



Technical University
of Denmark

Using acoustic fish telemetry to evaluate impact of river
diverging: implications for anadromous brown trout (*Salmo trutta*)
utilizing a marine protected area

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Master thesis in Aquatic Science and Technology, under the National
Institute of Aquatic Resources, Technical University of Denmark

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Forord

Tak til Foreningen for ophjælpning af fiskeriet i Roskilde Fjord samt, Roskilde og Omegns Lystfiskerklub (ROLK) for sammenarbejdet og indsamling af data, herunder Uffe Clementsen og Torben Trampe. I særdeleshed stor tak til Jonn Poulsen og Kim Lund Jørgensen for en stor indsats i indsamling af data og feltarbejde på Roskilde Fjord. Jeg takker ligeledes Hugo M. Flávio, Eleanor Williams og Jon C. Svendsen for behjælpelighed med databehandling og konstruktiv feedback. Dette studie blev udført i overensstemmelse med dansk regulering inden for velfærd og behandling af forsøgsdyr. Dette speciale indeholder et dansk resume, samt min afhandling som er præsenteret som et udkast til en artikel. Da afhandlingen er præsenteret i et artikelformat, er det det danske resume inddraget for at give et indtryk af hvad jeg har udført af arbejdsopgaver under mit speciale.

Projekt titel: Anvendelse af akustisk telemetri til at evaluere effekten af omlægning af åløb: implikationer for anadrome ørred som anvender marint beskyttet område

Projekt title: Using acoustic fish telemetry to evaluate impact of river diverging: implications for anadromous brown trout (*Salmo trutta*) utilizing a marine protected area

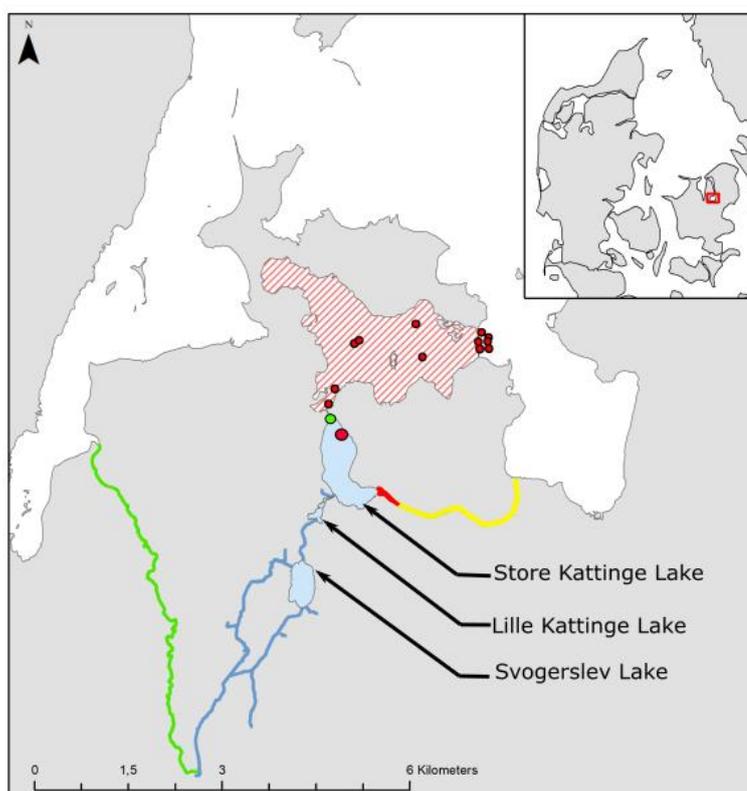
Dansk speciale resume

Dette danske resume har til formål at opsummere formål med projektet, konklusionen på projektet samt præsentere, hvilke arbejdsopgaver jeg har udført under specialet. Alle resultater, pointer og konklusioner i dette danske resume er præsenteret og gennemgået dybdegående i afhandlingen, som starter på side 18.

Introduktion og formål

Som medlem af Den Europæiske Union (EU) er Danmark gennem Vandrammedirektivet forpligtet til at beskytte søer, vandløb, kystvande og grundvand. Herunder har Danmark forpligtet sig til at sikre fri fiskepassage i vandløb samt opnå god tilstand i de fleste danske vandløb (European Commission, 2003). Det vil sige, at vandløb skal leve op til krav jf. Vandrammedirektivet. For åer, som er

under 2 meter brede, er et krav f.eks. at leve op til god økologisk tilstand jf. DFFVø ørred indeks. For at et givent



Figur 1 viser et kort over den sydlige del af Roskilde Fjord, der giver et overblik over det marint beskyttede område (rød skravering), lytteposter (røde prikker), stemmeverket og fiskepassagen (grøn prik), Langvad Å (blå streg), de tre søer (lyseblå skravering), Gedebæk rønde (gul streg), omlægningsplanen for Langvad Å (rød streg) og den alternative løsning – omlægning af Langvad Å over i Lejre Å (grøn streg). Havørreds gydning foregår hovedsageligt opstrøms området ved Lejre Å.

Vandrammedirektivets krav om fri passage for fisk, er det blevet vedtaget, at Langvad Å i Roskilde Fjord bliver omlagt. Åen vil fra udgangen af 2019 blive lagt over i Gedebæk renden (Figur 1). Herefter vil udløbet fra Langvad Å ikke længere løbe ud i Kattinge Vig, men i stedet løbe ud i den sydlige del af Roskilde Fjord (Figur 1). Kattinge Vig har siden 2005 været et marint beskyttet område (engelsk MPA). Dette betyder at trolling, dørgefiskeri og brug af nedgarn er forbudt inde i dette område. Årsagen til at forvaltere indførte et marint beskyttet område var at havørred bestanden i Langvad Å ikke kunne opretholde sig selv. Ved at ulovliggøre visse typer fiskeri, forsøgte forvaltere at mindske fiskeri trykket og herigennem øge den marine overlevelse for havørred. På sigt skulle dette føre til at havørred bestanden i Langvad Å blev selvreproducerende. I dette studie har jeg sporet 50 havørreds vandring i Roskilde Fjord ved brug af akustiske mærker. Jeg har, ud fra vandringsmønsteret estimeret, i hvilket omfang det marint beskyttede område beskytter havørrederne som det første studie af sin slags i Danmark. Ligeledes har vi analyseret og anslået effekten af at flytte Langvad Å samt evalueret den potentielle effekt af omlægningen af Langvad Å. Slutteligt har jeg på baggrund af resultater fra dette studie og eksisterende litteratur udarbejdet alternative løsningmuligheder.

Resume og konklusion

Et fundamentalt element, for at marint beskyttede områder kan beskytte fisk, er, at fiskene opholder sig inde i det beskyttede område. Flere kritikere mener derfor, at anvendelsen af marint beskyttede områder til at beskytte mobile fisk, så som havørred, ikke er muligt eller hensigtsmæssigt, da netop mobile fisk er tilbøjelige til at bevæge sig uden for det beskyttede område. Herved er fiskene ikke beskyttet. Resultater fra dette studie viser, at alle havørreder har brugt minimum 50% af tiden inde i det lille marint beskyttede område (3,82km²) placeret i Kattinge Vig (Figur 1). Undersøgelsen af havørredernes marine overlevelse indikerede en marin overlevelse på 23%. I alt forsvandt 14 havørred inde i det beskyttede område, og 22 havørred forsvandt uden for det beskyttede område.

Undersøgelsen indikerer, at 11 ud af 14 havørreder, som forsvandt inde i det beskyttede område, sandsynligvis blev fanget af fiskere. Da der ikke er foretaget en undersøgelse af havørredens marine overlevelse forud for implementeringen af det marint beskyttede område, har det ikke været muligt at konkludere, hvorvidt det marint beskyttede område genererer højere marin overlevelse for beskyttede havørreder. Dog har andre studier påvist, at garnfiskeri, som er forbudt i det marint beskyttede område, står for omkring 10% af den samlede mængde af hjemtagende havørred på årsbasis. På dette grundlag kombineret med resultater, som viser at havørrederne opholder sig inde i det marint beskyttede område en stor del af tiden (>50%), estimerer jeg, at det beskyttede område sandsynligvis forøger den marine overlevelse.

Tidligere studier har vist, at smolt dødeligheden i å-systemer, som løber gennem søer, er mellem 74% til >90% (Jepsen, Aarestrup, Økland, & Rasmussen, 1998; Schwinn, Aarestrup, Baktoft, & Koed, 2017). Resultater fra Schwinn et al. (2017) indikere også at forhøjet smolt dødelighed kan kompromittere en havørred bestand evne til at være selvreproducerende. På nuværende tidspunkt løber Langvad Å igennem søerne Svogerslev sø, Lille Kattinge sø og Store Kattinge sø. Resultater fra Henriksen (1998) viste en smolt dødelighed på 88% for smolt som vandrede gennem de tre søer. Henriksen (1998) og Henriksen (2016), argumentere at årsagen til at havørred populationen i Langvad Å ikke er selvreproducerende skyldes den høje smolt dødelighed. Den nuværende plan om at omlægge Langvad Å tager afsæt i at sikre fri fiskepassage til og fra Langvad Å. Derfor er det ikke planlagt at omgå de tre søer i Langvad Å. Da Langvad Å efter omlægningen til Gedebæk renden stadigvæk vil passere de tre søer (Figur 1), estimerer jeg at smolt dødeligheden i Langvad Å vil forblive omkring 88%. Efter omlægningen vil udløbet af Langvad Å ikke længere være beskyttet af det marint beskyttede område. Dette medfører at havørred som opholder sig omkring udløbet, ikke vil være beskyttet for fiskeri. Da smolt dødeligheden forventes at forblive ca. 88% kombineret med at havørred som opholder sig området omkring udløbet mister beskyttelsen fra det marint beskyttede område,

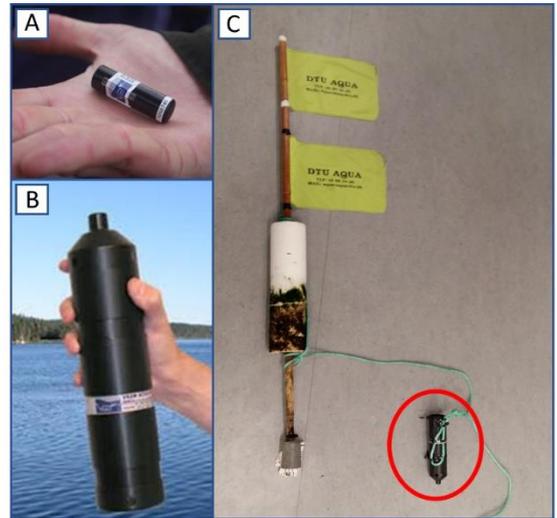
forventes det ikke at den nuværende omlægning af Langvad Å vil opnå god økologisk tilstand jf. DFFVø ørredindeks. Dog vil den nuværende løsning sikre fri fiske passage, og derved leve op til kravene under Vandrammedirektivet. På baggrund af resultater fra dette studie har jeg fremsat en løsningsmulighed, som både vil sikre fri passage og potentielt set muliggøre en selvreproducerende bestand af havørred i Langvad Å – og herigennem opnå god økologisk tilstand jf. DFFVø ørredindeks. Løsningen bygger på, at lede vandet fra Langvad Å over i Lejre Å. Herved omgås de tre søer, samt der sikres fri passage. Ved at gøre dette, forventes smolt dødeligheden at falde (Jepsen et al. 1998; Boel and Koed, 2013; Schwinn et al. 2017; Schwinn et al. 2018). Det forventes at en reducere i smolt dødelighed, vil forsage øget returnering af gydemodne havørred de kommende år (Crozier & Kennedy, 1993; Elliott, 1993). Herved mener jeg, at densiteten af ørred yngel i Langvad Å har potentiale til at stige. Herved kan det blive muligt at øge havørred yngeldensiteten fra de nuværende 17 yngel pr 100 km² til 80 ørred yngel pr 100 km² (I overensstemmelse med DFFVø ørredindeks). Resultater fra dette studie viste, at 62% af alle havørreder (inklusive havørreder der blev fanget m.m.) blev i den sydlige del af Roskilde Fjord (syd for Frederikssund; figur 3). Ligeledes indikerer data, at det rekreative fiskeri står for mindst 23% af den marine dødelighed. På baggrund af dette vurderer jeg, at en udvidelse af det marint beskyttede område samt skærpelse af regler for lystfiskeri i samspil med de nuværende planer om omlægningen af Langvad Å til dels vil sikre en bæredygtig bestand af havørreder i Langvad Å.

Lokalt samarbejde

Projektet blev udført i tæt samarbejde med medlemmer fra interesseorganisationer i og omkring Roskilde Fjord. Herunder Foreningen til ophjælpning af fiskeriet i Roskilde Fjord og Roskilde og Omegns Lystfiskerklub (ROLK). Jeg stod for koordinering, logistik og kommunikation vedr. feltarbejde mellem medlemmer fra ROLK og DTU Aqua.

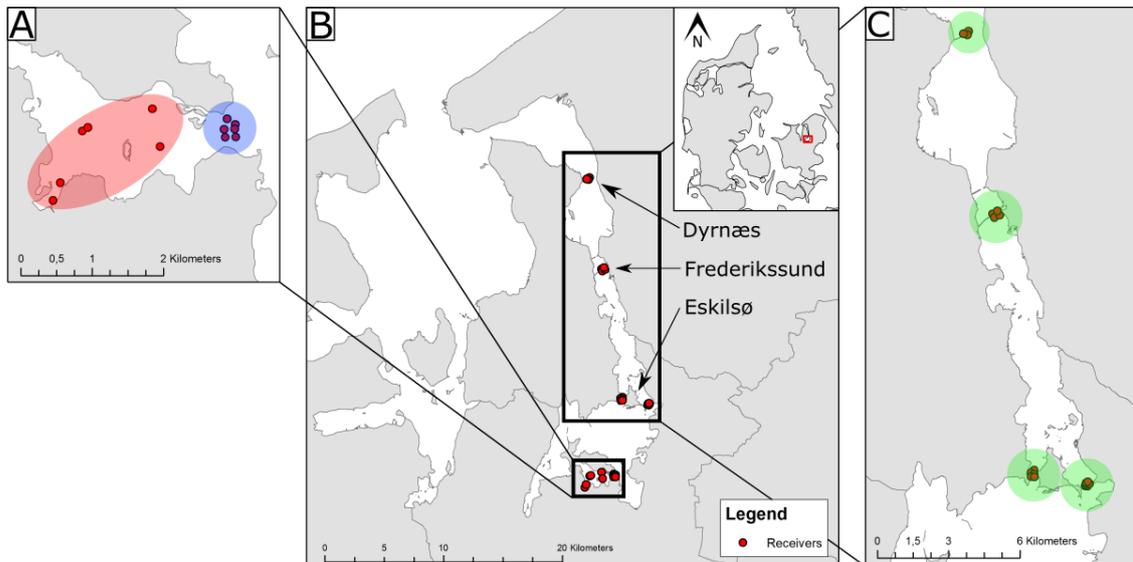
Akustiske mærker og lytteposter

For at kunne monitorere havørredernes vandring i Roskilde Fjord blev der i dette studie anvendt akustiske mærker og lytteposter (figur 2). De akustiske mærker blev indopereret i voksne havørreder fanget i Langvad Å. I alt blev 36 lytteposter opstillet seks forskellige steder i Roskilde fjord (figur 3), samt en lyttepost placeret i Store Kattinge Sø (Figur 2). Når en mærket havørred svømmer forbi en lyttepost, registrerer lytteposten signalet. De anvendte akustiske mærker var af typen V13T (VEMCO, 2019a), som også registrerer havørredens temperatur.



Figur 2 viser akustisk transmitter (foto A), som bliver indopereret i havørrederne. Transmitteren udsender et signal, som registreres af lytteposterne (foto B). Lytteposterne er monteret på flagbøjer (foto C). Lytteposten (foto C, rød cirkel) er monteret ca. 1 meter under flagbøjen.

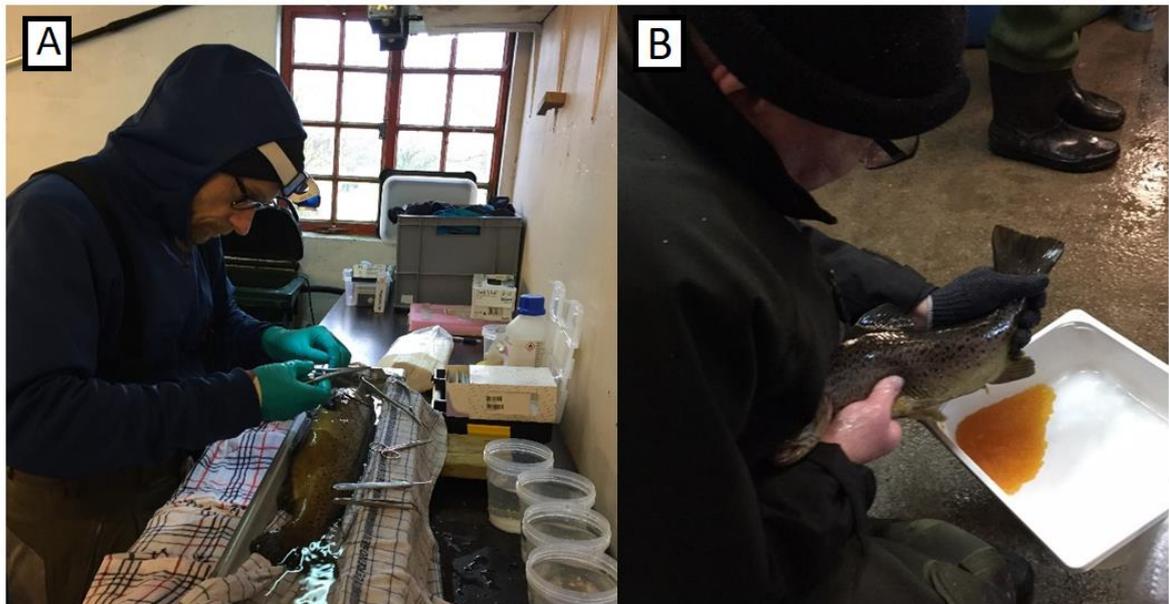
Lytteposterne var af typen VR2W (VEMCO, 2019b). Med denne type udstyr har lytteposterne en detektionsradius på op til ca. 500 meter.



Figur 3 viser et kort over Roskilde Fjord og illustrerer lytteposternes placering. Lytteposterne er placeret i Kattinge Vig (det marint beskyttede område) (foto A) og ved hhv. Dyrnæs, Frederikssund og Eskilsø (foto B og C).

Mærkning af ørred

Forud for evalueringen af det marint beskyttede område blev 50 havørreder mærket med én akustisk sender pr. havørred. I samarbejde med Foreningen for ophjælpning af fiskeriet i Roskilde Fjord og ROLK blev ørrederne fanget i fisketrappen i Langvad Å. Ørrederne blev mærket hhv. d. 14. december 2017 og d. 12. januar 2018. Det var imidlertid planlagt, at alle fisk skulle mærkes og udsættes d. 14. december 2017, men grundet ringe opgang af gydemodne havørred i Langvad Å var dette ikke muligt. Dette medførte imidlertid at havørrederne blev mærket og sat ud af to omgange. Forud for mærkningen blev alle havørreder strøget for sperm og æg (figur 4). Æg og sperm bruges til at producere ørredyngel, som udsættes som yngel i Langvad Å og mundingsudsætning af smolt i Langvad Å systemet. Havørrederne blev mærket af Jon Christian Svendsen (Figur 4A).



Figur 4 viser Jon C. Svendsen, som indopererer de akustiske transmittere i en havørred (foto A). På foto B ses Jonn Poulsen stryge en havørred for æg. Disse æg bruges til at opdrætte ørredyngel og smolt til udsætning i Langvad Å.

Feltarbejde i Roskilde Fjord

Feltarbejdet i Roskilde Fjord indeholdt flere opgaver. Herunder opstilling af lytteposter, vedligeholdelse af udstyr, indsamling af data, koordinering og sikring af udstyr i vintermånederne.

Feltarbejdet blev udført ca. 3-7 gange månedligt og var periodevist besværliggjort af dårlige vejrforhold og isdække på fjorden.

Indsamling af data, vedligeholdelse og kontrol af udstyr

Lytteposterne anvendt i dette studie oplagrer information (data) fra mærkede havørreder, som er blevet registreret. Med typen af lytteposter som er anvendt i dette studie (VR2W), er det nødvendigt at indsamle data manuelt fra en båd. Ved hyppig indsamling af data fra lytteposterne undgik vi at tabet af lytteposter kompromitterede datasættet. Data blev indsamlet i tæt samarbejde med Jonn Poulsen og Kim Jørgensen. Igennem projektets løbetid mistede vi seks hydrofoner. Med hjælp fra en lokal dykkerforening blev den ene lyttepost fundet igen, og en anden blev fundet på land af en lystfisker. Dette resulterede i, at kun fire lytteposter gik tabt. Grundet hyppig indsamling af data fra lytteposterne, gik vi gennemsnitligt "kun" glip af data for 9 dage pr. tabt lyttepost. Da der inden opsætning af lytteposter blev taget højde for eventuelt tab af udstyr, blev der på alle lyttepoststationer sat ekstra lytteposter i vandet. Herved kompromitterede tabet af lytteposter ikke dækningsgraden af lytteposterne. Det vil sige, at havørreder som passerede forbi eller opholdt sig nær lyttepoststationerne, uafhængigt af tab af enkelte lytteposter, blev registreret af andre lytteposter. Den ene af de to lytteposter, som vi fik tilbage, havde spor af at være blevet sejlet ned af en motorbåd. Flere faktorer i Roskilde Fjord gjorde det nødvendigt at kontrollere og vedligeholde udstyret ofte, blandt andet på grund af kollision mellem lytteposter og både, kraftig strøm som tyngede lytteposterne ned, fiskeredskaber som sat fast i udstyret (gællegarn, ruser og fiskeliner), kraftig vækst af rur (*Balanidae*) og isdække. På trods af ovenstående problemstillinger, blev det ved brug af test-transmittere bekræftet, at samtlige lytteposter inkluderet i projektet var fuldt ud funktionsdygtig igennem hele projektet. Data fra lytteposterne blev indsamlet med VUE-software (VEMCO, 2019c).

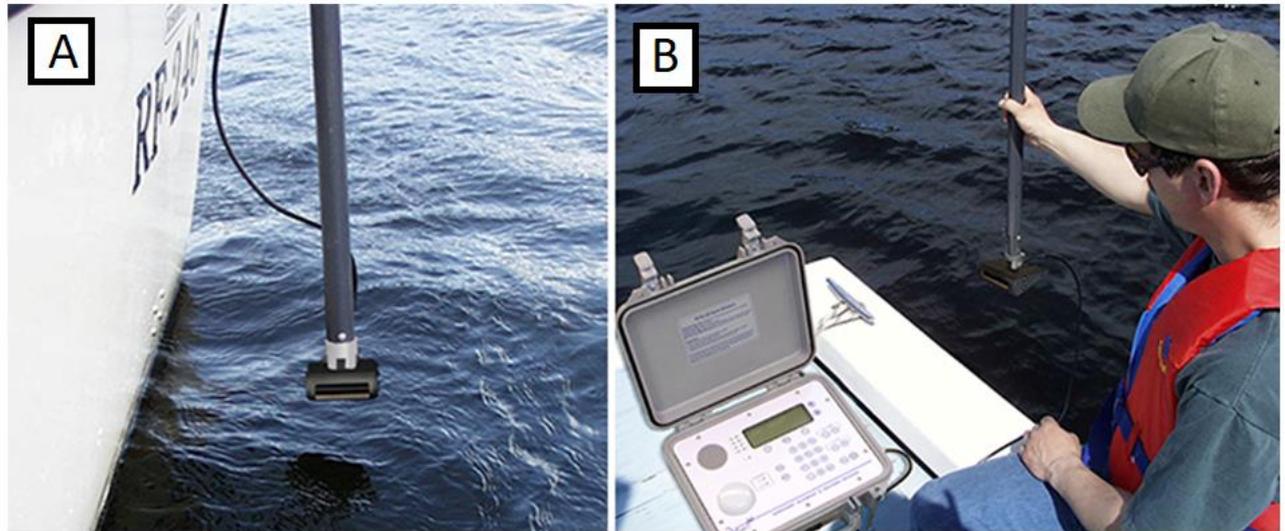
Koordinering og sikring af udstyr

Undervejs i projektet opstod flere komplikationer som krævede kreative løsninger. Heriblandt var de to største problemstillinger tidsforskydning på lytteposternes interne ur samt isdækket i Roskilde Fjord. Tidsforskydningerne på lytteposternes interne ur varierede fra 4 sekunder til 23 minutter. Dette medførte f.eks., at fisk, som i reel tid blev registreret kl. 12:00, ville fremgå som værende blevet registreret kl. 12:23. I samarbejde med VEMCO (lyttepostproducenten) udarbejdede jeg en løsning, som fik rettet op på fejlen. Undervejs i projektet, vinter 2018, frøs dele af Roskilde Fjord. Erfaring fra lignende projekter har vist, at isdække kan skade og sænke lytteposterne og herved forårsage tab af udstyr. For at imødegå denne problemstilling blev der udarbejdet en handleplan for, hvorledes vi fortsat kunne samle data i måneder med isdække og undgå at miste udstyr i fjorden. Det blev vedtaget, at alle flagbøjer skulle afmonteres og erstattes med undervandsbøjer. Undervandsbøjerne, blev monteret således at undervandsbøjen samt lytteposten var ca. 1 meter under havoverfladen. Dette gjorde at isflager, ikke ødelagde vores udstyr. For at sikre fuld funktionalitet og forebygge eventuelle tab, foretog jeg i disse perioder minimum en felttur om ugen (i de isfri områder af Roskilde fjord). Efter at have testet størstedelen af alle lytteposter kunne vi bekræfte, at lytteposterne var fuldt ud funktionelle i disse perioder.

Manuel pejling

Ved at anvende en håndholdt manuel pejler (VEMCO, 2019c) var det muligt at spore havørredernes vandring i områder, hvor der ikke var lytteposter. Manuel pejling af mærkede havørreder blev foretaget inden- og uden for det marint beskyttede område. Dette var med henblik på at registrere havørreder, som var uden for de stationære lytteposters rækkevidde. Herved kunne dødelighed estimeres når fik holdt op med at bevæge sig. Ved at anvende den manuelle pejler på månedligbasis kunne vi bestemme, om der var havørreder tilstede inde i det marint beskyttede

område, men uden for lytteposternes rækkevidde. Den manuelle pejling af mærkede havørreder blev primært fortaget af Jonn Poulsen og Kim Jørgensen.

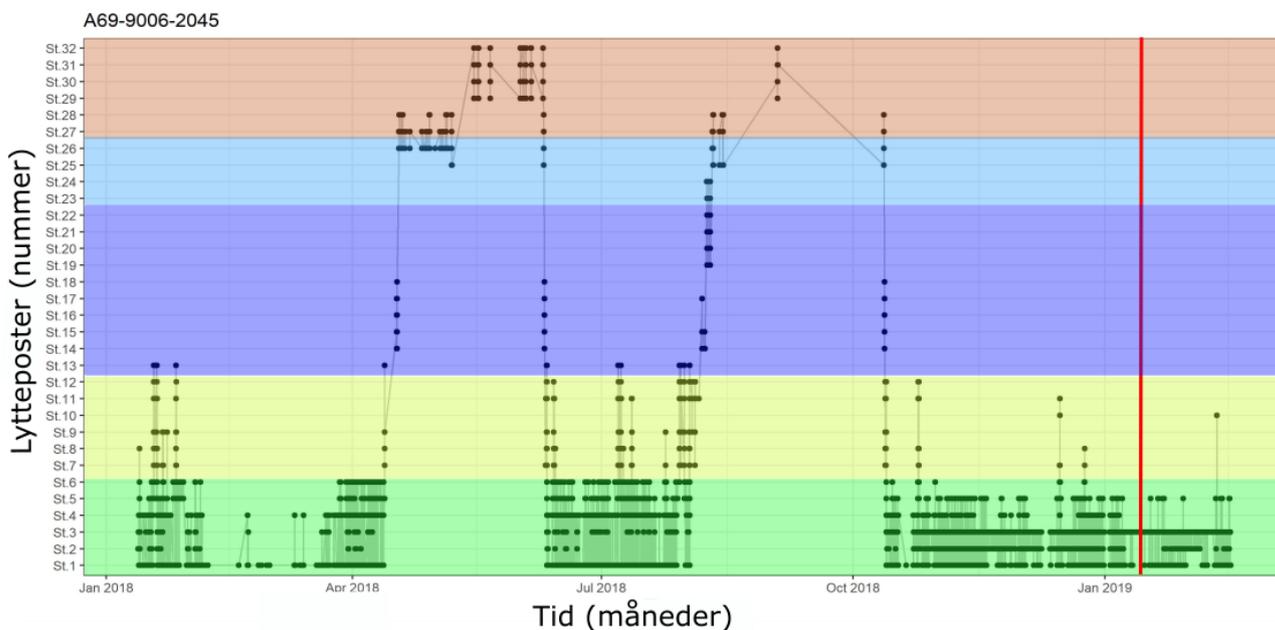


Figur 5 viser den manuelle pejler, som blev anvendt i dette studie (VR100; foto B) samt lytteudstyret, der opfanger de akustiske signaler, som havørreder mærket med akustiske transmittere udsender (foto A).

Databehandling og analyse

Data fra den de stationære lytteposter og den manuelle pejling blev behandlet i R (R Core Team, 2019). Helt specifikt blev der anvendt komponenter fra R pakken (Flávio, 2019). De specifikke delkomponenter, som blev anvendt fra R pakken, var data sortering og estimering af bevægelighedsmønstre. For at verificere korrekt databehandling og undgå fejl og mangler i de udarbejdede scripts, blev der med ca. to ugers mellemrum afholdt møder med R pakkens udvikler Hugo M. Flávio. Udover behandling, analyse og beregninger fortaget i R blev dele af data gennemgået manuelt. Dette var blandt andet for at estimere dødstidspunkt for havørreder, som gik tabt inde i det marint beskyttede område. Ved at anvende R kunne vi på baggrund af de individuelle havørreders bevægelser visualisere og analysere havørredernes tilstedeværelse og tid brugt inde i det marint beskyttede område. For hver enkelt havørred blev der udarbejdet et "bevægelses datasæt". Dette datasæt indeholdt den samlede tid, som hver enkelt havørred brugte i det marint beskyttede område. På baggrund af dette datasæt blev der lavet en visualisering af alle mærkede havørreders

bevægelsesmønster i fjorden. Et visuelt eksempel heraf kan ses i figur 6 nedenfor, hvor bevægelsesmønsteret for havørred med identifikationsnummeret A96-9006-2045 er præsenteret.



Figur 6 viser bevægelsesmønsteret for en havørred mærket med en akustisk transmitter med ID-nummeret A69-9006-2045. De sorte prikker viser registreringer af det akustiske signal på en given station. Stregerne imellem de sorte prikker viser bevægelsen, som pågældende havørred har foretaget. Y-aksen viser lyttepostnummeret. Lyttepost 1 til 6 (grøn skravering) er i Kattinge Vig (det marint beskyttede område), lyttepost 7 til 12 (gul skravering) er i udmundingen af Kattinge Vig (det marint beskyttede område), lyttepost 13 til 22 (lilla skravering) viser lytteposter ved Eskilsø, lyttepost 23 til 26 (blå skravering) viser lytteposter ved Frederikssund, og lyttepost 27 til 32 (rød skravering) viser lytteposter ved Dyrnæs. Den røde vertikale streg viser, hvornår studiet stoppede. På denne figur kan man f.eks. se, at havørreden i midten af april vandrede fra det marint beskyttede område (grønt skraverede område) til Dyrnæs (rød skraverede område).

Udover databehandlingen i R blev dele af data fra hhv. manuel pejling og de stationære lytteposter gennemgået manuelt. Herigennem var det muligt at estimere dødstidspunktet for havørreder, som døde inde i det marint beskyttede område.

GIS kort

Alle kort præsenteret i det skriftlige udkast til artiklen er produceret i ArcGIS (figur 1 og 3). Samtlige kort er udarbejdet på Geus (Københavns Universitet, Øster Voldgade 10). På nuværende tidspunkt er der ingen offentligt tilgængelige kort, som præsenterer hvorledes Langvad Å skal flyttes. Derfor blev der gennem en længere periode i foråret 2019 foretaget flere telefonsamtaler med projektansvarlige fra hhv. Niras (Allerød) og Roskilde Kommune. Niras tilsendte et håndlavet kort, hvorefter jeg udarbejdede GIS kortene, som er præsenteret i det skriftlige dokument.

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Master Thesis

**Using acoustic fish telemetry to evaluate impact of river diverging: implications for
anadromous brown trout (*Salmo trutta*) utilizing a marine protected area**

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20 **Abstract**

21 Globally, policy makers are creating legislation to protect aquatic life. Within the European Union,
22 the Water Framework Directive (WFD) targets aquatic life and highlights the importance of
23 eliminating migration barriers and ensuring free passage for riverine organisms. This study
24 investigates a case where free passage is ensured for brown trout (*Salmo trutta*; termed trout) by
25 diverging a stream (Langvad Stream) to a different stream channel. While diverging the stream will
26 circumvent a migration barrier, it also means that the stream mouth will be diverged away from an
27 area inside a marine protected area (MPA) to an area outside of the MPA. This could hamper the
28 marine survival of the trout; however, the marine survival and the impact of the MPA to protect the
29 trout are largely unknown. This is particularly pertinent, because trout is a migratory species that may
30 leave the MPA shortly after entering the marine environment. Using acoustic telemetry, this study
31 investigated the efficacy of the MPA to protect post-spawning trout and estimated 1) the time spent
32 inside and outside of the MPA, and 2) the loss of brown trout inside and outside of the MPA. Overall,
33 tracking data revealed that trout were present inside the MPA during all seasons and spent on average
34 67.4% ($\pm 4.5\%$ SE) of the time inside the MPA. Brown trout surviving the entire study period spent
35 on average 50.6% ($\pm 8.4\%$ SE) of the time inside the MPA. In total, 77% of the brown trout were lost
36 during the study period and did not return to the Langvad Stream to spawn. The loss of brown trout
37 was unevenly divided inside ($n = 14$) and outside ($n = 22$) of the MPA. The Langvad Stream is not
38 reaching the goal of the WFD (80 juvenile trout 100m^{-2}), suggesting that further measures are required
39 to enhance trout survival and production. Effects of the planned stream diversion on trout survival
40 and production are uncertain, and the Langvad Stream is unlikely to meet the WFD goal after the
41 diversion. We recommend that alternative solutions to meet the WFD are considered, including a
42 different diverging route and expansion of the MPA both in terms of area coverage and associated
43 fishing restrictions

44 **Introduction**

45 Extensive habitat degradation and overexploitation of living marine resources affect many marine
46 coastal areas (Lotze et al. 2006; Kristensen et al. 2017). As a result, conservation and restoration of
47 fish and fisheries are major environmental challenges (Balmford et al. 2005). To protect coastal
48 marine species and ecosystems, implementation of marine protected areas (MPAs) is recognized as a
49 promising management tool (Lester et al. 2009; Gaines, Lester, Grorud-Colvert, Costello, & Pollnac,
50 2010). MPAs are areas in the ocean where fishing and/or other extractive activities are restricted or
51 prohibited as no-take zones (marine reserves) (IUCN & WCPA, 2018). Embraced by high level
52 international bodies as a tool to achieve biodiversity goals, MPAs have been subject to rapid growth
53 in recent decades. Currently, approximately 6.4 % of the world's ocean is covered by MPAs (IUCN,
54 2017), largely due to international treaties such as Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) (CBD,
55 2017). Under the CBD, the goal is that 10 % of the global coastal and marine areas will be covered
56 by MPAs in 2020 (CBD, 2017). However, MPA area coverage alone will not necessarily optimize
57 protection for marine biodiversity, nor reflect the MPA's conservation and protective efficacy
58 (Kerwath et al. 2009; Edgar, 2011; Edgar et al. 2014). Instead, optimal MPAs efficacy depends on
59 various factors, including degree of fishing permitted inside of the MPA, level of enforcement, MPA
60 age, and the presence of continuous habitat allowing fish movement across MPA boundaries and
61 positioning of the MPA (Edgar, 2011; Edgard et al. 2014). Effects of MPAs have been widely
62 documented showing increase in fish abundance, biomass, individual size and egg production both
63 inside the MPA (Lester et al. 2009) and outside the MPA as a spillover effect (Goñi, Hilborn, Díaz,
64 Mallol, & Adlerstein, 2010; Abesamis & Russ, 2005). Because individual fish survival is positively
65 related to the time spent inside an MPA (Palumbi, 2004), exit from the MPA often causes elevated
66 individual mortality (Edgar, 2011). MPAs are mainly expected to protect less mobile and sedentary
67 fish species (Pilyugin, Medlock, & Leenheer, 2016), but positive MPA effects have also been

68 documented for mobile and migratory species (Kerwath et al. 2009; Claudet et al. 2010; Knip, Heupel,
69 & Simpfendorfer, 2012).

70 Migration is considered an adaptation to spatiotemporal fluctuations in resources, where
71 synchronized movements between distinct habitats occur at different life stages (Dingle & Drake
72 2007; Lucas & Baras, 2001). Anadromous fish, such as the brown trout (*Salmo trutta*; henceforth
73 termed trout), perform feeding and spawning migrations between freshwater and marine
74 environments (Thorstad et al. 2016). Trout may adapt different strategies to optimize individual
75 fitness, including variable periods spent at sea (Del Villar, Aarestrup, Skov, & Koed, 2014; Eldøy,
76 2015). Specifically, some trout may spend a few weeks at sea, whereas other trout may spend several
77 years at sea (Klemetsen et al. 2003). Therefore, measuring and predicting the efficacy of an MPA to
78 protect trout remains difficult.

79 European Union (EU) member states act in agreement with the Water Framework Directive
80 (WFD). By employing and implementing EU management measures into national legislation, the
81 purpose of the WFD is to prevent deterioration, protect and enhance surface water bodies (European
82 Commission, 2003). By integrating the WFD management measures into national policy, EU member
83 states are currently conforming with the legislative goals described in the second management cycle
84 (2015-2021) of the WFD. This entails protection and enhancement of surface water bodies, including
85 removal of waterway obstructions and to achieve good ecological status (GES) for surface
86 waterbodies (Miljø- og Fødevarerministeriet, 2016; European Commission, 2003). Each member state
87 is required to define reference conditions (i.e. assumed pristine conditions) for surface water bodies.
88 Once reference conditions have been established, the ecological status of similar national surface
89 waterbodies is evaluated. The ecological status is classified by various biological, chemical, hydro
90 morphological and physical elements (Bonde et al. 2006). Good ecological status (GES) is by default
91 the objective for all WFD waterbodies. The ecological status of many rivers and streams in Denmark

92 must comply with measures as stipulated in the DFFVø trout index. To achieve GES in compliance
93 with the DFFVø trout index, the density of juvenile trout must be at least 80 individuals 100m⁻² in
94 small streams (i.e. below 2 m in stream width) (Nielsen, Sivebæk, & Baktoft, 2016). In addition to
95 the DFFVø trout index requirements, Denmark is required to remove all obstacles restricting fish
96 migration (Miljø- og Fødevareministeriet, 2016; European Commission, 2003).

97 In Denmark, trout are predominantly caught for recreational purposes using a diversity of
98 gears, including gillnets and rod and line fishing (Hayes, Ferreri, & Taylor, 2012; Gislason et al.
99 2014). In the past two decades, many Danish trout populations have experienced a steady increase,
100 primarily due to restoration of spawning and rearing habitats, removal of obstacles, small scale MPAs
101 and stocking with indigenous juvenile trout (Sivebæk, 2018). A range of regulative measures protect
102 trout, including a seasonal harvest ban on spawning colored trout (November 16th – January 15th) and
103 a 500-meter closed zone surrounding many river mouths (Fiskeristyrelsen, 2019). Seasonal harvest
104 ban and closed zones are employed to protect trout, primarily during the spawning season when trout
105 abundance increases near river mouths and in the rivers.

106 In 2005, the Danish fisheries agency implemented an MPA in the Roskilde Fjord, covering
107 the entire Kattinge Bay area and the outlet of the Langvad Stream (Figure 2). The trout population in
108 the Langvad Stream had deteriorated because of several factors, including; 1) a weir near the outlet
109 of the Langvad Stream despite the presence of a pool and weir fish passage (Clay, 2017; Figure 2),
110 2) the Langvad Stream running through three separate lakes (Figure 2) and 3) estimates of trout
111 experiencing high marine mortality (Fiskeridirektoratet, 2003). The weir limited fish passage and the
112 lakes caused elevated fish mortality, particularly relevant for trout smolts passing through the lakes
113 (Jepsen, Aarestrup, Økland, & Rasmussen, 1998). The MPA implementation in 2005 meant that gill
114 netting and lure trolling became prohibited fishing techniques throughout the year.

115 To comply with the WFD and ensure GES (in accordance with the DFFVø trout index) in the
116 Langvad Stream, the stream is scheduled to be diverged (Figure 2) into the Gedeback Stream (Figure
117 2). The objective of the stream diverging is to circumvent the weir near the stream outlet (Figure 2)
118 to provide free passage and to reach GES in compliance with the DFFVø trout index. The new outlet
119 of the Langvad Stream will be located outside of Kattinge Bay, thus outside of the MPA (Figure 2).
120 After the stream diverging, trout leaving the Langvad stream will no longer enter directly into the
121 MPA. Instead, the trout will enter a marine area where both lure trolling and gill net fishing are
122 permitted fishing techniques. The impact of the stream diverging on trout marine survival is uncertain
123 as the protection currently provided by the MPA is unknown.

124 Using telemetry, this study examined the ability of the Kattinge Bay MPA to protect adult
125 trout in the Roskilde Fjord. Specifically, the individual trout residence times inside and outside of the
126 MPA were estimated by tagging and tracking trout for a 1-year period. This was accomplished using
127 stationary receivers combined with manual tracking of the trout in the Roskilde Fjord. Using the
128 tracking data, the loss of individual trout was estimated inside and outside of the MPA. If trout leaving
129 the Langvad Stream are also quickly leaving the Roskilde Fjord for foraging elsewhere (e.g. Kattegat
130 Sea; Figure 1), the fishing restrictions inside the MPA are probably providing limited protection of
131 the trout. This migratory pattern would be in agreement with recent trout studies in neighboring fjord
132 systems (Kristensen, Birnie-Gauvin, & Aarestrup, 2019). On the other hand, trout could be residing
133 in the MPA for a substantial duration (i.e. months) in which case the MPA is expected to protect the
134 trout from gill netting and lure trolling. If the trout tend to remain in the fjord, but both inside and
135 outside of the MPA, expanding the MPA might be a useful tool to enhance the protection of the trout
136 from fisheries and enable a viable population of adult and juvenile trout in agreement with the WFD.

137 **Methods**

138 **Study site**

139 The study was conducted in Roskilde Fjord (55° 48' 36" N, 12° 03' 36" E; 117 km²) in eastern
140 Denmark. The Roskilde Fjord is approximately 40 km long and is draining into the southern part of
141 the Kattegat Sea (Figure 1). The Roskilde Fjord is generally shallow with water depths rarely
142 exceeding 6 meters. The Kattinge Bay (3.82 km²) is located in the southern part of the fjord (Figure
143 1). Comparable to the rest of the fjord, Kattinge Bay is shallow, except in a limited area where the
144 water depth is reaching 17 m (55° 40' 37" N, 12° 01' 08" E). The Kattinge Bay was appointed as an
145 MPA in 2005 based on estimates of high trout abundance in autumn and spring. The Langvad Stream
146 drains into the south-western part of Kattinge Bay. Importantly, smolt mortality surveys revealed
147 88% mortality for seaward migrating smolts passing the three interconnected lakes in the Langvad
148 Stream system (Henriksen, 1998; Figure 2). These findings are in agreement with other studies
149 investigating impacts of lakes on smolt mortality (Schwinn, Aarestrup, Baktoft, & Koed, 2017; Jepsen
150 et al. 1998). Near the outlet, stream discharge from the Langvad Stream is controlled by a sluice,
151 regulating water levels in the three lakes further upstream, and draining parts of the water into the
152 pool and weir fish passage (Figure 2). To recover to trout population, juvenile trout are released in
153 the Langvad Stream and smolts are released in the outlet of the Langvad Stream. Approximately 8000
154 smolts are released in the outlet of the Langvad Stream on a yearly basis, whereas approximately
155 3000 juvenile trout are released in the Langvad Stream every third year.

156 **Stationary receivers**

157 To track tagged trout, a network of 32 VR2W Vemco receivers were deployed throughout the
158 southern and central parts of the Roskilde Fjord (Figure 1). All receivers were positioned 1 m below
159 the water surface and deployed at water depths varying between 1.7 – 17 meters. The receivers were

160 all attached to two coupled moorings (according to VEMCO standards (VEMCO, 2019b)) and kept
161 afloat and in place by surface buoys. In addition, one receiver was located upstream of the weir in
162 Store Kattinge Lake (Figure 2). Receivers were cleaned and data were downloaded on a bimonthly
163 basis. Test transmitters were used to confirm that all receivers worked correctly throughout the 1-
164 year study period. To determine individual residence time and loss inside and outside of the MPA,
165 the hydrophones were deployed to cover key points in the fjord (Figure 1). Utilizing geographically
166 narrow passages (170-830 meters), the deployment of hydrophones ensured detection of trout
167 emigrating from the MPA. This was confirmed using test transmitters (range tests; VEMCO, 2019a)
168 and manual tracking of the trout, both inside and outside of the MPA.

169 **Manual tracking from a boat**

170 Using a portable receiver (VR100; VEMCO, 2019b), manual tracking was performed on a
171 monthly basis to locate tagged trout both inside and outside of the MPA. Manual tracking mainly
172 targeted areas that were outside of the detection range of the stationary receivers (Figure 2). Thus,
173 trout were often detected by the manual tracking if the fish were located outside of receiver detection
174 range. By repeatedly returning to the same GPS locations, it was estimated if the trout were moving
175 or had become immobile. Combining VR100 data and data from the stationary receivers (Figure 2),
176 it was estimated if trout were lost inside the MPA without emigrating from the MPA.

177 **Fish capture and tagging**

178 Upstream migrating trout ($n = 50$, mean total body length = 54.9 ± 5.8 cm; range = 45 to 72
179 cm) were caught using a Wolf trap deployed in Langvad Stream between 1st November 2017 and 12th
180 January 2018. The trap was situated in the stream, 100 m from the Kattinge Bay. Due to low numbers
181 of trout entering the Langvad Stream, tagging and release were conducted on two separate days: 14th
182 December 2017 and 12th January 2018. During the trapping period, 56 trout entered the Langvad

183 Stream. Captured fish were transferred to two flow-through (5000 liter each) holding tanks with
184 oxygenated water and kept until tagging (on 14th December 2017 and 12th January 2018). As fish
185 matured in the holding tank, fish were stripped for sperm and eggs and returned to the holding tanks.
186 Prior to tagging, fish were anesthetized according to standards described previously (Geertz-Hansen,
187 Koed, & Sivebæk, 2013). Fish were tagged using 69 kHz V13T coded Vemco transmitters
188 (Dimensions = 13x48mm, weight in air = 13 grams, power output = 152dB, estimated battery life
189 502 days, time lag between signal emission (nominal delay) = 120 ± 60 s). Transmitters were
190 equipped with a thermal sensor to record and transmit temperature data. The transmitted temperature
191 data meant that mammalian and avian predation could be detected by spike in transmitted temperature
192 data, if the predator ingested the transmitter and remained in the water (Wahlberg et al. 2014). All
193 transmitters were surgically implanted into the abdominal cavity following previous studies
194 (Aarestrup, Jepsen, Rasmussen, & Økland, 1999). Once fully recovered from anesthesia (Geertz-
195 Hansen et al. 2013), fish were returned to Langvad Stream downstream of weir (Figure 2). After
196 release, trout entered the MPA directly when they left the stream.

197 All experimental procedures were approved by the Danish Experimental Animal Committee
198 and carried out in accordance with present regulation. All handling, anesthesia and tagging procedures
199 were performed in agreement with a license provided to the Technical University of Denmark for
200 animal experimentation (license 2017-15-0201-01164).

201 **Acquisition and analysis of fish telemetry data**

202 Analyses of tracking data included telemetry data covering a 1-year period spanning the
203 period 12th of January 2018 - 12th of January 2019. A total of 50 trout were trapped, tagged and
204 released in the Langvad Stream. Data analysis was divided into two fish groups: 1) analysis of all the
205 released fish ($n = 50$) and 2) analysis of the fish that survived the entire 1-year study period ($n = 11$).

206 **Rules for estimating trout presence inside and outside the MPA**

207 Analyses of fish movements inside and outside of the MPA were conducted in agreement with
208 previous MPA studies examining fish residence times (Kerwath et al. 2009). To determine if the fish
209 stayed inside the MPA or left the MPA area, the receiver network was divided into three groups
210 (Figure 1). Group 1 covered receivers deployed inside the western part of the MPA in Kattinge Bay
211 (n = 6), group 2 covered receivers deployed at the exit of the MPA (n = 6) and group 3 covered
212 receivers deployed in three areas in the Roskilde Fjord outside of the MPA (n = 19, Figure 1). In
213 addition, one receiver was located upstream of the weir in Store Kattinge Lake (Figure 2).

214 Trout were estimated to be inside or outside of the MPA according to a simple set of
215 movement rules, similar to Kerwath et al. (2009). The rules were developed using test transmitters
216 applied in numerous locations in the Roskilde Fjord combined with known fish locations revealed by
217 the manual tracking inside and outside of the MPA. The movement rules were: After release into the
218 outlet of the Langvad Stream, trout were assumed to be inside the MPA until first detection by
219 receivers in group 2 (Figure 1). Upon detection by the receivers in group 2, fish were considered as
220 outside of the MPA until they were detected again by the receivers in group 1 (Figure 1). Trout
221 detected on the receiver in Store Kattinge Lake (upstream of the weir) were considered outside the
222 MPA. Thus, upstream migrating trout entering the Langvad Stream were not considered inside the
223 MPA.

224 **Time spent inside and outside of the MPA**

225 The analyses of time spend inside the MPA resembled previous telemetry studies determining
226 time spent inside MPAs (Knip et al. 2012). To calculate the amount of time each trout spent inside
227 the MPA, the periods when fish were present inside the MPA were summed.

228 To calculate the proportion of time each fish spent inside the MPA, the time spent inside the
229 MPA was divided with the total time in which the trout was detected (time spanned between first
230 detection inside the MPA and last detection). For all trout entering the Langvad Stream, time spent
231 in the stream was subtracted from the total time spent inside the MPA. For trout that were lost during
232 the 1-year study period, the total time in which the trout was detected span from the first detection
233 inside the MPA (i.e. any receiver inside the MPA) until the estimated loss occurred (inside or outside
234 of the MPA). Importantly, this approach may overestimate the time spent inside the MPA. For
235 example, if a trout emigrated from the Langvad Stream and remained inside the MPA but was
236 removed from MPA after 60 days (e.g. by fishing), the proportion of time spent inside the MPA
237 approached 100% (60 days divided by 60 days and multiplied by 100%).

238 Trout survival throughout the 1-year study period was assumed when the fish was still moving
239 actively towards the study termination. For example, trout entering the MPA in October and moving
240 actively between receivers located inside or outside the MPA 72 hours prior to study termination were
241 estimated as survivors.

242 For trout surviving the full 1-year study period, the total time in which the trout was detected
243 span from the first detection inside the MPA (i.e. any receiver inside the MPA) and until the last
244 detection shortly before the study termination (12th of January 2019). For example, if a trout surviving
245 the entire 1-year study period spent 5 months inside the MPA, residence time inside the MPA was
246 estimated to 41.7% (i.e. 5 months divided by 12 months and multiplied by 100%).

247 **Estimating trout loss inside and outside of the MPA**

248 Similar to previous studies (Aldvén, Hedger, Økland, Rivinoja, & Höjesjö, 2015;
249 Thorbjørnsen et al. 2018), absolute trout loss was quantified for fish residing inside and outside the
250 MPA. Trout were considered lost when transmitters were returned by local fishermen, when fish

251 failed to return to the Langvad Stream during the subsequent spawning season (starting in October)
252 or if horizontal movement completely ceased for more than four months. For trout that ceased to
253 move for at least four months, thereby considered dead, time of mortality was estimated and
254 remaining data were removed from the dataset. Time of mortality for the individuals that ceased to
255 perform horizontal movements ($n = 3$) was estimated based on last evidence of active movement. To
256 confirm trout movements as revealed by the stationary receivers, data from manual tracking were
257 included and analyzed. The manual tracking revealed if trout were outside of stationary receiver
258 detection range, and if so, manual tracking data revealed if trout outside of stationary receiver range
259 were moving or immobile.

260 Statistical analyses and applied software

261 Fishers exact test was applied to compare mortality, respectively inside and outside the MPA.
262 Results were considered significant if $\alpha < 0.05$. Data were downloaded from all receivers using the
263 VUE software (Version 2.6.1, Vemco Ltd., Halifax, Canada). All values are reported as means \pm
264 standard error of the mean, unless noted otherwise. All calculations and analyses were performed in
265 R (R Core Team, 2019).

266 **Results**

267 In total, 50 trout were captured, tagged and released in the Langvad Stream (Figure 2). Three trout
268 were excluded from the study, as they were not detected during the 1-year study period. The
269 remaining 47 trout generated 2,523,761 detections, after accounting for transmitter collisions and
270 false detections.

271 Trout utilization of the MPA was substantial but also versatile. Trout were present inside the
272 MPA throughout the 1-year study period. On average, all trout spent 67.4% ($\pm 4.5\%$) of the time
273 inside the MPA. For trout that did not survive the full study period, this estimate included the period

274 of time spent inside the MPA and until the estimated loss occurred. As indicated above, this approach
275 may inflate the percentage of time spent inside the MPA. Data for trout that survived throughout the
276 full study period (n = 11) were used to produce more accurate estimates of the percentage of time
277 spent inside the MPA. The surviving trout spent on average 50.6% (\pm 8.4%) of the time (i.e.
278 approximately 6 months) inside the MPA. Utilization of the MPA among the surviving trout tended
279 to vary with season. Specifically, the highest percentage of the trout were present inside the MPA
280 during winter, spring and the late autumn, with fewer trout present inside the MPA during summer
281 and early autumn (Figure 3).

282 Trout adopted different behavioral strategies. Throughout the 1-year study period, 62% (n =
283 29) of the trout remained south of Frederikssund whereas 38% (n = 18) migrated north of
284 Frederikssund (Figure 1). These estimates included both surviving and lost trout. For the surviving
285 trout (n = 11) alone, the distributions were as follows A) five trout migrated north of Frederikssund
286 and spent on average 38.2% of time inside the MPA, B) four trout remained south of Frederikssund
287 and spent on average 38.1% of time inside the MPA and two trout resided inside the MPA throughout
288 the entire 1-year study period, performing only minor excursions from the MPA. These trout spent
289 on average 97.5% time inside the MPA. None of the tagged trout re-entered the Langvad Stream
290 during the 1-year study period.

291 The total trout survival throughout the entire study period was 23% (11 surviving and 36 lost
292 trout). Trout loss was higher outside of the MPA (47%, n = 22) than inside of the MPA (30%, n =
293 14). Fisher's exact revealed no significant difference between fish mortality inside and outside the
294 MPA (Fisher's exact test; $p = 0.297$).

295 Among the 14 trout that were lost inside the MPA, data scrutiny revealed that three of them
296 ceased to perform horizontal movements. The remaining 11 trout that were lost inside the MPA

297 disappeared from the area inside the MPA. Manual tracking data confirmed that none of these 11
298 transmitters associated with trout lost inside the MPA were present inside the MPA after the last
299 detection by the stationary receivers. These findings indicated that three trout died inside the MPA
300 whereas 11 were removed from the MPA, presumably as a consequence of fishing activities.

301 Three transmitters from recaptured trout were retrieved from local fishermen, providing
302 evidence of fishing induced mortality. All three recaptured trout were caught using gillnets outside
303 of the MPA.

304 By the end of the 1-year study period, 9 of 11 surviving trout were present inside the MPA,
305 the remaining two trout were still moving outside of the MPA (Figure 2). Data analysis revealed that
306 the two trout residing outside of the MPA at the end of the study period, reentered the MPA between
307 October and November 2018, but left the MPA before the study termination. Illegal gillnetting was
308 observed inside the MPA on at least three occasions, but catches were not quantified. Similarly, illegal
309 angling was observed in the river mouth of the Langvad Stream (i.e. within the 500 m closed zone
310 surrounding the stream mouth).

311 **Discussion**

312 The use of MPAs as a mean to protect aquatic life is growing globally (Gaines et al. 2010),
313 however, but it remains controversial whether MPAs are protecting mobile species (Kerwath et al.
314 2009). Being the first study to investigate MPA efficacy using fish telemetry in Denmark, the present
315 study evaluated whether trout may benefit from protection afforded by a small MPA and estimated
316 the marine mortality inside and outside of the MPA. The present study found that trout spent on
317 average 67% time inside the MPA. It is important to note that this average number could be inflated
318 by the fact that trout that were lost inside the MPA could have a 100% residence time inside the MPA,
319 even if they only spent a relatively short period of time inside the MPA (e.g. weeks). This contrasts

320 with the data representing the surviving trout spending on average 50% time inside the MPA, where
321 the residence time inside the MPA could be estimated more accurately and was performed in
322 agreement with methods described by Knip et al. (2012).

323 Previous studies have revealed that the protection afforded by MPAs for mobile species
324 depends on the time spent inside the MPA by the individual fish (Palumbi, 2004; Kerwath et al. 2009;
325 Knip et al. 2012). The present study found that all trout on average spent 67% time inside the MPA
326 and that surviving trout spent on average 50.4 time inside the MPA. These percentages exceed
327 percentages reported by a previous trout study that quantified time spent inside an MPA. Specifically,
328 Thorbjørnsen et al. (2018) reported that trout spent 32% of the time, during a 1-year period, inside an
329 MPA in Norway.

330 It remains controversial whether MPAs may protect mobile species. It has been suggested that
331 many target species are too mobile to benefit from the protection afforded by area-based management,
332 such as MPAs, and that only resident species benefit from protection afforded by MPAs (FSBI, 2001;
333 Polunin, 2004; Botsford, Micheli, & Hastings, 2003; Sale et al. 2005; Pilyugin et al. 2016). The
334 general preconception is that highly migratory species disperse outside the boundary of MPAs,
335 indicating that large MPAs are required to protect mobile species (FSBI, 2001; Polunin, 2004;
336 Palumbi, 2004; Micheli, Halpern, Botsford, & Warner, 2004; Sale et al. 2005). Using mathematical
337 models, the preconception that mobile species may only benefit from large MPAs has demonstrated
338 by several studies (Guenette & Walters, 2000; Holland, 2000; Botsford et al. 2003; Stefansson &
339 Rosenberg, 2006). On the other hand, mounting evidence based on acoustic fish telemetry reveals
340 that MPAs may provide at least partial protection to mobile species. For example, average
341 percentages spent inside small MPAs range between 32% per year for trout (Thorbjørnsen et al. 2018)
342 to >50% per year for white stumpnose (*Rhabdosargus globiceps*) (Kerwath et al. 2009). The present
343 study revealed that the average trout spent >50% of the time inside a small MPA, indicating that the

344 small MPA provided substantial protection to the fish. Although fishing may be inflated outside of a
345 MPA, potentially eliminating any protective benefits afforded by the MPA (Palumbi, 2004), these
346 findings add to the mounting evidence supporting that small MPAs may provide protection, even to
347 mobile species (Morris & Green, 2012; Kerwath et al. 2009; Thorbjørnsen et al. 2018).

348 The present study found that 77% of all trout were lost in the 1-year study period. In total,
349 30% (n = 14) and 47% (n = 22) of all trout were lost inside and outside of the MPA, respectively.
350 Potentially, the estimated loss could be affected by uncommon fish behaviors. In anadromous species,
351 straying (Keefer & Caudill, 2014; Thorstad et al. 2016) or non-consecutive repeat spawning behavior
352 (Rideout, Rose, & Burton, 2005; Jonsson & Jonsson, 2009) may occur and could affect the present
353 results, but we assume that the marine loss (77%) largely corresponds to marine mortality (including
354 fishing induced mortality). Previous salmonid studies have provided mortality estimates that vary
355 substantially between years and locations (Jonsson and Jonsson, 2009; Aldvén et al. 2015). Annual
356 marine mortality may differ between 15% (Thorstad et al. 2016) and 85% (Berg & Jonsson, 1990;
357 Aarestrup et al. 2015; Kristensen et al. 2019). The marine mortality estimated by the present study
358 (77%) reflects an investigation lasting one year and in one location (Roskilde Fjord), indicating that
359 the estimated annual mortality should be interpreted with caution.

360 Marine mortality of salmonids may be influenced by several factors (Sobocinski, Greene, &
361 Schmidt, 2018), including environmental conditions (Gosselin et al. 2018), predation by birds (Wiese,
362 Parrish, Thompson, & Maranto, 2008), predation by seals (Eero et al. 2011), predation by pike (*Esox*
363 *Lucius*) (Frost, 1954) and fishing (Kerwath et al. 2009; Morris & Green, 2012; Thorstad et al. 2016).
364 Whether pike occur in Roskilde Fjord remains uncertain, but harbour seals (*Phoca Vitulina*) are
365 known to reside in Roskilde Fjord and may target salmonid species (Thomas, Nelson, Lance, Deagle,
366 & Trites, 2017; Wright, Riemer, Brown, Ougzin, & Bucklin, 2007). Previous studies have
367 documented that temperatures recorded by fish telemetry equipment may increase if the tagged fish

368 are consumed by mammalian predators (Wahlberg et al. 2014). This was not observed in the present
369 study. In fact, transmitted temperatures never approached 37 degrees C as would be expected if the
370 transmitter was inside a mammalian or avian predator remaining in the water. These observations
371 indicate that predation by harbour seals is an unlikely mechanism explaining the loss of tagged fish
372 in the present study. Previous studies have documented that cormorants (*Phalacrocorax carbo*) may
373 consume trout and other salmonid species (Thorstad et al. 2012; Jepsen, Flávio, & Koed, 2018; Čech,
374 Čech, Kubečka, Prchalová, & Draštík, 2019). However, the predation risk inflicted by cormorants is
375 low for fish that are exceeding 370 mm in body length (Skov et al. 2014). In terms of salmonids,
376 Jensen et al. 2017 found cormorant-induced mortality to be size dependent with fish larger than 380
377 mm experiencing no predation from cormorants. Based on such results, Čech et al. (2019) indicated
378 that large body size may provide predation refuge. The smallest fish tagged in the present study was
379 45 cm and the average body length of trout that disappeared inside the MPA was 56 cm, suggesting
380 that predation by cormorants is an unlikely mechanism explaining the losses of the tagged fish.

381 This study revealed trout disappearing from inside the MPA. During the 1-year study period,
382 illegal and legal fishing was observed inside the MPA. Previous studies have documented that fishing
383 may affect marine mortality of trout (Rasmussen & Geertz-Hansen, 2001; Kerwath et al. 2009;
384 Sparrevohn, Storr-Paulsen, & Nielsen, 2011; Morris & Green, 2012; Thorstad et al. 2016).
385 Sparrevohn et al. (2011) showed that recreational fishery on trout in Denmark constitute 99% (600
386 tones) of the total annual harvest (609 tones). The study further revealed that approximately 90% (538
387 tones) were caught using rod and line and that 10% were caught using gillnets (Sparrevohn et al.
388 2011). The minimum size for legal harvest of trout in Denmark is 40 cm (Fiskeristyrelsen, 2018). The
389 length of trout tagged in the present study ranged between 45 and 72 cm. Because trout is the most
390 important species to the recreational fishery and is often harvested when caught (Rasmussen &
391 Geertz-Hansen, 2001), the present study indicates that the trout that disappeared from inside the MPA

392 may have been harvested by legal or illegal recreational fisheries. Quantifying the relative effect of
393 the recreational fisheries for trout inside the MPA is troublesome, primarily due to lack of data on the
394 extent of both fisheries, as also highlighted by Kerwath et al. (2009). Future projects should aim to
395 acquire data on fishing activity inside the MPA to investigate recreational fishing as a driver of
396 mortality.

397 Since the 1990s, numerous conservation and restoration projects have aimed to recover a
398 sustainable trout population in the Langvad Stream (e.g. restoration of spawning and rearing habitats
399 and stocking of juvenile trout). Despite these efforts, the abundance of mature trout and density of
400 juveniles remain low in the Langvad Stream (Henriksen, 2017). For example, Henriksen (2017)
401 revealed poor numbers of mature trout (n = 50 to 100 per year) and low density of juvenile trout (18
402 juveniles per 100 m²). To support the trout population in the Langvad Stream, managers aimed to
403 reduce trout marine mortality by implementing the MPA in Kattinge Bay in 2005 (Fiskeridirektoratet,
404 2003). Implementation of the MPA entailed prohibition lure trolling and gillnet fishing inside the
405 MPA (Fiskeridirektoratet, 2003). Although not the most important factor, Sparrevohn et al. 2011
406 revealed that gillnet fishing constitutes 10% of the annual harvest of trout. Based on such findings,
407 combined with the results that trout spend on average >50% time inside the MPA, the present study
408 may indicate that the marine mortality observed in this study could have been higher if the MPA had
409 not been established. However, evaluating the direct effects of the MPA on trout annual marine
410 survival is troublesome, largely due to a lack of reference conditions prior to the implementation of
411 the MPA. These considerations are consistent with previous studies calling for data on reference
412 conditions and specific management goals to evaluate MPAs (Nickols et al. 2019). This is particularly
413 relevant in terms of mobile species where time spent inside the MPA is often unknown, and mortality
414 outside of the MPA may vary depending on migration routes, foraging areas, locations of main
415 predators etc. Importantly, the trout population in the Langvad Stream is not sustainable, and although

416 the MPA offers some protection of the fish, the impact of the MPA is inadequate to recover a
417 sustainable trout population in the stream.

418 **Getting the Langvad Stream to meet the goals of the Water Framework Directive**

419 Free fish passage and partial compliance with the WFD are ensured by circumventing the weir
420 located in the outlet of the Langvad Stream (Figure 1). Previous studies have documented that weirs
421 and barriers often limit migration of various fish species, including salmonids (Olesen & Aarestrup,
422 2006), even when fish passages are installed (Noonan et al. 2012).

423 The current (2017) density of juvenile trout in the Langvad Stream (18 juveniles per 100 m²)
424 is not meeting the GES WFD goal of 80 juveniles per 100 m² (Nielsen, 2016). Several factors may
425 affect the density and production of juvenile trout, including the abundance of spawning individuals
426 in the stream (Henriksen, 2017; Boel & Koed, 2013), predation (Riley & Marsden, 2009) and mature
427 trout marine mortality (Harris & Milner, 2006). Previous studies have documented low numbers of
428 upstream migrating trout in the Langvad Stream, spanning from 50 to 100 individuals every year
429 (Henriksen, 2017). Abundances of spawning trout are influenced by several factors, including barriers
430 (i.e. weirs; Olesen & Aarestrup, 2006), abundance of smolts emigrating from the river (Crozier &
431 Kennedy, 1993; Elliott, 1993) and the marine mortality (Harris & Milner, 2006). Thus, several factors
432 may explain the low numbers of mature trout and low density of juvenile trout in the Langvad stream.

433 Previous studies have demonstrated elevated smolt mortality when fish are passing
434 through lakes or reservoirs. Specifically, the mortality of smolt passing one lake or reservoir may
435 range between 74% (Schwinn, 2018) and >90% (Jepsen et al. 1998). Several studies have surveyed
436 smolt mortality before and after the establishment of a lake (1.12 km²) (Boel & Koed, 2013; Schwinn,
437 2017; Schwinn et al. 2018). Prior to the establishment of the lake, low smolt mortality ranging
438 between 0% and 8% was observed while 74% to >90% mortality was observed after the establishment

439 of the lake (Boel & Koed, 2013; Schwinn et al. 2017; Schwinn, 2018). These findings highlight the
440 dramatic influence of lakes situated within stream systems. Further studies by Schwinn et al. (2017)
441 and Schwinn et al. (2018) documented that elevated smolt mortality caused by lakes within stream
442 systems may eradicate self-sustaining trout populations. Currently, the Langvad Stream encompass
443 three lakes (Figure 2). All trout spawning areas are located upstream of Lake Kattinge (Henriksen,
444 2017). Thus, seaward migrating smolts pass through three lakes before reaching the marine
445 environment. Consistent with other studies (Jepsen et al. 1998; Schwinn et al. 2017, Boel & Koed,
446 2013), Henriksen (1998) documented 88% mortality for smolts passing through the lakes situated in
447 the Langvad Stream. Collectively, these findings suggest that a self-sustainable trout population in
448 the Langvad Stream is dependent on a reduction in the mortality experienced by the smolts migrating
449 between the spawning areas and the stream mouth where there is access to the marine environment.

450 For many salmonid species, the number of mature trout returning to a stream is proportional
451 to the number smolt emigrants from the stream (Crozier & Kennedy, 1993; Elliott, 1993). For
452 example, if the abundance of smolt emigrants is reduced by 50%, then the return of mature trout is
453 also reduced by 50%. Based on these findings, it is likely that the 88% mortality of seaward migrating
454 smolts in the Langvad Stream (Henriksen, 1998) constitute an 88% reduction in the number of
455 returning mature trout. Thus, elevated smolt mortality through the lakes (Figure 2) plays a crucial
456 role in terms of explaining the poor number of adult trout spawning in the Langvad Stream. To ensure
457 a sustainable trout population in Langvad Stream, and meet the goal of the DFFVø trout index, I
458 suggest that circumventing the lakes is a paramount element.

459 **Finding the best route past the lakes in the Langvad Stream to enhance trout**
460 **survival**

461 Free fish passage and partial compliance with the WFD are ensured by circumventing the weir
462 located near the outlet of the Langvad Stream. The present study indicates, however, that the existing
463 plans to diverge the Langvad Stream past the weir may not result in WFD compliance in terms of
464 juvenile trout densities in the Langvad Stream as stipulated by the DFFVØ trout index. To achieve
465 GES and compliance with the WFD with regard to juvenile trout density, I suggest that circumventing
466 the three lakes is inevitable.

467 This study presents an alternative solution to the existing diverging plans. The novel solution
468 will ensure free fish passage and circumvent the three interconnected lakes situated in the Langvad
469 Stream (Figure 2). As indicated, interconnected lakes cause severe smolt mortality (Jepsen et al. 1998;
470 Boel & Koed, 2013; Schwinn et al. 2017) and may eradicate trout populations (Schwinn et al. 2018).
471 Based on such findings, I suggest an alternative solution where smolts can pass from the spawning
472 areas to the Roskilde Fjord without passing through any lakes (Figure 2). Specifically, the Langvad
473 Stream should drain into the Lejre Stream and eventually into the Gevninge Stream. This solution is
474 likely to reduce the smolt mortality from 88% to 5%-26% (Jepsen et al. 1998; Boel & Koed, 2013;
475 Schwinn et al. 2017; Schwinn, 2018). Currently, the distance between the Langvad Stream and the
476 Lejre Stream is about 10 m, suggesting that it is feasible to allocate water from the Langvad Stream
477 to the Lejre Stream. Water levels in the existing lakes may be maintained by allocating a limited
478 amount of water from the Langvad Stream to the lakes, while allocating the majority of the water to
479 the Lejre Stream (Figure 2). This alternate solution entails a relocation of the Langvad Stream outlet
480 from inside the MPA to Lejre Bay (Figure 2). The Lejre Bay is not protected by the MPA inside
481 Kattinge Bay and therefore, trout will not benefit from the protection from the MPA. However, the
482 number of smolts emigrating from the Langvad Stream is anticipated to increase, thus the proportion

483 of mature trouts returning to the Langvad Stream is also expected to increase (Crozier & Kennedy,
484 1993; Elliott, 1993). Although further research is required, these changes might alleviate the need for
485 an MPA to protect the trout in the marine environment.

486 **Relocating and improving the MPA**

487 By implementing the MPA in Kattinge Bay in 2005, managers aimed to enhance trout marine
488 survival (Fiskeridirektoratet, 2003). The current diverging plans entail that the outlet of the Langvad
489 Stream will be located outside of the MPA. Therefore, trout emigrating from the Langvad Stream
490 will not receive protection from the MPA (figure); thus, the protective benefits afforded by the
491 existing MPA are likely to diminish. As the present diverging plans for the Langvad Stream will
492 encompass all three lakes, smolt mortality is expected to remain at approximately 80-95% (Henriksen,
493 1998).

494 The present study revealed that 62% of all trout resided in the southern part of the Roskilde
495 Fjord throughout the entire 1-year study period (i.e. spent 100% of the time south of Frederikssund).
496 Specifically, 62% of the tracked fish resided south of Frederikssund, whereas the remaining 38%
497 went north of Frederikssund. For the surviving trout, 55% (n = 6) remained south of Frederikssund,
498 whilst 45% (n = 5) were detected at the most northern receivers located at Dyrnæs (Figure 1). These
499 findings suggest that a large component of the trout population reside in the southern part of the
500 Roskilde Fjord. These considerations suggest that expanding the MPA may protect a larger proportion
501 of the trout population for an extended period. However, present results indicated that the current
502 MPA regulations allow fishing techniques that are accounting for a large part of the mortality
503 observed inside the MPA. The extent of legal or illegal fishing leading to trout mortality inside the
504 MPA remains unknown, thus enhancing both regulation and enforcement may further reduce marine
505 mortality. Specifically, converting the current MPA into a no-take marine reserve (i.e. no harvest)
506 may ensure enhanced marine survival. Importantly, previous studies have revealed that marine

507 reserves provide benefits superior to partially protected MPA (Lester & Halpern, 2008). Combining
508 the alternative solution of diverging Langvad Stream to Lejre Stream (Figure 1) with a future MPA
509 in Roskilde Fjord to protect trout, I suggest that a no-take marine reserve is established in the Lejre
510 Bay if Langvad Stream is diverged into the Lejre Stream (Figure 1). This solution would reduce smolt
511 mortality in the stream as well as the mortality of the trout in the marine environment. A no-take
512 marine reserve in Lejre Bay would protect trout emigrating from the Lejre Stream. If the no-take
513 marine reserve is extended beyond the Lejre Bay, it is likely to provide additional protection of the
514 fish.

515 **Using fish telemetry to investigate effects of marine protected areas.**

516 In the present study, the receiver network was divided into three groups (figure 2). Group 2
517 located outside of the MPA was positioned 15-40 meters from the MPA boarder. Trout detected at
518 group 2 were considered outside of the MPA. Combined with the detection range (up to 400-500
519 meter, depending on the weather etc.), the present study may have considered trout situated inside the
520 MPA as located outside of the MPA. Thus, employing this conservative approach, trout presence
521 inside the MPA may have been underestimated.

522 Small sample sizes influence whether extrapolations to the entire population can be made.
523 The Wolf trap deployed in the Langvad Stream (Figure 2) captured all trout performing upstream
524 migration between 1st November 2017 and 14th December 2018. Across this period, 56 mature trout
525 were caught and 50 relatively large individuals were tagged. Therefore, despite a small sample size,
526 it is likely that a large part of the trout population was tagged.

527

528 **Conclusion**

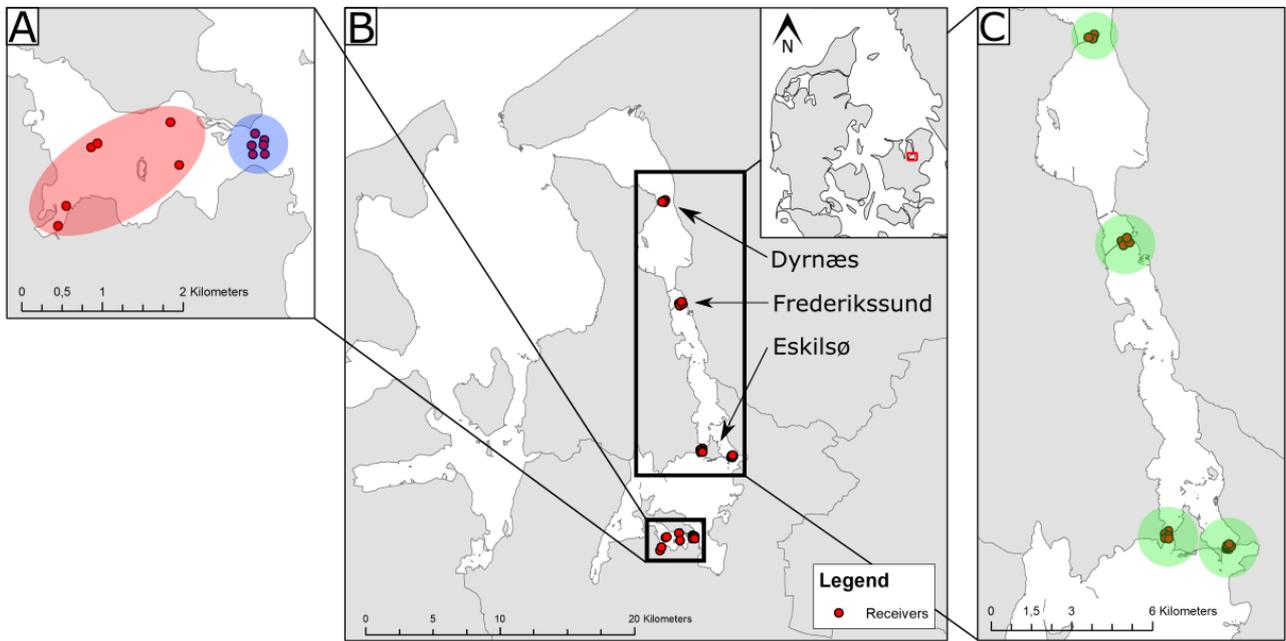
529 Using acoustic telemetry, this study estimated the effects of a small MPA in terms of
530 protecting anadromous trout. Trout residence time inside the MPA was relatively high (> 50%),
531 indicating that small MPAs may protect mobile anadromous species. The present study indicated that
532 a substantial proportion (23% of all trout) may have been harvested by legal or illegal recreational
533 fishing inside the MPA. Thus, implementing further fishing restrictions, such as 100% catch and
534 release or prohibition of all fishing inside the MPA, may reduce the marine mortality.

535 Circumventing the weir in the Langvad Stream will comply with the goal of ensuring free fish
536 passage as stipulated by the EU WFD. The present examination revealed that a key element to ensure
537 a sustainable trout population and achieve GES in compliance with the DFFVø trout index is to
538 circumvent the three interconnected lakes situated in the Langvad Stream. The current diverging plans
539 of the Langvad Stream will not circumvent the three lakes, therefore smolt mortality in the diverged
540 Langvad Stream likely remains unchanged. Combined with the fact that trout emigrating from the
541 diverged Langvad Stream will not receive direct protective benefits afforded by the existing MPA,
542 this study concluded that the planned attempt to comply with the WFD may provide a limited
543 improvement of the juvenile trout density in the Langvad Stream.

544 Instead, I suggest that the Langvad Stream is diverged into the Lejre Stream combined with
545 the establishment of a no-take marine reserve in the Lejre Bay, potentially expanded to cover the
546 southern part of Roskilde fjord (i.e. south of Frederikssund). By diverging the river to Lejre Stream,
547 the Langvad Stream may comply with both goals stipulated under the WFD (i.e. ensuring free fish
548 passage and 80 juvenile trout per 100 m²).

549 **Figures**

550 **Figure 1**



551 Figure 1 Map of the study site and receiver locations throughout the Roskilde Fjord, including
552 location names for receivers deployed at Dyrnæs, Frederikssund and Eskilsø. Map A shows receiver
553 group 1 (red) located inside the MPA and receiver group 2 (blue) located outside of the MPA. Map
554 B shows the Roskilde Fjord including location names for receiver group 3. Map C show receiver
555 group 3 (green) located outside of the MPA.

556

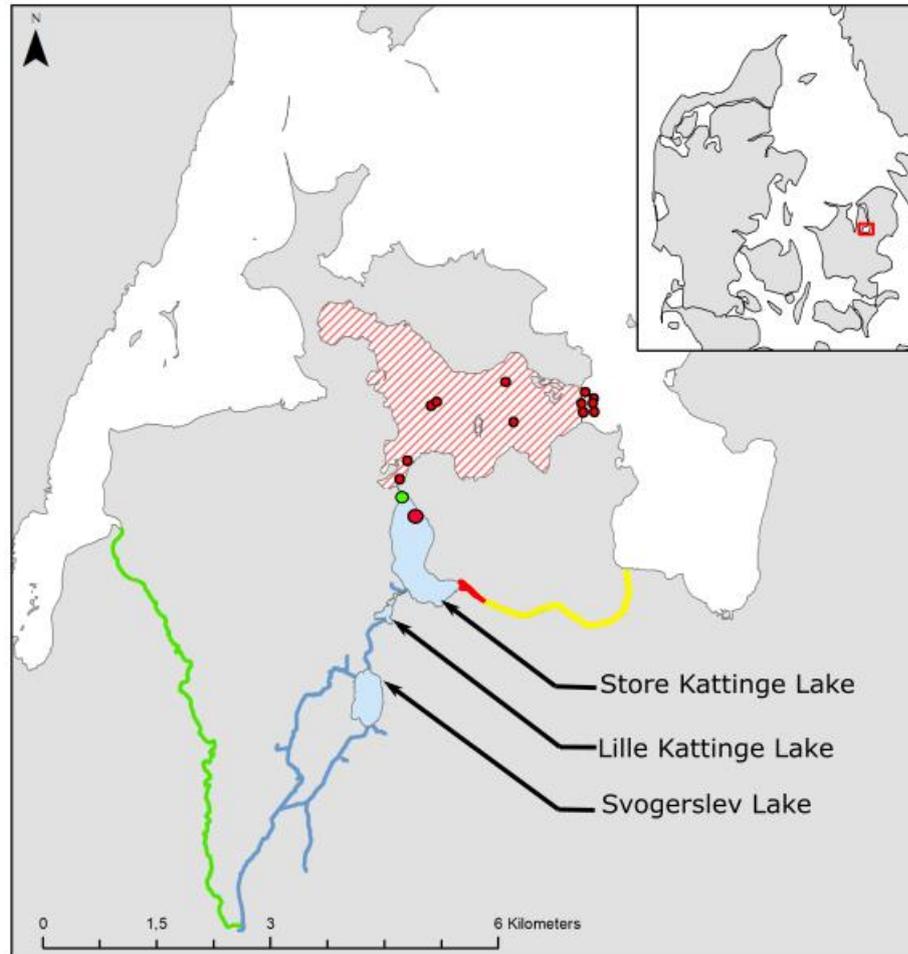
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561 Figure 2

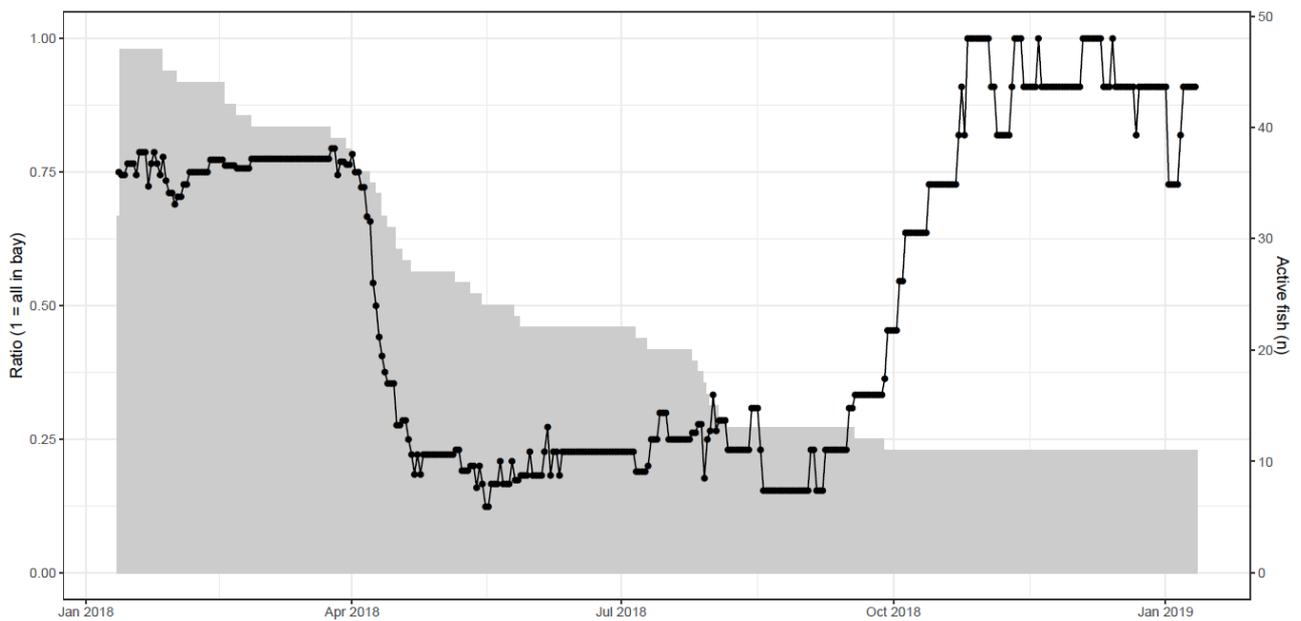


562

563 Figure 2 Map of the study site showing the MPA (red stippled line), receivers deployed inside and
564 outside the MPA (red dots), the weir located near the outlet of the Langvad Stream (green dot), the
565 Langvad Stream (dark blue lines), the three interconnected lakes (light blue areas), the existing
566 diverging plan for the Langvad Stream (red line), the Gedebæk Stream (yellow line), and the alternate
567 solution of diverging Langvad Stream to Lejre Stream and Gevning Stream (green line). Smolt
568 performing seaward migration experience 88% mortality when passing through the three lakes
569 (Henriksen, 1998). Spawning areas and trout rearing areas in the Langvad Stream are located
570 upstream of the Svogerslev Lake.

571

572 Figure 3



573 Figure 3 Trout residency inside the marine protected area (MPA) in the Kattinge Bay (Figure 2). The
574 left y axis and the black line represents the ratio of tagged trout present inside the MPA. A ratio of 1
575 means that all active fish (i.e. live fish) are inside the MPA, a ratio of 0 means that all active fish (i.e.
576 live fish) are outside the MPA. The ratio was calculated as the sum of all live fish present inside the
577 MPA divided by the sum of all live fish situated both inside and outside of the MPA. The right y axis
578 and the gray scaled area represent the number of live trout throughout the 1-year study period.

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