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11	Exploring trends in abundance of Young-of-the-Year, and Age-1 Atlantic Croaker
12	(Micropogonias undulatus), Black Drum (Pogonias cromis), Spot (Leiostomus xanthurus) and
13	Weakfish (Cynoscion regalis) in relation to salinity, temperature and large-scale climatic signals
14	in a Mid-Atlantic estuary
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49	<a>Abstract		
50	Atlantic Croaker (Micropogonias undulatus), Black Drum (Pogonias cromis), Spot (Leiostomus		
51	xanthurus) and Weakfish (Cynoscion regalis) have shown species-specific varying trends in		
52	abundance, despite general declines in commercial landings throughout the Delaware River		
53	Estuary. Identifying how environmental factors and climatic processes affect fishes at multiple		
54	life stages is needed to enhance the precision of regulatory actions for managed species. Species'		
55	area and age specific indices were compared with depth, salinity, temperature, the Atlantic		
56	Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO) and the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) to explore potential		

relationships, as well as temporal and spatial parameters. Our results demonstrate that station (15 57 indices), salinity (14 indices), the AMO and NAO (13 indices each), depth and temperature (12 58 indices each), served as important components for models of abundance of seventeen species, 59 age, and area specific combination from 1991-2016. Significant time series trends were detected 60 in six of the modelled indices of abundance, including Bay-wide indices of Age-1 Weakfish 61 (decline), and YOY Atlantic Croaker (increase); as well as YOY Atlantic Croaker (increase) and 62 Weakfish (decline) in Delaware, and Age-1 Spot (decline) and Weakfish (increase) in Delaware. 63 Our results demonstrate how multiple fixed station surveys can be combined to quantitatively 64 assess environmental and climatic effects correlated with species-age-area specific levels of 65 abundance, suggesting climatic signals are affecting smaller scale environmental variables that in 66 turn affect relative abundance. 67

68

69 <A>Introduction

Understanding how environmental phenomena affect fisheries is a significant challenge 70 that requires immediate attention to identify how these processes impact managed species. 71 Recognizing the effects of environmental processes on fish stocks at multiple life stages can 72 provide new information to enhance precision of regulatory action and management efforts. 73 Previous studies have suggested that environmental and ecological factors need to be accounted 74 75 for to better understand the behavior of fish stocks and more accurately assess population levels (Garcia and Cochrane 2005; Lehodey et al. 2006; Methot and Richard 2015). Environmental 76 processes, such as El Niño and La Niña in the Pacific Ocean; the North Atlantic Oscillation 77 (NAO) and the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO) in the Atlantic Ocean, vary over large 78 79 spatiotemporal scales, causing varying responses amongst fish growth rates (Fiedler et al. 1986; Ottersen et al. 2001; Jonsson and Jonsson 2004; Izzo and Zydlewski 2017), predation (Stenseth 80 et al. 2002; Nye et al. 2009; Yasumiishi et al. 2016), recruitment and other population dynamics 81 (Hare and Able 2007; Nye et al. 2009; Large et al. 2013; Edwards et al. 2013; Harris et al. 2014; 82 83 Nye et al. 2014; Buchheister et al. 2016). Climatic processes have been linked to changing physiochemical properties in estuaries (Irby et al. 2018) which can have confounding effects on 84 85 the fish species that rely on certain conditions seasonally within estuaries to survive (Barletta et al. 2005). Understanding how components of multiple large-scale environmental phenomena 86

impact marine nekton is critical to address trends in annual variability of recruitment and
survival. In the northwest Atlantic Ocean, two large-scale atmospheric processes, the NAO and
AMO, are likely influencing the abundance of the Delaware River Estuary fish community in
unknown ways.

The NAO is observable in the Northern Hemisphere throughout the year with over one 91 92 third of sea-level-pressure variance occurring during winter months (December-February) over the North-Atlantic (Hurrell and Deser 2010). The NAO is characteristically defined as an annual 93 index and a winter index due to the significant variances in sea-level-pressure observed in winter 94 months (Jing et al. 2019). The NAO is defined more specifically as a change in pressure 95 differences between the subtropical atmospheric high-pressure zone over the Azores and the 96 atmospheric low-pressure zone over Iceland (Otterson et al. 2001; Durkee et al. 2008). However, 97 NAO indices have been shown to influence many atmospheric and oceanographic conditions 98 such as sea surface temperature (SST), storms and precipitation, cloud cover, hydrographic 99 100 characteristics, mixed-layered depths, and circulation patterns (Barnston and Livezey 1987; Ostermeier and Wallace 2003; Durkee et al. 2008; Hurrell and Deser 2010). Unlike El Niño/La 101 102 Niña and the AMO, the NAO has no defined change in periodicity between its warm and cold phases (Otterson et al. 2001; Hurrell and Deser 2010). Warm (positive) phases of the NAO index 103 are defined as an intense Icelandic low and a strong Azores high-pressure gradient, with the 104 pressure difference delivering powerful winter storms crossing the Atlantic Ocean in a northern 105 106 direction, conversely cold (negative) phases have a weak pressure grade and produce weaker storms that tend to move west to east (Hurrell 1995; Otterson et al. 2001). The NAO influences 107 108 atmospheric pressures causing variations in precipitation patterns, wind events, storm events and climate fluctuations (Durkee et al. 2008). 109

110 The AMO is characterized as varying SST anomalies that encompass the North Atlantic and is considered the dominant pattern of SST variability within the region (Schlesinger and 111 Ramankutty 1994; Dong et al. 2006; Knudsen et al. 2011; Alexander et al. 2014; Harris et al. 112 2014; Nye et al. 2014). Unlike the NAO, the AMO has oscillating phases that tend to switch 113 every 65-70 years based on approximately 130 years of observed and reconstructed SST data 114 115 (Nye et al. 2014). The AMO is defined as having warm and cool phases, with warm phases described as having above average ocean temperatures and a shifting of the intertropical 116 convergence zone from the south to the north, where precipitation expands spatially (Enfield et 117

al. 2001; Knudsen et al. 2011; Nogueira et al. 2013; Nye et al. 2014). Warm phases of the AMO 118 typically cause the mixed layer depth to be much shallower and are linked to variations in 119 oceanic pressure gradients, wind speed and direction across the North Atlantic (Nye et al. 2014). 120 Conversely, the cool phase of the AMO is described as causing opposite anomalies as seen with 121 the warm phase respectively (Dijkstra et al. 2006; Alexander et al. 2014). 122 123 Successful recruitment of young-of-the-year (YOY) fishes has been linked to environmental processes (e.g. Boehlert and Mundy 1988; Lehodey et al. 2006; Cury et al. 2008). 124 Previous studies have shown that nekton size (Hale & Targett 2018), temperature (Witting et al. 125 1999; Lankford and Targett 2001; Hare and Able 2007; Carassou et al. 2011; Yasumiishi et al. 126 2016), salinity (Lankford and Targett 1994; Able et al. 2009), freshwater input (Reist et al. 2006; 127 Carassou et al. 2011), flow (Dunning et al. 2009) and wind speed and direction (Schieler et al. 128 129 2014; Nye et al. 2014) can significantly affect transport, growth and survival of multiple life stages of marine nekton. The NAO and the AMO have been linked to trends in fisheries 130 production, distribution, and abundance (Lehodey et al. 2006). The AMO has been correlated 131 with spatial distribution and spawning success for fish species in the Mid- and North Atlantic 132 133 Ocean including Striped Bass (Morone saxatilis; O'Connor et al. 2012) and American Shad (Alosa sapidissima; O'Connor et al. 2012); Atlantic Mackerel (Scomber scombrus; Overholtz et 134 135 al. 2011); Atlantic Croaker (Micropogonias undulatus; Hare and Able 2007); Atlantic Salmon (Salmo salar; Izzo and Zydlewski 2017). Lankford and Targett (2001) found that severe cold 136 137 winter temperatures were correlated to weak year-class strength of age-0 Atlantic Croaker in estuaries along the Mid-Atlantic Bight. In that study, temperature was found to be a growth-138 139 limiting factor in juvenile Atlantic Croaker within the Delaware Bay due to feeding temperature preferences and acute thermal stress leading to significantly increased mortality at temperatures 140 below 5° C. Other environmental factors, including wind patterns, have been found to have a 141 142 positive correlation with larval fish ingress into estuaries within the Mid-Atlantic Bight. Schieler et al. (2014) found that wind direction and speed were correlated with the ingress of larval fish 143 including Atlantic Menhaden (Brevoortia tyrannus), Summer Flounder (Paralichthys dentatus) 144 and Atlantic Croaker in Delaware Bay. 145 146 The mechanistic link between ocean climatic processes and year-class strength has some

- 147 regional stock assessment teams beginning to examine effects that atmospheric and
- 148 oceanographic conditions have on species-specific stock assessments (e.g., Sablefish

(Anoplopoma fimbria; Schirripa et al. 2009) and Weakfish (Cynoscion regalis; Jiao et al. 2012). 149 Responses of Atlantic Croaker and Weakfish to changing oscillations of the NAO have been 150 observed along the continental shelf between the North Carolina-Virginia border and Cape 151 Canaveral, Florida (Roberts et al. 2019). The findings by Roberts et al. (2019), suggest that the 152 predictability of species distributions potentially shift with phases of the NAO. Along the Eastern 153 154 US continental shelf, Atlantic Mackerel have been found to occupy different areas annually in response to large scale climatic shifts associated with the phases of the AMO but were 155 historically located in relatively narrow bands of optimal habitat within the Mid-Atlantic region 156 during winter (Overholtz et al. 2011). However, Overholtz et al. (2011) found that overwintering 157 Atlantic Mackerel shifted their distribution much further North and East as they followed their 158 optimal habitat to higher latitudes in response to shifts in environmental conditions over a period 159 of decades. In the Hudson River Estuary, YOY Striped Bass and American Shad were both 160 found to exhibit strong relationships to the AMO; freshwater flow, water temperature, and the 161 162 AMO explained 46% of the total variance in the species stage specific abundance patterns within the Hudson River Estuary (O'Connor et al. 2012). Juvenile American Shad were negatively 163 164 correlated with the AMO in the Hudson River Estuary, while Striped Bass were positively correlated with the AMO (O'Connor et al. 2012). A recent study developed indices of Atlantic 165 166 Menhaden recruitment using independent surveys from the southern region of the Northeast Atlantic and correlated the indices to the AMO (Buchheister et al. 2016). Even though different 167 168 correlations to the AMO were discovered in Chesapeake Bay and Southern New England regions, results showed that the AMO had been one of the greatest predictors of Atlantic 169 170 Menhaden recruitment patterns throughout the entire Atlantic coast (Buchheister et al. 2016). The Delaware River Estuary is a large coastal plain estuary, which borders the states of 171 172 Delaware, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania in the Mid-Atlantic Bight. The estuary is both an 173 important spawning area for many diadromous and estuarine species, seasonally occupied by a host of species, serving as a nursery ground that contributes habitat services to commercial and 174 175 recreational fisheries along the eastern United States. Common migratory species inhabiting the Delaware River Estuary include Striped Bass, American Shad, Hickory Shad (Alosa mediocris), 176 177 Alewife (Alosa pseudoharengus), and Blueback Herring (Alosa aestivalis), and several species

178 of sciaenid including Atlantic Croaker, Black Drum (*Pogonias cromis*), Weakfish, and Spot

179 (Leiostomus xanthurus).

Identifying and monitoring environmental influences on successful reproduction, growth, 180 distribution, and recruitment is essential to understand how variable environmental processes 181 may affect populations in the future, especially within dynamic environments, including coastal 182 estuaries. To examine the effect the AMO, the NAO, salinity and water temperature have on 183 managed fisheries in the Mid-Atlantic region, we have compared trends in these variables to 184 multiple indices of abundance for Atlantic Croaker, Black Drum, Spot and Weakfish within the 185 Delaware River Estuary. Annual recreational and commercial landings of Atlantic Croaker, 186 Black Drum, Weakfish and Spot have all generally decreased from 1991-2016 despite significant 187 management measures to restrict or reduce harvest. Management plans have suggested 188 monitoring environmental preferences of Atlantic Croaker, Black Drum, Spot and Weakfish to 189 understand effects on stock size, life histories, and spatial distribution (ASMFC 2017). In order 190 191 to better understand fluctuations in recruitment we need to better account for the effects of largescale climatic trends, such as the AMO and NAO, as well as more direct environmental factors 192 193 including salinity and temperature. Our first objective was to standardize indices of catch among commonly shared variables to generate models of relative abundance, while incorporating 194 195 significant abiotic parameters associated with the AMO and NAO. Next, we sought to combine multiple indices of abundance to generate Bay-wide composite indices of relative abundance. 196 Finally, we examined significant trends in abundance to determine if state specific, and Bay-197 wide indices of species, age and area specific abundance significantly varied through time from 198 1991-2016. 199

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201 <A>Methods:

202 *Study Area*:

The Delaware River Estuary is the second largest estuary on the Atlantic Coast of the USA, and it stretches 213 km from Trenton, NJ to Cape May, NJ on the north and Cape Henlopen, DE on the south (Schieler et al. 2014). The widest part of the estuary extends 45 km just inside the estuary entrance, which is 18 km wide (Janzen and Wong, 2002). The Delaware Bay has a mean depth of 8 m (Aristizábal and Chant 2015) with a shipping channel dredged to maintain 14 m MLLW (Mean Lower Low Water) extending up the estuary to the Delaware River. The estuary is weakly stratified with estuarine circulation variably dominated by wind and 210 buoyancy driven flows impacting species and stage/size specific patterns of early juvenile fish

211 ingress (Epifanio and Garvine 2001; Hale and Targett 2018).

212 Surveys:

Two data sets of fishery independent samples from the Delaware River Estuary were 213 used in this analysis; one conducted by Delaware's Division of Fish and Wildlife (DFW; Figure 214 215 1) and one conducted by New Jersey's Bureau of Marine Fisheries (NJMF). Since 1980, DFW has used a 5.2-m semi-balloon style trawl, equipped with a 1.3-cm knotless stretch-mesh liner to 216 retain juvenile fishes to estimate relative abundance (Greco 2019). Sampling is conducted 217 monthly in Delaware Bay at 33 fixed sites and in Delaware River at 6 fixed sites, from April 218 through October. Tow durations for both surveys are standardized at 10 minutes for both 219 surveys. Catches that yield large numbers are randomly subsampled in DFW's trawl survey for 220 221 length and age data. In the DFW 5.2-m trawl a randomly selected 30 individual subsample for each species is measured to the nearest half centimeter for fork length (FL), and the remaining 222 223 individuals are enumerated. Similarly, NJMF has conducted a trawl survey within New Jersey state waters of Delaware Bay since 1991, using a 4.9-m trawl net equipped with a 1.3-cm 224 225 knotless stretch-mesh liner (Hassall 2019) contributing to indices of relative fish abundance within the estuary. NJMF collects data monthly at 11 fixed stations within the bay, from April 226 227 through October. NJMF tow durations are standardized at 10 minutes against tide, using optimal weather windows to conduct sampling similar to the DFW survey. NJMF randomly subsamples 228 229 50 individual fish for length, which was reported as both FL and total length (TL) for Atlantic Croaker, Black Drum, Spot, and Weakfish. All data were temporally subset to provide 230 231 overlapping information from 1991-2016 for the purposes of this project. The total number of each species caught per tow was multiplied by the proportion of catch by age based on the 232 233 observed size distribution for that tow to provide an estimate of the number of YOY and Age-1 234 individuals captured per haul. Fish less than 13 mm were removed from the models to account for gear saturation. Age at length for YOY and Age-1 Black Drum, Atlantic Croaker, Spot and 235 Weakfish were derived from juvenile recruitment indices. Year classes tend to have lengths 236 237 centered around frequently occurring size classes after hatching (Michels and Greco 1995; 238 Bonzek et al. 1995). Further the YOY recruits are available to the gear seasonally and spatially in the estuary and only certain months are considered in the length ranges and indices per species. 239 240 YOY length cutoffs for Atlantic Croaker were designated at 100 mm and under in September

and October; Black Drum YOY cutoffs were 300 mm and under in August, September, and 241 October; Spot YOY cutoffs were 170 mm and under in July and 200 mm and under in August, 242 243 September, and October; Weakfish YOY cutoffs were 110 mm and under in June, 150 mm and under in July, 200 mm and under in August, 235 mm and under in September and 250 mm and 244 under in October. Age-1 length frequencies were developed using literature reviews of YOY to 245 Age-1 cutoffs and Age-1 to Age-2 cutoffs (Atlantic Croaker; Liao et al. 2019, Michels and Greco 246 1995, Bonzek et al. 1995, ASMFC 2017b); Black Drum; Liao et al. 2019, Michels and Greco 247 1995, Bonzek et al. 1995); Spot; Liao et al. 2019, Michels and Greco 1995, Bonzek et al. 1995); 248 Weakfish; Liao et al. 2019, Michels and Greco 1995, Bonzek et al. 1995, ASMFC 2006, 249 Lowerre-Barbieri 1995). Age-1 length cutoffs for Atlantic Croaker were determined to be 201 -250 260 mm; Black Drum Age-1 fish were considered at 330 – 455 mm; Spot Age-1 fish were 251 252 considered at 201 – 224 mm; Weakfish Age-1 fish were considered at 254 – 275 mm. Statistical Analyses: 253 Environmental data including surface water temperature (°C) and salinity (ppt) collected 254 at each net set/haul, as well as the monthly values of two climatic indices including the AMO 255 256 (https://psl.noaa.gov/data/timeseries/AMO/), and NAO (www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/products/precip/CWlink/pna/nao index.html) were used to explore 257 258 how these parameters influenced the species, age and area specific indices of catch. Both the DFW 5.2 m and the NJMF 4.9 m surveys were standardized using a generalized additive model 259 260 framework where tow specific catch was modelled as a function of $Catch \sim factor(Year) + factor(Month) + s(Station) + s(Temp.) + s(Salinity) + s(Depth) +$ 261 262 s(AMO) + s(NAO)using a negative binomial error distribution, Poisson error distribution and zero-inflated Poisson 263 264 error distribution for each index through time where Year and Month are fitted as fixed effect factors, while Station was treated as a random effect, Temperature, Salinity, Depth, monthly 265 values for the AMO and NAO are fitted as smooth terms with thin plate regression splines as the 266 basis and k, is the number of basis functions to use for each smooth term before any 267 268 identifiability constraints are applied to estimate an index using the "gam" function in the 269 "mgcv" package in R 3.5.2 (R 2008) for each survey, species and age combination (Drexler and Ainsworth 2013). Indices of abundance were each fit using this model formulation to standardize 270 according to year, and fixed station, as well as to account for variation in depth and month 271

- between surveys while measuring if environmental and climatic variables affected catch. The
 estimation method applied was restricted maximum likelihood (REML). Similarly, Bay-wide,
 composite indices of abundance were modelled using the same approach, with the incorporation
 of an additional factor to account for variability associated with the two state surveys with tow
 specific catch was modelled as a function of
- 277

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Catch ~ factor(Year) + factor(State) + factor(Month) + s(Station) + s(Temp.) + s(Salinity) + s(Depth) + s(AMO) + s(NAO) + s(Year*State)

using a negative binomial error distribution (NBGAM), Poisson error distribution (PGAM) and 279 zero-inflated Poisson error distribution (ZIPGAM) for each index. For all of the candidate 280 GAMs, the best model (initial error distribution (NBGAM, PGAM, ZIPGAM) and final model 281 selection) was determined with an information-theoretic approach using the Akaike information 282 283 criterion or AIC score (Burnham and Anderson 2002; Bucheister et al. 2016). After determining the optimal error distribution among three similar, global models, the "dredge" function in the 284 "MuMIn" package of R 3.5.2 (R 2008) was used to automatically test and find the most 285 parsimonious model formulation of potential covariates for each species, area (DE, NJ), and age 286 287 (YOY, Age-1) specific model, as well as for Bay-wide composite indices (CI) which included an interaction between Year and State. The "predict" function in the "car" package of R 3.5.2 (R 288 2008) was used to generate estimates of annual mean catch using the tow specific standardized 289 models of catch. A likelihood ratio test was used to compare models with a null model for each 290 291 index to determine goodness of fit. Standardized indices of abundance for each species (Atlantic Croaker, Black Drum, Spot and Weakfish), age (YOY, Age-1) and survey (Composite Indices, 292 293 DFW 5.2 m, NJMF 4.9 m) were then fit with Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) models using an iterative approach of 1,000 bootstrapped runs to estimate a median 294 295 ARIMA fit for each index using the "surveyfit" and "surveyref" functions in the "fishmethods" package of R 3.5.2 (R 2008). ARIMA models are commonly used to examine trends in a 296 population relative to a given reference point, such as survey quartiles or terminal years in 297 managed species (e.g. Atlantic Sturgeon, ASMFC 2017a) providing a mechanism to assess the 298 299 relative abundance of each species-area-age combination through time. The terminal year value 300 generated from the median ARIMA was then compared to both the first quartile and the survey start year to estimate a probability of the terminal year being greater than 25% of the time series 301 302 and the survey start year using a statistical level of confidence of $\beta = 0.80$ with a Holm-adjusted

probability of rejecting the null hypothesis regarding normality of model residuals (Box and Jenkins 1976; Helser and Hayes 1995; ASMFC 2017a). Then, we used a Mann-Kendall trend test to analyze monotonic trends in the median ARIMA indices using the "mk.test" function in the "trend" package of R 3.5.2 (R 2008), after correcting for family-wise error rates in the statistical *p*-values using the Holm method. Finally, length frequencies of each species were developed to compare the relative size distributions of Atlantic Croaker, Black Drum, Spot, and Weakfish caught between the two trawl surveys from 1991-2016 (Ogle 2014; Emmanuel 2017).

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311 <A>Results

Trends in the AMO index are evident between positive and negative phases over a time 312 series of reconstructed and observed sea surface temperature (SST) data at 65-70-year intervals 313 314 (Knudsen et al. 2011). Within our available 26-year time series, shifts from cool to warm years are evident in both the NAO and the AMO. From 1991-1994, the AMO index remained in a cool 315 phase and has remained in a warm phase from 1997 through 2016 (Figure 2). Conversely, the 316 NAO had demonstrated greater variability between years than the AMO. Slightly more than half 317 318 (53.8 %) of the years from 1991-2016 were represented by a warm year for the NAO index with reversals experienced at a frequency of one to four year intervals (Figure 2). 319

320 All species and age combinations were not equally represented between the two locations when compared to the total number of individual fish collected for each species, age and area. 321 322 Higher numbers of all YOY were observed in Delaware. Between 79 – 92 % of all the YOY observed for the four species were collected in Delaware compared to New Jersey. However, a 323 higher number of Age-1 Weakfish was observed in New Jersey. When examining the total 324 number of fishes caught with all covariate data present, 122,077 individuals were collected in 325 326 Delaware, whereas 25,202 individuals were collected in New Jersey across all species and ages combined (Table 1). More than 61 % of the total number of individuals collected in Delaware 327 were comprised of YOY Weakfish. Similarly, more than 58 % of the total number of individuals 328 collected in New Jersey were attributed to YOY Weakfish. Age-1 Atlantic Croaker and Spot 329 were both collected in Delaware, at two orders of magnitude less when compared to YOY for 330 331 both of those species. Conversely, no Age-1 Atlantic Croaker or Spot were documented in New Jersey from 1991-2016 (Table 1). However, Age-1 Weakfish were present at both locations. 332

Of the seventeen possible combinations where we had enough data to generate base 333 models of catch that included all model covariates, the negative binomial error distribution was 334 the lowest scoring AIC value of the global models in thirteen of the indices (Table 1). ZIPGAMs 335 were chosen as the final model in all three indices of YOY Black Drum indices. And a PGAM 336 was selected for in the Age-1 Atlantic Croaker index in Delaware. All final model configurations 337 338 were highly significant when compared to null models without covariates (p-value < 0.001). The deviance explained by the final models for all species, area, and age combinations ranged from 339 23.1 - 89.2% depending upon the model, with all dispersion values less than 2.4 for all indices, 340 suggesting reasonable levels of variance were present for all final models (Table 1). 341

Many of the environmental and climatic variable smoothing parameters were found to be 342 significant in the final models. However, the year and state interaction term included in three of 343 344 the five composite indices which combined data from Delaware and New Jersey was not significant in any model (Table 2). Station was found to act as a significant smoothing parameter 345 346 in all the fifteen models in which that parameter was selected for inclusion in the final model. The AMO, NAO, salinity and surface temperature collected at each tow were significant 347 348 smoothing parameters in twelve of the seventeen final models. While depth was found to be significant in ten of the seventeen final models. Residuals were not normally distributed for six 349 of the seventeen ARIMA model fits. However, for the remaining eleven ARIMA models, 350 residuals were normally distributed (Table 3). All the normally distributed median ARIMA 351 352 model fits, but the Bay-wide, composite index of Age-1 Weakfish had a higher probability (P >51 %) of being greater than the first quartile for each time series, while four of the indices had a 353 higher probability (P > 51 %) of being less in 2016 when compared to the survey start year of 354 1991 (Table 3). 355

356 Peaks in YOY Atlantic Croaker abundance were observed in New Jersey from 1996-2011 357 over the course of the time series with peaks in YOY Atlantic Croaker observed in Delaware from 2001-2005 and again in 2010 and 2014 (Figure 3). The Bay-wide composite index of YOY 358 Atlantic Croaker had seven peaks in abundance throughout the course of the time series. 359 360 However, peaks in abundance of Age-1 Atlantic Croaker are present only at the beginning of the time series in Delaware from 1991-1994 (Figure 3). GAM indices of Atlantic Croaker abundance 361 explained between 38.5 - 60.1% of the deviance for the two surveys (Table 1). The smooth term 362 for salinity was included in all three final YOY models, and significant in both the Delaware and 363

composite indices. Similarly, the AMO and the NAO were significant smoothing parameters 364 included in all three final YOY models. While a significant smooth term for depth was included 365 366 in the final YOY NJMF 4.9 m survey only. Station was also identified as significant smoothing parameters in the YOY DFW 5.2 m and composite indices. All the smoothing parameters 367 included in the YOY DFW 5.2 m index were included in the Age-1 DFW 5.2 m index, in 368 addition to depth (Table 2). Median fit ARIMAs for the YOY DFW 5.2 m and composite index 369 for Atlantic Croaker (Figure 3) demonstrated an increasing trend from 1991-2016 with normally 370 distributed error terms and a high probability of an increase in abundance relative to the first 371 quartile for each survey (P \ge 99 %; Table 3). Median fit ARIMA models of both the YOY NJMF 372 4.9 m and Age-1 DFW 5.2 m indices were not normally distributed. Atlantic Croaker ranged in 373 size from 15 – 175 mm FL in the DFW-5.2 m survey and 13 – 173 mm FL in the NJMF 4.9 m 374 survey (Figure 7) throughout the time series. 375

For Black Drum, YOY were the only encountered age group in the two surveys with 376 matching covariate data. Peaks in the DFW 5.2 m survey were observed from 1993 to 2013. 377 Whereas a single large peak in abundance was observed in the NJMF 4.9 m survey in 2007 378 379 (Figure 4). GAMs of Black Drum abundance explained between 42.1 - 89.2 % of the deviance for each of the three surveys (Table 1). Depth was the only significant smoothing variable 380 381 included in all three surveys. Depth and the NAO were the only smoothing parameters included in the YOY, NJMF 4.9 m GAM. The AMO, depth, NAO, salinity, station, temperature were 382 383 significant smoothing parameters in the YOY models for the DFW 5.2 m survey, and the Baywide composite index (Table 2). Additionally, the interaction term between Year and State was 384 385 also included in the final model of the YOY composite index. The ARIMA of the YOY DFW 5.2 m Black Drum index had a high probability ($P \ge 76$ %, Table 3; Figures 4), that the index 386 387 value in 2016 was both greater than the first quartile, as well as the survey start year. However, the residuals from the YOY NJMF 4.9 m survey and the composite index were not normally 388 distributed (Table 3) suggesting that the data representing the population were not normally 389 distributed and results inferred from those analyses should be ignored or used with caution. 390 391 Further, no significant trend in YOY Black Drum abundance was identified in the DFW 5.2 m index (Table 3). Black Drum ranged in size from 75 - 435 mm FL in the DFW-5.2 m survey and 392 27 - 320 mm FL in the NJMF 4.9 m survey (Figure 7). 393

Spot like Atlantic Croaker, and Black Drum had a much higher likelihood of being 394 observed as YOY, when compared to the total number of Age-1 individuals (Table 1). Peaks in 395 396 YOY Spot abundance were asynchronous throughout time between the two states (Figure 5). GAMs of abundance explained between 38.7 - 63.2 % of the deviance for each of the four 397 models (Table 1). Station as a random effect was the only significant smoothing parameter 398 included in the YOY NJMF 4.9 m survey. While all the smoothing parameters were both 399 significant and included in the YOY DFW-5.2 m survey, except for salinity which was dropped 400 from the final model. Additionally, all the smoothing variables of the final YOY composite index 401 were included in the final model formulation. However, the AMO and the interaction between 402 year and state, while included in the final model were not statistically significant smoothing 403 parameters in the YOY composite index. Depth, the NAO, salinity, and station were all 404 405 significant smoothing parameters in the Age-1 DFW-5.2 m survey index (Table 2). In 2016, the median fit ARIMA of YOY Spot from the DFW 5.2 m and composite index had a 91 % 406 407 probability of being higher than the first quartile for the time series and lower than the value observed in 1991. However, Age-1 Spot from the DFW 5.2 m index had a 77 % probability of 408 409 being greater than the first quartile (Table 3). No significant trends in abundance were detected for any median ARIMA fit YOY Spot index. However, Age-1 Spot from the DFW-5.2 m survey 410 411 were found to have declined since 1991. Spot ranged in size from 15-250 mm FL in the DFW-5.2 m survey and 14-224 mm FL in the NJMF 4.9 m survey (Figure 7). 412

413 Similar to all three of the other species explored, YOY weakfish were more frequently encountered by both surveys when compared to the proportion of the total number observed of 414 Age-1 Weakfish within each survey (Table 1). YOY Weakfish had a period of relatively higher 415 abundance from 1999-2012 in the NJMF 4.9 m index; whereas YOY Weakfish were generally 416 417 higher in relative abundance in the DFW 5.2 m survey from 1991-2000 with peaks after that period in 2007, 2011 and 2015 (Figure 6). Relative abundance was higher for the Age-1 DFW 418 5.2 m survey from 1992-2000, when compared to the rest of time series. Conversely, the Age-1 419 Weakfish index from the NJMF 4.9 m had more peaks toward the end of the time series from 420 421 2000-2015 (Figure 6). The Bay-wide, composite index of Weakfish appeared to be more like the 422 DFW 5.2 m index with a cluster of higher values observed from 1991-1997, however all of the Age-1 annual means were less than 1. GAMs of Weakfish abundance explained between 23.1 -423 60.5 % of the deviance in the data for the six indices (Table 1). The AMO, station as a random 424

effect and temperature, were all significant smoothing parameters included in the final models 425 for all YOY Weakfish indices. Depth was included in all three final models, as well, but not 426 427 significant in the YOY DFW 5.2 m Weakfish index. While the NAO and salinity were significant smoothing variables for the DFW 5.2 m and the composite indices, but not included 428 in the final YOY NJMF 4.9 m index. All smoothing variables present in the final model 429 formulation were significant in the Bay-wide GAM of Age-1 Weakfish. Additionally, the 430 interaction between year and state was included in the final YOY composite index (Table 2). 431 Salinity and station as a random effect were all significant smoothing parameters in all three of 432 the Age-1 Weakfish indices. The AMO was a significant smoothing parameter in both the DFW 433 5.2 m and composite index, but not included in the final Age-1 NJMF 4.9 m index. Temperature 434 was a significant smoothing parameter in the Age-1 NJMF 4.9 m and composite index, but not 435 included in the final model of the Age-1 DFW 5.2 m index. Finally, the NAO was a significant 436 smoothing parameter in the Age-1 NJMF 4.9 m index, but not present in either of the final 437 models for the other two Age-1 indices (Table 2). The 2016 terminal time series year estimate 438 from the median fit ARIMA had a high likelihood (P > 75 %) of being greater than the first 439 440 quartile for each YOY Weakfish time series. However, the likelihood of the terminal year being greater than the survey start year in 1991 was much lower in most of the YOY and Age-1 441 Weakfish indices. Also, the Bay-wide Age-1 Weakfish composite index had a higher likelihood 442 of being less than the first quartile (P = 57 %; Table 3). No significant trends were detected in the 443 444 YOY Weakfish for either the Bay-wide composite index or the NJMF 4.9 m index. However, the YOY Weakfish DFW 5.2 m GAM was found to have declined through time. Residuals from the 445 Age-1, NJMF 4.9 m survey were not normally distributed suggesting that the data representing 446 the population are not normally distributed and results inferred from those analyses should be 447 448 ignored or used with caution for that index. However, the median fit ARIMA Age-1 Weakfish 449 index for the DFW 5.2 m survey was increasing, while the composite index was found to be declining through time (Table 3). Weakfish showed a range in lengths between 13-250 mm FL in 450 the DFW 5.2 m survey for YOY and Age-1, and 13-250 mm FL in the NJMF 4.9 survey for 451 452 YOY and Age-1 (Figure 7).

453

454 <A>Discussion

Sciaenid species showed varying patterns in abundance through time within the Delaware 455 River Estuary from 1991-2016 demonstrating significant trends and associations with both 456 457 environmental covariates and larger, regional climatic indices. Each of the four species experienced shifts in abundance at different time intervals within the modelled time series, 458 suggesting that underlying factors are likely affecting species-age-area specific trends in 459 460 abundance within the estuary. Of the environmental processes affecting abundance, temperature and salinity were both consistently found to smooth GAM fits for multiple species-age-area 461 specific models of abundance for these species. Similarly, we consistently observed relationships 462 between climatic indices including the AMO and the NAO, and modelled abundance, 463 demonstrating that long term climate has a correlation between smaller scale processes like water 464 temperature, that affect the species examined in this study at multiple ages. Of the eight potential 465 466 composite indices (YOY & Age 1; Atlantic Croaker, Black Drum, Spot, Weakfish) that might allow us to examine how environmental drivers may affect relative abundance for Sciaenids on 467 468 an estuary wide scale, only five of the indices had enough data to generate GAMs of abundance, and only two of the indices had normally distributed, measurable trends in abundance including 469 470 the YOY Atlantic Croaker and Age-1 Weakfish composite indices. Of those two, YOY Atlantic Croaker have increased, while Age-1 Weakfish have decreased from 1991-2016. Therefore, we 471 472 have demonstrated a method to aggregate data across spatial areas, standardize catch, evaluate trends within an area through time and make comparisons relative to time series reference points 473 474 that may serve as a management guideline, and make broader assessments across a larger spatial region to examine how abundance varies through time. 475

476 We have considered the limitations of our data and analyses in the interpretation of these results. Our study used catch data across two historical fixed-station time series of unequal 477 478 survey sites, limiting the catch variability and inducing potential spatial bias within the sampling 479 routines. However, due to heavy maritime shipping traffic in the estuary and spatial designations by each state limiting the bounds at which each survey can operate, combining fixed station data 480 became a viable option for analyzing a time series of relative abundance in the Delaware River 481 482 Estuary. Further, daily weather patterns, gear type, trawl speed and boat captain may have all 483 affected the concentration of individuals within a given species for each survey (Misund et al. 1999). Additionally, there was a higher number of stations sampled within the Delaware survey 484 when compared to the New Jersey survey, which likely skewed our results, particularly in the 485

construction of Bay-wide composite indices. Our attempt to build a composite index may reflect 486 this disparity between the number of sampling stations, as the composite models often behaved 487 488 similar to those from the DFW surveys. We used the most optimal GAM we could identify for 489 each individual survey and species-age-area-specific index of relative abundance so that we could standardize annual catches of each species without assuming linear relationships among 490 491 covariates and build individual models that accounted for covariates including station and interactions between year and state for composite indices. GAMs apply a series of smoothing 492 functions in an iterative approach to fit linear or nonlinear relationships between individual 493 predictors and dependent variables simultaneously (Hastie and Tibshirani 1986). As an example, 494 GAMs were found to better estimate catch when compared to GLMs because of the nonlinearity 495 associated with covariates and catch in the Alaskan Sablefish (Anoplopoma fimbria) longline 496 497 fishery (Mateo and Hanselman 2014). Overlap in ages at length was also considered within our analysis, especially within the Age-1 to Age-2 cutoffs for Weakfish where large variations of 498 499 length at age have been observed within these age groups (Lowerre-Barbieri et al. 1995). However, we believe that the estimates of catch we derived are likely a conservative 500 501 approximation for the true proportion at age being captured.

Combining each of the two surveys into a single composite index through time allowed 502 for a Bay-wide model of species-specific relative abundance by combining multiple surveys 503 throughout the estuary standardized by a similar suite of potential covariates. Abundance data 504 505 vary annually, reflecting population level fluctuations, survey sampling variability, and variable catchability (Pennington 1986; ASMFC 2017a). We utilized ARIMAs to filter measurement 506 507 error from process variability to identify trends in relative abundance (Box and Jenkins 1976; Helser and Hayes 1995; ASMFC 2017a) for individual surveys, and Bay-wide composite 508 509 indices, and generate comparisons with those filtered data with environmental variables. Finally, 510 the AMO and NAO vary at multi-decadal frequencies, so attempting to compare trends in relative abundance with 26 years of data may fail to adequately capture the effect these climatic 511 processes have on Sciaenid abundance through time. However, we were fortunate enough to 512 have data that spanned positive and negative phases of both the AMO and NAO, allowing for an 513 514 exploration of how the AMO and NAO affect relative abundance. Despite the limitations of our data and the assumptions associated with our methods, we have managed to estimate relative 515 abundance for four species at two ages, using standardized indices of abundance, generate 516

statistically significant Bay-wide trends in relative abundance for four species, and make
comparisons of a subset of those trends to large scale, climatic drivers and environmental
variables including temperature and salinity.

520 The abundance of Atlantic Croaker was related to the AMO, depth, the NAO, salinity, station as a random effect, temperature and an interaction between year and state within the 521 Delaware River Estuary. These results suggest climatic, and environmental processes are 522 correlated to fluctuations in abundance at both ages. Further, our results demonstrate that the two 523 fixed station surveys asynchronously capture peaks in abundance, suggesting that Atlantic 524 Croaker may be utilizing different areas within the bay through time based on active habitat 525 selection, physical processes affecting their ingress into the estuary or a combination of 526 biophysical transport processes (Hale & Targett 2018). Trends in species abundance based on 527 528 statistics for the Mann-Kendall trend tests of median fitted ARIMAs for each index demonstrate an increasing trend in abundance of YOY Atlantic Croaker in Delaware Bay. Additionally, we 529 530 found that multiple environmental variables and climatic phenomena were correlated to modelled abundance through time including temperature, salinity, depth, station, the AMO and 531 532 the NAO depending upon the survey.

The connection between environmental variables that are controlled by large scale 533 534 climatic signals and abundance in Atlantic Croaker has been previously observed. Data from Lankford and Targett (2001) suggested that Atlantic Croaker have an optimal temperature 535 536 window at age-0 in Delaware Bay, with substantial mortality when exposed to prolonged water temperatures below 5°C. Similarly, work conducted in the Gulf of Mexico suggested that 537 538 Atlantic Croaker distribution can be influenced by abiotic factors, such as hypoxia and water temperature, causing spatial disturbances within the species' preferred niche and dispersing 539 540 Atlantic Croaker to cooler offshore waters where growth was limited due to reduced growth 541 energy (Craig and Crowder 2005). Witting et al. (1999) found that in the Little Egg Harbor, NJ, temperature affected the annual phenology and duration of seasonal larval fish assemblages, with 542 Atlantic Croaker being most abundant as part of the fall assemblage. Similarly, our findings 543 suggest that the AMO, which is directly related to SST (Edwards et al. 2013; Large et al. 2013), 544 545 affects YOY Atlantic Croaker abundance within the Delaware River Estuary (Lankford and Targett 2001; Miller et al. 2003). Previous work, including a study by Hare and Able (2007) 546 correlated 'outbursts' of recruitment and year class strength of juvenile Atlantic Croaker with 547

above average minimum winter temperatures and the wintertime NAO index across several Mid-548 Atlantic States, demonstrating that warm winters provide an increase in optimal Atlantic Croaker 549 550 habitat in Mid-Atlantic estuaries. Our findings, much like previous studies, show an increase in Atlantic Croaker abundance during warm temperatures within Delaware Bay. Our findings with 551 the AMO and NAO index suggest that physical mechanisms controlling SST, wind driven flows 552 553 and precipitation (Enfield et al. 2001) are correlated to juvenile abundance, based on reported size at maturity and landings (ASMFC 2010; ASMFC 2017b) in the estuary. Similarly, larval 554 Atlantic Croaker were previously suggested to be reliant upon physical forcing mechanisms at 555 early life history stages to promote ingress into Delaware Bay (Hale and Targett 2018) 556 suggesting that environmental processes are acting throughout life history on this species in a 557 compounding manner with behavioral modification to enhance or depress survival. 558

559 Comparable to Atlantic Croaker, we found that multiple climatic drivers and environmental variables significantly affected models of abundance of YOY Black Drum in 560 561 Delaware, and at an estuarine scale. Other researchers have similarly identified links between climatic signals and Black Drum. Zimmerman (2016) found a strong positive correlation with the 562 563 AMO and Black Drum landings, with significant lags occurring at 9 years prior to a given year, suggesting that increased catches were linked with positive AMO phases nearly a decade prior. 564 565 Although the study by Zimmerman (2016) dealt with adult Black Drum primarily, the findings do show that the species has some likely relationship with the AMO. Despite the relatively brief 566 567 time series we have available (26 years) compared to the 65-year time series examined by Zimmerman (2016) coupled with the longevity of the species (maximum age = 67 years, 568 569 ASMFC 2015) we still identified the AMO as a significant smoothing parameter of YOY Black 570 Drum in the composite index and Delaware. However, the AMO was not correlated to the YOY 571 Black Drum index in New Jersey suggesting that some difference exists between the two data 572 series. Further, Black Drum were the lowest encountered of the four species explored. Juvenile Black Drum use of salt marshes and tidal creeks as nursey habitat (Odell et al. 2017), as 573 compared to more open habitat accessible to the trawl surveys may be a cause of the low 574 575 interaction rates observed in our study, due to the lack of sampling in these areas by the two 576 surveys. Further, the two surveys may have differences in how they trawl, that affect catch rates, which we failed to account for in our models of abundance. Differences such as area sampled, 577 depth, number of stations, equipment, and operational variations between the two surveys likely 578

impact catch rates. However, we attempted to control for these parameters by including station 579 and an interaction between year and state where applicable. Similar to the results of our study, 580 581 Thomas and Smith (1973) examined Black Drum YOY and suggested that factors such as 582 bottom type, current, and temperature are more important for suitable nursery habitat than salinity alone in tidal creeks in the upper Delaware Bay. Further, Black Drum chorusing activity 583 associated with spawning has been correlated with water temperatures offshore of North 584 Carolina and Georgia suggesting that water temperature may affect spawning behavior (Rice et 585 al. 2016) and the subsequent presence of YOY. Black Drum were significantly correlated to 586 dissolved oxygen levels during associated spawning runs in Louisiana, where supersaturated 587 environments were found to have large aggregations of spawning adults (Saucier & Baltz 1993). 588 Additionally, Saucier and Baltz (1993) suggested that the highly oxygenated environments may 589 590 be sought after because of the size of the Black Drum eggs and the need for higher concentrations of dissolved oxygen to assist in diffusion through the egg envelope. During 591 592 different phases of the AMO there may be an influx or decrease of freshwater (Enfield et al. 2001; Nye et al. 2014), and variability within SST, which can influence the amount of dissolved 593 594 oxygen within a given area, changing the physiochemical properties of the water (Irby et al. 2018), and potentially causing Black Drum to search for suitable habitat for spawning or juvenile 595 periods of residency. 596

A Bay-wide, composite index of YOY Spot included smoothing parameters for all of the 597 598 environmental variables and climatic phenomena tested, similar to the Bay-wide composite index of Black Drum. In fact, all smoothing variables, except for the AMO and the interaction between 599 600 year and state were significantly related to the modelled abundance of Spot in Delaware Bay and all but, salinity were correlated between YOY Spot collected in Delaware. Conversely, YOY 601 602 Spot collected in the New Jersey survey were best explained by salinity and station as a random 603 effect without the inclusion of other environmental or climatic variables. However, the total number of YOY Spot was an order of magnitude lower between Delaware and New Jersey, again 604 suggesting that there is variability in the collection of a species by area, like what was found with 605 606 Black Drum. However, it is again worth nothing, that a greater number of stations were sampled 607 in Delaware when compared to the New Jersey survey. Our findings demonstrate that YOY Spot abundance in Delaware Bay is significantly correlated to temperature, salinity, depth, and the 608

NAO. Like the results of our study, Spot in Chesapeake Bay were positively associated with
increased temperature and salinity (Schaffler et al. 2013; Love and May 2007).

611 Models of Weakfish abundance were significantly related to environmental and climatic processes depending upon the age of the fish and the survey area. Bay-wide indices of abundance 612 demonstrate associations among temperature, salinity, station, an interaction between year and 613 614 state, and the AMO for YOY and Age-1 ages and the NAO for YOY. The AMO was a significant smoothing variable in five of the six final models of Weakfish abundance, suggesting 615 that this climatic phenomenon is correlated to Weakfish abundance. Previous studies have found 616 similar associations between climatic indices and Weakfish abundance, as well as Weakfish 617 mortality. Both the AMO and the NAO have been previously correlated to Weakfish natural 618 mortality for ages 1-6 using data from Connecticut to North Carolina (Jiao et al. 2011). 619 620 However, the AMO (annual average) was linearly related to natural mortality (Jiao et al. 2011). The last negative phase of the AMO, which occurred from the late 1950s into the 1980s, was 621 linked with higher total catches of Weakfish, most notably in the 1980s. However, the AMO 622 moved into a warm, positive phase in the early 1990s, remaining positive through recent time 623 624 with associated record low total catch rates (ASMFC 2009). A similar trend was observed through historical catch records in the Delaware Bay from 1880-1933, where catches of 625 Weakfish were high into 1929 followed by decline through 1933 (Nesbit 1954). Higher catches 626 of Weakfish coincide with the negative phase of the AMO during this time period within 627 628 Delaware Bay, with lower catches correlated with the warm AMO phase starting in the early 1930s (Nesbit 1954). 629

In addition to large scale climatic drivers, smaller scale, environmental variables have 630 been found to affect Weakfish concentration as well. Weakfish studied in Great Bay, NJ, utilized 631 632 areas of higher salinities and water temperatures during summer suggesting those environmental factors may influence their habitat selection (Turnure et al. 2015). Temperature may have an 633 influence on male Weakfish disturbance call duration during spawning which may help female 634 Weakfish find a suitable mate and discriminate males based on size (Connaughton et al. 2000). 635 636 Based on our results, we believe that juvenile Weakfish abundance may be significantly 637 influenced by the AMO through the effect of the AMO on water temperature. Feeding behavior of juvenile Weakfish has been correlated to temperature, salinity and prey interaction rates 638 within Delaware Bay (Grecay and Targett 1996), with results demonstrating these 639

physiochemical attributes can significantly affect growth rates and induce a stress response if 640 high temperatures and lower salinities are encountered (Lankford and Targett 1994). Hare et al. 641 (2016) suggested that Atlantic Croaker, Spot and Weakfish all had the same moderate levels of 642 climatic vulnerability, but the relative degree of certainty according to the standard error of the 643 index was much less for Weakfish compared to the other two species. The relative significance 644 of the environment could be tied to both natural factors, including trends in early life history and 645 natural mortality, as well as confounding anthropogenic factors, including a depleted population 646 status and subsequent interactions between those natural (e.g. mortality, competition) and 647 anthropogenic factors (destruction of environment and environmental conditions). 648

Beyond the findings for these species in Delaware Bay, the results of previous analyses 649 suggest that fish species are affected by large-scale environmental processes across broad 650 651 geographic areas, with species being affected at different life stages, and altering attributes associated with trophic ecology. Environmental processes have been correlated with changes in 652 predation patterns (Yasumiishi et al. 2016), growth of marine nekton (Charnov and Gillooly 653 2004; Yasumiishi et al. 2016; Izzo and Zydlewski 2017) and success of year classes among 654 655 nekton in freshwater (Reist et al. 2006) and marine ecosystems (Lankford and Targett 2001; Brander and Mohn 2004; Hare and Able 2007). In the Pacific, greater oceanic recruitment and 656 657 growth rates of juvenile Sockeye Salmon (Oncorhynchus nerka) have been positively correlated with SST before entering oceanic waters along the eastern Bearing Sea during warming events, 658 659 allowing Sockeve Salmon to reach adult maturity more rapidly, aiding in survival (Yasumiishi et al. 2016). Further, survival of nekton is greatly affected by feeding and feeding encounter rates 660 661 of different prey species (Chao and Musick 1977) with annual variability generated by physical environmental conditions including water column stability (Carassou et al. 2011). In addition, 662 663 environmental variables and climatic processes have been found to generate variance in the 664 patterns of spatial distribution among marine species due to habitat preferences and potentially overlapping concentrations of prey (Overholtz et al. 2011; Sagarese et al. 2011). 665

666 The AMO and NAO have been correlated to recruitment and life stages of many species 667 in the Atlantic Ocean. Specifically, Buchheister et al. (2016) found that an Atlantic Menhaden 668 recruitment index in Delaware showed a significant positive relationship when correlated to a 669 lagged AMO. Our results suggest the AMO's influence on the Delaware River Estuary 670 ecosystem has the potential to alter individual year classes, and subsequently affect population

abundance which in turn affects the potential productivity of a fishery of an individual species, 671 generating ecological implications for other species and fisheries. Similarly, the NAO also has 672 673 been linked to trends in the production, distribution, and abundance of fishes. The NAO has been found to broadly affect anadromous (e.g. Striped Bass, O'Connor et al. 2012) and catadromous 674 (e.g. American Eel (Anguilla rostrata), Friedland et al. 2007) species, as well as impact multiple 675 life history stages of other species including the larval stages of Blueback Herring, American 676 Eel, Weakfish, Spot, Atlantic Croaker, and Black Drum (Love et al. 2009) and adult stages of 677 Alewives, Blueback Herring, Atlantic Herring (Clupea harengus), and Atlantic Mackerel 678 (Turner et al. 2017). Similarly, Hare and Able (2007) found that increased catches of adult 679 Atlantic Croaker in the 1950s, 1970s, and 1990s were significantly correlated with the warm 680 phase of the NAO index showing the effect of the NAO on Atlantic Croaker recruitment. North 681 Atlantic Cod (Gadus morhua) recruitment was positively correlated to the NAO in three cod 682 stocks in the North Sea, Baltic Sea, and Irish Sea, but had a negative correlation in Iceland 683 (Brander and Mohn 2004). 684

Understanding how environmental variables affect the relative abundance of managed 685 686 fishes is important to improve the characterization of population variability and assess stock status. We successfully documented species-age-area specific relationships that suggest 687 temperature, salinity, and climatic drivers that impact those variables including the NAO and the 688 AMO can have measurable effects on the abundance of four Sciaenid species at multiple points 689 690 through time at variable spatial scales. Bay-wide composite indices of abundance provide insight into how environmental variables impact abundance in juvenile fishes across a broader area. 691 692 Nonlinear relationships exist between catch, temperature and salinity for YOY Atlantic Croaker, Black Drum, Spot, Weakfish, and Age-1 Weakfish in Delaware Bay (Supplemental Figures) 693 694 which generate variable points in time and space that can alter juvenile survival and growth in an 695 estuary. These age and species-specific responses to environmental and climatic variables occur within an optimum band to produce elevated levels of abundance within a range of observed 696 values for a suite of covariates. We suggest that long term climatic conditions are generating 697 698 smaller scale environmental fluctuations that present unique physiochemical water conditions 699 that vary in spatial and temporal scale, generating species, age and area specific responses in the abundance of marine fishes observed in Mid-Atlantic estuaries. Further, we have demonstrated a 700 701 need to explore relationships between environmental factors and fishes, so that stock assessments and management action can incorporate or at least consider incorporating climatic variability and
 respond accordingly to changes in environmental conditions, thus more accurately portraying
 natural variability of trends in abundance.

705

706 <A>Figures

Table 1. Species, area, age, n (total number of fish observed with matching covariate data), delta
AIC scores for similar base models to determine optimal error structure, the final model selection
with deviance explained and dispersion from 1991-2016.

Table 2. Associated p-values for the smoothing parameters of AMO, depth (m), NAO, salinity

711 (ppt), station, temperature (°C), and an interaction between Year * State for each species, area,

and age specific final model with significant variables highlighted in yellow, unused covariates

- from the final model formulation were left blank.
- Table 3. Summary statistics for median ARIMA results and the Mann-Kendall trend tests of

median fitted ARIMAs for each index by species, area and age. W = Shapiro-Wilk statistic for

- normality, adj. p-value= Holm-adjusted probability of rejecting the null hypothesis regarding
- normality of model residuals, (θ) = moving average parameter, SE = standard error of theta, σ_c^2 =
- variance of index, $P(2016 < 25^{\text{th}} \text{ pct}) = \text{the probability that the terminal year index value}$
- observed in 2016 was less than the first quartile for the time series, P(2016 < 1991) = the

probability that the terminal year index value observed in 2016 was less than the survey start

- year in 1991, S = Kendall Score, σ^2 = variance of Kendall Score, τ = Kendall's tau statistic, adj.
- *p*-value = the Holm-adjusted probability of the Mann-Kendall time series trend being significant,
- 723 Trend= trend result (increasing, decreasing or n.s.= not significant). ARIMA fits with non-
- normally distributed residuals are highlighted in yellow.

Figure 1. A map of Delaware Bay and Delaware River. Trawl station coordinates are marked

- with symbols and each trawl survey is denoted by color within the estuary.
- Figure 2. The annual AMO, annual NAO indices by year (1991-2016) with the standard error ofthe mean for each index.
- 729 Figure 3. Standardized (GAM) indices of abundance for Atlantic Croaker by age, survey (DE-
- DFW 5.2 m; NJ-NJMF 4.9 m; CI-composite index) and year from 1991-2016, with the error bars
- representing the 95 % Confidence Interval for each annual mean in the upper four panels. While
- the lower four panels represent the corresponding median fitted ARIMA of standardized indices

of abundance by species, year and survey for the standardized index immediately above. In the 733 lower plots, the dots represent the $\ln(index + 0.01)$, and the gray line represents the ARIMA 734 735 index, while the red line represents the first quartile for the time series for each ARIMA. Figure 4. Standardized (GAM) indices of abundance for YOY Black Drum by survey (DE-DFW 736 5.2 m; NJ-NJMF 4.9 m; CI-composite index) and year from 1991-2016, with the error bars 737 representing the 95 % Confidence Interval for each annual mean in the upper three panels. While 738 the lower three panels represent the corresponding median fitted ARIMA of standardized indices 739 of abundance by species, year and survey for the standardized index immediately above. In the 740 lower plots, the dots represent the ln(index + 0.01), and the gray line represents the ARIMA 741 index, while the red line represents the first quartile for the time series for each ARIMA. 742 Figure 5. Standardized (GAM) indices of abundance for Spot by age, survey (DE-DFW 5.2 m; 743 NJ-NJMF 4.9 m; CI-composite index) and year from 1991-2016, with the error bars representing 744 the 95 % Confidence Interval for each annual mean in the upper four panels. While the lower 745 746 four panels represent the corresponding median fitted ARIMA of standardized indices of abundance by species, year and survey for the standardized index immediately above. In the 747 748 lower plots, the dots represent the ln(index + 0.01), and the gray line represents the ARIMA index, while the red line represents the first quartile for the time series for each ARIMA. 749 Figure 6. Standardized (GAM) indices of abundance for Weakfish by age, survey (DE-DFW 5.2 750 m; NJ-NJMF 4.9 m; CI-composite index) and year from 1991-2016, with the error bars 751 752 representing the 95 % Confidence Interval for each annual mean in the upper six panels. While the lower six panels represent the corresponding median fitted ARIMA of standardized indices 753 754 of abundance by species, year and survey for the standardized index immediately above. In the lower plots, the dots represent the ln(index + 0.01), and the gray line represents the ARIMA 755 756 index, while the red line represents the first quartile for the time series for each ARIMA. Figure 7. A. Length frequency of Atlantic Croaker by survey and across all years from 1991-757 2016. DFW - Mean: 44 mm, Median: 25 mm. NJMF - Mean: 31 mm, Median: 23 mm. 758 B. Length frequency of Black Drum by survey and across all years from 1991-2016. DFW -759 760 Mean: 171 mm, Median: 170 mm. NJMF - Mean: 166 mm, Median: 165 mm. C. Length frequency of Spot by survey and across all years from 1991-2016. DFW - Mean: 137 761 mm, Median: 140 mm. NJMF - Mean: 129 mm, Median: 130 mm. 762

- 763 D. Length frequency of Weakfish by survey and across all years from 1991-2016. DFW Mean:
- 764 96 mm, Median: 80 mm. NJMF Mean: 70 mm, Median: 57 mm.
- 765 Supplemental Figures:
- Supplemental Figure 1. A plot of the NBGAM, YOY Atlantic Croaker composite index (CI)
- component smooth functions including AMO, NAO, salinity (ppt), station as a random effect and
- temperature (°C) with two standard errors above and below the estimate of the smooth expressed
- 769 as dashed lines.
- 770 Supplemental Figure 2. A plot of the ZIPGAM, YOY Black Drum composite index (CI)
- component smooth functions including AMO, depth (m), NAO, salinity (ppt), station as a
- random effect, temperature (°C) and the interaction between Year and State (labelled as Year)
- with two standard errors above and below the estimate of the smooth expressed as dashed lines.
- Supplemental Figure 3. A plot of the NBGAM, YOY Spot composite index (CI) component
- smooth functions including the AMO, depth (m), NAO, salinity (ppt), station as a random effect,
- temperature (°C) and the interaction between Year and State (labelled as Year) with two standard
- errors above and below the estimate of the smooth expressed as dashed lines.
- Supplemental Figure 4. A plot of the NBGAM, YOY Weakfish composite index (CI) component
- smooth functions including the AMO, depth (m), NAO, salinity (ppt), station as a random effect,
- temperature (°C) and the interaction between Year and State (labelled as Year) with two standard
- rrors above and below the estimate of the smooth expressed as dashed lines.
- 782 Supplemental Figure 5. A plot of the NBGAM, Age-1 Weakfish composite index (CI)
- component smooth functions including the AMO, depth (m), salinity (ppt), station as a random
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