

Quantifying relative fishing impact on fish populations based on spatio-temporal overlap of fishing effort and stock density

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**Quantifying relative fishing impact on fish populations
based on spatio-temporal overlap of fishing effort and stock
density**

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3 1 **Quantifying relative fishing impact on fish populations based on spatio-temporal**
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6 2 **overlap of fishing effort and stock density**
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28 9 **Abstract**
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32 10 Evaluations of the effects of management measures on fish populations are usually based
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34 11 on the analyses of population dynamics and estimates of fishing mortality from stock
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36 12 assessments. However, this approach may not be applicable in all cases, in particular for
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38 13 data limited stocks, which may suffer from uncertain catch information and consequently
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40 14 lack reliable estimates of fishing mortality. In this study we develop an approach to
41
42 15 obtain proxies for changes in fishing mortality based on effort information and predicted
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44 16 stock distribution. Cod in the Kattegat is used as an example. We use GAM analyses to
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46 17 predict local cod densities and combine this with spatio-temporal data of fishing effort
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48 18 based on VMS (Vessel Monitoring System). To quantify local fishing impact on the
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50 19 stock, retention probability of the gears is taken into account. The results indicate a
51
52 20 substantial decline in the impact of Danish demersal trawl fleet on cod in the Kattegat in
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3 21 recent years, due to a combination of closed areas, introduction of selective gears and
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6 22 changes in overall effort.
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8
9 23 Keywords: fishing impact, VMS, fish distribution, spatial modeling, Kattegat cod
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11 12 13 24 **Introduction**

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16 25 Marine environments and living resources are under an increasing focus of different
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18 26 policies aimed at achieving a healthy status of marine ecosystems, which include
19
20 27 rebuilding depleted fish populations (WSSD, 2002; EC, 2008a, 2009). A critical element
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22 28 in the process of developing and implementing management strategies is to be able to
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24 29 evaluate their efficiency and monitor the progress towards achieving management
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26 30 objectives (Hall and Mainprize, 2004; Rice and Rochet, 2005). Fisheries management
27
28 31 systems are often a compromise between multiple ecological and socio-economic
29
30 32 objectives. Consequently, combinations of technical, spatial and other types of input
31
32 33 (e.g., fishing effort) and output (e.g., total allowable catch) measures are implemented
33
34 34 (Kjærsgaard and Frost, 2008; Prellezo and Gallastegui, 2008; Hornborg et al., 2012) and
35
36 35 evaluating the effects of these measures on population dynamics is not trivial. Further,
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38 36 evaluating the effects of management measures based on stock dynamics is complicated
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40 37 by changes in growth, natural mortality, and year-class strength, which can counteract the
41
42 38 effects of management measures or contribute to it (Pastoors et al., 2000; Eero et al.,
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44 39 2012a). Moreover, for depleted fish populations, catch information tends to become
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46 40 increasingly uncertain due to issues like over-quota discarding and other forms of poorly
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48 41 quantified catches (Cotter et al., 2004; Poos et al., 2010). Uncertain catch information
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3 42 often prevents reliable estimates of fishing mortality from stock assessments that are
4
5 43 traditionally used to measure fishing impact on the stocks (Kraak et al., 2012). In such
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8 44 situations, alternative approaches such as those based on fishing effort and research
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10 45 survey information (e.g., Zhou and Griffiths, 2008) instead of fisheries removals from the
11
12 46 stock are needed to quantify changes in fishing impact in response to management
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15 47 measures.

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17
18 48 Spatio-temporal analyses of fisheries have greatly developed in recent years, supported
19
20 49 by implementation of satellite-based vessel monitoring systems (VMS), which provide
21
22 50 logbook-independent, high-resolution temporal and spatial information on fishing
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24 51 activities (Drouin, 2001; Lee et al., 2010). VMS data have frequently been used to
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26 52 describe the location of fishing grounds and the effects from spatial management
27
28 53 measures (Dinmore et al., 2003; Murawski et al., 2005; Rijnsdorp et al., 2011). The
29
30 54 measurements of fish distributions from research surveys have generally lower resolution
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32 55 both in time and space; nevertheless several modeling approaches that allow predicting
33
34 56 local fish densities are being developed (Wood, 2008; Lewy and Kristensen, 2009;
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36 57 Maxwell et al., 2009). Combining the two types of analyses, i.e. fish distribution
37
38 58 modeling and spatio-temporal analyses of fishing effort, could thus allow the overlap
39
40 59 between the fisheries and the stock to be quantified. However, not all fishing techniques
41
42 60 pose the same degree of risk to species or habitats (Witt and Godley, 2007). Thus,
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44 61 quantifying an overall impact from fisheries on an ecosystem component taking into
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46 62 account different elements of the pressure requires integrative analyses using multiple
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48 63 sources of information.

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4 64 In this paper we develop a method for quantifying inter-annual changes in fishing impact
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6 65 on a fish population combining spatial modeling of species distributions based on trawl
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8 66 surveys with spatio-temporal analyses of fishing effort from VMS, and the results on
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10 67 retention probability at length from gear selectivity experiments available in the
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12 68 literature. The analyses are based on cod in the Kattegat, which is an example of a stock
13
14 69 that has been severely depleted since the late 1990s (Svedäng and Bardon, 2003), and
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16 70 where uncertainties in the analytical assessment prevent evaluating recent changes in
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18 71 fishing mortality in response to management measures (Kraak et al., 2012). The approach
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20 72 presented in this study demonstrates an opportunity for fisheries management
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22 73 evaluations, gained from integrative analyses of information from research surveys and
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24 74 VMS.
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34 **Material and methods**

37 *Fisheries management measures for cod in the Kattegat*

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41 78 Due to a severely depleted state of cod in the Kattegat, several management measures
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43 79 have been applied in the Kattegat in recent years in order to reduce fishing mortality on
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45 80 cod. Total allowable catch (TAC) for cod has been reduced to 133 t in 2012, which is less
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47 81 than 1 % of the TAC 25 years ago. Besides TAC regulation, fishing in Kattegat is
48
49 82 restricted by effort limitations. The amount of kW days for gear groups catching cod are
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51 83 subject to yearly reductions as long as the cod stock is below reference points defined in
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53 84 the management plan (EC, 2008b). However, the management plan offers possibilities for
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3 85 maintaining the allowable fishing effort if certain other measures are taken that reduce
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5 86 fishing mortality for cod, such as implementing closed areas or introducing selective
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8 87 gears (Kraak et al., 2012).
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11 88 Large efforts have been devoted in recent years to improve both species and size
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13 89 selectivity of the trawls used in mixed fisheries in the Kattegat, to reduce the bycatch of
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15 90 cod and allow for continued exploitation of the economically most important species,
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17 91 Norway lobster (*Nephrops norvegicus*) and flatfish (Madsen and Valentinsson, 2010). In
18
19 92 the Danish fisheries in the Kattegat, the usage of the exit window with square meshes at a
20
21 93 minimum of 120 mm has been mandatory since 2008. Further, new trawls with sorting
22
23 94 box (named SELTRA) with different designs and mesh sizes have been introduced
24
25 95 (Madsen and Valentinsson, 2010; Madsen et al., 2010). Since 2011, the use of SELTRA
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27 96 trawls has become mandatory in the Danish fisheries in the Kattegat.
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34 97 In 2009, as part of the attempts to rebuild the cod stock in the Kattegat, Sweden and
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36 98 Denmark introduced protected areas on historically important spawning grounds. The
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38 99 protected zone consists of four different areas in which the fisheries are either completely
39
40 100 forbidden or limited to certain selective gears (Swedish sorting grid (Valentinsson and
41
42 101 Ulmestrand, 2008) and Danish SELTRA with 300 mm mesh size in exit window)
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44 102 throughout part, or all, of the year (Figure 1).
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48 49 103 *Quantifying changes in fishing impact*

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53 104 The approach developed in this study for quantifying changes in fishing impact in
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55 105 response to management measures involves three steps:
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3 106 i) modeling the distribution of fish based on survey data;
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7 107 ii) mapping the distribution of fishing effort and estimating local fishing pressure based
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9 108 on VMS data and information on size selectivity of the gears used;
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13 109 iii) estimating annual changes in fishing impact on the stock by overlaying the spatial and
14
15 110 temporal distribution of fishing pressure and the stock.
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19 111 The following sections describe each of the three steps in further detail.
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22 112 Modeling cod distribution and related uncertainties
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26 113 Analyses of the distribution of cod in the Kattegat were based on catch from research
27
28 114 trawl surveys conducted in the 1st, 3rd and 4th quarter of a year. Time series from six
29
30 115 surveys were available (Table 1), covering between 20 and 80 stations per year each (see
31
32 116 Supplement A for distribution maps of survey stations). These surveys are also used in
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34 117 stock assessment of cod in the Kattegat in ICES where additional information including
35
36 118 time series of catch per unit of effort from the surveys can be found (e.g., ICES, 2012).
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41 119 The relative cod density was modeled using a Generalized Additive Model (GAM) of the
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43 120 catch in numbers (C) of cod in a size class (10–24 cm, 25–39 cm and ≥ 40 cm) by haul as
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45 121 a function of position, depth, year and survey:
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49 122 $C \sim \text{offset}(\log(\text{effort})) + \alpha + f1(\text{longitude, latitude}) + f2(\text{depth}) + f3(\text{year}) + \text{survey} + \varepsilon$
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53 123 where $f1$, $f2$ and $f3$ are smoothing functions and survey is a factor.
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3 124 For the 4th quarter, where the data included only four years, the year effect was modeled
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6 125 as a factor. Haul duration was applied as effort variable for the IBTS, BITS and Danish
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8 126 sole survey (Table 1) where the same gear is used within each of these surveys. In the
9
10 127 Danish/Swedish cod survey, different sizes of trawls are applied which was taken into
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12 128 account using swept area (between the doors) as a measure of effort for each haul.

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16 129 The GAM analyses were conducted using the R package “mgcv” ([www. r-project.org](http://www.r-project.org);
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18 130 Wood, 2006). Smoothing terms used penalized thin plate regression splines (Wood,
19
20 131 2003), where the effective degrees of freedom (‘knots’) associated with smoothing was
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22 132 selected as part of the model fitting (Wood, 2006, 2008). The upper limit of the number
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24 133 of knots had to be specified, but the choice of an upper limit is generally not critical
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26 134 (Wood, 2006). As a default, we have used the upper limits of knots suggested by the
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28 135 software. However, when the effective degrees of freedom for a model term were
29
30 136 estimated close to the upper limit, further analyses were made to select the number of
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32 137 knots. This involved examining the distribution of deviance residuals in relation to
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34 138 explanatory variable, and changes in residual pattern depending on the number of knots
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36 139 applied.

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43 140 For all analyses, non-significant model terms were removed from the final model. The
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45 141 negative binomial distribution and logarithmic link function were used to model catch
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47 142 numbers. The logarithm of effort was used as offset variable. Regression results of the
48
49 143 GAM analyses are provided in Supplement A.

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54 144 The uncertainty in the predicted relative density of cod was estimated from parametric
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56 145 bootstrapping. One thousand replicate parameter vectors from the fitted models, extracted

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3 146 such that their variance and co-variance were maintained, were used to predict the sum of
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5 147 densities (index) of cod for a 0.01° longitude x 0.01° latitude grid. From the bootstrap
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8 148 replicates the mean and variance of the total abundance index were calculated. The
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10 149 bootstrap replicates were also used to calculate the proportion of the stock within and
11
12 150 outside the Areas 1–3 (Figure 1), which are partly or entirely closed for fisheries.
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17 152 In the model it is assumed that the relative stock distribution ($f_l(\text{longitude, latitude})$) is
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19 153 independent of year. This assumption is based on the analyses of centre of gravity,
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21 154 performed on each survey time series, which showed a variable distribution from one
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23 155 year to the next, however no significant change over the year range included in modeling
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25 156 cod distribution (see Supplement A for details). No up to date survey information was
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27 157 available for quarter 2, so cod distribution in this quarter was assumed similar to that in
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29 158 quarter 1.
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35 159 Distribution of fishing effort by gear type

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38 160 Fishing effort of the Danish fleet in the Kattegat was analyzed for the period 2008–2011.
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40 161 Proxies for local fishing effort were based on vessel positions obtained from VMS,
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42 162 similar to the procedure applied in earlier studies (e.g., Deng et al. 2005; Lee et al., 2010;
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44 163 Rijnsdorp et al., 2011). The information on the level of total effort by fleet was derived
45
46 164 from log-books, combined with the spatial distribution of effort represented by VMS
47
48 165 data. VMS records with vessel speed of 2–4 knots were classified as fishing activity and
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50 166 combined with vessel log-book data by fishing trip. The trips were allocated to gear and
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53 167 mesh-size according to the information provided in the log-books, including the
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3 168 information on vessel engine power (kW). Coupling of VMS and log-book data was done
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5 169 following the methodology described by Bastardie et al. (2010), where the technical
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8 170 details can be found. VMS data are available at high temporal resolution (1 ping per
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11 171 hour), but were aggregated to quarterly values for the purpose of this study, to match the
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13 172 temporal resolution of cod distribution from survey analyses.

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16 173 The vessels using the mesh size of 70–99 mm (the TR2 gear in EU regulation) is by far
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18 174 the most important part of demersal fisheries in the Kattegat (Table B1 in Supplement B).
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21 175 Therefore, effort from only this fleet (TR2) is included in the analyses of fishing impact.
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23 176 Until 2011, only gear group and mesh size were provided in the log-books, whereas
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25 177 specifying the exact rigging of the trawl impacting on cod avoidance was not mandatory.
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28 178 In the calculations, it was assumed that in the areas and periods where SELTRA 300 has
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30 179 been required by legislation, this gear has been used. Further, the exit window with
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33 180 square-meshes at 120 mm was considered as a default gear used since February 2008.
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35 181 Before that, the standard 90 mm gear was assumed to have been used. Vessels fishing
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37 182 (illegally) in the permanently closed area (Area 3 in Figure 1) were assumed to have used
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40 183 the default gear (120 mm exit window) or the gear type noted in the log-book if available.

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43 184 VMS is only mandatory for vessels over 15 m in length, which is roughly about 60 % of
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45 185 the Danish effort in TR2 segment in the Kattegat. The effort distribution by gear of the
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48 186 fleet equipped with VMS was raised to the total effort of the TR2 fleet based on the
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51 187 proportion of total national effort by year and quarter coming from vessels with VMS. It
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53 188 is thereby assumed that large and small vessels have the same use of selective gears and
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55 189 the same spatial fishing pattern. The resulting distribution of the effort by year, area and

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3 190 gear type, used in further analyses of fishing impact on cod is presented in Table B2 in
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5
6 191 Supplement B.

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9 192 Estimating fishing impact on cod

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13 193 Fishing impact (I) was defined as:

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$$I_{lon,lat,year,qrt,gear,size} = D_{lon,lat,qrt,size} \times E_{lon,lat,year,qrt,gear} \times R_{qrt,gear,size}$$

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20 195 where,

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24 196 *D* – relative stock density, i.e. the proportion of the stock (at size) in a given position
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26 197 (longitude, latitude) in a grid of 0.01°×0.01°, in a given quarter (qrt). Stock density was
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28
29 198 predicted from the fitted model of cod distribution.

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32 199 *E* – fishing activity represented by the number of VMS records corresponding to fishing
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34 200 activity times the engine power (kW) raised to the total nominal effort of the fleet. Effort
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36 201 was calculated for each position (longitude, latitude) in the grid of 0.01°×0.01° by year,
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38
39 202 quarter and gear. The high number of VMS recordings, around 60000 per year, made it
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42 203 possible to use the observed effort within the specified grid directly as an unbiased
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44 204 estimator of effort.

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47 205 *R* – Retention likelihood of cod at size group, derived from gear-specific selection (*S*)
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49 206 curves (Frandsen et al., 2009; Madsen and Valentinsson, 2010) and length distribution
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52 207 within each size group of the cod population derived from surveys.

$$R_{qrt,gear,size} = \frac{\sum_{l=first\ length_{size}}^{last\ length_{size}} (S_{gear,l} \times N_{qrt,l})}{\sum_{l=first\ length_{size}}^{last\ length_{size}} N_{qrt,l}}$$

It was assumed that the number (N) of cod at length (l) caught during surveys represents the size distribution of the stock in the sea.

Local fishing impact was assumed to be proportional to local fishing pressure (combination of the local fishing effort and selectivity of the gear used) and cod density. The estimates of local fishing impact were subsequently aggregated to an overall estimate of fishing impact for cod in the Kattegat for each year from 2008 to 2011. The units for fishing impact are arbitrary, and the estimates were only used to quantify relative changes in fishing impact in the period from 2008–2011.

To quantify the effect of uncertainties in cod distribution on the relative change in fishing impact, bootstrap replicates of stock distribution were used as a basis for calculating one thousand sets of changes in fishing impact, from which the confidence limits were derived.

Results

Stock distribution

The results of modeling the distribution of cod in the Kattegat by size group and quarter show that in the 1st quarter, 10–24 cm cod (mainly age group 1) is relatively dispersed with the highest concentrations in the north-western Kattegat (Figure 2). In contrast, the

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3 229 density of larger cod is highest in the deeper part of the eastern Kattegat and north of the
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6 230 Sound, i.e. in the areas covered by fisheries closures (Areas 2 and 3 in Figure 1). In the
7
8 231 3rd quarter, the highest concentrations of cod in all size groups were found in the north-
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10 232 eastern Kattegat, including the partially closed area (Area 2), where selective gears are
11
12 233 mandatory. In the 4th quarter, 10–24 cm cod were mainly found in the north-western
13
14 234 Kattegat, whereas larger cod were distributed more southerly with the highest densities in
15
16 235 the partially closed area (Figure 2). The standard deviations of the density estimates
17
18 236 generally follow the densities; however, the areas with low densities and few
19
20 237 observations, e.g. close to the coast line, have higher variations (Supplement A). The
21
22 238 uncertainties of abundance index derived from bootstrap replicates show the lowest
23
24 239 uncertainty for quarter 4 (e.g., Coefficient of Variation at 0.07 for the 25–39 cm group),
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26 240 slightly higher for quarter 1 (e.g., CV at 0.16 for the 25–39 cm group) and a high
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28 241 uncertainty for quarter 3 (e.g., 0.28 for the 25–39 cm group). For all quarters,
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30 242 uncertainties are highest for the larger, ≥ 40 cm, cod. Further details on uncertainties in
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32 243 cod distribution are presented in Supplement A.
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244
245 The estimates of proportion of the stock within a given area (Table 2) show that about
246 half of the adult cod (above 25 cm in length) population is found within the closed areas
247 in quarter 1, which corresponds to high local cod densities (Figure 2). In other periods,
248 the proportion of the stock within closed areas is lower, and is generally lower for small
249 cod (10–24 cm) compared to larger individuals (above 25 cm). The uncertainties
250 associated with proportions of the stock within given areas show similar patterns as the

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3 251 uncertainties in total stock distribution, i.e. uncertainties are rather low for quarter 4 and
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5 252 1, but high for quarter 3; especially for the ≥ 40 cm size group (Table 2).
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10 254 Catch position and water depth were significant terms in nearly all models, explaining
11
12 255 significant proportions of the variation in survey catches in the Kattegat. Water depth was
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15 256 not significant in the models for quarter 3 (Table A1 in Supplement A).
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19
20 258 *Effort distribution*
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23 259 The main part of the Danish demersal fisheries in the Kattegat takes place on fishing
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25 260 grounds in deeper parts of the central and eastern Kattegat (Figure 3). The total effort of
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27 261 TR2 fleet does not show clear trends over 2008–2011; however the effort in 2011 is close
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29 262 to 20 percent lower compared to the effort in previous year (Table B2 in Supplement B).
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32 263 The spatial distribution of fishing effort shows pronounced changes in the years 2008–
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34 264 2011. The introduction of closed areas in the Kattegat in 2009 resulted in a westwards
35
36 265 relocation of the effort in the 1st quarter (Figure 3), when all fisheries in Areas 2 and 3
37
38 266 (Figure 1) were banned due to cod spawning closure. In 2009, fishing effort decreased
39
40 267 substantially also in the 2nd and 3rd quarter in the partially closed area (Area 2), where
41
42 268 selective gears are required. An opposite pattern was observed in 2010, when most of the
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44 269 Danish fishery by TR2 fleet was concentrated in the partially closed area. However, this
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46 270 behavior of the fleet was only temporary, as almost no fishing activity was recorded in
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48 271 this area in 2011. In the 4th quarter, changes in fisheries distribution since 2008 have
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50 272 generally been less pronounced compared to the other quarters of a year. Some VMS
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3 273 activity classified as fishing was recorded in the permanently closed area in 2010, while
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6 274 in other years since 2009 the activity in this area has been insignificant.
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9 275 *Changes in fishing impact on cod*
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12 276 The fishing pressure overlaid with cod distribution shows that the overall impact from the
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14 277 Danish TR2 fleet has been reduced for all size groups of cod in the period from 2008 to
15
16 278 2011 (Table 3). The fishing impact in 2011 was estimated to be 45, 40 and 45 percent of
17
18 279 the impact in 2008 for cod size groups 10–24, 25–39 and ≥ 40 cm, respectively, i.e. a
19
20 280 reduction of around 60 percent. The strongest decline in fishing impact for cod larger
21
22 281 than 25 cm occurred in 2009 (around 30 percent) followed by a modest reduction in 2010
23
24 282 and a higher reduction in 2011 (Table 3). The reduction in fishing impact on cod was
25
26 283 largest in the areas subject to permanent or partial closures; however, a decline in fishing
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28 284 impact was estimated also in the areas outside of closures due a general change to more
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30 285 selective gears. In contrast, in the seasonally closed area (Area 1 in Figure 1), the fishing
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32 286 impact was estimated to have increased in 2009–2010 in relation to 2008 (Table 3).
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40 287 Box and whisker plots of the distribution of bootstrap replicates of the relative fishing
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42 288 impact (Figure 4) show statistically significant changes in the impact for all size groups
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44 289 of cod in the period 2008–2011. For all combinations of year and size groups, the
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46 290 uncertainties in the annual relative fishing impact were estimated with a CV at around
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48 291 5%, with a maximum at 6.6% (25–39 cm in 2011) and a minimum at 1.9 % (10–24 cm in
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50 292 2010).
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4 294 **Discussion**

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7 295 *Uncertainties related to stock distribution*

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10 296 An overarching assumption in the approach applied in this study is that local fishing
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12 297 impact is proportional to the sum of product of local fish density, local fishing effort and
13
14 298 size selection of the gears applied. Each component in this combination is associated with
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16
17 299 uncertainties. In our study, we have focused on the uncertainties associated with cod
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19 300 distribution and incorporated these in the analyses of fishing impact. Cod is a mobile
20
21 301 species with spawning and feeding migrations (Hüssy et al., 2009), and homing of
22
23 302 spawners is a primary mechanism of stock separation (Rindorf and Lewy, 2006; Svedäng
24
25 303 et al., 2007). Estimating local cod densities obviously requires good temporal and spatial
26
27 304 coverage of surveys. This is clearly demonstrated in our analyses where good survey
28
29 305 coverage in quarter 1 and 4 resulted in relatively low uncertainties in fitted stock
30
31 306 distribution, whereas the uncertainties were much higher for quarter 3 due to fewer hauls
32
33 307 in surveys. The low uncertainty in cod distribution in seasons with good survey coverage
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35 308 supports the assumption that no consistent changes in distribution have taken place in the
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37 309 analysed period, which is confirmed by the analyses of centre of gravity (see Supplement
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39 310 A). Therefore, the available information for the spawning season in winter and spring and
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41 311 for the feeding period in autumn likely captures the main patterns in cod distribution.
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50 313 An important prerequisite for estimating local fishing impact is that the survey data used
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52 314 to estimate fish densities cover the same areas and habitats as the fisheries. This is the
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54 315 case for Kattegat as the TR2 fleet mainly targets Norway lobster on soft bottoms, which
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3 316 are also covered by trawl surveys. In some other areas, fishery may be concentrated on
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6 317 hard bottom types, not sampled by research surveys, as described for cod in the North
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8 318 Sea (Wieland et al., 2009).
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12 320 GAM-based spatial modelling is recognized as a tool for producing distribution maps of
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14 321 fish and zooplankton, though not frequently applied on data from trawl surveys (Murase
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16 322 et al., 2009). An advantage of the GAM method is that it allows the predicted catch
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18 323 (density) to form a likely smooth surface of the spatial distribution. Hence, it is natural to
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20 324 use non-parametric regression technique to analyse survey data (Cadigan and Chen,
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22 325 2001). Further, GAM analyses can incorporate interactions between animal distributions
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24 326 and environmental factors (Swartzman et al., 1999; Winter et al., 2007; Wood, 2008).
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26 327 The process of building distribution models is suggested to include cross-validation of the
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28 328 models across years (O'Brien and Rago, 1996). Also, inter-annual changes in marine fish
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30 329 distribution can take place, in relation to changes in environment or in stock size
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32 330 (Burrows et al., 2011; Overholtz et al., 2011). In our analyses we were not able to detect
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34 331 significant changes in cod distribution within the time series used in the analyses.
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36 332 However, if cod will recover in the future, this may lead to a shift in the distribution of
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38 333 the spawning stock. For example, some historical spawning sites may currently not be
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40 334 utilized by cod possibly due to eradication of local sub-populations (Svedäng et al. 2010),
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42 335 but which might be recolonized at higher stock sizes. To capture such changes will
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44 336 require continued good survey coverage and regular updates of cod distribution.
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55 338 *Uncertainties in estimating fishing effort based in VMS*
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3 339 The VMS recordings corresponding to fishing activity are usually identified based on
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6 340 vessel speed (e.g., Needle and Catarino, 2011). However, some bias may be introduced in
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8 341 this classification as a fishing vessel may slow down due to a number of other reasons
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10 342 than fishing, such as approaching or leaving port, setting gear, being in the proximity of
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12 343 other boats, or due to weather conditions (Mills et al., 2007). In our investigation, we
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14 344 have used the method suggested by Bastardie et al. 2010 to identify ‘fishing activities’
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16 345 and to link VMS fishing recordings with log-book data. This method has been developed
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18 346 and tested for the Kattegat /Skagerrak area and it shows that some misclassification of
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20 347 both vessel activity and fleet segment might occur. Also, only the larger vessels (above
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22 348 15 m in length in the Danish fisheries) are equipped with VMS, and scaling their fishing
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24 349 pattern to the entire TR2 fleet may introduce some bias in the estimates of local fishing
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26 350 effort. However, the main fishing grounds for trawlers in the Kattegat are expected to be
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28 351 similar for large and small vessels. This is related to the characteristics of the Kattegat
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30 352 area, which is generally shallow with an extensive shelf (~10m depth) covering most of
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32 353 the western part, with a deeper trench (>90m) running along the Swedish coast in the
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34 354 eastern part of the area.
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44 356 Compared to the uncertainties in catch information (Cotter et al., 2004; Poos et al., 2010)
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46 357 traditionally used in measuring fishing impact, the effort information based on VMS can
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48 358 likely be considered as relatively more accurate. For example, even some illegal fishing
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50 359 activities, like fishing in closed areas are captured by VMS data and can be taken into
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52 360 account in the analyses of fishing impact. Thus, although the absolute level of effort can
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54 361 be biased due to the above-mentioned uncertainties, the relative changes in fishing effort
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3 362 between years that is our main focus in this study, are probably not seriously affected by
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5 363 these uncertainties.
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10 365 *Uncertainties in gear selectivity*

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12 366 Estimating selectivity of a fishing gear usually involves experiments at sea, recapturing
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14 367 the fish escaping through the meshes. However, some methodological uncertainties may
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16 368 be introduced in this process (Millar, 2010) and small changes in gear design can lead to
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18 369 very different conclusions about its selectivity. We have not attempted to include
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20 370 uncertainties in trawl selection to our analyses of fishing impact. This is partly because
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22 371 some of the uncertainties of the parameter estimates from the trawl selection experiments
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24 372 are not available in the literature, and partly because the selection achieved during
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26 373 commercial fishery might differ considerably from the theoretical estimates. In addition,
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28 374 uncertainties in selection apply both to the reference gears used in 2008 and to the new
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30 375 more selective gears, which further complicates taking these uncertainties into account.
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32 376 The selectivity parameters used in the analyses of fishing impact can be revised when
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34 377 new information becomes available.
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42 378 *Applicability of the approach investigating spatio-temporal changes in fishing impact*

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46 379 Reliable estimates of fishing mortality or exploitation rate (often expressed as F and U)
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48 380 are not available for cod in the Kattegat and we did not intend to estimate these
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50 381 conventional measures of fishing impact in our study. The approach we developed can
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52 382 produce proxies for changes in fishing mortality under an assumption that local fishing
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54 383 impact (mortality) is proportional to the product of local fish density, fishing effort, and
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3 384 gear selectivity. This may not be valid in all cases (Poos and Rijnsdorp, 2007; Quirijns et
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5 385 al., 2008; van Oostenbrugge et al., 2008). Further, the method assumes that fish are re-
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8 386 distributed in an area after a trawling activity has taken place, which makes the approach
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10
11 387 not suited for sedentary and low mobility stocks. Evaluations of fishing impact on
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13 388 sedentary species like clams or Norway lobsters will require other approaches (e.g.,
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15 389 Bustamante et al., 2010) or at least sufficient data to regularly update stock distributions.
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20 391 An advantage of using an effort-based measure of fishing impact instead of fishing
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22 392 mortality rate from stock assessment is that the former approach potentially allows
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24 393 separating the effects of individual management measures, affecting the components of
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27 394 fishing impact explicitly considered in the analyses. Nevertheless, separating the effects
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29 395 of individual management measures is challenging when different measures act in
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31 396 combination and enforce one another (Murawski et al., 2000; Madsen and Valentinsson,
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33 397 2010). The Kattegat cod example illustrates that implementation of closed areas with
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35 398 exemptions for selective gears created incentives for using such gears, to gain access to
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37 399 the areas otherwise closed for fisheries. This explains the large inter-annual changes in
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39 400 location of fishing effort, moving out of the partially closed areas in the first year of
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41 401 closure (2009), however returning a year after (2010) with new selective gears. The
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43 402 reasons for subsequently low fishing activity in the areas requiring selective gears in
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45 403 2011 are not known to us.
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53 405 The explicit consideration of spatial scales in this approach to fishing impact is
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55 406 advantageous, given the spatial heterogeneity and dynamics of marine ecosystems
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4 407 (Lorenzen et al., 2010; Eero et al., 2012b), which sets an increasing focus on spatial
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6 408 aspects in marine management. The Kattegat example demonstrates expected low fishing
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8 409 impact in closed areas after their implementation, however an increase in fishing impact
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10 410 in bordering areas (Area 1, Table 3) in some years. This is a commonly seen phenomenon
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12 411 and area closures are therefore generally considered as just one element in a broader
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14 412 package of fisheries management measures (Hilborn et al., 2004). It is also apparent
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16 413 from our analyses that closed areas in the Kattegat are mainly a tool to protect the
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18 414 spawning stock, as small cod is generally wider distributed in the entire area, and fishing
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20 415 impact on those can probably best be regulated by selective gears. For example, the
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22 416 reduction in fishing impact on larger cod in 2009 was mainly due to closed areas,
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24 417 whereas very little effect was found on small cod, which are to a large extent distributed
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26 418 outside the closures. The approach developed in this study could potentially also be used
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28 419 to explore the effects of different locations for closures; however this was not our aim in
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30 420 this study.
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422 The approach suggested in this study for quantifying changes in fishing impact in
423 response to management measures is based on different data sources and involves
424 different assumptions than the more traditional evaluations of fishing impact based on
425 catch information and corresponding population dynamics. Thus, it could both
426 complement the stock assessment based evaluations of management effects and
427 additionally allow addressing changes in fishing impact in situations where reliable stock
428 assessments are not available. New technologies are being introduced in marine fisheries,
429 amongst others to monitor human activities at sea (Kindt-Larsen, 2009; Saitoh et al.,

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3 430 2011). Thus, increasingly detailed new information on fishing activities and related
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5 431 pressures on marine environments is becoming available, which could benefit the
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7 432 analyses of quantifying local fishing impacts based on effort data. Developing methods
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9 433 that use high resolution fisheries data to estimate fishing effects on marine ecosystems is
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11 434 rapidly progressing (e.g., Dinmore et al., 2003; Jennings and Lee, 2012; Lambert et al.,
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13 435 2012). Our study is intended to contribute to this process, demonstrating the use of
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15 436 combined analyses and modeling of fish distribution and fishing pressure in the context
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17 437 of quantifying changes in human impacts and the effects of management measures.
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26 439 **Supplementary material**

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29 440 Supplementary material is available at the ICESJMS online version of this paper. Section
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31 441 A provides additional information on modeling cod distribution and associated
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33 442 uncertainties; section B provides information on estimated fishing effort by gear, area and
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35 443 year.
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3 **628 Figure captions**
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8 630 Figure 1. Closed areas in the Kattegat. Area 1: seasonally closed area, closed from
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10 631 January 1 to March 31, except for fishery with selective gears; Area 2: partially closed
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12 632 area, closed for all fisheries in the period from January 1 to March 31. Fisheries with
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14 633 selective gears is allowed from April 1 to December 31; Area 3: permanently closed area,
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16 634 closed for all fisheries, including recreational fisheries. Area 4: seasonal closed area in
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18 635 the Northern Sound, closed from February 1st to March 31, except for fishery with
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20 636 selective gears.
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27 638 Figure 2. Predicted relative distribution of cod by quarter and age. In each panel, the
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29 639 densities are scaled to a mean of 1, by rectangles of 0.01° longitude \times 0.01° latitude.
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34 641 Figure 3. Danish fishing effort from TR2 fleet in the Kattegat by year and quarter. The
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36 642 maps show the sum of VMS hourly pings with vessel speed 2–4 knots within rectangles
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38 643 of 0.05° longitude \times 0.05° latitude.
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43 645 Figure 4. Box and whiskers plots of the distribution of bootstrap replicates of fishing
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45 646 impact on cod in 2009–2011 relative to 2008, by size groups.
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647 **Tables**

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649 Table 1. The trawl surveys available in the Kattegat by quarter, approximate number of
 650 hauls per year and the year range used in the analyses of cod distribution.

Quarter	Survey	Hauls	Years
Q1	International Bottom Trawl Survey (IBTS)	~20	1996–2012
	Baltic International Trawl Survey (BITS)	~22	1996–2012
Q2	No data	–	–
Q3	International Bottom Trawl Survey (IBTS)	~20	2001–2011
Q4	Baltic International Trawl Survey (BITS)	~22	2008–2011
	Danish/Swedish cod survey	~80	2008–2011
	Danish sole survey	min. 70	2008–2011

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653 Table 2. Mean and coefficient of variation (in brackets) of bootstrap replicates of the
 654 proportion of cod stock within a given area. Areas 1–3 correspond to closed areas
 655 implemented since 2009 (see Figure 1 for definition of areas), Area 0 corresponds to the
 656 areas in the Kattegat outside the closures.

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Quarter	Size group	Area 0	Area 1	Area 2	Area 3
Quarter 1	10-24 cm	0.75 (0.03)	0.11(0.12)	0.08 (0.12)	0.06 (0.13)
	25-39 cm	0.54 (0.05)	0.20 (0.11)	0.15 (0.12)	0.11(0.15)
	≥40 cm	0.49 (0.08)	0.12 (0.12)	0.19 (0.13)	0.19 (0.12)
Quarter 3	10-24 cm	0.91 (0.02)	0.06 (0.21)	0.03 (0.27)	0.01 (0.35)
	25-39 cm	0.67 (0.09)	0.17 (0.20)	0.14 (0.28)	0.02 (0.40)
	≥40 cm	0.66 (0.16)	0.14 (0.35)	0.18 (0.31)	0.01 (0.71)
Quarter 4	10-24 cm	0.86 (0.01)	0.05 (0.10)	0.05 (0.11)	0.04 (0.11)
	25-39 cm	0.75 (0.02)	0.10 (0.06)	0.10 (0.08)	0.05 (0.10)
	≥40 cm	0.58 (0.04)	0.18 (0.08)	0.20 (0.08)	0.04 (0.13)

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661 Table 3. Fishing impact on cod (by size group) in 2009–2011 relative to 2008, by area.
 662 Areas 1–3 correspond to closed areas implemented since 2009 (see Figure 1 for definition
 663 of areas), Area 0 corresponds to the areas in the Kattegat outside the closures.

Size	Year	Area 0	Area 1	Area 2	Area 3	Total
10-24 cm	2008	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	2009	1.08	1.07	0.11	0.09	0.94
	2010	0.91	1.09	0.30	0.47	0.85
	2011	0.50	0.55	0.09	0.04	0.45
25-39 cm	2008	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	2009	1.00	1.06	0.06	0.07	0.72
	2010	0.83	1.07	0.11	0.41	0.67
	2011	0.57	0.56	0.04	0.04	0.40
≥40 cm	2008	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	2009	0.96	1.18	0.18	0.05	0.65
	2010	0.81	1.13	0.30	0.54	0.66
	2011	0.71	0.72	0.11	0.03	0.45

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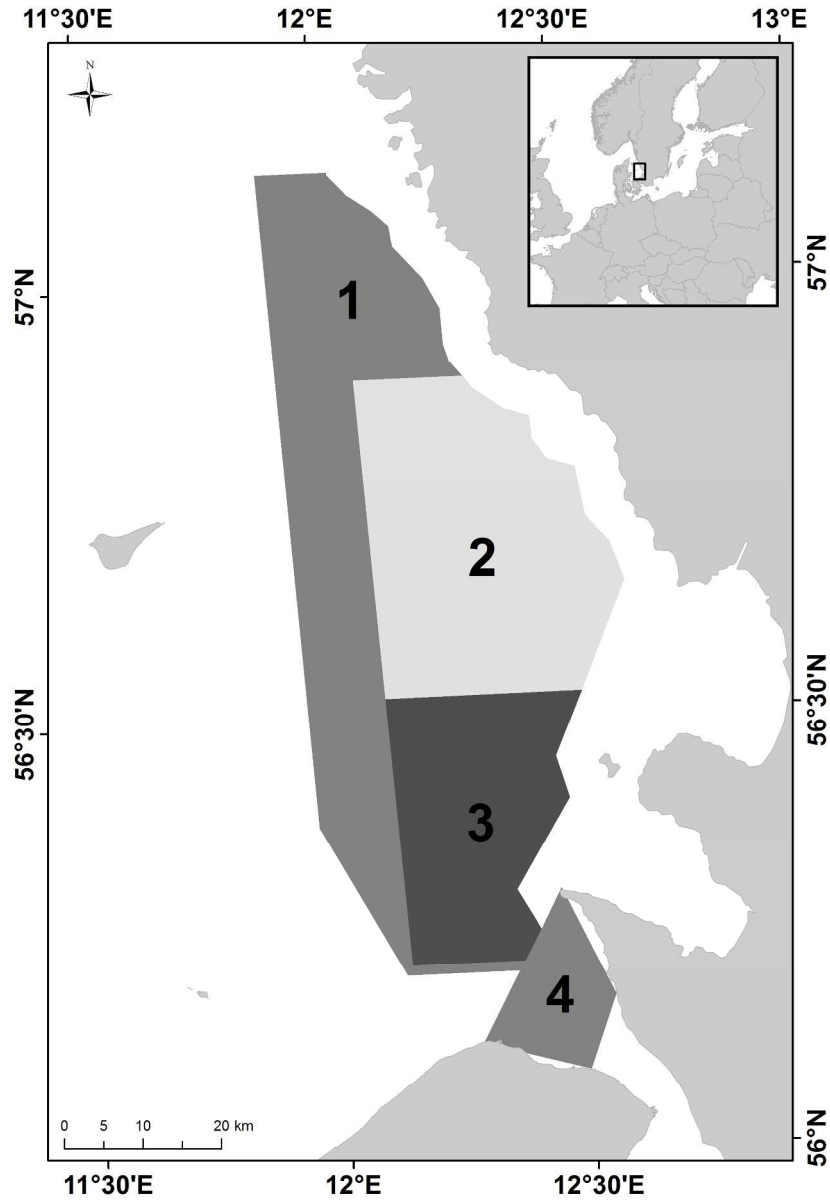


Figure 1
199x289mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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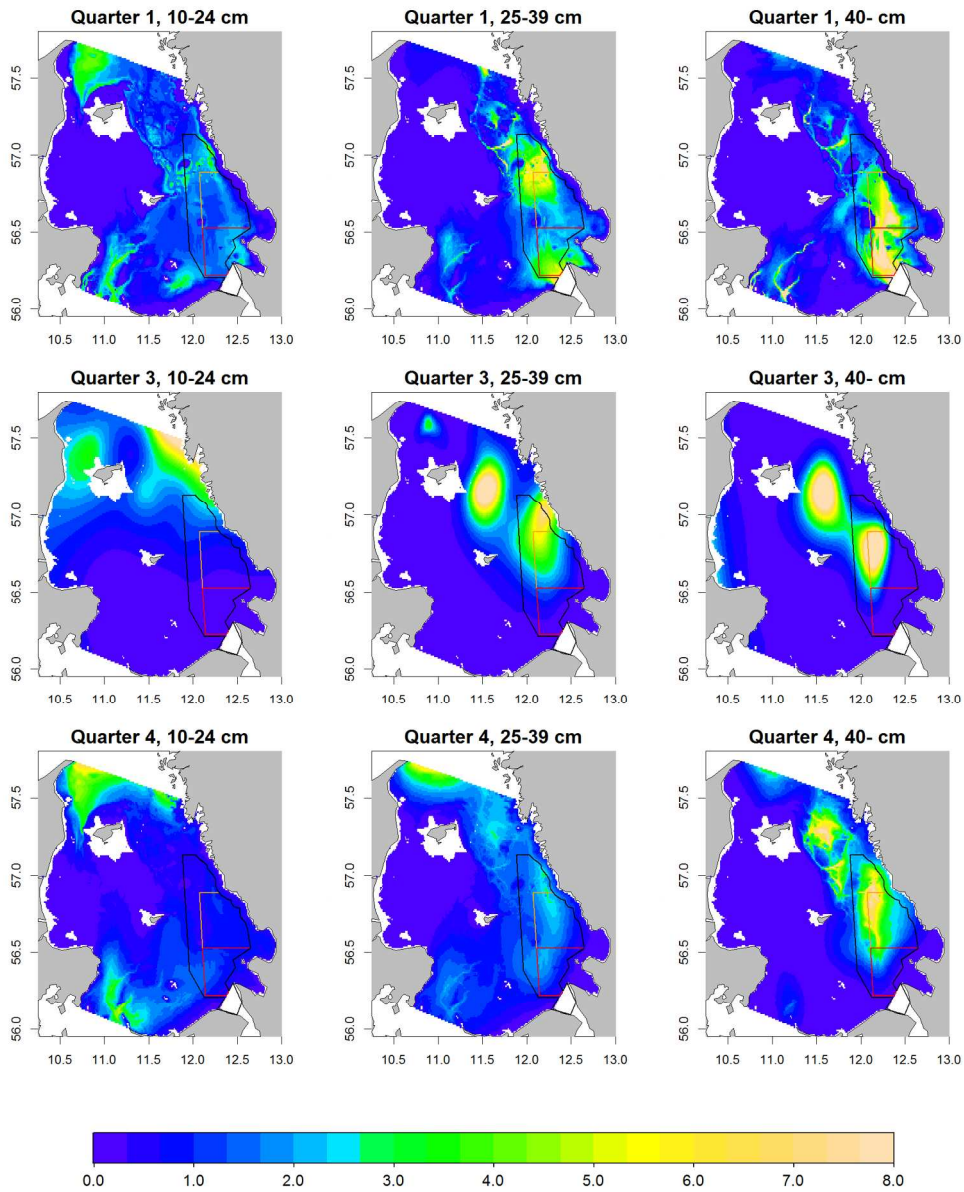


Figure 2
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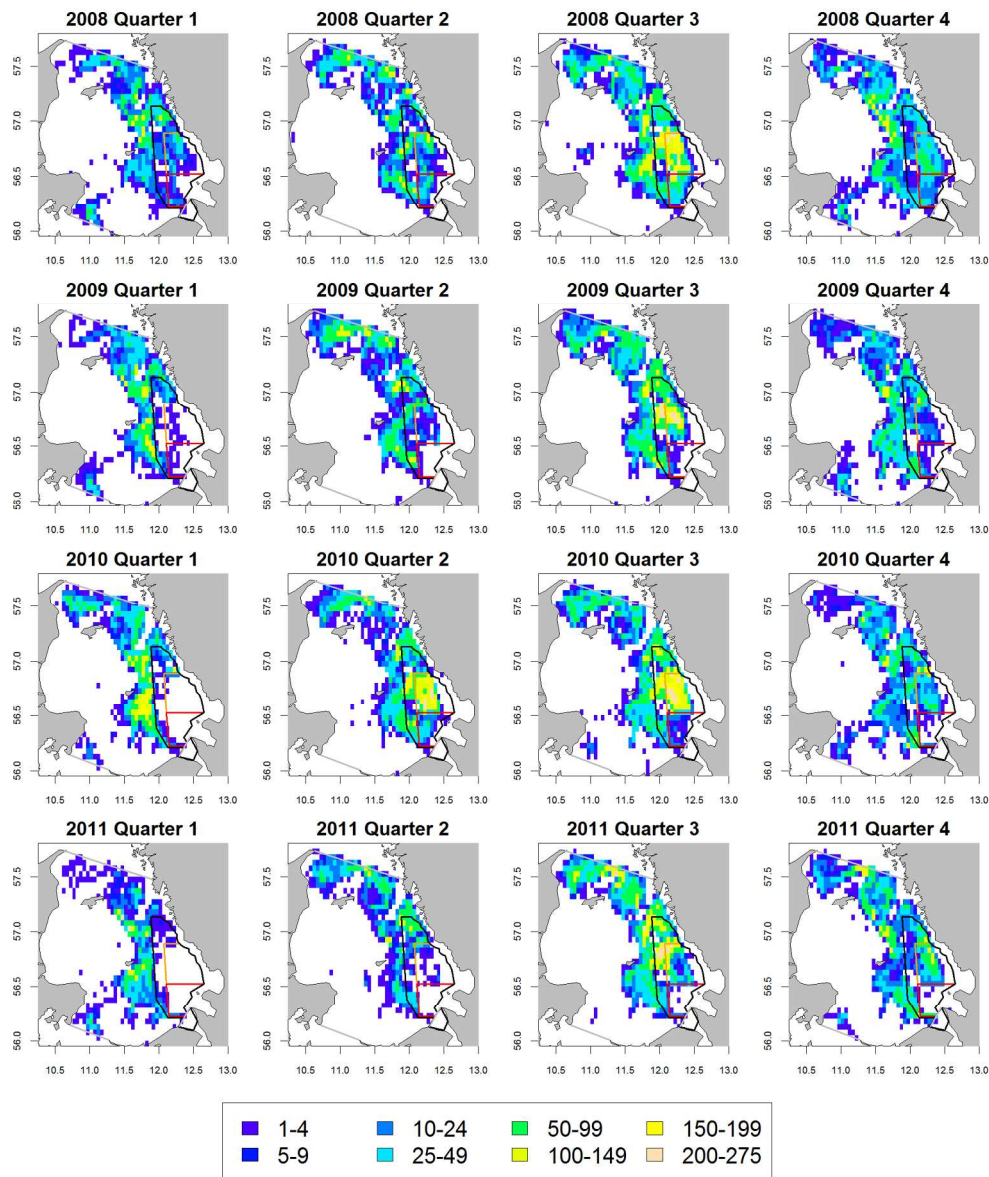


Figure 3
705x846mm (72 x 72 DPI)

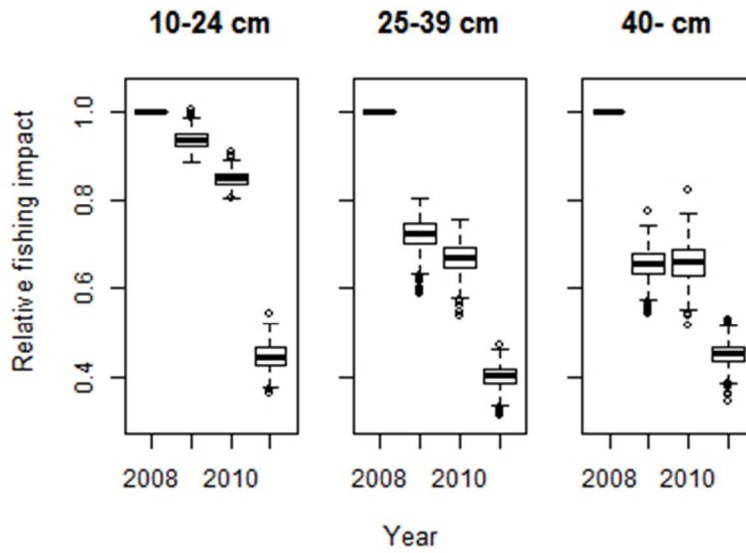


Figure 4
141x105mm (72 x 72 DPI)

View Only