturation, among others. Processes such as growth or survival occur at the daily scale, but individual features (e.g., size) are monitored only at the end of two seasons (winter and summer). A set of traits are genetically determined and can be transmitted to their offspring, including maturation tactics and growth capacity, using a bi-allelic multilocus system (see below).

3.2.1.2 Density and environment effects on life-history traits

In the model, life-history traits of individuals are influenced both by density-dependent and density-independent processes (Fig. 3.1). For instance, survival from the egg stage to emergence and growth of juveniles in freshwater are impacted by water temperature and stream flow (Baum et al., 2005; Jonsson et al., 2005), but also by negative density-dependence effects (Imre et al., 2005). The seaward migration decision ("smoltification") is based on a probabilistic size-dependent reaction norm (Buoro et al., 2010). Marine conditions also affect individual life-history traits through growth and size-dependent survival at sea.

3.2.1.3 Heritable traits and selective pressures

Life-history traits can also evolve in response to selective pressures in IBASAM. Maturation decision in river and sea has been implemented using the environmental threshold model (Piché et al., 2008; Lepais et al., 2017). The maturation decision is based on a comparison between the individual value of the threshold (genetically determined) and the individual energetic reserves (growth-related and environmentally determined, Fig. 3.1). The maturation thresholds (varying between river and sea, as well as male and female) can thus evolve under natural selection, which then influences the age at maturation in the population (precocious males vs. time at sea). These traits are supported by a genetic architecture which is a combination of the quantitative genetics framework and the Mendelian inheritance system. Specifically, the phenotype expression of the traits above results from the additive effect of its genetic and environmental components based on heritability and the genetic value (so-called breeding value) controlled by a bi-allelic multilocus genotype with a variable number of loci.

Sexual selection is known as an important selective pressure in fish (Kodric-Brown, 1990). In IBASAM, there is an advantage in reproductive success for larger females (higher fecundity and access to anadromous males), and a sexual selection for large anadromous males by females (Fleming, 1996, 1998). Though a fraction of the maturing parr can also reproduce based on observations of "sneaker" behavior (Fleming, 1996), there is no sexual selection by females.



Figure 3.1: Conceptual framework of the MetaIBASAM model, adapted from Piou and Prévost (2012). Processes at individual levels are highlighted in grey, where the DNA icon indicates heritable traits linked to these processes (maturation thresholds and growth potential). The dashed arrows represent the influence of both environmental and anthropogenic factors (in blue), or the influence of state variables of individuals (in italics). New additions from IBASAM, the dispersal process, growth potential heritability and growthsurvival trade-off, are identified in red. Each big rectangle represents a population, exchanging individuals with neighboring populations via dispersal.

3.2.2 Model improvements: a genetic basis of growth and a growth – survival trade-off

While growth depends mainly on environmental conditions encountered by individuals, we introduced a genetic basis for the growth potential parameter as suggested by Gjerde et al. (1994). However, preliminary analysis showed that including a genetic basis to growth potential led to its evolution toward higher values, resulting in larger individuals over time (see Suppl. Mat. 3.5.1). Indeed, because sea survival and reproductive success depend positively on size and growth (Piou and Prévost, 2012), natural and sexual selection tend to favor larger individuals with higher growth potential. To limit this directional selection and represent mortality costs of rapid growth as reported in experimental studies (Bochdansky et al., 2005; Biro et al., 2006), we implemented a growth–survival trade-off in river (Fig. 3.1, Suppl. Mat. 3.5.1; survival at sea is size-dependent). Combined with the size-dependent survival at sea and reproductive success, the growth-survival trade-off induces a stabilizing selection for growth and size and an optimal fitness value of growth potential (Fig. 3.2 A), ensuring stable size distributions in a neutral context (without selection, Suppl. Mat. 3.5.1).

3.2.3 Dispersal modeling: extending IBASAM into a metapopulation context

MetaIBASAM considers the connectivity between populations by implementing a dispersal process, i.e., adults can disperse toward other rivers of the system during their breeding migration. While there is growing interest in understanding factors influencing salmon dispersal (see Keefer and Caudill, 2014 for review, and Westley et al., 2015 for a discussion of collective behavior), quantitative estimations of dispersal are rare and the underlying mechanisms remain poorly understood. In line with models proposed by Landguth et al. (2017) and Lin et al. (2017), we assume that (1) philopatry is constant over space and time, (2) dispersal is not phenotypically and genotypically determined. However, in our model the choice of recipient population is based on a dispersal kernel that depends on distance from the natal river and the attractiveness of the recipient population (see Nathan et al., 2012 for review).

At the time of adult riverward migration, dispersing individuals are randomly selected from their population of origin j with a probability to disperse P_j , independently from their individual characteristics (Equation 3.1). The probability


Figure 3.2: Additions into MetaIBASAM from IBASAM. In A), theoretical optimal value of phenotypic growth potential (in log scale) based on mean individual Lifetime Recruitment Success (measured as the mean egg number per female; see processes details in Suppl. Mat. 3.5.1) with (fill) and without (dashed) the implemented growth-survival trade-off. In B), dispersal kernel representing the probability to disperse, for a total dispersal rate of 20%, from one donor population to ten others populations as function of their distance (in km) and their relative size. In circles and fill line, all populations present the same size; in triangles and dashed line, the five first are three times smaller than the five last populations.

 P_j is function of a constant philopatry rate (noted h), i.e., without variation between populations, fixed at initialization. Then, for the subset of dispersing individuals, the recipient population j' is determined by sampling into a multinomial distribution of parameter $p_{j,j'}$, which is the probability to disperse from the population j to the population j'.

$$P_j = 1 - h_j = \sum_{j'=1, j \neq j'}^n p_{j,j'}$$
(3.1)

With P_j the total dispersal rate of the population j, h the philopatry rate, and n the number of populations.

This matrix of dispersal probabilities p represents the connectivity between populations and is derived from a dispersal kernel (Fig. 3.2 B). Here, we assume that dispersal probability $p_{j,j'}$ between two populations j and j' is a function of the distance between their estuaries, $D_{j,j'}$. We use the Laplace distribution, a leptokurtic distribution commonly used for fish (Pépino et al., 2012), which maximizes the connectivity between close populations while still allowing some flow of individuals between distant rivers (long-distance dispersal, Equation 3.2). Because the attractiveness of rivers for anadromous salmonids can vary as a function of the population size, likely because of chemical attraction to congeners, collective behavior, and/or the influence of river discharge (Jonsson et al., 2003; Berdahl et al., 2016; see Keefer and Caudill, 2014 for review), we weigh the distance kernel by a parameter $g_{j'}$, the relative size of the destination population with other populations, to represent its attractiveness (Equation 3.3). The larger the populations, the more attractive they are to dispersing individuals.

$$p_{j,j'}(D_{j,j'},b) = g_{j'} \times \frac{1}{2b} \times \exp\left(-\frac{D_{j,j'}}{b}\right)$$
 (3.2)

with
$$g_{j'} = \frac{\log_{10}(A_{j'})}{\sum_{j'=1}^{n} \log_{10}(A_{j'})}$$
 (3.3)

With b the mean dispersal distance in the metapopulation and $A_{j'}$ the production area of juveniles of river j', considered as a proxy of population size.

Altogether, the dispersal kernel assumes that a given migrant fish will tend to

disperse to the nearest population from its natal river but this will be moderated by the "attractiveness" (i.e., the relative population size) of nearby rivers (Fig. 3.2 B). Even with a constant dispersal rate over space and time, the spatial structure of the population network, the demography of local populations, and the dispersal kernel lead to various immigration rates between populations.

3.2.4 Model parameterization and outputs

MetaIBASAM consists of a set of IBASAM sessions - with one session simulating one population - running in parallel and exchanging information about the dispersers (e.g., phenotypic, genetic values, and genotypes). Similar to IBASAM, MetaIBASAM was parameterized in a pattern-oriented modeling framework (Grimm et al., 2005) using values extracted from the literature and empirical studies (see Piou and Prévost, 2012, and Suppl. Mat. 3.5.2), and adjusted using a long-term monitoring program of the salmon population in the Scorff River (Brittany, France). We adjusted the parameters of the growth-survival trade-off (see Suppl. Mat. 3.5.1 and 3.5.2) to ensure that abundances and size at different life stages are within the range of observed values on the Scorff River. All other parameters of each population are kept identical to the IBASAM version (Piou and Prévost, 2012), except for survival rates at different life stages and a temperature-survival related parameter (dr) that have been adjusted (Suppl. Mat. 3.5.2) to updated environmental conditions (see section 3.3.1). The parameter b of dispersal kernel was adjusted to limit dispersal under 50km for at least 80% of dispersers individuals, as suggested by Jonsson et al. (2003) and Keefer and Caudill (2014). Daily water temperature, water discharge, marine growth conditions, and exploitation are the main environmental and anthropogenic factors affecting individuals in the model (Fig. 3.1).

IBASAM is coded in C++ language, and an R package named MetaIBASAM has been developed (https://github.com/Ibasam/MetaIBASAM). Each IBASAM can be parameterized by users to represent a unique population with its own demographic (area, distance), phenotypic, genetic (initial distribution), environmental (water temperature, discharge), and anthropogenic (exploitation rate) characteristics. One simulation of MetaIBASAM returns all information on individuals (e.g., unique ID, population of origin, current population, body size, genetic values) and nests (e.g., ID of parents, number of eggs) two times per year for each population.

3.3 APPLICATION: CONSEQUENCES OF A GRADIENT OF DISPERSAL RATES ON LOCAL POPULATIONS AND METAPOPULATION DYNAMICS

3.3.1 Scenario and parameterization

To investigate the consequences of dispersal on Atlantic salmon metapopulation dynamics and persistence, we ran the model for a gradient of dispersal rates P from 0% to 50%, corresponding to a large range of variation encompassing rates of straying that have been reported in the wild (e.g., Consuegra et al., 2005; see Keefer and Caudill, 2014 for review). The spatial structure of the network in the model is inspired by the salmon populations of Brittany (France; Bouchard et al., 2022, see also Suppl. Mat. 3.5.2), for which one population (Scorff) was used to calibrate IBASAM, and gene flow among populations was demonstrated (Perrier et al., 2011). The network is composed of fifteen major populations (small coastal rivers) of different river sizes and distances between each pair. We gathered the area of juvenile production of each population (population area A_i), measured annually by the angling club federations, and the distance between their estuaries (Suppl. Mat. 3.5.2). Note that the objective was not to accurately mimic each population but to define a realistic spatial configuration and diversity of demographic characteristics to explore eco-evolutionary questions. Beyond population size and distance between pairs of populations, all other parameters are the same for all populations (e.g., environmental conditions, trait distributions at initialization, etc.) for all dispersal scenarios. In doing so, we can isolate the effect of dispersal on portfolio strength from the effects of biocomplexity and diversity of population responses.

We simulated a daily time series of water temperature and water discharge for each river, with the same regime (average and amplitude) but no spatial covariation to focus on the role of dispersal and spatial structure in populations dynamics. The different models and data used to simulate these series, as well as the parameters estimated, are detailed in Suppl. Mat. 3.5.3. The daily effects of marine growth conditions on the fish are drawn from a normal distribution of similar mean and standard deviation between the populations. Exploitation rates (7% and 15% for 1SW and MSW individuals respectively, Lebot et al., 2022) were kept identical across populations.

Simulations were initialized for each population using a random draw of individuals corresponding to 25% of rivers production area A_i only to limit the computing time

without loss of generality. Phenotypic and genetic values were sampled using the same distributions implemented in IBASAM (see Piou and Prévost, 2012). Since generation time for this species is approximately 2.5 years in French populations, we simulated each dispersal scenario and population network over 50 years, which is sufficient time to detect any changes in the population dynamics and evolution of life-history traits. For each dispersal scenario, we simulated 100 replicates with a 10-year burn-in period. We ran the simulation using R version 3.6.3 and the package MetaIbasam version 0.0.6. Code and R scripts are freely available at https://github.com/Ibasam/Portfolio.

3.3.2 Simulations outcomes analysis

3.3.2.1 Network spatial structure

In our application set up, each population was independently "stable", i.e., was not growing or declining. Thus, while source-sink populations are commonly determined based on demography (growth rate) and immigrants rates, we classified each population as sink, neutral, or source based on the ratio of incoming individuals (immigrants) to outgoing individuals (emigrants) in the sea-adult returns. We considered populations with a ratio above one as *sinks*, those with a ratio below one as *sources*, whereas the *neutral* populations have a ratio near one.

Regardless of the fixed dispersal rate, source-sink dynamics within a network of fifteen populations emerged from the model due to asymmetric dispersal that was driven by differences in population size and spatial structure (Fig. 3.3 A and B). For example, larger populations generated more emigrants, and more isolated populations received less immigrants but "sent" the same proportion of emigrants. The ratio between immigrants and emigrants was highly variable between populations, as well as the proportion of immigrants, which ranged from 4% to 27% for dispersal rates of 10%. But the source-sink dynamics among populations within the network remained similar between dispersal scenarios or over time (Fig. 3.3 A).



Figure 3.3: A) In points, median over simulations of the ratio between immigrants and emigrants number of the 5 last years for each population and dispersal scenario. In red triangle, median over simulations of the proportion of immigrants of the 5 last years for each population at 10% of dispersal rate. B) Visualisation of the network emerging from MetaIBASAM simulations with dispersal rates of 10%. Circles represent the populations (with the size function of the median 5 last years population size, and color function of population type) and arrows the emigration of individuals (with the width function of the median 5 last years emigrants number) along the shorelines. The base map of Brittany shoreline comes from a French Government open data base (https://www.data.gouv.fr) with a RGF93 map projection.

3.3.2.2 Demographic consequences of dispersal: population network stability, synchrony, and persistence

For each dispersal scenario and simulation, we measured the stability and diversity of the network using the portfolio effect and synchrony metrics (Box 3.1).

Box 3.1: Stability metrics

The portfolio effect (hereafter PE) is a metric measuring the stabilizing effect of population diversity on metapopulation dynamics (Schindler et al., 2010), by comparing the measured metapopulation variance over the time series to the theoretical variance expected if the metapopulation was considered as a unique population. To do so, we used the mean-variance method from the R package *ecofolio* (Fig. 3.4, Anderson et al., 2013). Using this approach, if this ratio equals 1, it means that the network is as stable as expected if it was a single population. If the ratio exceeds 1, it suggests evidence of a portfolio effect. For example, a ratio of 1.25 means that the variance of the metapopulation dynamic is reduced by 25% as compared to a scenario where the metapopulation acts as a single population, and so on.



Figure 3.4: Estimation of the PE according to the mean-variance method. The mean-variance relationship is obtained from the mean (orange lines) and the variance (orange shaded regions) of each population abundance time series, and extrapolated to reach the observed metapopulation mean (green line and circle). The comparison between the expected (green cross) and observed (green circle and shaded region) metapopulation variability estimates the PE.

The synchrony index ϕ_x , reflecting the degree of population synchrony in their demographic evolution over time, was measured as the ratio between the detrended network variance σ_x^2 and the squared sum of populations detrended standard deviation σ_{xi} (adapted from Loreau and de Mazancourt, 2008, Equation 3.4, Fig. 3.5). This index is expressed between 0 (asynchrony) and 1 (synchrony).



$$\phi_x = \frac{\sigma_x^2}{(\sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_{xi})^2} \tag{3.4}$$

Figure 3.5: Schematic representation of local populations synchrony / asynchrony (on the left) and the resulting variability and stability of the metapopulation (on the right).

For each dispersal scenario and simulation, a population's stability was measured through the coefficient of variation of adult returns number over the 40 last years. A population viability analysis was also performed for each scenario. In particular, we evaluated the quasi-extinction risk for each population as the proportion of simulations where the abundance was at least two consecutive years below an "at-risk" threshold (defined as 5% of the population carrying capacity Rmax, adjusted in Piou and Prévost, 2012, Suppl. Mat. 3.5.2).

Our analyses revealed a non-linear relationship between dispersal and stability of the population network, resulting in an optimal portfolio effect for dispersal rates around 20%, i.e., 80% of a population returning to its natal site (Fig. 3.6 A). With strict philopatry (i.e., no dispersal), the PE was on average above 1, meaning that the population network was more stable than expected if it was the sum of the local populations. Indeed, the dynamics of all populations were stable and asynchronous ($\phi \sim 0.1$; Fig. 3.6 B). Between dispersal rates of 0% and 10-20%, the PE was increasing, suggesting a stabilizing effect of low dispersal rates followed by a gradual decline in the PE with dispersal rates above 20%. This declining trend of network stability with high dispersal rates can be explained by the synchronizing effect of dispersal, which counter-balances its initial positive effect. Indeed, we found that the synchrony of population dynamics was increasing linearly with dispersal (+70% from 0 to 50% of dispersal, Fig. 3.6 B).

At the local population level, dispersal tended to decrease the coefficient of variation of the abundance of adult returns, suggesting a stabilizing effect of dispersal on population dynamics (Fig. 3.6 C). Dispersal rates also reduced the extinction risk of small and sink populations, whereas the extinction risk of other populations appeared insensitive to dispersal (Fig. 3.6 D). Altogether, these results suggest a demographic rescue of populations by dispersal, especially for those behaving as sink populations.

3.3.2.3 Intra- and interpopulation phenotypic and genotypic diversity

Our results showed that dispersal per se can induce phenotypic diversity between populations. Indeed, we observed a slight decrease of median juvenile and adult size with dispersal for sink populations and an increase in source populations, which might have consequences on life-history tactics illustrated by shifts in the age at sea maturation (Fig. 3.7, A, B, D). Note that we assessed phenotypic changes on philopatric individuals only, to test the consequences of dispersal on each population's trait distribution without the direct influence of immigrants. As immigrants do not differ from philopatric adults in terms of size and growth potential at initialization,



Figure 3.6: Distribution (median, 95% confidence interval) over simulations of the detrended metapopulation PE (A) and synchrony (B) metrics for each scenario of dispersal. Median over simulations of local populations CV of detrended returns abundance (C) and quasi extinction risk (D) for each scenario of dispersal. Each point is a population, categorized by its type (sink/source/neutral) and a local regression is added to represent the evolution of population stability (C) and persistence (D) as a function of dispersal rates for each category of populations (sink/source/neutral).



Figure 3.7: Median over simulations of populations last 5 years median smolt size (A), philopatric adult 1SW size (B), philopatric adult 1SW genotypic value of male sea maturation threshold (C), and proportion of 1SW in philopatric adult returns (D) for each scenario of dispersal. Each point is a population, categorized by its type (sink/source/neutral), and a local regression is added to represent a global trend as a function of dispersal rates and category of populations (sink/source/neutral).

this unexpected result could be explained by density-dependent effects on river growth. Indeed, dispersal increased juveniles density in sink populations (due to higher immigration than emigration) and decreased it in source ones (Suppl. Mat. 3.5.4), affecting juvenile growth and adult life history traits as a consequence. This effect was less visible when considering phenotypic traits of all individuals (philopatric adults and immigrants) of populations (Suppl. Mat. 3.5.5).

As expected due to similar genetic distribution parameters at initialization between populations, no interpopulation genotypic diversity emerged with dispersal (Fig. 3.7 C). However, dispersal rates rapidly increased intrapopulation genetic variance in sink populations (Fig. 3.8).



Figure 3.8: Median over simulations of populations last 5 years genetic variance (of philopatric 1SW genotypic growth potential), for each scenario of dispersal. Each point is a population, categorized by its type (sink/source/neutral), and a local regression is added to represent a global trend as a function of dispersal rates and category of populations (sink/source/neutral).

3.4 DISCUSSION

We aimed to draw attention to the consequences of dispersal on the portfolio effect and eco-evolutionary dynamics of Atlantic salmon. To do so, we extended a demogenetic agent-based model (IBASAM, Piou and Prévost, 2012) into a metapopulation framework by integrating a dispersal process to simulate a set of fifteen interconnected populations of Atlantic salmon (MetaIBASAM). MetaIBASAM is freely available and can be modified to mimic various networks of Atlantic salmon populations and their demo-genetic characteristics. Although similar models exist (see Table 3.1), whether generic or applied to salmonid species, our model was designed to reproduce the life cycle of Atlantic salmon by integrating the knowledge available on this species. Moreover, it has been calibrated on one of the populations constituting the network of populations in Brittany. In particular, we used a simple but realistic spatial network to explore the influence of dispersal on stability and rescue effects. Our model induced a source-sink dynamic, though all populations showed stable dynamics. Despite this parsimonious design (populations only differ in their size and distance between each pair), we showed that dispersal rates from 10% to 50% can have significant consequences on persistence (at both local and metapopulation levels), stability, phenotypic and genetic features. Below we expand on these results and also highlight the potential of demo-genetic ABMs (such as MetaIBASAM focused on Atlantic salmon) to identify knowledge gaps and investigate dispersal, adaptive capacity, and responses of metapopulations to environmental change and management practices.

Evidence of a non-linear relationship between dispersal and portfolio effect: stabilizing vs synchronizing effects of dispersal

Our study emphasizes a non-linear relationship between dispersal rates and the stability of the metapopulation, resulting in an optimal portfolio effect for dispersal rates around 20% with the particular parameterization of our model. Using a network of two populations, Yeakel et al. (2018) also found non-linear effects of dispersal on metapopulation robustness (PE) and identified two optimums (strongest PE, called alternative stable state regimes in their paper) at levels of dispersal below 10% and 30% of the population respectively. Interestingly, the optimal dispersal rate that we report is consistent with the few empirical studies reporting dispersal rates in Atlantic salmon (Jonsson et al., 2003, 1991; Jonsson and Jonsson, 2017; Keefer and Caudill, 2014). However, it is important to note that it might depend on the adjustment of the dispersal kernel parameter and reported rates in the literature are highly variable and likely biased (e.g., site/year dependence, low sample size, hatchery influence; Jonsson et al., 2003; Consuegra et al., 2005; Jonsson and Jonsson, 2017; Keefer and Caudill, 2014). When the dispersal rate was below 20% in our model, dispersal had a stabilizing effect on population dynamics and fostered the demographic rescue of small, sink populations by increasing population size and/or limiting demographic stochasticity. Using a theoretical two-patch metapopulation model, Hill et al. (2002) also demonstrated that dispersal rates between 0% and 20% increased the time before extinction two-to four-fold, and a recent Population Viability Analysis revealed the benefit of population connectivity for persistence of diadromous fishes more generally under high productivity scenarios (Bowlby and Gibson, 2020). However, we found that the positive effects of dispersal on metapopulation stability are overcome by increased synchronization of population dynamics with higher dispersal rates (>20%), which could increase the metapopulation risk of collapse (Carlson and Satterthwaite, The "anti-rescue" effects (Harding and McNamara, 2002) associated with 2011). higher dispersal rates have been demonstrated both theoretically and empirically on patterns of synchrony (Paradis et al., 1999; Yeakel et al., 2018), but also on genetic homogenization (Tinnert and Forsman, 2017), and reduced local adaptation (Schiffers

et al., 2013).

The parsimonious configuration we simulated, using phenotypically and genetically homogeneous populations, did not allow us to fully consider the homogenizing effect of dispersal. But introducing more variability between populations in their demographic dynamics (e.g., unstable trends) or in their phenotypic and genotypic composition would open up new perspectives to better address the portfolio effect. However, we found that intrapopulation genetic variance was enhanced in sink populations receiving immigrants from nearby populations, potentially increasing adaptive capacity (Jump et al., 2009; Seaborn et al., 2021). In our study, populations did not show inbreeding depression, but one can assume that dispersal might reduce it through genetic rescue. More surprisingly, interpopulation phenotypic diversity also emerged from the dispersal process. Indeed, the asymmetric flows between source and sink populations within the network induced phenotypic changes via density-dependent effects on the growth of individuals rearing in the river, ultimately influencing their life-history strategies (e.g., age at maturation) through phenotypic plasticity. Altogether, we show that there may be a dispersal optimum at the metapopulation level that favors its stability (i.e., portfolio effect), and selection should favor local dispersal rates (within populations) that tend towards this metapopulation optimum. Thus, metapopulation optimum value would depend on species characteristics (e.g., propensity to disperse), spatial configuration (e.g., distance between populations), but also local population features (e.g., population size, density, environmental conditions, attractiveness, local adaptation, costs of migration, etc.).

Model significance, limits, and perspectives

Like any modeling study, our results are influenced by the model structure (functional relationships, parameterization, etc.) and hypotheses retained in MetaIBASAM. However, our study showcases the utility of agent-based models as virtual laboratories for exploring the possible consequences of poorly understood processes and mechanisms on eco-evolutionary dynamics, in particular dispersal which is difficult to study in the wild. Here, we used MetaIBASAM to demonstrate the implications of dispersal on the persistence and dynamics of a network of Atlantic salmon populations. Although it was not our intention to represent the dynamics of a particular Atlantic salmon metapopulation, the network modelled here was realistic both in its complex spatial scale and structure. This provided a unique source-sink metapopulation with a diversity of local dynamics, showing variable consequences of dispersal on

local populations depending on their spatial distribution and demographic features. Additionally, by its integrative nature, our modeling approach took into account all eco-evolutionary processes involved and allowed the emergence of non-trivial patterns because of complex interactions between these processes. Overall, our approach emphasizes the importance of assessing the demographic, phenotypic, and genetic consequences of dispersal in metapopulations in a single framework.

However, despite the model complexity, some processes are still represented in an overly simplified manner, especially the causes of dispersal. Like other models focused on salmonids (see Table 3.1), we simulated dispersal as a random individual process, with a probability of dispersing that was constant in space and time, and limited to a fixed expansion range. Yet, it has been shown in several species and also suggested for salmonids that dispersal depends on individuals traits (e.g., sex-biased dispersal, Li and Kokko, 2019, genetic basis, Saastamoinen et al., 2018) or populations characteristics (e.g., density-dependent dispersal, Berdahl et al., 2016). These features might modify the intensity and direction of flow of individuals and the consequences of our dispersal scenarios, because dispersal could evolve towards dispersal rates which optimize the portfolio effect. For example, Berdahl et al. (2015) tested a model including joint evolution of dispersal and local adaptation and showed that dispersal should evolve towards lower values in the context of heterogeneous populations environments. Additionally, we did not represent explicitly the consequences (e.g., costs) of dispersal, such as additional mortality or reduced reproductive success (Mobley et al., 2019). However, this is limited by the lack of knowledge on processes and mechanisms of dispersal in salmonids (but see Jonsson et al., 2003 for Atlantic salmon and Bett et al., 2017 for Pacific salmon). Thus, there is considerable room for improvement in our model, and below we highlight some potential research avenues and ideas that could be addressed by MetaIBASAM and any other demo-genetic ABM of salmonid metapopulation, based on burgeoning theoretical and empirical research on causes and implications of dispersal.

1/We need more studies to understand dispersal mechanisms and their consequences on eco-evolutionary dynamics of metapopulations.

Along with additional work estimating dispersal rates between wild populations, empirical studies focusing on individual and population factors influencing dispersal are needed to better appreciate the causes and consequences of dispersal in salmonids. Increasing attention focuses on the three distinct phases of dispersal (emigration, transfer, and settlement, Bonte et al., 2012, and theoretical models are starting to explicitly include phases of dispersal since it may strongly influence patterns of dispersal (e.g., Travis et al., 2012; Bocedi et al., 2014). However, identification of these three phases and knowledge of the underlying mechanisms are still limited in salmonids. By integrating these mechanisms (e.g., condition and density-dependence, genetic basis) in our model, we could expect dispersal rates to vary in space (between populations) and time. This could sharpen our results on the relationship between dispersal and metapopulation stability.

2/We need to evaluate how diversity between and within populations may shape an adaptation network fostering response to environmental changes.

Our study focused on the consequences of dispersal scenarios to shed light on the influence of connectivity alone on eco-evolutionary processes. However, adaptation network theory (Webster et al., 2017, Fig. 3.9) states that the resilience of ecological systems, such as metapopulation, relies on the connectivity as well as response diversity of its components (Elmqvist et al., 2003). Recent theoretical studies of coral reefs have emphasized that population diversity is beneficial for metapopulation persistence and stability in the context of a changing and uncertain climate (Walsworth et al., 2019; McManus et al., 2021a). Moreover, among population variability in thermal tolerance (e.g., Eliason et al., 2011; McKenzie et al., 2021) could increase species resistance to climate change especially if associated with dispersal (fostering evolutionary rescue). Evaluating the adaptation network theory in this context should provide information on the ability of metapopulations with variable degrees of diversity to persist under various projected climate scenarios (Fig. 3.9).

3/ We need to assess the interplay between diversity and dispersal by considering spatial structure and local adaptation.

Dispersal and diversity are key processes influencing metapopulation functioning and persistence and previous studies have highlighted the importance of potential interactions between the two (Berdahl et al., 2015, Fig. 3.9). For example, considerable research has focused on gene flow impeding local adaptation (Moore et al., 2013). The strength of gene flow may vary with the intensity of dispersal (Garant et al., 2007) and the reproductive success of immigrants (Mobley et al., 2019). Interestingly, several recent theoretical studies focused on this interplay between diversity and dispersal (e.g., Tomasini and Peischl, 2020; McManus et al., 2021b) but often on two patch population models or metapopulations with constant spatial structure (e.g., Tomasini and Peischl, 2020). Another line of work has recently identified the spatial configuration of the metapopulation as a major component of metapopulation demographic and evolutionary dynamics (Papaïx et al., 2013; Bonte and Bafort, 2019), suggesting a need to explore the consequences of the interplay between diversity and dispersal under different spatial configurations. It is very likely that different spatial structures and patterns of local adaptation in Atlantic salmon metapopulations may lead to different evolutionary and population dynamics given the amplitude and characteristics of immigrants (e.g., adapted populations can become maladapted and vice versa).

4/ We need to consider the implications of spatially structured populations for management.

Our results highlight the importance of interpreting the dynamics of local populations and defining management strategies by considering the potential connectivity between populations. Prior work has warned about the danger of ignoring spatial structure and connectivity of populations (Cooper and Mangel, 1999), but few studies have compared different management strategies while also considering the spatial structure of populations (but see Tufto and Hindar, 2003; Moore et al., 2021). While mixedstock fisheries explicitly consider variation in productivity among harvested stocks, rarely is connectivity considered. Our preliminary results suggest that any alteration in a source population could affect demography and phenotypic traits of surrounding populations. Moreover, selective exploitation within spatially structured populations could drive complex evolutionary trajectories in the whole network – whether local populations are exploited or not - because selective exploitation can induce evolution of life history traits (Piou et al., 2015; Ayllón et al., 2018).

Conclusions

In summary, we have introduced a metapopulation version of IBASAM, MetaIBASAM, a demo-genetic agent based model of Atlantic salmon populations, which we believe provides a useful and flexible framework to fill knowledge gaps about the role of dispersal in Atlantic salmon metapopulation eco-evolutionary dynamics and portfolio strength. We highlight the importance of dispersal for metapopulation stability and evolutionary pathways. Additionally, we discuss ideas for future directions using the model to explore responses of interconnected Atlantic salmon populations to environmental change and spatially structured management. Finally, we advocate for a management of populations within the adaptation network framework (Webster et al., 2017, Fig. 3.9) because maintaining diversity and evolutionary options within a network of populations is a critical step for fostering species persistence and stability in the face of environmental change (Walsworth et al., 2019).



Figure 3.9: Theoretical framework of the adaptation network theory. Both biocomplexity (e.g., trait diversity, populations synchrony) and dispersal can foster network stability through portfolio and rescue effects. The homogenizing effect of dispersal and divergent effect of local adaptation on populations can also induce negative feedbacks between biocomplexity and dispersal. Examples of promising future directions with MetaIBASAM are identified by asterisks. In particular, how various environmental conditions, climate change, and exploitation management affect network stability are questions that could be addressed in this framework.

3.5 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

3.5.1 Growth-survival trade-off in river

Formula and parameters

In river, the daily survival probability $(Sp_{i,t})$ of an individual *i* at time *t*, depending on its age and maturing status, is mitigated by its phenotypic growth potential (in log scale pG_i) through a growth-survival trade-off coefficient (*CoeffSurvRIV*_i) according to the Equation 3.5, 3.6, and 3.7.

$$Sp_{i,t} = Sp_{i,t}^{status} \times CoeffSurvRIV_i$$
(3.5)

Where $Sp_{i,t}^{status}$ can take one of the population parameters survival values as function of the individual *i* status at day *t* (Piou and Prévost, 2012).

$$CoeffSurvRIV_{i} = \frac{\exp\left(-kappaRIV \times pGres_{i}^{sigRIV}\right) - \exp\left(-kappaRIV\right)}{1 - \exp\left(-kappaRIV\right)} \quad (3.6)$$

with
$$pGres_i = \min(1, \frac{\exp(pG_i)}{maxRIV})$$
 (3.7)

Where maxRIV, sigRIV and kappaRIV are populations parameters. Since the literature regarding growth-survival trade-offs is limited (but see Bochdansky et al., 2005; Biro et al., 2006), the values of these parameters (Table 3.2) were adjusted based on anadromous returns number and size distributions monitored on the Scorff river that were used for calibrating IBASAM (Piou and Prévost, 2012).

Table 3.2: Parameters values of growth-survival trade-off in river.

Parameter type	Parameter name	Parameter value
Maximum growth rate	maxRIV	5
Shape of the trade-off function	sigRIV	3.7
Shape of the trade-off function	kappaRIV	0.001

Consequences on life-history traits evolution

Implementing the growth-survival trade-off in river limited the evolution of growth potential genetic value and adult size towards high values, as showed by MetaIBASAM simulations on the Scorff river only (without dispersal) with and without the trade-off (Fig. 3.10).



Figure 3.10: Temporal evolution of (A) growth potential genotypic value (in log scale) and (B) 1SW adult size in 10 simulations of one population (Scorff) with (black) and without (red) growth-survival trade-off implemented in the model.

Theoretical optimal value

As an illustration, and with the main model formula and parameters values used in the application study, we can compute the lifetime recruitment success of a range of individuals growth potential values to identify the theoretical optimal value of this parameter. Shortly, we created similar juveniles (weight, length, fat reserves) except for their growth potential. We computed growth (with constant temperature averaged at 15°C in summer and 11°C in winter, density effect fixed at 0.6) and survival rate (depending on individuals growth potential according to the trade-off, Fig. 3.11 A and B) after one year in river. Then, we simulated all individuals migrate to sea and computed their growth and survival rate (size-dependent) after one year in sea (Fig. 3.11 C). Finally, by considering all individuals are breeding females, we computed egg number depending on individual weight (Fig. 3.11 D). Ultimately, the Lifetime Recruitment Success is the product of the river survival rate, sea survival rate, and egg number for each value of individual growth potential, and presents an optimal value of growth potential around 0.1-0.2 (log scale; Fig. 3.2 A, Fig. 3.10 A). Thus, our parameterization, in a neutral context (i.e., no additional selective pressure), leads to optimal value of growth potential around 1: despite variability between individuals, there is on average no effect of growth potential on survival.



Figure 3.11: Processes details to compute the theoretical growth potential optimal value. A) Shape of the growth-survival trade-off for a range of phenotypic growth potential values (in log scale). B) Shape of the relationship between river survival (after one year), C) sea survival (after one year), D) egg number and phenotypic growth potential (in log scale).

3.5.2 MetaIBASAM parameterization

The Table 3.3 describes modified or new parameters compared to IBASAM, that have been collected from the literature or adjusted to observed data. Species parameters are here common to all populations, whereas populations parameters describe the spatial structure of the network, based on salmon populations in Brittany rivers (Fig. 3.12).

Parameter type	Parameter name	Parameter value	Reference / adjustment				
	Species parameters						
Mean dispersal distance in the metapopulation (km)	b	29.5	Adjusted to limit dispersal under 50km for at least 80% of dispersers individuals, as suggested by Jonsson et al. (2003) and Keefer and Caudill (2014).				
Daily survival probability by individual stage	Sp0+, Sp1+, Sp1Mat, Sp1Smolt, SpMat, SpN, SpAnad	$\begin{array}{c} 0.986621, 0.9939184, \\ 0.9883022, 0.9987859, \\ 0.9931622, 0.9997455, \\ 1 \end{array}$	Adjusted to Scorff data				
Parameters of growth-survival trade-off function in river	$maxRIV,\ sigRIV,\ kappaRIV$	5, 3.7, 0.001	Adjusted to Scorff data				
Heritability at initialization of individual growth potential	heri	0.14	Gjerde et al. (1994)				
Parameter of river growth – temperature function	dr	0.5	Adjusted to Scorff data				
Populations carrying capacity (juveniles / 100 m2)	Rmax	10	Adjusted to Scorff data (Piou and Prévost, 2012)				
Populations parameters							
Populations area of juvenile production (m2)	$A_{[1:15]}$	$\begin{array}{c} 72305, 213733, 47561,\\ 197283, 37104, 95451,\\ 106753, 164699,\\ 252659, 53603,\\ 249049, 142686,\\ 669028, 229027,\\ 326121 \end{array}$	Brittany angling clubs federations				
Populations distance between each pair of estuaries (km)	$D_{[1:15;1:15]}$	See distance matrix (Table 3.4)					

Table 3.3: Description and selected values of modified or new model parameters compared to IBASAM (Piou and Prévost, 2012). Population indicator is from 1 to 15.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	0	0	16	67	77	82	106	232	254	317	369	403	420	438	438
2		0	16	67	77	82	106	232	254	317	369	403	420	438	438
3			0	51	61	66	90	216	238	301	353	387	404	422	422
4				0	10	15	39	165	187	250	302	336	353	371	371
5					0	5	29	155	177	240	292	326	343	361	361
6						0	24	150	172	235	287	321	338	356	356
7							0	126	148	211	263	297	314	332	332
8								0	22	85	137	171	188	206	206
9									0	63	115	149	166	184	184
10										0	52	86	103	121	121
11											0	34	51	69	69
12												0	17	35	35
13													0	18	18
14														0	0
15															0

Table 3.4: Distance matrix between river estuaries (km). Population indicator is from 1 to 15.



Figure 3.12: Mapping of the coastal rivers related to the 15 populations of Brittany included in the model. The population indicator is between brackets. The base map and hydrographic system come from a French Government open data base (https://www.data.gouv.fr) with a RGF93 map projection.

3.5.3 Environmental conditions simulation

In MetaIBASAM, the objective is to simulate realistic environmental conditions; for the model application, we simulated environmental conditions similar to Brittany. Because water temperature was partially observed (23% of missing data due to logger failure) on the Scorff river only, we first estimated the parameters of the relationship between daily water temperature, discharge, and air temperature using a sigmoïd model to be able to compute water temperature from air and flow data that are more abundant.

3.5.3.1 Sigmoid model of the relationship between air, water temperature and water discharge on the Scorff

Model description

Different approaches have been proposed to assess water temperature. For example, Arismendi et al. (2014) reviewed and evaluated two widely used methods based on air temperatures. Piotrowski and Napiorkowski (2019) present new modifications of logistic regression models based on air temperature, water discharge and radiation Alternatively, Bal et al. (2014) used a hierarchical times series modelling fluxes. approach for air and water temperature, discharge, based on seasonal sinusoidal signals. For consistency, we opted for a method of calculation based on air temperature and flow as described in the report Explore2070 (OFB, 2012). To do so, we used daily time series of water discharge and air temperature between 1960 and 2017 and water temperature between 1995 and 2017 on the Scorff river (databases HYDRO, Leleu et al., 2014, SAFRAN, Vidal et al., 2010, ORE DiaPFC, Jeannot, 2019). We defined the best model based on DIC and RMSE criteria, and checked model convergence, as well as posterior and predicted values distributions with *qqplot*. Then, the robustness and predictive performance of the best model was tested by cross-validation. The crossvalidation was implemented using the half of the available time series to fit the model and make the forecasting on the other half. For each river, the water temperature at a day t depends on the air temperature of the 15 days before with an autoregression of order 15, as suggested in Explore 2070 (coefficients a), but also of the flow of the same day, with a coefficient b. α and θ are respectively the maximum and minimum water temperature and evolve in time, as function of the minimum/ maximum air temperature and the minimum flow, as suggested in Bal et al. (2014) (Equation 3.8). The minimum and maximum air temperature and water discharge are centered.

$$Twater_{t} \sim norm(\mu_{t}, tau) T(0,)$$

$$\mu_{t} = \theta_{y} + \frac{\alpha_{y} - \theta_{y}}{1 + \exp(-x_{t})}$$

$$x_{t} = \sum_{i=0}^{15} a_{i+1} \times Tair_{t-i} + b \times IQ_{t} + c$$

$$IQ_{t} = \frac{1}{\frac{module}{10} + Q_{t}}$$

$$\theta_{y} \sim norm(\mu_{y}^{\theta}, tau^{\theta}) T(0, 15)$$

$$\mu_{y}^{\theta} = \theta_{1} + (\theta_{2} \times minTair_{y}) + (\theta_{3} \times minFlow_{y})$$

$$\alpha_{y} \sim norm(\mu_{y}^{\alpha}, tau^{\alpha}) T(0, 35)$$

$$\mu_{y}^{\alpha} = \alpha_{1} + (\alpha_{2} \times maxTair_{y})$$

$$\varepsilon_{y}^{\theta} = \theta_{y} - \mu_{y}^{\theta}$$

$$\varepsilon_{y}^{\alpha} = \alpha_{y} - \mu_{y}^{\alpha}$$
(3.8)

Bayesian estimates

The parameters are estimated in a Bayesian framework with 20000 iterations using the following non-informative prior (Table 3.5, Fig. 3.13).

Table 3.5: Prior and posterior distributions of the parameters of the water-air temperature -flow discharge relationship. Posterior distribution is summarized by the median value and 95% credible interval.

Parameter	Prior	Posterior
$ heta_1$	Uniform $(0.1, 10)$	$0.87 \ [0.19; \ 1.29]$
$ heta_2$	Normal $(0, 0.001)$	0.18 [-0.06; 0.55]
$ heta_3$	Normal $(0, 0.001)$	$2.38 \ [0.84; \ 4.83]$
$tau^{ heta}$	Gamma $(0.1, 0.1)$	$1.97 \ [0.68; \ 4.86]$
$lpha_1$	Normal $(0, 0.001)$ T $(0,)$	28.08 [27.44; 28.80]
α_2	Normal $(0, 0.001)$	0.19 [-0.08; 0.46]
tau^{lpha}	Gamma $(0.1, 0.1)$	$0.67 \ [0.33; \ 1.27]$
$a_{[1:16]}$	Normal $(0, 0.001)$	See Fig. 3.13
b	Normal $(0, 0.001)$	-0.23 [-0.25; -0.21]
c	Normal $(0, 0.001)$	-2.15 [-2.18; -2.13]
tau	Gamma $(0.1, 0.1)$	$1.41 \ [1.37; \ 1.46]$



Figure 3.13: Posterior distributions of the autoregressive parameter a of the water-air temperature -flow discharge relationship. Median values and 95% credible intervals are represented.

Distribution of predictions

The distribution of predicted values of 10 random iterations was checked (Fig. 3.14); only low values of water temperature are overestimated with the model, which represents on average 9 days per year of the observed data and 1.7% of the simulated data (median over the 100 simulations for 1 population).



Figure 3.14: Quantile-quantile diagram between the observed and predicted (over 10 iterations of the model) water temperatures.

3.5.3.2 Sinusoidal model of air temperature and water discharges regimes of the Scorff

Then, we assessed the air temperature and hydrological regimes in the Scorff river using a sinusoidal model with autoregressive errors from the same datasets.

Model description

To characterize rivers flow conditions, we used a sinusoidal autoregressive model with order 1 and estimates parameters for each river j (Equation 3.9).

$$\log(\frac{Q_{t,j}}{\bar{Q}_j}) \sim norm(\mu_{t,j}, tau_j)$$

$$\mu_{t,j} = \alpha_j + amp_j \times \sin(\frac{2 \times \pi \times (t - t0)}{n}) + AR_{t,j}$$

$$AR_{t,j} = ar1 \times AR_{t-1,j}$$
(3.9)

With Q the daily discharge in m^3/s , \bar{Q}_j the module of the flow over the time period, α the mean flow, *amp* the amplitude, t0 the phase, n the number of days per year and ar1 the autoregressive parameter.

To characterize the air temperature conditions for each river, we used the same sinusoidal model with order 1 autoregression and estimates parameters for each river j.

We used a Bayesian approach to estimate parameters of interest for both models, with the Nimble package. We considered a simple model with parameters α and *amp* constant over time. We ran both models for 10 000 iterations with the following priors (Table 3.6 and Table 3.7), tested their convergence with the diagnostic of Gelman, and used *qqplot* to see if the predicted values of the model fit the observed values of flow and air temperature.

Table 3.6: Prior and posterior distributions of the parameters of the water flow sinusoidal model. Posterior distribution is summarized by the median value and 95% credible interval.

Parameter	Prior	Posterior
α	Uniform $(-4, 4)$	-0.42 [-0.47; -0.38]
amp	Uniform $(0.01, 4)$	$0.99 \ [0.93; \ 1.05]$
ar1	Uniform $(0, 1.1)$	$0.94 \ [0.93; \ 0.94]$
t0	Uniform (300, 365)	325.95 [322.46; 329.47]
tau	Gamma $(0.01, 0.01)$	22.66 [22.21; 23.11]

Parameter	Prior	Posterior
lpha	Uniform (-20, 20)	$10.71 \ [10.59; \ 10.81]$
amp	Uniform $(0, 20)$	5.87 [5.71; 6.03]
ar1	Uniform $(0, 1.1)$	$0.79 \ [0.78; \ 0.80]$
t0	Uniform (100, 200)	$117.51 \ [115.98; \ 119.04]$
tau	Gamma $(0.01, 0.01)$	$0.32 \ [0.31; \ 0.32]$

Table 3.7: Prior and posterior distributions of the parameters of the air temperature sinusoidal model. Posterior distribution is summarized by the median value and 95% credible interval.

3.5.3.3 Simulation of water flow and water temperature for each river

From the median posterior value of the parameters of sinusoidal models and the water-air-discharge relationship, we simulated daily times series of water discharge and water temperature using a daily random draw independent for each river to ensure no environmental spatial covariation (i.e., environmental synchrony).

3.5.4 Populations' density of juveniles (parr 0+)

We measured the density of juveniles in populations for each dispersal scenario and observed an increase of density in sink populations with dispersal, as immigration is higher than emigration (Fig. 3.15). Conversely, dispersal decreases density in source populations, where emigration is higher than immigration. This changes in density affect individual's growth and life history traits during individual's life cycle.

3.5.5 Populations' life-history traits by considering all individuals phenotypes (philopatric adults and immigrants)

By considering all individuals traits in populations, we can barely observe changes in adult size and age at maturation with dispersal (Fig. 3.16).



Figure 3.15: Median over simulations of populations last 5 years median parr density (by m2) for each scenario of dispersal. Each point is a population, categorized by its type (sink/source/neutral), and a local regression is added to represent a global trend as a function of dispersal rates and category of populations (sink/source/neutral).



Figure 3.16: Median over simulations of populations last 5 years median adult 1SW size (A) and proportion of 1SW in adult returns (B) for each scenario of dispersal. Each point is a population, categorized by its type (sink/source/neutral), and a local regression is added to represent a global trend as a function of dispersal rates and category of populations (sink/source/neutral).

3.6 Chapter highlights

In this chapter, I hope to have clearly illustrated the rationale, description and potential applications of our modeling approach, which meets both the needs to integrate eco-evolutionary dynamics and connectivity of populations in a single framework. Ultimately, the main lessons of this chapter are the following:

Chapter 3 highlights

- MetaIBASAM, a spatial extension of IBASAM, is a demo-genetic agent based model of Atlantic salmon populations connected by dispersal;
- MetaIBASAM builds on more generic eco-evolutionary models of metapopulations;
- Within a source-sink metapopulation, a gradient of dispersal rates between 0% and 50% can have non-linear consequences on metapopulation stability, and local populations demographic, phenotypic, as well as genetic patterns, summarized in Fig. 3.17;
- Demo-genetic ABMs such as MetaIBASAM have the potential to investigate eco-evolutionary dynamics in a metapopulation perspective and their implications for management;
- Atlantic salmon populations cannot be treated as isolated systems and spatial dispersal is an important component for understanding the dynamics of metapopulations and the resilience of population complexes.



Figure 3.17: Diagram representing the demographic, phenotypic and genotypic changes induced by the "optimal" dispersal rates (10%-20%) according to our study. The curves arrows show direct influences (positive, negative, or neutral, indicated with + or - or =), with the blue and red colors corresponding to the source and sink populations if the effect is not the same.

The parsimonious design of this study, i.e., using phenotypically and genetically homogeneous populations, allowed to showcase the eco-evolutionary effects of dispersal in a "neutral" context, i.e. through density changes. Even if this genetic and phenotypic structure is very likely in some networks such as the metapopulation of Brittany, many other networks are characterized by a variability of environmental conditions, or genetic structure among populations. Considering more variability of populations dynamics would allow to evaluate the consequences of dispersal in a context of diversity and to better examine the adaptation network theory. The next chapter seeks to investigate this interplay between dispersal and diversity, with a focus on the influence of the spatial structure of the network.

Chapter 4

The importance of network spatial structure as a driver of eco-evolutionary dynamics



Contents

4.1	INTE	RODUCTION
4.2	Мет	THODS
	4.2.1	Model overview
	4.2.2	Scenarios, simulations, and model parameterization
	4.2.3	Simulation outcomes analysis: Local adaptation / maladaptation 132 $$
4.3	RES	ULTS $\ldots \ldots 134$
	4.3.1	Dispersal and diversity among populations with a simple spatial configuration
	4.3.2	Dispersal and diversity among populations with a complex spatial configuration
	4.3.3	Among populations diversity and spatial configuration also influence within populations diversity
4.4	Disc	CUSSION $\ldots \ldots 143$
4.5	SUP	PLEMENTARY MATERIALS
	4.5.1	Growth-survival trade-off and emerging growth potential optimal
		value
	4.5.2	Asymmetry of dispersal patterns
	4.5.3	Temporal evolution of traits in all populations
	4.5.4	Relationships between local and metapopulation trait mismatch, and between evolutionary rate and the proportion of immigrants 160
	4.5.5	Local trait mismatch, evolutionary rate and demography according to spatial configuration
	4.5.6	Demography of local populations
	4.5.7	Diversity of immigrants composition
	4.5.8	Reproductive success
4.6	Сна	PTER HIGHLIGHTS 171

Following the conclusions of Chapter 3, the next step of this thesis was to evaluate the consequences of dispersal in a context of diversity among populations, and to examine the adaptation network theory. A large body of literature already provided insight into the interplay between dispersal and diversity, emphasizing that the evolutionary trajectories of local populations may be influenced by the intensity of gene flow, the intensity of selection, trait heritability, and environmental variation (García-Ramos and Kirkpatrick, 1997; Schiffers et al., 2013; Berdahl et al., 2015). However, they mainly use the framework of divergent selection and highlight the homogenizing effect of dispersal. In this chapter, we rather put our work in a context of no divergent selection, and among populations diversity is generated by perturbations. Thus, this work aims to investigate the adaptive capacity of local populations after a perturbation within a network of diversified populations. Additionally, the spatial structure of populations is rarely considered as a driver of populations dynamics, but may be of crucial importance in the evolutionary dynamics of local populations; it is thus a major emphasis of this chapter. This chapter corresponds to an article submitted for publication to the American Naturalist journal.

Lamarins, A., Prévost E., Carlson S. M., and Buoro M. The importance of network spatial structure as a driver of eco-evolutionary dynamics. Submitted. *The American Naturalist*.
The importance of network spatial structure as a driver of eco-evolutionary dynamics

Amaïa Lamarins¹, Etienne Prévost¹, Stephanie M. Carlson^{2,§} and Mathieu Buoro^{1,§}

¹Université de Pau et des Pays de l'Adour, E2S UPPA, INRAE, ECOBIOP, Saint-Pée-sur-Nivelle, France

²Department of Environmental Science, Policy and Management, University of California-Berkeley, Berkeley, CA, USA [§]Both authors contributed equally to this work.

Abstract

Investigating eco-evolutionary responses of populations to environmental changes requires better understanding of the spatial context in which they evolve. While the interplay between local adaptation and dispersal in guiding evolutionary outcomes has been studied extensively, it is often in a context of divergent selection and simplified spatial structure. Alternatively, we used a spatially-explicit demo-genetic agent-based model to simulate a network of interconnected populations of Atlantic salmon facing a perturbation shifting their genetic composition and creating diversity among populations. We analyzed the influence of the spatial structure of genetic diversity and populations on the evolutionary dynamics under convergent selection (toward a common optimum). Our simulations showed adaptation of local populations was enhanced by dispersal between initially diverse populations, providing general support for the adaptation network theory. However, the spatial configuration of populations also played an important role in their evolutionary trajectories. Overall, the adaptive capacity of the network depended on the "opportunity for adaptation" provided by immigration patterns that emerged from the connectivity structures of the scenarios tested. We highlight the importance of spatial diversity and population structure on the ability of species to respond to environmental change, with implications for management and conservation of spatially structured populations.

Keywords: demo-genetic agent-based model, perturbation, spatial structure, evolutionary dynamics, adaptation network

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Dispersal and adaptation are two evolutionary processes that can promote species persistence to environmental changes. However, gene flow (a consequence of dispersal) can also alter trajectories of recipient populations and limit local adaptation. Indeed, the extensive literature on the balance between gene flow and selection emphasizes that divergent selection across populations favors adaptive divergence while gene flow can have a homogenizing effect (Hendry et al., 2001*b*; Ronce and Kirkpatrick, 2001; Lenormand, 2002). Many studies from diverse taxa provide evidence of this tension by documenting negative correlations between genetic (or phenotypic) variation and degree of gene flow (e.g., in fish, Lu and Bernatchez, 1999; Hendry et al., 2002; in insects, Nosil and Crespi, 2004; in plants, Sambatti and Rice, 2006).

While gene flow can be a source of homogenization and maladaptation, it can also benefit adaptation to changing conditions (Garant et al., 2007; Blanquart and Gandon, 2011). Maladaptation of populations may arise from many eco-evolutionary origins (Brady et al., 2019), but perturbations constitute an important factor. Natural or human-induced perturbations may alter the phenotypic and genetic compositions of populations (i.e., diversity *within* populations), deviating them from their optimum and making them maladapted (e.g., extreme climate events, Chan et al., 2005; Shama et al., 2011; Vincenzi et al., 2017; stocking, García de Leániz et al., 2004; Stringwell et al., 2014; selective harvest, Langvatn and Loison, 1999; Anderson et al., 2008). But perturbations may also have differential effects on a network of populations and thereby influence the diversity *among* populations. Recovery and evolutionary dynamics of populations after perturbations have been investigated extensively (e.g., Vincenzi et al., 2014; García-Ulloa et al., 2021), but mostly at local scales, focusing on isolated populations (but see Bell and Gonzalez, 2011; Uecker et al., 2014). This is unfortunate because the interplay between dispersal and diversity among populations may determine the recovery of maladapted populations. Indeed, dispersal and gene flow between spatially structured populations can provide demographic, genetic (i.e., increase of *within* population genetic diversity), and evolutionary rescue effects (Carlson et al., 2014; Fitzpatrick et al., 2020; Tomasini and Peischl, 2020) favoring resilience and adaptation of populations.

Importantly, gene flow cannot occur without dispersal but dispersal does not necessarily lead to gene flow, which might explain observed local adaptation patterns despite high rates of dispersal (Moore et al., 2013). Indeed, the reproductive success of immigrants can be lower than philopatric individuals (e.g., in salmonids, Mobley et al., 2019; in seabirds, Barbraud and Delord, 2021). Therefore, understanding the factors contributing to gene flow also requires a consideration of the factors contributing to dispersal, including the spatial structure of populations. Many theoretical studies have assumed simple spatial structure of a linear environment (e.g., Andrade-Restrepo et al., 2019), two demes (e.g., Pontarp et al., 2015*a*), or populations structured as grid cells, with equal size and distance among them (e.g., Schiffers et al., 2013). However, other experimental and theoretical studies with more complex spatial structure of populations have revealed that spatial structure itself has a major influence on demography, including potential consequences for metapopulation persistence (Vuilleumier et al., 2007; Gilarranz and Bascompte, 2012; De Roissart et al., 2015; Bonte and Bafort, 2019), synchrony (Yeakel et al., 2014; Larsen et al., 2021), invasion success (Holenstein et al., 2022), prey-predator dynamics (Holland and Hastings, 2008), as well as metacommunity biodiversity (Carrara et al., 2014).

Similarly, the spatial structure of a network of surrounding populations is expected to play an important role in the evolutionary dynamics of the local populations. Indeed, heterogeneous spatial structure can induce asymmetry in dispersal with potential consequences on eco-evolutionary dynamics (e.g., via density-dependent effects). For example, De Roissart et al. (2016) experimentally showed divergence in life history traits of spider mites with variation in patch size, while theoretical studies have revealed the influence of spatial distribution of habitats on specialization (Débarre and Gandon, 2010; Papaïx et al., 2013) and adaptation to environmental change (McManus et al., 2021b). Another line of work has explored how the configuration of dendritic riverine networks influences patterns of genetic diversity (Labonne et al., 2008; Paz-Vinas and Blanchet, 2015; Thomaz et al., 2016). We build on these findings to investigate the impact of spatial structure on the evolutionary dynamics of local populations, specifically (i) the spatial genetic structure (i.e., spatial distribution of diversity *among* populations) and (ii) the spatial configuration of the network (i.e., distance between populations and their respective carrying capacities).

Investigating the interplay between dispersal and genetic diversity by considering eco-evolutionary feedbacks and the spatial structure of a network is challenging. It requires precise monitoring of populations at various spatio-temporal scales and levels of organization (from genes to the metapopulation, Baguette et al., 2017) as well as knowledge of the eco-evolutionary processes at work. Analytical and adaptive dynamics modeling approaches have been developed to provide parsimonious frameworks (e.g., Papaïx et al., 2013; McManus et al., 2021b) but may not be sufficient to understand the complex eco-evolutionary feedbacks occurring in nature (Bonte and Bafort, 2019; Govaert et al., 2019). In silico modeling approaches such as Demo-Genetic Agent-Based Models (DG-ABMs, or individual-based) including evolutionary processes and genetic mechanisms, offer an alternative (Baguette et al., 2017). Importantly, DG-ABMs do not assume an *a priori* fitness function. Instead, variation in fitness emerges from eco-evolutionary processes, individual decisions, interactions and feedbacks, resulting in the evolution of patterns structuring genetic diversity and population dynamics. By also allowing the explicit representation of the spatial structure of populations, these models facilitate the emergence of unanticipated eco-evolutionary feedbacks (Travis and Dytham, 1998). However, implementing such complex biological systems into a generic model can be challenging. Models based on well-known case studies with predefined parameters based on empirical knowledge, on the other hand, retain the complexity of the real world while exploring unobserved but realistic scenarios (e.g., dispersal patterns).

In this study, we used a spatially-explicit demo-genetic agent-based model simulating a network of interconnected populations of Atlantic salmon (MetaIBASAM, Lamarins et al., 2022c) to examine the eco-evolutionary dynamics resulting from the interplay between dispersal, genetic diversity *among* populations, and their spatial configuration. Several adaptive traits could evolve (growth potential and maturation thresholds), and their optimal value emerged dynamically from the interactions between eco-evolutionary processes. At initialization, populations genetic compositions were shifted, simulating a sudden and temporary perturbation, moving them away from their optimum. We created diversity *among* populations under different spatial genetic structures (none, gradual and random), so that perturbations may not have the same impact on all populations. We then tested a gradient of dispersal rates combined with these various spatial genetic structures and spatial configurations of populations. The spatial configuration was then modified incrementally, beginning with a simple case (equal distances and carrying capacities among populations) and progressing to the complexity of an observed Atlantic salmon metapopulation in Brittany (France). We evaluated for these scenarios the dynamics of return to local optimum for each populations on an ecological time scale (out-ofequilibrium dynamics). We expected patterns of adaptation to be influenced by the interaction of dispersal and genetic diversity *among* populations. Additionally, we expected the spatial configuration of local populations to influence their evolutionary dynamics within the network by influencing the number and traits of immigrants.

4.2 Methods

4.2.1 Model overview

We used a spatially explicit demo-genetic agent-based model, called MetaIBASAM, simulating the eco-evolutionary dynamics of interconnected populations of Atlantic salmon (Lamarins et al., 2022c). MetaIBASAM mimics the life cycle of the salmon and incorporates the extensive knowledge available to date on the species. Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) is an anadromous species that divides its life cycle into two phases: the freshwater phase, where reproduction and development of juveniles take place, and the marine phase, where growth and maturation occur. Although this species remains emblematic of philopatry, some adults disperse to non-natal rivers during their breeding migration, though this is often overlooked (Birnie-Gauvin et al., 2019).

The demo-genetic agent-based model used here has been described in two previous studies: Piou and Prévost (2012) focused on a single population and Lamarins et al. (2022c) extended the model to consider multiple populations connected by dispersal. We provide an overview of the main features of the model here and refer the reader to the earlier papers for additional details. First, the model simulates explicitly the complete life cycle of each individual, from birth to death, with growth, life history tactics and reproduction, tracking individual life history traits in each population of the network. Second, it includes eco-evolutionary processes, such as environmental effects (e.g., temperature and density dependent effects on growth and survival) and the genetic basis of traits (growth potential and maturation thresholds), allowing their transmission to successive generations. Optimal values of genetic traits emerge dynamically from interactions between the model's eco-evolutionary processes and the resulting fitness. The optimum of growth potential, for example, an important individual and heritable trait that influences life history tactics and fitness components, is the result of a trade-off between growth and survival in river and at sea (Lamarins et al., 2022c, Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.7). Finally, during the spawning migration of adults from the sea to the rivers, a parsimonious dispersal process allows individuals to disperse between populations, with a constant emigration rate over time and space, independently from the individual's features. The choice of recipient population is a function of its distance from the natal population, moderated by its carrying capacity through a dispersal kernel (Lamarins et al., 2022c). We did not apply any direct costs of dispersal (e.g., no additional mortality), and the reproductive success of dispersing individuals was subject to the same factors as philopatric individuals (i.e., sexual selection and offspring survival). Altogether, each population of the network has its own eco-evolutionary dynamics, which is influenced by dispersal (i.e., demographic changes) and gene flow.



Figure 4.1: Schematic representation of the interplay between dispersal and both components of spatial structure, i.e., the spatial genetic structure of populations, and their spatial configuration (distance and carrying capacities), on the eco-evolutionary trajectories of local populations. Dispersal intensity (rate, in yellow), when combined to diversity *among* populations, is expected to influence the proportion of immigrants and the evolutionary rates (see Equation 4.2) of local populations. Spatial genetic structure (in orange), when combined with dispersal, can modify the genetic traits distribution of immigrants, and ultimately the local trait mismatch and evolutionary rates of local populations. The spatial configuration of populations (distance and/or carrying capacity, in pink and blue) can modulate both the composition and quantity of immigrants, and ultimately the evolutionary trajectories of local populations. Finally, the evolutionary trajectories of local populations spatial genetic structure and dispersal patterns.

4.2.2 Scenarios, simulations, and model parameterization

Our goal was to investigate the eco-evolutionary dynamics of maladapted populations resulting from the interplay between dispersal, genetic diversity *among* populations, and their spatial configuration (Fig. 4.1). Our general approach can be outlined as follows. First, we applied a perturbation affecting the genetic composition of populations to equal or varying degrees and generating diversified *spatial genetic structures*. Then, we modified the *spatial configuration* of populations (i.e., distance and carrying capacity of populations). Finally, we tested these spatial scenarios for a gradient of dispersal rates from 0% to 30%, i.e., around the theoretical optimal rates (10%-20%) that maximize the demographic stability of the metapopulation in this model (see Lamarins et al., 2022c). Below we detail each of these three steps.

First, we tested the effects of the spatial genetic structure of maladapted populations in a simple spatial configuration, i.e., equal carrying capacity and distance between populations (Fig. 4.2 A-C), which maintained similar emigration and immigration rates between neighbouring populations (i.e., symmetrical dispersal, Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.8 and 4.9). Using this simple spatial configuration, we compared a scenario with no spatial genetic structure (Fig. 4.2 A) with two scenarios including spatial genetic structures: a gradual (Fig. 4.2 B) and a random distribution of diversity across the network (Fig. 4.2 C). To set both populations maladaptation (as induced by a perturbation) and spatial genetic structure, populations were initialized with distributions of genetic traits (maturation thresholds and growth potential) shifted away from their emerging optimum. More precisely, in scenario A, all populations genetic distributions were shifted by +15% of the mean compared to Piou and Prévost (2012) and Lamarins et al. (2022c). By contrast, each population had its own distribution of genetic traits at initialization in scenarios B and C, with a mean shift across populations of +15% and a range from 0% to +30% between populations (Fig. 4.2 B and C). The initial genetic diversity within populations (i.e., variance) and all other parameters were kept the same for all populations in all scenarios (e.g., environmental conditions regimes, exploitation rates, stage-survival rates, heritabilities, etc.; Lamarins et al., 2022c). Based on the optimal fitness value of growth potential emerging from the model simulations presented by Lamarins et al. (2022c), most populations were maladapted at the start of the simulations in all scenarios (optimum around 0 at log scale, Fig. 4.2 and 4.7). This allows us to evaluate the adaptive capacity of populations after a perturbation within various configuration of the network.



Figure 4.2: Schematic representation of the spatial genetic structure and the spatial configuration of the network for each scenario (A-F). At the top of each scenario box are represented the distributions of genotypic growth potential (log scale, optimum represented by the black dashed line) at initialization of simulations for the 15 populations (average over populations represented by the red dashed line). At the bottom of each scenario box, the circles represent populations (distance between them, size relative to their respective carrying capacities, color indicating the mean of the genetic distribution of growth potential at initialization), the arrows represent the dispersal of individuals (thickness of the line indicating the intensity resulting from the dispersal kernel and spatial configuration). The full simulated network is shown in Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.9.

Second, we investigated how different network spatial configurations, such as unequal carrying capacity and population distance, impacted asymmetrical dispersal and eco-evolutionary dynamics but under the scenario of random spatial genetic structure only (Fig. 4.2 D-F, Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.8 and 4.9). The model simulated the dynamics of fifteen populations, parameterized according to Lamarins et al. (2022c)in a pattern-oriented modeling framework (Grimm et al., 2005), and inspired by the spatial configuration of the salmon metapopulation of Brittany (France, Perrier et al., 2011; Bouchard et al., 2022), i.e., adjacent rivers along a coastline (Fig. 4.2). This spatial configuration contrasts with most studies of riverine systems, which have focused on the configuration of dendritic networks within basins (e.g., Paz-Vinas and Blanchet, 2015; Fronhofer and Altermatt, 2017), but is particularly relevant to dispersal *among* basins and across gradients of diversity. We sequentially modified the distance between populations (Fig. 4.2 D), carrying capacities (Fig. 4.2 E), and both (Fig. 4.2 F), based on the distance between populations and the area of juvenile production of each population as measured in the Brittany Atlantic salmon metapopulation by Lamarins et al. (2022c).

For each of the 24 scenarios (4 dispersal rates x 6 network genetic and spatial structures), we simulated 50 replicates over 50 years. With a generation time of approximately 2.5 years, our simulation time was sufficient to detect the evolution of life-history traits but short enough to remain in a non-equilibrium state to be able to contrast our scenarios. Simulations started for each population with a random draw of individuals from the population distribution parameters according to the scenarios. To limit computational time, simulations were performed for only 25% of the observed river's carrying capacity, as in Lamarins et al. (2022c). We ran the simulations using R version 3.6.3 and the package MetaIBASAM version 0.0.6 (https://github.com/Ibasam/MetaIBASAM). Code and R scripts are freely available at https://github.com/Ibasam/SpatialStructure.

4.2.3 Simulation outcomes analysis: Local adaptation / maladaptation

For every scenario, the evolution of genetic traits was monitored for each population by following the average value of philopatric adult traits over the years, averaged over the simulation replicates. Hereafter, we only show evolution patterns of the genotypic growth potential because it was the trait under the strongest selection compared to maturation thresholds (Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.10, 4.11, 4.12 and 4.13), and because its phenotypic patterns were similar to those of the genotypes, though less contrasted due to additional environmental variance (see Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.15 and 4.16). To compare patterns of local adaptation versus maladaptation in populations, we adapted the "mismatch metrics" proposed by McManus et al. (2021*b*). We computed the local population's trait mismatch (hereafter, LTM) for each scenario as the difference between the median trait value of philopatric individuals of a year *t* of all simulation replicates and the optimal value of the trait (0 for growth potential, Equation 4.1).

$$LocalTraitMismatch_{i,t} = |\delta_i - X_{i,t}|$$

$$(4.1)$$

Where δ_i is the optimal genetic trait value of the population *i* and $X_{i,t}$ is the median of the genetic trait of the philopatric individuals from the population *i* at a year *t* over all simulation replicates of a given scenario.

We also calculated the rate of evolution for each population by comparing absolute LTM values at the start of simulations (averaged over years 1 to 5, $LTM_{i,1:5}$) to the end of simulations (averaged over years 45 to 50, $LTM_{i,45:50}$), divided by the time required to reach its final LTM value ($T(LTM_{i,45:50})$, Equation 4.2).

$$EvolutionaryRate_{i} = \frac{|LTM_{i,1:5} - LTM_{i,45:50}|}{T(LTM_{i,45:50})}$$
(4.2)

We chose this metric because the final value of LTM for a population is not always the optimum value at initialization (here, 0), and because this final value can be reached before the simulations are completed.

To unveil the influence of immigrants to the local dynamics of recipient populations, we monitored the distribution of genetic traits of incoming immigrants in each of the local populations over time, as well as the proportion of immigrants.

Within population diversity was monitored via the coefficient of variation of the genetic trait of (i) philopatric individuals and (ii) immigrants over all simulation replicates for each population, each year, and each scenario.

Finally, the demographic consequences of evolutionary trajectories and populations adaptation were measured by the number of returning adults (philopatric and immigrants) averaged over simulation replicates, for each population, each year, and each scenario.

4.3 Results

4.3.1 Dispersal and diversity among populations with a simple spatial configuration

At the network scale, the three scenarios of the spatial genetic structure showed the same pattern of traits evolution without dispersal (0%). While maturation thresholds didn't change (Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.10, 4.11 and 4.12), growth potential evolved toward the optimum $(LTM_{optimal} = 0)$, illustrated by a lower trait mismatch at the end of simulations compared to initialization (-46%, -43%) and -44% on average compared to $LTM_{initial} = 0.15$ for scenarios of none, gradual, and random genetic structure, respectively, without dispersal; Fig. 4.3 A). However, the interplay between diversity among populations and dispersal showed various patterns of trait mismatch and evolutionary rates of the local populations across the three scenarios of diversity (Fig. 4.3 A and B). Without diversity among populations, the final LTM of populations remained high (-46% on average compared to initialization) regardless of the dispersal rate, while the evolutionary rates remained low (Fig. 4.3 A and B, black color). In contrast, the final LTM of populations decreased with increasing dispersal when combined with genetic diversity among populations, and this pattern was stronger when genetic diversity was distributed randomly (orange color; e.g., -79% on average compared to initialization with 10% dispersal) compared to gradually (green color; -56% on average compared to initialization with 10% dispersal; Fig. 4.3 A). The evolutionary rates of populations increased on average with dispersal for a gradual genetic structure, and even more when genetic diversity was randomly distributed among populations (Fig. 4.3 B). Finally, population recovery following perturbation was enabled by the evolution of growth potential within the population network, which was facilitated by dispersal and diversity among populations. Indeed, adaptation alone (without dispersal) did not allow the metapopulation to recover within the time frame we observed (Fig. 4.3 C). For example, in the scenario with a random distribution of diversity and no dispersal (orange color), the metapopulation abundance remained at its lowest level 50 years after the perturbation (-41% on average compared to initial metapopulation abundance) despite a reduced LTM by 44%. But when combined with dispersal, it had the highest recovery (-17%) on average for 10% dispersal compared to initial metapopulation abundance) and stability (lower CV, -34% on average for 10% dispersal compared to the scenario without dispersal and diversity) in the metapopulation's demography (Fig. 4.3 C and D). These results suggest that



œ

Spatial genetic structure

None Gradual

Randon

resilience of metapopulation is enhanced within a diversified and connected network of populations.



Figure 4.3: Above, distributions (median, quantiles 50%) of A) the final local trait mismatch (averaged over the last 5 years) and B) the evolutionary rates of the 15 local populations (represented by the crosses). Below, distributions (median, quantiles 50%) over simulation replicates of C) the metapopulation size (number of returning adults averaged over the last 5 years) and D) the coefficient of variation of metapopulation abundance (calculated over the 50 years). Distributions are represented for each scenario of dispersal rate and spatial genetic structure under a simple spatial configuration of populations. The dashed red lines represent A) the initial local trait mismatch averaged over populations and C) the initial metapopulation size averaged over simulation replicates and scenarios.

At the local population scale, the overall differences of local trait mismatch, evolutionary rates and demography between scenarios of dispersal rates and spatial genetic structures can be explained by the resulting immigration patterns (Fig. 4.4).

First, changes with increasing dispersal rates can be explained by the increase in the proportion of immigrants (Fig. 4.4 A, Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.17 B). Indeed, increasing dispersal rates had small influence on the average value of growth potential of the immigrants; it rather increased their quantitative contribution to local populations (Fig. 4.4 A).

Second, changes with spatial genetic structures can be explained by the trait distributions of immigrants, which were more or less close to the optimum (Fig. 4.4 A, Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.17 A). Without initial diversity among populations, evolution of growth potential was slow and at the same rate for all populations (Fig. 4.4 A, shades of grey), which didn't show any demographic recovery from perturbation whatever the dispersal rate (Fig. 4.4 B, shades of grey). Indeed, immigrants from neighbouring populations showed the same average value of growth potential that the recipient population (Fig. 4.4 A). In the scenario of gradual genetic structure (Fig. 4.4 A, shades of green), some populations started simulations with high LTM, while others with medium or low LTM, but they were surrounded by populations with close LTM. However, these small differences among populations were beneficial to populations adaptation relatively to the scenario without diversity, and the benefits increased with dispersal rate (increased immigrants proportion, Fig. 4.4 A). This was especially true for the populations starting the most maladapted (e.g., $LTM_{initial} = 0.26$), both in term of adaptation and demographic recovery (Fig. 4.4 A and B, Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.13 and Fig. 4.19 for all populations). Indeed, demographic recovery of maladapted populations was not observed without dispersal despite adaptation, but only when dispersal occurred, providing evidence for the evolutionary rescue effect of dispersal. Finally, in the scenario with random genetic structure (Fig. 4.4 A, shades of orange), the average value of growth potential was more contrasted between immigrants and the recipient populations. In this case, populations with high initial LTM benefited quickly and strongly, both in terms of adaptation and demographic recovery, from better adapted immigrants, as soon as there were dispersal (Fig. 4.4 A and B). But the opposite also occurred, to a lesser extent though, for populations already adapted but surrounded by populations with higher initial LTM, where immigration limited their adaptation (Fig. 4.4 A and B). For populations with intermediate LTM, random structure was still beneficial if immigrants were better adapted. Even though the patterns of evolution were contrasted among populations in this later scenario, the overall effect was an improvement in terms of adaptation of the metapopulation and of its demography (Fig. 4.3). This suggests the importance of the spatial genetic structure in determining evolutionary and demographic trajectories of local



populations interconnected by dispersal.

Figure 4.4: Temporal evolution of A) the genetic value of growth potential (log scale) of philopatric adults (full line) and immigrants (dotted line), and B) of the relative abundance of returning adults, averaged over simulation replicates, for each scenario of dispersal rate and spatial genetic structure under a simple spatial configuration of populations, in examples of populations of the network starting simulations at different local trait mismatch (high-medium-low). In A), the horizontal dashed black line represents the optimum value of growth potential. The thickness of the immigrants lines (color dotted lines) represents the averaged proportion of immigrants over time and simulation replicates.

4.3.2 Dispersal and diversity among populations with a complex spatial configuration

On average, no significant differences in local trait mismatch and evolutionary rates were observed at the population network scale between scenarios of population spatial configuration (distance and/or carrying capacity; Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.18). However, variable patterns were noticeable when examined at the local population scale (Fig. 4.5 A, Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.14 for all populations), showing contrasted evolutionary trajectories of populations induced by the variable spatial configurations tested. For example, variations in distances within the network (red color; scenario D in Fig. 4.2) reduced adaptation of some populations (i.e., higher local trait mismatch and/or lower evolutionary rate, such as for the populations 10 and 14), increased adaptation of others (such as for the populations 1 and 2), or did not change populations trajectories (e.g., population 13) compared to the scenario of simple spatial configuration (orange color, Fig. 4.5 A). The different patterns associated to distance variation within the network can be explained by changes of the trait distribution of immigrants relative to the optimum. For instance, the increased adaptation of population 1 was fostered by a trait distribution of immigrants which was closer to the optimum, mainly resulting from a reduced distance with population 3 which started simulation close to the optimum (Fig. 4.5 A). Conversely, the reduced adaptation of the population 10 can be explained by the isolation of this population from others that were more adapted.

Variations in carrying capacities within the network (blue color; scenario E in Fig. 4.2) also limited (e.g., populations 1, 2 and 3), fostered (e.g., populations 10, and 14), or did not change (e.g., population 13) their adaptation (Fig. 4.5 A), both through changes of the trait distribution of immigrants (e.g., farther from / closer to the optimum) and the proportion of immigrants (e.g., higher/lower immigration). For instance, the smaller and the larger carrying capacity of the population 3 and 2, respectively, modulated their contribution to the population 1, which pushed away the immigrants distribution from the optimum and reduced adaptation of population 1 compared to the scenario of simple spatial configuration (orange color, Fig. 4.5 A). Conversely, the increased contribution of population 13, a large population starting simulations close to the optimum, to both populations 10 and 14, increased their adaptation via the distribution of immigrants (e.g., in population 14) but also via their proportion in the recipient population (e.g., increased proportion in population 10, Fig. 4.5 A).

The simultaneous variation of distance and carrying capacities between populations

within the network (purple color; scenario F in Fig. 4.2) resulted in combined effects of the scenarios with distance or carrying capacity variation only on adaptation patterns (Fig. 4.5 A). Ultimately, these contrasted effects of variation in spatial configuration on local populations explain why we did not observe difference of adaptation metrics at the network scale. However, these local changes of evolutionary trajectories also had an impact on the demography of local populations, and strongly determined their dynamics of return to equilibrium (Fig. 4.5 B, see Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.20 for all populations).



Figure 4.5: Temporal evolution of the genetic value of growth potential (log scale) of philopatric adults (full line) and immigrants (dotted line), averaged over simulation replicates, for each scenario of spatial configuration under a random genetic structure and dispersal rate of 10%. Only 6 populations of the network (each box is a single population identified by its number from 1 to 15) are represented. The horizontal dashed black line represents the optimum value of growth potential. The thickness of the immigrants lines (color dotted lines) represents the averaged proportion of immigrants over time and simulation replicates. The spatial network illustrates the spatial structure (distances, carrying capacities, spatial genetic structure) of the last scenario F, which is inspired by the network of Atlantic salmon from Brittany in France.

4.3.3 Among populations diversity and spatial configuration also influence within populations diversity

The within populations genetic diversity was also influenced by the spatial genetic structure (Fig. 4.6 A) as well as the spatial configuration of populations (Fig. 4.6 B). The coefficient of variation (CV) of growth potential of local populations, without dispersal or diversity, slightly decreased over time (shades of grey), but it increased with dispersal rate and diversity among populations (shades of green and orange). More particularly, we observed a linear increase of the CV with dispersal rates and with time in the scenario of gradual genetic structure, while the scenario of random genetic structure showed a rapid increase of the CV followed by a slow decrease over time (Fig. 4.6 A). These patterns are related to the diversity of immigrants composition, which was higher in the random scenario than in the gradual at the beginning of simulations, and then linearly decreased over time via the homogenizing effect of dispersal (Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.21 A). Considering a random genetic structure and a constant dispersal rate, genetic diversity within populations was reduced with complex spatial configuration, i.e., variation in distance and/or carrying capacity, compared to the simple spatial configuration scenario (Fig. 4.6 B). Indeed, when population clusters were present, or population contributions to dispersal patterns were unequal due to variable population sizes, immigration composition was less diverse (Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.21 B).



Figure 4.6: Temporal evolution of the average of the 15 local populations coefficient of variation of growth potential (in natural scale, philopatric individuals only), A) for each scenario of dispersal rate and spatial genetic structure under a simple spatial configuration, and B) for each scenario of spatial configuration under a random genetic structure and a dispersal rate of 20%.

4.4 DISCUSSION

We aimed to shed light on the importance of the spatial genetic structure and spatial configuration on the evolutionary trajectories of populations connected via dispersal. To do so, we used a spatially-explicit demo-genetic agent-based model to simulate a set of interconnected populations characterized by various degrees of dispersal, spatial genetic structures, and spatial configurations. We mimicked postperturbation dynamics without divergent selection and evaluated local populations eco-evolutionary responses. We showed that the interplay between dispersal and genetic diversity can shape the adaptive capacity and eco-evolutionary trajectories of local populations as well as the metapopulation. We showed that adaptation alone of isolated populations did not allow demographic recovery 50 years after perturbation. But dispersal combined with genetic diversity among populations fostered adaptation and resilience for most of the populations - a result that was strengthened with increasing dispersal rates and a random genetic structure. The spatial configuration of populations (i.e., characterized by the distance between them and their respective carrying capacities) modulated their evolutionary trajectories in a variety of ways, depending on the properties (distance, carrying capacity, and genetic distribution) of the recipient population as well as the properties of surrounding populations. But overall, the different adaptation patterns observed across scenarios largely reflected an "opportunity for adaptation" provided by immigration (the number and traits of migrants). The variable evolutionary trajectories of populations based on spatial structures had implications for metapopulation resilience. Altogether, these results illustrate that the different components of an adaptive network and their potential interaction influence species' abilities to respond to environmental changes, with consequences for management and conservation of local and sets of populations.

Interplay between dispersal and diversity among populations

Our successive scenarios allowed us to disentangle the effects of multiple components of a network on evolutionary dynamics, including the spatial genetic structure, the distance between populations, and their demography. We first manipulated the spatial genetic structure within a network using a simple spatial configuration (scenarios without genetic diversity [A], gradual [B], and random genetic structure [C]). Our simulations showed stronger adaptation for most of the populations when diversity among populations was combined with dispersal, especially for higher dispersal rates, and when genetic diversity was randomly structured compared to when it was gradually distributed. This was best illustrated by a reduction in the local trait mismatch as well as an increase in the rate of evolution (Fig. 4.3). Indeed, dispersal rates increased the contribution of immigrants, and the spatial genetic structure determined the distribution of immigrants traits, which both determined the "opportunity for adaptation" via immigration into the recipient populations. This higher evolutionary potential of interconnected and diversified populations supports the concept of adaptation networks (Webster et al., 2017), where diversity among populations contributes to evolutionary options favoring adaptation. Here, we additionally showed that the spatial structure of genetic diversity across the network (e.g., random vs. gradual) plays an important role in the outcomes of the adaptive network.

The theoretical work of McManus et al. (2021b) also investigated the influence of environmental heterogeneity on evolutionary responses but in the context of coral reefs experiencing rapid environmental change. They demonstrated a stronger adaptive response of populations to local temperature in a network with regular dispersal compared to random dispersal, because the latter resulted in gene swamping and trait mismatch. The differences between our studies might be explained because populations were confronted with different trait optimums in their scenarios (i.e., divergent selection, which is not our case) and adaptation was favored overall if populations remained diversified (see also the similar results of Papaïx et al., 2013, where aggregation and specialization leads to a better adaptation). Building on the literature, our study provides further evidence of the influence of the spatial genetic structure on evolutionary rescue of populations but in the particular case of maladapted populations in a context without divergent selection. Taking advantage of the demo-genetic modelling approach, our study also showcased the strong positive demographic consequences arising from the rescue effects provided by dispersal and the random genetic structure of populations, at both local and metapopulation scales (Fig. 4.3 and Fig. 4.4).

Spatial configuration influences local populations evolutionary trajectories

Our work also shed light on the interaction between the genetic diversity among populations and the network spatial configuration. Even if no clear difference of trait mismatch and evolutionary rate was observed on average at the network scale between simple and complex spatial configurations, contrasted patterns emerged from the model at the scale of local populations. For a given spatial genetic structure (random), our results illustrated that variation in the distance and carrying capacity of populations can modulate dispersal patterns and contributions of populations to neighboring populations through asymmetrical flow of individuals (Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.8 and 4.9). These variable dispersal patterns, characterized by the intensity and genetic distribution of migrants, changed the "opportunity for adaptation" of immigration to recipient populations, fostering their adaptation in some cases (e.g., increased contribution of a large or nearby adapted population), while hindering adaptation in others (e.g., decreased contribution of a small or far population). These variable evolutionary trajectories observed depending on the spatial configuration further impacted local and metapopulation demography (Fig. 4.5, Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.18). These results emphasize the spatial context-dependence of evolutionary trajectories of diversified populations connected by dispersal, and the importance of considering their spatial configuration (distance, carrying capacity), combined with spatial genetic structure, to fully understand evolutionary and demographic dynamics of a network of populations.

Our results build on earlier work highlighting the influence of spatial configuration on demographic trajectories of populations. The increasing recognition of the importance of considering the influence of demography in dispersal dynamics and their consequences on population dynamics was recently reviewed by Drake et al. (2022b) who further emphasize the value of considering the "demographicallyweighted connectivity" (which they define as "an extended conceptual representation of landscape connectivity that considers, explicitly, the population dynamics and demographics"). Considering connectivity patterns as emerging from the spatial structure of a landscape has also been empirically shown as crucial to better understand demographic dynamics of populations (Drake et al., 2022a). Our work goes further by emphasizing the importance of considering the spatial structure of genetic features of interconnected populations in addition to demography to understand evolutionary and demographic trajectories of local populations. Similarly, Ranke et al. (2021) described asymmetrical dispersal that was linked to the spatial structure of a metapopulation of sparrows (*Passer domesticus*) and expected consequences for evolutionary dynamics of populations.

Temporal dynamics of within populations diversity

Within-population diversity has been the focus of extensive study because it is considered as the basic material for evolution and adaptation of local populations to new conditions in the future (Jump et al., 2009). Without diversity among populations, the diversity within populations remained low and even decreased throughout our simulations due to selection. Initial genetic diversity among populations of the network globally increased within-population diversity, but with contrasted temporal patterns depending on the spatial genetic structure. In our simulations, a gradual change in genetic structure progressively increased within-population diversity, while it quickly reached a maximum and then decreased with a random genetic structure. The complex spatial configuration of the network also reduced genetic diversity within populations, because immigrants were less diversified with population clustering and unequal contributions of populations to dispersal patterns. Overall, the patterns of genetic diversity within populations were influenced by the diversity of the immigrant composition, which was a result of the scenario and was temporally dynamic. Thus, we demonstrate that population spatial structure can influence within-population diversity, as well as the importance of considering the temporal context of population dynamics in addition to the spatial context when assessing the state of a local population.

Perspectives and management implications

Spatially explicit demo-genetic individual based models are powerful tools to explore eco-evolutionary dynamics of spatially structured populations. One of the most interesting properties of this type of approach is the ability to generate eco-evolutionary patterns without specifying the fitness function. For example, Fronhofer and Altermatt (2017) showed that dispersal strategies evolve in response to the spatial structure of genetic relatedness (to avoid kin competition) and network properties (topology and connectivity) influence spatio-temporal correlations in fitness expectations. More realistic design of spatial and temporal heterogeneity between populations in modeling approaches such as MetaIBASAM hold promise for providing insight into dynamics of diversified networks (Travis and Dytham, 1998).

Having said that, there is much room for improvement of our model, including a consideration of additional mechanisms that could strongly influence eco-evolutionary dynamics. Given the complexity of the model, we adopted a parsimonious approach focusing on the evolution of growth potential, an important trait in life history theory. The dispersal trait was kept as simple as possible, only influenced by distance between populations and attractivity (carrying capacity). But other important dispersal mechanisms could be explored, such as density-dependence (both for emigration and

immigration, e.g., reviewed in Harman et al., 2020; in salmonids, Berdahl et al., 2016), habitat choice (e.g., based on environmental similarity, Mortier et al., 2019), as well as the genetic basis of dispersal itself (Saastamoinen et al., 2018). Including these mechanisms might change the dispersal patterns in space and time, and ultimately influence the eco-evolutionary dynamics of local populations (Peniston et al., 2019).

While we did not explore the evolution of dispersal, this is a potential fruitful direction for future studies building on our approach. Prior work has revealed that dispersal can be selected against in heterogeneous environments because of local adaption, but dispersal can also be selected for as a spreading strategy when environments vary in space and time, to reduce kin competition, or because it favors the propagation of advantageous genes (Lenormand, 2002). Thus, we hypothesize that in our model dispersal should evolve depending on (i) the spatial structure of adaptive traits, (ii) characteristics of populations within a network (e.g., small vs. large populations to avoid kin competition) and (iii) environmental changes (e.g., increasing spatial synchrony), modifying the local trait mismatch and evolutionary rates. Regardless of the dispersal rate, gene flow could be lower than the dispersal rate because of reduced reproductive success of immigrants (i.e., pre/post zygotic lower fitness) or higher if immigrants have higher reproductive success (due to sexual selection that favors immigrants and/or higher survival of their offspring). This pattern emerged from our model simulations where reproductive success of immigrants was higher than philopatric adults in most maladapted populations, whereas it was lower in adapted populations (for females only, see Suppl. Mat. Fig. 4.22); dispersal propensity could thus evolve as function of local adaptation patterns. It is then crucial to consider both dispersal (i.e., demographic consequences) and gene flow (i.e., evolutionary consequences) together and their variation in space and time (e.g., Peniston et al., 2019; Drake et al., 2022a).

We build on many studies that already advocate for the conservation of adaptation networks with population diversity and connectivity (Webster et al., 2017; Walsworth et al., 2019). However, our results further emphasize that the spatial structure, i.e., spatial genetic structure and spatial configuration of populations, are important drivers of local evolutionary and demographic dynamics that must be considered when managing populations. Ideally, identifying key populations based on their influence on eco-evolutionary dynamics of the metapopulation (e.g. adaptive value, higher genetic diversity) could enhance adaptation and conservation success. Importantly, exploitation and climate change are expected to affect the spatial structure of diversity via the synchronization of environmental conditions and/or selective effects (Parmesan and Yohe, 2003; Bellmore et al., 2022). A future avenue of research building on our approach is to investigate how a network of diverse populations cope with selective exploitation and climate change, and to determine if there are preferable management strategies considering the spatial structure of populations. More generally, we argue that management strategies should consider not only diversity *within* populations but also *among* interconnected populations to foster rescue effects and adaptation network (Webster et al., 2017; Moore and Schindler, 2022).

4.5 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

4.5.1 Growth-survival trade-off and emerging growth potential optimal value

A growth-survival trade-off has been implemented in river in MetaIBASAM, as described in Lamarins et al. (2022c), to limit directional selection towards higher values of growth potential. Combined with the size-dependent survival at sea (larger individuals survive better) and reproductive success (higher fecundity of larger individuals), the growth-survival trade-off induces a stabilizing selection for growth and size and an optimal fitness value of growth potential emerges dynamically from the model. This optimal value can be observed via the convergent evolution of populations in the scenarios without dispersal, and estimated theoretically in a neutral context (Fig. 4.7, Lamarins et al., 2022c).



Figure 4.7: Theoretical optimal value of phenotypic growth potential (in log scale) based on mean individual Lifetime Recruitment Success (measured as the mean egg number per female; see processes details in Suppl. Mat. of Lamarins et al., 2022c).

4.5.2 Asymmetry of dispersal patterns

The ratio of the number of immigrants and emigrants in each population illustrates the asymmetry in dispersal patterns for the different scenarios tested. For the scenarios of simple spatial configuration [A-C], the ratio was around 0 (Fig. 4.8 A), i.e., the

dispersal fluxes were symmetrical, whereas variations of the ratio emerged with a complex spatial configuration [D-F] (Fig. 4.8 B), reflecting asymmetrical fluxes of migrants between populations.



Figure 4.8: Distributions (median, quantiles 50%) over simulation replicates of the ratio Immigrants / Emigrants (in log scale), averaged over the last 5 years, of each of the 15 populations in the scenarios of A) spatial distribution of diversity and B) spatial configuration of populations, for a dispersal rate of 10%.

The simulated networks in the different scenarios, resulting from the spatial configuration (distances and carrying capacities), the spatial distribution of genetic diversity, dispersal rate, and population dynamics, are presented in Fig. 4.9. Overall, the three scenarios of simple spatial configuration showed symmetric dispersal patterns (Fig. 4.9 A-C), whereas the three scenarios of complex spatial configuration showed asymmetric dispersal patterns (Fig. 4.9 D-F).



Figure 4.9: Spatial configuration and distribution of genetic diversity of the simulated networks of each scenario (A-F) for a dispersal rate of 10%. The circles represent the 15 populations (distance and size relative to distance between them and their population size during the first 5 years, color representing the mean of the growth potential distribution at initialization), the arrows represent the dispersal of individuals (thickness function of the quantity of migrants during the first 5 years emerging from the dispersal kernel and spatial configuration).

4.5.3 Temporal evolution of traits in all populations

We monitored the evolution of maturation thresholds genotypes (Fig. 4.10, 4.11 and 4.12), growth potential genotype (Fig. 4.13 and 4.14) and phenotype (Fig. 4.15 and 4.16) for each population, by following the adult traits of both philopatric individuals and immigrants, averaged over the simulation replicates, for the scenarios of spatial distribution of diversity and spatial configuration. Results indicated that growth potential was under strong selection, characterized by the evolution of populations with high initial LTM towards the optimum without dispersal (Fig. 4.13), whereas it was not the case for maturation thresholds (Fig. 4.10, 4.11 and 4.12). The effect of immigration on populations trajectories seemed nevertheless the same for maturation thresholds compared to growth potential. We thus focused our analysis of the effect of spatial structure on the evolutionary trajectories of growth potential.

Maturation thresholds



Figure 4.10: Temporal evolution of the genetic value of male river maturation threshold of philopatric adults (full line) and immigrants (dotted line), averaged over simulation replicates, for each scenario of dispersal rate and spatial distribution of diversity (none [A], gradual [B], random [C], see Fig. 4.2 of the main manuscript) in each of the 15 populations ordered by the initial LTM. The thickness of the immigrants lines (color dotted lines) represents the averaged proportion of immigrants over time and simulation replicates.



Figure 4.11: Temporal evolution of the genetic value of male sea maturation threshold of philopatric adults (full line) and immigrants (dotted line), averaged over simulation replicates, for each scenario of dispersal rate and spatial distribution of diversity (none [A], gradual [B], random [C], see Fig. 4.2 of the main manuscript) in each of the 15 populations ordered by the initial LTM. The thickness of the immigrants lines (color dotted lines) represents the averaged proportion of immigrants over time and simulation replicates.



Figure 4.12: Temporal evolution of the genetic value of female sea maturation threshold of philopatric adults (full line) and immigrants (dotted line), averaged over simulation replicates, for each scenario of dispersal rate and spatial distribution of diversity (none [A], gradual [B], random [C], see Fig. 4.2 of the main manuscript) in each of the 15 populations ordered by the initial LTM. The thickness of the immigrants lines (color dotted lines) represents the averaged proportion of immigrants over time and simulation replicates.

Growth potential



Figure 4.13: Temporal evolution of the genetic value of growth potential (log scale) of philopatric adults (full line) and immigrants (dotted line), averaged over simulation replicates, for each scenario of dispersal rate and spatial distribution of diversity (none [A], gradual [B], random [C], see Fig. 4.2 of the main manuscript) in each of the 15 populations ordered by the initial LTM. The horizontal dashed black line represents the optimum value of growth potential. The thickness of the immigrants lines (color dotted lines) represents the averaged proportion of immigrants over time and simulation replicates.



Figure 4.14: Temporal evolution of the genetic value of growth potential (log scale) of philopatric adults (full line) and immigrants (dotted line), averaged over simulation replicates, for each scenario of spatial configuration [C-F, see Fig. 4.2 of the main manuscript] under a random distribution of diversity and a dispersal rate of 10%, in each of the 15 populations. The horizontal dashed black line represents the optimum value of growth potential. The thickness of the immigrants lines (color dotted lines) represents the averaged proportion of immigrants over time and simulation replicates.



Figure 4.15: Temporal evolution of the phenotypic value of growth potential (log scale) of philopatric adults (full line) and immigrants (dotted line), averaged over simulation replicates, for each scenario of dispersal rate and spatial distribution of diversity (none [A], gradual [B], random [C], see Fig. 4.2 of the main manuscript) in each of the 15 populations ordered by the initial LTM. The horizontal dashed black line represents the optimum value of growth potential. The thickness of the immigrants lines (color dotted lines) represents the averaged proportion of immigrants over time and simulation replicates.



Figure 4.16: Temporal evolution of the phenotypic value of growth potential (log scale) of philopatric adults (full line) and immigrants (dotted line), averaged over simulation replicates, for each scenario of spatial configuration [C-F, see Fig. 4.2 of the main manuscript] under a random distribution of diversity and a dispersal rate of 10%, in each of the 15 populations. The horizontal dashed black line represents the optimum value of growth potential. The thickness of the immigrants lines (color dotted lines) represents the averaged proportion of immigrants over time and simulation replicates.
4.5.4 Relationships between local and metapopulation trait mismatch, and between evolutionary rate and the proportion of immigrants

To reveal the influence of immigrants to the local population dynamic, we measured the distribution of genetic traits of incoming immigrants in each of the local populations over time, i.e., the metapopulation trait mismatch (adapted at the individual level from McManus et al., 2021b, Equation 4.3), as well as the proportion of immigrants (Equation 4.4), representing the qualitative (genetic characteristics of immigrants) and quantitative contribution of immigrants to the recipient population, respectively.

$$MetapopulationalTraitMismatch_{i,t} = |\delta_i - Ximmi_{i,t}|$$
(4.3)

$$ProportionImmigrants_{i,t} = \frac{Nim_{i,t}}{N_{i,t}}$$
(4.4)

Where δ_i is the optimal genetic trait value of the recipient population *i*, $Ximmi_{i,t}$ is the median of the genetic trait of all immigrants to the recipient population *i* at time *t*, $Nim_{i,t}$ is the number of immigrants and $N_{i,t}$ the population size of the recipient population *i* at time *t*.

We showed a strong positive relationship between the local trait mismatch of populations and the metapopulation trait mismatch, i.e., the distribution of immigrants trait relative to the optimum (Fig. 4.17 A). The closer are the immigrants' traits to the optimum (i.e., low metapopulation trait mismatch), the more the population is locally adapted at the end of the simulation (i.e., low local trait mismatch).

We found a slight positive relationship between the evolutionary rate of populations and the proportion of immigrants when dispersal is combined with genetic diversity (no relationship in the scenario without diversity, Fig. 4.17 B). The relationship was stronger for the scenarios of complex spatial configuration including variation in carrying capacities of populations (scenarios E and F, see Fig. 4.2 of the main manuscript), leading to a higher range of proportion of immigrants. Overall, the more the immigrants contributed to the population, the faster the population evolved.



Figure 4.17: Relationship A) between the local trait mismatch and the metapopulation trait mismatch of populations (averaged over the last 5 years), and B) between the evolutionary rate of populations and the proportion of immigrants (averaged over the 50 years), for each scenario of spatial genetic structure and spatial configuration. Each point of a specific color is a population for a dispersal rate.

4.5.5 Local trait mismatch, evolutionary rate and demography according to spatial configuration

At the network scale, for a random genetic structure, the various spatial configurations of populations showed minor differences in the averaged local population trait mismatch and evolutionary rates (Fig. 4.18 A and B). A slight trend, consistent across dispersal rates, depicted lower evolutionary rates with distance variations and higher evolutionary rates with variation of carrying capacity compared to the simple spatial configuration (Fig. 4.18 B). These slight patterns may not be generalized because they strongly depend on the particular spatial configuration and genetic structure tested in this study (e.g., one large population which is adapted tend to increase the evolutionary rates of several populations). Spatial configuration also slightly affected metapopulation demography. Variation in distance and carrying capacities decreased metapopulation size and increased metapopulation CV, while the combination of the two did not affect metapopulation demography (Fig. 4.18 C and D).



Figure 4.18: Above, distributions (median, quantiles 50%) of A) the final local trait mismatch (averaged over the last 5 years) and B) the evolutionary rates of the 15 local populations (represented by the crosses). The dashed red line represents the initial local trait mismatch averaged over populations. Below, distributions (median, quantiles 50%) over simulation replicates of C) the metapopulation size (number of returning adults averaged over the last 5 years) and D) the coefficient of variation of metapopulation abundance (calculated over the 50 years). Distributions are represented for each scenario of dispersal rate and spatial configuration under a random genetic structure.

4.5.6 Demography of local populations

We monitored the temporal demography of local populations via the number of returning adults in each population for the scenarios of spatial genetic structure (Fig. 4.19). Results showed the rapid negative demographic effect of maladaptation in the scenario A (without genetic diversity, see population with initial LTM of 0.15), which is not compensated by increasing dispersal rates. In the scenario B (gradual

genetic structure), the populations starting simulations with high mean value of LTM showed demographic effects of maladaptation, which were slightly compensated by increasing dispersal rates, whereas the populations starting simulations with a weak LTM did not show any demographic change (except the last one with a range margin effect for high dispersal rates). The scenario of random genetic structure (C) showed contrasted demographic effects depending on populations. The negative effect of maladaptation was strongly counteracted over time with dispersal in the populations starting with high LTM, whereas populations starting with low LTM showed slight effect of maladaptation with dispersal.

We also monitored the temporal demography of local populations for the scenarios of spatial configuration (Fig. 4.20). Results also showed the demographic effects of adaptation / maladaptation patterns that were modulated by variations of distance or/and changes of carrying capacities of populations compared to the simple spatial configuration (Fig. 4.20).



Figure 4.19: Temporal evolution of the number of returning adults (including immigrants) relative to the first year, averaged over simulation replicates, for each scenario of dispersal rate and spatial genetic structure (none [A], gradual [B], random [C], see Fig. 4.2 of the main manuscript) in each of the 15 populations ordered by initial LTM.



Figure 4.20: Temporal evolution of the number of returning adults (including immigrants) relative to the first year, averaged over simulation replicates, for each scenario of dispersal rate and spatial configuration [C-F, see Fig. 4.2 of the main manuscript], in each of the 15 populations.

4.5.7 Diversity of immigrants composition

The diversity of immigrants genetic traits incoming to local populations was monitored over time for each scenario and averaged over populations. The CV of immigrants composition was higher for the scenarios of among populations diversity compared to the scenario without diversity (Fig. 4.21 A). It linearly increased with time and dispersal rates for the gradual genetic structure, while it was very high at the beginning of simulations and then linearly decreased over time and with increasing dispersal rates with a random genetic structure (Fig. 4.21 A). For a dispersal rate of 20% and a random genetic structure, immigrants composition was on average lower when spatial configuration was complex, especially for variations in carrying capacities and after 20-30 years of simulations. At the end of simulations, differences were dampened (Fig. 4.21 B).



Figure 4.21: Temporal evolution of the coefficient of variation of growth potential (in natural scale) among immigrants, averaged over the 15 recipient populations, A) for each scenario of dispersal rate and spatial genetic structure under a simple spatial configuration, and B) for each scenario of spatial configuration under a random genetic structure and a dispersal rate of 20%.

4.5.8 Reproductive success

To explore potential differences in the reproductive success of immigrants vs philopatric individuals, we computed the Lifetime Reproductive Success (LRS) as the number of returning adult per returning adult for each sex and both sex together. We compared the temporal evolution of the average LRS over individuals and simulations between philopatric and immigrants for a dispersal rate of 10% in the scenario of random distribution of diversity, which was the most contrasted in terms of differences between the traits of philopatric individuals and immigrants.

Results (Fig. 4.22) showed contrasted patterns across populations and between sex. Indeed, for populations starting simulations with a high LTM, the LRS of incoming immigrants was higher than philopatric individuals at the beginning of simulations, regardless the sex. Then, while these populations evolve towards the optimum, the LRS of philopatric individuals increased and was similar to that of immigrants at the end of simulations. Conversely, for populations starting simulations with a low LTM, the LRS of females immigrants was lower than philopatric females, while the males immigrants showed higher LRS than philopatric males at the beginning of simulations. These differences between sex is likely due to the high size-dependent sexual selection on males. For populations starting simulations with a medium LTM, the LRS of immigrants and philopatric individuals was similar for both sex.







Figure 4.22: Temporal evolution of the average Lifetime Reproductive Success (LRS) of philopatric individuals (in blue) and immigrants (in red), averaged over simulation replicates, for each population, by sex or with the sexes combined, for a dispersal rate of 10% and a random spatial distribution of diversity (scenario C).

4.6 CHAPTER HIGHLIGHTS

In this chapter, I hope to have clearly illustrated the importance of considering the diversity among populations (additionally to the within-population diversity) and their spatial configuration to better appreciate metapopulation and local populations ecoevolutionary dynamics. The main lessons of this chapter are the following:

Chapter 4 highlights

- In a context without divergent selection, dispersal, combined with genetic diversity among populations, can foster adaptation of local populations after perturbations. This is particularly true with increasing dispersal rates and a random spatial genetic structure;
- The spatial configuration of populations (distance and carrying capacity) may also modulate the evolutionary trajectories of local populations, depending on the properties of the recipient population as well as the properties of surrounding populations;
- Immigration may provide an "opportunity for adaptation" for local populations, which supports the concept of adaptation networks;
- Results suggest that management of local populations would benefit from a consideration of the spatial structure and features of surrounding populations that are connected by dispersal, and provide support for a management of populations diversity according to the portfolio approach.

After having identified the importance of considering the spatial structure of populations, a future avenue of research building on our approach was to investigate how a network of populations would cope with selective exploitation and to determine if there are preferable management strategies for considering the spatial structure of populations.

CHAPTER 5 Management strategies of exploited Atlantic salmon metapopulation



Contents

5.1	INTRODUCTION								
5.2	Methods								
	5.2.1	A spatially realistic demo-genetic agent-based model $\ . \ . \ . \ . \ . \ . \ . \ . \ . \ $							
	5.2.2	Scenarios of local exploitation rate, management strategies, and							
		dispersal rate							
	5.2.3	Simulations outcomes analysis							
5.3	RES	ULTS							
	5.3.1	Demographic consequences							
	5.3.2	Evolutionary consequences							
	5.3.3	Phenotypic and life history strategy consequences							
5.4	Disc	CUSSION \ldots 293							
5.5	SUP	PLEMENTARY MATERIALS							
	5.5.1	Relationship between PFA and MER using a population							
		dynamics model							
	5.5.2	Compensatory effect of immigration on exploitation $\dots \dots \dots$							
	5.5.3	Dynamics of source-sink structure with exploitation $\ldots \ldots \ldots 207$							
5.6	Сна	PTER HIGHLIGHTS 208							

In the light of Chapter 3 and 4 conclusions, which showed the importance of considering dispersal patterns and network spatial structure to better appreciate ecoevolutionary dynamics of populations, we then investigated the implications of these findings for the management of exploited populations of Atlantic salmon. Indeed, conservation or exploitation strategies could interfere with metapopulation functioning if ignored. For instance, exploitation of a productive population could also affect neighbouring populations highly supported by immigration, or focusing conservation actions on the genetic diversity of a focal population without considering the potential influence of immigration could also be misleading. Selective exploitation also induces evolutionary changes which could be variable within a metapopulation. Therefore, we explored in this chapter the demographic and evolutionary consequences of spatialized management strategies of exploited Atlantic salmon, within a metapopulation context, by using MetaIBASAM. This chapter follows up on preliminary analyses carried out by an intern I supervised (Tewann Beauchard). The results presented in this chapter are still being analyzed and a publication is being prepared with the collaboration of Mathieu Buoro, Stephanie Carlson and Etienne Prévost.

Lamarins, A., Beauchard T., Prévost E., Carlson S. M., and Buoro M. Management strategies of exploited Atlantic salmon metapopulation. In prep.

Management strategies of exploited Atlantic salmon metapopulation

Amaïa Lamarins¹, Tewann Beauchard¹, Etienne Prévost¹, Stephanie M. Carlson² and Mathieu Buoro¹

¹Université de Pau et des Pays de l'Adour, E2S UPPA, INRAE, ECOBIOP, Saint-Pée-sur-Nivelle, France

²Department of Environmental Science, Policy and Management, University of California-Berkeley, Berkeley, CA, USA

Abstract

While the eco-evolutionary consequences of dispersal and exploitation are increasingly recognized, consideration of these effects - potentially in interaction - for management and conservation is limited. Here, we evaluated population exploitation in a metapopulation perspective, by using the case of Atlantic salmon which is still managed at the local population scale while dispersal has been demonstrated. Specifically, we compared a management strategy that was not spatialized with other that accounted for the asymmetry of dispersal patterns (i.e., focusing on sink or source populations), in order to meet both conservation and exploitation objectives. We used a demo-genetic agent-based model to examine both demographic and evolutionary consequences of these strategies for various dispersal rates and a gradient of local exploitation rates. We showed differences in the consequences of spatialized management strategies and a benefit of protecting source populations from exploitation for a certain range of exploitation rates and dispersal rates, in terms of abundance but not in terms of stability. Simulations also showed contrasted ecoevolutionary consequences between management strategies, indicating that interactive effect of plastic, evolutionary responses and immigration dilution are difficult to disentangle. Overall, our results show that without knowledge on metapopulation functioning, the safest strategy remains to spread the exploitation effort over all populations.

Keywords: management strategies, eco-evolutionary consequences, exploitation, Atlantic salmon, dispersal

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the context of global change, there is a growing tension between exploitation and conservation of natural resources. Indeed, the recent global decline in biodiversity has led management authorities and researchers to revisit how they manage threatened species and how they exploit others, and this is particularly critical in a context of accelerating climate change. A general consensus is to better acknowledge and consider the ecology of species as part of management decisions, as well as ecosystems functioning and the relationships between harvested resources and harvesters in the case of exploited species. Although there is a growing recognition of these essential elements, major common challenges remain - how to conserve?, how to manage?, what to prioritize?, what are the best strategies? (what?, where?, when?, e.g., McDonald-Madden et al., 2011). But answers to these questions might depend on the local context and the objectives to be reached, such maintaining abundance, stability, or productivity.

However, general guidelines emerge from the literature. Among them, several studies argue that we need to better consider the ecological features of the studied system to determine the appropriate scale of management. For instance, Moore (2015) discussed the implications of river networks connectivity for the management of watersheds, considering water, sediments and animals all together. Importantly, he stressed the need to align the scale of management with the scale of the river system, since upstream activities can affect downstream parts (e.g., chemical contamination) and vice versa (e.g., dams affecting upriver migration) through the bidirectional connectivity of rivers. Another typical example is the effectiveness of Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) on coral reefs conservation around the globe (see Mora et al., 2006 for review). Although MPAs prevent marine organisms from being harvested in a specific area, individual movements outside this area may limit the effectiveness of this conservation action.

Indeed, dispersal is a ubiquitous trait in organisms and a major eco-evolutionary process which may extend and obscure the scale of management to be considered. Because of the movements of individuals between spatially structured populations, metapopulation functioning raises questions about management strategies and several ideas have been discussed in the literature (Akçakaya et al., 2007). First, managing at population scale might be misleading, because the abundance of a patch does not always capture its productivity. In a source-sink metapopulation, a management action on a local patch could be perceived as successful when the observed demographic

changes could be solely due to increased immigration, or conversely, could be perceived as detrimental when the changes are due to increased emigration. Cooper and Mangel (1999) illustrated this "danger of ignoring metapopulation structure for conservation" with the example of salmonids but it can apply to any species with a metapopulation functioning. Moreover, an often overlooked aspect is that a local management action (e.g., restocking, habitat restoration) may not only impact the local population, but also other populations that are interconnected through dispersal. Thus, focusing at a larger scale than local population is highly recommended when dispersal occurs within a system of populations. However, some studies also shed light on the risk of focusing on a too large scale of management. This is especially the case of mixed stocked fisheries, where harvesting of a set of populations as a whole large stock have been shown to lead to overexploitation and risk of collapse of sub-populations of various species (cod, Hutchinson, 2008; herring, Okamoto et al., 2020; Stier et al., 2020; sockeye salmon, Moore et al., 2021; croaker, Ying et al., 2011).

Thus, sustainable management of metapopulations requires a larger view than population scale but still acknowledging and considering the specificities and drivers of local populations dynamics, although it might strongly depend on the demographic and genetic connectivity of the network (Hawkins et al., 2016). This comprehensive view requires a good knowledge of local and regional ecological processes governing populations dynamics such as dispersal patterns. However, others have also already pointed out that "developing harvest strategies for spatially complex fish populations remains a major challenge" (Benson et al., 2015). It is still not intuitive to know what is the best strategy to adopt within a set of interconnected populations, what populations to prioritize when there is resource limitation or conflicting objectives between conservation and yield (in the case of harvested species). Some studies advocate for the protection of certain populations over others based on various criteria such as population size (Okamoto et al., 2020), whether they are source or sink (Crowder et al., 2000; Tufto and Hindar, 2003; Fullerton et al., 2016), their influence on spatial synchrony (Engen et al., 2018), or a set of connectivity metrics (Kininmonth et al., 2019). As discussed by Bradford and Braun (2021), protecting some populations over others, such as the productive source ones, might improve the demographic resilience of the metapopulation in the short term. But in the longer term, it could be relevant to maintain a diversity of habitats, of populations genetics and dynamics, because this biocomplexity provides resilience of metapopulations to environmental changes (Anderson et al., 2015; Walsworth et al., 2019; Moore and Schindler, 2022). It could also provide stability of yields in the case of exploited species (Hilborn et al.,

2003; Schindler et al., 2010; Freshwater et al., 2019; Connors et al., 2022). Thus, managing a diversity of populations also appears crucial to improve metapopulation stability and resilience.

However, consequences of actions on metapopulations are not only at demographic level but can also induce changes at phenotypic and genotypic levels. Selective exploitation, by focusing the harvesting effort on certain populations and/or phenotypes, might lead to evolutionary changes (Allendorf and Hard, 2009) and reduce genetic diversity, in addition to other indirect effects such as decreasing prey biomass (Czorlich et al., 2022). A large body of literature documented this effect in the field of fisheries, called "fisheries-induced evolution" (Kuparinen and Merilä, 2007; Heino et al., 2015). But less attention has been devoted to this effect from a metapopulation perspective. We showcased in chapter 4 that evolutionary trajectories of populations can be largely driven by the spatial structure and connectivity of a network when dispersal occurs. Thus, based on this evolutionary effect of exploitation, in addition to demographic effects (e.g., density dependence), one can assume that the spatial structure of exploitation may influence the evolutionary dynamics of exploited and interconnected populations. However, it seems unclear if the best management strategy would be to spread conservation effort over populations or to focus exploitation on some and preserve others from this selective pressure to dampen the evolutionary effect through connectivity and rescue effects (Carlson et al., 2014). We thus build on many studies already emphasizing the need to not consider local populations as isolated systems but in the system which creates them, but intend to fill the gap where both demographic and evolutionary consequences of management strategies of exploited populations are rarely considered at the metapopulation scale.

In this study, we aim at investigating the demographic and evolutionary alternative management within consequences of strategies a source-sink metapopulation by using the case of exploited Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar) populations. Indeed, Atlantic salmon is an emblematic species, exploited for a long time (ICES, 2021), and for which dispersal is still overlooked regarding its management and exploitation (ICES, 2021) despite several warnings provided by various studies on salmonids (Cooper and Mangel, 1999; Schtickzelle and Quinn, 2007; Bradford and Braun, 2021). In particular, we explore spatialized management strategies based on whether populations were source, sinks or neutral, for various dispersal rates and local exploitation rates, by using a demo-genetic agent-based model (MetaIBASAM, chapter 3). We examine the demographic and evolutionary consequences of these strategies and attempted to identify if one of them better meet both conservation and exploitation goals. We expect that contrasted demographic patterns would emerge depending on populations exploitation, especially because source populations would be crucial for sink persistence, but also that various evolutionary consequences would result from selective exploitation. Finally, we hypothesize that consequences of exploitation will depend on dispersal intensity.

5.2 Methods

5.2.1 A spatially realistic demo-genetic agent-based model

Exploring the eco-evolutionary consequences of selective exploitation and management measures in a metapopulation framework is difficult or impossible in the wild. However, simulation models are relevant tools in the decision-making process, because they allow to assess and compare the performance of alternative management actions before their implementation on real populations. However, different modeling approaches can be used, showing both benefits and limits depending on the management objectives. Pelletier and Mahévas (2005) reviewed models that have been developed to investigate the consequences of various management actions on fisheries. Most of them are simulation models, spatially explicit (which is needed for spatial fisheries), but do not consider demographic processes (usually metapopulation models with patch occupancy) or simplified version of it. Individual based modeling approaches allow to simulate explicitly individual movements in the landscape and the emergence of population dynamics, providing support for management of commercial fisheries of sea bass for example (Walker et al., 2020). However, spatially explicit models rarely consider genetics (Zurell et al., 2022). Yet, it is increasingly obvious that management strategies should be designed taking genetics and evolutionary processes into account (Hoffmann et al., 2015; Mijangos et al., 2015). Promising modeling approaches, such as demo-genetic agent based models (DG-ABMs), provide a framework to study management strategies in a metapopulation context by integrating eco-evolutionary feedback, although their development remains challenging. Such models have been used to investigate consequences of exploitation but only at population scale (e.g., Thériault et al., 2008; Marty et al., 2015; Ayllón et al., 2019a).

We used a simulation model, initially developed by Piou and Prévost (2012) to assess the effect of environmental change and selective fisheries on the demography and life history traits of a single population of Atlantic salmon (IBASAM, Piou and Prévost, 2013; Piou et al., 2015). It was further extended in chapter 3 to explore eco-evolutionary dynamics of this species in a metapopulation framework (MetaIBASAM). The model is demogenetic (i.e., incorporating both demographic and genetic processes, as well as their feedback), agent-based (i.e., representing each individual, its features, and potential interactions with others), and spatially realistic (i.e., considering populations spatial configuration and heterogeneity). It simulates the eco-evolutionary dynamics of 15 interconnected populations of Atlantic salmon, as described in chapter 3. We hereafter provide a brief overview of the model structure but additional details are available in the previously cited papers and chapters.

For each population of the network, the life cycle of individuals is explicitly simulated and individuals features (e.g., sex, age, size) are monitored. The Atlantic salmon is an anadromous species with a great diversity of life history strategies (Erkinaro et al., 2019). Reproduction and juvenile (called "young of the year", hereafter YOY) growth occur in rivers, where two alternative strategies are adopted by juveniles: maturing in freshwater (precocious maturation allowing juveniles to reproduce the next spawning season), or migrating to the sea (as smolts, then becoming anadromous). While in the sea, individuals grow and may mature after only one year at sea ("one sea-winter" or 1SW) or more ("multiple sea-winter" or MSW) before returning to rivers. A high proportion of mature adults return to their river of birth (philopatry) but dispersal to non-natal rivers also occurs regularly (Jonsson et al., 2003; Consuegra et al., 2005). Atlantic salmon has been extensively harvested for a long time (ICES, 2021) by a diversity of fisheries (in rivers, sea, and estuaries) and is considered as a threatened species. Exploitation is currently reduced and mainly focusing on returning adults in rivers (ICES, 2021), but harvest rates are often estimated at the scale of local populations (e.g., Lebot et al., 2022), and the river is mainly defined as the management scale (ICES, 2021) despite the metapopulation structure of the species leading to harvest of mixed-stock.

In the model, density-dependent and independent processes (e.g., water temperature, water flow) can affect life history processes such as growth and survival, and a set of traits (growth potential, precocious and anadromous maturation thresholds) also include an underlying genetic basis, allowing eco-evolutionary feedbacks to emerge from the model. Local populations are connected by dispersal of individuals, which occurs during the spawning migration of adults from the sea to the rivers, i.e., before fishing. Dispersal patterns are defined via a fixed dispersal rate (i.e., emigration rate) and a dispersal kernel determining recipients populations considering their distance from the natal population, and their carrying capacity (i.e., attractivity). The model was parameterized in a pattern-oriented modeling framework (Grimm et al., 2005) as in Piou and Prévost (2012) and chapter 3, and inspired by the spatial structure (i.e., distance and carrying capacities) of the salmon metapopulation of Brittany (France, Perrier et al., 2011; Bouchard et al., 2022).

5.2.2 Scenarios of local exploitation rate, management strategies, and dispersal rate

MetaIBASAM allows to include exploitation mortality (i.e., angling) on returning adults from the sea to the rivers (i.e., after immigration), through the removal of a proportion of individuals from the population according to a local exploitation rate. Exploitation can also be setup as selective regarding adults' features (e.g., age class, Piou et al., 2015), as different rates have been estimated between life history types (MSW and 1SW, 15% and 6% on average, respectively, on populations of Brittany, Lebot et al., 2022).

In this study we focused on the consequences of variable management strategies at the scale of the metapopulation and tested scenarios following a gradient of local exploitation rates from 0 to 50% (Table 5.1), independently from adult features (but still selective on adults vs juveniles). We crossed this gradient of local exploitation rates with three management strategies (Fig. 5.1) based on populations type (i.e., sink, neutral, source, based on the ratio of Immigrants/Emigrants defined in chapter 3). First, we simulated populations with an equal exploitation rate between populations (hereafter scenario "Exploitation"), as it is currently applied in management practices. We contrasted this scenario with two others protecting a specific type of population from exploitation: 1) protecting source populations (i.e., exploitation on sink and neutral, hereafter "Source conservation") and 2) protecting sink and neutral populations (i.e., exploitation on source populations only, hereafter "Source exploitation"). We ensured that each of these two scenarios leads to a 50% exploitation (or conservation) of the total metapopulation size.

Each of these combinations (exploitation rates x management strategies) were tested with dispersal rates of 15% and 30% (Table 5.1) to evaluate the consequences of the tested management strategies in a metapopulation structure with various dispersal intensity. We also compared these scenarios with a no-dispersal control scenario, i.e., independent populations as currently considered by managers, but varying exploitation rates to assess the risk of ignoring metapopulation functioning.

All cross-combinations of scenarios (73) were simulated with 50 replicates each. Simulations were initialized for each population by a random draw of individuals

Table 5.1:	Scenarios	design	of	dispersal	rates,	local	exploitation	rates,	and	management
strategies.										

Dispersal	Manag.	Local exploitation rate										
rate	strategy	0	5%	10%	15%	20%	25%	30%	35%	40%	45%	50%
0%	Exploit.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15%	Exploit.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Source		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	conserv.											
	Source		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	exploit.	-										
	Exploit.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
30%	Source		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	conserv.											
	Source											
	exploit.		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-



Figure 5.1: Schematic representation of the three management strategies tested in the study. A first non-spatialized strategy ("Exploitation"), is compared with two spatialized management strategies, "Source conservation" (exploitation of sink and neutral populations) and "Source exploitation" (conservation of sink and neutral populations).

(sampled in the same genetic and phenotypic distributions, see chapter 3), and for 25% of river's carrying capacity to limit computational time. A 10-year burn-in period without dispersal and without exploitation allowed populations stabilization. Thus, all other parameters than carrying capacity and distance were kept similar for all populations (e.g., environmental conditions, trait distributions at initialization, etc.)

for all scenarios. Then, we simulated populations by applying treatments (dispersal and fishing rates) over 40 years, which was sufficient time to detect any changes in the population dynamics and evolution of life-history traits (generation time of 2.5). All simulations and analysis were performed using R version 3.6.3 and the package metaIbasam version 0.0.6 (https://github.com/Ibasam/MetaIBASAM). Code and R scripts are available at https://github.com/Ibasam/FishStrat.

5.2.3 Simulations outcomes analysis

Regarding the double objective of conservation and exploitation, we evaluated the consequences of our spatialized management strategies at several levels, both in terms of abundance, stability, life history traits distribution, and yield. Also, to be able to compare the scenarios between them (i.e., same exploitation effort), the exploitation rate was measured at the scale of the metapopulation (hereafter metapopulation exploitation rate, or MER), which was computed a *posteriori* for each scenario by averaging over the last 5 years and over all simulations using (Equation 5.1):

$$MER_y = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{npop} Npop_{i,y} \times LocalExpRate_{i,y}}{\sum_{i=1}^{npop} Npop_{i,y}}$$
(5.1)

Where y is the year, npop the number of populations, $Npop_{i,y}$ the number of returns before fisheries for the population i at year y, and $LocalExpRate_{i,y}$ the local exploitation rate defined according to the scenario for the population i at year y.

Thus, each variable was evaluated at metapopulation scale, averaged over simulations, and function of the metapopulation exploitation rate, the management strategy and the dispersal rate simulated. To analyze the demographic dynamics, we examined the Pre-Fishery Abundance (hereafter PFA) as the sum of returning adults over populations the last 5 years, metapopulation stability using the Portfolio effect (hereafter PE) and synchrony, which are metrics of stability that were computed based on the number of returns as in chapter 3. To analyze eco-evolutionary dynamics, we examined for each population and the whole metapopulation (using averaged values over the last 5 years) : 1) genetic changes by monitoring maturation thresholds and growth potential, 2) phenotypic changes using body size of juveniles (YOY and smolts) and adults (1SW and MSW), and 3) life history strategy changes via the ratio of MSW/1SW and proportion of maturing juveniles (YOY only).

5.3 Results

We summarize the results below by distinguishing between demographic, phenotypic, and genetic effects. For each of these sections, we sequentially present the effects of 1) exploitation, 2) dispersal, and 3) spatialized management strategies.

5.3.1 Demographic consequences

At the scale of the metapopulation, increasing exploitation rates decreased the PFA, whatever the dispersal rate and the management strategy, in a nonlinear trend (Fig. 5.2 A). Metapopulation functioning via dispersal did not affect the PFAs at metapopulation scale compared to the scenario without dispersal. However, various patterns were observed between management strategies. In particular, whatever the dispersal rate and MER, the "Source exploitation" strategy (red color) showed dramatically lower PFA than the "Exploitation" strategy (black color), especially for higher MER (Fig. 5.2 A and B). In contrast, the "Source conservation" strategy (blue color) showed more complex results which varied with the MER and the dispersal rate (Fig. 5.2 A and B). For a dispersal rate of 15%, this scenario showed higher PFAs than the "Exploitation" for a range of MER between 0% and 15%, followed by a lower PFA, whereas for a dispersal of 30%, this scenario showed higher PFAs for a range of MER between 0% and 20%.

Regarding metapopulation stability, increasing exploitation rates decreased the portfolio effect and increased the synchrony of populations, whatever the dispersal rate and management strategy (Fig. 5.3 A and C). As expected, metapopulation functioning via dispersal enhanced the stability of the metapopulation especially for intermediate level of dispersal (15%, Fig. 5.3 A) as shown in chapter 3. However, the relationships between the MER and portfolio effect or synchrony varied between the simulated management strategies. Compared to the "Exploitation" strategy, the "Source exploitation" strategy showed higher synchrony level (Fig. 5.3 C and D), especially for high MER, but no difference in the measure of the portfolio effect (Fig. 5.3 A and B). In contrast, the "Source conservation" strategy showed similar synchrony level but lower portfolio effect for high MER compared to the "Exploitation" strategy. Indeed, the "Source conservation" strategy tended to decrease the *PE* as the MER increased, suggesting dramatic increase in the variability of PFAs in local sink and neutral populations which are heavily exploited (high local exploitation rates).



Figure 5.2: Relative abundance of returns (PFA) of the metapopulation for the different management strategies (colors) and dispersal rates (colors intensity) compared to the scenario without exploitation for increasing metapopulation exploitation rate (MER) (A), and for a MER of 15% (B).

5.3.2 Evolutionary consequences

We did not observe any change in the average values of the neutral gene with increasing MER, dispersal rates, or management strategies (Fig. 5.4 A), indicating that any change in fitness-related traits is unlikely to be due to genetic drift. Increasing exploitation induced several changes in the genotypic traits underlying life history strategies of individuals (Fig. 5.5 and 5.4). Whatever the dispersal rate, precocious male maturation threshold (Fig. 5.5 A) and genotypic growth potential (Fig. 5.4 C) decreased with increasing MER. Anadromous male maturation threshold (Fig. 5.5 C) decreased slightly with increasing MER while female maturation threshold (Fig. 5.5 E) did not change on average with variations of MER. We did not observe significant genotypic changes with dispersal, except a lower averaged growth potential (Fig. 5.4 D).

According to the management strategy, we observed contrasted evolutionary patterns for some traits, especially for high MER (above 15%). The "Source exploitation" strategy depicted lower growth potential than the "Exploitation" strategy whatever the dispersal rate (Fig. 5.4 D), but didn't show strong effect on other genotypic traits. In contrast, compared to the "Exploitation" strategy, the



Figure 5.3: Portfolio effect (A, B) and synchrony (C, D) of the metapopulation for the different management strategies (colors) and dispersal rates (colors intensity) for increasing metapopulation exploitation rate (MER) and a MER of 15%.

"Source conservation" strategy induced higher growth potential (Fig. 5.4 D), higher anadromous male maturation threshold for dispersal rates of 15% but lower for rates of 30% (Fig. 5.5 D), while the opposite trend was observed for female maturation threshold (Fig. 5.5 F). Meanwhile, no difference in the precocious maturation threshold emerged at the metapopulation scale among the three management strategies (Fig. 5.5 B).



Figure 5.4: Relative average genetic values of neutral gene (A, B) and growth potential (C, D) over returning adults (last 5 years) over the metapopulation, for the different management strategies (colors) and dispersal rates (colors intensity) compared to the scenario without exploitation, for increasing metapopulation exploitation rate (MER) and a MER of 15%.



Figure 5.5: Relative average genetic values of precocious male maturation threshold (A, B), male (C, D) and female (E, F) anadromous thresholds, over returning adults (last 5 years) over the metapopulation, for the different management strategies (colors) and dispersal rates (colors intensity) compared to the scenario without exploitation, for increasing metapopulation exploitation rate (MER) and a MER of 15%.

5.3.3 Phenotypic and life history strategy consequences

Life history traits and strategies were also affected by exploitation at metapopulation scale (Fig. 5.6 and 5.7). Whatever the dispersal rate, the size of juveniles (YOY and smolts) increased with MER suggesting a release of density-dependent effects favouring growth of juveniles (Fig. 5.6, A and C). Among returning adults, 1SW individuals showed a slight increase in body size with MER, while no change was observed regarding the body size of MSW individuals (Fig. 5.6, E and G). The proportion between these two maturation strategies also slightly changed with variable MER (Fig. 5.7, A), and more specifically we observed more 1SW individuals relatively to MSW with increasing MER. Finally, the proportion of precocious maturing YOY increased with exploitation rates (Fig. 5.7, C).

We did not observe significant phenotypic changes with dispersal, except for the proportion of precocious maturing YOY and 1SW average body size which remained lower than the control scenario (no dispersal). These results can be explained by the decrease in the genotypic growth potential (see section above).

Management strategies did not change significantly the average body size of anadromous or smolt individuals (Fig. 5.6, D, F and H). However, the size of YOY was slightly lower in the "Source conservation" and more strongly lower in the "Source exploitation" strategy compared to the "Exploitation" strategy for high MER (Fig. 5.6, B). The same pattern was observed for the proportion of mature juveniles with high exploitation rates (Fig. 5.7, C), while no strong difference in the proportion of anadromous strategies was observed among management strategies (Fig. 5.7, A).



Figure 5.6: Relative average (last 5 years) of phenotypic values of returning adults (E, F, G and H), juveniles (YOY, A, B) and smolts (C, D) over the metapopulation for the different management strategies (colors) and dispersal rates (colors intensity) compared to the scenario without exploitation for increasing metapopulation exploitation rate (MER) and a MER of 15%.



Figure 5.7: Ratio MSW/1SW (A, B) and proportion of maturing YOY (C, D) averaged (last 5 years) over the metapopulation for the different management strategies (colors) and dispersal rates (colors intensity) compared to the scenario without exploitation for increasing metapopulation exploitation rate (MER) and a MER of 15%.

5.4 DISCUSSION

While the eco-evolutionary consequences of dispersal and exploitation are increasingly recognized, consideration of these effects - potentially in interaction - for management Here, we evaluated population exploitation in a and conservation is limited. metapopulation perspective, by using the case of Atlantic salmon which is still managed at the local population scale while dispersal has been demonstrated. Specifically, we compared a management strategy that was not spatialized with other that accounted for the asymmetry of dispersal patterns (i.e., focusing on sink or source populations), in order to meet both conservation and exploitation objectives (maintaining the same exploitation rate at the scale of the metapopulation). We used a demo-genetic agent-based model (MetaIBASAM) allowing us to examine both demographic and evolutionary consequences of these strategies for various dispersal rates and a gradient of local exploitation rates via simulations of interconnected populations. Our results confirmed both demographic and evolutionary effects of non-spatialized exploitation in a metapopulation (i.e., lower abundance and earlier maturation). But considering the spatial structure of the metapopulation, we showed differences in consequences of spatialized management strategies and a benefit of protecting source populations from exploitation for a certain range of exploitation rates and dispersal rates, in terms of abundance but not in terms of stability. Simulations also showed contrasted eco-evolutionary consequences between management strategies, indicating that interactive effect of plastic, evolutionary responses and immigration dilution are difficult to disentangle. Overall, our results show that without knowledge on metapopulation functioning, the safest strategy remains to spread the exploitation effort over all populations.

Eco-evolutionary consequences of non-spatialized exploitation

From a demographic perspective, our simulations showed a decrease of the metapopulation abundance with increasing exploitation rates (both local and global). This expected result was also observed at the local population scale in Piou et al. (2015), even if they simulated a more selective harvest with a higher rate of exploitation of the MSW individuals than the 1SW individuals. However, we showed a non-linear decrease of the PFA with increasing MER whatever the dispersal rate. This non-linear pattern can also be observed by using a simple population dynamics model (Supplementary Materials 5.5.1), so it is not a property of our DG-ABM and it seems to be due to density-dependence effects. Regarding metapopulation stability,

our simulations demonstrated a synchronizing and destabilizing effect of exploitation, via a reduction of the portfolio effect metric. Several studies identified commercial exploitation as a key driver of the erosion of populations portfolio and increased populations synchrony using long term data (e.g., cod, Frank et al., 2016; herring, Stier et al., 2020). The relationships patterns between PE and synchrony with the MER were similar between scenarios of dispersal rates, but the synchrony level was the lowest for complete philopatry, whereas the portfolio effect was maximised for dispersal rates of 15%, as showed in chapter 3.

From an eco-evolutionary perspective, our simulations showed various evolutionary trajectories of the metapopulation with variation of exploitation rates, which, combined to demographic effects (e.g., density dependence), also affected life history traits and strategies of individuals. These evolutionary and phenotypic patterns did not vary with dispersal rates. In particular, lower precocious male maturation thresholds were selected by higher exploitation rates, i.e., the anadromous strategy was selected against, avoiding individuals to be harvested before reproduction by favoring early maturation in river. Along with an increased size of juveniles (YOY and smolts) because of relaxed density dependent effects, increased exploitation rates led to a higher proportion of early maturing parr. This life history change, emerging from both plastic and evolutionary response of populations, illustrates the potential of our modeling approach to investigate eco-evolutionary response of populations to exploitation. Late maturation in sea was still selected for in females with high exploitation rates, likely because of the mass-fecundity relationship, whereas late maturation in sea was slightly selected against in males (lower maturation threshold) with increased exploitation rates. An earlier maturation in sea of males might reduce sea mortality to compensate the higher mortality induced by exploitation. Along with a slight higher size of 1SW individuals with increasing exploitation rates, the relative proportion of MSW individuals to 1SW individuals decreased. Lower growth potential were also selected for with increased exploitation, likely because of the plastic increase of juvenile size combined with a counter-selection of big juveniles with a high probability of following the anadromous strategy.

Our results strengthen the body of literature showing both demographic and evolutionary consequences of exploitation on local populations. In their study at local population scale, Piou et al. (2015) showed a decrease of adults maturation thresholds with exploitation but this effect was observed in response to selective fisheries on MSW individuals, whereas fishing pressure was the same between 1SW and MSW individuals in our study. However, the differential selective pressure of exploitation that we applied between the anadromous and resident (precocious maturation) strategy explained the evolution of earlier maturation, as observed at the population level in other empirical and modeling studies (Edeline et al., 2007; Wang and Höök, 2009; Matsumura et al., 2011; Ayllón et al., 2018). However, in a metapopulation perspective, these results may only be relevant in the case of similar exploitation pressure applied over all populations, regardless their own demographic and genetic features. Besides, we go further and shed light on the difference of demographic and evolutionary outcomes between spatialized management strategies of exploitation. Here, we focused on two spatialized strategies, i.e., protecting the source populations vs. the sink and neutral from exploitation, that we compared with a strategy of exploiting all the populations at the same rate, a strategy that is currently applied in most exploited populations.

Demographic consequences of spatialized management strategies

Indeed, the relationship between the MER and the metapopulation PFA differed between management strategies. In particular, the "Source exploitation" strategy showed the lowest PFAs whatever the exploitation and dispersal rates; it seems that the high local rates of exploitation applied on the source populations were not compensated by immigration in this scenario. In contrast, the "Source conservation" strategy showed higher PFAs than the "Exploitation" strategy for a certain range of MER which depended on dispersal rate. It might first seem counter-intuitive not to protect sink populations and to harvest them instead at high local rates, but this harvest was largely compensated by immigration provided by the protected source populations of the network in this scenario. Even if immigrants were also harvested before reproduction in our model, their contribution to the local populations dampened the effect of exploitation. This compensatory effect of immigration is illustrated in Supplementary Materials 5.5.2, where Fig. 5.9, 5.10, 5.11 and 5.12 showed that the "Exploitation" strategy affected both sink and sources populations (low PFAs and low ratio Immigrants/Harvest), while the "Source exploitation" strategy strongly affected source populations (low PFAs and low ratio Immigrants/Harvest) but also the sink even if they were not harvested (lower PFAs). In contrast, the "Source conservation" strategy had little effect on the sink population (ratio Immigrants/Harvest close to 1 even with high local ER, PFA reduction lower in proportion than that of source in the "Source exploitation" scenario) and did not affect source populations. This compensatory effect on sink populations was also more significant for dispersal rates of 30% (Supplementary Materials 5.5.2 Fig. 5.9 and
5.11). Thus, in terms of metapopulation abundance, focusing conservation on sink and neutral populations by exploiting only the source populations, appeared detrimental for the whole metapopulation according to our simulations. In contrast, our model showed a slight advantage in protecting the source populations from exploitation, while exploiting the sink and neutral ones, and especially when dispersal intensity was high (30%). Note that, this compensatory effect might also depend on the carrying capacity of the habitats.

However, applying this management strategy would require an extensive knowledge of the network structure, i.e., the intensity of connectivity and its asymmetry (which populations are source or sink?). Moreover, this source-sink structure might be dynamic in time, due to internal dynamics of the metapopulation, but also external factors such as exploitation itself (Supplementary materials 5.5.3). Furthermore, focusing exploitation on one type of population (e.g., sink or source) reduced the stability of the network compared to spreading the exploitation effort over all populations in our simulations: protecting the sink and neutral populations increased the synchrony metric, while protecting the source decreased the portfolio effect, especially for high MER (above 15%). This result might be explained by the high exploitation rates applied locally to maintain global exploitation (i.e., reallocation of fishing effort), which might lead to high stochasticity in population dynamics. Altogether, we suggest that the "Exploitation" strategy might be the safest action to adopt for the management of exploitation in this metapopulation. In contrast, a recent theoretical analyse have shown that proportional harvest induced spatial synchrony and suggested that spatialized management strategies, in particular protecting the low abundance populations, would reduce this effect (Engen et al., 2018). Our findings are also not entirely in line with those of Crowder et al. (2000), who suggested with a theoretical model of coral reef fish to preserve source populations for exploitation efforts above 5% of the abundance, and to preserve sink populations for exploitation rates below 5%. In our study, we also showed the benefit of preserving source populations for metapopulation conservation but with a limit for high exploitation rates, depending on dispersal intensity. Moreover, we didn't show any advantage to preserve sink populations for low exploitation rates. But Crowder et al. (2000) only investigated exploitation rates of 15% maximum, and they modelled the dispersal process as density-dependent (i.e., dispersal occurs when carrying capacity is exceeded), in contrast to the constant rate we applied in our simulations. The study of Tufto and Hindar (2003) used a deterministic model of two populations and demonstrated that protecting the smallest populations before the largest ones would be the optimal

strategy in order to maximise both the effective size and yield.

Eco-evolutionary consequences of spatialized management strategies

Meanwhile, spatialized management strategies also showed contrasted eco-evolutionary consequences, especially for high exploitation rates (above 15%), that likely resulted from the combined effects of response to selection, plasticity, and immigration dilution. In particular, the average genetic value of individuals growth potential over the metapopulation was slightly higher in the "Source conservation" strategy than the "Exploitation", but lower for the "Source exploitation" strategy. An explanatory hypothesis could be that focusing fishing effort over the source populations induced a higher selective pressure compared to spreading fishing efforts over all populations (local exploitation rate higher), while in the "Source conservation" strategy, this higher selective pressure might be compensated by a strong influence of immigration coming from source populations and potentially bringing individuals with higher growth potentials. Compared to the "Exploitation" strategy, the average genetic value of precocious maturation threshold showed a slower decrease (i.e., were higher) for MER above 15%, while the size of juveniles (especially parr) was lower in both spatialized management strategies (and even more in the "Source exploitation" strategy). The lower juvenile size was likely a plastic response to relaxed density effect in focal populations, but might also result from a dilution by immigration of individuals with higher individual sizes in the "Source conservation" strategy, and from a lower growth potential for the "Source exploitation" strategy. Ultimately, the combination of these evolutionary and plastic responses resulted in a lower proportion of mature part for high MER for the "Source conservation" and "Source exploitation" strategies compared to the "Exploitation". Adults maturation threshold also showed slightly contrasted results between management strategies but they were harder to explain. Male and female maturation thresholds were similar on average between the "Exploitation" and the "Source exploitation" strategies. However, male maturation threshold was higher than "Exploitation" for the "Source conservation" strategy for dispersal rates of 15% but lower for dispersal rates of 30%, whereas the opposite pattern was observed for female maturation threshold. Altogether, complex eco-evolutionary responses emerged from the spatialized management strategies, and looking at the averaged traits of philopatric and immigrants individuals at the population scale might help to disentangle the various and interactive effects that could lead to these contrasted results. But overall, our results suggest that protecting some populations from exploitation can dampen the selective effects of exploitation.

Perspectives

Our model allowed the emergence of demographic and evolutionary outcomes as function of which type of population was exploited, but we simulated dispersal rates that were constant over space and time, as a parsimonious assumption. However, empirical studies reported variable dispersal rates over space (Consuegra et al., 2005) and time (Jonsson et al., 2003) in Atlantic salmon, and suggested that dispersal propensity might depend on individual traits (e.g., genetic basis, Saastamoinen et al., 2018) or population characteristics (e.g., density-dependence, Berdahl et al., 2016). Different patterns would probably arise if individual probability to disperse was variable in space and time. For example, with a genetic basis, one might expect dispersal rates to evolve as function of the spatial structure of exploitation. Focusing harvest on sink populations might select for dispersal in these populations but against in source populations, and vice-versa.

Moreover, we evaluated the consequences of management strategies that were very contrasted, by applying reserves (no harvest at all, such as a Freshwater Protected Area) on some populations and reporting the fishing effort on others. Another perspective of future work could be to evaluate strategies with variable exploitation rates between populations (e.g., 5% on source and 15% on sink). Examining other criteria of differential exploitation between populations than asymmetry in dispersal (i.e., sink vs source), such as population size, contribution to the network stability or effective size (Hindar et al., 2004), environmental or genetic features, would also provide insight into diverse options of spatialized management strategies of Finally, our results confirmed the importance to favor connectivity exploitation. between populations to provide opportunity of dispersal between populations and its dampening effects facing the demographic and evolutionary consequences of exploitation. Investigating the impact of enhancement or restoration management actions such as improvement of connectivity, or habitat productivity, also constitute future avenues of research in this metapopulation context.

Conclusion

Altogether, our study showcased that a spatialized management strategy protecting the sink and neutral populations did not appear as a good strategy, while protecting source populations from exploitation seemed slightly better than exploiting all populations at the same rate, at least within our scenarios. We also showed variable evolutionary consequences depending on management strategies, and in interaction with dispersal. We argue that accounting for metapopulation structure in defining exploitation management would allow to better meet both conservation and exploitation goals, but without any information on metapopulation structure and dispersal, spreading the exploitation effort across all populations seems to be the safest strategy. We also shed light on the potential of our modeling approach as a prospecting tool for management strategies by including ecological and evolutionary complexity of the system as well as management constraints (e.g., exploitation objective, money limitations) and uncertainty (e.g., risk of misidentification of populations).

5.5 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

5.5.1 Relationship between PFA and MER using a population dynamics model

To evaluate if the non-linear relationship between the metapopulation PFA and the MER was a property of our DB-ABM, we simulated population dynamics via a simple model of population dynamics with a Beverton-Holt relationship of stock-recruitment. Similar patterns were observed between the output of this simple model and those of our DG-ABM, i.e., the slight advantage of the "Source conservation" strategy compared to the other strategies for a certain range of MER and depending on the dispersal rate (Fig. 5.8).



Figure 5.8: Metapopulation PFAs for scenarios of MER, dispersal rates, and management strategies using a simple population dynamics model.

The code of the model can be found below:

```
10 M=as.numeric(dat$M); Area=as.numeric(dat$Area)
11 Type=dat$Type; dist <- dat$Distance #edit al - 20/03/21</pre>
14 getFishingRates <- function(scenarioFishing, scenarioFishingRate){
     tmp <- matrix(0, nrow = npop, ncol = 1)</pre>
15
     if (scenarioFishing==0) { # fishing all
16
17
       scn_name="fishing all"
       for (i in 1:npop) {
18
19
         if (dat$Type[i]=="sink") tmp[i,] <- frates_vec[scenarioFishingRate]</pre>
         if (dat$Type[i]=="neutral") tmp[i,] <- frates_vec[scenarioFishingRate]</pre>
20
         if (dat$Type[i]=="source") tmp[i,] <- frates_vec[scenarioFishingRate]</pre>
21
22
       }}
23
     if (scenarioFishing==2){ # fishing sinks/neutral
24
       scn_name="fishing sinks/neutral"
25
       for (i in 1:npop) {
26
         if (dat$Type[i] == "sink") tmp[i,] <- frates_vec[scenarioFishingRate]</pre>
         if (dat$Type[i]=="neutral") tmp[i,] <- frates_vec[scenarioFishingRate]</pre>
27
28
         if (dat$Type[i]=="source") tmp[i,] <- 0</pre>
29
       }}
30
     if (scenarioFishing==3) { # fishing sources only
       scn_name="fishing sources"
31
32
       for (i in 1:npop) {
         if (dat$Type[i]=="sink") tmp[i,] <- 0</pre>
33
         if (dat$Type[i]=="neutral") tmp[i,] <- 0</pre>
34
35
         if (dat$Type[i]=="source") tmp[i,] <- frates_vec[scenarioFishingRate]</pre>
36
       33
37
     return(list(tmp,scn_name))
38 }
39
40 BH <- function(S) (a*S)/(1+(a*(S/Rmax)))
41
42 SimulExploitMetaPop <- function(h=1){</pre>
     ##### I. CONNECTIVITY ######
43
     distance=matrix(, npop, npop)
44
45
     for (i in 1:npop){
46
      for (j in 1:npop){
47
         distance[i,j]=abs(dist[j]-dist[i])
48
      }}
49
     ##### II. AREA #####
     area_log=log10(dat$Area)
50
51
     ratio_area=matrix(, nrow=1, ncol= npop); colnames(ratio_area)=pops
     for (i in 1:npop){
52
53
      ratio_area[1,i]=area_log[i]/(sum(area_log))
54
     3
55
     ##### III. DISPERSAL KERNEL #####
56
     lap = function(mu, beta, distance) \{(1/(2*beta))*exp(-(distance-mu)/beta)\} # Laplace
57
     ##### IV. CONNECTIVITY MATRIX #####
58
     connect_kernel=matrix(, nrow=npop, ncol=npop)
59
     for (i in 1:npop){
60
       attrac_d=lap(mu, beta, distance[i,]) #attractivity based on distance
61
       attrac_d[i] <-0 # ignore population of origin</pre>
62
       attrac_ad=attrac_d*ratio_area # influence of area on attractivity
63
       proba_attract_ad=attrac_ad/sum(attrac_ad)
64
       sum(proba_attract_ad)
65
       proba_dispersion=proba_attract_ad*(1-h)
66
       proba_dispersion[i] <- h
67
       connect_kernel[i,]=proba_dispersion
68
       test <- rowSums(connect_kernel) #sum of probabilities</pre>
69
       if (!(any(test==1))) {
70
         print ("something wrong with dispersal kernel")
71
         connect_kernel <- NULL</pre>
      }
72
73
     3
74
     pstray = connect_kernel
75
76
     phi<-A<-R <-ratio <-array(,dim=c(nyear,npop))</pre>
77
     N<-Exploit<-array(,dim=c(nyear,npop, length(frates_vec)))</pre>
78
     PFA<-GlobExploit<-array(,dim=c(nyear,length(frates_vec)))</pre>
79
     N[1,,] <- Area*0.01
80
     ratio[1,] < -1
81
82 plot(NULL,xlim=c(0,0.7),ylim=c(0.5,1),ylab="Relative Abundance (Pre-Fisheries)"
```

```
83
            ,xlab="Metapopulation exploitation rates",main=paste0("Dispersal = ",(1-h)*100,"%"),cex.lab=1.5, cex.axis
          =1.2)
 84
       abline(1,-1, col="lightgrey",lty=2)
 85
       for (scn in c(0,2,3)){
 86
        for (f in 1:length(frates_vec)){
 87
           scenarioFishing = scn
 88
           scenarioFishingRate = f
           fishing.rates <- getFishingRates(scenarioFishing,scenarioFishingRate)[[1]]
fishing.scn <- getFishingRates(scenarioFishing,scenarioFishingRate)[[2]]
 89
 90
           for (year in 2:nyear){
 91
 92
             for (pop in 1:npop){
 93
               ## Recruitment
 94
               S <- N[year-1,pop,f] / (Area[pop]/100)</pre>
               R[year,pop] <- BH(S) # Recruitment / BH relationship</pre>
 95
 96
               ## Survival
 97
               phi <- 1 #rbeta(1,2,10)
               A[year,pop] <- (R[year,pop]*(Area[pop]/100)) * phi</pre>
 98
99
             }
             ## Dispersal
100
101
             tmp <- A[year,]</pre>
             disp <- tmp * pstray
102
             for (pop in 1:npop){
103
104
               N[year,pop,f] <- sum(disp[,pop])</pre>
105
             }
106
             # Pre-fisheries abundance
107
             PFA[year,f] <- sum(N[year,,f],na.rm=TRUE)</pre>
108
             ## Fishing
109
             for (pop in 1:npop){
              Exploit[year,pop,f] <- N[year,pop,f] * fishing.rates[pop]</pre>
110
111
               N[year,pop,f] <- N[year,pop,f] - Exploit[year,pop,f]</pre>
112
             }
113
             GlobExploit[year,f] <- sum(Exploit[year,1:npop,f],na.rm=TRUE)</pre>
          } # end loop year
114
115
        } # end loop f
116
117
         GlobExploitRates <- GlobExploit[nyear,] / PFA[nyear,] # last year</pre>
118
         colors<-c("black","blue","#48D1CC","#FF6347")</pre>
119
         points(GlobExploitRates, PFA[nyear,]/PFA[nyear,1], col=colors[scn+1], type='1', lwd=2)
120
      }
121
      legend("bottomright",legend=c("Exploitation (all pop.)","Source conservation","Source exploitation"),lty=1,col=
          colors[c(1,3,4)],bty="n",cex=1.2)
122 } # end function
123
124 par(mfrow=c(1,3))
125 SimulExploitMetaPop(h=1)
126 SimulExploitMetaPop(h=.85)
```

127 SimulExploitMetaPop(h=.7)

 $\mathbf{202}$

5.5.2 Compensatory effect of immigration on exploitation



Figure 5.9: Relative PFA over time of an example sink population (the Leff) for a gradient of local exploitation rates, dispersal rates and the three management strategies.



Figure 5.10: Relative PFA over time of an example source population (the Trieux) for a gradient of local exploitation rates, dispersal rates and the three management strategies.



Figure 5.11: Ratio Immigrants/Harvest over time of an example sink population (the Leff) for a gradient of local exploitation rates, dispersal rates and the three management strategies.



Figure 5.12: Ratio Immigrants/Harvest over time of an example source population (the Trieux) for a gradient of local exploitation rates, dispersal rates and the three management strategies.

5.5.3 Dynamics of source-sink structure with exploitation

The source-sink feature of populations was determined via the ratio of incoming immigrants over outcoming emigrants, averaged over the last 5 years of simulations. Fig. 5.13 showed that the source-sink structure of the network changed with high exploitation rates, i.e., initial sink populations became source (e.g., Goyen) and initial source populations became sink (e.g., Aulne) for high rates of exploitation of source populations (red scenario).



Figure 5.13: Ratio Immigrants/Emigrants of examples populations for a gradient of metapopulation exploitation rates, dispersal rates (colors intensity) and the three management strategies (colors).

5.6 CHAPTER HIGHLIGHTS

This chapter aimed at investigating innovative management strategies considering the spatial structure and evolutionary dynamics of interconnected and exploited populations of Atlantic salmon. Contrasted consequences between spatialized strategies were observed, at both demographic and evolutionary levels. The main lessons of this chapter are the following:

Chapter 5 highlights

- Studies evaluating management strategies by considering metapopulation structure and eco-evolutionary feedbacks are scarce;
- Spatialized management strategies of a network of exploited Atlantic salmon populations showed different demographic and evolutionary consequences at the metapopulation scale, in interaction with dispersal rate;
- Protecting sink and neutral populations, while reporting exploitation on source populations dramatically affected metapopulation size, while protecting source populations from exploitation performed slightly better than exploiting all populations;
- Complex evolutionary consequences require further analysis to disentangle interacting effects of immigration, density-dependence, and selection;
- Results suggest that without information on the metapopulation structure, conservation of the populations according to the portfolio approach appears as the safest strategy;
- Our modeling approach may be used as a prospecting tool to inform future management strategies of populations complex within an evolutionary perspective.

CHAPTER 6 Towards a more flexible modeling approach



Contents

6.1	INTE	RODUCTION
6.2	Мог	Del description $\ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots 213$
	6.2.1	Purpose and patterns
	6.2.2	Entities, state variables and scales
	6.2.3	Process overview and scheduling
	6.2.4	Design concepts
	6.2.5	Initialization
	6.2.6	Input data
	6.2.7	Submodels
6.3	Disc	CUSSION $\ldots \ldots 243$
	6.3.1	Model structure and innovations
	6.3.2	Perspectives
6.4	SUP	PLEMENTARY MATERIALS
6.5	Сна	PTER HIGHLIGHTS 256

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Previous chapters highlighted the potential of our modeling approach to investigate eco-evolutionary dynamics and management of metapopulations, by focusing on the case of Atlantic salmon. However, the version of the model showed some constraints regarding our questions and the growing literature extending knowledge on species life cycle and processes.

In particular, the following elements have been identified:

- the model shows limited applicability for other salmonids species; the values of the species parameters can be changed but this is not easy to access and use. Importantly, the temporal chronology of life history events is imposed and limits flexibility in the life cycle to simulate.
- The model is not truly spatially explicit, since several IBASAM models run in parallel and there are exchange of individuals between them. The absence of explicit exchange of information between populations (e.g., effective density) would not allow for example to add dispersal mechanisms such as density dependent immigration (collective behavior, Berdahl et al., 2016). Moreover, the model only focuses at the river scale, and not at a finer scale, preventing for example to simulate variable spatial features within rivers (e.g., upstream / downstream, estuary, dendritic networks). Also, it does not provide flexibility on the number of marine sea regions (only one). Yet, multiple marine areas have been identified during sea migration and growth (e.g., Feroe islands and Greenland, with potential variable conditions, Rikardsen et al., 2021) and it might be relevant to be able to dissociate them and their effects on individuals survival and decisions (e.g., maturation). Within river resolution might also be relevant to be able to integrate and study individuals movement (e.g., spawning ground area choice), genetic structure (e.g., kin distribution), dendritic basins, differential exploitation or other anthropogenic pressures (e.g., commercial fisheries in estuary vs angling in river, estuaries stressors, Hodgson et al., 2020).
- In the current version of the model, variation in the phenology of life histories is limited, although phenology changes are increasingly and ubiquitously observed in response to global changes (Woods et al., 2022). For example, several studies reported earlier migration timing in multiple salmonid species (Kovach et al., 2013), while Jonsson and Jonsson (2018) showed later spawning migration of Atlantic salmon individuals exposed to warmer temperatures during

development. Conversely, Reed et al. (2011a) theoretically showed earlier upmigration timing of sockeye salmon associated with an increased temperature. Providing more flexibility on the life history traits to monitor and model, in particular on their phenology, seems therefore necessary in this context of environmental change.

- More flexibility in the genetic architecture of life history traits of interest would keep the modelling approach in accordance with the recent literature. For example, Barson et al. (2015) showed a major effect locus controlling age at maturity with sex-dependent dominance, potentially reducing intralocus sexual conflict. However, the current genetic architecture of the model does not allow to take into account this key information, because its architecture is based on an infinitesimal model (or polygenic model) without dominance effects. Yet, this particular genetic architecture recently demonstrated in nature might have consequences on evolutionary potential, genetic diversity, and persistence of Atlantic salmon populations (Kardos and Luikart, 2021) and ultimately have conservation implications (Waples et al., 2022).
- Last but not least, the current version of our model does not have any end user model interface and can only be used via the execution of scripts as well as for results visualization. This issue may limit the implementation of our modeling approach for management applications and interactions with stakeholders. Indeed, a graphical and intuitive interface allowing simulations parameterization, execution, and main results visualization would be beneficial for the transfer of the model to managers.

To address these different issues, in parallel to the work presented in the previous chapters with MetaIbasam, we built a new version of our modeling approach, more flexible, on another platform, Capsis (initially developed for research on trees, Dufour-Kowalski et al., 2012) in collaboration with Jacques Labonne and François de Coligny. This chapter presents the model description following the ODD protocol (Overview, Design concepts, Details, Grimm et al., 2020), considering that model construction still requires some work and the calibration and sensitivity analyses still have to be performed. The java source code of the model is available on the Capsis platform.

6.2 MODEL DESCRIPTION

6.2.1 Purpose and patterns

The main purpose of IBASAM is to forecast how changes in environmental conditions (water temperature, discharge and growth conditions) and selective pressures (e.g., selective fishing) affect eco-evolutionary dynamics of salmonids. We investigate how phenotypic plasticity and genetic adaptation foster the response of populations to environmental changes, especially facing climate change. We also investigate the consequences of the metapopulation functioning via dispersal on the evolution of life history traits, populations stability, persistence and resilience. Ultimately, IBASAM is a tool to explore the effects of different management practices (e.g., spatially defined exploitation/conservation measures) under various environmental scenarios. The model is based on Atlantic salmon life cycle but can be adjusted to mimic other migratory salmonid species.

We evaluate our model by its ability to reproduce observed phenotypic and demographic patterns in a A. salmon population. In particular, model results are compared to size/mass distributions at different ages/life stages, life history strategies (i.e., proportion of early maturation, age at sea) and population dynamics (i.e., abundance distributions at different ages/life stages) observed in nature.

6.2.2 Entities, state variables and scales

Entities

The model includes individual agents - called fish - and two kinds of collectives redd (spawning nest) and fry siblings. Fish are characterized by: an ID, a status (parr, smolt, anadromous), a sex, an age (year and number of days), a weight (W), a body length (L), a fat reserve (Fat), a location (in river, reach or at sea), a binary maturation indicator (Mature), a binary smoltification indicator (Sm), a number of returns from the sea (Nret), their origin (river and sea region), an intrinsic metabolism influencing the growth rate in river (pG) and at sea (pGsea), a proportion of growth attributed to fat reserves (pPercF), see section 6.2.7.4) and a genetic material coding (see section 6.2.7.3) for the growth potential, dispersal and maturation thresholds (pFmid see section 6.2.7.7). Fish also record their dates of emergence, of maturation, departure from river, return to river and reproduction.

Redds are created by one mother salmon only during reproduction events in winter

(within a reproduction time window). Redds store identity and genetic material of the mother and different fathers, and the number of fertilized eggs. They also record the cumulative daily water temperature which will influence the date of emergence of the offspring in spring/summer. Then they disappear after producing new fish in the following summer.

Fry siblings are created from Redds at emergence. They correspond to the total of emerging individuals from two parents, i.e., there are as many fry as there are fathers who fertilized the eggs. They stored the identity and genetic material of the two parents. Fry siblings share the same genotype while their phenotype of heritable traits can differ due to recombination and environmental variance. To limit computational time and because fry suffer high mortality during the first weeks after emergence, they are not yet individualized. But fry siblings are also affected by survival, growth and maturation decisions during summer. The surviving fry will be recruited as individual fish at the end of the summer period (*Summer_End_Doy*, Table 6.5).

The model environment is described through its spatial component including rivers (subdivided into reaches separated by weirs) and sea regions (see scales section below), and an environmental component through daily time series of water temperature data, water flows and growing conditions in sea regions (see section 6.2.6).

States

Table 6.4 in supplementary materials describes the entities and their different attributes that can be static or dynamic.

Temporal and spatial scales

The basic time step for all individual processes is daily, with processes happening every day of the year (e.g., growth, survival) and other only during a specific day or time window (e.g., maturation and migration decisions, see Fig. 6.10). Simulation can be run for multiple years to generate multiple generations of the focal species.

While MetaIBASAM is designed to simulate a network of populations by dividing them into several parallel IBASAM processes, this new version of IBASAM is now spatially explicit and can simulate complex watersheds (several rivers and/or interconnected basins) and several marine regions. Rivers are divided into reaches separated by weir (passable or not). Each reach, river and sea region have a specific ID and can be characterized by different carrying capacity and spatial variation of environmental conditions (e.g., water temperature). Note that, the first reach of a given river is considered as the estuary. An estuary can be shared by multiple rivers. No reproduction can occur in the estuary. As the initial version of Ibasam, the size of the simulated population was scaled to the wetted area of the river expressed in m2 of riffle and rapid equivalent area.

6.2.3 Process overview and scheduling

The model is developed to simulate the life-cycle of migratory salmonid species. It is structured in 9 submodels corresponding to life cycle events and processes : 1) reproduction and redd creation, 2) emergence from the redd, 3) genetic coding and transmission, 4) growth, 5) survival, 6) smoltification, 7) sexual maturation, 8) migration and 9) Fishing.

Every day processes are applied depending on location (rivers or sea regions), individuals status (e.g., juvenile vs anadromous, mature), and time (season, time windows). A summary of the processes and submodels is presented below and in Figure 6.1.



Figure 6.1: Life cycle, submodels (SM) and processes (in italics) of the model.

In rivers:

- *processSpawning* (SM1) : reproduction, sexual selection, and redds creation by mature fish;
- *processEmergence* (SM2): emergence of fry, survival, frysiblings creation and genetic transmission (SM3);
- *processRiverDynamics*: growth (SM4), survival (SM5) and maturation (SM7) for fry siblings (*frySiblingDynamics*) and for individualized fish (*fishDynamics*);
- createJuveniles (SM3): individualization of frysiblings to fish.
- *seawardMigrationDecision* : smoltification (SM6);
- *seawardEffectiveMigration* (SM8): Effective migration of smolts during spring (*seawardEffectiveMigrationWindow*), choose each day which fish migrate among the fish which decided to migrate last summer (smolt);
- *mouthToReachMigration* (SM8): Once the fish has returned to the river mouth, first move to another reach;
- processFishing: fishing of anadromous returning to river (SM9);

At sea:

- *processSeaDynamics*: growth (SM4), survival (SM5) and sexual maturation (SM7);
- *riverwardEffectiveMigration* (SM8): If the fish are ready to migrate back to river (i.e. mature), they choose which river (philopatry or dispersal) and go to its mouth (estuary).
- *processSeaMovements* (SM8): If the fish is not ready to migrate back to river (i.e. not mature), it changes of sea region or stays in the last.

6.2.4 Design concepts

Objectives and Learning do not apply to the IBASAM model.

- *Basic principles*: The model integrates eco-evolutionary processes, i.e., the interaction between the environment (e.g., temperature effects on survival), demographic processes (e.g., density-dependence, interaction between individuals) and genetics (genetic basis of traits). Processes display at the reach scale within rivers that are interconnected by a dispersal process, and in sea regions for anadromous individuals. Processes run at the daily scale so the phenology of life histories can be monitored.
- *Emergence*: All individual life histories (growth, survival, maturation, smoltification, reproduction) are emerging from a mechanistic description combined with environmental variables, interactions with other individuals, demographic dynamics and genetic structures themselves emerging from individual life histories, i.e. via an eco-evolutionary feedback (see 2).
- Adaptation: Maturation decisions and growth potential are adaptive traits which influence individual fitness. They are characterized by a genetic basis (via thresholds) and environmental influence (via environmental cue) favoring adaptative phenotypic plasticity. Smoltification decision is purely plastic and depend only on body size.
- *Prediction*: Individuals use a prediction of their fat reserves during a maturation window to trigger the maturation decision.
- Sensing: No sensing mechanisms are explicitly implemented but individuals know their individual/ state variables (e.g., fat reserves) and environment (e.g., river or sea) which drive their life history decisions.
- *Interaction*: Individuals directly interact together during the reproduction and sexual selection process. Indirect interactions via density-dependence effects also occur during competition for shared resources which drive growth and survival.
- *Stochasticity*: Stochasticity emerges from environmental variability in space and time and the random draw of individual probabilities within several processes.
- *Collectives*: At emergence, collectives of frysiblings are created for each pair of parents. Before individualization at the end of summer, all members from each frysiblings share the same genotypes and phenotypes, so that only one average individual representing the siblings undergo growth, survival, and maturation decision.

• Observation: All individual traits are recorded at specific time steps (e.g., day 91 and 274 on the julian day calendar of each year) defined at initialization by the user.

6.2.5 Initialization

At initialization, spatial structure, i.e., numbers of rivers and sea regions, locations, reaches and weirs, have to be provided. For each reach, we also provide the wetted area, i.e., riffle and rapid equivalent area (RA in m2) potentially used by salmonids, as well as the module of flow conditions (in m3.s-1), and the fishing rates (for 1SW and MSW individuals, Table 6.2). The genetic architecture also have to be provided (Table 6.3). Mean and variance of traits, heritabilities, alleles frequencies (here set to 0.5), dominance effects (here set to 0), and loci effects are necessary to determine the genetic map. The time windows of life cycle processes (maturation, migration, reproduction) have to be defined, as well as all the populations parameters needed in the submodels (see Table 6.5).

At the beginning of each simulation (*initialDoy*, Table 6.5) a virtual population is created per river with individuals from each individual life stages (parr, smolt, anadromous). Each individual's state variable was initialized by drawing from probability distributions describing their variability (see Table 6.6), and their genotype created to meet average, variance and allele frequency's values of phenotypic traits defined by the user. Collectives (Redds and Fry siblings) are not created at initialization.

All these prerequisites have to be provided in a single file (*IbaParameters*), created via R scripts which will be made available once the model will be finished.

6.2.6 Input data

Two input data files are used in the model: *river climate* and *sea climate*. River climate data consists of daily time series of water temperature (degree-Celsius) and water flows (m3.s-1) for each reach (Table 6.1). Sea climate data consists of daily time series of growing conditions (a variable synthesizing marine environment effects on growth, see section 6.2.7.4) for each sea region. These datasets can be generated, e.g., to simulate scenarios of climate change, or following time-series from observations.

An input data file is also used to define the spatial structure of rivers, indicating reach length and width, position, average flow rate, and fishing rates (Table 6.2).

Table	6.1:	Example of	of data	file for	river	climate.	With o	doy:	day	of the	year	(julian	day),
river :	rive	r id, reach:	reach	id, flow:	flow	rate (m3	8.s-1) ar	nd ter	np: v	water	tempe	rature	(°C).

	year	doy	river	reach	flow	temp
Π	1970	1	1	1	2.39	3.72
	1970	2	1	1	2.25	2.84
	1970	3	1	1	2.21	2.53
	1970	1	1	2	2.32	4.02
	1970	2	1	2	2.15	2.99
	1970	3	1	2	2.11	2.33
	1010	0	-	-		2.00

Table 6.2: Example of data file for rivers spatial structure. With FR-1SW and FR-MSW the fishing rates of 1SW and MSW individuals.

ID	fatherID	riverID	Area	module	length	width	FR-1SW	FR-MSW
1	1	1	0	0	1000	10	0.5	0.5
2	2	1	100000	4	825	3.5	0.07	0.12
3	3	1	129000	4	500	3.5	0.07	0.12
1	1	2	0	0	120	40	0.5	0.5
$\parallel 2$	2	2	150	5	825	10	0.07	0.12
3	2	2	150	5	825	10	0.07	0.12

The genetic architecture of traits is also indicated at initialization in a separated input file (Table 6.3).

Trait	μ	CV_P	nloci	nbAllele	h^2	α
matThresholdMaleParr	1.25	0.1	20	2	0.4	0
${ m mat} Threshold Female Parr$	40	0.12	20	2	0.4	0
${ m mat} Threshold Male Anadromous$	40	0.8	20	2	0.4	0
matThresholdFemaleAnadromous	85	0.8	20	2	0.4	0
${ m smoltThresholdMale}$	89	0.1	10	2	0.4	0
${ m smoltThresholdFemale}$	89	0.1	10	2	0.4	0
riverGrowthPotential	1	0.2	20	2	0.2	0
seaGrowthPotential	1	0.2	20	2	0.2	0
dispersalPropensity	1.4	0.1	20	2	0.2	0

Table 6.3: Genetic parameters to provide at initialization.

6.2.7 Submodels

IBASAM consists of 9 submodels representing fundamental biological processes.

6.2.7.1 Reproduction and redd creation (SM1)

Reproduction and sexual selection

Reproduction and sexual selection: What's new?

- Spatial scale: per reach instead of river
- Temporal scale: determination of female reproduction date before sexual selection

The reproduction process follows the same procedure as described in (Piou and Prévost, 2012), except that reproduction occurs at reach level (instead of the river, but not in the estuary) during a specific time window (given in julian days as initial parameters by *reproductionWindow*, see Table 6.5 and Fig. 6.2).

At the first day of the reproduction window, sexually mature individuals are pooled in three groups: females (*femalesCandidateForReproduction*, hereafter FC), anadromous males (*anadromousMales*, AM) and mature parr (*precociousMales*, PM). Then, a date of reproduction $DateRepro_i$ was randomly set for each AF according to a Weibull distribution of parameters *shapeDR* and *scaleDR* (Table 6.5) added to the first Julian day of the reproduction window. If a date greater than the reproduction window is selected, the last day of the reproduction window is used. Note that males are considered available for breeding on the first day of the reproduction window.

Each FC was attributed randomly a potential number of AM as potential mates according to a Poisson distribution of parameter MeanNanadromousMales (see Table 6.5). FC were sorted along their weight (W) and were attributed in order $Nmales_i$ specific AM depending on the availability and the relative weight of these AM and the potential number of AM just drawn. If for an AF_i the number of available AM was lower than the potential number of AM then all the available AM were attributed to *i*. Otherwise, AMs were successively and randomly picked among the available AM with for each of these AM *j* a probability to be selected following:

$$P[selected|W_j] = \frac{W_j}{\sum_{l=1}^{\infty} W_l}$$
(6.1)

where l was an AM among the available ones. Once attributed to an AF, the

weight and Fat of the selected AM were updated by substracting LossFatReproAM (6.5). The availability of any AM was then re-evaluated and turned to non-available if its updated Fat was lower or equal to 0. AM are thus able to spawn with another female during the same day and the same spawning season, depending on the remaining reserves and post-reproduction mortality. After all AF were attributed their respective AM, each AF obtained a random number $Nparrs_i$ of MP according to a Poisson distribution of parameter MeanNParrs (Table 6.5). $Nparrs_i$ MP were then picked randomly at equal individual probabilities as long as they were available to each AF_i in order of their DateRepro.

The MP attributed to an AF was reduced in weight and Fat by a fixed value *LossFatReproParr* (Table 6.5). Instead of the AM, each MP was dead if its Fat was lower or equal to 0. This structure of female ranking and male attribution to females represented (i) an advantage in reproductive success for larger females through higher availability of AM if they are limited (Fleming et al., 1997), (ii) sexual selection for large AM by females (Fleming, 1996, 1998), (iii) a decreasing availability of MP as the reproductive season unfold and (iv) no sexual selection among the MPs.

Redd creation

After males attribution to females, each AF produced a redd with a date of creation set to DateRepro (see above). A mean egg weight $(EggW_i)$ was attributed to the redd depending on the mother *i* weight following:

$$EggW_i = \frac{exp(aWegg \times log(W_i) + bWegg)}{10000}$$
(6.2)

where aWegg and bWegg were population parameters (Table 6.5). A number of eggs $(Neggs_i)$ was then computed by (Jonsson et al., 1996):

$$Neggs_i = exp(aNegg \times log(W_i) + bWegg)$$
(6.3)

where aNegg and bNegg were population parameters (Table 6.5). This construction of egg weight and number variability among females represent the documented trade-off on these traits at the individual level (Jonsson et al., 1996).

After this redd creation, the given female *i* was reduced in Fat by a fixed value LossFatReproFemale weighted by the total egg weight $(EggW_i \times Neggs_i)$. In our case, LossFatReproFemale was set to 1, assuming no extra metabolic losses. For a given redd *i*, each selected father fertilized only a proportion of the $Neggs_i$ eggs. For

an AM j of a redd i the number fertilized (*NFertilized*_{j,i}) depended on the weight regulated competition with all other selected males:

$$NFertilized_{j,i} = \frac{W_j^{aFert}}{\sum_{s}^{allmales_i} W_s^{aFert}} \times Neggs_i$$
(6.4)

where $allmales_i$ represented all the selected male contributing to the redd and aFert (Table 6.5) was a parameter adjusting the competitive advantage due to weight among males (Fleming et al., 1997; Fleming, 1998). Each parr k was attributed an identical fraction of fertilized eggs irrespective of its size because recent works (Jones and Hutchings, 2002; Grimardias et al., 2010a,b) indicated that the individual fertilization proportions of MP was not primarily size-dependent, as some earlier controlled experiments suggested (Thomaz et al., 1997). Thus, the number of eggs fertilized by each parr k for the redd i (NFertilizedParrs_i) was:

$$NFertilizedParrs_{i} = \frac{\sum_{k}^{Nparrs_{i}} W_{k}^{aFert}}{\sum_{s}^{allmales_{i}} W_{s}^{aFert}} \times \frac{Neggs_{i}}{Nparrs_{i}}$$
(6.5)

Post-reproduction mortality

Anadromous individuals that participated in reproduction had a mortality probability of *ReproMortalityFemale* for females and *ReproMortalityMale* for males (Table 6.5) to account for their very high survival cost of reproduction. These mortalities were set to represent the very low second returns rates in French rivers such as the Scorff and the slight advantage of females (Fleming, 1996). The surviving individuals (usually named kelts) were sent back at the first sea region directly after reproduction for females (to avoid multiple reproduction during the spawning season) and at the end of the reproductive window for males (multiple reproductive events within a season possible). The cost of reproduction for MP was considered in the survival attributed afterward (see section 6.2.7.5).



Figure 6.2: Reproduction, sexual selection and redd creation.

6.2.7.2 Emergence from the redds and individual birth (SM2)

Emergence and individualization: what's new?

- Spatial scale: environmental conditions effects at the redd scale and density effects at the reach scale
- Temporal scale: density effects at the daily scale (accounting for the other redds and the already hatched fry in the reach)
- Emerging individuals are not directly individualized and rather emerging as siblings with common initial weight and size

Emergence of frySiblings

For each redd, a date of emergence of the alevins from the gravel of their redd ($DateEmergence_i$) was computed depending on the cumulated daily water temperatures during winter. A degree day (DD) threshold for emergence, $DDEmerge_i$, was chosen from a uniform distribution between DDEmergeMinand DDEmergeMax (Table 6.5). $DateEmergence_i$ was then chosen as the day on which the sum of T(d) (the water temperature for day d) commencing on $DateReprod_i$ exceeded $DDEmerge_i$. In each redd, egg mortality was influenced by reach temperature, flow and a global reach density effect (Fig. 6.3). Thus a survival rate component integrating the temperature effect ($tSurvival_i$) until emergence was computed as:

$$tSurvival_{i,d} = aR \times (T(d) + bR) \times (1 - exp(cR \times (T(d) - dR)))$$
(6.6)

where aR, bR, cR and dR were population parameters (Table 6.5) adjusted to experimental observation of mortality of salmon eggs depending on temperature (Peterson et al., 1977; Gunnes, 1979; Brännäs, 1988). To represent the catastrophic effects of extreme floods and/or droughts during the under-gravel embryo-larval phase, a survival rate component integrating flow effect ($fSurvival_i$) was drawn from a Beta distribution for each redd *i*:

$$fSurvival_{i,d} \sim Beta\left(aF; aF \times bF \times max\left(1; \begin{array}{c} I(flow(d) < cFi \times Module_g) \\ I(flow(d) > cFi \times Module_g) \end{array}\right)\right) (6.7)$$

where aF and bF were population parameters (Table 6.5) that allows the Beta

distribution to simulate very high or very low survival. The probability to have a low survival was increased by the number of days the flow(d) was below or above critical levels (cFi and cFs respectively, Table 6.5, $Module_g$ the module of the flow at the reach level). Here I(condition) was an indicator function returning 1 when condition is true and 0 otherwise.

Then, the day of emergence, a total number of hatching fry in the redd $(Nhatch_i)$ is calculated following:

$$Nhatch_i = Neggs_i \times tSurvival_i \times fSurvival_i \tag{6.8}$$

A density-dependent survival rate affecting all hatching fry of a reach g only at the day of their emergence is then computed using a Beverton-Holt relationship (Beverton and Holt, 1957):

$$gSurvival_g = min\left(1; \frac{NfryMax}{\frac{NfryTot_g}{S_g} + \frac{1}{aBH} \times NfryMax}\right)$$
(6.9)

where aBH and NfryMax are population parameters (Table 6.5), $NfryTot_g$ the cumulated number of hatching fry and parr0+ of the reach g at the day of emergence, and S_g the habitat area of the reach g. Thus, for each redd i the number of offspring of father k (Noffspring_{k,i}) was computed as:

$$Noffspring_{k,i} = Nfertilized_{k,i} \times gSurvival_g \times tSurvival_i \times fSurvival_i \quad (6.10)$$

The new emerging individuals of a redd were initialized in the reach at their emergence date as *frySiblings* (Fig. 6.3). With a sex-ratio of 1:1, female and male frysiblings from a same father were assigned a unique emerging weight Wm_i , drawn from a normal distribution around the mean egg weight of the redd $(EggW_i)$ and a fixed variability sdWm (Table 6.5). The *Fat* was set to 0 and the *L* computed according to the W–L relationship (see section 6.2.7.4). The genetic material for each frySibling was a recombination of its parents' (see section 6.2.7.3).



Figure 6.3: Emergence and individualization process.

Individualization

Frysiblings are then individualized into juvenile fish after experiencing growth, survival, and precocious maturation decision (see section 6.2.7.7) at the end of the summer period (Summer – end – doy, defined as a population parameter, Table 6.5, Fig. 6.3). The genotype and phenotypic expression of others genetic traits are computed at this time and is different across individuals from a same sibling due to genetic recombination and environmental variance.

6.2.7.3 Genetic coding and transmission (SM3)

Genetic coding and transmission: what's new?

- Support a wide range of genetic architecture from a highly polygenic architecture (i.e. many loci with small effects) to a single major locus with or without polygenic background;
- Method to calculate genetic value of trait based on additive allele effects;
- The effects of the loci can differ;
- Dominance effects of alleles are implemented;

Individual traits can be genetically coded and heritable. They are supported by a genetic architecture which is a combination of a quantitative genetic framework with a Mendelian inheritance system (Fig. 6.4). Specifically, the phenotypic expression of a given trait results from the additive effects of its genetic and environmental components (P = G + E), with the genotypic value being under a multi-locus bi-allelic control with independent/unlinked loci. Indeed, we do not consider interactions between loci (e.g. epistasis and pleiotropy) in the model but we take into account interactions within loci (i.e. dominance effects). To determine the phenotypic and genetic values of the traits at initialization, we assume that the populations are at Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and the populations mate randomly (no inbreeding).

Mendelian inheritance system

(1) Get phenotypic value : (4) Get individual genotype : $$\begin{split} P_i \sim \mathcal{N}(G_i,\,\sigma_{Env}^2) & \text{ with } & \\ \sigma_G^2 = h^2 \times \sigma_P^2 \end{split}$$ Genotype 001001 00101 (2) Get genotypic value : 101101 111000 $\mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{i}}^{\mathbf{i}+\mathbf{a}} \qquad G_{i} = \sum_{j=1}^{nloci} \left(\mu_{G} \times \Delta_{j} + \alpha_{1,j} + \alpha_{2,j} \right)$ 100101 0 1 01 Genotype 11 Dominance deviation : $d = a \times k$ Average effect of allelic substitution : 5 Get individual genotypic value : no dominance (additive) k = 1 complete dominance (-q)] $\alpha = a \left[1 + k(p)\right]$ Individual genotype 100101 Locus effect 01101 $\Delta_j = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^{nloci}}$ $G_i = \sum_{j=1}^{nloci} \left[\sum_{l=1}^2 a_{j,l} \right]$ Х 3 Genotypic value and allele effect are calculated from the genetic variance : 2 3 $\begin{aligned} \sigma_G^2 &= \sigma_A^2 + \sigma_D^2 & \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \sigma_A^2 &= 2pq\alpha^2 = 2pq(a+k(p-q))^2 \\ \\ \sigma_D^2 &= (2pqak)^2 \end{aligned} \right. \end{aligned}$ thus Allele 1 a_{1,1} a_{2,0} a_{3,0} Allele 2 a_{1,1} a2.0 a ... $a_j = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_G^2 \times \Delta_j}{(2p_jq_j \times (1+k_j * (p_j-q_j))^2) + (2p_jq_jk_j)^2)}}$ $a_{j}, l = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \left(\mu \times \Delta_{j} + a_{j} \right) & if \quad genotype_{j,l} = 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} \left(\mu \times \Delta_{j} - a_{j} \right) & if \quad genotype_{j,l} = 0 \end{cases}$ Genotypic map Loci 3 1 2 n Allele 1 $a_{1,n}$ a_{1,1} a₁₂ a1.3 Allele 2 a2,1 a_{2,2} a2,3 $a_{2,n}$

Modeling Quantitative Trait Inheritance

Figure 6.4: Genetic coding and transmission.

Quantitative genetic parameters

Quantitative genetic framework

In IBASAM, individual phenotypic value (P_i) of a given trait is sample in a normal distribution around the genotypic value G_i and with an environmental variance (σ_{Env}^2) as:

$$P_i \sim \mathcal{N}(G_i, \sigma_{Env}^2) \tag{6.11}$$

The genetic and environmental variances are calculated from the total phenotypic variance σ_P^2 and the heritability h^2 :

$$\sigma_{Env}^2 = (1 - h^2) \times \sigma_P^2 \tag{6.12}$$

and

$$\sigma_G^2 = h^2 \times \sigma_P^2 \tag{6.13}$$

Given our initial assumptions (no between loci interactions and random mating), we assume that the genotypic value of an individual i for a given trait G_i is the additive combination of genotypic values of all loci:

$$G_{i} = \sum_{j=1}^{nloci} \left[\sum_{l=1}^{2} \left(\frac{\mu_{g,j} + a_{j} \times (1+k_{j,l})}{2} \right) \right]$$
(6.14)

with

$$\mu_{g,j} = \mu_G \times \Delta_j \tag{6.15}$$

where $\mu_{g,j}$ is the mean genetic effect at locus j, μ_G the population mean of the phenotypic trait, number of loci *nloci*, allele effects $a_{j,l}$ and dominance coefficient $k_{j,l}$ (with $d = a \times k$) at each locus l. The parameter k specifies the degree of dominance of the favourable allele over the unfavourable/recessive allele. By default k = 0, i.e., no dominance is considered but incomplete dominance (k < 1), complete dominance (k = 1) or over-dominance (k > 1) can also be specify at initialization.

Because loci can differ in their influence on genetic value, the average effect of each locus Δ_j is calculated using an exponential distribution :

$$LocusEffect_j = e^{j \times \beta} \tag{6.16}$$

and rescaled:

$$\Delta_j = \frac{LocusEffect_j}{\sum_{j=1}^n LocusEffect_{1:J}}$$
(6.17)

The parameter β control the degree of influence of each locus. When $\beta = 0$ all locus carry the same effect on trait (Fig. 6.4). With α decreasing (negative exponential), the first loci tend to have larger effects while many locus carry small effects. Thus, by controlling the number of locus and the parameter α for each trait, IBASAM can support a wide range of genetic architecture from a highly polygenic architecture (i.e. many loci with small effects) to a single major locus with or without polygenic background (i.e. a locus with large effect associated with or without many small effects locus).

Mendelian inheritance system

Thus, to assess the genetic value of an heritable trait G_i in IBASAM, one need to determine the allele effects $a_{j,k}$ and individual genotype associated to the trait. Following Fisher's seminal work on genetics and evolution of complex traits, the genetic variance of a gene (e.g. one bi-allelic locus) σ_G^2 is the sum of the additive genetic variance σ_A^2 and the dominance variance σ_D^2 which depends on the average allele effect α of substituting allele, the frequencies of the two alleles p and q respectively, and the dominance effect d:

$$\sigma_A^2 = 2pq\alpha^2 \tag{6.18}$$

and

$$\sigma_D^2 = (2pqd)^2 \tag{6.19}$$

with

$$\alpha = a[1 + k(p - q)^2] \tag{6.20}$$

Assuming that the genotypes are in Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium, we can determine

the averaged effect of allele α_j of the locus j:

$$\alpha_j = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_G^2 \times \Delta_j}{(2 \times p_j \times q_j \times (1 + k_j * (p_j - q_j))^2) + (2 \times p_j \times q_j \times k_j)^2)}}$$
(6.21)

where σ_G^2 is the genetic variance of the trait weighted by the locus-scaled effect Δ_j . The parameters p and q are the frequencies of dominant and recessive alleles 1 and 2 respectively at each locus j, and d_j is the locus-specific dominance value. Note that, when dominance is present, additive variance is an asymmetric function of allele frequencies. Thus, alleles frequencies can influence strongly the genetic value of the trait.

The locus-specific genetic value is then the sum of the two allele-specific genetic value (a_j, l) (under bi-allelic control) with a_j, l determined from the mean of the trait weighted by the locus-scaled effect, the averaged allele genetic value a_j and individual genotypes at locus j:

$$a_j, l = \begin{cases} \mu \times \Delta_j + a_j \times (1 + d_j) & if \quad genotype_{j,l} = 1\\ \mu \times \Delta_j - a_j \times (1 + d_j) & if \quad genotype_{j,l} = 0 \end{cases}$$
(6.22)

The individual genotypes (genotype) consist of a sequence of 0 (unfavourable) or 1 (favourable) for each allele at each locus.

Initialization of genetic traits

To describe a trait with this structure it is necessary to provide a population mean μ , the variance of the phenotypic value (σ_P^2) (or alternatively the coefficient of variation CV_P) and a heritability value (h^2) at start. The number of loci *nloci*, the degree of influence of each locus α , allele frequencies p and dominance effects d at each locus are also population parameters provided at initialization. A genetic map is then build from these parameters for each heritable traits.

The number of loci (nloci) was set arbitrarily to 20 for the present version of IBASAM to avoid the potential of rapid genetic drift by random fixation of alleles in the population. At initialization, the individual genotypes are generated from a Dirichlet distribution, whose parameters control the allele frequencies at each locus and for each traits (here, p=0.5). Note that modifying allele frequencies allows to generate variation across populations in genetic traits. Then, for a newly born individual, its genotype derived from the genotype of the parents by simulating the processes of
meiosis and fertilisation using the Genetics library in Capsis.

Due to the high number of loci and the few number of generations simulated (generally <100) we considered that mutation was unimportant and did not implement it. However, natural selection and genetic drift were two potential evolution forces on these genetically coded traits.

In the current version of IBASAM, only threshold values for maturation, growth potential and dispersal were considered genetically coded and heritable. Four respective set of genetically coded maturation thresholds were implemented corresponding to male parr, female parr, anadromous males and anadromous females. These values were transformed respectively to phenotypic expression of the genetic maturation thresholds. By separating genetic thresholds for male and female, one can easily implement major locus effect with polygenic background and sex-dependent dominance on maturation as observed by Barson et al. (2015), Sinclair-Waters et al. (2020), and Mobley et al. (2021).

6.2.7.4 Growth (SM4)

Growth: what's new?

- Growth potential with genetic basis
- Growth of frysiblings and fish
- Competition at the reach scale

Growth was considered primarily to be a weight (W) increase process implemented differently according to location (in river or at sea, Fig. 6.5). For riverine growth of frysiblings or parr individuals, IBASAM used the Ratkowsky et al. (1983) model adjusted to *S. salar* by Forseth et al. (2001) to consider the temperature effect (ΩT_d°). A density-dependent effect (*DensEffect_d*) was also added to this growth function to represent scramble competition often described in salmonid juveniles populations (e.g., Grant and Kramer, 1990; Imre et al., 2005, 2010). Inter-individual variation in growth rates and seasonal variation in activity depending on life-history was also considered (*activity_i*). The resulting growth function for an individual *i* on a day *d* in a reach *g* was:

$$W_{i,d+1,g} = \left(W_{i,d,g}^b + b \times \Omega(T_{d,g}^\circ) \times activity_i \times DensEffect_{d,g}/100\right)^{1/b}$$
(6.23)

where b was an allometric parameter for the relation between specific growth rate and W estimated at 0.31 for S. salar (Elliott and Hurley, 1995). The temperature effect on growth was computed by:

$$\Omega\left(T_{d,g}^{\circ}\right) = max(0; dr \times (T(d,g) - Tlr) \times (1 - exp(gr \times (T(d,g) - Tur))))) \quad (6.24)$$

where d was the day, g the reach, and Tlr, Tup, dr and gr were population parameters (see Forseth et al., 2001 for details, and Table 6.5 for values). We assumed that scramble competition was only important during summer time steps when growth is highest. During these time steps the density effect was computed as:

$$DensEffect_{d,g} = \frac{1}{1 + \beta dens \times ED_{d,g} \times IWUH_{d,g}}$$
(6.25)

where $IWUH_{d,g}$ was an effect of reach flow on competition, $ED_{d,g}$ was the effective density (sensu Post et al., 1999; Imre et al., 2005) of all frysiblings or parr individuals in the reach g at day d and $\beta dens$ was a population parameter (Table 6.5).

$$ED_{d,g} = \frac{\sum_{i,g}^{N_g} L_{i,g}^2}{S_g \times 10^6} \tag{6.26}$$

where $L_{i,g}$ is the forklength of a fish (or frysiblings) *i* in a reach *g* and S_g the habitat area of the reach in m2.

Flow influence on this density effect was introduced as an availability index (IWUH) of weighted usable habitat (Capra et al., 1995):

$$IWUH_{d,g} = max(1; \frac{cFgi \times Module_g}{flow(d,g)})$$
(6.27)

where cFgi was the minimum critical flow level below which density-dependent effects were reinforced (Table 6.5). Activity level of each individual *i* was depending on its own intrinsic metabolism (pG_i) and its condition and season following:

$$activity_i = pG_i \times activity_{state} \tag{6.28}$$

where $activity_{state}$ was a value depending on the status of the individual and the season. It was always 1 for summer time steps. For winter time steps, it took $activity_{smolt1}$ if i was going to be a 1 yr old smolt in the following spring, $activity_{smoltN}$ if i was going to be an older smolt in the following spring and $activity_{winter}$ if i was

in another state (Table 6.5 for all values). Anadromous individuals back in the river stop feeding when entering into freshwater hence their growth was considered as null in IBASAM.

For oceanic growth, weight increase was following a Gompertz function (close to a von Bertallanfy growth for L) computed for each day d as:

$$W_{i,d+1} = W_{i,d} + \left(Kg \times W_{i,d} \times \log\left(pGsea_i \times \frac{Wmax}{W_{i,d}}\right) \times NoiseSea_d\right)$$
(6.29)

where Kg and Wmax were population parameters (Table 6.5), $pGsea_i$ was an individual parameter representing growth capacity and $NoiseSea_d$ was a daily environmental condition for growth at sea which depends on the sea region. For each individual *i*, whatever its location, a portion of *W* growth was allocated to *Fat* reserves:

$$Fat_{i,d+1} = Fat_{i,d} + (W_{i,d+1} - W_{i,d}) \times aPercF_i$$
(6.30)

where $aPercF_i$ was an individual parameter calculated as:

$$aPercF_i = pPercF_i + matPercF(Mat_i, sex_i)$$

$$(6.31)$$

where $pPercF_i$ was a state variable (see state variable Table 6.4) and matPercF(Mat, sexj) was a function returning 0 if the individual was not mature and returning $matPercF_{males}$ or $matPercF_{females}$ if the individual was a maturing male or female respectively (Table 6.5). Several studies observed a difference in fat content for maturing and non-maturing individuals (Rowe and Thorpe, 1990; Rowe et al., 1991; Simpson, 1992; Dębowski et al., 1999) as well as sexual differences in gonado-somatic indexes (Jonsson et al., 1997). We adjusted the corresponding parameters pPercFm, $matPercF_{males}$ or $matPercF_{females}$ accordingly (see Table 6.5). Body lengths of individuals were adjusted after the growth process following the equation:

$$L_{i,d+1} = max\left(L_{i,d}; exp\left(lwa_{stage} + lwb_{stage} \times log\left(\frac{W_{i,d+1} - Fat_{i,d+1}}{1 - pPercFm}\right)\right)\right)$$
(6.32)

where lwa_{stage} and lwb_{stage} were population parameters of log-log W-L relationships and were equal to lwa_{parr} and lwb_{parr} respectively if the individual had not decided to smolt or lwa_{sea} and lwb_{sea} otherwise (see Table 6.5 for all values). The *pPercFm* (Table 6.5) was a population parameter corresponding to the mean population percentage of growth allocated to fat reserves (corresponding to the mean of pPercF). This construction assured that depending on life history chosen by the individuals, they could be of different length for identical weight and, in particular, maturing individuals would spend more energy in building fat reserves than on increasing their length.



Figure 6.5: River growth, sea growth, and allocation processes.

6.2.7.5 Survival (SM5)



In river, the daily survival probability $(Sp_{i,d})$ of an individual *i* at day *d*, depending on its age and maturing status, is mitigated by its phenotypic growth potential (in log scale pG_i) through a growth-survival trade-off coefficient ($CoeffSurvRIV_i$) according to the Equation 6.33, 6.34, and 6.35.

$$Sp_{i,d} = Sp_{i,d}^{status} \times CoeffSurvRIV_i$$
(6.33)

Where $Sp_{i,d}^{status}$ can take one of the population parameters survival values as function of the individual *i* status at day *d* (Piou and Prévost, 2012).

$$CoeffSurvRIV_{i} = \frac{\exp\left(-kappaRIV \times pGres_{i}^{sigRIV}\right) - \exp\left(-kappaRIV\right)}{1 - \exp\left(-kappaRIV\right)} \quad (6.34)$$

with
$$pGres_i = \min(1, \frac{\exp(pG_i)}{maxRIV})$$
 (6.35)

Where maxRIV, sigRIV and kappaRIV are populations parameters. Since the literature regarding growth-survival trade-offs is limited (but see Bochdansky et al., 2005; Biro et al., 2006), the values of these parameters (Table 6.5) were adjusted based on anadromous returns number and size distributions monitored on the Scorff river that were used for calibrating IBASAM (Piou and Prévost, 2012).

Consequences on life-history traits evolution

Implementing the growth-survival trade-off in river limited the evolution of growth potential genetic value and adult size towards high values, as showed by MetaIBASAM simulations on the Scorff river only (without dispersal) with and without the trade-off (Fig. 6.6).

At sea, survival of anadromous individuals has been showed to be strongly related to their size (Salminen, 1997; Gregory et al., 2019), thus sea survival is mainly size dependant in our model. However, a growth-survival trade-off at sea is also implemented and mitigate sea survival. For each day d a daily survival probability $(Sp_{i,d})$ was computed as (Mangel, 1994):

$$Sp_{i,d} = (1 - \alpha S \times \frac{L_{i,d}}{exp(lwa)})^{\frac{\beta S}{lwb}} \times CoeffSurvSEA_i$$
(6.36)

where αS and βS (Table 6.5) were population parameters.



Figure 6.6: Temporal evolution of (A) growth potential genotypic value (in log scale) and (B) 1SW adult size in 10 simulations of one population (Scorff) with (black) and without (red) growth-survival trade-off implemented in the model.

with

$$CoeffSurvSEA_{i} = \frac{\exp\left(-kappaSEA \times pGseares_{i}^{sigSEA}\right) - \exp\left(-kappaSEA\right)}{1 - \exp\left(-kappaSEA\right)}$$
(6.37)

with

$$pGseares_i = \min(1, \frac{\exp(pGsea_i)}{maxSEA})$$
(6.38)

Where maxSEA, sigSEA and kappaSEA are populations parameters. In our case, the values of these parameters (Table 6.5) were set so there is no growth-survival at sea (CoeffsurvSEA=1).



Figure 6.7: Process of survival in river and sea.

6.2.7.6 Smoltification (SM6)

Smoltification: what's new?

- Window for migration decision (here last day of summer) and for effective migration (spring)
- By default, plastic decision based on body size but genetic basis of smoltification threshold also implemented

Individual parr need to undergo a smoltification process to be able to leave the river the following spring. It is well documented that this physiological, behavioural and morphological process is a function of individual growth (Thorpe, 1977) and that it is initiated much earlier than actually visible (see reviews of McCormick and Saunders, 1987; McCormick et al., 1998). It was therefore opted for a initiation time at the end of summer (*seawardMigrationDecisionWindow*, according to Debes et al., 2020, Table 6.5) with an actual seaward migration during the following spring (as in Thorpe et al., 1998, see section 6.2.7.8). We used the probabilistic reaction norm depending on body length and adjusted by Buoro et al. (2010) on the Scorff to simulate this process. An individual parr i becomes a future smolt following the relation:

$$logit(P(Sm_i = 1)) = aSm \times (L_i - LmidSm)$$
(6.39)

where aSm and LmidSm (Table 6.5) were population parameters and Sm_i was the binary indicator state variable. The inter-individual variation for an identical Lwas considered in the probabilistic aspect of this implementation.

6.2.7.7 Maturation (SM7)

Maturation: what's new?
• Earlier time window for anadromous maturation decision (in summer) according to Tréhin et al. (2021)
• More variability in timing of decision for precocious maturation depending on emergence date

Maturation is considered as an underlying process of energy allocation of individuals. We adopted the conceptual framework of maturation decision proposed by Thorpe et al. (1998) based on a time window evaluation of the rate of

 $\mathbf{239}$

change in lipid content and a comparison of a projected lipid content at a given time horizon with a threshold (Fig. 6.8).This approach was implemented in IBASAM and considers genetic variability of maturation thresholds (Piché et al., 2008). For an individual *i*, the binary indicator Mat_i was set to 1 when a $ProjectedFatTheory_i$ was above the phenotypic expression $pFmid_i$ of the genetically coded threshold of maturation $gFmid_i$. The $ProjectedFatTheory_i$ was calculated as a linear projection of Fat_i at the end of the maturation projection time window, but the decision of maturation is taken at the end of the evaluation time window. For sexual maturation of parr (precocious maturation), the evaluation time window is set at the frySiblings stage after emergence (between *emergenceDate* and emergenceDate+nDaysWindowRiverMaturation) and the projection time window is set at the end of summer (nDaysProjectionRiverMaturation, Table(6.5) according to Thorpe et al. (1998). For anadromous individuals, the evaluation time window is now set at summer according to Tréhin et al. (2021) (*riverwardMigrationDecisionWindow*) with a projection set to the following spring (nDaysProjectionSeaMaturation, Table 6.5). As explained in SM3, the maturation thresholds pFmid used for an individual was depending on sex and location (i.e., river vs ocean).



Figure 6.8: Maturation process.

6.2.7.8 Migrations (SM8)

Migrations: what's new?

- Time window for seaward effective migration (spring) with a daily migration decision of fish which decided to migrate last summer (smolts)
- Riverward migration: dispersal process, estuary, and reach choice
- Movement between sea regions

Our model considers two migration phases (Fig. 6.9): seaward migration of smolts and riverward migration of anadromous fish. The effective migration takes place long after the decision to migrate was made (smoltification in the river and maturation at sea) and therefore the effective migration depends on the status of individuals, i.e. *smolt* and *mature* respectively.

Seaward migration

migration during window First, the seaward occurs a seaward time (seawardEffectiveMigrationWindow) in spring that is defined as population parameters (see Table 6.5). Each day, the individuals called *smolts* can initiate their migration according to a random sampling in a Bernoulli distribution following a probability pSeawardMigration. Then, the migrating smolts are sent to the first sea region. Smolts that have not migrated by the last day of the window are sent directly to the first sea region. They change their status and become anadromous.

Riverward migration and dispersal

After anadromous. individual maturation decision of i.e. the status each mature anadromous check every day if it is ready to is *mature*, migrate to the river from its sea region (is Ready For Riverward Migration). This process depends on a number of days which varies according to of the maturation $(riverward Migration Time_{O}ne Sea Winter$ age and $riverwardMigrationTime_multipleSeaWinters$ are population parameters), i.e. if the fish has been mature for X days. If the fish is not ready to migrate back to river (not *mature*) by the end of the *riverwardMigrationDecisionWindow*, it changes sea region or stays in the last via the sea movement process (processSeaMovements).

For fish ready to migrate back to the river, they must choose between returning to

their natal river (also called *homing*) or disperse to another river following a dispersal process. Here, we decompose the process into two steps: 1) decision to disperse or not, and 2) for the dispersers, choice of the recipient population (river).

First, at the time of adult riverward migration, the decision of an individual to disperse is based on an individual parameter $aDisp_i$ (Equation 6.40) which can be fixed or variable as function of individual or population features (e.g., genetic basis, age at maturation, population density).

$$logit(P(Disp_i = 1)) = aDisp_i \tag{6.40}$$

Then, for the subset of dispersing individuals, the recipient population j' is determined by sampling into a multinomial distribution of parameter $p_{j,j'}$, which is the probability to disperse from the population j to the population j'. The probability $p_{j,j'}$ is based on a dispersal kernel that depends on distance from the natal river estuary $(D_{j,j'})$ and the attractiveness of the recipient population (see Nathan et al., 2012 for review). We use the Laplace distribution, a leptokurtic distribution commonly used for fish (Pépino et al., 2012), which maximizes the connectivity between close populations while still allowing some flow of individuals between distant rivers (longdistance dispersal, Equation 6.41). Because the attractiveness of rivers for anadromous salmonids can vary as a function of the population size, likely because of chemical attraction to congeners, collective behavior, and/or the influence of river discharge (Jonsson et al., 2003; Berdahl et al., 2016; see Keefer and Caudill, 2014 for review), we weigh the distance kernel by a parameter $g_{j'}$, the relative size of the destination population with other populations, to represent its attractiveness (Equation 6.42). The larger the populations, the more attractive they are to dispersing individuals.

$$p_{j,j'}(D_{j,j'},b) = g_{j'} \times \frac{1}{2b} \times \exp\left(-\frac{D_{j,j'}}{b}\right)$$
 (6.41)

with
$$g_{j'} = \frac{\log_{10}(N_{j'})}{\sum_{j'=1}^{n} \log_{10}(N_{j'})}$$
 (6.42)

With b the mean dispersal distance in the metapopulation and $N_{j'}$ the number of returning adults (philopatric) to the river j'.

Finally, the fish (dispersers and no dispersers) is moved to the mouth of the selected river (estuary).

Movement within the river (mouthToReachMigration)

Once the fish has come back in the river mouth, it stays for one day only and then move randomly toward one of the reach of the river (except the river mouth).



Figure 6.9: Migration processes.

6.2.7.9 Fishing (SM9)



- Commercial fisheries applied for one day in estuary
- Angling applied during one day or a time window after all anadromous are back in river

Fishing is now at the reach scale, allowing the implementation of various rates or selective pressures of fishing depending on the spatial location of fish. For instance, commercial fishing in estuary can now be separated from angling in upper river reaches. Fishing rates can still be differentiated between life histories such as 1SW and MSW. Fishing rates have to be provided by reach at initialization. Commercial fishing is applied during one day when fish migrate through the estuary, while angling can be applied during a time window or a single day.

6.3 DISCUSSION

6.3.1 Model structure and innovations

This new version of our modeling approach thus addresses the gaps identified in Introduction. First, the spatial resolution, at the reach level, enables to work at multiple spatial scale, from within river variation of habitats, to metapopulation structure. Also, the spatial explicit construction of basins allow real time transfer of information between populations (e.g., of density), which was not possible with the previous version of the model because several processes ran in parallel. Second, the daily temporal scale of the model and time windows structure of processes provides flexibility to simulate different salmonid life cycle and to study phenological traits. Third, the flexible genetic architecture open up new perspectives on the evolution of life history traits, and more flexibility on dispersal mechanisms is also possible. Finally, code and libraries sharing is possible with a community of modelers on the Capsis software, and an interface facilitates the use of the model by managers and the parameterization of the model for various contexts (e.g., different spatial structures) or different species. In our case, the model is being parameterized based on Atlantic salmon and the Scorff population because of the amount of data available, but may be easily adapted to other populations or species.

6.3.2 Perspectives

However, perspectives of improvement of this new version may already be envisaged, as indicated by the lens icon on the figure 6.10.

6.3.2.1 Reproduction and sexual selection

Jonsson and Jonsson (2009) indicated potential variability in spawning time arising from plastic response, e.g. from temperature dependent gonad development, or from adaptive response resulting from a significant heritability of spawning time (Stewart et al., 2002). In the model, a genetic basis for the date of reproduction, or an effect of the water temperature, could be reasonably implemented. Regarding sexual selection, instead of being fixed, the number of males chosen by the female could be influenced by the real density of fish available in the reach to better the represent the probability to find a partner. This process could particularly influence reproduction success in small or imperiled populations where spawners density might be low.

6.3.2.2 Emergence

The timing of emergence is also an important phenological trait which may have a genetic basis and may be under stabilizing selection (Einum and Fleming, 2000; Carlson and Seamons, 2008). In the model, a genetic basis for the temperature threshold determining the date of emergence could be implemented.

6.3.2.3 Smoltification and seaward migration

In the model, the smoltification decision is based on a probabilistic reaction norm depending on body length. Thériault et al. (2008) also represented a migration reaction norm in their model of brook charr, describing an individual probability of migrating to the sea as function of the age and body length. However, four inherited parameters modulated these effects, assuming a genetic basis of migration. This is in line with a significant body of literature suggesting a governance of migration phenotype by strong genetic effects, interacting with phenotypic (body size) and environmental effects (in Atlantic salmon, Debes et al., 2020, in rainbow trout, Hecht et al., 2013, 2014). However, this genetic basis of migration could be strongly related to that of individual growth potential (Debes et al., 2020), which already have a genetic basis in the model. Kelson et al. (2020) also suggested an indirect genetic basis of migration in rainbow trout mediated by physiological traits such as growth rate. The option of adding a genetic basis to smoltification thus remains an open question.

Once the smoltification process is engaged, the effective migration towards the sea occurs the following spring at a date which is defined within a time window according to an individual probability fixed. However, a genetic, phenotypic and environmental influence on the migration timing of smolts have been reported in the literature. Local adaptation of migration timing have for example been reported in two populations of Atlantic salmon (Stewart et al., 2006). Body size, rather than age, also seems to be a driver of migration timing differences, as well as energetic status (brown trout, Bohlin et al., 1996; Birnie-Gauvin et al., 2021). Environmental conditions, i.e. the temperature and water level, explained a significant part of variation in migration timing of brown trout (Bohlin et al., 1993), Chinook (Sykes et al., 2009) and Atlantic salmon (Jonsson and Ruud-Hansen, 1985) smolts. Considering the factors influencing migration timing is particularly important because variation in migration patterns could reinforce the portfolio effect and the stability of species facing changing environment (Carr-Harris et al., 2018; Schindler, 2019). Allowing more phenological diversity in our modelling approach is now feasible and might opens up new perspectives of theoretical work in a context of climate change.

6.3.2.4 In river movements

The study of in river movements is now possible with the new model version, giving opportunity to explore the consequences of individual variation in spawning or growth areas. For example, Hendry et al. (2001a) provided evidence that individual condition may influence the choice of breeding location in sockeye salmon, which may affect reproductive success. Bouchard et al. (2018) also showed strong aggregation of A. salmon nests, likely resulting from an ideal distribution of females, and this spatial distribution diminished the variability of population recruitment. Evaluating the demographic, genetic and evolutionary (life history traits diversity) consequences of the spawning reach for returning adults (e.g., natal reach vs ideal free distribution), or the growth reach for juveniles (e.g., function of the density) may constitute a future avenue of research with our modelling approach.

6.3.2.5 Energy allocation

The structure of DEB (Dynamic Energy Budget) theory is such that there is a splitting of individual energy between reserves and structures, which are key features driving fitness related life history strategies, such as migration (depending on body size) and maturation (depending on fat reserves, Kooijman and Kooijman, 2010). In the current version of the model, a fixed parameter drives this trade-off of energy allocation. Yet, seasonal energy allocation likely has a genetic basis (Schultz and Conover, 1997), and energy allocation might constitute a key individual trait under selection, which might evolve in response to evolutionary changes in acquisition strategies. Adding a genetic basis to this trait, such as in the DG ABM of Ivan and Höök (2015), might be relevant to study the response of species and life history diversity to environmental change.

6.4 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Entities	Variable name	Variable type and units	Meaning
	id	numeric, static	Unique identifier
	female	boolean, static	Sex
	state	nominal, dynamic	Life history state (parr, smolt, anadromous)
	age-days	numeric, dynamic	Age in days
	fork length	numeric, dynamic, mm	Body size
	w eight	numeric, dynamic, gram	Mass
	fat	numeric, dynamic	Fat reserves
	pPercF	numeric, static	Fat allocation parameter
Fish	$fat At Begin River Maturation, \\fat At Begin Sea Maturation$	numeric, static	Fat reserves before maturation decision
	emergenceDate	date, static	Date of emergence
	maturation Date	date, static	Date of maturation
	departure Date	date, static	Date of seaward migration
	returnDate	date, static	Date of riverward migration
	reproduced	boolean, dynamic	Reproduction indicator
	spawningCount	numeric, dynamic, count	Number of reproduction events
	iteroparous	boolean, dynamic	Indicator of iteroparity
		numeric, dynamic,	Number of eggs of mature
	nLggsF or Keproduction	count	female
	mId, pId	numeric, static	Parents identifiers
	genotype	vector, static	Genotype
			Continued on the next page

Table 6.4: Entities and variables of the model.

Entities	Variable name	Variable type and units	Meaning
	maturationThresholdMaleParr, -FemaleParr, -MaleAnadromous, -FemaleAnadromous, smoltificationThresholdMale, -Female, riverGrowthPotential (pG), seaGrowthPotential (pGsea)	numeric, static	Phenotypic values of genetic traits
	birthRiverId, birthReachId	numeric, static	Identifiers of river and reach of birth
	atSea	boolean, dynamic	Location (sea/ river)
	sea Region Id	numeric, dynamic	Location (which sea region)
	last Number Of Sea Winters	numeric, dynamic, count	Number of winter at sea during the last migration
	duration InSea	numeric, dynamic	Total number of winters at sea
	duration In River As Parr	numeric, dynamic	Number of years in river for juveniles
	id	numeric, static	Unique identifier
	female	boolean, static	Sex
	number	numeric, dynamic	Number of frysiblings
	age-days	numeric, dynamic	Age in days
	fork length	numeric, dynamic, mm	Body size
FrySibling	g weight	numeric, dynamic, gram	Mass
	fat	numeric, dynamic	Fat reserves
	pPercF	numeric, static	Fat allocation parameter
	emergenceDate	date, static	Date of emergence
	maturation Date	date, static	Date of maturation
	genotype	vector, static	Genotype
			Continued on the next page

Entities	Variable name	Variable type and units	Meaning
	$maturation Threshold Male Part -Female Parr, \ river Growth Potential$	^{r,} numeric, static	Phenotypic values of genetic traits
	mId	numeric, static	Unique identifier (of the female)
Redds	eggNumber	numeric, dynamic, count	Number of fertilized eggs
	pContribution	matrix, static	pId and fertilized number of eggs of fathers
	DDemerge	numeric, static	Emergence temperature threshold
	cumulatedWaterTemperature	numeric, static, Celsius	Cumulated water temperature from redd creation
	wEggs	numeric, static, gram	Mean egg weight

Submodel	Parameter type	Parameter name	Value	Remarks
	Time window for reproduction	reproduction Window	[322,5]	-
SM1	Mean number of anadromous and parr males fertilizing the eggs of 1 female	$M ean NM ales, \\ M ean NP arrs$	3, 10	Observations from the Nivelle River, Southwest France Adjusted
	Fat reserves lost after anadromous, parr males and females reproduction participation (g)	LossFatReproAM, LossFatReproParr, LossFatReproFemale	73, 3, 1	Adjusted
	Weibull distribution parameters for date of reproduction	$shape DR, \\ scale DR$	3.598, 38.24	Adjusted from the Nivelle River
	Parameters for mean egg weight calculation from female weight	aWegg,bWegg	0.168, 5.68	
	Parameters for number of eggs calculation from female weight	aNegg,bNegg	0.86, 1.63	
	Weight importance parameter for males participation in fertilization		0.5	Adjusted to obtain 40% of parr fertilization with mean size and numbers from Scorff
	Mortality rates post-reproduction	ReproMortalityFemale, 0.99, 0.999 ReproMortalityMale		

Table 6.5: IBASAM parameter descriptions and selected values required in the submodels.

Continued on the next page

Submodel	Parameter type	Parameter name	Value	Remarks
	Degree-days necessary from fertilization to emergence	$DDmergeMin, \\ DDmergeMax$	880, 920	Prouzet and Gaignon (1982)
SM2	Parameters to relate water temperature to <i>aRt, bRt, cRt, d</i> egg survival		0.00019346, 5161.93, 0.608211, 19.055	Adjusted to observations from Peterson et al. (1977), Gunnes (1979) and Brännäs (1988).
	Parameters to relate water flow to egg survival	aF,bF	0.01,100	Adjusted to Scorff data.
	Critical flow influencing on egg survival	cFi, cFs	0.1, 7	Adjusted to Scorff data and selected most optimistic values
	Beverton-Holt stock-recruitment asymptote and slope	N fry Max, aBH	3.21/m2, 1	Estimated from Scorff data
	Coefficient of variation of weight distributions at emergence	sdWm	0.034	Fleming et al. (1996), Assume an identical variation for emerging weight than eggs weight
	Mean and standard deviation at population level of individual capacity to store growth into fat reserves pPercF	pPercFm, pPercFsd	0.12, 0.01	Rowe et al. (1991), Dêbowski et al. (1999)

6.4. SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Submodel	Parameter type	arameter type Parameter name Value		Remarks
	Minimal, maximal and parameter regulating the optimum temperature for growth	Tlr, Tup, gr	6.0, 24.5, 0.208	Forseth et al. (2001)
SM4 -	Growth speed according to temperature	dr	0.5	Adjusted (chapter 3)
	Density-dependent growth regulating parameter	$\beta dens$	142.7	Adjusted to Scorff data
-	Critical flow reinforcing density-dependent effect on growth	cFgi	0.2	Adjusted to Scorff data and selected most optimistic values
	Winter activity of young of the year future smolt, future smolt of more than a year and other parr	activitysmolt1 , activitysmoltN , activitywinter	0.725, 0.188, 0.1	Adjusted to Scorff data
-	Parameters for the Gompertz growth function at sea	Kg, Wmax	3.057074E3, 8500	Adjusted
	Supplementary percentage of growth allocated to fat reserves during maturation phases for males and females	matPercFmales, matPercFfemales	0.04, 0.18	Adjusted

Submodel	Parameter type	Parameter name	Value	Remarks
	Log–log weight-length relationships parameters for parr or smolt and anadromous individuals	$lwa_{parr}, lwb_{parr};$ lwa_{sea}, lwb_{sea}	3.804, 0.32; 3.82568, 0.333779	lwa_{parr} and lwb_{parr} adjusted to W–L data from parr of the Scorff river. lwa_{sea} and lwb_{sea} adjusted to Vibert (1950) data (for a wider range).
SM5	Daily survival probability depending on stage of individuals	Sp0+, Sp1, Sp1Mat, Sp1Smolt, SpMat, SpN, SpAnad	$\begin{array}{c} 0.9866210015,\\ 0.9934226796,\\ 0.98879532375,\\ 0.9987858846,\\ 0.9931621596,\\ 0.9997455, 1\end{array}$	Adjusted on Scorff data for SpN
	Parameters for length dependent survival at sea	$\alpha S,\beta S$	2.533333, -0.524	Adjusted
-	Maximum growth rate in river and sea	maxRIV, maxSEA	5, 50	adjusted to Scorff
-	Shape of the river trade-off function	sigRIV, kappaRIV	3.7, 0.001	adjusted to Scorff
-	Shape of the sea trade-off function	sigSEA, kappaSEA	100, 0.001	adjusted to Scorff
SM6	Time window for smoltification decision	$seawardMigration-\\DecisionWindow$	[274,274]	-
	Population level smoltification reaction norm parameters	LmidSm, aSm	89.03333, 0.15	Buoro et al. (2010)
SM7	Time window for sexual maturation for parr	nDaysWindow- RiverMaturation, nDaysProjection- RiverMaturation	61, 122	Thorpe et al. (1998)

Submodel	Parameter type	Parameter name	Value	Remarks
	Time window for sexual maturation for anadromous	riverwardMigration- DecisionWindow, nDaysProjection- SeaMaturation	[274,321], 135	Tréhin et al. (2021)
	Time window for seaward migration of smolts in spring	seaward Effective-Migration Window	[91,120]	Adjusted on Scorff
SM8	Probability to migrate to sea, i.e. departure (daily)	pSeawardMigration	0.9	Adjusted on Scorff
	Numbers of days before riverward migration	riverwardMigration- TimeOneSeaWinter, riverwardMigration- TimemultipleSeaWinter	254, 134	Adjusted on Scorff
_	Parameters for Laplace kernel	μ	0.0	Adjusted so that >80% of migrants disperse into the first 50km, Keefer and Caudill (2014)
	Mean dispersal distance (dispersal kernel parameters)	b	29.5	Adjusted so that >80% of migrants disperse into the first 50km, Keefer and Caudill (2014)
Other	Date of end of summer	Summer - end - doy	274	_
	Initial date (year and julian day) for simulation	$initial Y ear, \\ initial Doy$	1995, 267	_

Life stage	Ν	$\operatorname{Wm}(\operatorname{sd})$	Fatm (sd)	FemaleProb	MatureProb
Parr $0+$	10740	8 (1)	1.25(0.2)	0.5	0.05
Parr $1+$	500	7.7(1.8)	$0.64 \ (0.28)$	0.5	0
$1\mathrm{SW}$	651	2500 (500)	$370\ (100)$	0.467	1
MSW	40	4560(760)	590(110)	0.81	1

Table 6.6: IBASAM parameter descriptions and selected values for individuals initialization.



Figure 6.10: Global scheme of the spatial and temporal framework of the model processes.

255

6.5 CHAPTER HIGHLIGHTS

This chapter aimed at presenting the newest version of our modelling approach which addresses some gaps identified with the version that we used in this thesis. I also briefly presented some perspectives of improvements which may be based on the recent literature. The main lessons of this chapter are the following:

Chapter 6 highlights

- The new version of the model is now available on an interactive, shared platform, with an end user interface that can be easily used by managers;
- Flexibility in the spatial and temporal scale is now included;
- The genetic architecture is also more flexible;
- Perspectives of improvements of several processes may already be identified.

Chapter 7 General discussion

My thesis aimed to i) improve our understanding of eco-evolutionary dynamics in metapopulations, and to ii) demonstrate implications of dispersal for Atlantic salmon adaptation, persistence and management. These two main objectives addressed the four main gaps identified by this thesis, which were i) a lack of knowledge on the influence of spatial structure on populations eco-evolutionary dynamics and ii) adaptation networks, iii) the implications of dispersal for management of metapopulations, and iv) particularly in the case of salmonids for which dispersal is often overlooked. Using a modelling approach, this thesis explored these four main issues within three main chapters (chapters 3, 4, and 5).

I will first discuss the main findings of my thesis and their implications in relation to the two main objectives and the different gaps identified. Then, I will discuss the benefits and limits of the modelling approach applied. Finally, I will introduce potential perspectives for future research following this thesis, before to mention what is also a PhD to me and to conclude.

Contents

7.1	1.1 MAIN RESULTS AND IMPLICATIONS		
7	7.1.1	Metapopulation eco-evolutionary dynamics	
7	7.1.2	Implications of dispersal for Atlantic salmon dynamics and management	
7.2	Disc	CUSSION OF OUR MODELLING APPROACH $\ldots \ldots \ldots 264$	
7	7.2.1	DG-ABMs, a great but challenging potential for metapopulation research	
7	7.2.2	Interaction between modelling and empirical work	
7.3	PER	SPECTIVES	
7	7.3.1	Dispersal mechanisms	
7	7.3.2	Climate change	
7	7.3.3	Spatial structure	
7	7.3.4	Genetic architecture	
7.4	WH A	AT ALSO IS A PHD	
7.5	Con	CLUDING REMARKS	
Bibli	ograp	$phy \dots \dots phy \dots phy$	

7.1 Main results and implications

7.1.1 Metapopulation eco-evolutionary dynamics

This thesis builds on a large body of literature focusing on metapopulation theory and dynamics (Hanski, 1999; Hanski and Gaggiotti, 2004b), and adds more evidence on the complexity of interacting demographic and evolutionary consequences of connectivity (Fig. 7.2).

Demographic dynamics

First, with a parsimonious design of metapopulation structure without genetic diversity among populations, my work isolates the consequences of dispersal on both local populations and metapopulation demographic dynamics. At the local scale, dispersal provided demographic rescue of some populations (defined as "sink" in this thesis; chapter 3). In the context of exploited populations (chapter 5), immigration from protected source populations provided compensation of exploitation in sink populations, conferring an advantage to this strategy relatively to the protection of sink populations, and particularly for high dispersal rates (30%).

At the metapopulation scale, chapter 3 emphasizes a non-linear relationship between dispersal rates and the stability of the metapopulation. Yeakel et al. (2018) also found non-linear effects of dispersal on the stability of a network but for two populations of pink salmon only. With the particular parameterization of our model applied to Atlantic salmon, I show a dispersal optimum around 20% favoring the stability of the metapopulation (i.e., portfolio effect). Note that Wang et al. (2015) showed that the stabilizing and synchronizing effects of dispersal cancelled each other in a metapopulation model of homogeneous populations.

Interestingly, the optimal dispersal rate emerging from our modelling approach is consistent with the averaged emigration rate of 14.4% estimated on wild populations of Atlantic salmon, although based on a small number of studies (chapter 1). However, it likely depends on the dispersal kernel, the spatial structure of the network, and local populations dynamics and diversity. For instance, a portfolio effect of 1.05 and a regional synchrony of 0.63 (perso. com. Bouchard) have been estimated by Bouchard et al. (2022) on adult returns of 18 populations of Atlantic salmon from Brittany. The differences with values emerging from our model (chapter 3) might be explained because our simulations did not consider environmental covariation between populations. Yet, environmental conditions are known to synchronize the dynamics of populations, via the Moran effect (Moran, 1953; Bouchard et al., 2022). Thus, an optimum of dispersal is expected to emerge from metapopulation functioning but it may be context dependent.

Evolutionary dynamics

Along with demographic consequences, connectivity also influences the phenotypic and genotypic distributions of local populations. In a homogeneous network, chapter 3 isolated plastic responses of individual size and life history strategies to density changes induced by immigration and emigration patterns, which generated phenotypic diversity among populations. This is not surprising since salmonids are highly plastic species characterized by several life histories. For example, plastic response of age at migration and maturation to changes of river growth conditions have been showed in Pacific salmon (Cline et al., 2019), and a previous study using IBASAM model depicted postponed maturation at sea following the reduction of sea growth conditions for Atlantic salmon (Piou and Prévost, 2013). However, dispersal-induced changes of phenotypes have rarely been isolated to my knowledge.

Although populations did not show inbreeding depression in our simulations, chapters 3 and 4 also support the genetic rescue effect (i.e., increased genetic variance within populations) provided by movement of individuals among populations. The greater genetic variance provided by dispersal could potentially favor a better response of populations to an uncertain future with variable selective pressures in space and time (Jump et al., 2009).

The evolutionary response of populations within a network to perturbations (chapter 4) and selective pressures (exploitation, chapter 5) on a ecological time scale was also assessed in this thesis. Chapter 4 particularly highlighted the evolutionary rescue effect of dispersal, since adaptation of local populations was fostered by increased dispersal rates when combined with genetic diversity among the network. These results support the adaptation network theory, where diversity, combined with connectivity, provides ecological and evolutionary options to local populations (Webster et al., 2017). However, this is particularly true when there is no divergent selection among populations, and where the homogenizing effect of dispersal rather favors than impedes adaptation of local populations. Chapter 5 showcased evolutionary response of life history traits, such as growth and age at maturation, to increased exploitation. However, connectivity did not appear as a constraining or facilitating factor of adaptive response to exploitation, at least in the configuration

evaluated.

Spatial structure

My thesis highlighted the crucial influence of spatial structure of interconnected populations on the eco-evolutionary consequences of dispersal. In chapter 3, the demographic and plastic responses to dispersal depended on whether the populations were sink or source, which in this work, was strongly driven by the spatial structure (e.g., carrying capacity and distance between populations) of the metapopulation. In chapter 5, differential demographic and evolutionary response to exploitation emerged depending on the exploitation strategy (i.e., exploitation on sink or source), although it is difficult to disentangle interacting direct effects of immigrants, indirect effects of density changes, and differential adaptive response of local populations. One could nevertheless assume that various spatial structures of networks would lead to different consequences of exploitation.

Chapter 4 explicitly evaluated the effect of spatial structure on evolutionary dynamics and identified several components as potential drivers of evolutionary trajectories of populations. First, the spatial structure of genetic diversity, e.g. gradual vs random, is interacting with dispersal patterns to provide more or less opportunities for adaptation to local populations. Second, the spatial configuration of populations (distance and carrying capacities) modulates their evolutionary trajectories, with key populations (e.g., large, or highly productive, and highly connected) having a major influence on relatively smaller populations. Conversely, more isolated populations might be less influenced by dispersal patterns. Importantly, this was particularly true in our case because emigration intensity was scaled by carrying capacity of populations, and the dispersal kernel was strongly related to the distance between populations. These conclusions may thus be highly dependent on the dispersal kernel and dispersal process (e.g., attractivity towards large populations, long distance dispersal, negative density-dependent emigration).

7.1.2 Implications of dispersal for Atlantic salmon dynamics and management

This thesis provided insight into the implications of the metapopulation functioning for the management of Atlantic salmon populations (Fig. 7.2).

Atlantic salmon populations are not isolated systems

First, chapters 3, 4 and 5 all demonstrated that dispersal and metapopulation structure influence the stability, persistence, and adaptive response of local populations of Atlantic salmon to perturbations and exploitation. According to our results, any alteration in a source population could affect the demography, genotypic and phenotypic traits of surrounding populations via multiple and complex pathways (e.g., density effects, evolutionary response). Active management practices favoring the productivity and connectivity of a river, such as dam erasure, could also benefit interconnected adjacent populations. Therefore, I advocate that when studying or managing the dynamics of a population, one should consider that its dynamics may be influenced by dispersal from surrounding populations and *vice versa*. Prior work already warned about the danger of ignoring spatial structure and connectivity of populations (Cooper and Mangel, 1999; Ying et al., 2011), but it remains rarely considered into management decisions. For example, even if mixed-stock fisheries explicitly consider variation in productivity among harvested stocks, connectivity is rarely considered.

Encouraging knowledge on dispersal rates and metapopulation structure

Chapters 4 and 5 emphasized that a good knowledge of the network is mandatory to ensure conservation success. For example, according to chapter 4, some key populations might significantly drive the dynamics of others and favor their adaptation. Depending on their adaptive potential, it might be relevant to protect them or not in order to favor adaptation of a larger part of the network. Thus, identifying key populations based on their influence on eco-evolutionary dynamics of the metapopulation (e.g., adaptive value, higher genetic diversity) could enhance adaptation and conservation success. Also, a good knowledge of the diversity *among* populations, in addition to *within* populations diversity, could also target management actions towards highly diverse areas or promote diversity where it is limited. Chapter 5 also emphasizes a potential interest in identifying source/sink dynamics to protect source populations from exploitation rather than protecting the sink. This strategy may seem counter-intuitive for managers because there is a tendency to protect populations that are considered "at risk", such as those with smaller population sizes. Ultimately, a good knowledge of dispersal rates and patterns appears crucial, since they largely interact with the spatial structure (chapter 4) and exploitation strategies (chapter 5) to determine eco-evolutionary dynamics of the metapopulation and the portfolio effect (chapter 3). Altogether, this encourages empirical work dedicated to acquiring a better knowledge of the spatial genetic structure and configuration of the network, as well as dispersal patterns connecting populations.

Conservation according to the portfolio approach

However, the challenges described in chapter 2 of evaluating dispersal rates and metapopulation structure in nature make it unlikely to have an ideal knowledge of a system to manage. Applying management strategies based on limited estimations of dispersal patterns and population structure might be risky and lead to unsuccessful conservation actions. For example, protecting a population which has little effective influence on the network, or protecting a maladapted population instead of a population with high adaptive potential, might result from a misidentification of dispersal patterns and genetic diversity. Moreover, even if extensive knowledge would be ideally available on a system, the temporal variability of metapopulation dynamics may compromise the success of a conservation strategy in the long term. Thus, as pointed out in chapters 4 and 5, a safer strategy addressing these challenges and risks might be to spread conservation effort over a diversity of populations.

In addition, in the face of uncertain future changes and selective pressures, conserving populations diversity according to the portfolio approach would provide opportunities for adaptation to the network. Chapter 4 suggests that favoring adaptation network would help populations resilience to perturbations, by conserving diversity within and among populations and by favoring connectivity between habitats. This conservation approach gains mounting attention and evidence, in particular for the conservation of salmonids and corals in the context of climate change (Moore et al., 2021; Moore and Schindler, 2022; Colton et al., 2022). Anderson et al. (2015) advocates for preserving all the process promoting a diversity of thermal tolerance in salmon populations, such as genetic diversity of habitat heterogeneity. As Walsworth et al. (2019) for coral reefs, I advocate that considering the evolutionary capacity of interconnected salmonid populations might change the recommendations for conservation actions, for instance shifting from protecting thermal refugia to habitat diversity. I suggest for local (e.g., fishermen, migrating species protection association), regional (e.g., COGEPOMI), national (e.g., OFB) and international (e.g., CIEM) stakeholders that conservation strategies should consider the portfolio approach for managing salmon by focusing on a large scale (e.g., watersheds or region), favoring diversity of habitats (e.g., limiting habitat destruction and homogenization) and connectivity (e.g., removing dams).

Managing for diversity could also imply active management of gene flow between populations, for instance when habitat connectivity is not high enough to provide sufficient genetic diversity within populations. In the case of populations with low diversity, controlled translocation of individuals between populations could increase genetic variation and help populations to alleviate inbreeding depression in the short term, and to provide evolutionary options to future environment in the long term. However, particular attention must be paid to avoid complete homogenization of the populations. Fitzpatrick et al. (2020) documented genetic rescue in small populations of Trinidadian guppies and suggested assisted gene flow may be an effective conservation strategy, as well as other studies on salmonids (e.g., Pregler et al., 2018; Kazyak et al., 2022).

7.2 DISCUSSION OF OUR MODELLING APPROACH

This thesis provided key insight into all the above-mentioned aspects of metapopulation functioning and their implications for management of Atlantic salmon. This was made possible using a single and coherent modelling approach I am discussing below.

7.2.1 DG-ABMs, a great but challenging potential for metapopulation research

Across the chapters 2, 3, 4, and 5, my work emphasized the potential of demogenetic agent based models (DG-ABMs) to investigate eco-evolutionary dynamics within metapopulations. First, simulations constitute a framework for studies at a larger spatial and temporal scale than empirical studies, although long-term monitoring programs provide increasing spatially and temporally extended data. Second, as discussed in chapter 2, such process-based modelling approach allow the emergence of individual fitness and the resulting population and evolutionary dynamics, interacting within feedback loops. This emergence of observed patterns from multiple interacting processes (e.g., plasticity and genetic adaptation, chapter 3, 5) makes their interpretation more complex but more robust than if it was based on strong *a priori* assumptions. Third, the key benefit of using modelling approaches to evaluate implications of dispersal for management without threatening species or habitats by human intervention was illustrated by all the chapters.

However, developing and using such modelling approaches remains challenging. During their development, one has to identify which level of complexity is required for the precise aim of use, but it also largely depends on the knowledge available on the species. With the complexity of interacting processes, the parameterization and calibration of the model can also be tedious. Ultimately, the development and calibration of a model often result from a trade-off between generality and realism. For instance in this thesis, the model is based on the knowledge and data from the salmon metapopulation of Brittany, but it is not used to accurately represent and predict its dynamics. Instead, I used this model as a prospective tool informing knowledge on metapopulation dynamics and their implications for management. Indeed, I am in line with Holt (1990) who stated that "There is almost no species for which we know enough relevant ecology, physiology and genetics to predict its evolutionary response to climate change". But this still raises questions about the generality of model findings. We require realism (e.g., in processes or spatial structure) in our model to get closer to the complexity of species functioning or spatial dynamics, which may bring out unexpected patterns, but it is difficult to assess to which extent results based on a case study can be generalized. This is a concern I had throughout my thesis. I would say that the observed trends and patterns, e.g. between contrasting scenarios, can be generalized, but the observed values or levels of changes should change between systems or species.

Another issue related to this trade-off between generality and realism is the technical applicability of the model to other systems or other species. Since DG-ABMs offer the opportunity to explicitly represent the life cycle of species, they are often designed for one or few species and may hardly transferred to others. In this thesis, focusing on Atlantic salmon was motivated in many ways (chapter 1), but there is considerable interest in applying the same questions to other species facing similar issues. For instance, there is striking parallel between the challenges faced by Atlantic salmon in France and Pacific salmon in California (Herbold et al., 2018), being both at the southern edge of their distribution area and strongly impacted by climate change and exploitation.

Efforts can be undertaken to increase flexibility of models for other systems and species; the new version of IBASAM, presented in chapter 6, provides more flexibility in the parameters and time schedule of the processes integrated, enabling its adaptation to other salmonids. More flexibility on the spatial structure will also allow its application to different systems (e.g., dendritic). This version is still underway, with calibration and sensitivity analysis to be done, but perspectives of improvements have



already been identified (see chapter 6), often related to the findings of recent empirical work.

Figure 7.1: Feedback loop between DG-ABMs and empirical work.

7.2.2 Interaction between modelling and empirical work

Indeed, there is a strong interaction between modelling approaches and empirical work, that can be described with a loop (Fig. 7.1). Models are based on the knowledge provided by experimental and field work studies, which describe the main processes of species functioning, and are constantly updated with the most recent literature. In turn, models can provide insights into gaps of knowledge and identify factors that deserve more attention, motivating further empirical studies (Cordoleani et al., 2020).

For example, this thesis emphasized the importance of dispersal rate and spatial structure on the portfolio effect, evolutionary dynamics, and effects of exploitation. This may contribute to motivate empirical work on dispersal patterns in Brittany. A new tagging antenna, located on the Blavet river which shares an estuary with the Scorff river, identified several returning adults that were tagged as juveniles in the Scorff river, and preliminary genetic analyses suggest the Scorff population could be a source of many dispersing individuals (perso. com. Buoro). This is particularly interesting regarding our results, which indicated the Scorff as a potential sink population. It raises question about our definition of source/sink population based on the ratio immigrants /emigrants, which is largely driven by the spatial configuration of the network, rather than the intrinsic population growth rate (see Pulliam, 1988). This also supports a previous discussion of the risk of misidentifying

populations contributions and focusing conservation actions on them (section 7.1.2). It is therefore necessary to deepen these new genetic analyses and/or to extend tagging antenna to better identify the metapopulation structure of Brittany. Through the long-term monitoring program deployed on the Scorff, there are also opportunities to estimate the emigration rate, for instance by comparing the proportion of tagged smolts to the proportion of returning tagged adults (considering there is no differential mortality due to tagging).

7.3 **PERSPECTIVES**

This work constitutes a first step in the evaluation of the implications of metapopulation functioning on adaptation and management of Atlantic salmon populations. With parsimonious simulation designs, it shows certain limitations stated in the different chapters. It must therefore be pursued by future research for which some directions are discussed here (Fig. 7.2). These could be investigated via the new version of the model presented in chapter 6.

7.3.1 Dispersal mechanisms

I simulated dispersal as a random individual process, with a probability to disperse constant in space and time. Yet, evidence of spatial and temporal variation in dispersal in many taxa suggest that dispersal is likely not random (both for emigration and immigration, Conradt et al., 2000; Edelaar and Bolnick, 2012) and may be condition and context dependent (chapter 1). On salmonids, several studies suggested sex-biased (brook trout, Hutchings and Gerber, 2002; brook charr, Fraser et al., 2004; chinook, Hamann and Kennedy, 2012) and life history dependent (Atlantic salmon, Jonsson et al., 2003; sockeye, Lin et al., 2008) emigration. Density also have been identified as a potential driver of dispersal patterns; a collective navigation hypothesis has been proposed to explain patterns of high philopatry for large population size (Atlantic salmon, Jonsson et al., 2003; sockeye, Westley et al., 2015; Berdahl et al., 2016, 2017). A lower reproductive success of immigrants relatively to philopatric individuals has also been demonstrated in several studies (chum, Tallman and Healey, 1994; sockeye, Peterson et al., 2014; Atlantic, Dionne et al., 2008; Mobley et al., 2019), although there is few information if this is due to pre-or/and post-zygotic isolation (mate choice or offspring survival). A genetic basis of dispersal has also been suggested for salmonids (Keefer and Caudill, 2014 for review, in Atlantic salmon, Jonsson and Jonsson, 2017).
Integrating these mechanisms of dispersal might strongly impact eco-evolutionary For instance, introducing explicit cost and lower fitness of dispersers dynamics. might buffer the consequences of dispersal observed in the different chapters. Considering phenotypic-dependent emigration might also influence phenotypic and genotypic patterns, while negative density-dependent dispersal (collective behavior) could accelerate the decline of small populations. Yeakel et al. (2018) illustrated that the relationship between dispersal rate and metapopulation robustness may depend on the strength of collective behavior. Importantly, adding a genetic basis to dispersal might lead to unexpected emerging patterns of dispersal. According to chapter 3, selection should favor dispersal rates around 20% in a context of homogeneous According to chapter 4, high dispersal rates could be selected to populations. foster adaptation after a perturbation when there is no divergent selection among populations. More complex patterns of dispersal evolution could emerge when applying spatialized management strategies (chapter 5), where exploitation might select for dispersal in exploited populations and conservation might select against dispersal in protected populations such as showcased by Poethke et al. (2011). Therefore, further work evaluating the influence of dispersal mechanisms, and in particular dispersal evolution, might reevaluate the results of the thesis.

7.3.2 Climate change

Here, the adaptation and persistence of Atlantic salmon metapopulation was evaluated in a i) neutral context (chapter 3), ii) after a perturbation (chapter 4), and iii) facing exploitation (chapter 5). Yet, climate change is also a particularly pressing threat for species like salmonids, and evaluating its impact and implications for management is mandatory.

Relative effects of climate change and dispersal on synchrony

First, I suggest to focus on the synchronizing effect of climate change, which can be compared to the relative synchronizing effect of dispersal in the context of spatially structured populations. Indeed, chapter 3 highlighted the synchronizing effect of dispersal. But numerous studies suggested that the Moran effect, i.e. the synchrony of environmental conditions, might play an important role (Ranta et al., 1999; Koenig, 2002). Climate change has the potential to synchronize selection regimes in spatially structured populations (Kahilainen et al., 2018) as it drives environmental temporal trends at a large scale (Post and Forchhammer, 2002, 2004; Parmesan and Yohe, 2003; Shestakova et al., 2016; Hansen et al., 2020; Fisogni et al., 2022), as well as the overlooked simultaneous occurrence of frequent extreme events (Hansen et al., 2013).

This large body of literature raises concern about salmonids stability, whose complex life cycle could increase the probability for synchronizing factors at different life stages or rather mitigate these effects. Bellmore et al. (2022) showed that climate change induced homogenization of flow regimes across a watershed (initially fed by glacier, snowpack or rain), synchronizing resource phenologies and growth opportunities for juvenile salmonids with potential consequences for life history expression and stability. Bouchard et al. (2022) also identified a Moran effect of summer low flow on the synchrony of Atlantic salmon juveniles, while Olmos et al. (2020) identified a response of salmon populations to common sea climate changes impacting marine survival. Thus, it would be interesting to evaluate with our modelling approach if climate change would increase the synchrony of populations and reduce the stability of the network, and if different levels of diversity and asynchrony among populations might buffer this effect.

Adaptation network

Besides its synchronizing effect, climate change also has impacts on river and sea survival which threatens salmonids species (Jonsson and Jonsson, 2009; Crozier et al., 2021; Warkentin et al., 2022). Climate change is also a selective pressure which can have evolutionary consequences on life history traits (e.g., Reed et al., 2011*a*; Piou and Prévost, 2013, Nadeau and Urban, 2019 for review). However, these evolutionary responses are often investigated at the population scale. In chapter 4, we analysed the adaptive capacity of a network of populations after a temporary perturbation, which may strongly differ from a directional and gradual change induced by climate change. Building on the work of Penaluna et al. (2015), Fullerton (2016), Walsworth et al. (2019), and McManus et al. (2021*b*), evaluating the adaptive capacity of interconnected and diversified populations of Atlantic salmon facing climate change is thus a central question, and the theory of adaptation network could be particularly interesting to examine in this context.

How dispersal will evolve with climate change is also a hot topic (Travis et al., 2013). Empirical work suggested increased gene flow between neighboring populations of Atlantic salmon with increasing temperatures and lower discharges (Valiente et al., 2010), while a theoretical study found that high rates of climate change can select for increased dispersal distances (Boeye et al., 2013). Integrating a genetic basis of

dispersal to assess climate change impacts is therefore another avenue of study with our modelling approach.

7.3.3 Spatial structure

My work highlighted the importance of spatial structure (e.g., carrying capacity and distance between populations) on eco-evolutionary dynamics of populations. This motivates further work evaluating more contrasted structures, such as dendritic (e.g., the Adour system) vs coastal rivers (e.g., the Brittany system). Several hypothesis could be tested around the spatial structure of metapopulations.

First, an interesting area of study would be to compare the level of environmental and population diversity resulting from contrasted spatial structure. Paz-Vinas and Blanchet (2015) and Thomaz et al. (2016) found higher genetic diversity and differentiation related to a dendritic landscape, while Altermatt and Fronhofer (2018) found more variable population densities in dendritic networks than in linear networks. The complexity of the network (branching prevalence) was also showed to influence population synchrony (Yeakel et al., 2014; Larsen et al., 2021). The case of the Adour system, where Atlantic salmon populations are present, is particularly interesting to compare with the Brittany metapopulation. Indeed, its geological and hydrological context, with a combination of rivers fed from rainfall and snow-melt water, might generate higher diversity of population dynamics than the Brittany system composed of coastal rivers (see Bellmore et al., 2022). Assuming differences of biocomplexity between the two systems, evaluating differential response to climate change could be relevant.

Second, our modelling approach provides opportunity to examine if different spatial structures lead to evolution of contrasted dispersal rates via kin selection; indeed, dispersal evolution was showed to emerge from kin structure in similar DG-ABM models (Poethke et al., 2007; Fronhofer and Altermatt, 2017). However, dispersal evolution might be strongly related to the cost of dispersal, to the size of populations (stronger effect of kin competition in small populations), and these studies were applied for simple life cycles with non-overlapping generations. One can wonder if this effect is still visible in the case of overlapping generations such as in Atlantic salmon and what conditions are necessary for this effect to emerge. An interesting case could be a comparison of emerging dispersal rates between Atlantic salmon and Pink salmon (*Oncorhynchus gorbuscha*), a species whose generations are non overlapping and which shows particularly high rates of dispersal while extending its distribution

range (Sandlund et al., 2019).

Third, one could also investigate the influence of spatial structure on the consequences of dispersal. For example, in dendritic networks, populations closer to the estuary might be more influenced by dispersal compared to populations in headwaters, if dispersers show a spatial distribution closer to the river mouth than philopatric individuals. A study to which I contributed depicted a decrease in the immigration rate of anadromous brown trout with distance to river mouth in three different rivers using genetic assignment of individuals to populations (see Appendix A, Chat et al., 2022). Besides, this study also suggests that estimates of dispersal rates from field studies must be interpreted with caution since locations of sampling sites might strongly determine estimations.

7.3.4 Genetic architecture

In this thesis, fitness related traits with an underlying genetic basis were maturation thresholds and growth potential. Evaluating the evolution of other life history traits under selection by including a genetic basis constitutes another perspective of work. In particular, phenological traits, such as spawning timing, or traits related to thermal tolerance, might evolve in response to climate change, and adaptive alleles might spread within adaptation networks via dispersal. A comparison of the evolution of these traits and the adaptation of populations to climate change could be carried out between different scenarios of spatial structures (e.g., driving connectivity), dispersal (e.g., with or without a genetic basis), and initial biocomplexity (e.g., homogeneous network of Brittany vs heterogeneous network of Adour system).

The flexibility in the genetic architecture of the new version of our modelling approach presented in chapter 6 also opens up new perspective of work on the influence of genetic architecture on the evolution of life history traits within a metapopulation context. Indeed, there is mounting evidence of the presence of a single major locus influencing age at maturation in salmonids (Barson et al., 2015; Sinclair-Waters et al., 2020), and this genetic architecture, relatively to polygenic basis of traits, is expected in populations connected by gene flow according to (Savolainen et al., 2013). Moreover, Kardos and Luikart (2021) showed theoretically that polygenic trait architectures conferred higher evolutionary potential and population viability than genetic architectures with large-effect loci. Therefore, an improved understanding of the influence of genetic architecture within metapopulations on the evolution of fitnessrelated traits has important implications for our understanding of adaptation and for the conservation of natural populations (Waples et al., 2022). Regarding management, the loss of large-effect adaptive alleles and thereby adaptive phenotypes (Thompson et al., 2019) might be more likely than if there are polygenic; evolutionary rescue via immigration might be crucial in this case, and conservation of connectivity and regions with adaptive potential would be mandatory.



Figure 7.2: Diagram of the conclusions and perspectives (dotted boxes) of the thesis.

7.4 What also is a PhD

Ultimately, I would like to wrap up this general discussion of my dissertation with personal thoughts on what a PhD can also be and what was my experience, hoping it may motivate further students. In my opinion, a PhD is an opportunity to lead a project, almost full-time, with a relatively large freedom, and to develop by your own (and often with the help of your supervisors) the skills of the research process (keeping up with the (sometimes overwhelming) literature, designing experiments, analysing (sometimes weird) results, identifying perspectives, redesigning experiments). But in my opinion, besides these research aspects, a PhD also offers time for various opportunities: in my case, it gave me the opportunity to apply for travel grants (Fulbright), to visit another lab, to present my work in multiple conferences (although most of them were virtual), to supervise an internship, to teach at the university, and last but not least, to organize an international conference (Fig. 7.3). These different activities took a significant part of my time but were very rewarding experiences and I believe introduced me to the many components of a researcher's work.



Figure 7.3: Poster of the NoWPaS 2022 held in France.

7.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

I believe my work contributed to improve our understanding of the demographic and evolutionary consequences of dispersal, showcased the importance of spatial structure of populations, and emphasized potential implications for Atlantic salmon management. In particular, Atlantic salmon populations should not be considered as isolated systems, and their conservation would benefit from more knowledge on their spatial structure and dispersal patterns, and from considering the portfolio approach. My thesis also identified gaps of knowledge and opens up new perspectives of work, particularly focusing on evaluating metapopulation response to climate change by explicitly considering dispersal mechanisms, spatial structure of populations, and genetic architecture of traits. I also hope to have demonstrated the potential of our modelling approach, which is in constant evolution following advances in empirical work, and I hope it motivates further work on the topic.

Bibliography

- Aars, J., and R. A. Ims. 2000. Population dynamic and genetic consequences of spatial density-dependent dispersal in patchy populations. The American Naturalist 155:252–265. doi:10.1086/303317. (Cited on page 5.)
- Abbott, R. E., D. F. Doak, and M. L. Peterson. 2017. Portfolio effects, climate change, and the persistence of small populations: Analyses on the rare plant *Saussurea weberi*. Ecology 98:1071–1081. doi:10.1002/ecy.1738. (Cited on pages 16 and 78.)
- Akçakaya, H. R., G. Mills, and C. P. Doncaster. 2007. The role of metapopulations in conservation. Pages 64–84 in D. W. Macdonald and K. Service, eds. Key Topics in Conservation Biology. Blackwell Publishing. (Cited on page 177.)
- Allendorf, F. W., and J. J. Hard. 2009. Human-induced evolution caused by unnatural selection through harvest of wild animals. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 106:9987–9994. doi:10.1073/pnas.0901069106. (Cited on page 179.)
- Altermatt, F., and E. A. Fronhofer. 2018. Dispersal in dendritic networks: Ecological consequences on the spatial distribution of population densities. Freshwater Biology 63:22– 32. doi:10.1111/fwb.12951. (Cited on page 270.)
- Anderson, C. N. K., C.-h. Hsieh, S. A. Sandin, R. Hewitt, A. Hollowed, J. Beddington, R. M. May, and G. Sugihara. 2008. Why fishing magnifies fluctuations in fish abundance. Nature 452:835–839. doi:10.1038/nature06851. (Cited on page 125.)
- Anderson, S. C., A. B. Cooper, and N. K. Dulvy. 2013. Ecological prophets: Quantifying metapopulation portfolio effects. Methods in Ecology and Evolution 4:971–981. doi:10.1111/2041-210X.12093. (Cited on page 94.)
- Anderson, S. C., J. W. Moore, M. M. McClure, N. K. Dulvy, and A. B. Cooper. 2015. Portfolio conservation of metapopulations under climate change. Ecological Applications 25:559–572. doi:10.1890/14-0266.1. (Cited on pages 16, 22, 78, 178 and 263.)
- Andrade-Restrepo, M., N. Champagnat, and R. Ferrière. 2019. Local adaptation, dispersal evolution, and the spatial eco-evolutionary dynamics of invasion. Ecology Letters 22:767– 777. doi:10.1111/ele.13234. (Cited on page 126.)
- Andreassen, H. P., and R. A. Ims. 2001. Dispersal in patchy vole populations: Role of patch configuration, density dependence, and demography. Ecology 82:2911–2926. doi:10.1890/0012-9658(2001)082[2911:DIPVPR]2.0.CO;2. (Cited on page 5.)
- Anholt, B. R. 1990. Size-biased dispersal prior to breeding in a damselfly. Oecologia 83:385– 387. doi:10.1007/BF00317564. (Cited on page 4.)
- Arismendi, I., M. Safeeq, J. B. Dunham, and S. L. Johnson. 2014. Can air temperature be used to project influences of climate change on stream temperature? Environmental Research Letters 9:084015. doi:10.1088/1748-9326/9/8/084015. (Cited on page 111.)

- Arkoosh, M. R., E. Casillas, E. Clemons, A. N. Kagley, R. Olson, P. Reno, and J. E. Stein. 1998. Effect of pollution on fish diseases: Potential impacts on salmonid populations. Journal of Aquatic Animal Health 10:182–190. doi:10.1577/1548-8667(1998)010<0182:EOPOFD>2.0.CO;2. (Cited on page 23.)
- Ayllón, D., G. G. Nicola, B. Elvira, and A. Almodóvar. 2019a. Optimal harvest regulations under conflicting tradeoffs between conservation and recreational fishery objectives. Fisheries Research 216:47–58. doi:10.1016/j.fishres.2019.03.021. (Cited on page 180.)
- Ayllón, D., S. Railsback, B. Harvey, I. García Quirós, G. Nicola, B. Elvira, and A. Almodóvar. 2019b. Mechanistic simulations predict that thermal and hydrological effects of climate change on Mediterranean trout cannot be offset by adaptive behaviour, evolution, and increased food production. Science of the Total Environment 693. doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.133648. (Cited on page 60.)
- Ayllón, D., S. F. Railsback, A. Almodóvar, G. G. Nicola, S. Vincenzi, B. Elvira, and V. Grimm. 2018. Eco-evolutionary responses to recreational fishing under different harvest regulations. Ecology and Evolution 8:9600–9613. doi:10.1002/ece3.4270. (Cited on pages 63, 104 and 195.)
- Ayllón, D., S. F. Railsback, C. Gallagher, J. Augusiak, H. Baveco, U. Berger, S. Charles, R. Martin, A. Focks, N. Galic, C. Liu, E. E. van Loon, J. Nabe-Nielsen, C. Piou, J. G. Polhill, T. G. Preuss, V. Radchuk, A. Schmolke, J. Stadnicka-Michalak, P. Thorbek, and V. Grimm. 2021. Keeping modelling notebooks with TRACE: Good for you and good for environmental research and management support. Environmental Modelling & Software 136:104932. doi:10.1016/j.envsoft.2020.104932. (Cited on page 65.)
- Ayllón, D., S. F. Railsback, S. Vincenzi, J. Groeneveld, A. Almodóvar, and V. Grimm. 2016. InSTREAM-Gen: Modelling eco-evolutionary dynamics of trout populations under anthropogenic environmental change. Ecological Modelling 326:36–53. doi:10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2015.07.026. (Cited on pages 59, 69 and 79.)
- Bach, L., R. Thomsen, C. Pertoldi, and V. Loeschcke. 2006. Kin competition and the evolution of dispersal in an individual-based model. Ecological Modelling 192:658–666. doi:10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2005.07.026. (Cited on pages 7, 14 and 51.)
- Baguette, M. 2004. The classical metapopulation theory and the real, natural world: A critical appraisal. Basic and Applied Ecology 5:213–224. doi:10.1016/j.baae.2004.03.001. (Cited on page 41.)
- Baguette, M., R. Michniewicz, and V. M. Stevens. 2017. Ecology: From genes to metapopulations. Nature Ecology & Evolution 1:1–2. doi:10.1038/s41559-017-0130. (Cited on pages 40, 42, 126 and 127.)
- Baguette, M., S. Petit, and F. Quéva. 2000. Population spatial structure and migration of three butterfly species within the same habitat network: Consequences for conservation. Journal of Applied Ecology 37:100–108. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2664.2000.00478.x. (Cited on page 5.)

- Baguette, M., and N. Schtickzelle. 2003. Local population dynamics are important to the conservation of metapopulations in highly fragmented landscapes. Journal of Applied Ecology 40:404–412. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2664.2003.00791.x. (Cited on page 21.)
- Bal, G., E. Rivot, J.-L. Baglinière, J. White, and E. Prévost. 2014. A hierarchical bayesian model to quantify uncertainty of stream water temperature forecasts. PLOS ONE 9:e115659. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0115659. (Cited on page 111.)
- Barbraud, C., and K. Delord. 2021. Selection against immigrants in wild seabird populations. Ecology Letters 24:84–93. doi:10.1111/ele.13624. (Cited on page 126.)
- Barson, N. J., T. Aykanat, K. Hindar, M. Baranski, G. H. Bolstad, P. Fiske, C. Jacq, A. J. Jensen, S. E. Johnston, S. Karlsson, M. Kent, T. Moen, E. Niemelä, T. Nome, T. F. Næsje, P. Orell, A. Romakkaniemi, H. Sægrov, K. Urdal, J. Erkinaro, S. Lien, and C. R. Primmer. 2015. Sex-dependent dominance at a single locus maintains variation in age at maturity in salmon. Nature 528:405–408. doi:10.1038/nature16062. (Cited on pages 24, 78, 212, 232 and 271.)
- Barton, N. H. 1992. The genetic consequences of dispersal. Pages 37–59 in N. C. Stenseth and W. Z. Lidicker, eds. Animal Dispersal: Small Mammals as a Model. Springer Netherlands, Dordrecht. (Cited on page 13.)
- Bascompte, J., and R. V. Sole. 1996. Habitat fragmentation and extinction thresholds in spatially explicit models. Journal of Animal Ecology 65:465–473. doi:10.2307/5781. (Cited on page 41.)
- Bassar, R. D., T. Coulson, J. Travis, and D. N. Reznick. 2021. Towards a more precise and accurate – view of eco-evolution. Ecology Letters 24:623–625. doi:10.1111/ele.13712. (Cited on page 45.)
- Baum, D., R. Laughton, J. D. Armstrong, and N. B. Metcalfe. 2005. The effect of temperature on growth and early maturation in a wild population of Atlantic salmon parr. Journal of Fish Biology 67:1370–1380. doi:10.1111/j.0022-1112.2005.00832.x. (Cited on page 85.)
- Bell, G., and A. Gonzalez. 2011. Adaptation and evolutionary rescue in metapopulations experiencing environmental deterioration. Science 332:1327–1330. doi:10.1126/science.1203105. (Cited on pages 18 and 125.)
- Bellmore, J. R., J. B. Fellman, E. Hood, M. R. Dunkle, and R. T. Edwards. 2022. A melting cryosphere constrains fish growth by synchronizing the seasonal phenology of river food webs. Global Change Biology 28:4807–4818. doi:10.1111/gcb.16273. (Cited on pages 148, 269 and 270.)
- Benson, A. J., S. P. Cox, and J. S. Cleary. 2015. Evaluating the conservation risks of aggregate harvest management in a spatially-structured herring fishery. Fisheries Research 167:101– 113. doi:10.1016/j.fishres.2015.02.003. (Cited on page 178.)

- Benton, T. G., and D. E. Bowler. 2012. Linking dispersal to spatial dynamics. Pages 251–265 in Dispersal Ecology and Evolution, oxford university press ed. OUP Oxford. (Cited on pages 12, 14 and 15.)
- Berdahl, A., C. J. Torney, E. Schertzer, and S. A. Levin. 2015. On the evolutionary interplay between dispersal and local adaptation in heterogeneous environments. Evolution 69:1390– 1405. doi:10.1111/evo.12664. (Cited on pages 79, 81, 102, 103 and 123.)
- Berdahl, A., P. A. H. Westley, S. A. Levin, I. D. Couzin, and T. P. Quinn. 2016. A collective navigation hypothesis for homeward migration in anadromous salmonids. Fish and Fisheries 17:525–542. doi:10.1111/faf.12084. (Cited on pages 89, 102, 147, 198, 211, 241 and 267.)
- Berdahl, A., P. A. H. Westley, and T. P. Quinn. 2017. Social interactions shape the timing of spawning migrations in an anadromous fish. Animal Behaviour 126:221–229. doi:10.1016/j.anbehav.2017.01.020. (Cited on page 267.)
- Berec, L., A. M. Kramer, V. Bernhauerová, and J. M. Drake. 2018. Density-dependent selection on mate search and evolution of Allee effects. Journal of Animal Ecology 87:24– 35. doi:10.1111/1365-2656.12662. (Cited on page 60.)
- Bett, N. N., S. G. Hinch, N. J. Burnett, M. R. Donaldson, and S. M. Naman. 2017. Causes and consequences of straying into small populations of Pacific salmon. Fisheries 42:220–230. doi:10.1080/03632415.2017.1276356. (Cited on pages 28 and 102.)
- Beverton, R. J. H., and S. J. Holt. 1957. On the Dynamics of Exploited Fish Populations. Fish and Fisheries Series. Springer Science & Business Media. (Cited on page 225.)
- Birnie-Gauvin, K., M. H. Larsen, and K. Aarestrup. 2021. Energetic state and the continuum of migratory tactics in brown trout (*Salmo trutta*). Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 78:1435–1443. doi:10.1139/cjfas-2021-0025. (Cited on page 244.)
- Birnie-Gauvin, K., E. B. Thorstad, and K. Aarestrup. 2019. Overlooked aspects of the Salmo salar and Salmo trutta lifecycles. Reviews in Fish Biology and Fisheries 29:749– 766. doi:10.1007/s11160-019-09575-x. (Cited on pages 32, 78 and 128.)
- Biro, P. A., M. V. Abrahams, J. R. Post, and E. A. Parkinson. 2006. Behavioural trade-offs between growth and mortality explain evolution of submaximal growth rates. Journal of Animal Ecology 75:1165–1171. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2656.2006.01137.x. (Cited on pages 87, 106 and 236.)
- Bitume, E. V., D. Bonte, O. Ronce, F. Bach, E. Flaven, I. Olivieri, and C. M. Nieberding. 2013. Density and genetic relatedness increase dispersal distance in a subsocial organism. Ecology Letters 16:430–437. doi:10.1111/ele.12057. (Cited on pages 4, 5 and 7.)
- Blanquart, F., and S. Gandon. 2011. Evolution of migration in a periodically changing environment. The American Naturalist 177:188–201. doi:10.1086/657953. (Cited on page 125.)

- Bocedi, G., S. C. F. Palmer, A.-K. Malchow, D. Zurell, K. Watts, and J. M. J. Travis. 2021. RangeShifter 2.0: An extended and enhanced platform for modelling spatial eco-evolutionary dynamics and species' responses to environmental changes. Ecography 44:1453–1462. doi:10.1111/ecog.05687. (Cited on page 79.)
- Bocedi, G., S. C. F. Palmer, G. Pe'er, R. K. Heikkinen, Y. G. Matsinos, K. Watts, and J. M. J. Travis. 2014. RangeShifter: A platform for modelling spatial eco-evolutionary dynamics and species' responses to environmental changes. Methods in Ecology and Evolution 5:388– 396. doi:10.1111/2041-210X.12162. (Cited on pages 69, 79, 82 and 103.)
- Bochdansky, A. B., P. Grønkjær, T. P. Herra, and W. C. Leggett. 2005. Experimental evidence for selection against fish larvae with high metabolic rates in a food limited environment. Marine Biology 147:1413–1417. doi:10.1007/s00227-005-0036-z. (Cited on pages 87, 106 and 236.)
- Boeye, J., J. M. J. Travis, R. Stoks, and D. Bonte. 2013. More rapid climate change promotes evolutionary rescue through selection for increased dispersal distance. Evolutionary Applications 6:353–364. doi:10.1111/eva.12004. (Cited on page 269.)
- Bohlin, T., C. Dellefors, and U. Faremo. 1993. Timing of sea-run brown trout (Salmo trutta) smolt migration: Effects of climatic variation. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 50:1132–1136. doi:10.1139/f93-128. (Cited on page 245.)
- ——. 1996. Date of smolt migration depends on body-size but not age in wild sea-run brown trout. Journal of Fish Biology 49:157–164. doi:10.1111/j.1095-8649.1996.tb00012.x. (Cited on page 244.)
- Bolnick, D. I., P. Amarasekare, M. S. Araújo, R. Bürger, J. M. Levine, M. Novak, V. H. Rudolf, S. J. Schreiber, M. C. Urban, and D. Vasseur. 2011. Why intraspecific trait variation matters in community ecology. Trends in ecology & evolution 26:183–192. doi:10.1016/j.tree.2011.01.009. (Cited on page 16.)
- Bonte, D., and Q. Bafort. 2019. The importance and adaptive value of life-history evolution for metapopulation dynamics. Journal of Animal Ecology 88:24–34. doi:10.1111/1365-2656.12928. (Cited on pages 103, 126 and 127.)
- Bonte, D., and E. De La Peña. 2009. Evolution of body condition-dependent dispersal in metapopulations. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 22:1242–1251. doi:10.1111/j.1420-9101.2009.01737.x. (Cited on page 14.)
- Bonte, D., A. De Roissart, N. Wybouw, and T. Van Leeuwen. 2014. Fitness maximization by dispersal: Evidence from an invasion experiment. Ecology 95:3104–3111. doi:10.1890/13-2269.1. (Cited on page 7.)
- Bonte, D., H. V. Dyck, J. M. Bullock, A. Coulon, M. Delgado, M. Gibbs, V. Lehouck,
 E. Matthysen, K. Mustin, M. Saastamoinen, N. Schtickzelle, V. M. Stevens,
 S. Vandewoestijne, M. Baguette, K. Barton, T. G. Benton, A. Chaput-Bardy, J. Clobert,
 C. Dytham, T. Hovestadt, C. M. Meier, S. C. F. Palmer, C. Turlure, and J. M. J.

Travis. 2012. Costs of dispersal. Biological Reviews 87:290–312. doi:10.1111/j.1469-185X.2011.00201.x. (Cited on pages 8 and 102.)

- Bonte, D., S. Masier, and F. Mortier. 2018. Eco-evolutionary feedbacks following changes in spatial connectedness. Current Opinion in Insect Science 29:64–70. doi:10.1016/j.cois.2018.06.003. (Cited on page 14.)
- Bordeleau, X., S. A. Pardo, G. Chaput, J. April, B. Dempson, M. Robertson, A. Levy, R. Jones, J. A. Hutchings, F. G. Whoriskey, and G. T. Crossin. 2020. Spatio-temporal trends in the importance of iteroparity across Atlantic salmon populations of the northwest Atlantic. ICES Journal of Marine Science 77:326–344. doi:10.1093/icesjms/fsz188. (Cited on pages 29 and 84.)
- Bouchard, C., A. Bardonnet, M. Buoro, and C. Tentelier. 2018. Effects of spatial aggregation of nests on population recruitment: The case of a small population of Atlantic salmon. Ecosphere 9:e02178. doi:10.1002/ecs2.2178. (Cited on page 245.)
- Bouchard, C., M. Buoro, C. Lebot, and S. M. Carlson. 2022. Synchrony in population dynamics of juvenile Atlantic salmon: Analyzing spatiotemporal variation and the influence of river flow and demography. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 79:782– 794. doi:10.1139/cjfas-2021-0017. (Cited on pages 79, 91, 132, 182, 259, 260 and 269.)
- Bowlby, H. D., and A. J. F. Gibson. 2020. Evaluating whether metapopulation structure benefits endangered diadromous fishes. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 77:388–400. doi:10.1139/cjfas-2019-0001. (Cited on pages 28, 78, 79, 80, 81 and 100.)
- Bowler, D. E., and T. G. Benton. 2005. Causes and consequences of animal dispersal strategies: Relating individual behaviour to spatial dynamics. Biological Reviews 80:205– 225. doi:10.1017/S1464793104006645. (Cited on pages 4, 5, 6 and 7.)
- Bradford, M. J., and D. C. Braun. 2021. Regional and local effects drive changes in spawning stream occupancy in a sockeye salmon metapopulation. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 78:1084–1095. doi:10.1139/cjfas-2020-0463. (Cited on pages 178 and 179.)
- Brady, S. P., D. I. Bolnick, A. L. Angert, A. Gonzalez, R. D. Barrett, E. Crispo, A. M. Derry, C. G. Eckert, D. J. Fraser, G. F. Fussmann, F. Guichard, T. Lamy, A. G. McAdam, A. E. Newman, A. Paccard, G. Rolshausen, A. M. Simons, and A. P. Hendry. 2019. Causes of maladaptation. Evolutionary Applications 12:1229–1242. doi:10.1111/eva.12844. (Cited on page 125.)
- Brandon, R. N. 2014. Adaptation and Environment. Princeton University Press. (Cited on page 3.)
- Brännäs, E. 1988. Emergence of Baltic salmon, Salmo salar L., in relation to temperature: A laboratory study. Journal of Fish Biology 33:589–600. doi:10.1111/j.1095-8649.1988.tb05502.x. (Cited on page 224.)

- Braun, D. C., J. W. Moore, J. Candy, and R. E. Bailey. 2016. Population diversity in salmon: Linkages among response, genetic and life history diversity. Ecography 39:317– 328. doi:10.1111/ecog.01102. (Cited on page 16.)
- Bromaghin, J. F., R. M. Nielson, and J. J. Hard. 2011. A model of Chinook salmon population dynamics incorporating size-selective exploitation and inheritance of polygenic correlated traits. Natural Resource Modeling 24:1–47. doi:10.1111/j.1939-7445.2010.00077.x. (Cited on pages 70 and 83.)
- Brown, J. H., and A. Kodric-Brown. 1977. Turnover rates in insular biogeography: Effect of immigration on extinction. Ecology 58:445–449. doi:10.2307/1935620. (Cited on page 12.)
- Buoro, M., and S. M. Carlson. 2014. Life-history syndromes: Integrating dispersal through space and time. Ecology Letters 17:756–767. doi:10.1111/ele.12275. (Cited on pages 3 and 77.)
- Buoro, M., E. Prévost, and O. Gimenez. 2010. Investigating evolutionary trade-offs in wild populations of atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*): Incorporating detection probabilities and individual heterogeneity. Evolution; International Journal of Organic Evolution 64:2629– 2642. doi:10.1111/j.1558-5646.2010.01029.x. (Cited on pages 33, 85 and 238.)
- Cabeza, M. 2003. Habitat loss and connectivity of reserve networks in probability approaches to reserve design. Ecology Letters 6:665–672. doi:10.1046/j.1461-0248.2003.00475.x. (Cited on page 20.)
- Cabeza, M., M. B. Araújo, R. J. Wilson, C. D. Thomas, M. J. R. Cowley, and A. Moilanen. 2004a. Combining probabilities of occurrence with spatial reserve design. Journal of Applied Ecology 41:252–262. doi:10.1111/j.0021-8901.2004.00905.x. (Cited on page 20.)
- Cabeza, M., A. Moilanen, and H. P. Possingham. 2004b. Metapopulation dynamics and reserve network design. Pages 541–564 in I. Hanski and O. E. Gaggiotti, eds. Ecology, Genetics and Evolution of Metapopulations. Academic Press, Burlington. (Cited on pages 20 and 21.)
- Capra, H., P. Breil, and Y. Souchon. 1995. A new tool to interpret magnitude and duration of fish habitat variations. Regulated Rivers: Research & Management 10:281–289. doi:10.1002/rrr.3450100221. (Cited on page 233.)
- Carlson, S. M., C. J. Cunningham, and P. A. H. Westley. 2014. Evolutionary rescue in a changing world. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 29:521–530. doi:10.1016/j.tree.2014.06.005. (Cited on pages 17, 18, 77, 125 and 179.)
- Carlson, S. M., and W. H. Satterthwaite. 2011. Weakened portfolio effect in a collapsed salmon population complex. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 68:1579– 1589. doi:10.1139/f2011-084. (Cited on pages 17, 78 and 100.)
- Carlson, S. M., and T. R. Seamons. 2008. A review of quantitative genetic components of fitness in salmonids: Implications for adaptation to future change: Quantitative genetics of charr, salmon, and trout. Evolutionary Applications 1:222–238. doi:10.1111/j.1752-4571.2008.00025.x. (Cited on page 244.)

- Carr-Harris, C. N., J. W. Moore, A. S. Gottesfeld, J. A. Gordon, W. M. Shepert, J. D. J. Henry Jr., H. J. Russell, W. N. B. Helin, D. J. Doolan, and T. D. Beacham. 2018. Phenological diversity of salmon smolt migration timing within a large watershed. Transactions of the American Fisheries Society 147:775–790. doi:10.1002/tafs.10068. (Cited on page 245.)
- Carrara, F., A. Rinaldo, A. Giometto, and F. Altermatt. 2014. Complex interaction of dendritic connectivity and hierarchical patch size on biodiversity in river-like landscapes. The American Naturalist 183:13–25. doi:10.1086/674009. (Cited on page 126.)
- Carroll, S. P., A. P. Hendry, D. N. Reznick, and C. W. Fox. 2007. Evolution on ecological time-scales. Functional Ecology 21:387–393. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2435.2007.01289.x. (Cited on page 45.)
- Castellani, M., M. Heino, J. Gilbey, H. Araki, T. Svåsand, and K. A. Glover. 2015. IBSEM: An Individual-Based Atlantic Salmon Population Model. PLOS ONE 10:e0138444. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0138444. (Cited on pages 28, 63, 69, 70 and 78.)
- Castric, V., and L. Bernatchez. 2004. Individual assignment test reveals differential restriction to dispersal between two salmonids despite no increase of genetic differences with distance. Molecular Ecology 13:1299–1312. doi:10.1111/j.1365-294X.2004.02129.x. (Cited on page 32.)
- Cayuela, H., Q. Rougemont, J. G. Prunier, J.-S. Moore, J. Clobert, A. Besnard, and L. Bernatchez. 2018. Demographic and genetic approaches to study dispersal in wild animal populations: A methodological review. Molecular Ecology 27:3976–4010. doi:10.1111/mec.14848. (Cited on page 77.)
- Ceballos, G., P. R. Ehrlich, A. D. Barnosky, A. García, R. M. Pringle, and T. M. Palmer. 2015. Accelerated modern human-induced species losses: Entering the sixth mass extinction. Science Advances 1:e1400253. doi:10.1126/sciadv.1400253. (Cited on page 77.)
- Chan, K.-S., A. Mysterud, N. A. Øritsland, T. Severinsen, and N. C. Stenseth. 2005. Continuous and discrete extreme climatic events affecting the dynamics of a high-arctic reindeer population. Oecologia 145:556–563. doi:10.1007/s00442-005-0157-6. (Cited on page 125.)
- Chat, J., A. Lamarins, and O. Lepais. 2022. Sea trout (*Salmo trutta*) straying rate decreases as distance from river mouth increases. Journal of Fish Biology 101:937–944. doi:10.1111/jfb.15152. (Cited on page 271.)
- Chevalier, L., F. De Coligny, and J. Labonne. 2022. A demogenetic individual based model for the evolution of traits and genome architecture under sexual selection. Peer Community Journal 2. doi:10.24072/pcjournal.83. (Cited on pages 52 and 60.)
- Christensen, V., S. Guénette, J. J. Heymans, C. J. Walters, R. Watson, D. Zeller, and D. Pauly. 2003. Hundred-year decline of North Atlantic predatory fishes. Fish and Fisheries 4:1–24. doi:10.1046/j.1467-2979.2003.00103.x. (Cited on page 24.)

- Cline, T. J., J. Ohlberger, and D. E. Schindler. 2019. Effects of warming climate and competition in the ocean for life-histories of Pacific salmon. Nature Ecology & Evolution 3:935–942. doi:10.1038/s41559-019-0901-7. (Cited on page 260.)
- Clobert, J., M. Baguette, T. G. Benton, and J. M. Bullock. 2012. Dispersal Ecology and Evolution. Oxford University Press. (Cited on pages 3 and 77.)
- Clobert, J., E. Danchin, A. A. Dhondt, and J. D. Nichols, eds. 2001. Dispersal. Oxford University Press, Oxford, New York. (Cited on page 3.)
- Clobert, J., J.-F. L. Galliard, J. Cote, S. Meylan, and M. Massot. 2009. Informed dispersal, heterogeneity in animal dispersal syndromes and the dynamics of spatially structured populations. Ecology Letters 12:197–209. doi:10.1111/j.1461-0248.2008.01267.x. (Cited on pages 3, 4, 6 and 77.)
- Clobert, J., R. A. Ims, and F. Rousset. 2004. Causes, mechanisms and consequences of dispersal. Pages 307–335 in I. Hanski and O. E. Gaggiotti, eds. Ecology, Genetics and Evolution of Metapopulations. Academic Press, Burlington. (Cited on page 8.)
- Clutton-Brock, T. H., K. E. Rose, and F. E. Guinness. 1997. Density–related changes in sexual selection in red deer. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences 264:1509–1516. doi:10.1098/rspb.1997.0209. (Cited on page 12.)
- Colton, M. A., L. C. McManus, D. E. Schindler, P. J. Mumby, S. R. Palumbi, M. M. Webster, T. E. Essington, H. E. Fox, D. L. Forrest, S. R. Schill, F. J. Pollock, L. B. DeFilippo, E. W. Tekwa, T. E. Walsworth, and M. L. Pinsky. 2022. Coral conservation in a warming world must harness evolutionary adaptation. Nature Ecology & Evolution pages 1–3. doi:10.1038/s41559-022-01854-4. (Cited on pages 22 and 263.)
- Colwell, R. K., and S. Naeem. 1999. Sexual sorting in hummingbird flower mites (*Mesostigmata: Ascidae*). Annals of the Entomological Society of America 92:952–959. doi:10.1093/aesa/92.6.952. (Cited on page 5.)
- Connors, B. M., M. R. Siegle, J. Harding, S. Rossi, B. A. Staton, M. L. Jones, M. J. Bradford, R. Brown, B. Bechtol, B. Doherty, S. Cox, and B. J. G. Sutherland. 2022. Chinook salmon diversity contributes to fishery stability and trade-offs with mixed-stock harvest. Ecological Applications n/a:e2709. doi:10.1002/eap.2709. (Cited on page 179.)
- Conradt, L., E. J. Bodsworth, T. J. Roper, and C. D. Thomas. 2000. Non-random dispersal in the butterfly *Maniola jurtina*: Implications for metapopulation models. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences 267:1505–1510. doi:10.1098/rspb.2000.1171. (Cited on page 267.)
- Consuegra, S., and C. García de Leániz. 2007. Fluctuating sex ratios, but no sex-biased dispersal, in a promiscuous fish. Evolutionary Ecology 21:229–245. doi:10.1007/s10682-006-9001-7. (Cited on page 31.)

- Consuegra, S., E. Verspoor, D. Knox, and C. García de Leániz. 2005. Asymmetric gene flow and the evolutionary maintenance of genetic diversity in small, peripheral Atlantic salmon populations. Conservation Genetics 6:823–842. doi:10.1007/s10592-005-9042-4. (Cited on pages 28, 31, 32, 39, 78, 84, 91, 100, 181 and 198.)
- Cooper, A. B., and M. Mangel. 1999. The dangers of ignoring metapopulation structure for the conservation of salmonids. Fishery Bulletin - National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration 97:213–226. (Cited on pages 104, 178, 179 and 262.)
- Cordoleani, F., W. H. Satterthwaite, M. E. Daniels, and M. R. Johnson. 2020. Using lifecycle models to identify monitoring gaps for Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon. San Francisco Estuary and Watershed Science 18. doi:10.15447/sfews.2020v18iss4art3. (Cited on page 266.)
- Costa, M., C. Hauzy, N. Loeuille, and S. Méléard. 2016. Stochastic eco-evolutionary model of a prey-predator community. Journal of Mathematical Biology 72:573–622. doi:10.1007/s00285-015-0895-y. (Cited on page 52.)
- Cote, J., J. Clobert, T. Brodin, S. Fogarty, and A. Sih. 2010. Personality-dependent dispersal: Characterization, ontogeny and consequences for spatially structured populations. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 365:4065–4076. doi:10.1098/rstb.2010.0176. (Cited on page 4.)
- Cotto, O., M. Schmid, and F. Guillaume. 2020. Nemo-age: Spatially explicit simulations of eco-evolutionary dynamics in stage-structured populations under changing environments. Methods in Ecology and Evolution 11:1227–1236. doi:10.1111/2041-210X.13460. (Cited on pages 49 and 51.)
- Crowder, L. B., S. J. Lyman, W. F. Figueira, and J. Priddy. 2000. Source-sink population dynamics and the problem of siting marine reserves. BULLETIN OF MARINE SCIENCE 66:22. (Cited on pages 178 and 196.)
- Crozier, L. G., B. J. Burke, B. E. Chasco, D. L. Widener, and R. W. Zabel. 2021. Climate change threatens Chinook salmon throughout their life cycle. Communications Biology 4:1–14. doi:10.1038/s42003-021-01734-w. (Cited on pages 23 and 269.)
- Czorlich, Y., T. Aykanat, J. Erkinaro, P. Orell, and C. R. Primmer. 2022. Rapid evolution in salmon life history induced by direct and indirect effects of fishing. Science 376:420–423. doi:10.1126/science.abg5980. (Cited on page 179.)
- de Jager, M., J. van de Koppel, E. J. Weerman, and F. J. Weissing. 2020. Patterning in mussel beds explained by the interplay of multi-level selection and spatial self-organization. Frontiers in Ecology and Evolution 8. (Cited on page 52.)
- de Jong, T. J., P. G. Klinkhamer, and J. de Heiden. 2000. The evolution of generation time in metapopulations of monocarpic perennial plants: Some theoretical considerations and the example of the rare thistle *Carlina vulgaris*. Evolutionary Ecology 14:213–231. doi:10.1023/A:1011063625087. (Cited on page 14.)

- De Meester, N., and D. Bonte. 2010. Information use and density-dependent emigration in an agrobiont spider. Behavioral Ecology 21:992–998. doi:10.1093/beheco/arq088. (Cited on page 5.)
- De Roissart, A., S. Wang, and D. Bonte. 2015. Spatial and spatiotemporal variation in metapopulation structure affects population dynamics in a passively dispersing arthropod. Journal of Animal Ecology 84:1565–1574. doi:10.1111/1365-2656.12400. (Cited on page 126.)
- De Roissart, A., N. Wybouw, D. Renault, T. Van Leeuwen, and D. Bonte. 2016. Life-history evolution in response to changes in metapopulation structure in an arthropod herbivore. Functional Ecology 30:1408–1417. (Cited on page 126.)
- DeAngelis, D. L., and V. Grimm. 2014. Individual-based models in ecology after four decades. F1000Prime Reports 6:39. doi:10.12703/P6-39. (Cited on pages 41, 65 and 79.)
- DeAngelis, D. L., and W. M. Mooij. 2005. Individual-based modeling of ecological and evolutionary processes. Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics 36:147– 168. doi:10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.36.102003.152644. (Cited on pages 49 and 51.)
- Débarre, F., and S. Gandon. 2010. Evolution of specialization in a spatially continuous environment. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 23:1090–1099. doi:10.1111/j.1420-9101.2010.01966.x. (Cited on page 126.)
- Débarre, F., O. Ronce, and S. Gandon. 2013. Quantifying the effects of migration and mutation on adaptation and demography in spatially heterogeneous environments. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 26:1185–1202. doi:10.1111/jeb.12132. (Cited on page 13.)
- Debes, P. V., N. Piavchenko, J. Erkinaro, and C. R. Primmer. 2020. Genetic growth potential, rather than phenotypic size, predicts migration phenotype in Atlantic salmon. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 287:20200867. doi:10.1098/rspb.2020.0867. (Cited on pages 238 and 244.)
- Dębowski, P., S. Dobosz, S. Robak, and Z. Usydus. 1999. Fat level in body of juvenile atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar L.*), and sea trout (*Salmo trutta m. trutta L.*), and method of estimation from morphometric data. Fisheries & Aquatic Life 7:237–243. (Cited on page 234.)
- Den Boer, P. J. 1968. Spreading of risk and stabilization of animal numbers. Acta Biotheoretica 18:165–194. doi:10.1007/BF01556726. (Cited on page 8.)
- Dey, S., and A. Joshi. 2006. Stability via asynchrony in Drosophila metapopulations with low migration rates. Science 312:434–436. doi:10.1126/science.1125317. (Cited on page 12.)
- Dias, P. C. 1996. Sources and sinks in population biology. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 11:326–330. doi:10.1016/0169-5347(96)10037-9. (Cited on page 10.)

- Dieckmann, U., and R. Ferrière. 2004. Adaptive dynamics and evolving biodiversity. Pages 188–224 in D. Couvet, R. Ferrière, and U. Dieckmann, eds. Evolutionary Conservation Biology, Cambridge Studies in Adaptive Dynamics. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge. (Cited on pages 48 and 49.)
- Dieckmann, U., R. Law, and J. A. J. Metz. 2000. The Geometry of Ecological Interactions: Simplifying Spatial Complexity. Cambridge University Press. (Cited on page 9.)
- Dionne, M., F. Caron, J. J. Dodson, and L. Bernatchez. 2008. Landscape genetics and hierarchical genetic structure in Atlantic salmon: The interaction of gene flow and local adaptation. Molecular Ecology 17:2382–2396. doi:10.1111/j.1365-294X.2008.03771.x. (Cited on pages 32 and 267.)
- Drake, J., X. Lambin, and C. Sutherland. 2022a. Spatiotemporal connectivity dynamics in spatially structured populations. Journal of Animal Ecology 91:2050–2060. doi:10.1111/1365-2656.13783. (Cited on pages 145 and 147.)
- ———. 2022b. The value of considering demographic contributions to connectivity: A review. Ecography 2022:e05552. doi:10.1111/ecog.05552. (Cited on page 145.)
- DuFour, M. R., C. J. May, E. F. Roseman, S. A. Ludsin, C. S. Vandergoot, J. J. Pritt, M. E. Fraker, J. J. Davis, J. T. Tyson, J. G. Miner, E. A. Marschall, and C. M. Mayer. 2015. Portfolio theory as a management tool to guide conservation and restoration of multi-stock fish populations. Ecosphere 6:1–21. doi:10.1890/ES15-00237.1. (Cited on pages 16 and 21.)
- Dufour-Kowalski, S., B. Courbaud, P. Dreyfus, C. Meredieu, and F. de Coligny. 2012. Capsis: An open software framework and community for forest growth modelling. Annals of Forest Science 69:221–233. doi:10.1007/s13595-011-0140-9. (Cited on pages 64 and 212.)
- Dufty, A., and J. Belthoff. 2001. Proximate mechanisms of natal dispersal: The role of body condition and hormones. Pages 217–229 *in* Dispersal, oxford university press ed. (Cited on page 4.)
- Dunlop, E. S., M. Heino, and U. Dieckmann. 2009. Eco-genetic modeling of contemporary life-history evolution. Ecological Applications: A Publication of the Ecological Society of America 19:1815–1834. doi:10.1890/08-1404.1. (Cited on pages 42, 45 and 79.)
- Dunlop, E. S., B. J. Shuter, and U. Dieckmann. 2007. Demographic and evolutionary consequences of selective mortality: Predictions from an eco-genetic model for smallmouth bass. Transactions of the American Fisheries Society 136:749–765. doi:10.1577/T06-126.1. (Cited on page 69.)
- Ebenhard, T. 1991. Colonization in metapopulations: A review of theory and observations. Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 42:105–121. doi:10.1111/j.1095-8312.1991.tb00554.x. (Cited on page 12.)
- Ebert, D., C. Haag, M. Kirkpatrick, M. Riek, J. W. Hottinger, and V. I. Pajunen. 2002. A selective advantage to immigrant genes in a Daphnia metapopulation. Science 295:485–488. doi:10.1126/science.1067485. (Cited on page 13.)

- Edelaar, P., and D. I. Bolnick. 2012. Non-random gene flow: An underappreciated force in evolution and ecology. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 27:659–665. doi:10.1016/j.tree.2012.07.009. (Cited on page 267.)
- Edeline, E., S. M. Carlson, L. C. Stige, I. J. Winfield, J. M. Fletcher, J. B. James, T. O. Haugen, L. A. Vøllestad, and N. C. Stenseth. 2007. Trait changes in a harvested population are driven by a dynamic tug-of-war between natural and harvest selection. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 104:15799–15804. doi:10.1073/pnas.0705908104. (Cited on page 195.)
- Edmonds, B., and S. Moss. 2005. From KISS to KIDS An 'Anti-simplistic' modelling approach. Pages 130–144 *in* P. Davidsson, B. Logan, and K. Takadama, eds. Multi-Agent and Multi-Agent-Based Simulation. Lecture Notes in Computer Science. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg. (Cited on page 64.)
- Einum, S., and I. A. Fleming. 2000. Selection against late emergence and small offspring in Atlantic Salmon (*Salmo salar*). Evolution 54:628–639. doi:10.1111/j.0014-3820.2000.tb00064.x. (Cited on page 244.)
- Eliason, E. J., T. D. Clark, M. J. Hague, L. M. Hanson, Z. S. Gallagher, K. M. Jeffries, M. K. Gale, D. A. Patterson, S. G. Hinch, and A. P. Farrell. 2011. Differences in thermal tolerance among Sockeye salmon populations. Science 332:109–112. doi:10.1126/science.1199158. (Cited on page 103.)
- Elliott, J. M., and M. A. Hurley. 1995. The functional relationship between body size and growth rate in fish. Functional Ecology 9:625–627. doi:10.2307/2390153. (Cited on page 233.)
- Elmqvist, T., C. Folke, M. Nyström, G. Peterson, J. Bengtsson, B. Walker, and J. Norberg. 2003. Response diversity, ecosystem change, and resilience. Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment 1:488–494. doi:10.1890/1540-9295(2003)001[0488:RDECAR]2.0.CO;2. (Cited on pages 16, 78 and 103.)
- Elo, K. 1993. Gene flow and conservation of genetic variation in anadromous Atlantic Salmon (Salmo Salar). Hereditas 119:149–159. doi:10.1111/j.1601-5223.1993.00149.x. (Cited on page 39.)
- Engen, S., F. J. Cao, and B.-E. Sæther. 2018. The effect of harvesting on the spatial synchrony of population fluctuations. Theoretical Population Biology 123:28–34. doi:10.1016/j.tpb.2018.05.001. (Cited on pages 178 and 196.)
- Erkinaro, J., *, Y. Czorlich, *, P. Orell, J. Kuusela, M. Falkegård, M. Länsman, H. Pulkkinen, C. R. Primmer, and E. Niemelä. 2019. Life history variation across four decades in a diverse population complex of Atlantic salmon in a large subarctic river. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 76:42–55. doi:10.1139/cjfas-2017-0343. (Cited on pages 24, 78 and 181.)

- Evans, M. R. 2012. Modelling ecological systems in a changing world. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 367:181–190. doi:10.1098/rstb.2011.0172. (Cited on page 41.)
- Fabre, F., C. Bruchou, A. Palloix, and B. Moury. 2009. Key determinants of resistance durability to plant viruses: Insights from a model linking within- and between-host dynamics. Virus Research 141:140–149. doi:10.1016/j.virusres.2008.11.021. (Cited on page 62.)
- Farine, D. R., and H. Whitehead. 2015. Constructing, conducting and interpreting animal social network analysis. Journal of Animal Ecology 84:1144–1163. doi:10.1111/1365-2656.12418. (Cited on page 46.)
- Felsenstein, J. 1976. The theoretical population genetics of variable selection and migration. Annual Review of Genetics 10:253–280. doi:10.1146/annurev.ge.10.120176.001345. (Cited on page 13.)
- Fernández-Chacón, A., M. Genovart, R. Pradel, G. Tavecchia, A. Bertolero, J. Piccardo, M. G. Forero, I. Afán, J. Muntaner, and D. Oro. 2013. When to stay, when to disperse and where to go: Survival and dispersal patterns in a spatially structured seabird population. Ecography 36:1117–1126. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0587.2013.00246.x. (Cited on page 5.)
- Fielding, D. J. 2004. Intraspecific competition and spatial heterogeneity alter life history traits in an individual-based model of grasshoppers. Ecological Modelling 175:169–187. doi:10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2003.10.014. (Cited on page 59.)
- Fisher, D. N., and A. G. McAdam. 2017. Social traits, social networks and evolutionary biology. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 30:2088–2103. doi:10.1111/jeb.13195. (Cited on page 45.)
- Fisogni, A., N. de Manincor, C. D. Bertelsen, and N. E. Rafferty. 2022. Long-term changes in flowering synchrony reflect climatic changes across an elevational gradient. Ecography 2022:e06050. doi:10.1111/ecog.06050. (Cited on page 269.)
- Fitzpatrick, S. W., G. S. Bradburd, C. T. Kremer, P. E. Salerno, L. M. Angeloni, and W. C. Funk. 2020. Genomic and fitness consequences of genetic rescue in wild populations. Current Biology 30:517–522.e5. doi:10.1016/j.cub.2019.11.062. (Cited on pages 125 and 264.)
- Fjerdingstad, E. J., N. Schtickzelle, P. Manhes, A. Gutierrez, and J. Clobert. 2007. Evolution of dispersal and life history strategies – *Tetrahymena ciliates*. BMC Evolutionary Biology 7:133. doi:10.1186/1471-2148-7-133. (Cited on page 13.)
- Fleming, I. 1998. Pattern and variability in the breeding system of Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar), with comparisons to other salmonids. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 55:59–76. doi:10.1139/d98-009. (Cited on pages 30, 85, 221 and 222.)

- Fleming, I. A. 1996. Reproductive strategies of Atlantic salmon: Ecology and evolution. Reviews in Fish Biology and Fisheries 6:379–416. doi:10.1007/BF00164323. (Cited on pages 85, 221 and 222.)
- Fleming, I. A., A. Lamberg, and B. Jonsson. 1997. Effects of early experience on the reproductive performance of Atlantic salmon. Behavioral Ecology 8:470–480. doi:10.1093/beheco/8.5.470. (Cited on pages 221 and 222.)
- Foppen, R. P. B., J. P. Chardon, and W. Liefveld. 2000. Understanding the role of sink patches in source-sink metapopulations: Reed Warbler in an agricultural landscape. Conservation Biology 14:1881–1892. doi:10.1111/j.1523-1739.2000.99022.x. (Cited on page 20.)
- Ford, M. J., A. Murdoch, and M. Hughes. 2015. Using parentage analysis to estimate rates of straying and homing in Chinook salmon (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*). Molecular Ecology 24:1109–1121. doi:10.1111/mec.13091. (Cited on page 39.)
- Forseth, T., M. A. Hurley, A. J. Jensen, and J. M. Elliott. 2001. Functional models for growth and food consumption of Atlantic salmon parr, *Salmo salar*, from a Norwegian river. Freshwater Biology 46:173–186. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2427.2001.00631.x. (Cited on pages 232 and 233.)
- Frank, B. M., and P. V. Baret. 2013. Simulating brown trout demogenetics in a river/nursery brook system: The individual-based model DemGenTrout. Ecological Modelling 248:184– 202. (Cited on pages 58 and 69.)
- Frank, K. T., B. Petrie, W. C. Leggett, and D. G. Boyce. 2016. Large scale, synchronous variability of marine fish populations driven by commercial exploitation. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 113:8248–8253. doi:10.1073/pnas.1602325113. (Cited on page 194.)
- Fraser, D. J., M. W. Jones, T. L. McParland, and J. A. Hutchings. 2007. Loss of historical immigration and the unsuccessful rehabilitation of extirpated salmon populations. Conservation Genetics 8:527–546. doi:10.1007/s10592-006-9188-8. (Cited on page 32.)
- Fraser, D. J., C. Lippé, and L. Bernatchez. 2004. Consequences of unequal population size, asymmetric gene flow and sex-biased dispersal on population structure in brook charr (*Salvelinus fontinalis*). Molecular Ecology 13:67–80. doi:10.1046/j.1365-294X.2003.02038.x. (Cited on page 267.)
- Frederiksen, M., and T. Bregnballe. 2000. Evidence for density-dependent survival in adult cormorants from a combined analysis of recoveries and resightings. Journal of Animal Ecology 69:737–752. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2656.2000.00435.x. (Cited on page 12.)
- Freshwater, C., S. C. Anderson, K. R. Holt, A.-M. Huang, and C. A. Holt. 2019. Weakened portfolio effects constrain management effectiveness for population aggregates. Ecological Applications 29:e01966. doi:10.1002/eap.1966. (Cited on page 179.)

- Friedenberg, N. A. 2003. Experimental evolution of dispersal in spatiotemporally variable microcosms. Ecology Letters 6:953–959. doi:10.1046/j.1461-0248.2003.00524.x. (Cited on page 13.)
- Fronhofer, E. A., and F. Altermatt. 2015. Eco-evolutionary feedbacks during experimental range expansions. Nature Communications 6:6844. doi:10.1038/ncomms7844. (Cited on page 14.)
 - ——. 2017. Classical metapopulation dynamics and eco-evolutionary feedbacks in dendritic networks. Ecography 40:1455–1466. doi:10.1111/ecog.02761. (Cited on pages 14, 55, 61, 132, 146 and 270.)
- Fronhofer, E. A., A. Kubisch, F. M. Hilker, T. Hovestadt, and H. J. Poethke. 2012. Why are metapopulations so rare? Ecology 93:1967–1978. doi:10.1890/11-1814.1. (Cited on page 11.)
- Fullerton, A. H. 2016. Conservation of freshwater thermal habitats for Pacific salmon in a changing climate. Thesis. University of Washington. (Cited on page 269.)
- Fullerton, A. H., S. Anzalone, P. Moran, D. M. Van Doornik, T. Copeland, and R. W. Zabel. 2016. Setting spatial conservation priorities despite incomplete data for characterizing metapopulations. Ecological Applications 26:2560–2580. doi:10.1002/eap.1411. (Cited on page 178.)
- Fullerton, A. H., S. T. Lindley, G. R. Pess, B. E. Feist, E. A. Steel, and P. McELHANY. 2011. Human influence on the spatial structure of threatened Pacific salmon metapopulations. Conservation Biology 25:932–944. doi:10.1111/j.1523-1739.2011.01718.x. (Cited on pages 28 and 81.)
- Gandon, S. 1999. Kin competition, the cost of inbreeding and the evolution of dispersal. Journal of Theoretical Biology 200:345–364. doi:10.1006/jtbi.1999.0994. (Cited on page 8.)
- Gandon, S., and Y. Michalakis. 1999. Evolutionarily stable dispersal rate in a metapopulation with extinctions and kin competition. Journal of Theoretical Biology 199:275–290. doi:10.1006/jtbi.1999.0960. (Cited on page 7.)
 - ——. 2001. Multiple causes of the evolution of dispersal. Pages 155–167 in Dispersal, oxforf university press ed. (Cited on page 7.)
- Garant, D., J. J. Dodson, and L. Bernatchez. 2000. Ecological determinants and temporal stability of the within-river population structure in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar L.*). Molecular Ecology 9:615–628. doi:10.1046/j.1365-294x.2000.00909.x. (Cited on page 24.)
- Garant, D., S. E. Forde, and A. P. Hendry. 2007. The multifarious effects of dispersal and gene flow on contemporary adaptation. Functional Ecology 21:434–443. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2435.2006.01228.x. (Cited on pages 17, 103 and 125.)
- García de Leániz, C., S. Consuegra, and A. Serdio. 2004. Maladaptation and phenotypic mismatch in cultured Atlantic salmon used for stocking. Journal of Fish Biology 65:317– 318. doi:10.1111/j.0022-1112.2004.0559j.x. (Cited on page 125.)

- García-Ramos, G., and M. Kirkpatrick. 1997. Genetic models of adaptation and gene flow in peripheral populations. Evolution 51:21–28. doi:10.1111/j.1558-5646.1997.tb02384.x. (Cited on page 123.)
- García-Ruiz, I., A. Quiñones, and M. Taborsky. 2022. The evolution of cooperative breeding by direct and indirect fitness effects. Science Advances 8:eabl7853. doi:10.1126/sciadv.abl7853. (Cited on page 7.)
- García-Ulloa, M. I., A. E. Escalante, A. Moreno-Letelier, L. E. Eguiarte, and V. Souza. 2021. Evolutionary rescue of an environmental *Pseudomonas otitidis* in response to anthropogenic perturbation. Frontiers in Microbiology 11. (Cited on page 125.)
- Gascuel, F., R. Ferrière, R. Aguilée, and A. Lambert. 2015. How ecology and landscape dynamics shape phylogenetic trees. Systematic Biology 64:590–607. doi:10.1093/sysbio/syv014. (Cited on page 62.)
- Gavrilets, S., A. Vose, M. Barluenga, W. Salzburger, and A. Meyer. 2007. Case studies and mathematical models of ecological speciation. 1. Cichlids in a crater lake. Molecular Ecology 16:2893–2909. doi:10.1111/j.1365-294X.2007.03305.x. (Cited on pages 48 and 62.)
- Ghalambor, C. K., J. K. McKAY, S. P. Carroll, and D. N. Reznick. 2007. Adaptive versus non-adaptive phenotypic plasticity and the potential for contemporary adaptation in new environments. Functional Ecology 21:394–407. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2435.2007.01283.x. (Cited on page 3.)
- Gilarranz, L. J., and J. Bascompte. 2012. Spatial network structure and metapopulation persistence. Journal of Theoretical Biology 297:11–16. doi:10.1016/j.jtbi.2011.11.027. (Cited on page 126.)
- Gjerde, B., H. Simianer, and T. Refstie. 1994. Estimates of genetic and phenotypic parameters for body weight, growth rate and sexual maturity in Atlantic salmon. Livestock Production Science 38:133–143. doi:10.1016/0301-6226(94)90057-4. (Cited on pages 87 and 109.)
- Godineau, C., O. Ronce, and C. Devaux. 2022. Assortative mating can help adaptation of flowering time to a changing climate: Insights from a polygenic model. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 35:491–508. doi:10.1111/jeb.13786. (Cited on page 46.)
- Gomulkiewicz, R., and R. D. Holt. 1995. When does evolution by natural selection prevent extinction? Evolution 49:201–207. doi:10.2307/2410305. (Cited on page 18.)
- Gonzalez, A., O. Ronce, R. Ferriere, and M. E. Hochberg. 2013. Evolutionary rescue: An emerging focus at the intersection between ecology and evolution. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 368:20120404. doi:10.1098/rstb.2012.0404. (Cited on page 18.)
- Govaert, L., E. A. Fronhofer, S. Lion, C. Eizaguirre, D. Bonte, M. Egas, A. P. Hendry, A. De Brito Martins, C. J. Melián, J. A. M. Raeymaekers, I. I. Ratikainen, B.-E. Saether, J. A. Schweitzer, and B. Matthews. 2019. Eco-evolutionary feedbacks—Theoretical models and perspectives. Functional Ecology 33:13–30. doi:10.1111/1365-2435.13241. (Cited on pages 45 and 127.)

- Grant, J. W. A., and D. L. Kramer. 1990. Territory size as a predictor of the upper limit to population density of juvenile salmonids in streams. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 47:1724–1737. doi:10.1139/f90-197. (Cited on page 232.)
- Gregory, S. D., A. T. Ibbotson, W. D. Riley, M. Nevoux, R. B. Lauridsen, I. C. Russell, J. R. Britton, P. K. Gillingham, O. M. Simmons, and E. Rivot. 2019. Atlantic salmon return rate increases with smolt length. ICES Journal of Marine Science 76:1702–1712. doi:10.1093/icesjms/fsz066. (Cited on page 236.)
- Grimardias, D., N. Merchermek, A. Manicki, J. Chebaux, P. Gaudin, M. Jarry, and E. Beall. 2010a. Effects of habitat on individual reproductive success of mature male parr of Atlantic salmon Salmo salar. Journal of Fish Biology 77:2460–2466. doi:10.1111/j.1095-8649.2010.02808.x. (Cited on page 222.)
- Grimardias, D., N. Merchermek, A. Manicki, J. Garnier, P. Gaudin, M. Jarry, and E. Beall. 2010b. Reproductive success of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) mature male parr in a small river, the Nivelle: Influence of shelters. Ecology of Freshwater Fish 19:510–519. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0633.2010.00421.x. (Cited on page 222.)
- Grimm, V., J. Augusiak, A. Focks, B. M. Frank, F. Gabsi, A. S. A. Johnston, C. Liu, B. T. Martin, M. Meli, V. Radchuk, P. Thorbek, and S. F. Railsback. 2014. Towards better modelling and decision support: Documenting model development, testing, and analysis using TRACE. Ecological Modelling 280:129–139. doi:10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2014.01.018. (Cited on page 64.)
- Grimm, V., S. F. Railsback, C. E. Vincenot, U. Berger, C. Gallagher, D. L. DeAngelis, B. Edmonds, J. Ge, J. Giske, J. Groeneveld, A. S. A. Johnston, A. Milles, J. Nabe-Nielsen, J. G. Polhill, V. Radchuk, M.-S. Rohwäder, R. A. Stillman, J. C. Thiele, and D. Ayllón. 2020. The ODD protocol for describing agent-based and other simulation models: A second update to improve clarity, replication, and structural realism. Journal of Artificial Societies and Social Simulation 23:7. (Cited on pages 64 and 212.)
- Grimm, V., E. Revilla, U. Berger, F. Jeltsch, W. M. Mooij, S. F. Railsback, H.-H. Thulke, J. Weiner, T. Wiegand, and D. L. DeAngelis. 2005. Pattern-oriented modeling of agentbased complex systems: Lessons from ecology. Science (New York, N.Y.) 310:987–991. doi:10.1126/science.1116681. (Cited on pages 90, 132 and 182.)
- Groot, J. C. J., and W. A. H. Rossing. 2011. Model-aided learning for adaptive management of natural resources: An evolutionary design perspective. Methods in Ecology and Evolution 2:643–650. doi:10.1111/j.2041-210X.2011.00114.x. (Cited on page 65.)
- Gros, A., T. Hovestadt, and H. J. Poethke. 2008. Evolution of sex-biased dispersal: The role of sex-specific dispersal costs, demographic stochasticity, and inbreeding. Ecological Modelling 219:226–233. doi:10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2008.08.014. (Cited on page 4.)
- Guillaume, F., and J. Rougemont. 2006. Nemo: An evolutionary and population genetics programming framework. Bioinformatics 22:2556–2557. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btl415. (Cited on pages 69, 79 and 82.)

- Gunnes, K. 1979. Survival and development of Atlantic salmon eggs and fry at three different temperatures. Aquaculture 16:211–218. doi:10.1016/0044-8486(79)90109-1. (Cited on page 224.)
- Gyllenberg, M., A. Hastings, and I. Hanski. 1997. Structured metapopulation models. Pages 93–122 in I. Hanski and M. E. Gilpin, eds. Metapopulation Biology. Academic Press, San Diego. (Cited on page 9.)
- Hamann, E. J., and B. P. Kennedy. 2012. Juvenile dispersal affects straying behaviors of adults in a migratory population. Ecology 93:733–740. doi:10.1890/11-1009.1. (Cited on pages 39 and 267.)
- Hambäck, P. A., and G. Englund. 2005. Patch area, population density and the scaling of migration rates: The resource concentration hypothesis revisited. Ecology Letters 8:1057– 1065. doi:10.1111/j.1461-0248.2005.00811.x. (Cited on page 6.)
- Hamilton, W. D. 1964. The genetical evolution of social behaviour. Journal of Theoretical Biology 7:17–52. doi:10.1016/0022-5193(64)90039-6. (Cited on page 7.)
- Hamilton, W. D., and R. M. May. 1977. Dispersal in stable habitats. Nature 269:578–581. doi:10.1038/269578a0. (Cited on page 7.)
- Hansen, B. B., V. Grøtan, R. Aanes, B.-E. Sæther, A. Stien, E. Fuglei, R. A. Ims, N. G. Yoccoz, and Å. Ø. Pedersen. 2013. Climate events synchronize the dynamics of a resident vertebrate community in the high Arctic. Science 339:313–315. doi:10.1126/science.1226766. (Cited on page 269.)
- Hansen, B. B., V. Grøtan, I. Herfindal, and A. M. Lee. 2020. The Moran effect revisited: Spatial population synchrony under global warming. Ecography 43:1591–1602. doi:10.1111/ecog.04962. (Cited on page 269.)
- Hansen, M. M., E. Kenchington, and E. E. Nielsen. 2001. Assigning individual fish to populations using microsatellite DNA markers. Fish and Fisheries 2:93–112. doi:10.1046/j.1467-2960.2001.00043.x. (Cited on page 39.)
- Hanski, I. 1994. A practical model of metapopulation dynamics. Journal of Animal Ecology 63:151–162. doi:10.2307/5591. (Cited on page 9.)
- ——. 1998. Metapopulation dynamics. Nature 396:41–49. doi:10.1038/23876. (Cited on pages 9, 77 and 79.)
- ———. 1999. Metapopulation Ecology. OUP Oxford. (Cited on pages 40, 41, 79 and 259.)
- 2004. Metapopulation theory, its use and misuse. Basic and Applied Ecology 5:225–229. doi:10.1016/j.baae.2004.03.002. (Cited on page 9.)
- Hanski, I., C. J. Breuker, K. Schöps, R. Setchfield, and M. Nieminen. 2002. Population history and life history influence the migration rate of female Glanville fritillary butterflies. Oikos 98:87–97. doi:10.1034/j.1600-0706.2002.980109.x. (Cited on page 5.)

- Hanski, I., and O. Gaggiotti. 2004a. Metapopulation biology: Past, present, and future. Pages 3–22 in I. Hanski and O. E. Gaggiotti, eds. Ecology, Genetics and Evolution of Metapopulations. Academic Press, Burlington. (Cited on page 11.)
- Hanski, I. A., and O. E. Gaggiotti. 2004b. Ecology, Genetics and Evolution of Metapopulations. Academic Press. (Cited on page 259.)
- Harding, K. C., and J. M. McNamara. 2002. A unifying framework for metapopulation dynamics. The American Naturalist 160:173–185. doi:10.1086/341014. (Cited on pages 17, 77 and 100.)
- Harman, R. R., J. Goddard, R. Shivaji, and J. T. Cronin. 2020. Frequency of occurrence and population-dynamic consequences of different forms of density-dependent emigration. The American Naturalist 195:851–867. doi:10.1086/708156. (Cited on pages 5 and 147.)
- Harrison, H. B., M. Bode, D. H. Williamson, M. L. Berumen, and G. P. Jones. 2020. A connectivity portfolio effect stabilizes marine reserve performance. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 117:25595–25600. doi:10.1073/pnas.1920580117. (Cited on page 16.)
- Harrison, P. J., I. Hanski, and O. Ovaskainen. 2011. Bayesian state-space modeling of metapopulation dynamics in the Glanville fritillary butterfly. Ecological Monographs 81:581–598. doi:10.1890/11-0192.1. (Cited on page 41.)
- Harrison, S. 1991. Local extinction in a metapopulation context: An empirical evaluation. Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 42:73–88. doi:10.1111/j.1095-8312.1991.tb00552.x. (Cited on pages 9 and 11.)
- Harrison, S., and E. Bruna. 1999. Habitat fragmentation and large-scale conservation: What do we know for sure? Ecography 22:225–232. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0587.1999.tb00496.x. (Cited on page 9.)
- Harrison, S., and A. D. Taylor. 1997. Empirical evidence for metapopulation dynamics. Pages 27–42 in I. Hanski and M. E. Gilpin, eds. Metapopulation Biology. Academic Press, San Diego. (Cited on pages 9 and 11.)
- Hasler, A. D., and A. T. Scholz. 1983. Factors influencing smolt transformation: Effects of seasonal fluctuations in hormone levels on transitions in morphology, physiology, and behavior. Pages 43–63 in A. D. Hasler and A. T. Scholz, eds. Olfactory Imprinting and Homing in Salmon: Investigations into the Mechanism of the Imprinting Process, Zoophysiology. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg. (Cited on page 24.)
- Hawkins, S. J., K. Bohn, D. W. Sims, P. Ribeiro, J. Faria, P. Presa, A. Pita, G. M. Martins, A. I. Neto, M. T. Burrows, and M. J. Genner. 2016. Fisheries stocks from an ecological perspective: Disentangling ecological connectivity from genetic interchange. Fisheries Research 179:333–341. doi:10.1016/j.fishres.2016.01.015. (Cited on page 178.)

- He, P., A. A. Maldonado-Chaparro, and D. R. Farine. 2019. The role of habitat configuration in shaping social structure: A gap in studies of animal social complexity. Behavioral Ecology and Sociobiology 73:9. doi:10.1007/s00265-018-2602-7. (Cited on page 61.)
- Hecht, B. C., N. R. Campbell, D. E. Holecek, and S. R. Narum. 2013. Genome-wide association reveals genetic basis for the propensity to migrate in wild populations of rainbow and steelhead trout. Molecular Ecology 22:3061–3076. doi:10.1111/mec.12082. (Cited on page 244.)
- Hecht, B. C., M. E. Valle, F. P. Thrower, and K. M. Nichols. 2014. Divergence in expression of candidate genes for the smoltification process between juvenile resident Rainbow and anadromous Steelhead trout. Marine Biotechnology 16:638–656. doi:10.1007/s10126-014-9579-7. (Cited on page 244.)
- Heino, M., B. Díaz Pauli, and U. Dieckmann. 2015. Fisheries-induced evolution. Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics 46:461–480. doi:10.1146/annurev-ecolsys-112414-054339. (Cited on page 179.)
- Heino, M., and I. Hanski. 2001. Evolution of migration rate in a spatially realistic metapopulation model. The American Naturalist 157:495–511. doi:10.1086/319927. (Cited on page 14.)
- Heino, M., V. Kaitala, E. Ranta, and J. Lindström. 1997. Synchronous dynamics and rates of extinction in spatially structured populations. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences 264:481–486. doi:10.1098/rspb.1997.0069. (Cited on page 12.)
- Hendry, A. P. 2001. Adaptive divergence and the evolution of reproductive isolation in the wild: An empirical demonstration using introduced sockeye salmon. Pages 515–534 in A. P. Hendry and M. T. Kinnison, eds. Microevolution Rate, Pattern, Process, Contemporary Issues in Genetics and Evolution. Springer Netherlands, Dordrecht. (Cited on page 39.)
- ——. 2017. Eco-Evolutionary Dynamics. Princeton University Press. (Cited on pages 45 and 77.)
- Hendry, A. P., O. K. Berg, and T. P. Quinn. 2001a. Breeding location choice in salmon: Causes (habitat, competition, body size, energy stores) and consequences (life span, energy stores). Oikos 93:407–418. doi:10.1034/j.1600-0706.2001.930306.x. (Cited on page 245.)
- Hendry, A. P., V. Castric, M. T. Kinnison, and T. P. Quinn. 2004. The evolution of philopatry and dispersal: Homing versus straying in salmonids. Pages 52–91 in Evolution Illuminated: Salmon and Their Relatives. Oxford University Press. (Cited on pages 24 and 28.)
- Hendry, A. P., T. Day, and E. B. Taylor. 2001b. Population mixing and the adaptive divergence of quantitative traits in discrete populations: A theoretical framework for empirical tests. Evolution 55:459–466. doi:10.1111/j.0014-3820.2001.tb00780.x. (Cited on page 125.)

- Hendry, A. P., E. B. Taylor, and J. D. McPhail. 2002. Adaptive divergence and the balance between selection and gene flow: Lake and stream stickleback in the Misty system. Evolution; International Journal of Organic Evolution 56:1199–1216. doi:10.1111/j.0014-3820.2002.tb01432.x. (Cited on page 125.)
- Herbold, B., S. M. Carlson, R. Henery, R. C. Johnson, N. Mantua, M. McClure, P. B. Moyle, and T. Sommer. 2018. Managing for salmon resilience in California's variable and changing climate. San Francisco Estuary and Watershed Science 16. doi:10.15447/sfews.2018v16iss2art3. (Cited on page 265.)
- Hilborn, R., T. P. Quinn, D. E. Schindler, and D. E. Rogers. 2003. Biocomplexity and fisheries sustainability. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 100:6564–6568. doi:10.1073/pnas.1037274100. (Cited on pages 16, 78 and 178.)
- Hill, M. F., A. Hastings, and L. W. Botsford. 2002. The effects of small dispersal rates on extinction times in structured metapopulation models. The American Naturalist 160:389– 402. doi:10.1086/341526. (Cited on pages 12 and 100.)
- Hillaert, J., M. L. Vandegehuchte, T. Hovestadt, and D. Bonte. 2020. Habitat loss and fragmentation increase realized predator-prey body size ratios. Functional Ecology 34:534– 544. doi:10.1111/1365-2435.13472. (Cited on page 62.)
- Hindar, K., J. Tufto, L. M. Sættem, and T. Balstad. 2004. Conservation of genetic variation in harvested salmon populations. ICES Journal of Marine Science 61:1389–1397. doi:10.1016/j.icesjms.2004.08.011. (Cited on page 198.)
- Hobbs, R. J., E. S. Higgs, and C. M. Hall. 2017. Expanding the portfolio: Conserving nature's masterpieces in a changing world. BioScience 67:568–575. doi:10.1093/biosci/bix043. (Cited on pages 16 and 21.)
- Hodgson, E. E., S. M. Wilson, and J. W. Moore. 2020. Changing estuaries and impacts on juvenile salmon: A systematic review. Global Change Biology 26:1986–2001. doi:10.1111/gcb.14997. (Cited on page 211.)
- Hoffmann, A., P. Griffin, S. Dillon, R. Catullo, R. Rane, M. Byrne, R. Jordan, J. Oakeshott, A. Weeks, L. Joseph, P. Lockhart, J. Borevitz, and C. Sgrò. 2015. A framework for incorporating evolutionary genomics into biodiversity conservation and management. Climate Change Responses 2:1. doi:10.1186/s40665-014-0009-x. (Cited on page 180.)
- Holenstein, K., E. Harvey, and F. Altermatt. 2022. Patch size distribution affects species invasion dynamics in dendritic networks. Oikos 2022:e08679. doi:10.1111/oik.08679. (Cited on page 126.)
- Holland, M. D., and A. Hastings. 2008. Strong effect of dispersal network structure on ecological dynamics. Nature 456:792–794. doi:10.1038/nature07395. (Cited on page 126.)
- Holt, R. D. 1990. The microevolutionary consequences of climate change. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 5:311–315. doi:10.1016/0169-5347(90)90088-U. (Cited on page 265.)

- Höök, T. O., R. Svanbäck, and P. Eklöv. 2021. Sex-specific plasticity in a trophic polymorphic aquatic predator: A modeling approach. Oecologia 195:341–354. doi:10.1007/s00442-020-04843-1. (Cited on page 61.)
- Hrycik, A. R., P. D. Collingsworth, T. M. Sesterhenn, D. Goto, and T. O. Höök. 2019. Movement rule selection through eco-genetic modeling: Application to diurnal vertical movement. Journal of Theoretical Biology 478:128–138. doi:10.1016/j.jtbi.2019.06.019. (Cited on page 61.)
- Huston, M., D. DeAngelis, and W. Post. 1988. New computer models unify ecological theory: Computer simulations show that many ecological patterns can be explained by interactions among individual organisms. BioScience 38:682–691. doi:10.2307/1310870. (Cited on page 51.)
- Hutchings, J. A., and L. Gerber. 2002. Sex-biased dispersal in a salmonid fish. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences 269:2487–2493. doi:10.1098/rspb.2002.2176. (Cited on page 267.)
- Hutchings, J. A., and M. E. Jones. 1998. Life history variation and growth rate thresholds for maturity in Atlantic salmon, *Salmo salar*. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 55:22–47. doi:10.1139/d98-004. (Cited on pages 24 and 30.)
- Hutchinson, W. F. 2008. The dangers of ignoring stock complexity in fishery management: The case of the North Sea cod. Biology Letters 4:693–695. doi:10.1098/rsbl.2008.0443. (Cited on page 178.)
- ICES. 2021. Working Group on North Atlantic Salmon. Scientific Report 3 (9), ICES-CIEM. (Cited on pages 29, 30, 33, 179 and 181.)
- Imre, I., J. W. A. Grant, and R. A. Cunjak. 2005. Density-dependent growth of young-ofthe-year Atlantic salmon Salmo salar in Catamaran Brook, New Brunswick. Journal of Animal Ecology 74:508–516. (Cited on pages 85, 232 and 233.)
- ———. 2010. Density-dependent growth of young-of-the-year Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) revisited. Ecology of Freshwater Fish 19:1–6. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0633.2009.00394.x. (Cited on page 232.)
- Ims, R. A., and H. P. Andreassen. 2005. Density-dependent dispersal and spatial population dynamics. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 272:913– 918. doi:10.1098/rspb.2004.3025. (Cited on page 5.)
- Ivan, L. N., and T. O. Höök. 2015. Energy allocation strategies of young temperate fish: An eco-genetic modeling approach. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 72:1243–1258. doi:10.1139/cjfas-2014-0197. (Cited on pages 52, 59 and 245.)
- Jactel, H., B. C. Nicoll, M. Branco, J. R. Gonzalez-Olabarria, W. Grodzki, B. Långström, F. Moreira, S. Netherer, C. Orazio, D. Piou, H. Santos, M. J. Schelhaas, K. Tojic, and F. Vodde. 2009. The influences of forest stand management on biotic and abiotic risks of damage. Annals of Forest Science 66:701–701. doi:10.1051/forest/2009054. (Cited on page 64.)

- Jager, H. I., J. A. Chandler, K. B. Lepla, and W. Van Winkle. 2001. A theoretical study of river fragmentation by dams and its effects on white sturgeon populations. Environmental Biology of Fishes 60:347–361. doi:10.1023/A:1011036127663. (Cited on page 69.)
- Jeannot, N. 2019. Water temperature on the Scorff river (Morbihan France). doi:10.15454/K5RT8J. (Cited on page 111.)
- Johnston, A. S. A., R. J. Boyd, J. W. Watson, A. Paul, L. C. Evans, E. L. Gardner, and V. L. Boult. 2019. Predicting population responses to environmental change from individual-level mechanisms: Towards a standardized mechanistic approach. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 286:20191916. doi:10.1098/rspb.2019.1916. (Cited on page 79.)
- Jones, M. W., and J. A. Hutchings. 2002. Individual variation in Atlantic salmon fertilization success: Implications for effective population size. Ecological Applications 12:184–193. doi:10.1890/1051-0761(2002)012[0184:IVIASF]2.0.CO;2. (Cited on page 222.)
- Jonsson, B., and N. Jonsson. 2009. A review of the likely effects of climate change on anadromous Atlantic salmon Salmo salar and brown trout Salmo trutta, with particular reference to water temperature and flow. Journal of Fish Biology 75:2381–2447. doi:10.1111/j.1095-8649.2009.02380.x. (Cited on pages 23, 243 and 269.)
 - ——. 2017. Maternal inheritance influences homing and growth of hybrid offspring between wild and farmed Atlantic salmon. Aquaculture Environment Interactions 9:231–238. doi:10.3354/aei00232. (Cited on pages 28, 32, 78, 100 and 267.)
- ———. 2018. Egg incubation temperature affects the timing of the Atlantic salmon Salmo salar homing migration. Journal of Fish Biology 93:1016–1020. doi:10.1111/jfb.13817. (Cited on page 211.)
- Jonsson, B., N. Jonsson, and L. P. Hansen. 1991. Differences in life history and migratory behaviour between wild and hatchery-reared Atlantic salmon in nature. Aquaculture 98:69– 78. doi:10.1016/0044-8486(91)90372-E. (Cited on pages 31, 32, 78 and 100.)
 - 2003. Atlantic salmon straying from the River Imsa. Journal of Fish Biology 62:641–657. doi:10.1046/j.1095-8649.2003.00053.x. (Cited on pages 24, 25, 28, 31, 32, 39, 78, 84, 89, 90, 100, 102, 109, 181, 198, 241 and 267.)
- Jonsson, B., and J. Ruud-Hansen. 1985. Water temperature as the primary influence on timing of seaward migrations of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) smolts. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 42:593–595. doi:10.1139/f85-076. (Cited on page 245.)
- Jonsson, N., B. Jonsson, and I. A. Fleming. 1996. Does early growth cause a phenotypically plastic response in egg production of Atlantic salmon? Functional Ecology 10:89–96. doi:10.2307/2390266. (Cited on page 221.)
- Jonsson, N., B. Jonsson, and L. P. Hansen. 1997. Changes in proximate composition and estimates of energetic costs during upstream migration and spawning in Atlantic salmon Salmo salar. Journal of Animal Ecology 66:425–436. doi:10.2307/5987. (Cited on page 234.)

——. 2005. Does climate during embryonic development influence parr growth and age of seaward migration in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*)? Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 62:2502–2508. doi:10.1139/f05-154. (Cited on page 85.)

- Jump, A. S., R. Marchant, and J. Peñuelas. 2009. Environmental change and the option value of genetic diversity. Trends in Plant Science 14:51–58. doi:10.1016/j.tplants.2008.10.002. (Cited on pages 101, 146 and 260.)
- Kahilainen, A., S. van Nouhuys, T. Schulz, and M. Saastamoinen. 2018. Metapopulation dynamics in a changing climate: Increasing spatial synchrony in weather conditions drives metapopulation synchrony of a butterfly inhabiting a fragmented landscape. Global Change Biology 24:4316–4329. doi:10.1111/gcb.14280. (Cited on page 268.)
- Kaitala, V. 1990. Evolutionary stable migration in salmon: A simulation study of homing and straying. Annales Zoologici Fennici 27:131–138. (Cited on pages 24 and 28.)
- Kane, A., D. Ayllón, R. J. O'Sullivan, P. McGinnity, and T. E. Reed. 2022. Escalating the conflict? Intersex genetic correlations influence adaptation to environmental change in facultatively migratory populations. Evolutionary Applications 15:773–789. doi:10.1111/eva.13368. (Cited on page 61.)
- Kang, J. K., and X. Thibert-Plante. 2017. Eco-evolution in size-structured ecosystems: Simulation case study of rapid morphological changes in alewife. BMC Evolutionary Biology 17:58. doi:10.1186/s12862-017-0912-4. (Cited on pages 48, 52 and 62.)
- Kardos, M., and G. Luikart. 2021. The genetic architecture of fitness drives population viability during rapid environmental change. The American Naturalist 197:511–525. doi:10.1086/713469. (Cited on pages 212 and 271.)
- Katsuhara, K. R., Y. Tachiki, R. Iritani, and A. Ushimaru. 2021. The ecoevolutionary dynamics of prior selfing rates promote coexistence without niche partitioning under conditions of reproductive interference. Journal of Ecology 109:3916–3928. doi:10.1111/1365-2745.13768. (Cited on pages 48 and 62.)
- Kazancioğlu, E., H. Klug, and S. H. Alonzo. 2012. The evolution of social interactions changes predictions about interacting phenotypes. Evolution; International Journal of Organic Evolution 66:2056–2064. doi:10.1111/j.1558-5646.2012.01585.x. (Cited on page 45.)
- Kazyak, D. C., B. A. Lubinski, M. A. Kulp, K. C. Pregler, A. R. Whiteley, E. Hallerman, J. A. Coombs, Y. Kanno, J. M. Rash, R. P. Morgan II, J. Habera, J. Henegar, T. C. Weathers, M. T. Sell, A. Rabern, D. Rankin, and T. L. King. 2022. Population genetics of Brook trout in the southern Appalachian mountains. Transactions of the American Fisheries Society 151:127–149. doi:10.1002/tafs.10337. (Cited on page 264.)
- Keefer, M. L., and C. C. Caudill. 2014. Homing and straying by anadromous salmonids: A review of mechanisms and rates. Reviews in Fish Biology and Fisheries 24:333–368. doi:10.1007/s11160-013-9334-6. (Cited on pages 24, 25, 78, 87, 89, 90, 91, 100, 109, 241 and 267.)

- Keeley, E. R. 2001. Demographic responses to food and space competition by juvenile Steelhead trout. Ecology 82:1247–1259. doi:10.1890/0012-9658(2001)082[1247:DRTFAS]2.0.CO;2. (Cited on page 12.)
- Keller, L. F., and D. M. Waller. 2002. Inbreeding effects in wild populations. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 17:230–241. doi:10.1016/S0169-5347(02)02489-8. (Cited on pages 13 and 17.)
- Kelson, S. J., S. M. Carlson, and M. R. Miller. 2020. Indirect genetic control of migration in a salmonid fish. Biology Letters 16:20200299. doi:10.1098/rsbl.2020.0299. (Cited on page 244.)
- Kendall, B. E., O. N. Bjørnstad, J. Bascompte, T. H. Keitt, and W. F. Fagan. 2000. Dispersal, environmental correlation, and spatial synchrony in population dynamics. The American Naturalist 155:628–636. doi:10.1086/303350. (Cited on page 17.)
- Kim, S.-Y., R. Torres, and H. Drummond. 2009. Simultaneous positive and negative densitydependent dispersal in a colonial bird species. Ecology 90:230–239. doi:10.1890/08-0133.1. (Cited on page 5.)
- Kindvall, O. 1999. Dispersal in a metapopulation of the bush cricket, Metrioptera bicolor (Orthoptera: Tettigoniidae). Journal of Animal Ecology 68:172–185. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2656.1999.00273.x. (Cited on page 5.)
- Kindvall, O., and A. Petersson. 2000. Consequences of modelling interpatch migration as a function of patch geometry when predicting metapopulation extinction risk. Ecological Modelling 129:101–109. doi:10.1016/S0304-3800(00)00215-5. (Cited on page 6.)
- Kininmonth, S., R. Weeks, R. A. Abesamis, L. P. C. Bernardo, M. Beger, E. A. Treml, D. Williamson, and R. L. Pressey. 2019. Strategies in scheduling marine protected area establishment in a network system. Ecological Applications 29:e01820. doi:10.1002/eap.1820. (Cited on page 178.)
- Kirchner, F., A. Robert, and B. Colas. 2006. Modelling the dynamics of introduced populations in the narrow-endemic *Centaurea corymbosa*: A Demo-Genetic integration. Journal of Applied Ecology 43:1011–1021. (Cited on page 60.)
- Kirkpatrick, J. B. 1983. An iterative method for establishing priorities for the selection of nature reserves: An example from Tasmania. Biological Conservation 25:127–134. doi:10.1016/0006-3207(83)90056-3. (Cited on page 20.)
- Kirkpatrick, M., and N. H. Barton. 1997. Evolution of a species' range. The American Naturalist 150:1–23. doi:10.1086/286054. (Cited on page 49.)
- Kisdi, E. 2012. Evolution of condition-dependent dispersal. Pages 131–151 in Dispersal Ecology and Evolution, oxford university press ed. (Cited on page 6.)

- Klemetsen, A., P.-A. Amundsen, J. B. Dempson, B. Jonsson, N. Jonsson, M. F. O'Connell, and E. Mortensen. 2003. Atlantic salmon Salmo salar L., brown trout Salmo trutta L. and Arctic charr Salvelinus alpinus (L.): A review of aspects of their life histories. Ecology of Freshwater Fish 12:1–59. doi:10.1034/j.1600-0633.2003.00010.x. (Cited on page 30.)
- Klug, H., and L. Stone. 2021. More than just noise: Chance, mating success, and sexual selection. Ecology and Evolution 11:6326–6340. doi:10.1002/ece3.7484. (Cited on page 60.)
- Kodric-Brown, A. 1990. Mechanisms of sexual selection: Insights from fishes. Annales Zoologici Fennici page 15. (Cited on page 85.)
- Koenig, W. D. 2002. Global patterns of environmental synchrony and the Moran effect. Ecography 25:283–288. doi:10.1034/j.1600-0587.2002.250304.x. (Cited on page 268.)
- Kooijman, B., and S. A. L. M. Kooijman. 2010. Dynamic Energy Budget Theory for Metabolic Organisation. Cambridge University Press. (Cited on page 245.)
- Kovach, R. P., J. E. Joyce, J. D. Echave, M. S. Lindberg, and D. A. Tallmon. 2013. Earlier migration timing, decreasing phenotypic variation, and biocomplexity in multiple salmonid species. PLOS ONE 8:e53807. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0053807. (Cited on page 211.)
- Kubisch, A., E. A. Fronhofer, H. J. Poethke, and T. Hovestadt. 2013. Kin competition as a major driving force for invasions. The American Naturalist 181:700–706. doi:10.1086/670008. (Cited on page 51.)
- Kuparinen, A., and J. Merilä. 2007. Detecting and managing fisheries-induced evolution. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 22:652–659. doi:10.1016/j.tree.2007.08.011. (Cited on page 179.)
- Kuparinen, A., J. Tufto, S. Consuegra, K. Hindar, J. Merilä, and C. Garcia de Leaniz. 2010. Effective size of an Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar L.*) metapopulation in Northern Spain. Conservation Genetics 11:1559–1565. doi:10.1007/s10592-009-9945-6. (Cited on pages 31 and 32.)
- Labonne, J., and A. P. Hendry. 2010. Natural and sexual selection giveth and taketh away reproductive barriers: Models of population divergence in guppies. The American Naturalist 176:26–39. doi:10.1086/652992. (Cited on pages 48 and 60.)
- Labonne, J., V. Ravigné, B. Parisi, and C. Gaucherel. 2008. Linking dendritic network structures to population demogenetics: The downside of connectivity. Oikos 117:1479– 1490. doi:10.1111/j.0030-1299.2008.16976.x. (Cited on page 126.)
- Lamarins, A., and M. Buoro. 2023. Literature review on dispersal in salmonids. doi:10.57745/RCMAGH. (Cited on pages 25, 28 and 32.)
- Lamarins, A., V. Fririon, D. Folio, C. Vernier, L. Daupagne, J. Labonne, M. Buoro, F. Lefèvre, C. Piou, and S. Muratorio. 2022a. Database of the literature on demo-genetic agentbased models (DG-ABMs) simulating interindividual interactions. doi:10.57745/FUQGSG. (Cited on pages 54 and 56.)

- Lamarins, A., V. Fririon, D. Folio, C. Vernier, L. Daupagne, J. Labonne, M. Buoro, F. Lefèvre, C. Piou, and S. Oddou-Muratorio. 2022b. Importance of interindividual interactions in eco-evolutionary population dynamics: The rise of demo-genetic agent-based models. Evolutionary Applications 15:1988–2001. doi:10.1111/eva.13508. (Cited on pages 42 and 54.)
- Lamarins, A., F. Hugon, C. Piou, J. Papaïx, E. Prévost, S. M. Carlson, and M. Buoro. 2022c. Implications of dispersal in Atlantic salmon: Lessons from a demo-genetic agent-based model. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 79:2025–2042. doi:10.1139/cjfas-2021-0342. (Cited on pages 75, 127, 128, 130, 132 and 149.)
- Lande, R., S. Engen, and B.-E. Sæther. 1999. Spatial scale of population synchrony: Environmental correlation versus dispersal and density regulation. The American Naturalist 154:271–281. doi:10.1086/303240. (Cited on page 12.)
- Landguth, E. L., A. Bearlin, C. C. Day, and J. Dunham. 2017. CDMetaPOP: An individualbased, eco-evolutionary model for spatially explicit simulation of landscape demogenetics. Methods in Ecology and Evolution 8:4–11. doi:10.1111/2041-210X.12608. (Cited on pages 69, 70, 79, 80, 82 and 87.)
- Langvatn, R., and A. Loison. 1999. Consequences of harvesting on age structure, sex ratio and population dynamics of red deer *Cervus elaphus* in central Norway. Wildlife Biology 5:213–223. doi:10.2981/wlb.1999.026. (Cited on page 125.)
- Larroque, J., S. Legault, R. Johns, L. Lumley, M. Cusson, S. Renaut, R. C. Levesque, and P. M. A. James. 2019. Temporal variation in spatial genetic structure during population outbreaks: Distinguishing among different potential drivers of spatial synchrony. Evolutionary Applications 12:1931–1945. doi:10.1111/eva.12852. (Cited on page 12.)
- Larsen, S., L. Comte, A. Filipa Filipe, M.-J. Fortin, C. Jacquet, R. Ryser, P. A. Tedesco, U. Brose, T. Erős, X. Giam, K. Irving, A. Ruhi, S. Sharma, and J. D. Olden. 2021. The geography of metapopulation synchrony in dendritic river networks. Ecology Letters 24:791–801. doi:10.1111/ele.13699. (Cited on pages 126 and 270.)
- Le Page, C., N. Becu, P. Bommel, and F. Bousquet. 2010. Participatory agent-based simulation for renewable resource management: The role of the Cormas simulation platform to nurture a community of practice. Journal of Artificial Societies and Social Simulation 15:10. (Cited on page 65.)
- Le Page, C., and A. Perrotton. 2017. KILT: A modelling approach based on participatory agent-based simulation of stylized socio-ecosystems to stimulate social learning with local stakeholders. Pages 31–44 in G. Sukthankar and J. A. Rodriguez-Aguilar, eds. Autonomous Agents and Multiagent Systems. Lecture Notes in Computer Science. Springer International Publishing, Cham. (Cited on page 65.)
- Lebot, C., M.-A. Arago, L. Beaulaton, G. Germis, M. Nevoux, E. Rivot, and E. Prévost. 2022. Taking full advantage of the diverse assemblage of data at hand to produce time

series of abundance: A case study on Atlantic salmon populations of Brittany. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 79:533–547. doi:10.1139/cjfas-2020-0368. (Cited on pages 33, 91, 181 and 182.)

- Lefèvre, F., T. Boivin, A. Bontemps, F. Courbet, H. Davi, M. Durand-Gillmann, B. Fady, J. Gauzere, C. Gidoin, M.-J. Karam, H. Lalagüe, S. Oddou-Muratorio, and C. Pichot. 2014. Considering evolutionary processes in adaptive forestry. Annals of Forest Science 71:723–739. doi:10.1007/s13595-013-0272-1. (Cited on page 63.)
- Leidinger, L., D. Vedder, and J. S. Cabral. 2021. Temporal environmental variation may impose differential selection on both genomic and ecological traits. Oikos 130:1100–1115. doi:10.1111/oik.08172. (Cited on page 62.)
- Leleu, I., I. Tonnelier, R. Puechberty, P. Gouin, I. Viquendi, L. Cobos, A. Foray, M. Baillon, and P.-O. Ndima. 2014. La refonte du système d'information national pour la gestion et la mise à disposition des données hydrométriques. La Houille Blanche pages 25–32. doi:10.1051/lhb/2014004. (Cited on page 111.)
- Léna, J.-P., J. Clobert, M. de Fraipont, J. Lecomte, and G. Guyot. 1998. The relative influence of density and kinship on dispersal in the common lizard. Behavioral Ecology 9:500–507. doi:10.1093/beheco/9.5.500. (Cited on page 6.)
- Lenormand, T. 2002. Gene flow and the limits to natural selection. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 17:183–189. doi:10.1016/S0169-5347(02)02497-7. (Cited on pages 13, 17, 77, 125 and 147.)
- Lepais, O., A. Manicki, S. Glise, M. Buoro, and A. Bardonnet. 2017. Genetic architecture of threshold reaction norms for male alternative reproductive tactics in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.). Scientific Reports 7:43552. doi:10.1038/srep43552. (Cited on pages 24, 78 and 85.)
- Levins, R. 1966. The Strategy of Model Building in Population Biology. American Scientist 54:421–431. (Cited on page 55.)
- ———. 1969. Some demographic and genetic consequences of environmental heterogeneity for biological control. Bulletin of the Entomological Society of America 15:237–240. doi:10.1093/besa/15.3.237. (Cited on page 9.)
- ——. 1970. Extinction. Lecture Notes in Mathematics pages 75–107. (Cited on page 9.)
- Li, X.-Y., and H. Kokko. 2019. Sex-biased dispersal: A review of the theory. Biological Reviews 94:721–736. doi:10.1111/brv.12475. (Cited on pages 4 and 102.)
- Liebhold, A., W. D. Koenig, and O. N. Bjørnstad. 2004. Spatial synchrony in population dynamics. Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics 35:467–490. (Cited on page 17.)
- Lin, J., T. P. Quinn, R. Hilborn, and L. Hauser. 2008. Fine-scale differentiation between sockeye salmon ecotypes and the effect of phenotype on straying. Heredity 101:341–350. doi:10.1038/hdy.2008.59. (Cited on pages 39 and 267.)

- Lin, J. E., J. J. Hard, R. Hilborn, and L. Hauser. 2017. Modeling local adaptation and gene flow in sockeye salmon. Ecosphere 8:e02039. doi:10.1002/ecs2.2039. (Cited on pages 28, 70, 79, 80, 83 and 87.)
- Lindley, S. T., R. S. Schick, A. Agrawal, M. Goslin, T. E. Pearson, E. Mora, J. J. Anderson, B. May, S. Greene, C. Hanson, A. Low, D. McEwan, R. B. MacFarlane, C. Swanson, and J. G. Williams. 2006. Historical population structure of Central Valley Steelhead and its alteration by dams. San Francisco Estuary and Watershed Science 4. doi:10.15447/sfews.2006v4iss1art3. (Cited on page 23.)
- Loreau, M., and C. de Mazancourt. 2008. Species synchrony and its drivers: Neutral and nonneutral community dynamics in fluctuating environments. The American Naturalist 172:E48–66. doi:10.1086/589746. (Cited on page 95.)
- ——. 2013. Biodiversity and ecosystem stability: A synthesis of underlying mechanisms. Ecology Letters 16:106–115. doi:10.1111/ele.12073. (Cited on page 16.)
- Lu, G., and L. Bernatchez. 1999. Correlated trophic specialization and genetic divergence in sympatric lake whitefish ecotypes (*Coregonus clupeaformis*): Support for the ecological speciation hypothesis. Evolution 53:1491–1505. doi:10.1111/j.1558-5646.1999.tb05413.x. (Cited on page 125.)
- Maan, M. E., and O. Seehausen. 2011. Ecology, sexual selection and speciation. Ecology Letters 14:591–602. doi:10.1111/j.1461-0248.2011.01606.x. (Cited on page 60.)
- MacArthur, R. H., and E. O. Wilson. 1963. An equilibrium theory of Insular zoogeography. Evolution 17:373–387. doi:10.2307/2407089. (Cited on page 10.)

———. 1967. The Theory of Island Biogeography. Rev - revised ed. Princeton University Press. (Cited on page 10.)

- Makhrov, A. A., E. Verspoor, V. S. Artamonova, and M. O'Sullivan. 2005. Atlantic salmon colonization of the Russian Arctic coast: Pioneers from North America. Journal of Fish Biology 67:68–79. doi:10.1111/j.0022-1112.2005.00840.x. (Cited on page 78.)
- Mangel, M. 1994. Climate change and salmonid life history variation. Deep Sea Research Part II: Topical Studies in Oceanography 41:75–106. doi:10.1016/0967-0645(94)90063-9. (Cited on page 236.)
- ——. 2015. Stochastic dynamic programming illuminates the link between environment, physiology, and evolution. Bulletin of Mathematical Biology 77:857–877. doi:10.1007/s11538-014-9973-3. (Cited on page 49.)
- Mangel, M., and W. H. Satterthwaite. 2016. Modeling anadromous salmonid life-history. Pages 221–247 in Evolutionary Biology of the Atlantic Salmon, crc press, boca raton ed. (Cited on pages 24 and 78.)
- Margules, C., A. Nicholls, and M. Usher. 1994. Apparent species turnover, probability of extinction and the selection of nature reserves: A case study of the Ingleborough limestone pavements. Conservation Biology 8:398–409. doi:10.1046/j.1523-1739.1994.08020398.x. (Cited on page 20.)
- Margules, C. R., R. L. Pressey, and P. H. Williams. 2002. Representing biodiversity: Data and procedures for identifying priority areas for conservation. Journal of Biosciences 27:309– 326. doi:10.1007/BF02704962. (Cited on page 20.)
- Marjanovic, J., H. A. Mulder, L. Rönnegård, D.-J. de Koning, and P. Bijma. 2022. Capturing indirect genetic effects on phenotypic variability: Competition meets canalization. Evolutionary Applications 15:694–705. doi:10.1111/eva.13353. (Cited on page 45.)
- Marr, A. B., L. F. Keller, and P. Arcese. 2002. Heterosis and outbreeding depression in descendants of natural immigrants to an inbred population of song sparrows (*Melospiza melodia*). Evolution 56:131–142. doi:10.1111/j.0014-3820.2002.tb00855.x. (Cited on page 8.)
- Marsh, D. M., and P. C. Trenham. 2001. Metapopulation dynamics and amphibian conservation. Conservation Biology 15:40–49. doi:10.1111/j.1523-1739.2001.00129.x. (Cited on page 9.)
- Marshall, D. J., K. Monro, M. Bode, M. J. Keough, and S. Swearer. 2010. Phenotype–environment mismatches reduce connectivity in the sea. Ecology Letters 13:128–140. doi:10.1111/j.1461-0248.2009.01408.x. (Cited on page 13.)
- Marty, L., U. Dieckmann, and B. Ernande. 2015. Fisheries-induced neutral and adaptive evolution in exploited fish populations and consequences for their adaptive potential. Evolutionary Applications 8:47–63. doi:10.1111/eva.12220. (Cited on page 180.)
- Matsumura, S., R. Arlinghaus, and U. Dieckmann. 2011. Assessing evolutionary consequences of size-selective recreational fishing on multiple life-history traits, with an application to northern pike (*Esox lucius*). Evolutionary Ecology 25:711–735. doi:10.1007/s10682-010-9444-8. (Cited on page 195.)
- Matthysen, E. 2012. Multicausality of dispersal: A review. Pages 3–18 in Dispersal Ecology and Evolution, oxford university press ed. (Cited on pages 3, 4 and 6.)
- Maynard Smith, J. 1974. The theory of games and the evolution of animal conflicts. Journal of Theoretical Biology 47:209–221. doi:10.1016/0022-5193(74)90110-6. (Cited on page 45.)
- McClure, M. M., S. M. Carlson, T. J. Beechie, G. R. Pess, J. C. Jorgensen, S. M. Sogard, S. E. Sultan, D. M. Holzer, J. Travis, B. L. Sanderson, M. E. Power, and R. W. Carmichael. 2008. Evolutionary consequences of habitat loss for Pacific anadromous salmonids. Evolutionary Applications 1:300–318. doi:10.1111/j.1752-4571.2008.00030.x. (Cited on page 23.)
- McCormick, S. D., L. P. Hansen, T. P. Quinn, and R. L. Saunders. 1998. Movement, migration, and smolting of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*). Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 55:77–92. (Cited on page 238.)

- McCormick, S. D., and R. Saunders. 1987. Preparatory physiological adaptations for marine life of salmonids: Osmoregulation, growth, and metabolism. American Fisheries Society Symposium 1:211–229. (Cited on page 238.)
- McDonald, G. C., A. Gardner, and T. Pizzari. 2019. Sexual selection in complex communities: Integrating interspecific reproductive interference in structured populations. Evolution 73:1025–1036. doi:10.1111/evo.13726. (Cited on page 62.)
- McDonald-Madden, E., M. C. Runge, H. P. Possingham, and T. G. Martin. 2011. Optimal timing for managed relocation of species faced with climate change. Nature Climate Change 1:261–265. doi:10.1038/nclimate1170. (Cited on page 177.)
- McInerny, G., J. Turner, H. Wong, J. Travis, and T. Benton. 2009. How range shifts induced by climate change affect neutral evolution. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 276:1527–1534. doi:10.1098/rspb.2008.1567. (Cited on page 13.)
- McKenzie, D. J., Y. Zhang, E. J. Eliason, P. M. Schulte, G. Claireaux, F. R. Blasco, J. J. H. Nati, and A. P. Farrell. 2021. Intraspecific variation in tolerance of warming in fishes. Journal of Fish Biology 98:1536–1555. doi:10.1111/jfb.14620. (Cited on page 103.)
- McManus, L. C., D. L. Forrest, E. W. Tekwa, D. E. Schindler, M. A. Colton, M. M. Webster, T. E. Essington, S. R. Palumbi, P. J. Mumby, and M. L. Pinsky. 2021a. Evolution and connectivity influence the persistence and recovery of coral reefs under climate change in the Caribbean, Southwest Pacific, and Coral Triangle. Global Change Biology 27:4307– 4321. doi:10.1111/gcb.15725. (Cited on page 103.)
- McManus, L. C., E. W. Tekwa, D. E. Schindler, T. E. Walsworth, M. A. Colton, M. M. Webster, T. E. Essington, D. L. Forrest, S. R. Palumbi, P. J. Mumby, and M. L. Pinsky. 2021b. Evolution reverses the effect of network structure on metapopulation persistence. Ecology 102:e03381. doi:10.1002/ecy.3381. (Cited on pages 103, 126, 133, 144, 160 and 269.)
- McPeek, M. A., and R. D. Holt. 1992. The evolution of dispersal in spatially and temporally varying environments. The American Naturalist 140:1010–1027. doi:10.1086/285453. (Cited on page 8.)
- Mijangos, J. L., C. Pacioni, P. B. S. Spencer, and M. D. Craig. 2015. Contribution of genetics to ecological restoration. Molecular Ecology 24:22–37. doi:10.1111/mec.12995. (Cited on page 180.)
- Mims, M. C., C. C. Day, J. J. Burkhart, M. R. Fuller, J. Hinkle, A. Bearlin, J. B. Dunham, P. W. DeHaan, Z. A. Holden, and E. E. Landguth. 2019. Simulating demography, genetics, and spatially explicit processes to inform reintroduction of a threatened char. Ecosphere 10:e02589. doi:10.1002/ecs2.2589. (Cited on page 63.)
- Mobley, K. B., T. Aykanat, Y. Czorlich, A. House, J. Kurko, A. Miettinen, J. Moustakas-Verho, A. Salgado, M. Sinclair-Waters, J.-P. Verta, and C. R. Primmer. 2021. Maturation in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*, Salmonidae) : A synthesis of ecological, genetic, and molecular processes. Reviews in Fish Biology and Fisheries . (Cited on page 232.)

- Mobley, K. B., H. Granroth-Wilding, M. Ellmen, J.-P. Vähä, T. Aykanat, S. E. Johnston, P. Orell, J. Erkinaro, and C. R. Primmer. 2019. Home ground advantage: Local Atlantic salmon have higher reproductive fitness than dispersers in the wild. Science Advances 5:eaav1112. doi:10.1126/sciadv.aav1112. (Cited on pages 17, 102, 103, 125 and 267.)
- Moilanen, A., and M. Cabeza. 2002. Single-species dynamic site selection. Ecological Applications 12:913–926. doi:10.1890/1051-0761(2002)012[0913:SSDSS]2.0.CO;2. (Cited on page 20.)
- Moore, J. C., A. Loggenberg, and J. M. Greeff. 2006. Kin competition promotes dispersal in a male pollinating fig wasp. Biology Letters 2:17–19. doi:10.1098/rsbl.2005.0370. (Cited on page 4.)
- Moore, J.-S., L. N. Harris, R. F. Tallman, and E. B. Taylor. 2013. The interplay between dispersal and gene flow in anadromous Arctic char (*Salvelinus alpinus*): Implications for potential for local adaptation. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 70:1327–1338. doi:10.1139/cjfas-2013-0138. (Cited on pages 103 and 125.)
- Moore, J. W. 2015. Bidirectional connectivity in rivers and implications for watershed stability and management. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 72:785–795. doi:10.1139/cjfas-2014-0478. (Cited on page 177.)
- Moore, J. W., B. M. Connors, and E. E. Hodgson. 2021. Conservation risks and portfolio effects in mixed-stock fisheries. Fish and Fisheries 22:1024–1040. doi:10.1111/faf.12567. (Cited on pages 104, 178 and 263.)
- Moore, J. W., M. McClure, L. A. Rogers, and D. E. Schindler. 2010. Synchronization and portfolio performance of threatened salmon. Conservation Letters 3:340–348. doi:10.1111/j.1755-263X.2010.00119.x. (Cited on pages 17 and 78.)
- Moore, J. W., and D. E. Schindler. 2022. Getting ahead of climate change for ecological adaptation and resilience. Science 376:1421–1426. doi:10.1126/science.abo3608. (Cited on pages 21, 22, 148, 178 and 263.)
- Mora, C., S. Andrèfouët, M. J. Costello, C. Kranenburg, A. Rollo, J. Veron, K. J. Gaston, and R. A. Myers. 2006. Coral reefs and the global network of Marine Protected Areas. Science 312:1750–1751. doi:10.1126/science.1125295. (Cited on page 177.)
- Moran, P. a. P. 1953. The statistical analysis of the Canadian Lynx cycle. Australian Journal of Zoology 1:291–298. doi:10.1071/zo9530291. (Cited on page 260.)
- Mortier, F., S. Jacob, M. L. Vandegehuchte, and D. Bonte. 2019. Habitat choice stabilizes metapopulation dynamics by enabling ecological specialization. Oikos 128:529–539. doi:10.1111/oik.05885. (Cited on page 147.)
- Nadeau, C. P., and M. C. Urban. 2019. Eco-evolution on the edge during climate change. Ecography 42:1280–1297. doi:10.1111/ecog.04404. (Cited on page 269.)

- NASCO. 2019. State of North Atlantic salmon. Tech. Rep. ISBN: 978-0-9514129-8-5, NASCO. (Cited on pages 30 and 31.)
- Nathan, L. R., N. Mamoozadeh, H. R. Tumas, S. Gunselman, K. Klass, A. Metcalfe, C. Edge, L. P. Waits, P. Spruell, E. Lowery, E. Connor, A. R. Bearlin, M.-J. Fortin, and E. Landguth. 2019. A spatially-explicit, individual-based demogenetic simulation framework for evaluating hybridization dynamics. Ecological Modelling 401:40–51. doi:10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2019.03.002. (Cited on pages 60 and 63.)
- Nathan, R., E. Klein, J. J. Robledo-Arnuncio, and E. Revilla. 2012. Dispersal kernels: Review. In Dispersal Ecology and Evolution. J. Clobert, M. Baguette, T. G. Benton, and J. M. Bullock. (Cited on pages 87 and 241.)
- Nonaka, E., and V. Kaitala. 2020. The effects of functional response and host abundance fluctuations on genetic rescue in parasitoids with single-locus sex determination. Ecology and Evolution 10:13030–13043. doi:10.1002/ece3.6889. (Cited on page 60.)
- North, A., S. Cornell, and O. Ovaskainen. 2011. Evolutionary responses of dispersal distance to landscape structure and habitat loss. Evolution 65:1739–1751. doi:10.1111/j.1558-5646.2011.01254.x. (Cited on page 14.)
- Nosil, P., and B. J. Crespi. 2004. Does gene flow constrain adaptive divergence or vice versa? A test using ecomorphology and sexual isolation in *Timema cristinae* walkingsticks. Evolution 58:102–112. doi:10.1111/j.0014-3820.2004.tb01577.x. (Cited on page 125.)
- Nowicki, P., and V. Vrabec. 2011. Evidence for positive density-dependent emigration in butterfly metapopulations. Oecologia 167:657. doi:10.1007/s00442-011-2025-x. (Cited on page 5.)
- Oddou-Muratorio, S., and H. Davi. 2014. Simulating local adaptation to climate of forest trees with a Physio-Demo-Genetics model. Evolutionary Applications 7:453–467. doi:10.1111/eva.12143. (Cited on page 64.)
- Oddou-Muratorio, S., H. Davi, and F. Lefèvre. 2020. Integrating evolutionary, demographic and ecophysiologicalprocesses to predict the adaptive dynamics of forest tree populations under globalchange. Tree Genetics & Genomes 16:67. doi:10.1007/s11295-020-01451-1. (Cited on page 45.)
- OFB. 2012. Explore 2070 Eau et changement climatique Hydrologie de surface B4 Etude de la thermie des cours d'eau. Tech. rep., OFB. (Cited on page 111.)
- Oh, K. P., and A. V. Badyaev. 2010. Structure of social networks in a passerine bird: Consequences for sexual selection and the evolution of mating strategies. The American Naturalist 176:E80–89. doi:10.1086/655216. (Cited on page 46.)
- Okamoto, D. K., M. Hessing-Lewis, J. F. Samhouri, A. O. Shelton, A. Stier, P. S. Levin, and A. K. Salomon. 2020. Spatial variation in exploited metapopulations obscures risk of collapse. Ecological Applications 30:e02051. doi:10.1002/eap.2051. (Cited on page 178.)

- Ólafsson, E. B., C. H. Peterson, and W. G. Ambrose Jr. 1994. Does recruitment limitation structure populations and communities of macro-invertebrates in marine soft sediments: The relative significance of pre- and post-settlement processes. Oceanography and Marine Biology: An Annual Review. (Cited on page 8.)
- Olivieri, I., and P.-H. Gouyon. 1997. Evolution of migration rate and other traits: The metapopulation effect. Pages 293–323 in I. Hanski and M. E. Gilpin, eds. Metapopulation Biology. Academic Press, San Diego. (Cited on page 13.)
- Olmos, M., F. Massiot-Granier, E. Prévost, G. Chaput, I. R. Bradbury, M. Nevoux, and E. Rivot. 2019. Evidence for spatial coherence in time trends of marine life history traits of Atlantic salmon in the North Atlantic. Fish and Fisheries 20:322–342. doi:10.1111/faf.12345. (Cited on page 84.)
- Olmos, M., M. R. Payne, M. Nevoux, E. Prévost, G. Chaput, H. Du Pontavice, J. Guitton, T. Sheehan, K. Mills, and E. Rivot. 2020. Spatial synchrony in the response of a long range migratory species (*Salmo salar*) to climate change in the North Atlantic Ocean. Global Change Biology 26:1319–1337. doi:10.1111/gcb.14913. (Cited on page 269.)
- Pacoureau, N., M. Authier, K. Delord, C. Guinet, and C. Barbraud. 2017. Early-life densitydependence effects on growth and survival in subantarctic fur seals. Population Ecology 59:139–155. doi:10.1007/s10144-017-0573-6. (Cited on page 12.)
- Papaïx, J., O. David, C. Lannou, and H. Monod. 2013. Dynamics of adaptation in spatially heterogeneous metapopulations. PLOS ONE 8:e54697. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0054697. (Cited on pages 103, 126 and 144.)
- Papaïx, J., L. Rimbaud, J. J. Burdon, J. Zhan, and P. H. Thrall. 2018. Differential impact of landscape-scale strategies for crop cultivar deployment on disease dynamics, resistance durability and long-term evolutionary control. Evolutionary Applications 11:705–717. doi:10.1111/eva.12570. (Cited on page 63.)
- Paradis, E., S. R. Baillie, W. J. Sutherland, and R. D. Gregory. 1999. Dispersal and spatial scale affect synchrony in spatial population dynamics. Ecology Letters 2:114–120. doi:10.1046/j.1461-0248.1999.22060.x. (Cited on pages 12, 17, 77 and 100.)
- Parmesan, C., and G. Yohe. 2003. A globally coherent fingerprint of climate change impacts across natural systems. Nature 421:37–42. doi:10.1038/nature01286. (Cited on pages 147 and 268.)
- Parvinen, K., H. Ohtsuki, and J. Y. Wakano. 2020. Evolution of dispersal in a spatially heterogeneous population with finite patch sizes. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 117:7290–7295. doi:10.1073/pnas.1915881117. (Cited on page 14.)
- Pavlov, D. S., K. A. Savvaitova, K. V. Kuzishchin, M. A. Gruzdeva, A. Y. Mal'tsev, and J. A. Stanford. 2008. Diversity of life strategies and population structure of *Kamchatka mykiss Parasalmo mykiss* in the ecosystems of small salmon rivers of various types. Journal of Ichthyology 48:37–44. doi:10.1134/S0032945208010049. (Cited on page 24.)

- Paz-Vinas, I., and S. Blanchet. 2015. Dendritic connectivity shapes spatial patterns of genetic diversity: A simulation-based study. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 28:986–994. doi:10.1111/jeb.12626. (Cited on pages 126, 132 and 270.)
- Pearsons, T. N., and R. R. O'Connor. 2020. Stray rates of natural-origin Chinook salmon and Steelhead in the upper Columbia river watershed. Transactions of the American Fisheries Society 149:147–158. doi:10.1002/tafs.10220. (Cited on page 24.)
- Pease, C. M., R. Lande, and J. J. Bull. 1989. A model of population growth, dispersal and evolution in a changing environment. Ecology 70:1657–1664. doi:10.2307/1938100. (Cited on page 49.)
- Pelletier, D., and S. Mahévas. 2005. Spatially explicit fisheries simulation models for policy evaluation. Fish and Fisheries 6:307–349. doi:10.1111/j.1467-2979.2005.00199.x. (Cited on page 180.)
- Pelletier, F., D. Garant, and A. P. Hendry. 2009. Eco-evolutionary dynamics. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series B, Biological Sciences 364:1483–1489. doi:10.1098/rstb.2009.0027. (Cited on page 45.)
- Penaluna, B. E., J. B. Dunham, S. F. Railsback, I. Arismendi, S. L. Johnson, R. E. Bilby, M. Safeeq, and A. E. Skaugset. 2015. Local variability mediates vulnerability of trout populations to land use and climate change. PLOS ONE 10:e0135334. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0135334. (Cited on page 269.)
- Peniston, J. H., M. Barfield, and R. D. Holt. 2019. Pulsed immigration events can facilitate adaptation to harsh sink environments. The American Naturalist 194:316–333. doi:10.1086/704608. (Cited on page 147.)
- Pépino, M., M. A. Rodríguez, and P. Magnan. 2012. Fish dispersal in fragmented landscapes: A modeling framework for quantifying the permeability of structural barriers. Ecological Applications 22:1435–1445. doi:10.1890/11-1866.1. (Cited on pages 89 and 241.)
- Perrier, C., G. Evanno, J. Belliard, R. Guyomard, and J.-L. Baglinière. 2010. Natural recolonization of the Seine River by Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) of multiple origins. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 67:1–4. doi:10.1139/F09-190. (Cited on pages 32 and 78.)
- Perrier, C., R. Guyomard, J.-L. Bagliniere, and G. Evanno. 2011. Determinants of hierarchical genetic structure in Atlantic salmon populations: Environmental factors vs. anthropogenic influences. Molecular Ecology 20:4231–4245. doi:10.1111/j.1365-294X.2011.05266.x. (Cited on pages 31, 33, 91, 132 and 182.)
- Pess, G. R., T. P. Quinn, S. R. Gephard, and R. Saunders. 2014. Re-colonization of Atlantic and Pacific rivers by anadromous fishes: Linkages between life history and the benefits of barrier removal. Reviews in Fish Biology and Fisheries 24:881–900. doi:10.1007/s11160-013-9339-1. (Cited on page 78.)

Peterson, D. A., R. Hilborn, and L. Hauser. 2014. Local adaptation limits lifetime reproductive success of dispersers in a wild salmon metapopulation. Nature Communications 5:3696. doi:10.1038/ncomms4696. (Cited on page 267.)

——. 2016. Exploratory behavior of dispersers within a metapopulation of sockeye salmon. Behavioral Ecology 27:126–133. doi:10.1093/beheco/arv129. (Cited on page 24.)

- Peterson, R. H., H. C. E. Spinney, and A. Sreedharan. 1977. Development of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) eggs and alevins under varied temperature regimes. Journal of the Fisheries Research Board of Canada 34:31–43. doi:10.1139/f77-004. (Cited on page 224.)
- Piché, J., J. A. Hutchings, and W. Blanchard. 2008. Genetic variation in threshold reaction norms for alternative reproductive tactics in male Atlantic salmon, *Salmo salar*. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 275:1571–1575. doi:10.1098/rspb.2008.0251. (Cited on pages 85 and 239.)
- Pietrek, A. G., R. S. Walker, and A. J. Novaro. 2009. Susceptibility of lizards to predation under two levels of vegetative cover. Journal of Arid Environments 73:574–577. doi:10.1016/j.jaridenv.2008.12.019. (Cited on page 8.)
- Piotrowski, A. P., and J. J. Napiorkowski. 2019. Simple modifications of the nonlinear regression stream temperature model for daily data. Journal of Hydrology 572:308–328. doi:10.1016/j.jhydrol.2019.02.035. (Cited on page 111.)
- Piou, C., and E. Prévost. 2012. A demo-genetic individual-based model for Atlantic salmon populations: Model structure, parameterization and sensitivity. Ecological Modelling 231:37–52. doi:10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2012.01.025. (Cited on pages 52, 70, 79, 80, 83, 84, 86, 87, 90, 92, 96, 99, 106, 109, 128, 130, 180, 182, 220 and 236.)
- Piou, C., M. H. Taylor, J. Papaix, and E. Prevost. 2015. Modelling the interactive effects of selective fishing and environmental change on Atlantic salmon demogenetics. Journal of Applied Ecology 52:1629–1637. doi:10.1111/1365-2664.12512. (Cited on pages 59, 60, 63, 70, 79, 84, 104, 180, 182, 193 and 194.)
- Poethke, H. J., C. Dytham, and T. Hovestadt. 2011. A metapopulation paradox: Partial improvement of habitat may reduce metapopulation persistence. The American Naturalist 177:792–799. doi:10.1086/659995. (Cited on pages 21 and 268.)
- Poethke, H. J., T. Hovestadt, and O. Mitesser. 2003. Local extinction and the evolution of dispersal rates: Causes and correlations. The American Naturalist 161:631–640. doi:10.1086/368224. (Cited on page 8.)
- Poethke, H. J., B. Pfenning, and T. Hovestadt. 2007. The relative contribution of individual and kin selection to the evolution of density-dependent dispersal rates. Evolutionary Ecology Research . (Cited on pages 7, 14, 51 and 270.)

- Pontarp, M., J. Johansson, N. Jonzén, and P. Lundberg. 2015a. Adaptation of timing of life history traits and population dynamic responses to climate change in spatially structured populations. Evolutionary Ecology 29:565–579. doi:10.1007/s10682-015-9759-6. (Cited on page 126.)
- Pontarp, M., J. Ripa, and P. Lundberg. 2015b. The biogeography of adaptive radiations and the geographic overlap of sister species. The American Naturalist 186:565–581. doi:10.1086/683260. (Cited on page 62.)
- Post, E., and M. C. Forchhammer. 2002. Synchronization of animal population dynamics by large-scale climate. Nature 420:168–171. doi:10.1038/nature01064. (Cited on page 268.)
- ———. 2004. Spatial synchrony of local populations has increased in association with the recent Northern Hemisphere climate trend. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 101:9286–9290. doi:10.1073/pnas.0305029101. (Cited on page 268.)
- Post, J. R., E. A. Parkinson, and N. T. Johnston. 1999. Density-dependent processes in structured fish populations: Interaction strengths in whole-lake experiments. Ecological Monographs 69:155–175. doi:10.1890/0012-9615(1999)069[0155:DDPISF]2.0.CO;2. (Cited on page 233.)
- Pregler, K. C., Y. Kanno, D. Rankin, J. A. Coombs, and A. R. Whiteley. 2018. Characterizing genetic integrity of rear-edge trout populations in the southern Appalachians. Conservation Genetics 19:1487–1503. doi:10.1007/s10592-018-1116-1. (Cited on page 264.)
- Pretzsch, H. 2021. Genetic diversity reduces competition and increases tree growth on a Norway spruce (*Picea abies* [L.] Karst.) provenance mixing experiment. Forest Ecology and Management 497:119498. doi:10.1016/j.foreco.2021.119498. (Cited on page 45.)
- Pulliam, H. R. 1988. Sources, sinks, and population regulation. The American Naturalist 132:652–661. doi:10.1086/284880. (Cited on pages 10 and 266.)
- Quinn, T. P. 1984. Homing and straying in Pacific salmon. Pages 357–362 in J. D. McCleave, G. P. Arnold, J. J. Dodson, and W. H. Neill, eds. Mechanisms of Migration in Fishes, NATO Conference Series. Springer US, Boston, MA. (Cited on page 24.)
 - ——. 1993. A review of homing and straying of wild and hatchery-produced salmon. Fisheries Research 18:29–44. doi:10.1016/0165-7836(93)90038-9. (Cited on page 25.)
- Radchuk, V., K. Johst, J. Groeneveld, V. Grimm, and N. Schtickzelle. 2013. Behind the scenes of population viability modeling: Predicting butterfly metapopulation dynamics under climate change. Ecological Modelling 259:62–73. doi:10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2013.03.014. (Cited on page 41.)
- Railsback, S. F., and V. Grimm. 2019. Agent-Based and Individual-Based Modeling. (Cited on page 54.)

- Ranke, P. S., Y. G. Araya-Ajoy, T. H. Ringsby, H. Pärn, B. Rønning, H. Jensen, J. Wright, and B.-E. Sæther. 2021. Spatial structure and dispersal dynamics in a house sparrow metapopulation. Journal of Animal Ecology 90:2767–2781. doi:10.1111/1365-2656.13580. (Cited on page 145.)
- Ranta, E., K. Veijo, and J. Lindströom. 1999. Spatially autocorrelated disturbances and patterns in population synchrony. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences 266:1851–1856. doi:10.1098/rspb.1999.0856. (Cited on pages 12 and 268.)
- Ratkowsky, D. A., R. K. Lowry, T. A. McMeekin, A. N. Stokes, and R. E. Chandler. 1983. Model for bacterial culture growth rate throughout the entire biokinetic temperature range. Journal of Bacteriology 154:1222–1226. (Cited on page 232.)
- Rebaudo, F., A. L. Rouzic, S. Dupas, J.-F. Silvain, M. Harry, and O. Dangles. 2013. SimAdapt: An individual-based genetic model for simulating landscape management impacts on populations. Methods in Ecology and Evolution 4:595–600. doi:10.1111/2041-210X.12041. (Cited on pages 69, 79 and 82.)
- Reed, T. E., D. E. Schindler, M. J. Hague, D. A. Patterson, E. Meir, R. S. Waples, and S. G. Hinch. 2011a. Time to evolve? Potential evolutionary responses of Fraser river Sockeye salmon to climate change and effects on persistence. PLOS ONE 6:e20380. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0020380. (Cited on pages 69, 212 and 269.)
- Reed, T. E., D. E. Schindler, and R. S. Waples. 2011b. Interacting effects of phenotypic plasticity and evolution on population persistence in a changing climate. Conservation Biology 25:56–63. doi:10.1111/j.1523-1739.2010.01552.x. (Cited on pages 3 and 77.)
- Reichert, B. E., R. J. Fletcher Jr., and W. M. Kitchens. 2021. The demographic contributions of connectivity versus local dynamics to population growth of an endangered bird. Journal of Animal Ecology 90:574–584. doi:10.1111/1365-2656.13387. (Cited on page 12.)
- Reilly, A. C., R. L. Dillon, and S. D. Guikema. 2021. Agent-based models as an integrating boundary object for interdisciplinary research. Risk Analysis 41:1087–1092. doi:10.1111/risa.13134. (Cited on page 65.)
- Reuillon, R., M. Leclaire, and S. Rey-Coyrehourcq. 2013. OpenMOLE, a workflow engine specifically tailored for the distributed exploration of simulation models. Future Generation Computer Systems 29:1981–1990. doi:10.1016/j.future.2013.05.003. (Cited on page 64.)
- Reuter, H., M. Kruse, A. Rovellini, and B. Breckling. 2016. Evolutionary trends in fish schools in heterogeneous environments. Ecological Modelling 326:23–35. (Cited on page 60.)
- Rieman, B. E., and J. B. Dunham. 2000. Metapopulations and salmonids: A synthesis of life history patterns and empirical observations. Ecology of Freshwater Fish 9:51–64. doi:10.1034/j.1600-0633.2000.90106.x. (Cited on page 24.)

- Rikardsen, A. H., D. Righton, J. F. Strøm, E. B. Thorstad, P. Gargan, T. Sheehan, F. Økland, C. M. Chittenden, R. D. Hedger, T. F. Næsje, M. Renkawitz, J. Sturlaugsson, P. Caballero, H. Baktoft, J. G. Davidsen, E. Halttunen, S. Wright, B. Finstad, and K. Aarestrup. 2021. Redefining the oceanic distribution of Atlantic salmon. Scientific Reports 11:12266. doi:10.1038/s41598-021-91137-y. (Cited on page 211.)
- Rimbaud, L., J. Papaïx, L. G. Barrett, J. J. Burdon, and P. H. Thrall. 2018. Mosaics, mixtures, rotations or pyramiding: What is the optimal strategy to deploy major gene resistance? Evolutionary Applications 11:1791–1810. doi:10.1111/eva.12681. (Cited on page 63.)
- Roff, D. 1977. Dispersal in Dipterans: Its costs and consequences. Journal of Animal Ecology 46:443–456. doi:10.2307/3822. (Cited on page 8.)
- Romero-Mujalli, D., F. Jeltsch, and R. Tiedemann. 2019. Individual-based modeling of ecoevolutionary dynamics: State of the art and future directions. Regional Environmental Change 19:1–12. doi:10.1007/s10113-018-1406-7. (Cited on pages 45 and 54.)
- Ronce, O. 2007. How does it feel to be like a Rolling Stone? Ten questions about dispersal evolution. Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics 38:231–253. doi:10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.38.091206.095611. (Cited on pages 3 and 77.)
- Ronce, O., and M. Kirkpatrick. 2001. When sources become sinks: Migrational meltdown in heterogeneous habitats. Evolution 55:1520–1531. doi:10.1111/j.0014-3820.2001.tb00672.x. (Cited on pages 17 and 125.)
- Ronce, O., and I. Olivieri. 1997. Evolution of reproductive effort in a metapopulation with local extinctions and ecological succession. The American Naturalist 150:220–249. doi:10.1086/286064. (Cited on pages 13 and 14.)
 - ——. 2004. Life history evolution in metapopulations. Pages 227–257 in I. Hanski and O. E. Gaggiotti, eds. Ecology, Genetics and Evolution of Metapopulations. Academic Press, Burlington. (Cited on page 14.)
- Ronce, O., F. Perret, and I. Olivieri. 2000. Landscape dynamics and evolution of colonizer syndromes: Interactions between reproductive effortand dispersal in a metapopulation. Evolutionary Ecology 14:233–260. doi:10.1023/A:1011068005057. (Cited on page 13.)
- Rowe, D. K., and J. E. Thorpe. 1990. Differences in growth between maturing and nonmaturing male Atlantic salmon, *Salmo salar L.*, parr. Journal of Fish Biology 36:643–658. doi:10.1111/j.1095-8649.1990.tb04319.x. (Cited on page 234.)
- Rowe, D. K., J. E. Thorpe, and A. M. Shanks. 1991. Role of fat stores in the maturation of male Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) parr. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 48:405–413. doi:10.1139/f91-052. (Cited on page 234.)
- Rudman, S. M., M. A. Barbour, K. Csilléry, P. Gienapp, F. Guillaume, N. G. Hairston, A. P. Hendry, J. R. Lasky, M. Rafajlović, K. Räsänen, P. S. Schmidt, O. Seehausen, N. O. Therkildsen, M. M. Turcotte, and J. M. Levine. 2018. What genomic data can reveal about

eco-evolutionary dynamics. Nature Ecology & Evolution 2:9–15. doi:10.1038/s41559-017-0385-2. (Cited on page 64.)

- Saastamoinen, M., G. Bocedi, J. Cote, D. Legrand, F. Guillaume, C. W. Wheat, E. A. Fronhofer, C. Garcia, R. Henry, A. Husby, M. Baguette, D. Bonte, A. Coulon, H. Kokko, E. Matthysen, K. Niitepõld, E. Nonaka, V. M. Stevens, J. M. J. Travis, K. Donohue, J. M. Bullock, and M. del Mar Delgado. 2018. Genetics of dispersal. Biological Reviews 93:574–599. doi:10.1111/brv.12356. (Cited on pages 7, 102, 147 and 198.)
- Sack, C., and D. L. Stern. 2007. Sex and death in the male pea aphid, Acyrthosiphon pisum: The life-history effects of a wing dimorphism. Journal of Insect Science 7:45. doi:10.1673/031.007.4501. (Cited on page 8.)
- Salmenkova, E. A. 2017. Mechanisms of homing in salmonids. Biology Bulletin Reviews 7:287–298. doi:10.1134/S2079086417040077. (Cited on pages 24, 78 and 84.)
- Salminen, M. 1997. Relationships between smolt size, postsmolt growth and sea age at maturity in Atlantic salmon ranched in the Baltic Sea. Journal of Applied Ichthyology 13:121–130. doi:10.1111/j.1439-0426.1997.tb00111.x. (Cited on page 236.)
- Sambatti, J. B. M., and K. J. Rice. 2006. Local adaptation, patterns of selection, and gene flow in the Californian serpentine sunflower (*Helianthus exilis*). Evolution; International Journal of Organic Evolution 60:696–710. (Cited on page 125.)
- Sandlund, O. T., H. H. Berntsen, P. Fiske, J. Kuusela, R. Muladal, E. Niemelä, I. Uglem, T. Forseth, T. A. Mo, E. B. Thorstad, A. E. Veselov, K. W. Vollset, and A. V. Zubchenko. 2019. Pink salmon in Norway: The reluctant invader. Biological Invasions 21:1033–1054. doi:10.1007/s10530-018-1904-z. (Cited on page 271.)
- Satterthwaite, W. H., and S. M. Carlson. 2015. Weakening portfolio effect strength in a hatchery-supplemented Chinook salmon population complex. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 72:1860–1875. doi:10.1139/cjfas-2015-0169. (Cited on page 17.)
- Savolainen, O., M. Lascoux, and J. Merilä. 2013. Ecological genomics of local adaptation. Nature Reviews Genetics 14:807–820. doi:10.1038/nrg3522. (Cited on page 271.)
- Schiffers, K., E. C. Bourne, S. Lavergne, W. Thuiller, and J. M. J. Travis. 2013. Limited evolutionary rescue of locally adapted populations facing climate change. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 368:20120083. doi:10.1098/rstb.2012.0083. (Cited on pages 17, 100, 123 and 126.)
- Schiffers, K. H., and J. M. Travis. 2014. ALADYN a spatially explicit, allelic model for simulating adaptive dynamics. Ecography 37:1288–1291. doi:10.1111/ecog.00680. (Cited on pages 69 and 82.)
- Schindler, D. E. 2019. The phenology of migration in an unpredictable world. Journal of Animal Ecology 88:8–10. doi:10.1111/1365-2656.12937. (Cited on page 245.)

- Schindler, D. E., J. B. Armstrong, and T. E. Reed. 2015. The portfolio concept in ecology and evolution. Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment 13:257–263. doi:10.1890/140275. (Cited on pages 16 and 78.)
- Schindler, D. E., R. Hilborn, B. Chasco, C. P. Boatright, T. P. Quinn, L. A. Rogers, and M. S. Webster. 2010. Population diversity and the portfolio effect in an exploited species. Nature 465:609–612. doi:10.1038/nature09060. (Cited on pages 16, 78, 94 and 179.)
- Schneider, C., J. Dover, and G. L. A. Fry. 2003. Movement of two grassland butterflies in the same habitat network: The role of adult resources and size of the study area. Ecological Entomology 28:219–227. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2311.2003.00494.x. (Cited on page 5.)
- Schoener, T. W. 2011. The newest synthesis: Understanding the interplay of evolutionary and ecological dynamics. Science 331:426–429. doi:10.1126/science.1193954. (Cited on page 45.)
- Schroeder, R. K., R. B. Lindsay, and K. R. Kenaston. 2001. Origin and straying of hatchery winter Steelhead in Oregon coastal rivers. Transactions of the American Fisheries Society 130:431–441. doi:10.1577/1548-8659(2001)130<0431:OASOHW>2.0.CO;2. (Cited on page 39.)
- Schtickzelle, N., G. Mennechez, and M. Baguette. 2006. Dispersal depression with habitat fragmentation in the Bog fritillary butterfly. Ecology 87:1057–1065. doi:10.1890/0012-9658(2006)87[1057:DDWHFI]2.0.CO;2. (Cited on page 3.)
- Schtickzelle, N., and T. P. Quinn. 2007. A metapopulation perspective for salmon and other anadromous fish. Fish and Fisheries 8:297–314. doi:10.1111/j.1467-2979.2007.00256.x. (Cited on pages 24, 32, 78 and 179.)
- Schultz, E. T., and D. O. Conover. 1997. Latitudinal differences in somatic energy storage: Adaptive responses to seasonality in an estuarine fish (Atherinidae: *Menidia menidia*). Oecologia 109:516–529. doi:10.1007/s004420050112. (Cited on page 245.)
- Seaborn, T., D. Griffith, A. Kliskey, and C. C. Caudill. 2021. Building a bridge between adaptive capacity and adaptive potential to understand responses to environmental change. Global Change Biology 27:2656–2668. doi:10.1111/gcb.15579. (Cited on page 101.)
- Settepani, V., J. Bechsgaard, and T. Bilde. 2014. Low genetic diversity and strong but shallow population differentiation suggests genetic homogenization by metapopulation dynamics in a social spider. Journal of Evolutionary Biology 27:2850–2855. doi:10.1111/jeb.12520. (Cited on page 17.)
- Shama, L. N., K. B. Kubow, J. Jokela, and C. T. Robinson. 2011. Bottlenecks drive temporal and spatial genetic changes in alpine caddisfly metapopulations. BMC Evolutionary Biology 11:278. doi:10.1186/1471-2148-11-278. (Cited on page 125.)
- Shestakova, T. A., E. Gutiérrez, A. V. Kirdyanov, J. J. Camarero, M. Génova, A. A. Knorre, J. C. Linares, V. Resco de Dios, R. Sánchez-Salguero, and J. Voltas. 2016. Forests synchronize their growth in contrasting Eurasian regions in response

to climate warming. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 113:662–667. doi:10.1073/pnas.1514717113. (Cited on page 269.)

- Simpson, A. L. 1992. Differences in body size and lipid reserves between maturing and nonmaturing Atlantic salmon parr, *Salmo salar L.* Canadian Journal of Zoology 70:1737– 1742. doi:10.1139/z92-241. (Cited on page 234.)
- Sinclair-Waters, M., J. Ødegård, S. A. Korsvoll, T. Moen, S. Lien, C. R. Primmer, and N. J. Barson. 2020. Beyond large-effect loci: Large-scale GWAS reveals a mixed large-effect and polygenic architecture for age at maturity of Atlantic salmon. Genetics Selection Evolution 52:9. doi:10.1186/s12711-020-0529-8. (Cited on pages 232 and 271.)
- Slatkin, M. 1978. Spatial patterns in the distributions of polygenic characters. Journal of Theoretical Biology 70:213–228. doi:10.1016/0022-5193(78)90348-X. (Cited on page 49.)
- Smallegange, I. M., and T. Coulson. 2013. Towards a general, population-level understanding of eco-evolutionary change. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 28:143–148. doi:10.1016/j.tree.2012.07.021. (Cited on page 49.)
- Solbreck, C. 1986. Wing and flight muscle polymorphism in a lygaeid bug, Horvathiolus gibbicollis: Determinants and life history consequences. Ecological Entomology 11:435– 444. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2311.1986.tb00322.x. (Cited on page 8.)
- Soularue, J.-P., and A. Kremer. 2014. Evolutionary responses of tree phenology to the combined effects of assortative mating, gene flow and divergent selection. Heredity 113:485– 494. doi:10.1038/hdy.2014.51. (Cited on pages 52, 60 and 61.)
- Stewart, D. C., S. J. Middlemas, and A. F. Youngson. 2006. Population structuring in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*): Evidence of genetic influence on the timing of smolt migration in sub-catchment stocks. Ecology of Freshwater Fish 15:552–558. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0633.2006.00197.x. (Cited on page 244.)
- Stewart, D. C., G. W. Smith, and A. F. Youngson. 2002. Tributary-specific variation in timing of return of adult Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) to fresh water has a genetic component. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 59:276–281. doi:10.1139/f02-011. (Cited on page 243.)
- Stier, A. C., A. Olaf Shelton, J. F. Samhouri, B. E. Feist, and P. S. Levin. 2020. Fishing, environment, and the erosion of a population portfolio. Ecosphere 11:e03283. doi:10.1002/ecs2.3283. (Cited on pages 178 and 194.)
- Stillman, R. A., S. F. Railsback, J. Giske, U. Berger, and V. Grimm. 2015. Making predictions in a changing world: The benefits of individual-based ecology. Bioscience 65:140–150. doi:10.1093/biosci/biu192. (Cited on pages 41, 42 and 79.)
- Stringwell, R., A. Lock, C. J. Stutchbury, E. Baggett, J. Taylor, P. J. Gough, and C. Garcia de Leaniz. 2014. Maladaptation and phenotypic mismatch in hatchery-reared Atlantic salmon *Salmo salar* released in the wild. Journal of Fish Biology 85:1927–1945. doi:10.1111/jfb.12543. (Cited on page 125.)

- Sullaway, G. H., A. O. Shelton, and J. F. Samhouri. 2021. Synchrony erodes spatial portfolios of an anadromous fish and alters availability for resource users. Journal of Animal Ecology 90:2692–2703. doi:10.1111/1365-2656.13575. (Cited on page 17.)
- Sutherland, C. S., D. A. Elston, and X. Lambin. 2014. A demographic, spatially explicit patch occupancy model of metapopulation dynamics and persistence. Ecology 95:3149– 3160. doi:10.1890/14-0384.1. (Cited on page 79.)
- Sykes, G. E., C. J. Johnson, and J. M. Shrimpton. 2009. Temperature and flow effects on migration timing of Chinook salmon smolts. Transactions of the American Fisheries Society 138:1252–1265. doi:10.1577/T08-180.1. (Cited on page 245.)
- Tallman, R. F., and M. C. Healey. 1994. Homing, straying, and gene flow among seasonally separated populations of Chum salmon (*Oncorhynchus keta*). Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 51:577–588. doi:10.1139/f94-060. (Cited on page 267.)
- terHorst, C. P., P. C. Zee, K. D. Heath, T. E. Miller, A. I. Pastore, S. Patel, S. J. Schreiber, M. J. Wade, and M. R. Walsh. 2018. Evolution in a community context: Trait responses to multiple species interactions. The American Naturalist 191:368–380. doi:10.1086/695835. (Cited on page 61.)
- Thériault, V., E. S. Dunlop, U. Dieckmann, L. Bernatchez, and J. J. Dodson. 2008. The impact of fishing-induced mortality on the evolution of alternative life-history tactics in brook charr. Evolutionary Applications 1:409–423. doi:10.1111/j.1752-4571.2008.00022.x. (Cited on pages 69, 79, 180 and 244.)
- Thibaut, L. M., and S. R. Connolly. 2013. Understanding diversity–stability relationships: Towards a unified model of portfolio effects. Ecology Letters 16:140–150. doi:10.1111/ele.12019. (Cited on page 16.)
- Thiele, J. C., W. Kurth, and V. Grimm. 2014. Facilitating parameter estimation and sensitivity analysis of agent-based models: A cookbook using NetLogo and R. Journal of Artificial Societies and Social Simulation 17:11. (Cited on page 64.)
- Thomaz, A. T., M. R. Christie, and L. L. Knowles. 2016. The architecture of river networks can drive the evolutionary dynamics of aquatic populations. Evolution 70:731– 739. doi:10.1111/evo.12883. (Cited on pages 126 and 270.)
- Thomaz, D., E. Beall, and T. Burke. 1997. Alternative reproductive tactics in atlantic salmon: Factors affecting mature parr success. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences 264:219–226. doi:10.1098/rspb.1997.0031. (Cited on page 222.)
- Thompson, T. Q., M. R. Bellinger, S. M. O'Rourke, D. J. Prince, A. E. Stevenson, A. T. Rodrigues, M. R. Sloat, C. F. Speller, D. Y. Yang, V. L. Butler, M. A. Banks, and M. R. Miller. 2019. Anthropogenic habitat alteration leads to rapid loss of adaptive variation and restoration potential in wild salmon populations. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 116:177–186. doi:10.1073/pnas.1811559115. (Cited on page 272.)

- Thorpe, J. E. 1977. Bimodal distribution of length of juvenile Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar L.*) under artificial rearing conditions. Journal of Fish Biology 11:175–184. doi:10.1111/j.1095-8649.1977.tb04111.x. (Cited on page 238.)
- Thorpe, J. E., M. Mangel, N. B. Metcalfe, and F. A. Huntingford. 1998. Modelling the proximate basis of salmonid life-history variation, with application to Atlantic salmon, *Salmo salar L.* Evolutionary Ecology 12:581–599. doi:10.1023/A:1022351814644. (Cited on pages 238, 239 and 252.)
- Tilman, D., and P. Kareiva. 1997. Spatial Ecology: The Role of Space in Population Dynamics and Interspecific Interactions. Princeton University Press. (Cited on page 9.)
- Tinnert, J., and A. Forsman. 2017. The role of dispersal for genetic and phenotypic variation: Insights from comparisons of sympatric pygmy grasshoppers. Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 122:84–97. doi:10.1093/biolinnean/blx055. (Cited on pages 17 and 100.)
- Tomasini, M., and S. Peischl. 2020. When does gene flow facilitate evolutionary rescue? Evolution 74:1640–1653. doi:10.1111/evo.14038. (Cited on pages 103 and 125.)
- Travis, J. M. J., M. Delgado, G. Bocedi, M. Baguette, K. Bartoń, D. Bonte, I. Boulangeat, J. A. Hodgson, A. Kubisch, V. Penteriani, M. Saastamoinen, V. M. Stevens, and J. M. Bullock. 2013. Dispersal and species' responses to climate change. Oikos 122:1532–1540. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0706.2013.00399.x. (Cited on page 269.)
- Travis, J. M. J., and C. Dytham. 1998. The evolution of dispersal in a metapopulation: A spatially explicit, individual-based model. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences 265:17–23. doi:10.1098/rspb.1998.0258. (Cited on pages 8, 127 and 146.)
- Travis, J. M. J., D. J. Murrell, and C. Dytham. 1999. The evolution of density-dependent dispersal. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences 266:1837–1842. doi:10.1098/rspb.1999.0854. (Cited on page 14.)
- Travis, J. M. J., K. Mustin, K. A. Bartoń, T. G. Benton, J. Clobert, M. M. Delgado, C. Dytham, T. Hovestadt, S. C. F. Palmer, H. V. Dyck, and D. Bonte. 2012. Modelling dispersal: An eco-evolutionary framework incorporating emigration, movement, settlement behaviour and the multiple costs involved. Methods in Ecology and Evolution 3:628–641. doi:10.1111/j.2041-210X.2012.00193.x. (Cited on pages 55 and 103.)
- Travis, J. M. J., H. S. Smith, and S. M. W. Ranwala. 2010. Towards a mechanistic understanding of dispersal evolution in plants: Conservation implications. Diversity and Distributions 16:690–702. doi:10.1111/j.1472-4642.2010.00674.x. (Cited on page 61.)
- Tréhin, C., E. Rivot, L. Lamireau, L. Meslier, A.-L. Besnard, S. D. Gregory, and M. Nevoux. 2021. Growth during the first summer at sea modulates sex-specific maturation schedule in Atlantic salmon. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 78:659–669. doi:10.1139/cjfas-2020-0236. (Cited on pages 238, 239 and 253.)

- Tufto, J., and K. Hindar. 2003. Effective size in management and conservation of subdivided populations. Journal of Theoretical Biology 222:273–281. doi:10.1016/s0022-5193(03)00018-3. (Cited on pages 104, 178 and 196.)
- Uecker, H., S. P. Otto, and J. Hermisson. 2014. Evolutionary rescue in structured populations. The American Naturalist 183:E17–E35. doi:10.1086/673914. (Cited on pages 18 and 125.)
- Urban, M. C., G. Bocedi, A. P. Hendry, J.-B. Mihoub, G. Pe'er, A. Singer, J. R. Bridle, L. G. Crozier, L. D. Meester, W. Godsoe, A. Gonzalez, J. J. Hellmann, R. D. Holt, A. Huth, K. Johst, C. B. Krug, P. W. Leadley, S. C. F. Palmer, J. H. Pantel, A. Schmitz, P. A. Zollner, and J. M. J. Travis. 2016. Improving the forecast for biodiversity under climate change. Science 353. doi:10.1126/science.aad8466. (Cited on pages 41 and 77.)
- Valiente, A. G., E. Beall, and E. Garcia-Vazquez. 2010. Population genetics of south European Atlantic salmon under global change. Global Change Biology 16:36–47. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2486.2009.01922.x. (Cited on pages 32 and 269.)
- Van Der Post, D. J., R. Verbrugge, and C. K. Hemelrijk. 2015. The evolution of different forms of sociality: BehavMoral mechanisms and eco-evolutionary feedback. PLOS ONE 10:e0117027. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0117027. (Cited on pages 52 and 59.)
- Vargas, A., S. Restrepo, and D. Diaz. 2022. The portfolio effect in a small-scale fishery reduces catch and fishing income variability in a highly dynamic ecosystem. PLOS ONE 17:e0271172. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0271172. (Cited on page 16.)
- Vidal, J.-P., E. Martin, L. Franchistéguy, M. Baillon, and J.-M. Soubeyroux. 2010. A 50-year high-resolution atmospheric reanalysis over France with the Safran system. International Journal of Climatology 30:1627–1644. doi:10.1002/joc.2003. (Cited on page 111.)
- Vincenzi, S., A. J. Crivelli, J. Giske, W. H. Satterthwaite, and M. Mangel. 2012. Selective consequences of catastrophes for growth rates in a stream-dwelling salmonid. Oecologia 168:393–404. doi:10.1007/s00442-011-2096-8. (Cited on page 69.)
- Vincenzi, S., A. J. Crivelli, W. H. Satterthwaite, and M. Mangel. 2014. Eco-evolutionary dynamics induced by massive mortality events. Journal of Fish Biology 85:8–30. doi:10.1111/jfb.12382. (Cited on page 125.)
- Vincenzi, S., M. Mangel, D. Jesensek, J. C. Garza, and A. J. Crivelli. 2017. Genetic and life-history consequences of extreme climate events. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 284:20162118. doi:10.1098/rspb.2016.2118. (Cited on page 125.)
- Vuilleumier, S., C. Wilcox, B. J. Cairns, and H. P. Possingham. 2007. How patch configuration affects the impact of disturbances on metapopulation persistence. Theoretical Population Biology 72:77–85. doi:10.1016/j.tpb.2006.11.001. (Cited on page 126.)
- Wade, M. J., P. Bijma, E. D. Ellen, and W. Muir. 2010. Group selection and social evolution in domesticated animals. Evolutionary Applications 3:453–465. doi:10.1111/j.1752-4571.2010.00147.x. (Cited on page 45.)

- Walker, N. D., R. Boyd, J. Watson, M. Kotz, Z. Radford, L. Readdy, R. Sibly, S. Roy, and K. Hyder. 2020. A spatially explicit individual-based model to support management of commercial and recreational fisheries for European sea bass *Dicentrarchus labrax*. Ecological Modelling 431:109179. doi:10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2020.109179. (Cited on page 180.)
- Walsworth, T. E., D. E. Schindler, M. A. Colton, M. S. Webster, S. R. Palumbi, P. J. Mumby, T. E. Essington, and M. L. Pinsky. 2019. Management for network diversity speeds evolutionary adaptation to climate change. Nature Climate Change 9:632–636. doi:10.1038/s41558-019-0518-5. (Cited on pages 22, 103, 104, 147, 178, 263 and 269.)
- Wang, H.-Y., Y.-S. Chen, C.-C. Hsu, and S.-F. Shen. 2017. Fishing-induced changes in adult length are mediated by skipped-spawning. Ecological Applications: A Publication of the Ecological Society of America 27:274–284. doi:10.1002/eap.1441. (Cited on page 63.)
- Wang, H.-Y., and T. O. Höök. 2009. Eco-genetic model to explore fishing-induced ecological and evolutionary effects on growth and maturation schedules. Evolutionary Applications 2:438–455. doi:10.1111/j.1752-4571.2009.00088.x. (Cited on pages 63, 69 and 195.)
- Wang, J., and A. Caballero. 1999. Developments in predicting the effective size of subdivided populations. Heredity 82:212–226. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2540.1999.00467.x. (Cited on page 13.)
- Wang, S., B. Haegeman, and M. Loreau. 2015. Dispersal and metapopulation stability. PeerJ 3:e1295. doi:10.7717/peerj.1295. (Cited on page 259.)
- Waples, R. S., M. J. Ford, K. Nichols, M. Kardos, J. Myers, T. Q. Thompson, E. C. Anderson, I. J. Koch, G. McKinney, M. R. Miller, K. Naish, S. R. Narum, K. G. O'Malley, D. E. Pearse, G. R. Pess, T. P. Quinn, T. R. Seamons, A. Spidle, K. I. Warheit, and S. C. Willis. 2022. Implications of large-effect loci for conservation: A review and case study with Pacific salmon. Journal of Heredity 113:121–144. doi:10.1093/jhered/esab069. (Cited on pages 212 and 272.)
- Ward, B. A., and S. Collins. 2022. Rapid evolution allows coexistence of highly divergent lineages within the same niche. Ecology Letters 25:1839–1853. doi:10.1111/ele.14061. (Cited on page 62.)
- Warkentin, L., C. K. Parken, R. Bailey, and J. W. Moore. 2022. Low summer river flows associated with low productivity of Chinook salmon in a watershed with shifting hydrology. Ecological Solutions and Evidence 3:e12124. doi:10.1002/2688-8319.12124. (Cited on page 269.)
- Wauters, L. A., and L. Lens. 1995. Effects of food availability and density on red Squirrel (*Sciurus Vulgaris*) reproduction. Ecology 76:2460–2469. doi:10.2307/2265820. (Cited on page 12.)
- Webber, Q. M. R., and E. Vander Wal. 2018. An evolutionary framework outlining the integration of individual social and spatial ecology. The Journal of Animal Ecology 87:113– 127. doi:10.1111/1365-2656.12773. (Cited on page 45.)

- Weber, M. G., C. E. Wagner, R. J. Best, L. J. Harmon, and B. Matthews. 2017. Evolution in a community context: On integrating ecological interactions and macroevolution. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 32:291–304. doi:10.1016/j.tree.2017.01.003. (Cited on pages 48, 61 and 62.)
- Webster, M. S., M. A. Colton, E. S. Darling, J. Armstrong, M. L. Pinsky, N. Knowlton, and D. E. Schindler. 2017. Who should pick the winners of climate change? Trends in Ecology & Evolution 32:167–173. doi:10.1016/j.tree.2016.12.007. (Cited on pages 18, 21, 78, 103, 104, 144, 147, 148 and 260.)
- Westley, P. A. H., A. H. Dittman, E. J. Ward, and T. P. Quinn. 2015. Signals of climate, conspecific density, and watershed features in patterns of homing and dispersal by Pacific salmon. Ecology 96:2823–2833. doi:10.1890/14-1630.1. (Cited on pages 87 and 267.)
- Whiteley, A. R., S. W. Fitzpatrick, W. C. Funk, and D. A. Tallmon. 2015. Genetic rescue to the rescue. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 30:42–49. doi:10.1016/j.tree.2014.10.009. (Cited on page 17.)
- Whitlock, M. C. 2004. Selection and drift in metapopulations. Pages 153–173 in I. Hanski and O. E. Gaggiotti, eds. Ecology, Genetics and Evolution of Metapopulations. Academic Press, Burlington. (Cited on page 13.)
- Whitlock, M. C., and D. E. Mccauley. 1999. Indirect measures of gene flow and migration: $FST \neq 1/(4Nm+1)$. Heredity 82:117–125. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2540.1999.00496.x. (Cited on page 39.)
- Woods, T., A. Kaz, and X. Giam. 2022. Phenology in freshwaters: A review and recommendations for future research. Ecography 2022:e05564. doi:10.1111/ecog.05564. (Cited on page 211.)
- Wright, S. 1931. Evolution in Mendelian populations. Genetics 16:97–159. (Cited on page 39.)
- Yang, Q., P. Hong, M. Luo, L. Jiang, and S. Wang. 2022. Dispersal increases spatial synchrony of populations but has weak effects on population variability: A Meta-analysis. The American Naturalist 200:544–555. doi:10.1086/720715. (Cited on page 17.)
- Yeakel, J. D., J. P. Gibert, T. Gross, P. A. H. Westley, and J. W. Moore. 2018. Ecoevolutionary dynamics, density-dependent dispersal and collective behaviour: Implications for salmon metapopulation robustness. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B-Biological Sciences 373:20170018. doi:10.1098/rstb.2017.0018. (Cited on pages 78, 79, 80, 81, 100, 259 and 268.)
- Yeakel, J. D., J. W. Moore, P. R. Guimarães Jr., and M. a. M. de Aguiar. 2014. Synchronisation and stability in river metapopulation networks. Ecology Letters 17:273– 283. doi:10.1111/ele.12228. (Cited on pages 126 and 270.)
- Ying, Y., Y. Chen, L. Lin, and T. Gao. 2011. Risks of ignoring fish population spatial structure in fisheries management. Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 68:2101–2120. doi:10.1139/f2011-116. (Cited on pages 178 and 262.)

- Young, A. J., and S. L. Monfort. 2009. Stress and the costs of extra-territorial movement in a social carnivore. Biology Letters 5:439–441. doi:10.1098/rsbl.2009.0032. (Cited on page 8.)
- Zera, A. J., and J. A. Brisson. 2012. Quantitative, physiological, and molecular genetics of dispersal/migration. Pages 63–82 in Dispersal Ecology and Evolution, oxford university press ed. (Cited on page 7.)
- Zera, A. J., and R. F. Denno. 1997. Physiology and ecology of dispersal polymorphism in insects. Annual Review of Entomology 42:207–230. doi:10.1146/annurev.ento.42.1.207. (Cited on page 4.)
- Zurell, D., C. König, A.-K. Malchow, S. Kapitza, G. Bocedi, J. Travis, and G. Fandos. 2022. Spatially explicit models for decision-making in animal conservation and restoration. Ecography 2022. doi:10.1111/ecog.05787. (Cited on page 180.)

Appendices

Appendix A

Sea trout straying rate decreases as distance from river mouth increases

DOI: 10.1111/jfb.15152

REGULAR PAPER

JOURNAL OF **FISH** BIOLOGY

Sea trout (*Salmo trutta*) straying rate decreases as distance from river mouth increases

Joelle Chat¹ | Amaia Lamarins¹ | Olivier Lepais²

Accepted: 27 June 2022

¹INRAE, Université de Pau et des Pays de l'Adour, E2S UPPA, ECOBIOP, Aquapôle INRAE, MIRA, Saint-Pée-sur-Nivelle, France ²INRAE, Univ. Bordeaux, BIOGECO, Bordeaux, France

Correspondence

Joelle Chat, INRAE, Université de Pau et des Pays de l'Adour, E2S UPPA, ECOBIOP, Aquapôle INRAE, MIRA, F64310 Saint-Péesur-Nivelle, France. Email: joelle.chat@inrae.fr

Funding information

This project received fundings from Office Français de la Biodiversité (OFB, formerly ONEMA) and Conseil Départemental des Pyrénées Atlantiques.

Abstract

For both conservation and management purposes, it is important to identify the natal origin of migratory individuals entering a river, particularly in genetically spatially structured species like brown trout (Salmo trutta) where the migrant ecotype (called sea trout) can originate from different populations. Nonetheless, little attention has been paid to the spatial distribution of non-local fish at the level of an entire river catchment. The objective of the study was to quantify the proportion of non-local sea trout entering a river catchment (i.e., straying rate) and estimate the spatial extent of their upstream migration. Here, the authors considered dispersal in three distinct rivers, taking advantage of 10 sampling sites. Sea trout, either trapped or rod-caught, were genotyped and genetically assigned to their source populations using appropriate baselines. Based on 1437 sea trout fish classified as local or non-local, the authors empirically demonstrate that straying rate declines in each river as distance from the coast increases in a non-linear fashion. Straying rate exceeds 50% near the mouth, and then decreases gradually to reach <10% 40-50 km inland. A similar spatial pattern is found in the three rivers investigated suggesting an underlying common behaviour of nonlocal sea trout. The data and results presented here suggest that straying in is far more constrained spatially than first expected. The majority of non-local sea trout were found within the first 25 km of the estuary in the three rivers investigated.

KEYWORDS

anadromy, brown trout, dispersal, genetic assignment, microsatellite, migratory fish, straying, trapping

1 | INTRODUCTION

It is well known, as early as the 17th century (Nall, 1930), that the great majority of salmonid species that survive at sea return to fresh water as adults to spawn at their natal site (philopatry or homing). It was predicted that, at the end of their marine homeward migration (a) returning fish migrate along the coast in an attempt to locate their natal river; (b) cross plumes of water with distinct olfactory cues; (c) undertake upstream migration as soon as they detect imprinted familiar odours (*e.g.*, Johnsen and Hasler, 1980); (d) possibly decide to move downstream if they have investigated the wrong river or the wrong tributary (Keefer *et al.*, 2008); and (e) finally, swim upstream

and reach their natal site (homing) to spawn. Nonetheless, in the past decades, a growing number of studies demonstrated that a variable proportion of salmonids disperse (or stray) to new spawning sites upon returning from their marine migration (*e.g.*, Ford *et al.*, 2015; Keefer & Caudill, 2014; Santaquiteria *et al.*, 2016; Tallman & Healey, 1994). Straying, a term commonly used in the salmonid literature to refer to dispersal, is typically defined as adult migration and reproduction – completed or even attempted – at non-natal sites (*e.g.*, Keefer & Caudill, 2014). Homing (*i.e.*, philopatry) and its counterpart straying are both ecologically and evolutionarily important. Homing maximizes the reproductive success of individuals in the case of a stable and favourable environment, whereas straying allows the

long-term persistence of populations and species faced with dramatically changing environments. There is considerable variation in straying among species and rivers, although the reasons are far from being fully elucidated (Quinn, 2018). As this author rightly pointed out (p. 118), "Straying is common enough to be important but rare enough that it is difficult to study."

Dispersal issues can be addressed from two distinct perspectives depending on whether one is considering the donor population (i.e., emigration) or the recipient population (i.e., immigration). The so-called straying out refers to sea trout originating from one given river (donor population) being found in non-natal rivers (Quinn, 2018). In contrast, "straying in" focuses on non-local sea trout found in one given river (recipient population). In Salmo trutta, both "straying out" (e.g., Fournel et al., 1990; Jonsson et al., 2018; Pratten & Shearer, 1983; Skrochowska, 1969) and "straying in" (King et al., 2016; Masson et al., 2018) have been documented. Here, the authors take advantage of the natural dispersal events previously observed in two distinct areas of the natural distribution range of sea trout (the Bay of Biscay and the English Channel) to further study "straying in" behaviour by focusing on within-catchment variation, a spatial scale still explored very little. They then tried to distinguish between two competing, but nonexclusive, hypotheses regarding the straying data collected.

Throughout this article, the authors have used the terms "straying rate" to refer to the proportion of fish in a sea trout run entering a non-natal river and "stray" as a synonym of non-local fish, whether it is an effective disperser or not.

The authors first hypothesized that the proportion of individuals that stray into a river is characteristic of that river, at least on ecological time scales. Here, the river must be taken in the broad sense of the term, that includes both environmental (e.g., river location, river size, river mouth, river network) and biological (e.g., brown trout population size, population propensity for anadromy) factors. As pointed out by Keefer and Caudill in their review (2014), straying is not spatially random. First, sea trout itself seems unevenly distributed along the Atlantic coast, with some rivers famous for their sea trout populations and well known by the fishermen, whereas others are not. Second, even if some individuals undertake a long and distant marine migration, most of them stay at sea in the vicinity of their natal river mouth (Berg & Berg, 1987; Skrochowska, 1969), so that straying is more likely to occur between neighbouring rivers (Pratten & Shearer, 1983). Third, marine environment plays an important role in sea trout dispersal, either promoting dispersal or acting as a physical barrier to connectivity (Quéméré et al., 2016). It thus makes sense to consider the river as a key factor. In this first candidate model for predicting straying, the proportion of strays was assumed constant or nearly constant at any place within the dendritic river system. An alternative and slightly complex model, which better acknowledged increased information on sea trout movement and behaviour, was also hypothesized. Salmonids are known to use chemical cues to identify their home rivers (e.g., Hasler et al., 1978). To do so, fish need to enter freshwater upstream enough to detect freshwater local cues (either in the estuary, in the main stem or further upstream in a tributary) before deciding to stay or leave the river system. Non-local fish are

thus likely to be more frequent in the downstream part of the river than upstream. The authors then hypothesized that straying rate declines inland as the distance from the coastline increases.

The objective of the study was to identify key features possibly associated with "straying in" and to classify their respective contributions. This study focused on two parameters, the river and the distance to the mouth following the course of the river. Although the river is often invoked as a key factor in the metapopulational theory applied to salmonids (*e.g.*, Schtickzelle & Quinn, 2007), the distance from the coast has, to the author's knowledge, never been examined statistically as a quantitative explanatory variable of "straying in."

2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 | Samples

Two data sets from the literature were used. They fulfilled the requirements to assess the spatial pattern of sea trout straying at a catchment scale, i.e., a monitoring of sea trout populations at multiple collection sites along the rivers (allowing an assessment of the effect of distance from the river mouth) and the genetic assignment of their individuals to their putative source population. The first data set was from southwest France, an area located south of the brown trout distribution range, and previously described in Masson et al. (2018). In this study, 615 sea trout were sampled throughout at least one annual upstream migration period between 2002 and 2013 at seven fish traps (Uxondoa, Olha, Chopolo, Halsou, Sorde-l'Abbaye, Puyoo, Baigts) on the Adour and Nivelle, two rivers draining into the south-eastern corner of the Bay of Biscay (Figure 1a). These samples were collected following the national regulations of the country. The second data set was compiled in more northerly waters by King et al. (2016). The authors retrieved data concerning 921 sea trout collected between 2010 and 2014 in the Tamar and Tavy, two rivers of south-west England sharing the same estuary and flowing into the English Channel (Figure 1b). This increased the total number of sites studied to three, one being obtained at a fish trap and the two others being rod-caught fish samples provided by anglers. Two rod-caught sea trout samples, from Lynher and Lower Tamar, were ignored because of insufficient spatial information. In the end, this amounted to three rivers and 10 sampling sites.

The aim was to study sea trout dispersal in well-established populations living in a somewhat favourable environment. The three rivers investigated, *i.e.*, Adour, Nivelle (Bay of Biscay, France) and Tamar (English Channel, UK), have been subject to monitoring programmes for a long time (Nivelle and Tamar being two "Index Rivers" in their respective countries) and fulfil the requirements.

2.2 | Spatial consideration

For the modelling analysis, the authors considered that rivers sharing the same estuary belonged to the same river system (the river system Adour encompassing River Adour and River Nive, and the river system Tamar encompassing River Tamar and River Tavy). It makes sense

DURNAL OF **FISH**BIOLOGY



FIGURE 1 Geographical locations of the three rivers considered in this study. (a) River Nivelle and River Adour in France flowing westwards into the Bay of Biscay (data from Masson *et al.*, 2018). (b) River Tamar in the UK flowing southwards into the English Channel (data from King *et al.*, 2016). Numbers (1–10) indicate the 10 sampling sites considered in the present study. Black rectangles (1–8) illustrate the position of the eight trapping devices (1: Olha, 2: Uxondoa, 3: Sorde-l'Abbaye, 4: Puyoo, 5: Baigts-de-Bearn, 6: Halsou, 7: Chopolo, 8: Gunnislake Dam). River segments highlighted in grey are the places where rod-caught sea trout were sampled (9: Lyd tributary of the River Tamar and 10: River Tavy between Lopwell Dam and the confluence of the main river and the Walkham tributary). A black point on the map illustrates the downstream end of these two recreational rod fisheries. A cross indicates the mouth of the river/estuary used to calculate distances (km). Spatial coordinates (grid lines) are expressed in decimal degrees using EPSG:4326. Source of GIS data: CCM River and Catchment Database, © European Commission - JRC, 2007 (Vogt *et al.*, 2007)

from a biological viewpoint because the common estuary is a mandatory passage way for sea trout wanting to reach the upper part of the rivers sharing the estuary. It also makes sense from a historical viewpoint because what are considered today as distinct rivers were, a couple of 1000 years ago, distinct sub-catchments of a larger river due to deglaciation and increasing sea level.

For sea trout caught in a trap, the authors estimated the distance in kilometres from the trap downstream to the mouth of the river/estuary, *i.e.*, Adour (43° 31′ 45.95″ N, 1° 31′ 23.15″ W), Nivelle (43° 23′ 17.66″ N, 1° 40′ 11.31″ W) and Tamar (50° 21′ 23.86″ N, 4° 10′ 1.47″ W), following the course of the river. Similarly, for sea trout caught in the recreational rod fisheries on a particular stretch of a river (King *et al.*, 2016), they measured the distance from the downstream end of the stretch to the mouth of the estuary. For the River Tamar, the stretch was delimited downstream by the confluence of the main river and its tributary, the Lyd. For the River Tavy, rod-caught fish were all caught upstream of the tidal limit (Lopwell Dam), the upper limit being the confluence of the main river and the River Walkham.

2.3 | Sea trout individual assignment

Both data sets were initially used to study homing/straying behaviour of sea trout (King *et al.*, 2016; Masson *et al.*, 2018), and the authors used genetic tools together with a baseline to estimate the stock

composition of sea trout runs. For the French rivers, they proceeded to an individual assignment. Sea trout individuals entering fresh water, whatever the duration of their marine sojourn, and provided that they were successfully genotyped for at least 9 of the 10 microsatellite loci considered, were probabilistically assigned to a putative source population (see Supporting Information no. 1 pdf and Figures S1-S5). The migration behaviour of each sea trout individual (homing vs. straying) was then deduced. If the inferred population was the one in which the sea trout had been trapped, they deduced that it was a local trout (homing behaviour). Otherwise, they deduced that it was a stray (straying behaviour). The straying rate at each trapping site was calculated accordingly. For the English river, the genetic assignment was described in King et al. (2016). In both cases, the assignment of resident fish (distinct from the baseline and considered of known origin) to the correct river/group of origin was >87%, showing that the baseline samples were representative of the subpopulations considered (Supporting Information no. 2). Correct assignment was also high for the simulated data sets (150-200 simulated genotypes from each river), ranging from 95% to 99%.

2.4 | Straying rate calculation

For the French rivers, the authors decided to include in their calculation of straying rate only those individuals whose assignment

journal of **FISH**BIOLOGY

probability exceeded 80% in order not to inflate the number of (wrong) strays. For those individuals, the designated population was thus at least four times more likely than any other source population of the baseline. In this way, they reduced the risk of including individuals of hybrid, complex or uncertain origin in their calculation of straying rate and conversely increased the chance of including individuals of "pure" origin, either local (=non-migrants) or non-local (=first-generation migrants).

For the English rivers (King *et al.*, 2016), homing rates were retrieved from Appendix 2b (considering N = 765 sea trout trapped at Gunnislake) and 2d (considering sea trout caught in the recreational rod fisheries on the Rivers Lyd and Tavy, respectively N = 82 and N = 74) considering assignment to river of origin. The straying rates used in the present study were then calculated by subtracting the homing rates from 100%.

2.5 | Logistic regression

The authors examined the effects of the two aforementioned key features, the river (categorical variable) and the distance to the mouth of the river (continuous variable), on straying using logistic regression ("glm" function in R with a binomial error distribution and a logit link function, detailed in Supporting Information no. 3). Their response variable was binary (they classified sea trout individuals as local or disperser). They began by fitting a saturated model (seven parameters), considering the river of destination and the distance from the sea as the main factors with their interaction as well as the square of the aforementioned distance. They further adopted a stepwise model simplification using Chi deletion tests to obtain the minimal adequate model. During model simplification, a variable was retained in the model only if it caused a significant increase in deviance when it was removed. The authors also compared the saturated model and the nested models using AIC (Sakamoto *et al.*, 1986). In the end, they assessed goodness-of-fit and verified assumptions of the minimal adequate model using a half-normal plot of residuals and made interpolations using the "polyroot" function in R.

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | Sea trout individual assignment (River Adour and River Nivelle)

Among the 644 sea trout, 25 fish were not assigned due to genotyping failure or incomplete genotype (<9 microsatellite loci). A group of 546 fish exhibited an assignment probability above 80%. Among those that were considered as confidently assigned (above the probability threshold of 80%), 3 fish were assigned to Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L. 1758), 23 to hatcheries and 73 to rivers outside the focal area (4 from Dordogne-Garonne, a river system located further north, and 69 from Spanish coastal streams further south). The present study focusing on the migration behaviour of wild sea trout, Atlantic salmon and domestic fish were no longer considered in the subsequent analyses. In addition, four fish assigned to Dordogne-Garonne and caught in Gave de Pau were discarded because their classification as stray was dubious (details in Supporting Information no. 4).

3.2 | Straying rate calculation

In the end, the total number of sea trout that could be confidently relied on to do statistics and modelling reached 1437 with 516 from France and 921 from the UK. The number of sea trout varied substantially depending on both the river (94, 422 and 921, respectively for Nivelle, Adour and Tamar) and the sampling site (ranging from 9 to

TABLE 1 Details of sea trout (*Salmo trutta*) runs studied and number/proportion of fish exhibiting homing/straying behaviour (deduced from their genetic assignment)

Sampling site	Site no.ª	River	Subcatchment	Distance (km)	n ₁ homing	n ₂ straying	Total (n ₁ + n ₂)	Straying proportion $(n_2/n_1 + n_2)$
Uxondoa (ROE71472 ^b)	2	Nivelle	Nivelle	12	27	56	83	0.67
Olha (ROE71479 ^b)	1	Nivelle	Nivelle	18	8	3	11	0.27
Chopolo (ROE99511 ^b)	7	Adour	Nive	22	8	24	32	0.75
Halsou (ROE99512 ^b)	6	Adour	Nive	25	4	5	9	0.56
Sorde-l'Abbaye (ROE90134 ^b)	3	Adour	Gave d'Oloron	44	252	15	267	0.06
Puyoo (ROE99309 ^b)	4	Adour	Gave de Pau	58	34	2	36	0.06
Baigts-de-Bearn (ROE44851 ^b)	5	Adour	Gave de Pau	67	73	5	78	0.06
Lower Tavy	10	Tamar	Tavy	15	20	54	74	0.73
Gunnislake Dam	8	Tamar	Tamar	31	650	115	765	0.15
Upper Tamar	9	Tamar	Lyd	57	78	4	82	0.05

^aThe site No. used in Figure 1.

^bThe ROE code in brackets refers to the French National Data Reference Centre for Water (https://www.sandre.eaufrance.fr/).

267 for French rivers and from 74 to 765 for Tamar). The traps were spread inland at a distance ranging from 12 to 67 km from the sea. The highest straying rates, 75% and 73%, respectively, were observed within 25 km from the coast, whereas the two lowest rates, 6% and 5%, were observed more than 44 km inland (Table 1).

3.3 | Logistic regression

Whatever the procedure used (model simplification by stepwise deletion at 5% level or delta AIC <2), the minimal adequate model only included additive effects. The interaction between the river and the distance from the sea was not significant, meaning the slope of the relationship between straying frequency and distance from the seafront did not depend on the river considered. The minimal model contained just five parameters, which were all significantly different from zero. Unlike the slope, the intercept differed among rivers. As illustrated in Figure 2, straying rate and distance from the sea front



FIGURE 2 Best candidate generalized linear model, which included significant differences by river and as a function of distance, but with no significant interaction between river and distance. Three rivers from two geographically distant areas of the sea trout natural range have been considered, namely Adour and Nivelle flowing into the Bay of Biscay and Tamar flowing into the English Channel. (a) Value and 95% C.I. for the five parameters of the best candidate model. (b) The straying rate (y) on the vertical axis along the river course, with distance from the river mouth (x) indicated on the horizontal axis. Dotted lines are fitted model results from the best candidate linear model with colour-shaded regions representing the 95% C.I. The curves were fitted by $y = \exp(a_i + bx + cx^2)$ (1 + exp $(a_i + bx + cx^2))^{-1}$ with $a_{Adour} = 6.1088$, $a_{Tamar} = 5.4348$, $a_{Nivelle} = 4.1163$, b = -0.3186 and c = 0.0028. Adour, Nivelle and Tamar

negatively correlated, as evidenced by the non-zero (negative) coefficient associated with distance. The minimal adequate model explained slightly more than 44% of the deviance in straying rate, the proportion of non-local fish in a sea trout run caught at any point along a river depended on the distance separating this point to the seafront (nearly 40% of the deviance explained) rather than on the river itself (nearly 5% of the deviance explained). Plotting the fitted curves with their 95% C.I. through the scatterplot illustrated the fit of the minimal adequate model (Figure 2). The pattern was roughly common in all three rivers with curves being asymptotic to nearly zero as the distance from the sea exceeded 50 km and shifted to the right for Tamar and Adour compared to Nivelle. The predicted distances at which 50% of the sea trout run were of non-natal origin ranged from 15 (Nivelle) to 24 km (Adour) (Supporting Information no. 4). Nevertheless, it was impossible to model the curve properly close to the coast (<10 km) due to the absence of trapping devices so downstream and, consequently, the lack of empirical data. At the opposite end of the spectrum, the authors' best model became inappropriate because straying rate is not supposed to increase as it did due to the quadratic term.

4 | DISCUSSION

There are few places, if any, where one can observe migratory fish in their wild aquatic environment (Fausch et al., 2002; Ryman et al., 1995). That is the reason why, in the present days, monitoring activities on salmonid rivers, such as trapping, counters or video recording, are mainly based on purpose-built facilities. Such monitoring devices provide an invaluable tool for evaluating the numbers of fish recorded migrating either upstream or downstream. But installing such a device along the course of one river is largely the result of a compromise between the needs (population monitoring, research topics), the possibilities in terms of sites to be equipped (e.g., mill, weir, dam, waterfall), and financial consideration. Subsequently, only a few monitoring devices, sometimes just a single or even none at all, exist along a migratory fish river leading at best to spotty records and reports. Quantifying fish abundance and tracking fish movements at the river basin scale are then challenging. This may explain why modelling straying at spatial river scale had rarely, if ever, been attempted before.

Here, to mitigate the paucity and the uneven coverage of the available data at one river scale, the authors aggregated data from 10 sea trout samples caught in three distinct river systems (Nivelle, Adour and Tamar) draining in two distinct basins of the Atlantic Ocean (the Bay of Biscay and the English Channel). By chance, the trapping devices in these three monitored rivers are located at various distances from the river mouth (from 12 to 67 km), leading to a great variation in straying rate from one device to another (ranging from 0.05 to 0.75), and enabling the authors to properly model spatial pattern of straying behaviour at a finer scale than usual. It should be noted that a genetic miss-assignment alone cannot account for the variation in straying rates observed between sites as the fraction of fish incorrectly assigned is moderate in the three target rivers and did

CHAT ET AL.

not exceed 9% and 5% depending on the tests performed by the authors, respectively, on empirical and simulated data sets. They then empirically demonstrated that straying rate and distance from the sea front negatively correlated, although in a non-linear manner. As they intuitively expected, the proportion of non-local sea trout entering a river depended on the river considered. More surprisingly, the decrease in straying rate along the river course did not depend on which river catchment was considered. Total sea trout abundance gradually decreases along a river course as distance from the sea increases due to the dendritic spatial structure of a river network. The cost of inland migration due to fishing mortality, migratory obstacles and altitude (Bohlin et al. 2001), to name but a few, also contributes to that decrease. But here, the authors showed that non-local sea trout abundance decreased at a more dramatic rate than total sea trout abundance in the three rivers investigated, suggesting a common behaviour underlying sea trout straying in fresh water. For the three rivers investigated, the fitted distances at which local and nonlocal fish proportions equalled did not exceed 25 km inland. Beyond 40 km, they empirically observed that straying rate decreased dramatically below 10% in all three rivers.

The overall sea trout sample used for the present study was large (approximately 1400), collected in two geographically distant populations of both the northern and the southern parts of the range (c. 800 km from one another), and genetically assigned by two distinct teams of researchers. This provides considerable support to the authors' statistical model. Based on sea trout runs from wellestablished populations, the model is, however, not expected to fit in other situations such as a post-glacial recolonization of virgin rivers with runs entirely composed of strays, to name but one. Nor is it supposed to accurately reflect the reality of the straying process near the river mouth (at least in the first 10 km) because no such empirical data were available at the time of this study. In all these cases, additional data are required to verify the accuracy of the model and to make any necessary adjustments.

These results shed new light on the poorly understood and underexplored spatial distribution of sea trout in fresh water and highlighted the considerable variation in straying rate that can be found within a catchment (*i.e.*, between sampling sites). Accordingly, the authors believe that it will help resolve some of the conflicting conclusions found in the literature regarding genetic differentiation between anadromous and freshwater resident brown trout, *e.g.*, Skaala and Naevdal (1989) vs. Hindar *et al.* (1991), and, more interestingly, avoid some sampling bias and help stratify sampling in future empirical studies on sea trout.

The reasons why so many sea trout enter non-natal rivers, why straying is so common throughout the species range and why straying appears spatially constrained at a river catchment level remain unclear, however. In the Bay of Biscay, sea trout populations enter Nivelle and Adour rivers in spring, months before spawning that takes place in late autumn under these latitudes. The authors hypothesize that this premature migration is a consequence of the fish having to avoid marine stressful conditions in summer due to the combination of high temperature and high salinity. Estuarine waters could represent a refuge for sea trout facing osmoregulatory stress in marine waters. Such a hypothesis has already been invoked in northern latitudes where suboptimal temperatures and salinities prevail in winter (e.g., Larsen et al., 2008; Thomsen et al., 2007). Sea trout spend more than half of their time in the uppermost 2 m of the water column (Rikardsen et al., 2007), an area prone to temperature elevation in summer and temperature decrease in winter. Indeed, as recently demonstrated by Legrand et al. (2021), sea surface temperature plays a significant role in the timing of sea trout return migration in French Atlantic rivers. The estuaries of Adour, Nivelle and Tamar are under tidal influence with marine water flooding up to a few 10 of kilometres, e.g., 15-20 km inland for River Adour (Goni-Urriza et al., 2007; Sharif et al., 2014). The river entry of non-local sea trout and their aggregation in the lower catchment are possibly related to the salinity gradient prevailing in estuary (King et al., 2016; Masson et al., 2018). Stressful marine conditions are also expected to drive local sea trout premature upstream migration, but unlike non-local sea trout, local sea trout migrate further inland driven by their homing behaviour.

It is, however, not known whether strays breed or not in the nonnative rivers they enter. As a long time elapsed between upstream migration peaks and spawning, strays may move downstream in search of their natal river when sea surface temperature drops to ultimately reach their natal river before the start of the spawning season. To the authors' knowledge, there is no empirical evidence in the literature to support this hypothesis. Unfortunately, providing additional evidence of such allegation in the context of the present study was not possible because trapping devices used for sampling migratory fish were built to intercept upstream but not downstream migrating fish. Nonetheless, the fact that straying behaviour results in limited or no contemporary gene flow among established populations occupying distinct river systems, as demonstrated in salmonids (Santaquiteria *et al.*, 2016; Tallman & Healey, 2011) including sea trout (Masson *et al.*, 2018), adds further weight to this hypothesis.

In conclusion, estimating dispersal from an overall straying rate per river or tributary using a sample or a complete census of the sea trout run has been done for a long time in numerous rivers. In the light of the present results, extreme caution must be exercised when interpreting such data and comparing such figures among rivers or tributaries, because the sampling site, or more accurately its location relative to the river mouth, is of prime importance and far more important than the river/tributary itself. The spatial scale of dispersal movements is one of the key aspects to understand the genetic structuring of anadromous fishes and the functioning of their populations. The data and results presented here suggest that straying in is far more constrained spatially than first expected.

From a conservation perspective, local and non-local sea trout show different patterns of estuary use during upstream migration. The most notable result of this study was the quick decrease in the proportion of non-local sea trout with the distance to the sea. Accordingly, if reproduction events of non-local sea trout indeed occur, they are likely to occur in the lower catchment. Estuary, floodplain and lower tributaries are then supposed to be key habitats for restoring, maintaining or promoting gene exchange between brown trout resident populations. This information is particularly relevant to restoration actions and will help managers adopt and implement biologically sound management strategies. The knowledge of spatial distribution of sea trout by origin within a catchment thus provides a valuable aid for the managers in their strategies to conserve or restore particular stocks. For instance, it becomes theoretically possible to decide which stock to preserve and which one to target by delineating the fishing areas.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

J.C. and O.L. acquired the funds and designed the study. J.C. performed *in silico* genetic analyses under the supervision of O.L. J.C. performed statistical analyses and wrote the manuscript with contributions from O.L. and A.L. All three authors contributed to revisions and approved the final version of the manuscript.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We gratefully acknowledge MIGRADOUR who provided the sea trout scales together with information related to sea trout runs (with a special thank you to D. Barracou) and J. Labonne and M. Vignon for their advice during glm analyses with R software. We thank an anonymous reviewer and assistant editor Samuel Shephard for useful comments on the previous version of the manuscript. We are also thankful to Nayiba Harris for the editing of our English.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY OF STATEMENT

Raw data used to draw the conclusions of the present study are from two previously published papers. Additional information concerning *in silico* genetic and statistical analyses could be found in the Supplementary Materials deposited in the INRAE external data repository available upon acceptance of the article.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

INRA UMR ECOBIOP ISC ECP (https://doi.org/10.15454/1. 5572402068944548E12), INRA UE 1036 U3E (https://doi.org/10. 15454/1.5573930653786494E12), ONEMA, French Federations and local associations of Angling (departments 40, 64 and 65), Parc Naturel des Landes de Gascogne, Parc National des Pyrénées, ECOGEA, fish farms and Gestion Ambiental de Navarra have contributed to Adour and Nivelle sample collections. Each of the field campaigns was granted by the competent national authorities (Direction Départementale des Territoires et de la Mer under the supervision of the Préfet Départemental for France and Director del Servicio de Conservación de la Biodiversidad for Navarra). For Tamar sample collection, details are provided in the original paper of King *et al.* (2016).

ORCID

Joelle Chat D https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1985-5207

REFERENCES

- Berg, O. K., & Berg, M. (1987). Migrations of sea trout, Salmo trutta L., from the Vardnes river in northern Norway. Journal of Fish Biology, 31, 113–121.
- Bohlin, T., Pettersson, J. & Degerman, E. (2001). Population Density of Migratory and Resident Brown Trout (*Salmo trutta*) in Relation to Altitude: Evidence for a Migration Cost. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 70, 112–121.
- Fausch, K. D., Torgersen, C. E., Baxter, C. V., & Li, H. W. (2002). Landscapes to riverscapes: Bridging the gap between research and conservation of stream fishes. A continuous view of the river is needed to understand how processes interacting among scales set the context for stream fishes and their habitat. *BioScience*, 52, 483–498.
- Ford, M. J., Murdoch, A., & Hughes, M. (2015). Using parentage analysis to estimate rates of straying and homing in Chinook salmon (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*). *Molecular Ecology*, 24, 1109–1121.
- Fournel, F., Euzenat, G., & Fagard, J. (1990). Evaluation des taux de recapture et de retour de la truite de mer sur le bassin de la Bresle (Haute-Normandie/Picardie). Bulletin Francais de la Peche et de la Pisciculture, 102–114.
- Goni-Urriza, M. S., Point, D., Amouroux, D., Guyoneaud, R., Donard, O. F. X., Caumette, P., & Duran, R. (2007). Bacterial community structure along the Adour estuary (French Atlantic coast): Influence of salinity gradient versus metal contamination. *Aquatic Microbial Ecology*, 49, 47–56.
- Hasler, A. D., Scholz, A. T., & Horrall, R. M. (1978). Olfactory imprinting and homing in Salmon: Recent experiments in which salmon have been artificially imprinted to a synthetic chemical verify the olfactory hypothesis for salmon homing. *American Scientist*, 66, 347–355.
- Hindar, K., Jonsson, B., Ryman, N., & Stahl, G. (1991). Genetic relationships among landlocked, resident, and anadromous brown trout, *Salmo trutta* L. *Heredity*, 66, 83–91.
- Jonsson, B., Jonsson, N., & Jonsson, M. (2018). Water level influences migratory patterns of anadromous brown trout in small streams. *Ecology of Freshwater Fish*, *27*, 1066–1075.
- Johnsen, P., & Hasler, A. (1980). The use of chemical cues in the upstream migration of coho salmon, Oncorhynchus kisutch Walbaum. *Journal of Fish Biology*, 17, 67–73.
- Keefer, M., & Caudill, C. (2014). Homing and straying by anadromous salmonids: A review of mechanisms and rates. *Reviews in Fish Biology* and Fisheries, 24, 333–368.
- Keefer, M. L., Caudill, C. C., Peery, C. A., & Boggs, C. T. (2008). Non-direct homing behaviours by adult Chinook salmon in a large, multi-stock river system. *Journal of Fish Biology*, 72, 27–44.
- King, R. A., Hillman, R., Elsmere, P., Stockley, B., & Stevens, J. R. (2016). Investigating patterns of straying and mixed stock exploitation of sea trout, *Salmo trutta*, in rivers sharing an estuary in south-West England. *Fisheries Management and Ecology*, 23, 376–389.
- Larsen, P. F., Nielsen, E. E., Koed, A., Thomsen, D. S., Olsvik, P. A., & Loeschcke, V. (2008). Interpopulation differences in expression of candidate genes for salinity tolerance in winter migrating anadromous brown trout (*Salmo trutta L.*). *BMC Genetics*, *9*, 12.
- Legrand, M., Briand, C., Buisson, L., Besse, T., Artur, G., Azam, D., ... Laffaille, P. (2021). Diadromous fish modified timing of upstream migration over the last 30 years in France. *Freshwater Biology*, 66, 286-302.
- Masson, S., Lepais, O., Manicki, A., Prevost, E., & Chat, J. (2018). Disentangling individual movement between populations from effective dispersal in the facultative anadromous *Salmo trutta* L. *Ecology of Freshwater Fish*, 27, 323–338.
- Nall, G. H. (Ed.). (1930). *The life of the sea trout*. London: Seeley, Service & Company Limited.
- Pratten, D. J., & Shearer, W. M. (1983). The migrations of North Esk Sea trout. Aquaculture Research, 14, 99–113.

- Quéméré, E., Baglinière, J.-L., Roussel, J.-M., Evanno, G., McGinnity, P., & Launey, S. (2016). Seascape and its effect on migratory life-history strategy influences gene flow among coastal brown trout (*Salmo trutta*) populations in the English Channel. *Journal of Biogeography*, 43, 498–509.
- Quinn, T. P. (2018). The behavior and ecology of Pacific salmon and trout. Seattle, WA: University of Washington Press.
- Rikardsen, A. H., Diserud, O. H., Elliott, J. M., Dempson, J. B., Sturlaugsson, J., & Jensen, A. J. (2007). The marine temperature and depth preferences of Arctic charr (Salvelinus alpinus) and sea trout (Salmo trutta), as recorded by data storage tags. *Fisheries Oceanography*, 16, 436–447.
- Ryman, N., Utter, F., & Laikre, L. (1995). Protection of intraspecific biodiversity of exploited fishes. *Reviews in Fish Biology and Fisheries*, 5, 417–446.
- Sakamoto, Y., Ishiguro, M., & Kitagawa, G. (1986). Akaike information criterion statistics. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: D. Reidel 81, 26853.
- Santaquiteria, A., Svenning, M. A., & Praebel, K. (2016). Contrasting levels of strays and contemporary gene flow among anadromous populations of Arctic charr, *Salvelinus alpinus* (L.), in northern Norway. *Hydrobiologia*, 783, 269–281.
- Schtickzelle, N., & Quinn, T. P. (2007). A metapopulation perspective for salmon and other anadromous fish. *Fish and Fisheries*, 8, 297–314.
- Sharif, A., Monperrus, M., Tessier, E., Bouchet, S., Pinaly, H., Rodriguez-Gonzalez, P., ... Amouroux, D. (2014). Fate of mercury species in the coastal plume of the Adour River estuary (Bay of Biscay, SW France). *Science of the Total Environment*, 496, 701–713.
- Skaala, O., & Naevdal, G. (1989). Genetic differentiation between freshwater resident and anadromous brown trout, *Salmo trutta*, within watercourses. *Journal of Fish Biology*, 34, 597–605.

- Skrochowska, S. (1969). Migrations of the sea-trout (Salmo trutta L.) brown trout (Salmo trutta M. fario L.) and their crosses III. Migrations to, in and from the sea. Polskie Archivum Hydrobiologii, 16, 149–180.
- Tallman, R., & Healey, M. (2011). Homing, straying, and gene flow among seasonally separated populations of chum Salmon (Oncorhynchus keta). Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences, 51, 577–588.
- Tallman, R. F., & Healey, M. C. (1994). Homing, straying, and gene flow among seasonally separated populations of chum salmon (Oncorhynchus keta). Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences, 51, 577–588.
- Thomsen, D. S., Koed, A., Nielsen, C., & Madsen, S. S. (2007). Overwintering of sea trout (*Salmo trutta*) in freshwater: Escaping salt and low temperature or an alternate life strategy? *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences*, 64, 793–802.
- Vogt, J., Soille, P., De Jager, A., Rimaviciute, E., Mehl, W., Foisneau, S., ... Haastrup, P. (2007). A pan-European river and catchment database. Report No. EUR 22920 (Office for Official Publications of the European Communities), Luxembourg, 120 p.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

How to cite this article: Chat, J., Lamarins, A., & Lepais, O. (2022). Sea trout (*Salmo trutta*) straying rate decreases as distance from river mouth increases. *Journal of Fish Biology*, 1–8. https://doi.org/10.1111/jfb.15152

Abstract

In a context of rapid environmental changes and anthropogenic pressures, there is an urgent need to better understand the responses of species and to provide recommendations on how we can manage and conciliate human activities with the functioning of ecosystems. However, there is often a mismatch between the scale of species functioning, threats, and management actions. In particular, even if dispersal is a ubiquitous trait in organisms, implications of connectivity and spatial structure for adaptation, persistence, and management of populations are still poorly appreciated for numerous species. This is the case of Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar), for which eco-evolutionary dynamics, exploitation and management of populations are rarely considered within a metapopulation perspective. Yet, growing evidence shows individuals and gene flow among populations of salmon. Motivated by this context, this thesis aims to use an innovative multi-scale approach, from genes to metapopulation, to 1) better understand the capacities of adaptation and persistence of exploited populations of Atlantic salmon and 2) explore management practices that would meet both objectives of conservation and exploitation. Using a spatially explicit demo-genetic agent-based model, I simulated a network of interconnected populations of Atlantic salmon based on the metapopulation of Brittany. Through several scenarios, I explored the influence of a gradient of dispersal rates, various spatial genetic structures, the spatial configuration of populations, and spatial management strategies on the demographic (e.g., stability, persistence) and eco-evolutionary (e.g., life history traits, genetic diversity) dynamics of interconnected and exploited local populations. This thesis highlighted a non-linear relationship between dispersal rates and the stability of the metapopulation, resulting in an optimal portfolio effect for dispersal rates around 20% in a homogeneous network. At local population scale, I demonstrated phenotypic changes induced by density-dependent effects modulated by dispersal, as well as an increase in genetic diversity within populations. Simulations also showed adaptation of local populations was fostered by dispersal between initially diverse populations, providing general support for the adaptation network theory. However, the spatial configuration of populations also played an important role in their evolutionary trajectories by modulating dispersal patterns. Ultimately, this thesis showcased a slight benefit from a spatialized management strategy protecting source populations from exploitation, especially for high dispersal rates. Contrasted and complex evolutionary consequences emerged from the different management strategies in interaction with dispersal. I conclude that it is critical to account for complex interactions between dispersal, eco-evolutionary processes, and spatial structure of populations to better understand and manage Atlantic salmon response to environmental change and anthropogenic pressures. This thesis also encourages empirical knowledge about dispersal rates and metapopulation structure of this species, and advocates for conservation actions according to the portfolio and adaptation network approach, protecting connectivity and biocomplexity in the face of uncertainty. My thesis opens up further perspective of work and illustrates the potential of our modelling approach as a prospecting tool for theoretical and applied research on metapopulations.

Keywords: dispersal, spatial structure, adaptation network, management, Atlantic salmon, exploitation, model, demo-genetic, portfolio effect