# The effect of catch-and-release angling at high water temperatures on behaviour and survival of Atlantic salmon during spawning migration 

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#### Abstract

In this study, behaviour and survival following catch-and-release (C\&R) angling was investigated in wild Salmo salar $(n=75)$ angled on sport fishing gear in the River Otra in southern Norway at water temperatures of $16.3-21.1^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. S. salar were tagged externally with radio transmitters and immediately released back into the river to simulate a realistic $\mathrm{C} \& \mathrm{R}$ situation. The majority of the S. salar (91\%) survived C\&R. Most S. salar that were present in the River Otra during the spawning period 3 to 4 months later were located at known spawning grounds. Downstream movements (median farthest position: 0.5 km , range: $0.1-$ 11.0 km ) during the first 4 days after release were recorded for $72 \%$ of the $S$. salar, presumably stress-induced fallback associated with C\&R. Individuals that fell back spent a median of 15 days before commencing their first upstream movement after release, and 34 days before they returned to or were located above their release site. Mortality appeared to be somewhat elevated at the higher end of the temperature range ( $14 \%$ at $18-21^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ), although sample sizes were low. In conclusion, $\mathrm{C} \& \mathrm{R}$ at water temperatures up to $18{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ had small behavioural consequences and was associated with low mortality (7\%). Nevertheless, low levels of mortality occur due to C\&R angling and these losses should be accounted for by management authorities in rivers where C\&R is practiced. Refinement of "best practices" for catch-and-release may help to reduce mortality, particularly at warmer temperatures.


Keywords: Biotelemetry; Fisheries management; Radio telemetry; Recreational Fishing; Salmo salar.

## INTRODUCTION

Many populations of the anadromous Atlantic salmon Salmo salar L. 1758 have declined during the last decades (ICES, 2014). Various restrictions on riverine fisheries have been introduced to attempt to maintain sustainable populations, including an increased use of catch-and-release (C\&R) angling (ICES, 2014). Catch-and-release for S. salar has been routinely practiced since 1984 in some areas of Canada and USA, and since about 1990 has also been widely used and accepted as a management tool in many European countries. The proportion of caught and released S. salar range from $15 \%$ of the total catch in Norway to as high as $80 \%$ in Scotland, reflecting compliance with various management regulations and conservationoriented behaviours among anglers (ICES, 2014). In 2013, 174000 S. salar were reported caught and released in the North Atlantic region (North America and Europe combined), constituting almost half of all wild S. salar angled in the countries included in ICES statistics (ICES, 2014).

For C\&R to be a successful management tool, released fishes have to survive and reproduce successfully (Cooke \& Schramm, 2007). Where survival to reproduction is high in caught and released fishes, recreational angling can in theory be conducted without reducing spawning stocks, and thereby preserve the economic and social benefits of recreational fisheries. However, angling of S. salar may cause considerable physiological disturbances due to stress and exhaustion (reviewed by Kieffer et al., 2000), which at a later time may lead to mortality (e.g. Brobbel et al., 1996; Wilkie et al., 1996; Anderson et al., 1998). Because fishes are ectotherms, temperature is an important regulating factor of physiological processes
(Brett, 1971), and the impact of C\&R at high water temperatures above the thermal optimum may be more severe than at lower temperatures (Arlinghaus et al., 2007; Gale et al., 2011). Indeed, Gale et al. (2011) found that stress levels and mortality rates increased with increasing water temperature in $70 \%$ of the published studies that investigated the effects of C\&R.

Mortality rates of S. salar after C\&R are generally between 0 and $12 \%$ at water temperatures below $18{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (e.g., Brobbel et al., 1996; Dempson et al., 2002; Thorstad et al., 2007), but tend to increase at water temperatures above $17-18{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (Wilkie et al., 1996, 1997; Anderson et al., 1998). This is somewhat surprising as the optimal thermal range for S. salar is reported to fall in the range of $16-20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (Elliott \& Elliott, 2010). The exact mechanisms that cause elevated mortality in S. salar following C\&R at high water temperatures are not known (Wilkie et al., 1997). Extreme biochemical alterations, including elevated levels of white muscle acidosis at increasing temperatures, have been proposed to be important determinants of mortality (Brobbel et al., 1996; Wilkie et al., 1996). However, Wilkie et al. (1997) found that peak lactate levels remained the same in different temperature regimes (12, 18 and $23^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ) and that lactate catabolism was faster at high temperatures ( 18 and $23^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ), seeming discounting acidosis as a direct cause. Mortalities were only observed at the highest temperatures ( $30 \%$ mortality rate at $23^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, Wilkie et al., 1997). Anderson et al. (1998) suggested that an irregular heart rate during recovery, perhaps indicating cardiac collapse, may have caused the unusually high mortality rate (80\%) that was observed for S. salar caught-and-released at $20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.

All studies on S. salar regarding the effects of $\mathrm{C} \& \mathrm{R}$ at water temperatures above $15^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ have been performed under experimental conditions, i.e., in tanks in the laboratory, or in cages/artificial pools in a river after angling (Thorstad et al., 2007; Gale et al., 2011). Because artificial confinement in itself may be stressful (Portz et al., 2006), it is difficult to separate effects on survival caused by C\&R from those due to being kept in captivity (Donaldson et al., 2008; Gale et al., 2011). Moreover, the use of hatchery reared S. salar (Wilkie et al., 1997; Anderson et al., 1998), surgical implantation of radio transmitters measuring heart rate (Anderson et al., 1998), manual hooking (e.g., Booth et al., 1995; Brobbel et al., 1996; Wilkie et al., 1996), extreme exhaustion (e.g., Tufts et al., 1991; Booth et al., 1995; Wilkie et al., 1996) and other unusual treatments may imply that these studies were not representative of normal C\&R performed by anglers in rivers (e.g., Whoriskey et al., 2000; Dempson et al., 2002).

Monitoring the behaviour and survival of free-swimming fishes in their natural environment is advocated as one of the best approaches for evaluating the impacts of $\mathrm{C} \& \mathrm{R}$ given that it provides ecological realisms (Donaldson et al., 2008) making results directly applicable to the resource managers. This type of "in situ" monitoring can be achieved by applying various biotelemetry techniques, for instance by tagging released fishes with a radio transmitter and by subsequently tracking their movements to assess potential changes in behaviour and survival following C\&R (Donaldson et al., 2008). Hitherto, such studies on S. salar have been carried out at water temperatures below $15^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ only (Webb, 1998; Gowans et al., 1999; Mäkinen et al., 2000; Thorstad et al., 2003, 2007; Halttunen et al., 2010; Jensen et al., 2010). Although the mortality after C\&R was consistently low in these studies (0-6\%), C\&R frequently affected individual S. salar behaviour, resulting in rapid downstream
movements (i.e., fallback), migration delays and erratic movement patterns (e.g., Mäkinen et al., 2000; Thorstad et al. 2003, 2007). As the normal movement pattern during the riverine migration phase of $S$. salar involves a direct or stepwise upstream movement to the spawning areas, rapid downstream movements are regarded as being atypical (Økland et al., 2001; Finstad et al. 2005). However, despite observed downstream movements for a relatively high proportion of the experimental S. salar in these studies, most individuals were subsequently located in known spawning areas during the spawning period, and C\&R was therefore assumed to have no major negative impact on the potential for reproduction (e.g., Webb, 1998; Thorstad et al., 2007; Jensen et al., 2010).

Impacts of C\&R for S. salar have not been systematically examined in rivers using biotelemetry methods at water temperatures above $15{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, despite temperatures $>15^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ occurring frequently throughout the distributional range of this species. In some cases, water temperatures in S. salar rivers can exceed $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in the summer (Baisez et al., 2011; Lund et al., 2002). In the future, higher temperatures may also be anticipated due to climate change effects (Caissie, 2006; Jonsson \& Jonsson, 2009; Nielsen et al., 2013). Thus, studies at high temperatures are required to extend our understanding of thermal effects on $S$. salar after C\&R (e.g., Thorstad et al., 2008a; Gale et al., 2011), and to identify the critically high temperatures above which C\&R mortality is so high that it is ineffective as a management tool (Olsen et al., 2010).

The aim of this study was to generate realistic mortality estimates and to assess behavioural effects for caught and released S. salar at water temperatures above $15^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. This
was done by tagging recreationally angled $S$. salar with external radio transmitters at water temperatures between 16 and $21^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in the River Otra in southern Norway in 2012 and 2013. Survival and behaviour following C\&R was examined by tracking the S. salar after release and throughout the spawning period. Since increased water temperatures most likely would magnify the physiological disturbance caused by $C \& R$, an increased mortality following $C \& R$ at water temperatures above $15^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ compared to the $0-6 \%$ mortality at lower water temperatures in earlier studies (see references above) was expected.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

## STUDY AREA

The study was conducted in the River Otra in southern Norway ( $58^{\circ} \mathrm{N} 8^{\circ} \mathrm{E}$, catchment area of $3738 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$, Fig. 1). Mean annual water discharge 15 km upstream from the river mouth is $149 \mathrm{~m}^{3} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$. The river is regulated for hydro power production, and the guaranteed minimum water flow in the part of the river accessible for $S$. salar is $50 \mathrm{~m}^{3} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ during summer. Salmo salar have access to 16 km of the river, which is free of migration obstacles, before they encounter their limit at the Vigeland waterfall (Fig. 1). The average annual rod catch during 2004-2013 was 6.7 metric tons (about 2,637 S. salar; the mean individual mass was 2.7 kg ). In 2013, 10\% of the total rod catch was released. Most of the S. salar in the river result from natural reproduction in the wild, and there is no hatchery supplementation. However, scale readings of a selection of the sport fishery catch in 2011-2013 showed that $4 \%$ of the S. salar were farm escapees.

## TAGGED S. SALAR AND ANGLING PROCEDURES

A total of 75 S. salar (mean $L_{T} \pm$ S.D.: $67 \pm 9 \mathrm{~cm}$, range: $50-90 \mathrm{~cm}$ ) were angled during 9 July-16 August in $2012(n=52)$ and $2013(n=23)$ and tagged with external radio transmitters before being released. These were 43 females ( $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{T}} \pm$ S.D.: $70 \pm 10 \mathrm{~cm}$, range: $50-90 \mathrm{~cm}$ ) and 32 males ( $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{T}} \pm$ S.D.: $64 \pm 8 \mathrm{~cm}$, range: 51-83 cm), 28 of which were caught on spoons and 47 by fly fishing. The S. salar were angled in cooperation with five highly experienced local anglers that were instructed to play the S. salar as they normally would. All S. salar were landed in the presence of a member of the research team by dip-netting while the S. salar were in the water using a knotless landing net. The hook was removed with a pair of pliers while the $S$. salar were in the net. Both the use of pliers and dip-netting while the $S$. salar is in the water are methods which are recommended by the Norwegian Scientific Committee for Food Safety (Olsen et al., 2010) and commonly used by Norwegian anglers. Immediately after landing the S. salar was transferred from the landing net to a tube with closed ends (105 cm long x 21 cm diameter) filled with water to keep the head and gills submerged during tagging. The S. salar were examined for bleeding and damages, $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{T}}$ was measured and sex was determined based on secondary sexual characteristics (head shape and presence of a kype). It was estimated that $84 \%$ of the $S$. salar had recently entered the river based on their silver ("bright") color, a thin mucus layer and the presence of salmon lice Lepeophtheirus salmonis Krøyer. After tagging the $S$. salar were held with a loose grip in the river until they recovered and were able to swim freely away. Air exposure was restricted to short periods during dipnetting after capture, transfer from the net to the tagging tube and while lifting the $S$. salar out
of the tagging tube for release. The total air exposure period from the combined three actions was typically less than 20 s .

The mean $\pm$ S.D. time (to the nearest whole minute) from hooking to landing (playing time) was $5 \pm 2 \mathrm{~min}$ (range: 3-11 min). Most of the $S$. salar were hooked in the upper or lower jaw $(71 \%, n=53)$, while $12 \%(n=9)$ were hooked in the tongue or mouth cavity and $4 \%(n=$ 3 ) in other locations (two in the head area and one in the dorsal muscle). The hook position could not be determined for $13 \%$ of the $S$. salar $(n=10)$ because the hook fell out in the landing net. Individuals hooked in the tongue or mouth cavity were defined as being hooked in harmful locations as deep hooking has been shown to increase mortality (Bartholomew \& Bohnsack, 2005; Gargan et al., 2015). Spoons were always equipped with a single treble hook. By contrast, 43 S. salar were caught on flies with a treble hook and four on flies with a double hook. All hooks were barbed. S. salar bleeding from the gills upon landing $(n=8)$ were not used in the experiments, as such injuries are known to significantly reduce the survival probability (Bartholomew \& Bohnsack, 2005) and such individuals are normally killed rather than being released by anglers. Three $S$. salar showing minor bleeding in the gill area and 11 S . salar with minor bleeding in the hook wound were tagged and released, because anglers normally most likely would release such individuals.

The S. salar were tagged with external radio transmitters without being anesthetized (transmitter model F2120 from Advanced Telemetry Systems, Minnesota, USA, www.atstrack.com) as described in Økland et al. (2001). Anesthesia was not necessary given that the $S$. salar were held in water for all procedures and given that the entire tagging process
was so rapid. Moreover, use of anesthetics would have confounded the experiment and potentially contributed to abhorrent behaviour. The transmitters were rectangular with dimensions of $21 \times 52 \times 11 \mathrm{~mm}$ (mass: 16 g in air). Thorstad et al. (2000) found no effect of radio transmitters with similar dimensions attached in the same manner as in this study on swimming performance of farmed S. salar. Ten transmitters were equipped with an activity sensor that produced additional pulses when the $S$. salar were moving. The pulse rate of these transmitters also increased from 40 to 80 pulses per minute if the $S$. salar did not move within 8 h . The manufacturer's guaranteed transmitter lifetime was 144 and 195 days respectively, for transmitters with and without sensors. The mean $\pm$ S.D. handling time from the moment when the $S$. salar was netted until release was $3 \pm 0.5 \mathrm{~min}$ (range: $2-5 \mathrm{~min}$ ). All experimental procedures were approved by the Norwegian Animal Research Authority.
S. salar caught in the upper end of the anadromous stretch had constrained upriver movement possibilities compared to those captured further downstream, and the behaviour after C\&R may therefore differ between these groups. The S. salar were therefore divided into two groups based on angling location for the analyses of behaviour after C\&R; 1) S. salar caught and released in or close to the pool below the Vigeland waterfall at the upper end of the anadromous stretch $(n=37)$ and 2 ) S. salar caught and released over a river stretch further downstream ( $n=38$, Fig. 1). The S. salar in group 1 were angled at a mean distance $\pm$ S.D. of $0.3 \pm 0.1 \mathrm{~km}$ (range: $0.1-0.6 \mathrm{~km}$ ) below the waterfall and $S$. salar in group 2 at a mean distance $\pm$ S.D. of $4.0 \pm 0.9 \mathrm{~km}$ (range: 2.2-5.4 km) below the waterfall.
S. salar behaviour after release was monitored by manual tracking (receiver model R2100, Advanced Telemetry Systems, Minnesota, USA). Since the river is located close to roads, a car equipped with a roof whip antenna ( 142 MHz , Laird Technologies, Missouri, USA, www.lairdtech.com) was used to search for tagged S. salar. When a S. salar was located, a more accurate position was obtained by using a four-element yagi antenna to obtain crossbearings (142 MHz, Laird Technologies, Missouri, USA). The locations of each S. salar were determined once every day for 4 days after release and thereafter once every week until the end of the fishing season (15 September in both study years). Tracking continued once every second week until January the year after tagging. Each tagged $S$. salar was on average $\pm$ S.D. located $15 \pm 6$ times (range: 1-26 times). S. salar that left the River Otra ( $n=11$ ) and moved to other rivers were only tracked once after they left. These individuals were searched for during tracking surveys (between 28 October-11 November) that covered most rivers and creeks in the area between River Lygna, Lyngdal (73 km west of Otra) and River Nidelva, Arendal ( 60 km east of Otra).

Assessment of survival after C\&R was based on the assumption that a surviving $S$. salar at varying intervals would change its position in the river, while mortality was assumed if the $S$. salar showed no upstream movements and the signal from its tag was recorded from the same position through the end of the tracking period. The transmitters with activity sensors used on 10 S. salar tagged in the pool below Vigeland waterfall (see above) also aided in determining whether these particular individuals were dead or alive.

Positions of the S. salar acquired 11 November 2012 and 1 December 2013 were used to indicate the positions of the S. salar in the spawning period. Maps of the known spawning grounds in the River Otra (Kroglund et al., 2008; M. Finne, H. Gregersen, H. Kaasa, Ø. P. Hveding, A. Poléo, SWECO, unpublished data), local knowledge, and personal observations of suitable spawning substrate were used to determine if the $S$. salar were located at spawning grounds or not.

## ENVIRONMENTAL DATA

Water temperature during C\&R was on average ( $\pm$ S.D.) $17.3 \pm 0.7^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (range: $16.3-19.7^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ) in 2012 and $20.0 \pm 0.5^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (range: 19.4-21.1 ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ) in 2013 (Fig. 2). The water temperature in the river peaked at $19.7^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ on 3 August in 2012 and at $21.5^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ on 31 July in 2013 (HOBO Pendant Temperature/Light Data Logger 64K-UA-002-64, Onset, Massachusetts, USA, www.onsetcomp.com, located 5 km downstream of the Vigeland waterfall). Water discharge at the time of S. salar release was on average ( $\pm$ S.D.) $111 \pm 29 \mathrm{~m}^{3} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ (range: $63-161 \mathrm{~m}^{3} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) in 2012 and $96 \pm 27 \mathrm{~m}^{3} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ (range: $60-131 \mathrm{~m}^{3} \mathrm{~s}^{-1}$ ) in 2013. Water pH during the study period remained stable at a mean ( $\pm$ S.D.) of $6.1 \pm 0.1$ (range: 6.0-6.4) in 2012 and $6.1 \pm 0.1$ (range: 5.7-6.4) in 2013.

Non-parametric statistics (Mann-Whitney U tests and Fisher`s Exact tests) were used to analyze differences between $S$. salar that died and those that survived, because the parameters in most cases were not normally distributed and the number of dead S. salar was low.

A generalized linear model with binomial error structure and a logit link function was used to test for effects on whether the S. salar moved downstream or not within 4 days after $C \& R(n o=0$, yes $=1$ ). Predictor variables included in the model were water temperature and water discharge at release, $\mathrm{L}_{\text {, }}$, playing time, study year, sex, hooking location (harmful or less harmful location), C\&R site (below Vigeland waterfall or further downstream), migration status (newly entered the river from the sea, vs. resident in the river for an extended period based on loss of silver coloration), bleeding (yes or no) and angling gear (fly or spoon). A maximal model without interactions was fitted and then simplified by backwards stepwise deletion of non-significant parameters until a minimal adequate model was found. The fit of each reduced model was compared with the previous model by ANOVA chi-square tests. A pvalue $\leq 0.05$ was used to reject a reduced model and select the preceding model.

A generalized linear model with Gaussian error structure was used to test for the effects of predictor variables on the distance of the downstream movement for the S. salar moving downstream within 4 days after C\&R. The distance was log transformed in order to meet the assumption of normality. This model contained the same predictor variables as described in the binomial regression, and the same model selection procedure was used. A probability ( P ) of $\leq 0.05$ was used as a critical level for rejection of the null hypothesis for all analyses.
S. salar that were recaptured within 4 days after $C \& R(n=2)$ or died shortly after $C \& R(n=6)$ were excluded from the descriptive and statistical analysis of behaviour. However, the S. salar that were recaptured were included in the descriptive analysis of the behaviour that occurred one day after release as these individuals survived until the next day after release. All statistical analyses were conducted using R v3.0.0 (The R Project for Statistical Computing 2013).

## RESULTS

## MORTALITIES AFTER C\&R

In total for both study years, seven (9\%) out of 75 tagged S. salar died after C\&R (four $S$. salar, $8 \%$, in 2012 and three S. salar, 13\%, in 2013, Table I). Six of these S. salar died shortly after release ( $\sim 1$ day). Carcasses of four of the six were found in the river downstream of the capture site 5-6 days after release, and as they were covered with fungus it is likely that they had died shortly after release. The remaining two of the six were not found dead in the river, but were believed to have died shortly after release because they moved rapidly downstream and thereafter their tags were continuously located at the same spot until the end of the tracking period 5-6 months later. The seventh S. salar was found dead 23 days after release 0.5 km upstream from the location where it was tracked previously the same day. The previous upstream movement and physical appearance when it was found suggested that it
had recently died. At release, four of the seven dead S. salar were in apparently good condition without any bleeding or injuries. One S. salar exhibited a small amount of bleeding in the gill area, one had a long healed wound to its caudal fin, while one needed an unusually long time ( 3 min ) to recover prior to release. For both years combined, the mortality after $\mathrm{C} \& \mathrm{R}$ for S . salar captured at water temperatures between $16-18{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ was $7 \%$ (three of 46 ), for S. salar captured between $18-20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ it was $10 \%$ (two of 20), and for $S$. salar captured $>20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ it was $22 \%$ (two of nine).

There was no difference in water temperature at time of capture between S. salar that died after C\&R ( $n=7$, mean $\pm$ S.D.: $18.6 \pm 1.8^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, range: $16.6-20.9^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ) and survivors ( $n=$ 68 , mean $\pm$ S.D.: $18.1 \pm 1.3^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, range: $16.3-21.1^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, Mann-Whitney U test, $\mathrm{W}=276, \mathrm{P}>$ $0.05)$. There was no difference in $S$. salar $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{t}}$, playing time, or handling time between the dead S. salar and survivors (Mann-Whitney U tests, W range: 240-272, all P-values > 0.05). Further, the proportion of S. salar that were caught on a fly versus a spoon, were bleeding versus not bleeding, were hooked in potentially harmful versus less harmful locations, or were caught in 2012 versus 2013 did not differ between dead S. salar and survivors (Fisher`s exact tests, all P-values > 0.05).

Some of the $S$. salar that survived after $C \& R$ were later recaptured by anglers. Five were caught and killed by the angler 2-37 days after being tagged and released. Two additional individuals survived being caught and released by anglers a second time (16 and 6 days after the first release), giving an overall recapture rate of $9 \%$ (seven of 75 ). One S. salar was hooked in the steel wire keeping the transmitter attached (one day after release), and the
transmitter was torn off while the $S$. salar was played. This individual was not landed and its subsequent fate is unknown.

## BEHAVIOUR AFTER C\&R

During the first day after release, $57 \%(n=39)$ of the $S$. salar moved a median distance of 0.5 km downstream from the release site (mean $\pm$ S.D.: $0.7 \pm 0.7 \mathrm{~km}$, range: $0.1-3.1 \mathrm{~km}$ ), $36 \%$ ( $n$ $=25)$ remained stationary close to the release site and $7 \%(n=5)$ moved a median distance of 0.1 km upstream (mean $\pm$ S.D.: $0.1 \pm 0.3 \mathrm{~km}$, range: 0.1-1.2 km). Within 4 days after release, $72 \%(n=48)$ of the $S$. salar had been recorded downstream of the release site (Table II). The median farthest position downstream during this period was 0.5 km (mean $\pm$ S.D.: $1.1 \pm 1.7$ km , range: $0.1-11.0 \mathrm{~km}$ ). Of the total number of movements for all S . salar after 4 days, $84 \%$ was downstream, of which $48 \%$ and $67 \%$ occurred during the first and two first days after release, respectively. The median total distance moved was 0.5 km (mean $\pm$ S.D.: $0.9 \pm 1.5$ km, range: $0.0-11.0 \mathrm{~km}$ ) for individual $S$. salar during the first 4 days after release.
$\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{T}}$ was the only variable that influenced whether $S$. salar moved downstream or not during the first 4 days after $C \& R$ as this was the single variable left in the minimal adequate model (binomial regression, ANOVA chi-square tests with preceding models, all P-values > 0.05 , the minimal adequate model versus intercept-only model, $\mathrm{X}^{2}=4.6$, d.f. $=1, \mathrm{P}<0.05$ ). According to the model, the probability for moving downstream after C\&R was twice as high for the smallest S. salar caught and released in this study ( $50 \mathrm{~cm}, 88 \%$ probability) compared
to the largest S. salar (90 cm, 40\% probability, binomial regression, $\mathrm{y}=5.13 \pm 2.09$ S.E. + ( $0.06 \pm 0.03$ S.E.) * $\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{T}}, \mathrm{P}<0.05$, estimates are given on the logit scale).

When testing for effects on the distance of the downstream movement during the first 4 days after $C \& R$, both water temperature and migration status were retained in the final model (GLM, ANOVA chi-square tests with preceding models, all P-values $>0.05$, exclusion of water temperature, $\mathrm{X}^{2}=3.6$, d.f. $=1, \mathrm{P}=0.07$, i.e., near significant). The length of the movement decreased with increasing water temperatures at release, and newly ascended $S$. salar moved further downstream than those with a longer freshwater residency (Table III). However, relatively low proportions of the total variation was explained by these variables (adjusted $\mathrm{r}^{2}=0.20$ ).

The median time until an upstream movement was recorded for the S. salar that moved downstream during the first 4 days after C\&R was 15 days (mean $\pm$ S.D.: $26 \pm 28$ days, range: 1-153 days, $n=48$ ). Of the $S$. salar that initially moved downstream, 28 (58\%) were for the first time recorded at or upstream of their original release site a median of 34 days after $C \& R$ (mean $\pm$ S.D.: $43 \pm 38$ days, range: 3-153 days, $n=28$ ). The remaining 20 S. salar (42\%) never again moved as far upstream as their initial release site during the study period. The length of the delay did not differ between the years (first movement upstream: Mann-Whitney U test, $\mathrm{W}=184, \mathrm{P}>0.05$, n in 2012/2013 = 35/13, return to release site: Mann-Whitney U test, $\mathrm{W}=81, \mathrm{P}>0.05$, n in 2012/2013 $=21 / 7$ ). Likewise, the proportion of S. salar that did not return to their release site did not differ between the years (14 of 35 in 2012 and six of 13 in 2013, Fisher`s exact test, $P>0.05$ ).

Eleven S. salar (15\%) left the River Otra prior to the spawning period, after staying in the river for a median of 49 days (range: 11-89 days) after C\&R. Eight were later found during tracking surveys between 28 October-11 November in neighboring rivers and creeks known for having wild $S$. salar populations. The median approximate distance these individuals had to cover from the river mouth of the River Otra to the river mouth of the rivers where they were located was 14 km (range: 6-56 km).

## POSITIONS DURING SPAWNING

All except one of the $S$. salar that were alive and present in the river until spawning were located in known spawning areas (50 of 51, 98\%) (Fig. 1, for further details on spawning areas see Kroglund et al., 2008). The median positions during the spawning period for S. salar that were caught and released in the upper end of the anadromous stretch were 0.4 km downstream of their release sites ( $n=23$, mean $\pm$ S.D.: $1.3 \pm 1.7 \mathrm{~km}$, range: 5.2 km downstream to 0.2 km upstream). Fifteen $S$. salar (65\%) were located below and eight $S$. salar (35\%) close to (within 250 m ) their respective release sites. The S. salar that were caught and released further downstream in the river were on average positioned slightly, but not significantly, upstream of their release sites at spawning time ( $n=28$, mean $\pm$ S.D.: $0.4 \pm$ 2.4 km , range: 5.9 km downstream to 4.2 km upstream, paired t -test, $t=0.8$, d.f. $=27, \mathrm{P}>$ 0.05 ). Eleven (39\%) S. salar were located below, three (11\%) close to and 14 S. salar (50\%) above their release sites.

The mortality after C\&R in this study was $9 \%$ at water temperatures above $16^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (mean 18.2 ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, range: $16-21^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ). This must be regarded as a maximum mortality caused by $\mathrm{C} \& \mathrm{R}$ because without a control group it is difficult to determine if any of the mortalities were caused by other reasons than C\&R. However, six of the seven S. salar that died did so shortly after release ( $\sim 1$ day), making it plausible that these mortalities were caused by C\&R. C\&R mediated mortalities usually occur within the first 24 h after release (Muoneke \& Childress, 1994). For the last individual that died more than 3 weeks after C\&R it cannot be excluded that it died due to long-term effects of $C \& R$, although other mortality reasons are also plausible. Mortalities caused by C\&R could emerge several days after release (e.g., Donaldson et al., 2013; Robinson et al., 2013) and may be linked with immune suppression and disease development (Muoneke \& Childress, 1994; Arlinghaus et al., 2007).

The mortality recorded after C\&R in this study is slightly higher than that reported in similar studies at lower water temperatures (e.g., Webb, 1998; Thorstad et al., 2007; Jensen et al., 2010, Fig. 3). The mortality at the highest water temperatures in this study (mean $20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in 2013, $13 \%$ mortality) is in the same range as that observed by Dempson et al. (2002) in Newfoundland, where $S$. salar were held in cages in a river after angling ( $9.5 \%$ mortality at $19^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ). In contrast, Anderson et al. (1998) reported a very high mortality rate ( $80 \%$ ) at $20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, however, the sample size was low (five S. salar) and the mortality could have been elevated due to additional stress caused by surgical implantation of large internal transmitters measuring heart rate.

The size of the $S$. salar has also been hypothesized to be related to mortality after $C \& R$ angling as larger S. salar are stronger making it difficult for anglers to land them before they are exhausted, and due to their longer play times they suffer increased physiological disturbance (Thorstad et al., 2003). By contrast smaller S. salar are rarely played to full exhaustion (Dempson et al., 2002). Although the results did not indicate that the mortalities were associated with $S$. salar size, the generally small size of the $S$. salar in this river may have contributed an overall high survival. However, Booth et al. (1995) found that the physiological post-angling disturbance was greater for grilse (S. salar returning to spawn for the first time after one year at sea) than for much larger multi-sea-winter $S$. salar.

In the current study the $S$. salar were caught and handled by experienced anglers in the presence of trained scientific personnel, and it is reasonable to assume that the playing time was shorter and that the $S$. salar were handled more carefully than would have occurred with less experienced anglers in the regular recreational fisheries. Therefore, the survival of the C\&R-angled S. salar in this study may be higher than what would be the case if the $S$. salar had been caught by less skilled anglers. On the other hand, although tagging was rapid and conducted in water without anesthesia in an attempt to minimize tagging-related effects as per Donaldson et al. (2008), additional handling time and stress due to the tagging procedure could have negatively affected the probability of survival. Thus, the overall stress subjected on experimental animals in this study was probably similar to that of $S$. salar released by the "average angler", and the mortality estimates presented here should therefore be representable for the regular recreational fisheries.

The results indicated that caught and released S. salar showed atypical migration behaviour following release, with a rapid downstream movement post release and delayed return upstream migration. These findings are similar to results from previous studies on $S$. salar at water temperatures below $15{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (e.g., Mäkinen et al., 2000; Thorstad et al., 2007; Jensen et al., 2010). In addition, the proportion of Otra S. salar that moved downstream after release and the time it took before their upstream migration was resumed were also similar to what was observed in the studies referred to above. Downstream movements and delays lasting longer than a few days are rarely observed in the upriver migration phase of wild $S$. salar (Økland et al., 2001; Finstad et al., 2005). The reasons for altered movement and migration patterns after C\&R for $S$. salar are not known, but it has been suggested that downstream movements and delays may result from a slow physical recovery after C\&R-mediated stress, a loss of orientation from the capture process, or downstream movements could simply be an avoidance response in order to escape areas that are perceived to have "unfavorable conditions" (Thorstad et al., 2008b).

The causality behind this study's findings that the extent of downstream movements decreased with both increasing temperatures and increasing $S$. salar size, and that $S$. salar with a longer freshwater residency moved shorter distances downstream after C\&R compared to newly ascended $S$. salar is speculative. However, the fact that the $S$. salar that moved away from the capture site almost exclusively moved downstream may suggest that the observed behaviour is not exclusively an escape response since a more random movement direction would have been anticipated if the $S$. salar were solely escaping (as shown for $S$. salar avoiding
an accidental release of waste from the wood pulp industry, see Thorstad et al., 2005). Unusual downstream movements have also been observed for caught and released Chinook salmon Oncorhynchus tshawytscha (Walbaum 1792) (Bendock \& Alexandersdottir, 1993), and handling in general of this species (e.g. gillnetting or trapping) has been shown to result in downstream movements and delays after release in several studies (summarized by Bernard et al., 1999). Bernard et al. (1999) found no evidence that size, sex or when the individuals were released influenced the migratory behaviour of gillnetted $O$. tshawytscha.

Eleven of the tagged S. salar left the River Otra after staying in the river for a median time period of 49 days after C\&R. Behavioural responses caused by C\&R usually occur within the first few days after release (e.g., Mäkinen et al., 2000; Thorstad et al., 2003), and it is plausible and perhaps probable that the observed out-migration was caused by other factors than C\&R angling. Recent tagging of returning S. salar in the Trondheimsfjord showed that 29\% of the S. salar that initially entered the River Nidelva left and were later located in other rivers draining into the same fjord during the spawning period (E. M. Ulvan, NINA, pers. comm.). Hence, the observed out-migration may actually reflect a normal situation in some rivers, and may reflect initial "mistakes" on the part of S. salar attempting to home to natal rivers.

The high proportion of S. salar present on known spawning grounds during the spawning period is consistent with results from previous $C \& R$ studies at lower water temperatures where most $S$. salar survived until spawning (90-100\%) and were present on spawning grounds (e.g., Webb, 1998; Mäkinen et al., 2000; Thorstad et al., 2007). However,
the methodology used in this study cannot confirm actual participation in spawning or if the performance of experimental S. salar on the spawning grounds was optimal. Positive population level effects from using $\mathrm{C} \& \mathrm{R}$ as a management measure have been documented in other rivers such as increased number of spawning redds (Thorstad et al., 2003) and by higher densities of juvenile S. salar (Whoriskey et al., 2000). In addition, genetic analyses have shown that $S$. salar caught and released in Quebec at similar water temperatures as occurred in this study contributed significantly to population reproductive output and had the same probability of spawning as non-angled S. salar (Richard et al., 2013). Hence, it is reasonable to suggest that the caught and released S. salar in this study were able to reproduce successfully.

Nevertheless, physiological disturbances caused by C\&R could potentially reduce the spawning quality as stress can have deleterious effects on fishes reproduction (Wendelaar Bonga, 1997), e.g. lower survival rates for progeny of stressed rainbow trout Oncorhynchus mykiss (Walbaum 1792) compared to unstressed control fish (Campbell et al., 1992) and reduced gonad size and lowered levels of sex steroids in stressed brown trout Salmo trutta L. 1758 (Pickering et al., 1987; Carragher et al., 1989). While angling of S. salar just prior to spawning at low water temperatures $\left(5-6^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)$ has been shown not to affect gamete viability or hatching success (Davidson et al., 1994; Booth et al., 1995), Richard et al. (2013) found that offspring production was negatively correlated with water temperatures at the time of release for $S$. salar that had been caught and released at $10-19^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. Further, studies incorporating both angled S. salar and control groups have shown that C\&R may decrease the total migration distance of the angled compared to the control animals (Tufts et al., 2000; Richard et al., 2014; Lennox et al., in press). The relatively high proportion (42\%) of S. salar that did not
return to or migrate further upstream of their release site suggests that C\&R may have reduced the migration distance for the $S$. salar in the present study as well. S. salar return to spawn in the same area where they spent their pre-smolt period (Heggberget et al., 1986, 1988), and failing to reach the intended area could potentially result in sublethal fitness consequences. The spatial arrangement of spawning redds has been demonstrated to impact densitydependent survival for juvenile $S$. salar on very small spatial scales (10-100 s of metres), with survival decreasing at higher densities of redds, probably due to juvenile competition (territoriality) and a cost (metabolic or predation) of dispersal (Einum \& Nislow, 2005). Hence, C\&R could potentially result in an increased local density-dependent mortality of juveniles in some areas due to the suppression of movements of spawning adults which could concentrate them in subset of the available breeding habitat.

In conclusion, $91 \%$ of the $S$. salar in this study survived $C \& R$ at water temperatures above $15^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (mean $18.2^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, range: $16.3-21.1^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ). A significant proportion of the caught and released S. salar did, however, show atypical behaviour after release with rapid downstream movements and delayed upstream migration. However, as most S. salar survived until spawning and were present at known spawning grounds, the results indicated that $C \& R$ at water temperatures up to at least $18{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ is a viable management tool, assuming that the observed atypical behaviour and possible physiological disturbances caused by C\&R did not have major negative reproductive effects. As hypothesized, the mortality of caught and released S. salar appeared to be slightly elevated at the higher end of the temperature range $\left(18-21^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)$, although the sample sizes and consequent statistical power to detect differences were relatively low. Further studies regarding how the atypical behaviour after release may affect individual reproduction, and to determine if local adaptions to different thermal
conditions also involve different tolerance levels to C\&R-stressors (as shown for Pacific salmon; Donaldson et al., 2010), are required to determine more precise impacts of C\&R angling.

The results in this and previous studies show that C\&R angling has the potential to result in mortalities, either in terms of seriously harmed fish being culled without being released or through mortalities after release. These losses should be accounted for by management authorities in rivers where $C \& R$ angling is pursued. It is likely that the negative impact of C\&R angling may be minimized through continued refinement and application of "best practices" for C\&R (Cooke \& Suski, 2005), particularly at higher water temperatures when small differences in fish handling are more likely to influence the outcome of the C\&R event (Arlinghaus et al., 2007).

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The study was financed by the Research Council of Norway, contract number 216416/O10, and by the County Governors of Vest-Agder and Aust-Agder. We thank J. Mosby, S. Philip, E. Odderstøl and I. Odderstøl whose extensive help in capturing, tagging and tracking the $S$. salar have been essential for our success. We also thank H . Endresen for facilitating the fieldwork, anglers and people at the Otra House for kind cooperation, and O. Diserud for help with statistical analyses. Cooke is supported by NSERC and the Canada Research Chairs Program and Cooke and Whoriskey are supported by Dalhousie University's Ocean Tracking Network.

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Tables

Table I Total number of caught, tagged and released Salmo salar in the two study years and the mortalities after C\&R.

|  | Average water | Number of |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | temperature $\pm \mathrm{SD}$ | tagged S. | Number of dead S. |  |
| Year | during C\&R $\left({ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)$ | salar | salar after C\&R | Mortality (\%) |
| 2012 | $17.3 \pm 0.7$ | 52 | 4 | 8 |
| 2013 | $20.0 \pm 0.5$ | 23 | 3 | 13 |
| Both years | $18.2 \pm 1.4$ | 75 | 7 | 9 |

Table II Median position for the S. salar that moved downstream during the first 4 days after $C \& R(n=48)$ in the two study years. The release cumulative proportion of $S$. salar that were recorded close to or upstream from the release site.

|  |  | Days after C\&R |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5-11 | 12-18 | 19-25 | 26-34 | 35-41 | 42-47 | 48-54 | 55-68 | 69-82 | 83-96 | 97-110 | 111-124 |
| 2012 | Number of tracked S. salar | 35 | 35 | 35 | 35 | 32 | 32 | 35 | 33 | 31 | 30 | 23 | 32 | 30 | 30 | 26 | 13 |
|  | Median position (m) | -504 | -589 | -600 | -589 | -649 | -584 | -589 | -433 | -433 | -508 | -433 | -200 | -368 | -188 | -186 | -71 |
|  | Interquartile range (m) | 695 | 1030 | 1112 | 1113 | 1068 | 1074 | 1213 | 1052 | 1403 | 1303 | 1763 | 1603 | 2523 | 2539 | 2106 | 2359 |
|  | Moved upstream (\%) | - | 0 | 14 | 23 | 37 | 49 | 60 | 74 | 74 | 83 | 86 | 89 | 91 | 94 | 94 | 100 |
|  | Returned to release site (\%) | - | 0 | 3 | 9 | 11 | 23 | 26 | 31 | 37 | 40 | 43 | 49 | 51 | 51 | 54 | 60 |
| 2013 | Number of tracked S. salar | 13 | 13 | 13 | 13 | 12 | 13 | 9 | 13 | - | 11 | - | 11 | 11 | 9 | 9 | 9 |
|  | Median position (m) | -321 | -400 | -394 | -400 | -358 | -321 | -441 | -324 | - | -424 | - | -697 | -522 | -433 | -232 | -136 |
|  | Interquartile range (m) | 294 | 144 | 262 | 382 | 270 | 346 | 1861 | 686 | - | 868 | - | 1259 | 2539 | 3687 | 4659 | 4354 |
|  | Moved upstream (\%) | - | 0 | 15 | 31 | 46 | 61 | 69 | 92 | - | 92 | - | 92 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
|  | Returned to release site (\%) | - | 0 | 0 | 8 | 15 | 15 | 23 | 31 | - | 31 | - | 31 | 38 | 46 | 54 | 54 |

Table III Parameter estimates from a general linear model explaining variation in the length of the downstream movement for $S$. salar that moved downstream within 4 days after $C \& R$.

|  | Estimate $\pm$ SE | T | P |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Intercept (newly ascended) | $10.59 \pm 2.17$ | 4.88 | $<0.001$ |
| Water temperature | $-0.22 \pm 0.12$ | -1.84 | 0.07 |
| Longer freshwater residency $^{1}$ | $-1.00 \pm 0.40$ | -2.51 | $<0.05$ |

Estimates are given on the log scale.
${ }^{1}$ Intercept of $S$. salar with a longer freshwater residency relative to newly ascended $S$. salar

## Figure captions

## Fig. 1

The River Otra in Norway. The anadromous stretch ends at Vigeland waterfall. Brackets show where fish were caught, tagged and released. The numbers and percentages show how many Salmo salar and the proportion of the total sample that was angled and tagged in the two sections of the river. The lower limit for known spawning areas of S. salar (Kroglund et al., 2008) is shown on the map.

Fig. 2 Water temperature in 2012 (solid line) and 2013 (dotted line) in the River Otra from 9 July-15 September both years. Date and temperature at release are shown for individual $S$. salar (dots for S. salar caught and released in 2012, triangles in 2013). Arrows identify S. salar that died after $C \& R$, while fish without arrows survived $C \& R$.

Fig. 3 Mortality rates after C\&R in different studies related to water temperature for S. salar (Tufts et al. 1991; Davidson et al. 1994; Booth et al. 1995; Brobbel et al. 1996; Wilkie et al.

1996, 1997; Anderson et al. 1998; Gowans et al. 1999; Mäkinen et al. 2000; Dempson et al. 2002; Kieffer et al. 2002; Thorstad et al. 2003, 2007; Halttunen et al. 2010; Jensen et al. 2010), including results from both years in this study. The values for temperature are given as the average temperature in studies where this is provided. If the temperature or mortality is provided as a range they are presented here as the central value. Triangles represent studies with radio tagged $S$. salar released back into the river environment, and dots studies which were laboratory-based or where the $S$. salar were confined in cages in the river after $C \& R$.


[^0]:    Havn, Torgeir Børresen; Uglem, Ingebrigt; Solem, Øyvind; Cooke, Steven J.; Whoriskey, Frederick G.; Thorstad, Eva Bonsak. The effect of catch-and-release angling at high water temperatures on behaviour and survival of Atlantic salmon Salmo salar during spawning migration. Journal of Fish Biology 2015 ;Volum 87.(2) s. 342-359 DOI: 10.1111/jfb.12722

