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## 5 **Dynamics of lake trout production in the main basin of Lake Huron**

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9 Ji X. He, James R. Bence, Charles P. Madenjian, Randall M. Claramunt

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18 **J. X. He** Michigan Department of Natural Resources, Lake Huron Fisheries Research  
19 Station, 160 East Fletcher Street, Alpena, Michigan 49707, USA ([hej@michigan.gov](mailto:hej@michigan.gov))

20 **J. R. Bence** Michigan State University, 13 Natural Resources Building, East Lansing,  
21 Michigan 48824, USA ([bence@msu.edu](mailto:bence@msu.edu))

22 **C. P. Madenjian.** U. S. Geological Survey, Great Lakes Science Center, 1451 Green  
23 Road, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48105, USA ([cmadenjian@usgs.gov](mailto:cmadenjian@usgs.gov))

24 **R. M. Claramunt.** Michigan Department of Natural Resources, Fisheries Division, 8258  
25 South Ayr Road, Alanson, MI 49706 ([ClaramuntR@michigan.gov](mailto:ClaramuntR@michigan.gov))

### 26 27 28 **Corresponding author:**

29 Ji X. He ([hej@michigan.gov](mailto:hej@michigan.gov); 989-356-3232 x2573; fax: 989-356-1951)

31 **Abstract:**

32 To inform lake trout (*Salvelinus namaycush*) fishery management in Lake Huron  
33 that has undergone rapid ecosystem changes, we quantified lake trout production  
34 dynamics by coupling age-structured stock assessment and fish bioenergetics models.  
35 Our approach revealed the connection between piscivore production and prey  
36 consumption, included growth compensation to reproduction losses, and allowed  
37 comparisons between long-term dynamics of fishery harvests and fish production. We  
38 found that despite the collapse of alewives, a major non-native pelagic prey fish, lake  
39 trout production appeared to be sustainable. To a certain degree, the effect of recent  
40 recruitment declines on lake trout production was offset by release of harvest pressure  
41 from subadult lake trout, and reduction of fishing and sea lamprey induced mortality on  
42 adult lake trout. Evidence for sustainability also included the finding that no changes in  
43 average ratios of annual production to beginning-of-the-year biomass. Juvenile P:B ratio  
44 remained as high as 2.1. The effect of growth declines on adult and subadult production  
45 was offset by reduction in population mortality. Body growth and condition did not  
46 continue to decline when lake trout became more and more reliant on round goby as food,  
47 and the dynamics of total consumption of prey fish continued to be recipient controlled.

48

49

50 **Key Words:** Fish production, Fisheries and ecosystem management, Salmonids, Stock  
51 assessment, Bioenergetics models

52

## 53 **Introduction**

54 Fish production is the ecological process that determines sustainable fishery yield  
55 (Mertz and Myers 1998). Fish production also plays a major role in structuring fish and  
56 invertebrate communities (Downing and Plante 1993). The production of apex predators  
57 in a food web, i.e., the piscivore production in an aquatic ecosystem, is crucial to shaping  
58 ecosystem structures and functions (Estes et al. 2010, 2011). Thus, when fishery harvests  
59 have substantial impacts on fish production (Repel et al. 2015), fishery management is  
60 also ecosystem management (Larkin 1996). These connections between fishery harvest  
61 and fish production can be further elucidated by studying dynamics of fish production.

62 Production of a fish population is typically formulated as a time-averaged  
63 measure with the concept that, to maintain a steady state, the combination of natural  
64 mortality and fishing mortality should equal the production to biomass (P:B) ratio (Mertz  
65 and Myers 1998). For an age structured fish population, this P:B ratio is the average  
66 growth rate weighted by biomass ratio of each age group to total population biomass:

$$67 \quad P = \sum_{age}^{max} \bar{B}_a \cdot G_a$$

68 where  $P$  stands for production,  $B_a$  stands for biomass of an age group, and  $G_a$  stands for  
69 growth rate of average individual fish in an age group. The ratio of annual production to  
70 the average biomass within a year is also believed to be approximately a constant for a  
71 fish species in a food web and habitat (Randall and Minns 2000; Hays et al. 2007).

72 The practice of fishery management, however, is more often about managing  
73 fisheries in a changing environment, where the average biomass within a year does not  
74 necessarily represent a balance between growth and mortality rates, and the ratio of  
75 annual production to the average biomass within a year does not necessarily represent the

76 turnover rate of a fish population. Thus, fishery management is much less about  
77 maintenance of a steady state, but more about adjusting to changes in stock size, such as  
78 stock depletion and recoveries, as well as to major changes in ecosystem structures and  
79 functions, e.g., regime shifts (Beamish et al. 1999; Scheffer et al. 2001).

80 To address this management challenge, we recognize two alternative options for  
81 the measure of biomass to be defined. Recall that annual production is a summation of  
82 daily production while fish abundance declines through a year. With the conventional  
83 measure of average biomass within a year (Ricker 1946; Chapman 1971; Repel et al.  
84 2015), the P:B ratio is always equal to the average growth rate of body mass. An  
85 alternative measure is beginning-of-the-year biomass. We used the alternative measure  
86 in this paper, to make P:B ratio adequately reflecting the process that, for a given level of  
87 recruitment, annual production can be altered by changes in body growth or changes in  
88 population mortality. A time-invariant average P:B ratio will indicate sustainability of  
89 the energy flows that are driven by environmental changes and can be altered also by  
90 fishery management and fishing mortality.

91 In the main basin of Lake Huron in North America, lake trout (*Salvelinus*  
92 *namaycush*) is the native top piscivore in cold water, and sustainability of lake trout  
93 production represents stability of the lake ecosystem (DesJardine et al. 1995). In the  
94 middle of the last century, the lake trout population collapsed (Hile 1949), due to  
95 predation by the invasive sea lamprey (*Petromyzon marinus*) and the fishery harvest that  
96 failed to be adaptive to the change that had a major impact on lake trout population  
97 dynamics. Since then, the loss of piscivore predation pressure on the prey fish  
98 community is regarded as a benchmark of decreases in ecosystem stability (Smith et al.  
99 1968; Estes et al. 2010). Concurrent with the control of sea lamprey abundance, a major

100 salmonine stocking program has helped to rebuild the lake trout population, along with  
101 the introduction of Pacific salmon to the lake (Eshenroder et al. 1995; Whelan and  
102 Johnson 2004; Claramunt et al. 2013). Recruitment of wild lake trout was rare when lake  
103 trout abundance was not sufficiently high, and the prey fish community was dominated  
104 by alewives (*Alosa pseudoharengus*). The detrimental impacts of alewives on lake trout  
105 natural reproduction and wild recruitment have been well recognized (Walters and  
106 Kitchell 2001; Madenjian et al. 2008a; Riley et al. 2011). By 2003, concurrent with the  
107 disruption of pelagic food web due to decreases in nutrient loads, and invasion and  
108 proliferation of dreissenid mussels, piscivore abundance and predation pressure continued  
109 to increase. These conditions led to a crash in the alewife population (Riley et al. 2008;  
110 Barbiero et al. 2011; He et al. 2015), followed by lake wide increases in recruitment of  
111 wild lake trout, but also major declines in post-stocking survival of hatchery stocked lake  
112 trout yearlings (He et al. 2012; Johnson et al. 2015).

113 Major piscivores in the main basin of Lake Huron also include walleye (*Sander*  
114 *vitreus*), and Chinook salmon (*Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*). The main basin walleye  
115 mostly come from Saginaw Bay, and about 50% of Saginaw Bay walleye feed in the  
116 main basin (Hayden et al. 2014; Fielder and Bence 2014). Chinook salmon used to be the  
117 dominant piscivore since the 1970s and contributed over 70% of total piscivore biomass  
118 in the 1980s. After the collapse of alewives, however, Chinook salmon contribution to  
119 total piscivore biomass decreased to only about 13% (He et al. 2015), and more than 80%  
120 of Lake Huron Chinook salmon started to consume prey fish in Lake Michigan before  
121 they returned and spawned in the tributaries to Lake Huron (Clark et al. 2016). Lake  
122 trout has resumed its place as the keystone piscivore in the main basin of Lake Huron.  
123 The contribution by lake trout to total piscivore biomass and total consumption of prey

124 fish increased from below 20% in the 1980s to near 50% by 2002 and over 70% by 2010  
125 (He et al. 2015).

126         With all of these profound changes in the ecosystem, fishery managers have  
127 become concerned that lake trout abundance might have exceeded carrying capacity of  
128 the lake even though the abundance is still below the historical level prior to the collapse  
129 in the middle of the 20th century. Fishery management, however, has continued to build  
130 on the early recommendation that a maximum annual mortality of 40-45% was  
131 sustainable for lake trout in North America, including the Great Lakes (Healey 1978;  
132 Nieland et al. 2008). Madenjian et al. (2013) have reviewed the most recent trophic shift  
133 in Lake Huron. He et al. (2015) have described the shift as from a pelagic energy  
134 pathway to a benthic energy pathway. From previous investigations, He et al. (2015)  
135 have also suggested that recent abundance declines of pelagic prey fish, such as the  
136 alewife and rainbow smelt (*Osmerus mordax*), may not be the end of non-stationary  
137 variations of Lake Huron food web. Thus, an evaluation of Lake Huron carrying capacity  
138 for lake trout can be confounded by profound changes over time in the ecosystem.

139         The real challenge to managing fisheries in Lake Huron is indeed the continued  
140 ecosystem change. We interpret the carrying capacity concern as a question about  
141 sustainability of lake trout population and lake trout fisheries. Such sustainability is  
142 influenced by both environmental change and fisheries management (Larkin 1996). Our  
143 objective in this paper is to determine what are the major impacts of recent ecosystem  
144 changes on lake trout, and to understand how the production of adult lake trout has been  
145 developed and sustained during the recent rapid ecosystem changes.

146

## 147 **Materials and methods**

148           We estimated annual production by coupling age structured stock assessment and  
149 fish bioenergetics models. In comparison with commonly used methods, such as the  
150 Instantaneous Growth Rate Method and the Increment Summation Method (Ricker 1946;  
151 Chapman 1971; Newman and Martin 1983; Hayes et al. 2007), our approach has three  
152 major advantages. The first is to realize the close connection between fish production  
153 and prey consumption. The second is to explicitly take account of growth changes within  
154 a year and growth compensation to reproduction losses. The third is not to assume a  
155 steady state from very limited sampling events. We quantified long-term dynamics of  
156 fish production and made direct comparisons between annual fishery harvests and fish  
157 production.

158           Building on the previous development (He et al. 2015, 2016), we focused on the  
159 time period from 1985 through 2016. Data sources included commercial and recreational  
160 fisheries, and fishery independent surveys. The commercial fishing effort and lake trout  
161 harvests were dominated by large-mesh gillnetting, and additional harvests from trap nets  
162 and small-mesh gillnets were added to total annual catch in stock assessment (Brown et  
163 al. 1999; Brenden et al. 2013). The recreational fishing effort and lake trout catch were  
164 estimated from Michigan waters since 1985 (Su and Clapp 2013; Su and He 2013). The  
165 fishery independent surveys used graded-mesh gill nets and were conducted in late April  
166 through June, from the mouth of St. Marys River at northern end of the lake to the port of  
167 Port Sanilac near southern end of the lake (He 2019). Hundreds of lake trout samples  
168 from each of the three data sources every year had their ages assigned. For hatchery  
169 stocked lake trout without a coded-wire tag, age assignments were based on a six-year  
170 cycle of fin clips before 2012, and a combination of fin-clip and a maxilla or otolith

171 method in recent years. Scales were used in early years to estimate ages of juvenile wild  
172 lake trout, and maxillae or otoliths were used in recent years to estimate ages of all wild  
173 lake trout (Wellenkamp et al. 2015). Biomass-based diet compositions were measured  
174 periodically from lake trout samples of commercial gillnetting and recreational fisheries,  
175 and every year since 1996 from samples of fishery independent annual surveys (Diana  
176 1990; Dobiesz 2003; Madenjian et al. 2006; Roseman et al. 2014). In this study,  
177 following He et al. (2015), all measures from individual fish were summarized for three  
178 lake trout size groups: <400 mm, 400-600 mm, and >600 mm, although the differences  
179 between the last two size groups were almost negligible in the most recent years (e.g.,  
180 Katie Kierczynski and Brian Roth, Michigan State University, unpublished data).

181         He et al (2015) have provided a schematic presentation of our models. Below and  
182 in the subsections followed, we describe specifics of each model component for the  
183 synthesis of production dynamics. The main basin of Lake Huron was divided into two  
184 regions (He 2019). For the descriptions of lake wide status and trends, we summarized  
185 population biomass, production, and total consumption from modeling syntheses  
186 conducted in each of the two regions. We also rederived growth indices by fitting growth  
187 and length-mass models using lake-wide data without distinguishing the two regions as  
188 we did when fitting the models to derive inputs for stock assessment and lake trout  
189 bioenergetics models. The growth and length-mass models were based on data from  
190 annual fishery independent spring surveys that the survey design aimed at making sample  
191 distribution closely reflecting lake trout distribution in the lake (He 2019).

192



193 *Time-varying status of average individual lake trout*

194 Body mass at age was used for applying the fish bioenergetics model, and for  
195 calculating biomass. The body mass was calculated from body length at age, using a  
196 power function with time varying coefficient and exponent (He et al. 2008):

197 
$$W_{y,a} = a_y \cdot L_{y,a}^{b_y} \quad (1)$$

198 where the length at age ( $L_{y,a}$ ) was from a von Bertalanffy growth function (VBGF) with  
199 time-varying parameters. The time-varying VBGF was fitted to length-at-age data and  
200 described how cohort-specific growth changed every year (He and Bence 2007):

201 
$$L_{y,a} = L_{y-1,a-1} + (L_{y,\infty} - L_{y-1,a-1})(1 - e^{-k_{y,a}}) \quad a > g + 1 \quad (2a)$$

202 
$$k_{y,a} = -\ln(\rho_{y,a}) \quad (2b)$$

203 
$$\rho_{y,a} = \frac{L_{y,\infty} - L_{y-a+g+1,g+1}}{L_{y,\infty} - L_{y-a+g,g}} \quad (2c)$$

204 where the Ford-Walford slope  $\rho$  and growth coefficient  $k$  were determined by asymptotic  
205 length  $L_\infty$  and body lengths ( $L$ ) at the two youngest ages,  $g$  and  $g+1$  (He and Stewart  
206 2002). The body lengths ( $L$ ) at the two youngest ages were estimated to vary among year  
207 classes, and the asymptotic length  $L_\infty$  was estimated to vary among years.

208 The average total length at an age and year was estimated against observations of  
209 individual total length at the age and year (He and Bence 2007). The average body mass  
210 at an age and year was estimated against observations of individual body mass at the age  
211 and year (He et al. 2008). The model implementation and the evaluation of model  
212 estimates in a Bayesian framework were also reported in He et al. (2016). We used the  
213 models to describe total length and body mass at age 2 and older based on data from  
214 fishery independent annual spring gillnetting surveys (He 2019). Total length at age 1  
215 was assumed to be a constant over years at a value of 120 mm, and the over-year vector

216 of average body mass at age 1 was calculated based on the model estimated time-varying  
217 length-mass relationships.

218 Maturity schedules were determined by body size and body growth at age, based  
219 on analyses of logistic regression (Appendix 1) with fishery independent survey data up  
220 to 2010 (Bence et al. 2010). Annual sample sizes of recent data were not adequate for  
221 updating the analyses but allowed us to conduct empirical calculation for some age  
222 groups. Based on the empirical calculation available, we assumed that lake trout maturity  
223 schedule in recent years did not change from previous predictions of the latest model.

224 Time-varying growth parameters were used also as indices to track lake trout  
225 responses to ecosystem changes. Length at beginning of ages 2 and 3 were growth  
226 indices for juveniles (age 1-2) that depend on consumption of invertebrates. After age 3,  
227 length at age is determined by cohort-specific growth histories and year-specific growth  
228 potential (Equations 3). Thus, asymptotic length and the body mass at a length of 700  
229 mm were indices for adult and subadult lake trout that depend on consumption of prey  
230 fish. In this paper, we emphasized the body mass at 700 mm of total length because its  
231 turning point corresponded to the 2003 collapse of alewives, and only adult growth  
232 indices were influenced by declines in the alewife and rainbow smelt abundances (He and  
233 Bence 2007; He et al. 2008, 2016).

234

#### 235 *Time-varying status of lake trout population*

236 Age-specific abundance and mortality were needed for estimating annual  
237 production and consumption of prey fish, and for calculating population biomass and P:B  
238 ratios. The abundance and mortality matrices were estimated from statistical catch at age

239 assessments. The total instantaneous mortality  $Z$  was year- and age-specific, and the  
 240 value was equal to the sum of four sources of mortality.

$$241 \quad Z_{y,a} = F_{c_{y,a}} + F_{r_{y,a}} + M_{s_{y,a}} + M_{b_a} \quad (3)$$

242 Background natural mortality ( $M_{b_a}$ ) for age 3 and older was estimated as a constant,  
 243 using a log scale prior mean of  $\ln(0.1)$  from Brenden et al. (2011). The sea lamprey  
 244 induced mortality rates ( $M_{s_{y,a}}$ ) was estimated from wounding rate

$$245 \quad M_{s_{y,a}} = \omega_{L_{y,a}} \frac{1-p_s}{p_s} \quad (4)$$

246 where,  $\omega$  is the number of wounds per fish in spring each year (April-June), and  $p_s$  is the  
 247 probability that a fish survives an attack (Madenjian et al. 2008b). Wounding rate was  
 248 observed specific to lake trout with a given length at year and age ( $L_{y,a}$ ) and was  
 249 estimated as a logistic function of body length (Rutter and Bence 2003). The estimated  
 250 value was converted to year and age-specific rates based on annual distribution of length  
 251 at a given age.

252 Commercial fishing mortality ( $F_{c_{y,a}}$ ) and recreational fishing mortality ( $F_{r_{y,a}}$ )  
 253 differed from each other in the measure of fishing effort, as well as catchability and  
 254 selectivity. Equations 5-7 below were applied separately by fishery, although the  
 255 subscript for fishery is suppressed. In general, a fishing mortality ( $F_{y,a}$ ) was calculated as  
 256 a product of annual fishing effort ( $E_y$ ), catchability ( $q_y$ ), and age-specific selectivity ( $S_{y,a}$ ):

$$257 \quad F_{y,a} = E_y \cdot q_y \cdot S_{y,a} \quad (5)$$

258 Fishing efforts were taken from fishery data. Catchability was estimated as a first order  
 259 autoregressive process, reflecting changes in fish distribution over years along with  
 260 changes in the food web:

$$261 \quad q_y = e^{\overline{\ln q} + \rho(\ln q_{y-1} - \overline{\ln q}) + \phi_y} \quad (6)$$

262 where  $\overline{\ln q}$  is the average of log scale catchability  $q$ ,  $\rho$  is the autocorrelation coefficient,  
 263 and  $\psi$  is the deviation from the autoregressive process on log scale and was assumed to  
 264 follow a normal distribution with a mean of zero. Note that when  $\rho$  equals zero, the  
 265 process on log scale will be reduced to an average plus white noise error, and when  $\rho$   
 266 equals 1.0, the process on log scale will be simplified as a random walk (Schnute 1994).

267 Selectivity was estimated as a normal function of log scale body length at age:

$$268 \quad S_{y,a} = \frac{1}{\sigma_y \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\ln(L_{y,a}) - \mu)^2}{2\sigma_y^2}\right) \quad (7)$$

269 where,  $\sigma_y$  is the standard deviation in year  $y$  that determines the shape of a dome-shaped  
 270 function of log scale fish length.  $L_{y,a}$  is the mean length at age  $a$  in year  $y$ . When the log  
 271 scale body length is equal to  $\mu$ , selectivity is at the peak of the dome-shaped curve. The  
 272 peak parameter was estimated on log scale  $\mu = e^{\ln(\mu)}$  and the shape parameter  $\sigma_y$  was  
 273 modeled to change over year as random walk (Equation 6 with  $\rho=1$ ).

274 Population numbers at year and age were projected with the assumption of  
 275 exponential mortality

$$276 \quad N_{y+1,a+1} = N_{y,a} e^{-Z_{y,a}} \quad (8)$$

277 The maximum age was set as 30 based on observations from fisheries and surveys, and  
 278 recruitment was estimated at age 3, as a random walk:

$$279 \quad N_{y,3} = e^{\ln(N_{y_1,3})} \quad \text{if } y = y_1 \quad (9a)$$

$$280 \quad N_{y,3} = e^{\ln(N_{y-1,3}) + \psi_y} \quad \text{if } y > y_1 \quad (9b)$$

281 where  $\psi$  is a deviation that describes how much the log scale recruitment changes each  
 282 year from the previous year. Those log scale deviations were assumed to follow a normal  
 283 distribution with zero mean.

284 Overall, the estimation of number and mortality at age and year, along with  
285 estimation of fishery parameters, were based on modeling fits to annual harvests of  
286 commercial and recreational fisheries, catch per unit effort of the fishery independent  
287 surveys, and age composition from each of these three data sources. The model  
288 implementation and evaluation in a Bayesian framework was first reported in Sitar et al.  
289 (1999). Since then, the original model was improved and evaluated continuously, and  
290 was used in fishery management annually, particularly in the 1836 Treaty ceded waters  
291 (United States v. Michigan. 2000; Truesdell and Bence 2016). Note that the fits to age  
292 composition allowed the model to track every year class and estimate recruitment. Each  
293 of the three data sources also included hatchery-versus-wild composition based on fin-  
294 clips applied to all hatchery stocked lake trout. Our model also fitted the wild-ratio-at-  
295 age data with the assumption that adult and subadult mortalities were the same for  
296 hatchery stocked and wild lake trout, and the wild ratio should be the same over years  
297 and ages (age 3 and older) for a given year class. Thus, the estimates of recruitment at  
298 age 3 were allocated between hatchery stocked and wild lake trout.

299 To characterize long-term rehabilitation of the lake trout population and the  
300 development of lake trout fisheries, we also calculated average age of fishery harvest lake  
301 wide. An average age was calculated first separately for commercial and recreational  
302 fishery in northern and southern Lake Huron, and standard deviation was estimated by  
303 using the assessment model that fitted age composition for each fishery every year. The  
304 average age of overall fisheries lake wide was calculated as a harvest-number weighted  
305 average age, and its standard error was the square-root of the sum of variances of the  
306 components.

307           Numbers at ages 1 and 2 were not estimated directly from the recent catch-at-age  
308 assessments. In some of earlier years, when recruitment was mostly from hatchery  
309 stocking of age-1 lake trout, the mortality rates at age 1 and 2 were estimated as size  
310 dependent based on Gislason et al. (2010), plus the estimated random effects of stocking  
311 event. Based on those early assessments, we assumed in the current study that the  
312 survival rate from age 2 to age 3 was a constant of 0.75 and the survival rate from age 1  
313 to age 2 was a constant of 0.40, and thus the numbers at ages 1 and 2 were back  
314 calculated from number at age 3. Potential deviation from the assumed average survival  
315 rates will not influence the estimates of over-year patterns of juvenile abundance,  
316 biomass, production, and food consumption (mostly invertebrates), because the vector of  
317 recruitments at age 3 was estimated from the assessment model.

318

#### 319 *Implementation of fish bioenergetics model of lake trout*

320           Daily growth ( $\Delta W_{y,a,d}$ ) and daily food consumption ( $C_{y,a,d}$ ) were estimated from  
321 simulation of lake trout bioenergetics model that was used to fit body mass changes from  
322 one year and age to the next year and age. Structures, parameters, and implementation of  
323 the lake trout bioenergetics model have been well documented (Stewart et al. 1983; He  
324 and Stewart 1998, Madenjian and O'Connor 1999), although a new evaluation and  
325 synthesis with the recent Bayesian framework on parameter and estimate uncertainty is  
326 desirable. Environmental variables for applying the model to Lake Huron lake trout were  
327 taken from He et al. (2015), along with samples and data analyzed in more recent years  
328 using the same methods. It was assumed that lake trout use of thermal habitats  
329 (temperature profile within a year) did not change over time. At each daily step of the  
330 model simulation, diet composition was assigned based on the initial body length for the

331 day that was calculated from initial body mass based on the time-varying length-mass  
332 relationships (Equation 1). Invertebrates contributed a large proportion to the diet of lake  
333 trout <400 mm, and prey fish contribution to the diet was modeled as linear functions of  
334 body length for lake trout in this size group. As detailed in He et al (2015) and citations  
335 therein, there were changes in energy density of lake trout and major prey fish species  
336 over time, although there was no evidence to suggest further changes after 2010.

337

### 338 *The synthesis of production dynamics*

339 Our coupling of population dynamics and fish bioenergetics did not use a constant  
340 population trajectory or a constant individual growth trajectory. Elements of the dynamic  
341 processes, such as mortality and growth, were cohort specific in a time-varying  
342 environment. Our models tracked these elements of all cohorts from one year and age to  
343 the next year and age. For computation and data fitting of the time-varying growth  
344 model, the time-varying length-mass model, the statistical catch-at-age assessments, and  
345 the bioenergetics simulation of every age and year interval, we used AD Model Builder  
346 (Fournier et al 2012; He et al. 2015, 2016).

347 Annual summary as described below was done for each of three age groups:  
348 juvenile (ages 1-2), subadults (ages 3-5) and adults (age 6+), because fish production and  
349 P:B ratio are typically dependent on body size and whether a fish is reproducing. Age-0  
350 lake trout were not included, because the estimation of age-0 abundance, production and  
351 food consumption would require another large set of investigations. We included  
352 reproduction in the calculation of production. We followed the assumption that male to  
353 female ratio was 1:1, and mature lake trout on average lost 6.8% of body mass at  
354 spawning on the 20th of October (Stewart et al. 1983). This loss to reproduction was

355 recompensed when body mass was simulated to grow from one year and age to the next  
 356 year and age. The biomass was summarized on the 1st of May, which was also day 1 for  
 357 annual summaries of production and food consumption, because fishery independent data  
 358 were collected from the annual spring surveys (He 2019).

359 From the estimates of number ( $N_{y,a}$ ) and body mass ( $W_{y,a}$ ) at year and age,  
 360 biomass at the beginning of a year ( $B_y$ ) was calculated as:

$$361 \quad B_y = \sum_{age} N_{y,a} \cdot W_{y,a} \quad (10)$$

362 Annual production ( $P_y$ ) and annual food consumption ( $C_y$ ) were summarized from daily  
 363 growth of body mass ( $\Delta W_{y,a,d}$ ) and daily food consumption ( $C_{y,a,d}$ ) as estimated from  
 364 simulations of lake trout bioenergetics model:

$$365 \quad P_y = \sum_{age} \sum_{d=1}^{365} N_{y,a,d} \times \Delta W_{y,a,d} \quad (11)$$

$$366 \quad C_y = \sum_{age} \sum_{d=1}^{365} N_{y,a,d} \times C_{y,a,d} \quad (12)$$

367 The number at age every day in a year ( $N_{y,a,d}$ ) was calculated with the assumption that  
 368 total mortality ( $Z$ ) was a constant over time for a given age within a year:

$$369 \quad N_{y,a,d} = N_{y,a} \times e^{\left(-\frac{day}{365}\right) \times Z_{y,a}} \quad (13)$$

370 We assumed normal distribution for biomass, production and total consumption.

371 The variance of a summary of biomass,  $V(\hat{B})$ , was calculated as:

$$372 \quad V(\hat{B}) = \sum_{age} \left[ \bar{w}_a^2 V(\hat{N}_a) + \hat{N}_a^2 V(\bar{w}_a) - V(\hat{N}_a)V(\bar{w}_a) \right] \quad (14)$$

373 where the variance of an estimated number at age,  $V(\hat{N}_a)$ , for age 3 and older, was from  
 374 SD report of the assessment model. The variance of average body mass at age,  $V(\bar{w}_a)$ ,  
 375 for age 2 and older, was from SD report of the length-mass relation model. For



376 calculating standard deviation and variance of some model components and some overall  
377 estimates (Table 1), we also applied the general variance property that, with a constant  $b$ :

$$378 \quad \quad \quad sd(bX) = |b|sd(X) \quad \quad \quad (15)$$

379 Overall, very similar approximations of variances were used also in Bence et al. (2016).

380

## 381 **Results**

### 382 *Biomass and body mass*

383         A major turning point was that juvenile biomass dramatically declined in 2003  
384 (Figure 1). The peak of juvenile biomass in 2001 led to the peak of subadult biomass in  
385 2003, and the peak of adult biomass in 2006-2007. Prior to 2008, over 77% of variation  
386 in adult biomass was explained by juvenile biomass with a five-year time lag, and over  
387 88% of the variation was explained by subadult biomass with a three-year time lag. The  
388 2003 sharp decline in juvenile biomass was closely followed by rapid decline in subadult  
389 biomass, but a large decline in adult biomass did not occur until 2014, although the 95%  
390 probability interval for the estimates of adult biomass increased since 2003.

391         The timing of the turning point was also approximated by the timing of a  
392 substantial decline in body mass at 700 mm of total length, and no density effect on this  
393 measure of condition was detected (Figure 1d). In the plot of the body mass of a 700-mm  
394 lake trout versus biomass of adult and subadult lake trout, the slopes were negligible ( $p >$   
395  $0.6$ ), when two intercepts were estimated separately for two time periods. AIC  
396 comparison did not support the use of a single regression line ( $-22$  vs  $-36$ ), in comparison  
397 with the use of two intercepts or averages for each of the two periods of years, which  
398 were sufficiently different from one another ( $p < 0.0002$ ) to warrant a horizontal line fit  
399 for the period of 1985-2001 and a second horizontal line fit for the period of 2002-2016.

400

401 *Consumption and P:B ratios*

402         After the collapse of alewives, annual total consumption continued to be the same  
403 linear function of the biomass of adult and subadult lake trout (Figure 2a), and the same  
404 linear function of adult and subadult production (Figure 2b). Thus, the decline in total  
405 consumption (Figure 2c) was recipient controlled, rather than donor controlled, although  
406 the contribution of major prey fish changed (Figure 2d). The total annual consumption  
407 was mostly of alewives and rainbow smelts before 2003, then mostly rainbow smelt and  
408 round goby (*Neogobius melanostomus*), and almost exclusively goby after 2014. The  
409 total annual consumption of rainbow smelt showed substantial variations since 2003.

410         Most of variation in lake trout production was explained by lake trout biomass,  
411 and the ratio of annual production to beginning-of-the-year biomass did not change after  
412 the alewife collapse ( $p > 0.1$ ; Figure 3). For adult lake trout (age  $> 5$ ), biomass  
413 explained 79% of variation in production, and the P:B ratio averaged 0.22. For subadults  
414 (ages 3-5), biomass explained 67% of variation in production, and the P:B ratio averaged  
415 0.46. For juveniles (ages 1-2), over 74% of variation in production was explained by  
416 biomass, and the average P:B ratio was as high as 2.1.

417         Based on the average age of fishery harvests (Figure 3d), adult and subadult  
418 production and P:B ratios were influenced by fishery harvests. Juvenile production and  
419 P:B ratio were influenced only by the natural mortality. Sea lamprey predation also did  
420 not influence juvenile production and P:B ratio because juvenile body size was small and  
421 sea lamprey predation rate depends on lake trout size.

422         The time-invariant average P:B ratios for adult and subadult lake trout implied  
423 substantial reduction in fishing and sea lamprey induced mortalities. Otherwise, adult

424 and subadult production and P:B ratios should reflect the negative impact of substantial  
425 declines in body growth and condition (e.g., Figure 1d). Among-year variations of adult  
426 P:B ratio substantially increased after 2002 (Figure 3a), which was associated with the  
427 fact that fishery harvest became mostly from adult lake trout after 2002 (Figure 3d). This  
428 was consistent with the findings that a large decline in adult biomass was delayed until  
429 2014, but uncertainty of biomass estimates increased since 2003 (Figure 1a-c).

430

### 431 *Production and fishery harvest*

432 Juvenile, subadult, and adult production showed distinct patterns over time  
433 (Figure 4). The dynamics of subadult production followed the dynamics of juvenile  
434 production, which peaked in 2000. Both subadult and adult productions, as well as  
435 fishery yield, steadily declined to the lowest point by 1992, when fishery harvest was  
436 mostly from subadult lake trout, and fishery yield was about the same as subadult  
437 production. From 1992 through the early 2000s, when fishery yield from subadult lake  
438 trout was far less than subadult production, adult biomass and production steadily  
439 increased. The peak of adult production was in 2010, 3-4 years after the peak of adult  
440 biomass. This was because adult production included reproduction, adult mortality was  
441 sufficiently low, and lake trout older than age 6 had higher maturity and fecundity.

442 During 2004-2016, subadult production decreased to a very low level, but the  
443 pressure of fishery harvest was released from subadult lake trout. Adult production  
444 remained relatively stable and even continued to increase slowly, when fishery yield was  
445 less than adult production. The extended long period of low juvenile and subadult  
446 production, however, plus the occasionally excessive harvest, appeared to have delayed  
447 effect on adult production.

448

## 449 **Discussion**

### 450 *Impacts of food-web changes and sustainability of lake trout production*

451           There were complex interactions in the fish community along with rapid changes  
452 in the food web. Prior to the ultimate collapse of alewives in 2003, the alewife  
453 population blocked the recruitment and production of wild lake trout (Walters and  
454 Kitchell 2001; Madenjian et al. 2008a; Riley et al. 2011), but abundant alewives and  
455 rainbow smelts also functioned as a predation buffer during the events of hatchery  
456 stocking to protect hatchery-stocked age-1 and age-0 lake trout (Johnson et al. 2015).  
457 After the alewife collapse, the increases in recruitment of wild lake trout so far did not  
458 fully compensate the loss of stocked recruitment (He 2019). Also, following the major  
459 declines in the abundance of pelagic prey fish such as alewives and rainbow smelt since  
460 the middle 1990s, the growth and body condition of adult and subadult lake trout  
461 substantially declined (He and Bence 2007; He et al. 2008, 2016).

462           Lake trout adult biomass and production continued to increase after the collapse  
463 of alewives in 2003. Adult biomass reached its peak in 2006-2007, adult production  
464 peaked in 2010, and lake wide large declines did not occur until 2013-2014. Prior to  
465 2008, increases in adult biomass were mostly explained by strong year classes of  
466 hatchery-stocked recruitment. Thereafter, the effect of recruitment decline was offset to a  
467 certain degree by reduction in mortality, including the nearly complete release of harvest  
468 pressure from subadult lake trout, and reduction of fishing and sea lamprey induced  
469 mortality of adult lake trout.

470           Lake trout production appeared to be sustainable as evidenced also by the lack of  
471 changes in average P:B ratios. The effect of growth decline on adult and subadult

472 production was fully offset by reduction in population mortality, while body growth and  
473 body condition did not continue to decline when lake trout became more and more reliant  
474 on round goby as food. Potential density effects on lake trout growth were still  
475 negligible, and the dynamics of total consumption continued to be recipient controlled,  
476 rather than donor controlled.

477         The lesson is that fishery management may not have much control on  
478 environmental changes, but has major impact on mortality, and thus on fish production.  
479 Prior to 2000, based on Johnson et al. (2004, 2015), lake trout age range from fisheries  
480 was 3-13 years, model estimated annual mortality at the age of peak selectivity was in the  
481 range 45-63% in southern Lake Huron and 45-83% in northern Lake Huron. Since 2000,  
482 lake trout age range from fisheries rapidly increased to 3-24 years, annual mortality at the  
483 peak selectivity was in the range 32-45% in southern Lake Huron, and 26-30% in  
484 northern Lake Huron, far below the maximum limit of 40-45% that was believed to be  
485 sustainable when the recruitment and growth of lake trout were relatively stable. The  
486 large reduction in mortality, particularly in northern Lake Huron, was because of  
487 reduction in sea lamprey induced mortality and effective fishery regulation that was a  
488 combination of harvest quota and the establishment of no-fishing zones and large areas of  
489 no commercial fishing zones (He 2019).

490         A large decline in adult biomass finally occurred in 2014, after a delay of more  
491 than 10 years. Thus, aggressive control of sea lamprey induced mortality and fishing  
492 mortality will continue to be crucial for maintaining and further expanding the biomass  
493 and production of adult lake trout. A serious concern is whether the fixed harvest control  
494 rule, i.e., annual mortality of 40-45%, will continue to be closely implemented in the  
495 future. Relaxation of the harvest control will likely lead to a downward trend in adult

496 biomass and production, unless recruitment increases to such a level as to fully  
497 compensate for the expected increase in fishing mortality. Our findings also imply that  
498 the annual mortality might need to be further reduced unless substantial increases in  
499 recruitment occur soon.

500         The juvenile P:B ratio was not influenced by fishing and sea lamprey induced  
501 mortality and the ratio remained as high as 2.1. From this result, we expect that natural  
502 reproduction and wild recruitment will continue to increase. We also caution managers  
503 to proceed with care in making decisions to fully terminate lake trout stocking, because  
504 changes in Lake Huron food web are still ongoing, the dynamics of lake trout recruitment  
505 is uncertain, and a constant source of recruitment has been a key factor for the success of  
506 lake trout rehabilitation in Lake Huron. We recommend that stocking success in the  
507 current food-web condition can be improved with adequate use of temporal and spatial  
508 heterogeneity of the food-web and habitat conditions. In Lake Huron, commercial  
509 fishing efforts were still mostly driven by the harvests of lake whitefish (*Coregonus*  
510 *clupeaformis*), rather than lake trout. The hatchery component of lake trout recruitment  
511 may contribute substantially to protecting wild lake trout from fishery harvests, by  
512 reducing migration of wild lake trout along the gradient of lake trout density, and  
513 reducing the population sink in southern Lake Huron where the strength of wild  
514 recruitment has become much weaker than northern Lake Huron (He 2019).

515

#### 516 *Managing fisheries with non-stationary ecosystem variations*

517         It is well known that a sustainable fishery yield should be less than fish  
518 production (Leach et al. 1987; Downing and Plante 1993; Mertz and Myers 1998), but  
519 this principle has not been used routinely in fishery management. Applications of the

520 surplus production model were not built on the reality that fish populations are age  
521 structured (Polacheck et al. 1993; Prager 2002; Maunder 2003), and practical harvest  
522 control rules were developed and applied mostly based on stock-recruitment relationship  
523 (Mace 1994; Deroba and Bence 2008; Rothschild and Jiao 2009). When an ecosystem  
524 undergoes major changes in structure and function, and recruitment variations are non-  
525 stationary, general guidance for using a consistent management strategy to conduct a  
526 timely fishery regulation is much less clear (Jiao 2009), because the near future  
527 recruitment is essentially unknown, and recognizing a new ecosystem and stock-  
528 recruitment regime always requires time. While we cannot exhaust all different  
529 approaches to evaluating how production and biomass relate to each other, we agree with  
530 that evaluating production versus stock size is an informative complement to the  
531 evaluation of sustainable harvests based on stock-recruitment relationships (Jacobson et  
532 al. 2001; MacCall (2002).

533         From our model development and application, we described fish population  
534 dynamics in terms of production, not just in number and biomass. The results have  
535 allowed us to directly compare fishery harvest to lake trout production in the main basin  
536 of Lake Huron. When the average age of annual harvest is 5 and younger, if the fishery  
537 yield is less than 50% of the recent three-year average of subadult production, adult  
538 biomass and production should increase rapidly. When the average age of annual harvest  
539 is 6 and older, if the fishery yield is less than 50% of the recent three-year average of  
540 adult production, adult biomass and production should be stable or continue to increase.  
541 Note that in the above two scenarios, fish production is already influenced by fishing  
542 mortality and sea lamprey predation mortality. The potential of maximum production  
543 can be quantified through simulations with a range of combinations of natural mortality

544 and sea lamprey induced mortality. The simulations could also include potential density  
545 dependent growth when a relationship is supported by data (e.g. Lorenzen and Enberg,  
546 2001). Regardless of the status of an ecosystem, the principle that fishery harvest should  
547 be less than fish production can be routinely implemented in fishery management.  
548



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557

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791 **Table 1.** Calculations using the general variance property of Equation 15 which relates  
 792 the standard deviation of a quantity  $bX$  to the standard deviation for  $X$ . The first  
 793 three calculations were inputs to the summary using Equation 14. The values of  
 794 0.75 and 0.4 were assumed annual survival rates.

<b>sd (bX)</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>Source of sd(X)</b>
SD of number at age 2	1/0.75	SD of number at age 3 from SD report of statistical catch at age assessment
SD of number at age 1	1/0.40	SD of number at age 2 as calculated above
SD of body mass at age 1	$(\bar{w}_{y,1}/\bar{w}_{y+1,2})$	SD of mean body mass in year (y+1) from SD report of time-varying length-mass model
SD of annual production	year-specific P:B ratio	SD of beginning-of-the-year biomass from Equation 14
SD of annual consumption	year-specific C:B ratio	SD of beginning-of-the-year biomass from Equation 15

795

796

797 **Appendix 1** A summary of Bence et al. (2010). Changing patterns of maturity schedules  
798 of lake trout in Lake Huron.

799 The probability of maturity ( $P$ ) was modeled using a logistic relationship:

$$800 \quad P = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-Z)}$$

801 where  $Z$  is a linear predictor function:

$$802 \quad Z = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + \dots + b_kX_k$$

803 and the  $X_i$  are the values of predictor variables such as fish age or length. This is the  
804 standard model and assumed distribution for logistic regression, and parameter estimation  
805 was accomplished using the R statistical programming language and the glm function  
806 with the “binomial family” specified. We considered alternative models that included  
807 different subsets of the predictor variables and we evaluated these alternative models  
808 based on Akaike’s Information Criterion (AIC). We used MDNR Spring gillnetting  
809 survey database that provided biological data on over 56 thousand individual fish from  
810 1976 through 2008. Biological data that are routinely collected include age, length (mm),  
811 mass (kg), and maturity status, although not all variables were recorded for each fish.

812 Our first set of logistic regressions considered maturity to be a function of fish age  
813 (year), total length (mm), body mass (kg), and condition factor (unitless). The analysis  
814 only included fish samples that had no missing values for the Base4 variables (male  
815  $n=24,442$ ; female  $n=21,475$ ). For each sex, we evaluated all possible models with  
816 different combinations of predictor variables.

817 Our second set of analyses added three region-and-year specific average growth  
818 variables to the best model from the Base4 analysis. These average growth variables  
819 included the increment in length (LI), the increment in body mass (WI), and the  
820 instantaneous growth rate of body mass (G). Average length at age was based on a fitted

821 time-varying von Bertalanffy model (He and Bence 2007). Average body mass was  
822 calculated by applying a mass versus length power function, where the coefficient and  
823 exponent of the relationship were also allowed to vary over time for each region (He et  
824 al. 2008). Only observations that had non-missing values for the ADD3 variables were  
825 used, so sample sizes were further reduced from BASE4 analyses (male n=24,027;  
826 female n=21,131).

827 A third set of logistic regressions were referred as “ADD6” that added six region-  
828 and-year specific average growth variables to the best model from the Base4 analyses. In  
829 addition to LI, WI, and G in “ADD3”, we further considered changes in the average  
830 growth. For example:

$$831 \quad LI2_{a,y} = LI_{a-1,y-1} - LI_{a,y}$$

832 WI2 and G2 were defined similarly. We considered all possible combinations of the six  
833 growth variables (LI, WI, G, LI1, WI2, G2). Only observations that had non-missing  
834 values for all 10 potential predictor variables were used, so sample sizes were further  
835 reduced (male N = 22,668; female N = 19,897).

836 The best models from the BASE4, ADD3, and ADD6 groups produced  
837 qualitatively similar predictions of how maturity schedules have changed over time. Our  
838 analyses also provided a more comprehensive understanding of the relationship between  
839 maturity schedule and predictor variables (Table A1). When considering only variables  
840 available from individual measurements (BASE4 analyses), the best model contained all  
841 four variables (fish age, length, mass, and condition factor) for both sexes, and this model  
842 was far superior over any of those reduced models ( $\Delta AIC > 40$ ). Estimated coefficients  
843 for length, age, and condition were all positive for both sexes, as was expected, indicating  
844 that longer and older fish that were heavy for their length had a greater probability of

845 mature (table below). Somewhat counter-intuitively, the coefficient for body mass was  
846 negative. It should be kept in mind, however that this is the effect of mass in concert  
847 with other variables. When considering models with average growth variables (ADD3  
848 analyses), the model included all three growth variables added was superior over any of  
849 reduced models ( $\Delta AIC > 13$ ). Increment in length and increment in body mass had  
850 negative coefficients whereas the coefficient for instantaneous growth in body mass was  
851 positive. Given that instantaneous growth rates tend to be largest for smaller fish and  
852 vary the most for these fish, this differential response allows smaller versus larger fish to  
853 respond to growth conditions in different ways. When considering models that included  
854 changes in growth variables (ADD6 analyses), there were multiple competitive models,  
855 with  $\Delta AIC < 10$ . From the best (lowest AIC) model, G was only included for males, as  
856 was seen in the ADD3 model. The coefficient for WI2 was positive for both sexes. The  
857 coefficient for LI2 was positive for females. For males the coefficient was nominally  
858 negative, but its magnitude was small and uncertain (SE about the same as estimate).

859 To construct matrices of mature proportion at age over time, our approach was to  
860 first calculate average values of the probability of maturation for each age and year on a  
861 management unit and sex basis using the best logistic model (from ADD6). These results  
862 were supplemented by similar estimates based on the best ADD3 model for age 2.  
863 Proportions mature for age-1 were assumed to be zero and proportions mature for ages 13  
864 and older were assumed to be 1.0. A few anomalous values based on small sample sizes  
865 were treated as though missing. The resulting matrix had missing values that were filled  
866 in by using averages from adjacent years, or interpolation over gaps of several years.  
867 Once this preliminary matrix was generated for each sex it was smoothed by using a

868 three-year centered average (with first and last year using the average of first three or last  
869 three years, respectively).



870 **Table A1.** Parameter estimates from best logistic regression models for lake trout chosen  
 871 by AIC. L is fish total length (mm), W is fish mass (kg), C is condition factor, LI  
 872 is growth in length, WI is growth in mass, and G is instantaneous growth in mass.  
 873 Changes in growth are denoted by a “2” after corresponding growth variable.  
 874

	<b>Males</b>		<b>Females</b>		
<b>Best BASE4 model</b>					
	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	
Intercept	-30.327	1.135	Intercept	-23.831	1.269
Age	0.453	0.023	Age	0.921	0.026
L	0.047	0.002	L	0.029	0.002
W	-2.185	0.183	W	-1.037	0.171
C	5.625	0.383	C	3.043	0.448
<b>Best ADD3 mode</b>					
	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	
Intercept	-30.25	1.166	Intercept	-22.426	1.271
Age	0.252	0.037	Age	0.605	0.041
L	0.05	0.002	L	0.031	0.002
W	-2.262	0.187	W	-1.011	0.17
C	6.4	0.381	C	3.702	0.432
LI	-0.023	0.003	LI	-0.021	0.004
WI	-1.36	0.179	WI	-1.694	0.193
G	1.785	0.215	G	1.351	0.325
<b>Best ADD6 model</b>					
	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	
Intercept	-28.413	1.272	Intercept	-20.216	1.288
Age	0.282	0.04	Age	0.431	0.046
L	0.048	0.002	L	0.03	0.002
W	-1.879	0.205	W	-0.866	0.173
C	5.99	0.418	C	3.693	0.44
LI	-0.017	0.004	LI	-0.022	0.003
WI	-2.969	0.214	WI	-2.012	0.233
G	0.37	0.324	LI2	0.021	0.003
LI2	-0.0011	0.0013	WI2	1.545	0.199
WI2	3.242	0.22	G2	-0.558	0.228

875

876 **Figure captions**

877 **Figure 1.** Dynamics of beginning-of-the-year biomass and a decline in adult body mass:

878 a) Juvenile biomass (ages 1-2). b) Subadult biomass (ages 3-5). c) Adult biomass  
879 (age > 5). d) Body mass at total length of 700 mm plotted against beginning-of-the-  
880 year biomass of adult and subadult lake trout. In the plots a-c), dots and solid lines  
881 are average estimates of the biomass, dashed lines are 95% probability intervals. In  
882 panel d), dots represent average estimates of the body mass prior to 2002, open  
883 circles represent average estimates of the body mass for the rest of years, the distance  
884 between a pair of gray bars represents 95% probability intervals of an annual  
885 estimate, and horizontal lines represent the average within a period of years or the  
886 intercept of a regression line with the slope equal to zero.

887

888 **Figure 2.** Annual total consumption by lake trout. a) The relationship between annual

889 consumption and beginning-of-the-year biomass of adult and subadult lake trout. b)

890 The relationship between annual consumption and annual production of adult and

891 subadult lake trout. In both panels a-b, dots represent average estimates of annual

892 consumption prior to 2003. Open circles represent the average estimates after 2002.

893 The regression line in each panel was based on all estimates in the time series. c)

894 Average estimates of annual consumption (dots and solid line) with 95% probability

895 intervals (dashed lines). d) Annual consumption of prey fish partitioned among prey

896 fish species, including alewives (alew), rainbow smelt (smlt), sculpins (sclp), and

897 other fish species (other), which includes sculpins, sticklebacks, and coregonines.

898

899 **Figure captions** (continued)

900 **Figure 3.** The relationships between annual production and beginning-of-the-year  
901 biomass of a) adult, b) subadult, and c) juvenile lake trout. Dots represented  
902 average estimates of annual production prior to 2003. Open circles represent  
903 those after 2002. The regression line in each panel was based on all estimates in  
904 the time series. Also, d) The average age of lake wide fishery harvests (diamonds  
905 and the solid line) with 95% probability intervals (dashed lines).

906

907 **Figure 4.** Average estimates of annual production (dots and solid lines) with 95%  
908 probability intervals (dashed lines). a) Juvenile (age 1-2) production. b) Subadult  
909 (age 3-5) production compared with fishery yield mostly from subadult lake trout  
910 (open squares and the line). c) Adult (age > 5) production compared with fishery  
911 yield mostly from adult lake trout (open circles and the line).

912