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Robust recolonization of Pacific lamprey following dam removals

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34 **Abstract**

35 Removal of two dams in the Elwha River basin started one of the largest river restoration
36 projects ever attempted in the Pacific Northwest. These dams had eliminated Pacific lamprey
37 populations upstream. After the dam removals, larval production increased in the upper
38 watershed, but the sources and numbers of new adult spawners were unknown. We applied
39 genetic stock identification (GSI), parentage (PA), and sibship (SA) assignment methods to: 1)
40 determine the origins of Pacific lamprey larvae and juveniles, 2) quantify the increase in
41 numbers of successful Elwha River spawners (i.e., “effective spawners”, N_b) and assess whether
42 the current numbers of spawners have reached levels equivalent to those of neighboring
43 undammed basins, and 3) determine the relative productivity of streams within the Elwha River
44 and how overall productivity originating from this system may be distributed across the broader
45 surrounding region. We utilized a highly accurate set of 263 single nucleotide polymorphism
46 (SNP) loci to perform PA and SA (>99% accuracy rate); and an additional set of 28 SNPs for
47 GSI. Our results showed that a single stream (Indian Creek) was the source of 41% of larval and
48 juvenile production in the Elwha River. Our N_b estimates for the Elwha River indicated a 12-
49 fold increase in N_b in the three years following dam removal, with recent N_b estimates matching
50 those of neighboring Olympic Peninsula basins. These results indicate rapid recolonization
51 potential for this highly dispersive species and high productivity within the Elwha River suggests
52 that restoring passage to adequate habitat is a highly effective approach to re-establish
53 populations of Pacific lamprey in coastal systems.

54 **Introduction**

55 Pacific lamprey have suffered declines across the species’ range due to habitat loss,
56 passage impediments, and even active poisoning. Multifaceted strategies have been employed to
57 re-establish self-sustaining, harvestable abundance of adults, larvae, and juveniles. The greatest
58 level of human intervention may be required in the upper reaches of large river basins. For
59 example, the Columbia River Treaty Tribes have employed high levels of sustained translocation
60 (i.e., human-mediated transfers of fish to areas upstream from hydropower dams) and developed

61 effective artificial propagation. In smaller coastal systems, the species may need just an
62 opportunity to access appropriate habitat to naturally re-establish because these areas have fewer
63 passage impediments and greater proximity to oceanic sources of Pacific lamprey spawners. For
64 small coastal rivers with dams that prevent passage of Pacific lamprey, dam removal could be the
65 only requisite for restoration of robust and self-sustaining Pacific lamprey abundance via natural
66 recolonization (Reid & Goodman 2020; Moser et al. In Press).

67 Pacific lamprey in the Elwha River drainage present an ideal case study for examining
68 the characteristics of anadromous recolonization of a coastal river basin following dam removal.
69 Removal of two large, obsolete dams started one of the largest river restoration projects ever
70 attempted in the Pacific Northwest. These dams had eliminated Pacific lamprey populations
71 upstream, but adults rapidly recolonized the upper watershed after dam removal (Moser and
72 Paradis 2017). While natural recolonization was underway, adult lamprey from neighboring
73 watersheds were collected, genetic sampled, radio-tagged and translocated to the lower Elwha
74 River to document migratory behavior. These collections allowed evaluation of the effectiveness
75 of translocating fish during active natural recolonization efforts.

76 While translocation of adult Pacific lamprey can aid population recovery (Close et al.
77 2009; Ward et al. 2012), natural recolonization following barrier removal can also occur rapidly
78 (e.g., Hogg et al. 2013; Hess et al. 2015; Pereira et al. 2017; Jolley et al. 2018). Lampreys
79 apparently are not philopatric and use pheromonal cues to find watersheds for spawning
80 (reviewed in Moser et al. 2015). The relative rates of population recovery following natural
81 recolonization compared to production resulting from translocated adults likely depends on the
82 system and sources of lamprey (Reid and Goodman 2020).

83 Immediately after dam removal was completed in March 2012, Pacific lamprey were
84 noted upstream from the former Elwha Dam site (Moser & Paradis 2017), however, the exact
85 numbers and sources of effective spawners responsible for this production were unknown. The
86 larvae in one stream (Indian Creek) were observed to increase by 14X in the five years following
87 dam removal (from 132 larvae in 2014 to 1,805 larvae in 2016; Moser & Paradis 2017), but it
88 was unknown whether effective spawners increased at the same rate. Given the high fecundity
89 of Pacific lamprey (Kan 1975), it is possible that the increase in spawners could be much lower
90 than the observed increase in larvae, indicating a less robust recovery.

91 Second, it was unclear what the relative productivity was across the streams within the
92 Elwha River basin because all streams could not be monitored intensively and consistently. One
93 stream, Indian Creek, appears to have supported relatively high increases of juvenile salmonids
94 (i.e., Chinook Salmon *Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*, Coho Salmon *O. kisutch*, and Steelhead *O.*
95 *mykiss*; McHenry et al. 2020) compared to other streams of the Elwha River basin. A similar
96 pattern may occur in Pacific lamprey recruitment.

97 Finally, the relative contribution of this new productivity in the Elwha basin could benefit
98 the entire region given the lack of homing in this species. Understanding sources and sinks of
99 production is a key management question for all native anadromous lampreys (Lucas et al. In
100 Press). Until recently, understanding population dynamics of anadromous lampreys was
101 rudimentary at best. Yet such information is crucial for adaptive management of these imperiled
102 species. With the development of recent genetic methods for Pacific lamprey, like genetic stock
103 identification (GSI) and parentage (PA) and sibship assignment (SA), this information has
104 become available.

105 The three different genetic methods (GSI, PA, and SA) provide ways to address similar
106 objectives (e.g. identify natal origins of individuals), but they differ in precision and sampling
107 requirements. GSI identifies individuals to their genetic stock-of-origin and can be an effective
108 way to perform mixed stock analysis for management (Shaklee et al. 1999). The precision of
109 GSI depends on the spatial scale in which stock level differentiation is observed, which can be at
110 small scales within the basin level for some species (e.g. steelhead in the Snake River basin,
111 Nielsen et al. 2009; Campbell et al. 2012), but at larger regional spatial scales for others (e.g.
112 Eulachon, *Thaleichthys pacificus*; Candy et al. 2015). PA and SA can be used to precisely
113 identify individuals to the spawning-site-of-origin of the sampled parents (Steele et al. 2019) or
114 natal-site-of-origin of sampled siblings in the baseline (Jones and Wang 2010), respectively. In
115 addition, SA can be used to estimate effective numbers of spawners (N_b), a potential proxy for
116 adult abundance (Ackerman et al. 2017). Larval and juvenile full-sibling baselines can be
117 effective to estimate the number of effective spawners that contributed to each collection of
118 young life stages (e.g., Hess et al. 2015; Whitlock et al. 2017). Here we define “larvae” as
119 immature, filter-feeding lamprey without eyes and “juveniles” as fully transformed individuals
120 with eyes that are ready to feed (Clemens 2019).

121 We used genetic monitoring of the Elwha River Pacific lamprey to address the following
122 three objectives: 1) determine the origins of larvae and juveniles of Pacific lamprey collected in
123 the Elwha River and thereby attribute production to translocation versus natural recolonization,
124 2) quantify the increase in numbers of effective spawners in the Elwha River and determine
125 whether current numbers of effective spawners have reached levels observed in neighboring
126 undammed basins, and 3) determine the relative productivity of streams within the Elwha River
127 basin and how overall productivity originating from the Elwha River is distributed across the
128 broader surrounding region.

129 We used a highly accurate (>99% accuracy rate) set of 263 single nucleotide
130 polymorphism (SNP) loci to perform single PA and SA, and an additional 28 SNPs to perform
131 GSI. We expected the following answers to our questions: 1) Larval and juvenile production in
132 the Elwha River is primarily sourced from natural recolonization given the relatively modest
133 translocation effort (<50 adults), 2) increases in effective spawners is as rapid as the 14X
134 increase in larvae during the five years following dam removal; however, given the relatively
135 recent recolonization in the Elwha River, numbers of effective spawners will be lower than in
136 undammed basins, and 3) within the Elwha River, Indian Creek would contribute most
137 production given its high productivity for salmonids, but the overall contribution of Pacific
138 lamprey from the Elwha River to the broader surrounding region would be relatively small given
139 its recent founding and small area relative to surrounding sources of Pacific lamprey.

140

141 **Methods**

142 *Sample collections*

143 The collections of Pacific lamprey included individuals from within the Elwha River
144 basin, neighboring basins of the Olympic Peninsula, ocean-phase individuals along the U.S.
145 West Coast, and adult returns to the Willamette River in the Columbia River (Fig. 1). In addition,
146 “Range-wide” reference collections that were previously genotyped were utilized for the GSI
147 baseline (Hess et al. 2013, labeled in Fig.1a).

148 The bulk of the samples were larvae, juveniles and adults collected from the Elwha River
149 ($N=773$). We referred to groups of these collections from the Elwha River as: “Elwha_EF” =
150 larval and juvenile Pacific lamprey that were electro-fished; “Elwha_ST” = larval and juvenile
151 Pacific lamprey that were collected via rotary screw trap; and “Elwha_pbt vol” = volitional adult

152 migrants used as candidate parents in the parentage based tagging baseline. One sample of
153 adults was translocated into the Elwha River from other basins ($N=42$, referred to as “Elwha_pbt
154 trans” in Table 1). All larvae and juveniles were collected via electrofishing or by rotary screw
155 trap; the latter method also recovered some post-spawned adults. Adults translocated into the
156 Elwha River from neighboring basins (i.e., Deep Creek, East Twin River, and Salt Creek) were
157 always released and radio-tagged the same day of capture.

158 Pacific lamprey samples were also collected from outside the Elwha River basin.
159 Electrofished samples from neighboring drainages (Deep Creek, East Twin River, West Twin
160 River, and Lyre River 2015-2018, $N=355$) are referred to as “OLY_EF” and were Olympic
161 Peninsula larvae and juveniles. One group of these genetic samples came from electro-fished
162 larvae in Salt Creek (#9,10) and were subsequently translocated in 2018 to Little River (site #36,
163 Fig. 1), a stream within the Elwha River basin that had no prior lamprey production. Genetic
164 samples were also taken from parasitic, ocean-phase individuals (“ocean”, $N=695$) collected in
165 the 2017 Pacific hake (*Merluccius productus*) trawl fishery in the ocean off Washington, Oregon,
166 and northern California (Fig. 1). Samples from miscellaneous adults that were hand collected at
167 Willamette Falls (Columbia River drainage, Fig. 1) in 2014 and 2015 were used as a control
168 group to test assignment methods ($N=1714$, “MISC_Adult”).

169 170 *Molecular analysis*

171 We used both ethanol and dry storage of fin tissues followed by extraction and
172 Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) for genotyping-by-sequencing techniques on an Illumina
173 sequencer. Single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) genotypes were generated using the
174 Genotyping-in-Thousands by sequencing (GT-seq) custom amplicon method described by
175 Campbell et al. (2015). The 308 SNP loci in the panel were selected to be representative of
176 neutral and adaptive loci across the geographic range of Pacific lamprey, as described by Hess et
177 al. (2020). For this study, we used a subset of 295 of these previously published loci. For the
178 most part this subset was a reduction from the larger number of loci, however seven loci were
179 reanalyzed to target a different SNP than had been previously genotyped in the same amplicon
180 (Etr_480-67, Etr_930-35, Etr_2016-70, Etr_3037-68, Etr_6318-70, Etr_7166-73, and Etr_7974-
181 70). The final 295 SNP panel included 263 SNPs that were used for PA and SA applications (12
182 of these 263 SNPs are adaptive), four for species determination (Hess et al. 2015, Arakawa et al.

183 in review), and 28 additional SNPs for characterizing adaptive variation (defined by outlier tests;
184 Hess et al. 2013, 2020).

185

186 *Statistical analysis*

187 Using GENEPOP v.4.2, we performed linkage disequilibrium (LD) tests for all locus
188 pairs and characterized minor allele frequency (MAF). For the LD tests, the Range-wide
189 reference collections were pooled into the following four major groups to strike a balance
190 between maximizing samples sizes per test population and minimizing Wahlund effects (Hess et
191 al. 2013): North (A, B), South (P, Q), Lower Columbia (G2, G3, H, I) and Interior Columbia
192 (J2, J3, K, L; Table S1; Hess et al. 2013). We used three software programs to conduct PA using
193 the 263 loci: parent pair assignments using SNPPIT v.1.0 (Anderson 2012), and single parent
194 assignments using COLONY v.2.0.6.5 (Jones and Wang 2010) and SEQUOIA v. 2.0.7 (Huisman
195 2017). These three programs were used in combination for parentage to support results through
196 concordance. SNPPIT parent pair assignments generally provide highest confidence but can
197 only be performed when both parents of a candidate offspring are present in the baseline. When
198 one parent is missing, single parent assignments must be relied upon to identify offspring from a
199 baseline of candidate parents and require greater power to match the same level of accuracy of
200 SNPPIT. Therefore, we compared any candidate parent assignments in COLONY with results
201 from SNPPIT parent pair assignments and SEQUOIA single parent assignments for concordance.
202 Further, we used new methods to perform simulations in SEQUOIA to measure the accuracy of
203 this approach given the information content (variation) in our markers and datasets. COLONY
204 was also used to reconstruct full-sibling families (Wang 2004) for each study collection and
205 estimate effective number of spawners (N_b , Wang 2009) using the 263 SNPs (Table 1).

206 Individuals were assigned as parent-offspring trios using a likelihood-based method
207 implemented in SNPPIT with the parameter `-max-par-miss` set to 262 (total SNP $N - 1$). This
208 effectively allows all parents and offspring in the dataset to be compared regardless of missing
209 data (missing data were already minimized by excluding individuals missing $\geq 10\%$ genotypes).
210 We used an estimated SNP genotyping error rate of 1.0% or a per allele rate of 0.5%. The
211 SNPPIT assesses confidence of parentage assignments using a false discovery rate (FDR), and
212 we only accepted assignments with a very stringent FDR threshold of $< 0.5\%$ (i.e. we expected
213 the fraction of offspring assigned to incorrect parents to be < 1 in 200). A 0.5% per allele error

214 rate was chosen as a conservative value for this SNPPIT parameter because it is larger than the
215 observed per locus error rate of 0.2%.

216 In COLONY, we analyzed the larval and juvenile collections together as one (i.e.,
217 $N=1815$ for ELWHA_EF, ELWHA_ST, OLY_EF, and Ocean; Table 1) using the following
218 parameter settings: polygamous mating for males and females without inbreeding, full-likelihood,
219 medium length of run, no allele updating, and no sibship priors. These parameter settings were
220 chosen based on prior work that empirically demonstrated the polygamous system of mating and
221 confirmed the accuracy of the sibship reconstruction based on comparisons with known familial
222 relationships (Hess et al. 2015). We also analyzed each collection separately using the same
223 settings to calculate effective population size estimates for each collection. For the first analysis
224 that grouped all larval and juvenile collections ($N=1815$), we also used the adult collections (i.e.,
225 $N=1765$ for MISC_Adult and Elwha_pbt; Table 1) as candidate parents of unknown sex and
226 assumed that the probability that any of these candidates were true parents was 25%. This prior
227 was chosen as our best estimate of the probability that the actual parent of an offspring in the
228 offspring sample is included in the candidate parents sample as suggested in the manual. We
229 estimated we had obtained a sample of candidate parents that were no more than a quarter of the
230 fish that spawned.

231 SingleSEQUOIA (<https://github.com/delomast/singleSequoia>, Thomas Delomas, IDFG)
232 is an R package (R Development Core Team 2008) that interfaces with IDFGEN objects to build
233 SEQUOIA (Huisman 2017) inputs for single parent assignment. It also has a function to run
234 simulated analyses in SEQUOIA to estimate expected error rates for single parent assignment
235 given a baseline, marker panel, and number of expected offspring (Supplemental Materials). The
236 threshold for accepting single parent assignments was set to a value of 0.5 log₁₀-likelihood ratio
237 (LLR) between a parent-offspring relationship versus unrelated which was chosen based on prior
238 work that demonstrated this threshold provided an optimal tradeoff between false positive and
239 false negative errors. The results from the simulations confirmed this LLR threshold would yield
240 low error rates for this dataset (Results section).

241 The GSI analyses required two steps to process the reference collections into GSI
242 baselines: 1) constructing reporting groups and 2) testing baseline accuracy. Our goal was to
243 construct an optimal set of reporting groups that maximized both geographic and genetic
244 cohesiveness. Ideally, dividing reference collections into reporting groups that represent the

245 smallest geographic regions possible is most informative for GSI if the baseline achieves high
246 accuracy. We used STRUCTURE v. 2.3.4 (Pritchard et al. 2000) as a heuristic approach to
247 dividing reference collections into the smallest reporting units for accurate GSI discrimination.
248 We used 291 SNPs (having removed 4 species diagnostic markers) and an initial burn-in of 20
249 000 iterations followed by 200 000 iterations of the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method
250 to generate posterior probabilities allowing for admixture for each of 40 trials setting K from 1 to
251 10. To obtain a set of robust individual assignments, a membership coefficient (Q) was
252 calculated for each of K_n clusters, and the Greedy algorithm in CLUMPP (Jakobsson and
253 Rosenberg 2007) was used to find the optimal alignment of clusters across multiple runs using
254 method 2 with 100 repeats. Only the top ten replicate STRUCTURE trials with highest mean
255 $\ln[\text{Pr}(X/K)]$ were averaged using the Greedy algorithm in CLUMPP. The best alignment
256 configuration was computed by 100 configurations that were examined for the highest pairwise
257 similarity (H') to achieve optimal alignment.

258 We tested GSI baseline accuracy using leave-1-out assignment probabilities estimated
259 with the program GENECLASS2 (Piry et al. 2004), which implemented the Bayesian method of
260 Rannala and Mountain (1997). Following assignment of each individual fish, the estimated
261 assignment probabilities to each reporting group were averaged for each collection of fish. The
262 following two baselines were tested: 1) Range-wide and 2) Olympic Peninsula. The Range-wide
263 Baseline contained 21 reference collections (Hess et al. 2013) divided into five different groups
264 by geographic region. Reporting groups were constructed with guidance from the results of
265 STRUCTURE, while trying to maintain geographic cohesion. The Olympic Peninsula Baseline
266 only contained collections within the Elwha River basin (i.e., ELWHA_EF and ELWHA_ST
267 grouped by stream) and its neighboring tributaries (i.e., OLY_EF grouped by river basin) on the
268 Olympic Peninsula. For leave-1-out tests, a level of 90% correct assignment has been used in
269 fisheries management to indicate that baseline populations have been adequately delineated
270 enough to assign individuals from fishery mixtures (e.g. Smith et al. 2005; Beacham et al. 2006;
271 and Seeb et al. 2007). Neither of the two baselines approached this level of accuracy in correct
272 self-assignments across reporting groups, but the Range-wide baseline performed best.

273 After establishing the Range-wide GSI baseline, we applied it to our objectives to
274 determine the natal-origin of fish based on their assignment probabilities to the reporting groups
275 of the GSI baseline. We performed individual assignments of the following unknown mixtures

276 of fish: 1) ELWHA_EF, 2) ELWHA_ST, 3) OLY_EF, 4) Ocean, and 5) MISC_Adult.
277 Individual assignments to the Range-wide baseline reporting groups were estimated with the
278 Bayesian method implemented in *gsi_sim* (Anderson et al., 2008), which generated a probability
279 of origin using well-established methods for genetic stock identification (Smouse et al. 1990;
280 Paetkau et al. 1995; Rannala and Mountain 1997). The proportion of fish assigned to the
281 reporting group with highest probability (“best estimate” of reporting group of origin) was
282 calculated for each of the unknown mixtures.

283

284 *Objective 1: Determine the origins of larval and juvenile Pacific lamprey of the Elwha River*
285 *basin and attribute production to translocation versus natural recolonization*

286 We used PA to determine whether larvae and juveniles collected in the Elwha River were
287 progeny of any of the sampled adults (translocated versus volitional migrants). Candidate
288 offspring (mixtures 1 - 4 described for GSI above) were assigned to a parent baseline using
289 parent pairs via the program SNPPIT and single parents via the programs COLONY and
290 SEQUOIA. The parent baseline included volitional migrants in the Elwha River and Olympic
291 Peninsula, “ELWHA_pbt(vol)” N=9, translocated adults used for telemetry in the Elwha River
292 basin, “ELWHA_pbt(trans)” N=42, and a set of negative control adults “MISC_Adult” from the
293 Willamette River (N=1714).

294

295 *Objective 2: Quantify the increase in numbers of effective spawners in the Elwha River and*
296 *determine whether current numbers of spawners are equivalent to undammed basins*

297 We used the effective population size (N_e) estimate from COLONY to determine whether
298 effective spawner size (N_b) has increased with time using two screw trap collections in 2018
299 from Indian Creek (N = 447, stream within the Elwha River basin) and the mouth of the Elwha
300 River (N = 69). These two sites were ideal for this analysis because they had relatively large
301 sample sizes spanning a diversity of sizes of fish that represented multiple brood years. These
302 sites were also ideal because Indian Creek was a site in which larvae had been previously
303 quantified to have increased by 14X over recent years and we could compare whether the trend
304 in N_b was similar to this rate of increase. Further, the mouth of the Elwha River was perfect
305 because it represented the productivity of the entire basin, since all fish had to pass this point
306 before migrating to the ocean no matter their natal stream. N_b is the effective number of

307 spawners during a single breeding event and is approximately equal to the metric N_e when N_b is
308 multiplied by the generation time (Waples, 1989). When we separated out each collection of
309 larvae and juveniles by brood year, we could estimate N_b ; however, when we analyzed
310 collections together as putative mixtures of brood years, our estimate of effective spawners was
311 likely a hybrid between N_b and N_e . For consistency we distinguished these latter estimates as N_e .
312 Using our size-proxies for aging, these collections were estimated to represent at least six brood
313 years (2013 – 2018). The collection from the mouth of the Elwha River was split into the
314 following three pairs of consecutive brood years to obtain sample sizes >15 fish per sample:
315 BY2013-2014, BY2015-2016, and BY2017-2018. The collection from Indian Creek was split
316 into four brood years: 2013 – 2016. N_b was estimated for each brood year sample within both
317 sites to examine temporal trends.

318 Finally, we estimated N_e using collections of larvae and juveniles from undammed
319 tributaries to the Strait of Juan de Fuca, ocean-phase lamprey, and adult returns at Willamette
320 Falls. These estimates provided context for our estimates of N_e among collections within the
321 Elwha River. For these comparisons, only collections with sample sizes >30 were used to
322 provide the most robust estimates. To avoid complexities of differing growth rates among
323 tributaries and older life stages, we did not attempt to split each collection by estimated brood
324 year; however, length histograms were generated for each collection to aid interpretation of the
325 results.

326 Our N_b analyses required information on brood year composition of larvae to make
327 accurate comparisons across collections. We used length-based age estimates to determine
328 brood years. Larvae in the study ranged 31 – 152 mm while juveniles ranged 86 – 170 mm,
329 which generally translated to more recent versus older brood years, respectively. However, we
330 also captured larvae and juveniles during a range of dates throughout the year, so we used the
331 following methodology to standardize brood year estimates. We delineated age class intervals
332 based on size by first defining a 1-year age class informed by two data points of known ages (i.e.,
333 from parentage assignments). The length range of 30 – 59 mm was used as a proxy for yearlings,
334 and a linear growth rate of 30 mm/year from year 1 to year 4 was used to delineate the
335 subsequent age classes: 2 (60 – 89 mm), 3 (90 – 119 mm), and 4 (120 – 150 mm). Juveniles of
336 any length were assumed to be age 5 (the median Pacific lamprey age at metamorphosis, Dawson
337 et al. 2015). Collection dates were used in conjunction with observed body length to fine-tune

338 age estimates and a single birthdate of May 1st was assumed for consistency when estimating
339 total age. For example, a larva measuring 30 mm collected on May 5th, 2018 was assumed to
340 have a birthdate on May 1st, 2017 and estimated age of 1 year and 4 days. In cases where a larva
341 was captured between October – December of a given year and had an observed length in the
342 lower half of the size range, we assumed that it had experienced the full growing period of that
343 year and adjusted its birthdate accordingly. For example, a larva measuring 30 mm that was
344 collected on October 1st, 2018 was assumed to have a birthdate on May 1st, 2018 (aged 5 months).
345 In contrast, a larva measuring 59 mm collected on October 1st, 2018 was assumed to have a
346 birthdate on May 1st, 2017 (aged 1 year 5 months). These length-based age-class estimates were
347 verified by instances in which we had full-sibship families that were recaptured across years (we
348 examined whether recaptures from a subsequent year fit into the expected range of body lengths
349 for the subsequent age class).

350

351 Objective 3: Determine the relative productivity of streams within the Elwha River and its
352 regional contribution

353 We used SA to better understand which streams drive productivity in the Elwha and how
354 this productivity may influence the surrounding region. COLONY results were used to determine
355 the composition of stream-of-origin for larvae and juveniles exiting the mouth of the Elwha
356 River, in the ocean, and at Willamette Falls. The collections of larvae and juveniles from sites in
357 the Elwha River basin were first ordered from upstream to downstream and by collection year
358 within each site. We reconstructed full-sibling families among all individuals in the dataset. We
359 assumed that for each pair of full siblings that the full-sibling family originated nearest to the
360 sibling collected at the most upstream site and was present at least since the earliest collection
361 year of either sibling. For example, a juvenile collected at the screw trap at the mouth of the
362 Elwha River was determined to have a natal origin from Indian Creek if it had a full sibling that
363 was collected in Indian Creek. For lamprey collected from the Elwha River basin, we estimated
364 brood year using length-based age methodology to further characterize the composition of natal
365 origins in each collection. One natal origin site (Indian Creek) was detected in relatively high
366 abundance ($N > 15$) at the mouth of the Elwha River. To better understand ages at outmigration,
367 we compared the composition of Indian Creek ages (length-based estimates) to those at the river
368 mouth for the same collection year.

369

370

371 **Results**

372 *Power and accuracy of genetic methods*

373 For PA and SA applications, we omitted all but one locus for each LD pair because
374 parentage requires independent loci. There were 138 significant pairs of loci in LD found in four
375 major pooled groups North (A, B), South (P, Q), Lower Columbia (G2, G3, H, I) and Interior
376 Columbia (J2, J3, K, L; Table S1; Hess et al. 2013) which involved 49 unique loci. One locus per
377 LD pair was dropped for a total of 28 dropped and 21 retained, which left a total of 263
378 independent loci.

379 The 263 SNP loci were chosen to be highly informative for parentage applications across
380 the species range; the average MAF across 16 reference populations (Hess et al. 2013) with $N >$
381 20 varied 5% - 50% with mean average MAF of 31%. The study dataset (Table 1) was cleaned
382 to remove individuals with low genotyping success ($>10\%$ missing loci) and duplicate
383 individuals (different at ≤ 5 out of 263 loci); all loci were genotyped at greater than 70% for this
384 entire dataset with an average genotyping rate of 99%. MAF for this dataset was similar to the
385 Range-wide values (i.e., average MAF across 4 pooled pops ELWHA_EF, ELWHA_ST,
386 OLY_EF, and Elwha_pbt varied 2% - 50% with mean average MAF of 30%). The Range-wide
387 dataset (Hess et al. 2013) was also trimmed in a similar way to reduce failed individuals ($n=9$,
388 $>10\%$ missing loci) and no duplicates were found for 263 SNPs. For the trimmed Range-wide
389 dataset a total of 509 individuals across 21 collections were available for analysis.

390 The 263 SNPs demonstrated high power for single parent assignments based on the
391 simulations with the singleSEQUOIA function: an average of analysis-wide 0.0% Type I errors
392 and 0.1% Type II errors across 40 simulations (average accuracy of 99.9%) for the reference
393 collections ($N=509$ individuals, 21 populations). These values were equivalent to those
394 generated using the two candidate parent pools (i.e., ELWHA_pbt and MISC_Adult).

395 The two GSI baselines (Range-wide and Olympic Peninsula) were found to have
396 accuracies that were lower than our 90% target, based on self-assignment rates in leave-1-out
397 tests. However, the Range-wide GSI baseline performed best and had greatest potential for
398 utility (Table 2). Weighted average self-assignment rates of 21 collections to five reporting
399 groups of the Range-wide GSI baseline ranged from 54% - 87% (weighted mean of 72%, Table

400 2). STRUCTURE analyses helped guide the construction of reporting groups for the Range-
401 wide baseline, as the mean estimates of $\ln[\text{Pr}(X/K)]$ increased steeply between values for K of 1
402 – 4 and then plateaued between values of K 5 – 7. These results indicated that structuring among
403 the reference collections showed support for as many as 7 different groups (Figure S1), and the
404 delineation into five geographic regions was compatible with the pattern of STRUCTURE
405 coefficients of ancestry (Table S2). In contrast with the accuracies of the Range-wide GSI
406 baseline, the Olympic Peninsula self-assignment rates to 14 groups were lower (Table S3) and
407 ranged from 0% - 81% (weighted mean 31%). STRUCTURE analysis results were not helpful
408 for guiding delineation of groups in the Olympic Peninsula baseline as the estimates of
409 $\ln[\text{Pr}(X/K)]$ continued to increase with increasing K values of 1 – 6 without any apparent
410 correspondence between coefficients of ancestry and geographic regions. Pooling the Olympic
411 Peninsula baseline into two groups, increased self-assignment success to 64% and 73% for
412 collections inside and outside the Elwha River, respectively (weighted mean 67%, Table S4).

413

414 Objective 1: Natal origins of Pacific lamprey in the Elwha River

415 Our first objective was to use PA, SA, and GSI to determine the origins of larvae and juveniles
416 of Pacific lamprey collected in the Elwha River and thereby attribute production to translocation
417 versus natural recolonization. Results using the PA method supported our expectation that
418 production was primarily driven by natural colonization, as evidenced by a lack of parent
419 assignments to translocation parents. We had expected that natural colonization would be a
420 major source of productivity in the Elwha River given the relatively modest translocation effort
421 (<50 adults) to date and because potential sources of Pacific lamprey spawners were observed in
422 nearby basins. The other two methods, SA and GSI, were not adequate for addressing this
423 question. SA could not be used to identify sources of fish from outside the Elwha River and GSI
424 was not precise enough to determine the basin-of-origin for adult colonizers.

425 There were no parent-offspring trios detected in our dataset. This was not unexpected
426 given the small number of candidate parents that were genotyped (N=51). However, there were 2
427 parents that were assigned as single-parents based on COLONY (both adults were volitional
428 migrants collected in the Indian Creek screw trap in 2017) and one of these assignments was
429 concordant with SEQUOIA. Based on our single-parentage power analysis, we would expect
430 only a few Type II errors (0.1% of 1815 candidate offspring; ~2 offspring if all 1815 candidates

431 were true offspring of parents in the baseline) but would not expect false positives. This
432 expectation fits the small discordance with COLONY (i.e. putative single false negative
433 observed). Both parents were collected in Indian Creek in the summer (June and July) of 2017
434 and the two larvae were both collected in October of 2018 from the Elwha River screw trap (site
435 #44), which make their approximate ages around 1 year (1.2 and 1.3 years between collection
436 dates). The larvae measured 40 and 52 mm respectively and would have grown 30 and 38 mm in
437 a year assuming larvae are 4 mm at hatch (Yamazaki et al. 2003).

438 Given the limited parent assignments we could only show direct evidence of reproductive
439 success for volitional adults, but not for translocated adults. The Range-wide GSI baseline
440 showed that collections of larvae and juveniles from the Elwha River (ELWHA_EF and
441 ELWHA_ST) and those from the surrounding Olympic Peninsula (OLY_EF) were most similar
442 to the reporting group representing the regions of Vancouver Island, Puget Sound, and Lower
443 Columbia (VIPSLC, Fig. 3). This level of geographic resolution did not provide informative
444 results for the current objective. The finer geographic scale of the Olympic Peninsula GSI
445 baseline showed some potential for distinguishing the Elwha River basin versus other river
446 basins but with moderate accuracy according to self-assignments (Table S4). The Little River
447 (site 36) was founded by some translocated larvae from Salt Creek and did have one of the
448 highest rates of assignment to “outside” the Elwha River (68%). However, high “outside”
449 assignment rates were also found in Campground Creek (75%, site 16), which was a side channel
450 washed away the year before the collection was made. The Campground Creek site was located
451 relatively far upstream in the upper basin of the Elwha River and would not be expected to have
452 relatively high rates of influence from the outside compared to lower tributaries, but the recent
453 washout may have influenced the genetic composition.

454 The sibship simply determined that spawning likely occurs semelparously and adults that
455 successfully spawn in one basin do not appear to spawn again in adjacent basins. Hence, the
456 objective to determine whether translocation versus volitional or inside versus outside of Elwha
457 River migration occurs was largely inconclusive.

458 We observed full-sibship among fish within the six basins that were represented in our
459 dataset (Elwha River, Lyre River, East Twin River, West Twin River, and Deep Creek), however
460 there were no full siblings shared between basins and no full-sibship among or within the ocean
461 collections (Fig. 2). Within the Elwha River basin, there were a total of 36 full-sibling families

462 (366 individuals represented the 36 families) that were recaptured across space or time or both
463 space and time.

464 We were able to test for positive somatic growth relationships for the 26 full-sibling
465 families that were recaptured across different years (i.e., testing whether individuals from the
466 same family get larger over time). There were 13 positive and 13 negative growth relationships
467 for these recaptured families, and therefore did not appear to suggest consistent growth occurs
468 between full-sibling recaptures. However, when we examined the five sibship families that
469 contained at least 3 or more “recaptures” from each of the collection years, we found that four of
470 the five families showed positive growth (Fig. S2a). Further, growth appeared to decrease with
471 increasing age when we plotted estimated age at first capture versus the estimated growth rate
472 (Fig. S2b). This relationship may explain why full-sibling families recaptured across different
473 years do not always show positive growth. Further, it may indicate that length-based age
474 estimates will be less accurate for older ages due to increasing violation of our assumption that
475 growth rate is constant throughout larval life.

476

477 Objective 2: Quantify effective spawners in the Elwha River

478 Our second objective was to quantify the numbers of Pacific lamprey spawners in the
479 Elwha River and determine whether current numbers of spawners have reached capacities
480 observed in neighboring undammed basins. Our expectation was for an increase of effective
481 spawners (N_b) that occurred as rapidly as the increase in larvae observed in a tributary (Indian
482 Creek) of the Elwha River in the five years following dam removal. The larvae captured in the
483 screw trap at Indian Creek increased 14 fold (from 132 larvae in 2014 to 1,805 larvae in 2016;
484 Moser & Paradis 2017). Similarly, we estimated that N_b increased 12 fold across the span of at
485 least four brood years (2013 – 2016) that were represented in our collections of larvae and
486 juveniles from the Indian Creek screw trap in 2018. Further, N_b measured at the mouth of the
487 Elwha River (representative of the overall abundance of the basin) also increased over a five year
488 period to similar values of N_b estimated across neighboring undammed tributaries of the Olympic
489 Peninsula which indicated robust recolonization has likely occurred in the Elwha River basin.

490 The N_e sizes were generally smallest within the Elwha River (average 92, range 5 – 256),
491 larger in other basins of the Olympic Peninsula (average 189, range 124 – 264), and larger still in
492 the ocean-phase collections (average 644, range 461 – 755) and Willamette Falls adult

493 collections (average 1374, range 843 – 1875; Fig. 4). The one exception was the electro-fished
494 and translocated collection from Little River (site #36), which was 256 N_e (95% CI: 149 – 805).

495 The trends in N_b for the screw trap collections grouped by brood year were positive for
496 both the mouth of the Elwha River and Indian Creek (Fig. 5). The oldest brood year collection
497 (spawn year “SY” 2013-2014) at the mouth of the Elwha River had 14 N_b (95% CI: 7 – 32) and
498 increased by 11X to 160 N_b (95% CI: 70 – ∞) in a five year period (Fig. 5). The oldest brood
499 year (SY2013) in Indian Creek was 5 N_b (95% CI: 2 – 20) and increased by ~12x by SY2015 and
500 stabilized at 60 N_b (95% CI: 36 – 122) through SY2016 (Fig. 5). The values observed for the
501 most recent brood years were not significantly smaller (95% confidence values overlapped) than
502 the levels in the undammed basins of the Olympic Peninsula. Moreover, the mean estimate of
503 the most recent brood years of the Elwha River (BY2017-2018, 160 N_b) was in range with the N_e
504 estimates of the undammed basins (Deep Creek, East Twin and West Twin rivers ranged 124 –
505 264 N_e). The N_e estimates of the undammed basins were more akin to N_b estimates because the
506 Olympic Peninsula collections were primarily comprised of large juveniles representing a single
507 brood year (BY2012, Fig. S3). Therefore, our results demonstrated that the most recent brood
508 year N_b estimate for the Elwha River has increased over a five year period to levels similar to
509 that of N_b for undammed tributaries.

510

511 Objective 3: Relative productivity of Elwha River Pacific lamprey

512 Our third objective was to determine the relative productivity of streams within the
513 Elwha River and how overall productivity originating from this system is distributed across the
514 broader surrounding region. We expected that within the Elwha River, Indian Creek would be a
515 relatively large source of production given its demonstrated high productivity for salmonids in
516 this basin. Indian Creek, the first tributary upstream from the former Elwha Dam, is an
517 extremely productive stream based on rapidly increasing juvenile production of several
518 salmonids since dam removal (i.e., Chinook Salmon *Oncorhynchus tshawytscha*, Coho Salmon
519 *O. kisutch*, and Steelhead *O. mykiss*; McHenry et al. 2020). Our study, using SA methods, found
520 that this stream was also a primary source of larval and juvenile production of Pacific lamprey
521 for the Elwha River basin, as evidenced by the high (i.e., ~41%) percentage of Indian Creek fish
522 detected in the Elwha River mouth screw trap.

523 Finally, we predicted the contribution of Pacific lamprey from the Elwha River to the
524 broader surrounding region would be relatively small given its recent founding and small area
525 relative to surrounding sources of Pacific lamprey. No emigration from the Elwha River could
526 be detected in neighboring streams or in coastal ocean-phase collections using PA and SA
527 methods. While this may indicate the relatively small contribution the Elwha River makes to
528 panmictic coastal stocks, it may also be an indication of migratory patterns of Pacific lamprey
529 (Clemens et al. 2019). GSI demonstrated that genetic composition of ocean-phase lamprey was
530 reflective of latitudinal stock structure. Each of the genetic methods we used provided
531 complementary information that is key to management and our approach could be useful for
532 other highly dispersive species.

533 We estimated distance traveled for the 32 full-sibling families that were recaptured across
534 space (individual N=337). Among the electrofishing sites, the largest movements were > 12 km
535 downstream from Brannon, Campground, and Hughes creeks (sites #15, #16, #34) to sites near
536 the river mouth (sites #30 and #44). The sites with the greatest geographic diversity of natal
537 origins for full-sibling families were near the river mouth where fish exit to the Strait of Juan de
538 Fuca. Thus, using the sibship results, we were able to trace large portions of the Elwha River
539 productivity based on composition of natal origins of the collections obtained at the river mouth
540 screw trap. In fact, nearly half (N=37, 49%) of all fish in the 2018 collection at the Elwha River
541 mouth screw trap were identified from full-sibling families that were previously sampled
542 upstream from the screw trap (6 unique sites), and most of those fish originated from Indian
543 Creek (N=31, 41%; Fig. 6). The remaining 51% of fish in this 2018 Elwha River mouth screw
544 trap collection were unassigned because not all full sibship families represented in this sample
545 had been previously encountered in the sampling efforts.

546 Interestingly, the composition of ages (estimated based on length and life stage) at the
547 Indian Creek screw trap in 2018 were weighted toward young ages (i.e., brood years 2013, 2014,
548 and 2015 were 21%, 27%, and 46%, respectively); however, among those identified as Indian
549 Creek origin at the river mouth in 2018, they were weighted oppositely (i.e., 80%, 16%, and 4%
550 for brood year 2013, 2014, and 2015, respectively; Fig. 6). This reverse weighting in
551 composition of ages may indicate that either fish tend to reside in the main stem Elwha River
552 before emigrating from the river, or that there is dramatically different size selection between
553 screw traps (i.e., the Elwha River mouth screw trap selects for larger fish). The evidence points

554 to the former explanation because the overall age composition in 2018 across all stream-of-
555 origins at the Elwha River mouth trap was relatively even across brood years similar to the
556 Indian Creek trap (i.e., Elwha River mouth brood year composition was 29%, 9%, 25%, 14%,
557 17%, and 6% for brood years 2013-2018, respectively). The wide length frequency distribution
558 in the Elwha River screw trap in 2018 (Fig. S3) indicates a high degree of age overlap among
559 fish that exit the river, even though there may be a period of residence in the Elwha River main
560 stem.

561 Sibship was not shared between any collections outside of any basin; therefore, we could
562 not use sibship to make any determinations of Elwha River-origin fish outside of the Elwha
563 River. Therefore, we relied on GSI applications for broader regional observations. On average,
564 the individuals in the Elwha dataset across the four pools assigned at a probability of 70% to the
565 most proximate reporting group (i.e., VIPSLC, probability range of 63 – 82%; Fig. 3). The adult
566 collection from Willamette Falls was expected to assign with greatest probability to the
567 Willamette River / Bonneville Pool (WILBON) reporting group and, in fact, 51% assigned to
568 WILBON (Fig. 3). The remaining assignment probabilities for the Willamette Falls adult
569 collection were shared among the following three reporting groups ordered least to greatest
570 probability: Southern U.S. West Coast, SOUTUS; VIPSLC; and interior Columbia River,
571 INTCOL (assignment probabilities of 12%, 16%, and 21%, respectively). The relatively high
572 assignment probabilities across multiple reporting groups is a characteristic that was shared with
573 the Willamette Falls reference collections (Table 2), which showed leave-1-out assignment
574 probabilities from least to greatest to SOUTUS, VIPSLC, INTCOL, and WILBON (8%, 12%,
575 23%, and 54%, respectively).

576 The assignment probabilities of the unknown ocean-phase mixture showed correlation
577 with geography. For example, the assignment probabilities were inversely proportional with
578 latitude of the ocean-phase collections for the SOUTUS and proportional with latitude for the
579 INTCOL reporting group. The reporting group that includes Elwha River and other Olympic
580 Peninsula origins, VIPSLC, showed the highest assignment probability (40%, Fig. 3) in the
581 ocean-phase collection (site 54, Fig. 1) most proximal to these northern Washington sites. A
582 range of modest assignment probabilities to VIPSLC of 32 – 37% were observed in the ocean-
583 phase collections (sites 50 – 53, Fig. 1) distributed further south to latitude 43.0 N (Fig. 3). The
584 assignment probabilities to VIPSLC decreased to 22% and 0% (Fig. 3) for the ocean-phase

585 collections at the most extreme southern sites 49 and 48 (Fig. 1), respectively. These results
586 suggest there could be relatively broad ocean distribution of the VIPSLC (surrogate for Olympic
587 Peninsula origins) from latitudes 48.0 N to 43.0 N, with decreasing abundance in the extreme
588 southern end of the ocean-phase survey. This broad distribution contrasts with the more
589 restricted INTCOL reporting group, which was found with average assignment probability of
590 >20% (Fig. 3) in just the two northernmost ocean-phase collections (sites 53 and 54, Fig. 1).

591

592

593 **Discussion**

594 Using genetic methods, we were able to demonstrate that adult Pacific lamprey in the
595 Elwha River were successfully reproducing based on direct evidence from parentage, were
596 increasing in abundance through time at rates similar to the observed rate of increase in larval
597 abundance, were producing exceptionally high numbers of offspring from one source stream
598 known for its high productivity of salmonids, and were likely contributing to heterogeneous
599 mixtures of Pacific lamprey in the coastal ocean.

600 Dam removals provide the opportunity for natural recolonization of Pacific lamprey and
601 other anadromous fishes to previously inaccessible upstream habitat. In the Elwha River
602 drainage, our applications of PA, SA, and GSI provided multiple insights into the process of
603 natural recolonization and into the species' biology in general.

604

605 *Production by volitional migrants versus that of translocated adults*

606 When habitat becomes accessible after dam removal or habitat improvements, it is useful
607 to assess the relative merits of taking a passive approach to lamprey recolonization (relying only
608 on volitional migrants) versus actively translocating lamprey to repopulate the newly available
609 habitat (Reid and Goodman 2020). Due to the modest numbers of adults translocated in our
610 study and the limited years available to monitor any translocation production, we could not fully
611 assess the relative merits of these alternative approaches. However, we did document direct
612 evidence of successful spawning of two volitional adults. This suggests that with greater
613 sampling it would be possible to track reproductive efforts of both volitional and translocated
614 fish on a larger scale. Compared to volitional migrants, it is sometimes more feasible to sample
615 candidate parents that are translocated into a system (Hess et al. 2015). For example, in the

616 Umatilla River basin, hundreds of adult Pacific lamprey are genetic sampled and released onto
617 spawning habitats every year (Close et al. 2009). However, our smaller study permitted release
618 of < 50 translocated adults and none of these fish were detected as parents among the collections
619 of larvae that were obtained. While it is likely that this was due to the small sample, it is also
620 possible that these fish were not detected for other reasons. One possibility is that most
621 translocated adults were released in 2018, producing younger, smaller larvae that were difficult
622 to collect. All the translocated lamprey were also radio-tagged, which may have altered their
623 spawning success. If more adults are translocated and sampled, this method could be effective
624 for determination of the relative contributions of translocated fish to existing populations.

625

626 *Increasing trends in N_b signify a robust recolonization and general use of N_b as a proxy for*
627 *abundance*

628 We found that effective spawner size (N_b) within collections in the Elwha River basin
629 was positively correlated with brood year. This was consistent with our expectation for an
630 increase in N_b over time, given the increased abundances of adults, larvae, and juveniles that
631 were observed immediately after the Elwha Dam was removed (Moser & Paradis 2017).
632 Therefore, results from this study supported the general use of N_b as a proxy for characterizing
633 trends in relative spawner abundance. Further, the use of N_e to estimate effective population size
634 also appeared to reflect expected differences in abundances among the samples we compared.
635 That is, the collections from streams within the Elwha River basin showed relatively low N_e
636 compared to undammed tributaries surveyed in the Olympic Peninsula. This result is consistent
637 with the expectation that streams within a recently recolonized tributary will be low in N_e relative
638 to more established populations. All the tributary collections showed lower N_e than ocean phase
639 collections, because ocean phase lamprey would likely be mixtures of natal origins from multiple
640 tributaries, inflating N_e .

641 Field observations helped to validate N_b as a proxy for relative spawner abundance. For
642 example, in Madison Creek the first two lamprey spawners were observed in 2016. Our sibship
643 reconstruction of electro-fished larvae (estimated from brood year 2016) in Madison Creek
644 identified just three full sibship families, 5 unique parents, and estimated an N_b of 5 (95% CI: 2 –
645 20) which closely matched the low number of spawners the field biologists were able to observe.
646 A second example was found in the Indian Creek rotary screw trap where there were no lamprey

647 observed until 2013 when nine adults were captured, and the first larvae were observed in 2014
648 (Moser & Paradis 2017). The genetic analysis of the juveniles captured (estimated from brood
649 year 2013) and sampled in the Indian Creek screw trap in 2018 identified 9 full sibship families,
650 16 unique parents, and estimated an N_b of 5 (95% CI: 2 – 20). From these examples, it appeared
651 that the field biologists were able to observe at least half of the total adults that were estimated to
652 have successfully spawned in the Madison and Indian Creek sites. Given the difficulty observing
653 this cryptic species, this is not a surprising result. The consistent relationship of the field
654 observations and the genetic estimates (genetic estimates of unique numbers of spawners were
655 approximately twice the number observed in the field) helps to validate these results.

656

657 *Relative productivity in the Elwha River*

658 Our finding that Indian Creek is a primary source of production for Pacific lamprey is
659 important because it confirms that stream characteristics that are suitable for salmonid
660 production deliver similar benefits for Pacific lamprey. This evidence is helpful habitat
661 improvement projects targeting multiple species, but with limited budgets. Our results also
662 provided further evidence of how N_e can act as a useful proxy for abundance. In addition to
663 evidence that Indian Creek was a primary source of abundance for the Elwha River (i.e., high
664 proportion of Indian Creek siblings observed at the Elwha River mouth screw trap), we estimated
665 that Indian Creek had relatively high N_e compared to other tributaries. For example, Madison
666 Creek production was not observed at all at the Elwha River mouth and had low N_e .

667

668 *Distribution of natal origins in the ocean-phase*

669 There are many critical uncertainties concerning the marine phase of Pacific lamprey,
670 which include characterizing the distribution patterns of the various source stocks (Clemens et al.
671 2019). Although we could not use PA and SA to precisely estimate the contribution of the
672 Elwha River productivity to the broader region, GSI estimation may prove useful for
673 characterizing the marine distributions of source stocks at a broad spatial scale. In our study, the
674 ocean phase collections showed a decreasing proportion of the group that Elwha River and
675 Olympic Peninsula was most similar to (VIPS LC = Vancouver Island/Puget Sound/Lower
676 Columbia GSI reporting group) from the northern to southern latitudinal collections (40% to 0%,
677 respectively). Consistent with the low but detectable regional patterns of isolation-by-distance

678 gene-flow of Pacific lamprey reported by Spice et al. (2012), our results suggest evidence of
679 relatively restricted movement compared to a state of panmixia. For example, although the
680 VIPSLC stock is relatively broadly distributed along the coast, it appears to concentrate near
681 natal rivers. In general, Pacific lamprey stocks appeared as heterogenous mixtures in the ocean,
682 reflective of the geographic distribution of source stocks. This suggests that anadromous lamprey
683 will occur most frequently in the ocean regions proximate to their natal river. However, our
684 results indicated that marine patterns may depart from this basic assumption because the
685 distribution of the interior Columbia River (INTCOL) reporting group was weighted north in the
686 ocean survey rather than uniformly distributed around the mouth of the Columbia River. Finally,
687 we found that there were relatively high probabilities of assignment to multiple reporting groups
688 among adult fish in the collections from Willamette Falls. This suggests that Willamette Falls
689 may harbor exceptional diversity of stock origins relative to the other areas that were sampled.

690 At finer scales within the Olympic Peninsula, GSI may be able to discern Elwha River-
691 origin Pacific lamprey from all other undammed tributaries of the Olympic Peninsula. However,
692 this application is of limited utility because there are few places in which the Elwha River and
693 these other Olympic Peninsula stocks occur as a mixed stock (e.g., Strait of Juan de Fuca).
694 Further, the low degree of self-assignment accuracy for finer scale discrimination of different
695 Olympic Peninsula tributaries diminishes the potential utility of GSI at fine spatial scales.

696 Although full-sibling families were detected between years and sites within basins, the
697 occurrence of full-siblings did not extend outside tributaries. This result supported the
698 semelparous biology of the species: after adults return to freshwater, they typically lack the
699 ability to repeat spawn in neighboring tributaries. The high degree of spatial autocorrelation (i.e.,
700 lack of full-sibship detections between basins and presence of full siblings shared across time
701 and space within basins) provides support for the accuracy of the SNP panel for pedigree
702 reconstruction given the expectation that relatedness would be spatially auto-correlated.
703 However, the lack of full-sibship sharing between any of the tributary collections and the ocean
704 phase collections suggests that our sample sizes were insufficient to overcome low detection
705 probabilities, given the scale of mixed natal origins of all the tributaries represented by ocean
706 collections. This low detection probability is one limitation of PA and SA, particularly if the
707 objective is to identify natal origins on a broad spatial scale (e.g., ocean-phase mixed stock).
708

709 *Use of size and life stage as proxies for age class in young populations of Pacific lamprey*
710 Accurate aging of larval and juvenile Pacific lamprey is a difficult challenge for fisheries
711 managers. In bony fishes, otoliths and scales are useful anatomical features to derive ages
712 (Campana 2001). Lampreys lack these structures and statoliths are imperfect substitutes for
713 otoliths (Potts et al. 2015). The use of lengths to derive ages has been used in other studies
714 (Beamish and Medland 1988), albeit with increased severity of limitations for older ages (>5
715 years). While PA can be an ideal method for aging (Hess et al. 2015), there were not enough
716 parents sampled in this study. However, PA was useful for ground truthing several size classes
717 specific to the Elwha River basin, but we realized there were likely increasing violations of our
718 assumed constant growth rates with increasing age. From our validation testing with sibship
719 recaptures, our crude length-age relationship served as a useful proxy for age and to consistently
720 separate brood years. Further, similar length-age relationships could be useful in other study
721 populations if they were founded within a short span of years as in the Elwha River (e.g. less
722 than five). However, systems that have achieved equilibrium for a long period could host
723 enormous overlap in lamprey ages based on the protracted freshwater phase of larval lampreys
724 (e.g., sea lamprey larvae can persist for 0-12+ years, Potter 1980), rendering length-based age
725 estimation worthless.

726
727 *Advancements in technology*

728 Advancements in technology have enabled implementation of genetic methods (PA, SA,
729 and GSI) to determine natal origins for highly dispersive species. The feasibility of genotyping
730 the high number of markers required by these methods is possible due to laboratory
731 advancements. For example, use of genotyping-in-thousands by sequencing (GT-seq, Campbell
732 et al. 2015) helped to overcome cost-efficiency challenges in this study.

733 The selection of loci was also key to our success. Making the right choices required
734 striking a balance among multiple objectives for management; SNPs that are ideal for discerning
735 population level differences (i.e. good GSI candidates) are often relatively poor in
736 informativeness for PA and SA across the species range (Hess et al. 2015). In this study, the loci
737 selected showed utility for GSI at broad regional scales when using all available SNPs together
738 (291, including all high F_{ST} SNPs). We also employed a robust subset of these markers (i.e., 263
739 independent, high minor allele frequency SNPs) that met the high-informativeness requirements

740 for accurate single parentage analysis and sibship reconstruction. Together, these
741 complementary methods allowed us to achieve our objectives and identify both regional and
742 fine-scale patterns of relatedness for Pacific lamprey within the Elwha River basin, across the
743 local area in the Olympic Peninsula, and in the coastal ocean.

744 All of the methods we tested had useful attributes. Management objectives requiring fast
745 turnaround and high precision for natal-origin estimation may benefit from a focus on SA
746 baseline sampling. However, when candidate-parent sampling challenges can be overcome to
747 achieve high rates of parent sampling, PA methods are advantageous because both age and natal-
748 origin can be accurately estimated (Steele et al. 2019). Finally, in cases where sampling
749 resources are more limited and the high level of precision is not needed, GSI is likely the most
750 cost-effective method to determine natal origins.

751

752 *Conclusion*

753 For a highly dispersive fish species like Pacific lamprey, these analyses, methods, and
754 informative molecular markers can help illuminate a myriad of management and biological
755 questions that had been stymied by the low population genetic structure of the species. Our
756 results indicate that with more extensive sampling, it would be possible to estimate larval
757 recruitment from various management units, be they translocated adult lamprey, artificially
758 propagated larvae, or production from individual drainage basins. Understanding sources and
759 sinks of lamprey production has been an elusive goal and is critical to recovery of species at risk
760 (Lucas et al. In Press). Genetic methods and more extensive sampling could put this goal within
761 reach and shed light on a plethora of unknowns in lamprey biology (e.g., duration of ocean phase,
762 oceanic distribution and movements, life history variation, etc.).

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914 Table 1. Locations (latitude, longitude), group names, number of samples (N), and analysis “Type” for each Pacific lamprey collection
 915 site. Map site numbers correspond to those in Figure 1.

Map site#	Description (Latitude [°N], Longitude [°W])	Pooled group	Collection Year(s)	N	Type
15	Brannon Creek Rkm 0.11 (48.048 -123.590)	ELWHA_EF	2018	11	L/J Offsp.
16	Campground Creek Rkm 0.2 (48.030 -123.589)	ELWHA_EF	2017	9	L/J Offsp.
29	Elwha River Rkm 0.18 (48.146 -123.568)	ELWHA_EF	2018	2	L/J Offsp.
30	Elwha River Rkm 0.38 (48.146 -123.564)	ELWHA_EF	2018	37	L/J Offsp.
31	Elwha River Rkm 0.9 (48.142 -123.561)	ELWHA_EF	2018	19	L/J Offsp.
32	Elwha River Rkm 11.6 (48.070 -123.577)	ELWHA_EF	2018	1	L/J Offsp.
33	Elwha River Rkm 12.7 (48.060 -123.578)	ELWHA_EF	2018	14	L/J Offsp.
34	Hughes Creek Rkm 0.1 (48.025 -123.595)	ELWHA_EF	2017	8	L/J Offsp.
35	Indian Creek Rkm 0.0 (48.066 -123.579)	ELWHA_EF	2017	18	L/J Offsp.
36	Little River Rkm 4.6 (48.060 -123.519)	ELWHA_EF	2018	38	L/J Offsp.
37	Madison Creek Rkm 0.0 (48.046 -123.589)	ELWHA_EF	2017	51	L/J Offsp.
		<i>ELWHA_EF</i>	<i>SUBTOTAL</i>	<i>208</i>	<i>L/J Offsp.</i>
44	Elwha River Rkm 0.67 (48.145 -123.562)	ELWHA_ST	2016, 2017, 2018	1, 4, 76	L/J Offsp.
45	Indian Creek Rkm 0.63 (48.067 -123.585)	ELWHA_ST	2016, 2017, 2018	10, 11, 455	L/J Offsp.
46	Lyre River Mouth Rkm 0.0 (48.158 -123.828)	ELWHA_ST	2018	9	L/J Offsp.
		<i>ELWHA_ST</i>	<i>SUBTOTAL</i>	<i>566</i>	<i>L/J Offsp.</i>
17	Deep Creek Rkm 2.0 (48.160 -124.035)	OLY_EF	2015, 2016, 2017, 2018	47, 20, 74, 27	L/J Offsp.
18	East Twin River Rkm 2.2 (48.149 -123.936)	OLY_EF	2016, 2017, 2018	10, 100, 25	L/J Offsp.
19	West Twin River Rkm 1.9 (48.158 -123.969)	OLY_EF	2017, 2018	32, 11	L/J Offsp.
		<i>OLY_EF</i>	<i>SUBTOTAL</i>	<i>346</i>	<i>L/J Offsp.</i>

48	Eastern Pacific Ocean US West Coast Slope NLat42SLat41	Ocean	2017	3	J Offsp.
49	Eastern Pacific Ocean US West Coast Slope NLat43SLat42	Ocean	2017	85	J Offsp.
50	Eastern Pacific Ocean US West Coast Slope NLat44SLat43	Ocean	2017	216	J Offsp.
51	Eastern Pacific Ocean US West Coast Slope NLat45SLat44	Ocean	2017	161	J Offsp.
52	Eastern Pacific Ocean US West Coast Slope NLat46SLat45	Ocean	2017	67	J Offsp.
53	Eastern Pacific Ocean US West Coast Slope NLat47SLat46	Ocean	2017	130	J Offsp.
54	Eastern Pacific Ocean US West Coast Slope NLat48SLat47	Ocean	2017	30	J Offsp.
-		Ocean	2017, 2018	1, 2	J Offsp.
		<i>Ocean</i>	<i>SUBTOTAL</i>	<i>695</i>	J Offsp.
47	Willamette Falls Fish Ladder Rkm 41.1 (45.352 - 122.618)	MISC_Adult	2014, 2015, 2016	865, 580, 269	A Parent
		<i>MISC_Adult</i>	<i>SUBTOTAL</i>	<i>1714</i>	A Parent
1	Clallam River Rkm 9.2 (48.201 -124.271)	ELWHA_pbt(vol)	2018	1	A Parent
5	Elwha River Rkm 0.38 (48.147 -123.564)	ELWHA_pbt(vol)	2017	1	A Parent
6	Elwha River Rkm 0.67 (48.145 -123.562)	ELWHA_pbt(vol)	2017	1	A Parent
8	Indian Creek Rkm 0.63 (48.067 -123.585)	ELWHA_pbt(vol)	2018, 2017	1, 5	A Parent
		<i>ELWHA_pbt(vol)</i>	<i>SUBTOTAL</i>	<i>9</i>	A Parent

11	Elwha River- Pedestrian bridge Rkm 5.26 (48.114 - 123.554)	ELWHA_pbt(trans)	2017	7	A Parent
12	Elwha River- Sonar Rkm 2.47(48.134 -123.554)	ELWHA_pbt(trans)	2017	1	A Parent
13	Elwha River- Tribal hatchery Rkm 2.77 (48.132 - 123.551)	ELWHA_pbt(trans)	2017, 2018	1,25	A Parent
14	Elwha River- WDFW hatchery Rkm 4.63 (48.120 - 123.554)	ELWHA_pbt(trans)	2017	8	A Parent
		<i>ELWHA_pbt(trans)</i>	<i>SUBTOTAL</i>	42	A Parent

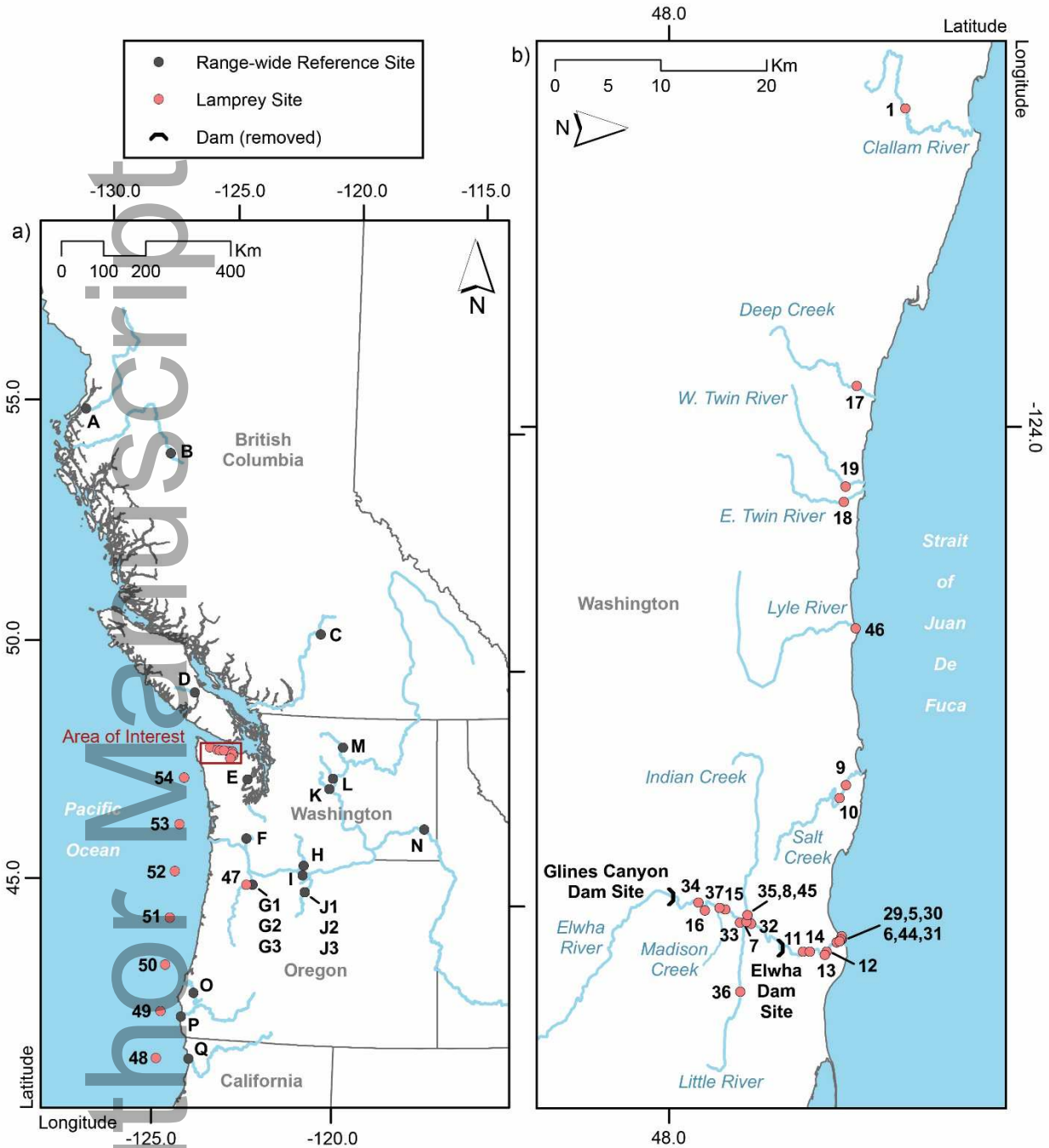
916 Note: The analysis “Type” indicates whether the collection was comprised of larvae and juveniles (L/J), juveniles only (J), and Adults
 917 only (A) as well as whether the collections were treated as candidate offspring (Offsp.) or candidate parents (Parent) for the different
 918 analyses in this study.

919 Table 2. Cross validation matrix for leave-one-out procedure on reference collections in the Pacific lamprey genetic baseline using
 920 291 SNP loci. Group definitions as follows: Northern B.C. (“NORTBC”), Vancouver Island/Puget Sound/Lower Columbia
 921 (“VIPSLC”), Willamette River and Bonneville Reservoir (“WILBON”), interior Columbia River (“INTCOL”), and Southern U.S.
 922 West Coast (“SOUTUS”).

Pop #	Group	N	Collection	NORTBC	VIPSLC	WILBON	INTCOL	SOUTUS	Avg. Self (Weighted)
Pop01	NORTBC	17	Nass	73.7	0.0	9.1	17.1	0.0	63.9
Pop02	NORTBC	9	Skeena	45.3	0.0	0.2	54.5	0.0	
Pop03	VIPSLC	4	Deadman	0.1	24.6	0.2	75.0	0.0	69.2
Pop04	VIPSLC	30	Stamp	0.0	96.7	0.0	0.0	3.3	
Pop05	VIPSLC	4	Hood	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
Pop06	VIPSLC	30	Toutle	0.0	43.6	25.9	0.0	30.5	
Pop07	WILBON	30	Willamette 1995	1.3	6.0	46.5	40.0	6.2	53.9
Pop08	WILBON	29	Willamette 2011 Early	2.0	19.2	56.2	13.9	8.7	
Pop09	WILBON	30	Willamette 2011 Late	3.0	11.8	60.7	16.6	7.9	
Pop10	WILBON	29	Klickitat	0.0	9.9	56.3	25.7	7.9	
Pop11	WILBON	30	Fifteenmile	0.0	0.0	50.1	43.0	6.9	
Pop12	INTCOL	30	Deschutes 1995	0.0	0.0	1.3	98.7	0.0	86.5
Pop13	INTCOL	30	Deschutes 2011 Early	1.8	0.0	41.9	53.1	3.3	
Pop14	INTCOL	30	Deschutes 2011 Late	0.0	0.0	20.8	75.9	3.2	
Pop15	INTCOL	30	Wenatchee	0.0	0.0	4.3	95.7	0.0	
Pop16	INTCOL	39	Entiat	0.0	0.0	1.0	99.0	0.0	

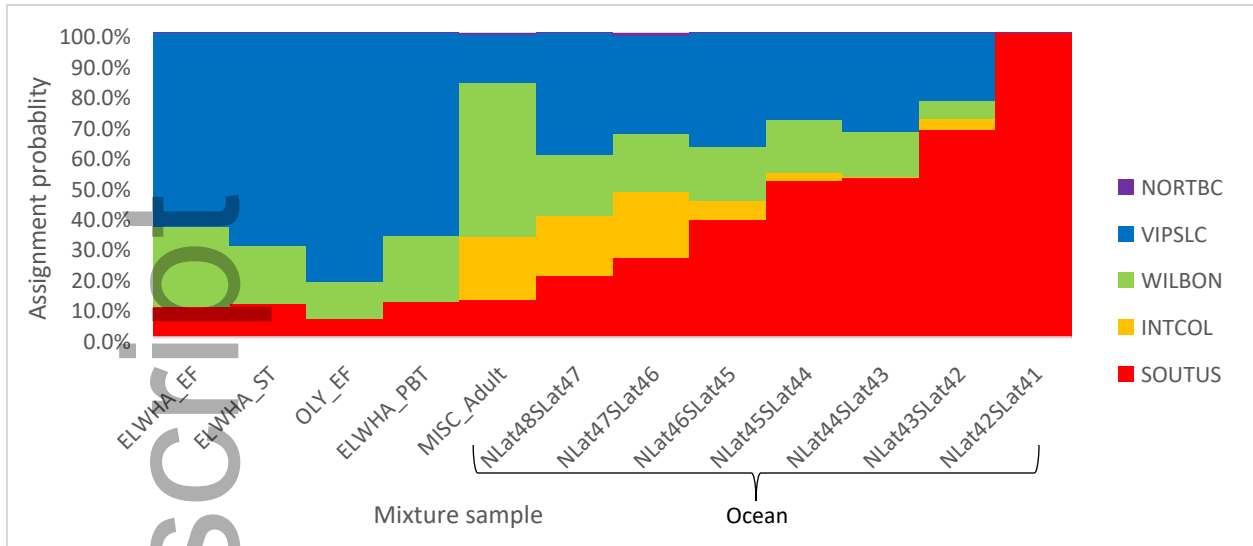
Pop17	INTCOL	5	Methow	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	
Pop18	INTCOL	29	Snake	0.1	0.0	9.1	90.8	0.0	
Pop19	SOUTUS	9	Coquille	0.0	3.8	11.3	0.0	84.9	77.4
Pop20	SOUTUS	30	Rogue	0.0	12.4	5.7	2.2	79.7	
Pop21	SOUTUS	35	Klamath	0.0	11.4	14.9	0.1	73.6	
		509							

923 Note: Samples sizes (N) and average self-assignments (Avg. Self) are provided for each reference collection. Collections are
 924 composed of individuals analyzed by Hess et al. (2013).

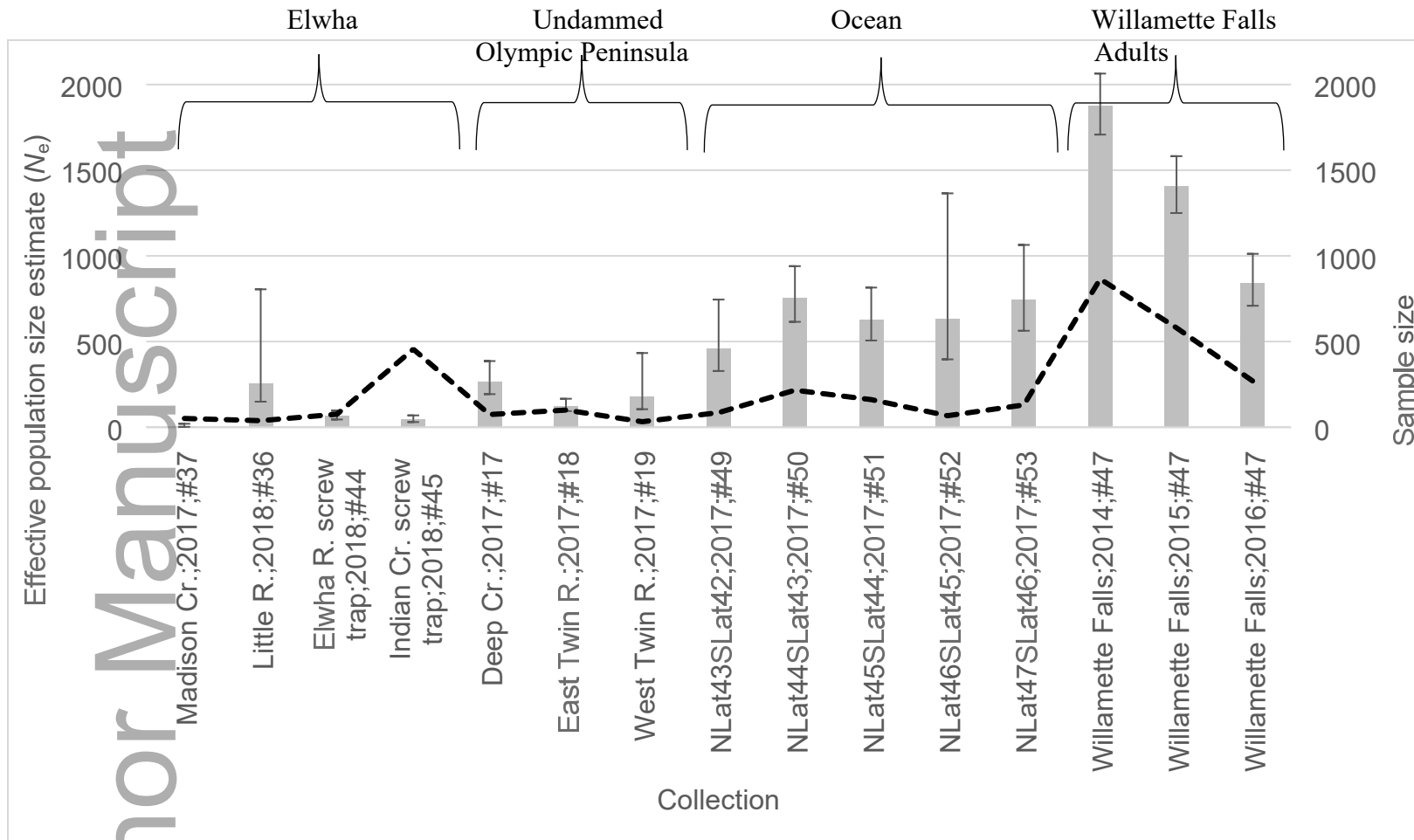


925 Figure 1. a) Map of the entire study area, box that indicates the area of interest on the Olympic
 926 Peninsula, and “Range-wide Reference Sites” (black circles, letter codes as in Table S1).
 927 “Lamprey Sites” for Pacific lamprey samples genotyped for this study (red circles) are labeled
 928 with the “Map site #s” in Table 1. b) The inset map is the “area of interest” and includes the
 929 Elwha River collections and the collections outside the Elwha River distributed across the
 930 Olympic Peninsula that were used for context. Two dam sites where dams were removed in the
 931 Elwha River are indicated on the inset. Note that the inset map north arrow points right.

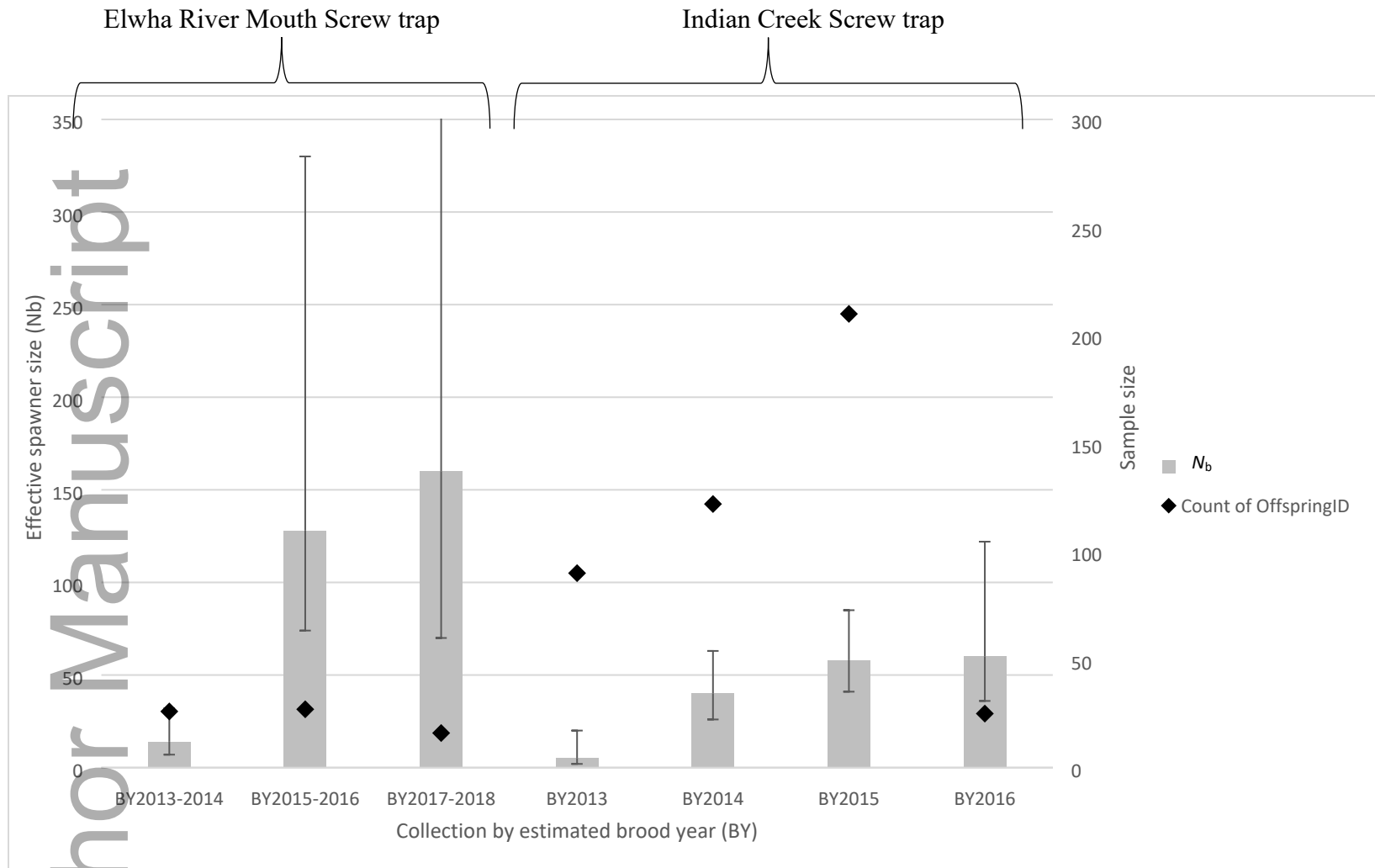
933 captured from their original site (green), first captured in the same year but different location (yellow), first captured in a different year
934 but same site (blue), or first captured in a different year and different site (purple). Site numbers correspond with Figure 1 and Table 1.



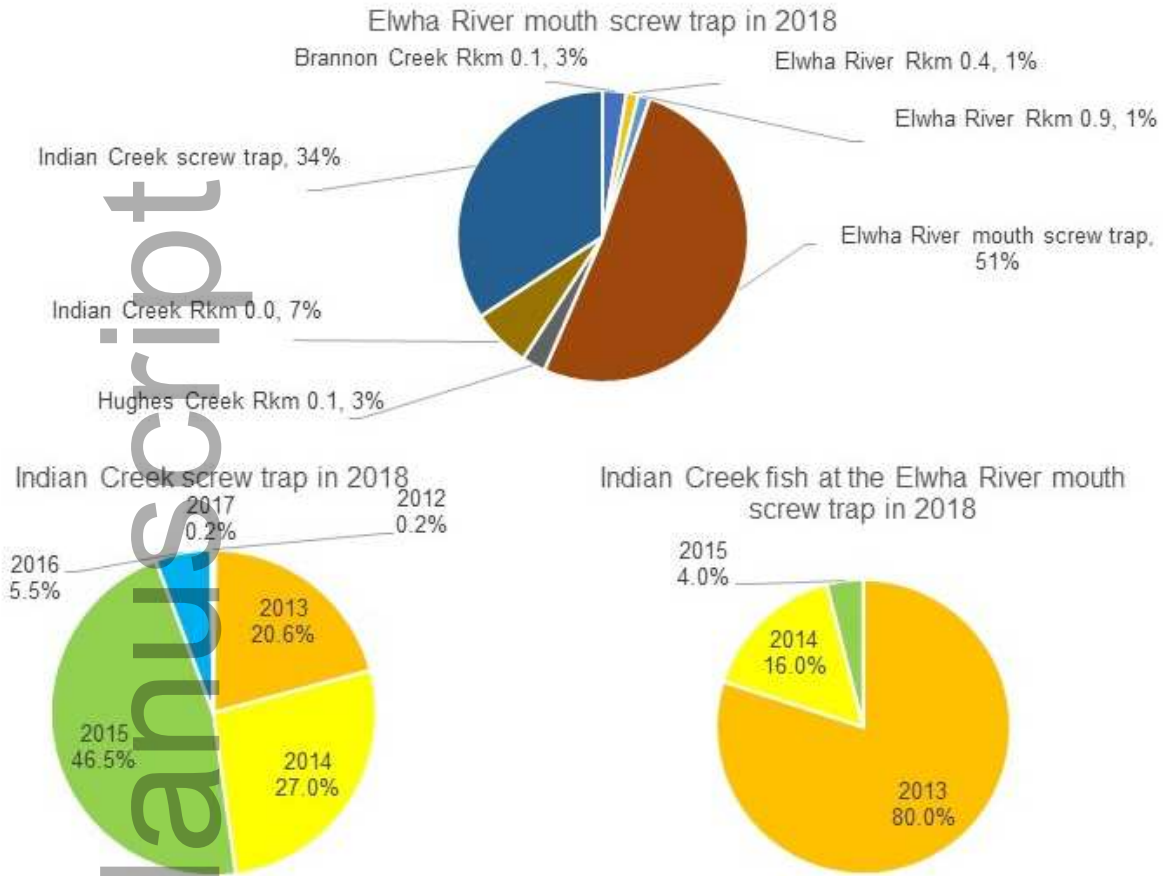
935
 936 Figure 3. Genetic stock composition of Pacific lamprey samples in this study. Samples include
 937 ELWHA_EF, ELWHA_ST, OLY_EF, ELWHA_PBT, MISC_Adult, and Ocean as described in
 938 Table 1. The colors correspond to proportions of individuals that assigned to the five reporting
 939 groups of the Range-wide GSI baseline: Northern B.C. (“NORTBC”), Vancouver Island/Puget
 940 Sound/Lower Columbia (“VIPSLC”), Willamette River and Bonneville Reservoir (“WILBON”),
 941 interior Columbia River (“INTCOL”), and Southern U.S. West Coast (“SOUTUS”) (Table 2)..



942 Figure 4. Effective population size estimates (N_e) with 95% confidence intervals and sample sizes (dashed line on secondary y-axis)
 943 for each Pacific lamprey collection. Collections are grouped into categories according to the region they are from and indicate site
 944 names, collection year, and map site (#s) separated by semicolons (Table 1).



945 Figure 5. Effective spawner size estimates (N_b) with 95% confidence intervals and sample sizes (diamonds on secondary y-axis) for
 946 larval and juvenile screw trap collections of Pacific lamprey made in 2018 from the Elwha River basin. Collections are grouped by
 947 brood year as estimated by length-based ages in order from oldest to youngest brood years.



948 Figure 6. Relative percent composition of Pacific lamprey sibling-derived natal origins (listed by
 949 site) at the screw trap at the mouth of the Elwha River in 2018 (top), and length-based age
 950 composition of the Indian Creek screw trap (bottom left), and the Indian Creek fish “re-captured”
 951 at the Elwha River mouth (bottom right).

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