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2 3 4	1	Survival of the fittest: explanations for gadoid
5 6 7	2	imbalance in heavily fished seas
8 9 10	3	
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2 3 4	11		ABSTRACT
5 6	12	1.	Anthropogenic activities have caused degradation of the world's
/ 8	13		ecosystems, accelerating loss of biodiversity. In marine ecosystems, fishing
9 10 11	14		has had strong impacts on fish populations and their habitats. However, not
12 13	15		all species have responded equally to fishing pressure.
14 15	16	2.	Atlantic cod (Gadus morhua), haddock (Melanogrammus aeglefinus) and
16 17	17		whiting (Merlangius merlangus) are of high commercial value throughout the
18 19	18		North Atlantic. Despite having relatively similar life cycles, the state of
20 21	19		stocks of these three species varies enormously, with whiting faring better
22 23 24	20		than cod. Within the Firth of Clyde (southwest Scotland) this imbalance is
25 26	21		especially accentuated, where small whiting now make up the greater
27 28	22		proportion of the biomass.
29 30	23	3.	In this study, cod, haddock and whiting recruitment to coastal areas, growth
31 32	24		and bait attraction were explored within a marine protected area (MPA) in
33 34	25		the Firth of Clyde. Over the course of summer 2013 and 2014, whiting and
35 36 37	26		haddock arrived at coastal areas earlier than cod and grew faster. Cod were
38 39	27		on average the smallest gadoid observed and whiting the largest. Whiting
40 41	28		also had more predominant scavenging behaviour.
42 43	29	4.	These results in combination with other life history and behaviour traits
44 45	30		indicate that whiting may be at a competitive advantage over cod, and this
46 47	31		may partly explain the imbalance of gadoids in the Firth of Clyde. This study
48 49 50	32		highlights the importance of considering life history differences in multi-
51 52	33		species fisheries management and how appropriately managed MPAs could
53 54	34		help restore fish population and assemblage structure.
55 56 57 58	35		

3	36	KEY WORDS: behaviour, fisheries management, gadoid, growth, life-history traits,
4 5 6	37	marine protected areas, recruitment, scavenging, stereo-video cameras.
7 8	38	
9 10 11	39	1. INTRODUCTION
12 13	40	Growing demands on the world's resources are affecting wildlife populations
14 15	41	through direct mortality of target species and the transformation of their habitats
16 17	42	(Foley et al., 2005; Sanderson et al., 2002). Reductions in population sizes from
18 19 20	43	hunting or harvesting, or habitat transformation can also cause imbalances in
20 21 22	44	community structures and ecosystem functioning, exacerbating extinction rates
23 24	45	(Dobson, Bradshaw & Baker, 1997; Hammer, Jansson & Jansson, 1993). Particular
25 26	46	life-history traits and habitat preferences can cause certain species to be more
27 28	47	vulnerable than others (Bastrikin, Gallego, Millar, Priede & Jones, 2014; Higginson,
29 30	48	2017). Understanding competition between species can therefore be critical to
31 32 33	49	ecosystem-based management.
34 35	50	
36 37	51	Atlantic cod (Gadus morhua), haddock (Melanogrammus aeglefinus) and whiting
38 39	52	(Merlangius merlangus) are all species of high commercial value and have suffered
40 41	53	declines and alterations in population structure (Cote, Ollerhead, Scruton $\&$
42 43	54	McKinley, 2003; Fernandes & Cook, 2013; Holmes, Millar, Fryer & Wright, 2014). In
44 45 46	55	recent years, following strict management measures, improvements have been
47 48	56	observed in North Sea stocks of these species (Fernandes & Cook 2013; ICES,
49 50	57	2017a). However, along the west coast of Scotland, recruitment and spawning
51 52	58	stock biomass remains relatively low, particularly for cod (Fernandes & Cook 2013;
53 54	59	ICES 2017b; 2017c; 2017d). Cod is also listed as vulnerable on IUCN redlist and is
55 56 57 58	60	listed as an OSPAR threatened and declining species (Sobel, 1996; OSPAR 2014).

61	
62	The Firth of Clyde (south-west Scotland) was an important fishing location for a
63	variety of demersal species (Heath & Speirs, 2012; Thurstan & Roberts, 2010).
64	Heavy fishing pressure during the twentieth century led to a steep decline in
65	landings of demersal fish (Thurstan & Roberts, 2010). As a result, a prohibition on
66	trawl fishing within three nautical miles of the shoreline was introduced (1989)
67	(Thurstan & Roberts, 2010). However, this was repealed in $\frac{1984}{10}$ due to widespread
68	infringements and to allow access for Nephrops norvegicus fishing (Thurstan $\&$
69	Roberts, 2010). Since the late 1990s, the Firth of Clyde demersal trawl fishery
70	primarily targets Nephrops, but with a significant by-catch of fish (Thurstan $\&$
71	Roberts, 2010). A study by Heath and Speirs (2012) showed that since the
72	expansion of demersal trawling peaked in 1984, species richness of the Firth of
73	Clyde has remained almost unchanged, but the evenness has declined sharply. By
74	around 2000, 87% of the demersal fish biomass was composed of whiting, whereas
75	this species had comprised only 7% of the biomass between 1920 and 1959.
76	Furthermore, the mean body length in the fish community had halved since the
77	1960. Recent studies within the Firth of Clyde by Hunter, Speirs and Heath, (2015,
78	2016), demonstrated declining age at maturation and growth in cod, haddock and
79	whiting, during the period of heavy fishing pressure. These observations do not,
80	however, explain the imbalance of whiting within this semi-enclosed sea.
81	
82	Cod, haddock and whiting in this region are all members of the family Gadidae and
83	are known to have relatively similar life cycles. Spawning aggregations occur from
84	late winter to spring (Demain, Gallego, Jaworski, Priede & Jones, 2011; Olsen et
85	al., 2010; Wright, Tobin, Gibb & Gibb, 2010). Pelagic larval eggs are produced in

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86	batches which drift to coastal areas from late April to June where the juveniles
87	live for the first few months (Gibb, Gibb & Wright, 2007; Olsen et al., 2010).
88	Important food sources for juvenile gadoids include crustaceans and polychaetes,
89	and small fish such as plaice (<i>Pleuronectes platessa</i>) (Bastrikin et al., 2014;
90	Demain et al., 2011). Scavenging behaviour has been observed in all three species
91	(Groenewold & Fonds, 2000; Jenkins, Mullen & Brand, 2004), in addition to
92	predation between gadoids (Köster, Stephenson & Trippel, 2014; Temming, Floeter
93	& Ehrich, 2007).
94	
95	This study aimed to determine the competitive interactions between gadoid
96	species during the post-settlement phase of their life in the Firth of Clyde.
97	Comparative analysis of gadoid recruitment, growth and scavenging behaviour was
98	undertaken using Stereo Baited Remote Underwater Video (SBRUV) systems within
99	a Marine Protected Area (MPA). Recruitment to coastal areas was explored by
100	measuring relative abundance variations, size and growth over the course of the
101	summer. Scavenging behaviour was investigated by measuring attraction to the
102	bait. The motivation for the study was to better understand why whiting has
103	become so dominant in the demersal fish community of the region.
104	
105	2. METHODS
106	2.1. Data collection
107	Data were collected within south Arran nature conservation MPA, the Firth of
108	Clyde, south-west Scotland at depths of 4.0 m - 47.2 m, between June and
109	September 2013 and 2014 (Figure 1). Gadoid sampling took place using three
110	SBRUV frames as described in Elliott, Turrell, Heath and Bailey (2017a). From 5

June to 29 September 2013, 80 camera deployments were carried out from a 6.5 m RIB. However, data were used from 15th July (74 deployments), as before this date no gadoids were observed. The following year, a further 185 deployments were carried out between 30 June to 18 September 2014, from a 10.8 m research vessel (RV Actinia) (Table 1). During 2014, data were not collected around the south-west side of the island due to the slower steaming speed of the vessel used. As a result of resource and logistical reasons, data were not collected continuously through the periods of data collection. In the sampling design, the area of data collection was divided into five zones, with samples collected within each zone to facilitate replication. For logistic reasons and because of the long summer day length at the study latitude, all deployments took place during daylight hours. Throughout data collection, Atlantic mackerel (Scomber scombrus) was used as bait since it is oily and so produces a down current bait plume, and is relatively inexpensive. The bait was held suspended 91 cm in front of the cameras and at a height of 46 cm above the seabed to ensure visibility between the stereo-video cameras and to minimise macro-algae hindering fish measurements. Calibration of the cameras took place prior to and over the course of field data collection within a controlled environment using methods outlined within Harvey and Shortis (1998) and CAL software manual (version 2.11, www.seagis.com.au/event.html). 2.2. Video analysis EventMeasure software (version 3.61, www.seagis.com.au/event.html) was used to analyse videos. Gadoid recruitment and growth were estimated from changes in relative abundance and length measurements. Relative abundances were measured

using the maximum number of individuals of the same species appearing in a single frame at the same time during each separate video deployment (MaxN) as described by Priede, Bagley, Smith, Creasey and Merrett (1994) and Watson, Harvey, Anderson and Kendrick (2005). Fish fork length and position measurements were taken at one time point per deployment, when the maximum number of measurable fish was present. Length measurements with a precision > 0.5 cm and a root mean square error > 2 cm were removed from analysis as recommended in the SeaGIS software manual (version 2.11, www.seagis.com.au/event.html). Gadoid scavenging behaviour was quantified using water column positions relative to the bait box and by an index of bait attraction or indifference. Gadoid water

column position was estimated using stereo-video Y and Z measurements (relative to the mid-point of the camera system). Y values are approximate to height above and below the cameras and Z values are the distance from the camera system (Shortis, Harvey & Abdo, 2009). A subsample of 48 camera deployments (from 28 July to 1 August 2014) was used to assess gadoid bait attraction, since this behaviour took longer to record. Gadoid bait attraction was classified as attracted when the fish swam directly towards the bait with a maximum distance of ~20 cm from the bait box. Indifference behaviour was classified when the fish swam directly past the frame and did not approach.

2.3. Data analysis

158 All statistical analysis was performed with R software (version 3.2.2). A log

- 159 likelihood ratio test was used to test model significance against the null
- 160 hypothesis. Tukey tests were performed to test for differences between

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161	explanatory categorical variables (grouped day of data collection for 2014 and
162	gadoid species where relevant). Random effects for grouped time period and zone
163	were included in the model where relevant and significant, to account for
164	temporal and spatial variation (referred to by lowercase letters in Equations 1 to
165	4).
166	
167	MaxN was used to analyse gadoid recruitment to coastal areas over the period of
168	data collection (Equation 1). MaxN was analysed using negative binomial
169	generalized linear mixed models (GLMM) (Equation 1). A negative binomial
170	distribution was used to account for over dispersion of gadoid MaxN. Equations 1
171	and 2 were modelled on each gadoid species separately.
172	$log(Y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1, T_{i(j)} + z_{ij} $ (1)
173	where Y_i is gadoid MaxN fitted with a logarithmic link, β are the coefficients, $T_{i(j)}$,
174	day (2013) or week (2014) of data collection, and z_{ij} the random effect (zone).
175	Subscript i refers to the number of samples and j refers to categorical explanatory
176	variables.
177	
178	To explore gadoid arrival and growth over the period of data collection, gadoid
179	length measurements were used (Equation 2 and 3). Equation 3, was modelled
180	separately to identify whether there were significant differences in gadoid growth
181	between the three species. Following analysis of DAtabase of TRAwl Surveys
182	(DATRAS) Age Length Key (product for standard species only) quarter 4 (October -
183	December) for the Firth of Clyde area, all individuals larger than 15 cm were
184	removed from the analysis to reduce the likelihood of observing age-1 individuals.

In total eight out of 9 length measurements greater than 15 cm were removed

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from the cod length dataset prior to the analysis (max size measured 21.18 cm, total mean length 8.20 cm ± Standard Error (SE) 0.19 cm). Whereas 27 out of 208 haddock measurements were removed (max size measured 21.69 cm, total mean length 12.02 cm ± SE 0.21 cm) and 60 out of 152 whiting measurements removed (max size measured 35.53 cm, total mean length 14.00 cm \pm SE 0.35 cm). Refer to supporting information Table 1 for gadoid length measurements after removal of these larger individuals. Length and gadoid Y and Z measurements were analysed using linear and linear mixed models (LMM), (Equation 2 to 4). $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1, T_{i(i)}$ (2) $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1, G_{ij} + t_{ij}$ (3) Where Y_i is the individual gadoid fork length, G_{ii} , gadoid species and t_{ii} the random effect, grouped day of data collection. To explore age-0 cohorts, model distributions were identified using the Bhattacharya (1967) method. This method involves the decomposition of 0+ year length frequency distributions by visual identification of frequencies perceived to belong to one cohort. Differences in gadoid scavenging behaviour were resolved by exploring the positions of the gadoid relative to the bait box (Y and Z positions; Equation 4), in addition to gadoid bait attraction. $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1, G_{ij} + t_{ij} + z_{ij}$ (4) Where Y_i is the gadoid Y or Z position, t_{ij} and z_{ij} are the random effects to account for spatial and temporal variations. A Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was used to estimate the significance of gadoids bait attraction differences.

2 3	211	
4 5 6	212	3. RESULTS
7 8 9	213	3.1. Gadoid recruitment and growth
10 11	214	Over the course of summer 2013, a decline in cod MaxN was observed (Log
12 13	215	likelihood (L) = -157.18, degrees of freedom (d.f.) = 4, dispersion (theta) = 0.93, P
14 15	216	value (P) < 0.05; Table 1) and a 1.98 cm increase in average length (L = -233.56,
16 17	217	d.f. = 3, P < 0.001; Figure 2; Supporting information Table 1). During summer 2014,
18 19 20	218	an increase in MaxN was observed in the second (28 July-01 August) and third week
21 22	219	(26 August - 2 September) of data collection (Tukey test P < 0.05 and P < 0.01),
23 24	220	followed by a decline in cod MaxN in the fourth week (15 to 18 September) (L = -
25 26	221	164.80, d.f. = 6, theta = 1.09, P < 0.001; Table 1). A growth of 2.71 cm was also
27 28	222	detected (L = -188.33, d.f. = 5, P < 0.05; Figure 2; Supporting information Table
29 30 31	223	1).
32 33	224	
34 35	225	Haddock MaxN did not significantly increase or decrease over the course of the
36 37	226	summer 2013 (L = -59.11, d.f. = 4, theta = 0.76, P > 0.05; Table 1). However, in
38 39	227	2014, an increase in MaxN was observed following the first week of data collection
40 41 42	228	(Tukey test P < 0.001) (L = -236.76, d.f. = 6, theta = 0.91, P < 0.01; Table 1). The
42 43 44	229	latter indicates a possible recruitment pulse shortly after the first week of July.
45 46	230	Growth was also observed over the course of data collection during 2013 (3.95 cm)
47 48	231	and 2014 (3.22 cm) (L = -88.19, d.f. = 3, P < 0.001 and L = -228.43, d.f. = 5, P <
49 50	232	0.001 respectively; Figure 2; Supporting information Table 1).
51 52 53	233	
55 55	234	Over the course of data collection 2013 there was no difference in whiting MaxN (L
56 57	235	= -54.41, d.f. = 4, P > 0.05; Table 1). However, a 5.75 cm increase in average
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2 3	236	length of age-0 individuals was observed (L = -17.29, d.f. = 3, P < 0.05; Figure 2;
4 5 6	237	Supporting information Table 1). During 2014 whiting MaxN varied over the course
7 8	238	of data collection with a decrease in in the third week (26 August - 2 September)
9 10	239	of data collection (Tukey test P < 0.05) (L = -2236.73, d.f. = 6, theta = 1.09, P <
11 12	240	0.01; Table 1). An increase in growth of 1.39 cm, SE \pm 0.07 cm was also detected
13 14	241	(L = -185.11, d.f. = 4, $P < 0.05$; Figure 2; Supporting information Table 1).
15 16 17	242	
18 19	243	Over the course of both years cod were smaller than haddock and whiting (L = -
20 21	244	1003.89, d.f. = 5, $P < 0.001$) with haddock and whiting being of more similar sizes
22 23	245	(Table 2; Figure 2). For both years, more cod (mean MaxN = 3.62 , \pm standard
24 25	246	error=0.26) were observed than haddock (mean MaxN = 0.98, \pm se = 0.15) or
26 27 28	247	whiting (mean MaxN = 0.86, \pm se = 0.13) (Table 1). Two age-0 cohorts were
28 29 30	248	identified using Bhattacharya's (1967) method for whiting whereas only one cohort
30 31 32 33 34	249	was identified for haddock and cod (Supplementary information Figure 1). The
	250	latter provides evidence of pulse recruitment for whiting.
35 36	251	
37 38 20	252	3.2. Gadoid scavenging behaviour
40 41	253	Significant differences between gadoids were observed with respect to their
42 43	254	positioning relative to the seabed, cameras and bait. Cod positioned themselves on
44 45	255	average closer to the sea bed and further from the cameras than haddock or
46 47 48 49	256	whiting. Whiting average position was closest to the cameras in terms of height
	257	and distance off the sea bed (for Y L = - 1961.405, d.f. = 6, P < 0.001 and for Z L =
50 51 52	258	- 2441.08, d.f. = 6, P < 0.001; Table 2; Figure 3).
53 54 55 56 57 58	259	

Whiting were the most attracted to the bait (94%, 68 out of 74 individuals), followed by haddock (57%, 54 out of 95 individuals). Only one out of 141 cod was attracted to the bait box (Figure 4), resulting in cod being significantly less attracted to the bait than haddock and whiting (Tukey test P < 0.001) (L = -105.967, d.f. = 5, P < 0.001). There was a significant size difference between the cod and whiting attracted to the bait compared to those that were not (cod: Wilcoxon (W) = 347, P < 0.001, haddock: W = 268, P > 0.05, whiting: W = 57, P < 0.001). Cod larger than 15 cm were more attracted to the bait. 4. DISCUSSION Rapid environmental changes provide challenges to which species need to adapt. Intensive fishing activities over the last few centuries have not only had profound impacts on targeted species but also the wider marine ecosystem (Holmlund & Hammer, 1999). Here, cod, haddock and whiting recruitment, growth and scavenging behaviour in a nursery area were compared to understand why whiting has become so dominant in the demersal fish community of the Firth of Clyde. Although cod, haddock and whiting are all members of the same family, and have apparently similar life histories, the detailed observations described here demonstrated differences in behaviours during their juvenile stages. Because there has been no systematic protection of gadoid nursery areas in the study region,

- 280 these behavioural and life history differences may partly explain the documented
- 281 (Heath & Speirs, 2012) biomass imbalance between these species.

283 Cod recruited to coastal areas later than haddock and whiting (evidenced by their
284 smaller size at the start of data collection). Over the course of data collection,

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285 haddock and whiting grew faster than that of cod. Cod relative abundance was 286 observed to be on average higher than that of haddock and whiting. However, this 287 may have been due to the shallow depths which the deployments took place (< 48 288 m). Cod have been observed to occupy shallower waters than haddock and whiting 289 (Elliott et al., 2017a). During both years, a decline in juvenile cod relative 290 abundance was observed at the end of the data collection. Whereas, haddock and 291 whiting relative abundance were variable, demonstrating either stronger pulse 292 recruitment than cod, or better survival.

293

294 Bastrikin et al. (2014), undertook a similar study, observing the diet, growth and 295 recruitment of pelagic to demersal age-0 gadoids from mid-May to the end of 296 August in the North Sea. They observed declines in cod over the course of data 297 collection, with haddock recruiting to coastal areas earliest and whiting having the 298 most protracted recruitment which is in line with the observations in this study. 299 The size ranges of juvenile gadoids observed by Bastrikin et al. (2014), were 300 similar to those seen in this study. Spawning earlier, multiple times throughout the 301 season, the faster growth rates and on average larger size of whiting and haddock 302 gives them a competitive advantage over cod (Hislop, 1975; McEvoy & McEvoy 303 1992; Wright & Trippel, 2009), and potentially makes cod more vulnerable to 304 predation (Demain et al., 2011; Werner & Gilliam, 1984). 305

From the combined position, and bait attraction results, whiting were observed to
be more attracted to the bait than haddock and cod. In a bait attraction
investigation in the North Sea by Martinez et al. (2011), whiting were also observed

309 to be more attracted to baited camera systems than haddock. This greater

tendency to scavenge may be advantageous in a system exposed to high levels of
trawling, with resultant discards and mortality of benthic fauna. It is not clear why
cod may have been less attracted to the bait. They may have a lower preference
for carrion or, being smaller than whiting, more driven by predator avoidance (Biro
& Stamps, 2008).

> Studies by Demain et al. (2011), showed that as these three gadoids mature and grow, they adapt their feeding strategy to an increasingly pisivorous diet (Demain et al., 2011). The larger (older) cod were observed to be more attracted to the bait, strengthening the argument, that the on average smaller size of cod places them at a disadvantage to whiting and haddock in exploiting carrion. Gadoids are also known to predate on one another (Hislop, Robb, Bell, & Armstrong, 1991; Köster et al., 2014), and whiting have been found to be particularly veracious predators wiping out entire cod populations (Temming et al., 2007).

Another factor to take into consideration when considering the Firth of Clyde gadoid imbalance, is that the habitats occupied by juvenile haddock and whiting (deeper sand and mud seabed types) (Elliott et al., 2017a), are less vulnerable to damage by mobile demersal gear than that of cod (Collie, Hall, Kaiser & Poiner, 2000; Kaiser et al., 2006). Juvenile haddock and whiting are found over sand and mud substrata which are also found in large quantities throughout the Firth of Clyde (Elliott, Sabatino, Heath, Turrell & Bailey, 2017b; McIntyre, Fernandes & Turrell, 2012). Cod have been observed in higher relative abundance over fragile maerl and seagrass seabed types and more heterogeneous landscapes within the Firth of Clyde, with ontogenetic shifts in seabed type with increasing size (Elliott,

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2 3	335	Ahti, Heath, Turrell & Bailey, 2016; Elliott et al., 2017a; Elliott et al., 2017b). The
4 5 6	336	secondary impacts of seabed homogenisation from fishing activities (Jennings $\&$
7 8	337	Kaiser, 1998), and cod having more specific habitat requirements puts them yet
9 10	338	again at a survival disadvantage to haddock and whiting.
11 12	339	
13 14	340	From 1889 to 1962 trawling was restricted to areas further than three nautical
15 16	341	miles from the coast (Thurstan & Roberts, 2010). As of 1962 a byelaw was
17 18	342	introduced to allow Nephrops trawlers throughout the Firth of Clyde (Thurstan $\&$
19 20 21	343	Roberts, 2010). Today, Nephrops trawling and scallop dredging still continues and
22 23	344	results in fish mortality through bycatch (Bergmann, Wieczorek, Moore & Atkinson,
24 25	345	2002). The continued mobile demersal activity is of particular importance given
26 27	346	much of the maerl found to occur around the South of Arran has been observed to
28 29	347	be in a degraded state (Elliott et al, 2017a). Reduced substratum diversity and
30 31 32	348	quality from decades of demersal mobile gears may therefore be having a negative
33 34	349	impact on cod populations (Elliott et al., 2017a; 2017b).
35 36	350	
37 38	351	Studies undertaken in North America and in Norway have shown that settlement
39 40	352	and post-settlement survival of gadoid may be the best means to improve gadoid
41 42 43	353	population regulation (e.g. Laurel, Knoth & Ryer, 2016; Myers & Cadigan, 1993;
44 45	354	Olsen & Moland, 2011). Moland et al., (2013) and Murawski, Brown, Lai, Rago and
46 47	355	Hendrickson (2000), studied the effect of demersal fish habitat protection
48 49	356	measures on Georges Bank (Southern New England, USA) and along the Norwegian
50 51	357	Skageerak coast. In both cases improved recruit survival was observed in cod and
52 53 54	358	haddock (Moland et al., 2013; Murawski et al., 2000).
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360	The imbalance in the Firth of Clyde may be partly explained by compensatory
361	effects from fishing activities (Heino & Godø, 2002), where initially trawlers
362	heavily targeted cod (Thurstan & Roberts, 2010), enabling the less commercially
363	desirable whiting to become more abundant. However, as fisheries began targeting
364	other species, such as whiting and plaice (Thurstan & Roberts, 2010), fisheries
365	induced pressures may have led to the removal of larger individuals and the more
366	adaptive species (such as whiting) becoming mature at a younger age (Hunter et
367	al., 2015; 2016). Furthermore, since cod were so heavily targeted and for such a
368	long period of time (from the 19^{th} to early 21^{st} century) (Thurstan & Roberts,
369	2010), stock levels may have fallen below critical levels, prohibiting any self-
370	regeneration despite recover management measures put in place (Frank $\&$
371	Brickman, 2000; Myers, Hutchings & Barrowman, 1997). Such depensatory effects
372	have been found in a wide range of fisheries throughout the world (e.g. codfish,
373	flatfish, skates and rays, tuna, swordfish, etc.) (Myers & Worm, 2003).
374	
375	Implications for fisheries and conservation management
376	Whiting and haddock have exhibited better survival strategies during their juvenile
377	stages than cod. Whiting were observed to recruit to coastal areas earlier than
378	haddock and cod, they were observed to have the fastest growth rates and were
379	behaviourally more dominant in bait attraction. Separate studies by Elliott et al.
380	(2017a; 2017b) show that recently settled cod seek out very different habitats to

- 381 whiting (and haddock), favouring heterogeneous substrates dominated by maerl
- and seagrass. These seabed types are predominantly in shallow water, so the
- 383 exposure to demersal trawling in inshore waters post-1984 may have had a
- 384 particularly detrimental effect on cod.

2 3	385	
4 5	386	Nature conservation MPAs were not initially designated to protect gadoid stocks
6 7 8	387	due to the high mobility of adults. However, given the vulnerable nature of cod
9 10	388	stocks, protecting juvenile habitat may need to be a priority to help give them a
11 12	389	fighting chance. This paper highlights how, insights from behavioural and life-
13 14	390	history analyses could help understand why certain stocks seem to be faring better
15 16	391	than others and could help inform fisheries and conservation management
17 18 19	392	measures to support the recovery of depleted and vulnerable populations.
20 21	393	
22 23	394	
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26 27 28	396	ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
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42 43	403	data would not have been possible.
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577 Tables and figures

578 Table 1: Juvenile gadoid mean MaxN over the course of data collection (SE = standard error)

Year	Grouped day of data	Number of days	Number of	Mean MaxN ±	axN ± SE	
	collection	data collected	deployments			
				Cod	Haddock	Whiting
2013	15 - 31 July	4	26	6.54 ± 0.74	0.12 ± 0.19	0.62 ± 0.28
	12 - 26 August	3	20	1.40 ± 0.33	1.30 ± 0.94	0.40 ± 0.49
	25 - 28 September	4	28	2.50 ± 0.77	1.25 ± 0.46	0.21 ± 0.32
2014	30 June - 07 July	4	41	0.07 ± 0.20	0.37 ± 0.23	1.32 ± 0.22
	28 July - 01 August	4	48	0.96 ± 0.50	1.85 ± 0.35	1.66 ± 0.31
	26 August - 2 September	4	48	1.33 ± 0.25	0.98 ± 0.22	0.30 ± 0.16
	15 - 18 September	4	48	0.50 ±0.25	0.85 ±0.22	0.96 ± 0.40

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580 Table 2. Age-0 gadoid mean position and size and over the course of summer 2013

and 2014 data collection period (Y = the height above and below the cameras; Z =

582 distance from the cameras, SE = standard error)

Gadoid	Mean Y distance from	Mean Z distance from	Mean size ±
	the camera ± SE (cm)	the camera ± SE (cm)	SE (cm)
Cod	-6.68 ± -0.97	167.61 ± 2.55	7.78 ± 0.12
Haddock	-2.96 ± -0.85	146.62 ± 2.54	11.07 ± 0.14
Whiting	-3.2 ± -1.22	121.03 ± 2.50	11.25 ± 0.23

583

Figure 1. Data collection locations within South Arran marine protected area (red
outline) over the course of summer 2013 (blue squares) and 2014 (purple squares).
Purple triangles represent samples collected for gadoid bait attraction analysis.

587

Figure 2. Gadoid growth over the course of data collection period for 2013 (A) and
2014 (B) with the model fitted lines and shaded area indicating ± 95% confidence
intervals. Symbols represent individual gadoid length measurements.

591

592 Figure 3. Gadoid Y and Z positioning for 2013 and 2014. Measurements closer to

593 the camera are shown in red and further from the camera in black (Y = the height

594 above and below the cameras; Z = distance from the cameras.

595

596 Figure 4. Gadoid mean bait attraction at MaxN with standard error bars. Shaded

597 bars show gadoids attracted to the bait and clear bars show gadoid bait

598 indifference.

599 Supporting information

601 Table 1. Age-0 gadoid seasonal size and growth

Year	Season mean	Start of season		End of season		Gadoid mean
	length \pm SE	Mean length ±	length range	Mean length ±	length range	growth (cm)
	(cm)	SE (cm)	(cm)	SE (cm)	(cm)	
2013	7.39 ± 0.16	6.67 ± 0.17	4.20 - 10.83	8.66 ± 0.34	3.51 - 13.91	1.98 ± 0.17
2014	8.27 ± 0.19	5.61*	5.61*	8.32 ± 0.58	3.01 - 11.88	2.71*
2013	12.33 ± 0.25	9.10 ± 1.27	7.57 - 11.63	13.05 ± 0.27	8.30 - 14.81	3.95 ± 1.00
2014	10.62 ± 0.15	9.02 ± 0.46	7.69 - 12.41	12.24 ± 0.26	10.12 - 14.69	3.22 ± 0.20
2013	10.71 ± 0.73	9.20 ± 0.61	8.59 - 9.80	14.95*	14.95*	5.75*
2014	11.34 ± 0.26	10.81 ± 0.35	6.30 - 14.98	12.20 ± 0.42	8.16 - 14.98	1.39 ± 0.07
	Year 2013 2014 2013 2014 2013 2014	YearSeason mean length \pm SE (cm)2013 7.39 ± 0.16 2014 8.27 ± 0.19 2013 12.33 ± 0.25 2014 10.62 ± 0.15 2013 10.71 ± 0.73 2014 11.34 ± 0.26	YearSeason meanStart olength \pm SEMean length \pm (cm)SE (cm)2013 7.39 ± 0.16 6.67 ± 0.17 2014 8.27 ± 0.19 5.61^* 2013 12.33 ± 0.25 9.10 ± 1.27 2014 10.62 ± 0.15 9.02 ± 0.46 2013 10.71 ± 0.73 9.20 ± 0.61 2014 11.34 ± 0.26 10.81 ± 0.35	YearSeason meanStart of seasonlength \pm SEMean length \pm length range(cm)SE (cm)(cm)2013 7.39 ± 0.16 6.67 ± 0.17 $4.20 - 10.83$ 2014 8.27 ± 0.19 5.61^* 5.61^* 2013 12.33 ± 0.25 9.10 ± 1.27 $7.57 - 11.63$ 2014 10.62 ± 0.15 9.02 ± 0.46 $7.69 - 12.41$ 2013 10.71 ± 0.73 9.20 ± 0.61 $8.59 - 9.80$ 2014 11.34 ± 0.26 10.81 ± 0.35 $6.30 - 14.98$	YearSeason meanStart of seasonEnd oflength \pm SEMean length \pm length rangeMean length \pm (cm)SE (cm)(cm)SE (cm)20137.39 \pm 0.166.67 \pm 0.174.20 $-$ 10.838.66 \pm 0.3420148.27 \pm 0.195.61*5.61*8.32 \pm 0.58201312.33 \pm 0.259.10 \pm 1.277.57 $-$ 11.6313.05 \pm 0.27201410.62 \pm 0.159.02 \pm 0.467.69 $-$ 12.4112.24 \pm 0.26201310.71 \pm 0.739.20 \pm 0.618.59 $-$ 9.8014.95*201411.34 \pm 0.2610.81 \pm 0.356.30 $-$ 14.9812.20 \pm 0.42	YearSeason meanStart of seasonEnd of seasonlength \pm SEMean length \pm length rangeMean length \pm length range(cm)SE (cm)(cm)SE (cm)(cm)2013 7.39 ± 0.16 6.67 ± 0.17 $4.20 - 10.83$ 8.66 ± 0.34 $3.51 - 13.91$ 2014 8.27 ± 0.19 5.61^* 5.61^* 8.32 ± 0.58 $3.01 - 11.88$ 2013 12.33 ± 0.25 9.10 ± 1.27 $7.57 - 11.63$ 13.05 ± 0.27 $8.30 - 14.81$ 2014 10.62 ± 0.15 9.02 ± 0.46 $7.69 - 12.41$ 12.24 ± 0.26 $10.12 - 14.69$ 2013 10.71 ± 0.73 9.20 ± 0.61 $8.59 - 9.80$ 14.95^* 14.95^* 2014 11.34 ± 0.26 10.81 ± 0.35 $6.30 - 14.98$ 12.20 ± 0.42 $8.16 - 14.98$

602 * Indicates where too few length measurements were obtained to calculate a standard error

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Figure 1. Bhattacharya's method for decomposition and characterisation of
Gaussian components for (A) cod, (B) haddock and (C) whiting. I) Histogram with
determined Gaussian component II) Graph of the logarithmic differences in length.
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Figure 1. Data collection locations within South Arran marine protected area (red outline) over the course of summer 2013 (blue squares) and 2014 (purple squares). Purple triangles represent samples collected for gadoid bait attraction analysis.

350x209mm (300 x 300 DPI)





Figure 3. Gadoid Y and Z positioning for 2013 and 2014. Measurements closer to the camera are shown in red and further from the camera in black (Y = the height above and below the cameras; Z = distance from the cameras.

99x55mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 4. Gadoid mean attraction at MaxN with standard error bars. Shaded bars show gadoids attracted to the bait and clear bars show gadoid bait indifference.

99x69mm (300 x 300 DPI)





Figure 1. Bhattacharya's method for decomposition and characterisation of Gaussian components for (A) cod, (B) haddock and (C) whiting. I) Histogram with determined Gaussian component II) Graph of the logarithmic differences in length.

100x227mm (300 x 300 DPI)