MixFishSim: highly resolved spatiotemporal simulations for exploring mixed fishery dynamics

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Abstract

Most fisheries exploit a variety of spatially and temporally heterogeneous fish populations using species-unselective gear that can result in unintended, unwanted catch of low quota or protected species. Reducing these unwanted catches is crucial for biological and economic sustainability of 'mixed fisheries' and implementation of an ecosystem approach to fishing.

If fisheries are to avoid unwanted catch a good understanding of spatiotemporal fishery dynamics is required. However, traditional scientific advice is limited by a lack of highly resolved knowledge of population distributions, population movement and how fishers interact with different fish populations. This reflects the fact that data on fish location at high temporal and spatial resolutions is expensive and difficult to collect. Proxies inferred from either scientific surveys or commercial catch data are often used to model distributions, usually with sparse data at limited spatial and temporal resolution.

To understand how data resolution impacts inference on mixed fisheries interactions, we develop a highly resolved spatiotemporal simulation model incorporating: i) delay-difference population dynamics, ii) population movement

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using Gaussian Random Fields to simulate patchy, heterogeneously distributed

populations, and iii) fishery dynamics for multiple fleet characteristics based on

species targeting under an explore-exploit strategy via a mix of correlated ran-

dom walk movement (for exploration) and learned behaviour (for exploitation)

phases of the fisheries.

Our framework allows users to explore the assumptions in modelling obser-

vational data and evaluate the underlying dynamics of such approaches at a fine

spatial and temporal scale.

We simulate 50 years of fishing and use the results from the fisheries catch

to draw inference on the underlying population structures. We compare this

inference to a simulated fixed-site sampling design commonly used for fisheries

monitoring purposes and the true underlying population structures. We i) use

the results to establish the potential and limitations of fishery-dependent data

in providing a robust picture of spatiotemporal distributions; and ii) simulate an

area closure based on areas defined from the different data sources at a range

of temporal and spatial resolutions and assess their effectiveness on reducing

catches of a fish population.

We conclude from our simulations that commercial data, while containing

bias, provides a useful tool for managing catches in mixed fisheries if applied at

the correct spatiotemporal scale.

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1. Introduction

Fishers exploit a variety of fish populations that are heterogeneously distributed in space and time, with varying knowledge of species distributions and using species non-selective fishing gear. In doing so fisheries catch an assemblage of species and may discard over-quota catch when managed by single species quotas and fishers exhaust one or more quota. This may lead to overexploitation of fish populations (Ulrich et al., 2011; Batsleer et al., 2015). Discarding of fish in excess of quota limits the ability to maintain fishing mortality within sustainable limits (Alverson et al., 1994; Crowder et al., 1998; Rijnsdorp et al., 2007) and the ability to manage for the biological and economic sustainability of fisheries. As such, there is increasing interest in technical solutions such as 11 gear and spatial closures as measures to reduce unwanted catch (Kennelly and 12 Broadhurst, 2002; Catchpole and Revill, 2008; Bellido et al., 2011; Cosgrove 13 et al., 2019). 14

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Changes to spatial fishing patterns have been proposed as a method to reduce 16 discards (Holmes et al., 2011; Little et al., 2014; Dunn et al., 2014). Implemen-17 tation of avoidance measures is, however, restricted by lack of knowledge of fish 18 and fishery spatiotemporal dynamics and understanding of the scale at which processes become important for management. Understanding the correct scale for spatial measures is crucial for implementation at a resolution that ensures ef-21 fective management (Dunn et al., 2016) while minimising economic impact. For 22 example, a scale that promotes species avoidance for vulnerable or low quota 23 species while allowing continuance of sustainable fisheries for available quota species.

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Identifying an appropriate scale has been a challenge in the past that has led to ineffectual measures with unintended consequences such as limited impact towards the management objective or increased benthic impact on previously unexploited areas (e.g. the cod closure in the North Sea (Rijnsdorp et al., 2001;

Dinmore et al., 2003)). More refined spatial information has since become available through the combination of logbook and Vessel Monitoring System (VMS) data (Lee et al., 2010; Bastardie et al., 2010; Gerritsen et al., 2012; Mateo et al., 2016) and more real-time spatial management has been possible (e.g. Holmes et al., 2011). Such information is, however, derived from an inherently biased sampling programme, targeted fishing, where fishers establish favoured fishing grounds through an explore-exploit strategy (Bailey et al., 2018) where they search for areas with high catches and then use experience to return to areas where they've experienced high catch in the past.

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We ask two fundamental questions regarding spatiotemporal inference derived from observational data:

- 1. How does sampling-derived data reflects the underlying population structures?
- 2. How does data aggregation and source impact on spatial fisheries management measures?

To answer these questions we i) develop a simulation model where population 47 dynamics are highly-resolved in space and time. Being known directly rather 48 than inferred from sampling or commercial catch, we can use the population model to validate how inference from fisheries-dependent and fisheries indepen-50 dent sampling relates to the real population structure in a way we could not with real data. We ii) compare, at different spatial and temporal aggregations, the 'real population' distributions to samples from fisheries-dependent and fish-53 eries independent catches to test if these are a true reflection of the relative density of the populations. We then iii) simulate a fishery closure to protect a 55 species based on different spatial and temporal data aggregations. We use these evaluations to draw inference on the utility of commercial data in supporting management decisions. 58

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[We find..]

2. Materials and Methods

A simulation model that is modular and discrete-event based was developed.
This approach enables efficient computation by allowing for sub-modules implemented on time-scales appropriate to capture the characteristic of the different processes (Figure 1). The following sub-modules were included to capture the full system: 1) Population dynamics, 2) Recruitment dynamics, 3) Population movement, 4) fishery dynamics.

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Population dynamics (fishing and natural mortality, growth) operate on a daily time-step, while population movement occurs on a weekly time-step. Recruitment takes place periodically each year for a set time duration specified for each population, while the fishing module operates on a tow-by-tow basis (i.e. multiple events a day).

In the model system population movement is driven by random (diffusive) and directed (advective) processes and we incorporate characterisation of a number of different fishing fleet dynamics exploiting four fish populations with different spatial and population demographics. The following describes the implementation of each of the sub-modules.



Figure 1: Schematic overview of the simulation model. Blue boxes indicate fleet dynamics processes, the green boxes population dynamics processes while the white boxes are the time steps at which processes occur; t = tow, tmax is the total number of tows; (Rec), (Pop Movement), (Pop Dynamics) logic gates for recruitment periods, population movement and population dynamics for each of the populations, (Past Knowledge) a switch whether to use a random (exploratory) or past knowledge (exploitation) fishing strategy.

2.1. Population dynamics

The basic population level processes are simulated using a modified two-stage Deriso-Schnute delay difference model (Deriso, 1980; Schnute, 1985; Dichmont et al., 2003) occurring at a daily time-step. A daily time-step was chosen to discretise continuous population processes on a biologically relevant and computationally tractable timescale. Under the population dynamics module population biomass growth and depletion for pre-recruits and recruited fish are modelled separately as a function of previous recruited biomass, intrinsic population growth and recruitment functionally linked to the adult population size. Biomass for each cell c is incremented each day d as follows (the full parameter list is detailed in Table 1):

$$B_{c,d+1} = (1+\rho)B_{c,d} \cdot e^{-Z_{c,d}} - \rho \cdot e^{-Z_{c,d}} \times (B_{c,d-1} \cdot e^{-Z_{c,d-1}} + Wt_{R-1} \cdot \alpha_{d-1} \cdot R_{\tilde{y}(c,y,d-1)}) + Wt_{R} \cdot \alpha_{d} \cdot R_{\tilde{y}(c,y,d)}$$
(1)

where ρ is Brody's coefficient, shown to be equal to e^{-K} when K is the growth rate from a von Bertalanffy logistic growth model (Schnute, 1985). Wt_{R-1} is the average weight of fish prior to recruitment, while Wt_R is the average recruited weight. α_d represents the proportion of fish recruited during that day for the year, while $R_{c,\tilde{y}}$ is the annual recruits in cell c for year y.

Mortality $Z_{c,d}$ can be decomposed to natural mortality, $M_{c,d}$, and fishing mortality, $F_{c,d}$, where both $M_{c,d}$ and $F_{c,d}$ are instantaneous rates with $M_{c,d}$

mortality, $F_{c,d}$, where both $M_{c,d}$ and $F_{c,d}$ are instantaneous rates with $M_{c,d}$ fixed and $F_{c,d}$ calculated by solving the Baranov catch equation (Hilborn and

Walters, 1992) for $F_{c,d}$:

$$C_{c,d} = \frac{F_{c,d}}{F_{c,d} + M_{c,d}} * (1 - e^{-(F_{c,d} + M_{c,d})}) * B_{c,d}$$
 (2)

where $C_{c,d}$ is the summed catch from the fishing model across all fleets and vessels in cell c for the population during the day d, and $B_{c,d}$ the daily biomass

for the population in the cell. Here, catch and fishing mortality are the sum of those across all fleets and vessels, where $F_{fl,v,c,d,p} = E_{fl,v,c,d} \cdot Q_{fl,p} \cdot D_{c,d,p}$ with fl, v and p the fleet, vessel and population respectively and E and Q fishing effort and catchability of the gear, and D is the density of the population at the location fished.

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108 2.2. Recruitment dynamics

Recruitment is modelled through a function relating the adult biomass to recruits at time of recruitment. In *MixFishSim*, it can be modelled either either as a stochastic Beverton-Holt stock-recruit form (Beverton and Holt, 1957):

$$\bar{R}_{c,d} = \frac{(\alpha * S_{c,d})}{(\beta + S_{c,d})}$$

$$R_{c,d} \sim \log N[(\log(\bar{R}_{c,d}), \sigma^2)]$$
(3)

Where α is the maximum recruitment rate, β the spawning stock biomass (SSB) required to produce half the maximum stock size, S current stock size and σ^2 the variability in the recruitment due to stochastic processes, or a stochastic Ricker form (Ricker, 1954):

$$\bar{R}_{c,d} = B_{c,d} * e^{(\alpha - \beta * B_{c,d})}$$

$$R_{c,d} \sim \log N[(\log(\bar{R}_{c,d}), \log(\sigma^2))]$$
(4)

where α is the maximum productivity per spawner and β the density dependent reduction in productivity as the SSB increases. In our example application the Beverton-Holt form of stock recruit relationship was used for all populations though either functional form can be chosen.

2.3. Population movement dynamics

To simulate fish population distribution in space and time a Gaussian spatial process was employed to model habitat suitability for each of the populations on a 2d grid.

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We first defined a Gaussian random field process, $\{S(c): c \in \mathbb{R}^2\}$, where for any set of cells c_1, \ldots, c_n , the joint distribution of $S = \{S(c1), \ldots S(c_n)\}$ is multivariate Gaussian with a *Matérn* covariance structure, where the correlation strength weakens with distance. This enables us to model the spatial autocorrelation observed in animal populations where density is more similar in nearby locations (Tobler, 1970; F. Dormann et al., 2007) and we change the parameters to implement different spatial structures for the populations.

The habitat for each of the populations was generated with the *RFSimulate* function of the *RandomFields* R package (Schlater et al., 2015), that simulates a Gaussian Random Field process given a user defined error model and correlation structure. We define a stationary habitat field and combine with a temporally dynamic thermal tolerance field to imitate two key drivers of population dynamics. Each population was initialised at a single location, and subsequently moveed according to a probabilistic distribution based on habitat suitability (represented by the normalised values from the GRFs), temperature and distance from current cell:

$$Pr(J|I) = \frac{e^{-\lambda * d_{IJ}} \cdot (Hab_{J,p}^2 \cdot Tol_{J,p,wk})}{\sum\limits_{c=1}^{C} e^{-\lambda * d} \cdot (Hab_{c,p}^2 \cdot Tol_{c,p,wk})}$$
(5)

Where d_{IJ} is the euclidean distance between cell I and cell J, λ is a given rate of decay, $Hab_{J,p}^2$ is the squared index of habitat suitability for cell J and population p, with $Tol_{J,p,wk}$ the temperature tolerance for cell J by population p in week wk (see below).

During pre-defined weeks of the year the habitat quality is modified with user-defined spawning habitat locations, resulting in each population having concentrated areas where spawning takes place. In the simulations the populations move towards these cells in the weeks prior to spawning, resulting in directional movement towards the spawning grounds.

An advection-diffusion process controls population movement, with a timevarying temperature covariate used to change the interaction between time and suitable habitat on a weekly time-step. Each population p was assigned a thermal tolerance with mean, μ_p and variance, σ_p^2 so that each cell and population temperature suitability is defined that:

$$Tol_{c,p,wk} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi \cdot \sigma_p^2)}} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{(T_{c,wk} - \mu_p)^2}{2 \cdot \sigma_p^2}\right)$$
 (6)

Where $Tol_{c,p,wk}$ is the tolerance of population p for cell c in week wk, $T_{c,wk}$ is the temperature in the cell given the week and μ_p and σ_p^2 the mean and standard 159 deviation of the population temperature tolerance.

The final process results in a population structure and movement pattern 162 unique to each species, with population movement occurring on a weekly basis. 163 The decision to model population movement on a weekly timescale was to reflect 164 that fish tend to aggregate in species specific locations that have been observed to last around one to two weeks (Poos and Rijnsdorp, 2007b). Therefore this 166 process approximated the demographic shifts in fish populations throughout a

year with seasonal spawning patterns (e.g. Figure S5).

2.4. Fleet dynamics 169

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The fleet dynamics can be broadly categorised into three components; fleet 170 targeting - that determines the fleet catch efficiency and preference towards a 171 particular species; trip-level decisions, that determines the initial location to be 172 fished at the beginning of a trip; and within-trip decisions, determining movement from one fishing spot to another within a trip. Together, these elements 174 implement an explore-exploit type strategy for individual vessels to maximise 175 their catch from an unknown resource distribution Bailey et al. (2018). The 176 decision to use an individual based model for fishing vessels was taken because 177 fishers are heterogeneous in their location choice behaviour due to different objectives, risk preference and targeting preference (Van Putten et al., 2012). Therefore in the simulations fleet dynamics are the productive of individual experiences rather than pre-defined group dynamics.

2.4.1. Fleet targeting

Each fleet of n vessels was characterised by both a general efficiency, Q_{fl} , and a population specific efficiency, $Q_{fl,p}$. Thus, the product of these parameters $[Q_{fl} \cdot Q_{fl,p}]$ affects the overall catch rates for the fleet and the preferential targeting of one population over another. This, in combination with the parameter choice for the step-function defined below (as well as some randomness from the exploratory fishing process) determined the preference of fishing locations for the fleet. All species prices were kept the same across fleets and seasons.

2.4.2. Trip-level decisions

Several studies (e.g. Hutton et al., 2004; Tidd et al., 2012; Girardin et al., 191 2015) have confirmed past activity and past catch rates are strong predictors of fishing location choice. For this reason, the fleet dynamics sub-model included a 193 learning component, where a vessel's initial fishing location in a trip was based 194 on selecting from previously successful fishing locations. This was achieved by 195 calculating an expected revenue based on the catches from locations fished in 196 the preceding trip as well as the same month periods in previous years and the 197 travel costs from the port to the fishing grounds, and choosing randomly from 198 the top 75 % of fishing events as defined by the expected profit, that has a 199 seasonal component. 200

201 2.4.3. Within-trip decisions

Fishing locations within a trip are initially determined by a modified random walk process. As the simulation progresses the within-trip decision become
gradually more influenced by experience gained from past fishing locations (as
per the initial trip-level location choice), moving location choice towards areas
of higher perceived profit. A random walk was chosen for the exploratory fishing
process as it is the simplest assumption commonly used in ecology to describe
optimal animal search strategy for exploiting homogeneously distributed prey

about which there is uncertain knowledge (Viswanathan et al., 1999). In a random walk, movement is a stochastic process through a series of steps. These steps have a length, and a direction that can either be equal in length or take some other functional form. The direction of the random walk was also correlated (known as 'persistence') providing some overall directional movement (Codling et al., 2008).

We use a *Lévy flight* which is a particular form of random walk characterised by a heavy-tailed distribution of step-length. The Lévy flight has received a lot of attention in ecological theory in recent years as having shown to have very similar characteristics as those observed by animals in nature, and being a near optimum searching strategy for predators pursuing patchily distributed prey (Viswanathan et al., 1999; Bartumeus et al., 2005; Sims et al., 2008). Bertrand et al. (2007) showed that Peruvian anchovy fishermen have a stochastic search pattern similar to that observed with a lévy flight. However, it remains a subject of debate (e.g. see Edwards et al., 2011; Reynolds, 2015), with the contention that search patterns may be more simply characterised as random walks (Sakiyama and Gunji, 2013) with specific patterns related to the characteristics of the prey field (Sims et al., 2012).

For our implementation of a random walk directional change is based on a negatively correlated circular distribution where a favourable fishing ground is likely to be "fished back over" by the vessel returning in the direction it came from. The step length (i.e. the distance travelled from the current to the next fishing location) is determined by recent fishing success, measured as the summed value of fish caught (revenue, Rev),

$$Rev = \sum_{p=1}^{P} L_p \cdot Pr_p \tag{7}$$

where L_p is landings of a population p, and Pr_p price of a population. Here, when fishing is successful vessels remain in a similar location and continue to exploit the local fishing grounds. When unsuccessful, they move some distance ²³⁸ away from the current fishing location. The movement distance retains some degree of stochasticity, that can be controlled separately, but is determined by the relationship:

$$StepL = e^{log(\beta_1) + log(\beta_2) - (log(\frac{\beta_1}{\beta_3}))} * Rev$$
 (8)

Where β_1 , β_2 and β_3 are parameters determining the shape of the step function in its relation to revenue, so that, a step from (x1,y1) to (x2, y2) is defined by:

$$(x2, y2) = x1 + StepL \cdot \cos(\frac{\pi \cdot Br}{180}),$$

$$y1 + StepL \cdot \sin(\frac{\pi \cdot Br}{180})$$

$$with \quad Br_{t-1} < 180, Br_t = 180 + \sim vm[(0, 360), k]$$

$$Br_{t-1} > 180, Br_t = 180 - \sim vm[(0, 360), k]$$

$$(9)$$

where k the concentration parameter from the von Mises distribution that we correlate with the revenue so that $k = (Rev + 1/RefRev) * max_k$, where max_k is the maximum concentration value, k, and RefRev is parametrised as for β_3 in the step length function. A realised example of the step length and turning angle relationships to revenue can be seen at Figure S15.

2.4.4. Local population depletion

Where several fishing vessels exploit the same fish population competition 249 is known to play an important role in local distribution of fishing effort (Gillis 250 and Peterman, 1998). If several vessels are fishing on the same patch of fish, 251 local depletion and interference competition will affect fishing location choice of the fleet as a whole (Rijnsdorp, 2000; Poos and Rijnsdorp, 2007a). In order 253 to account for this behaviour, the fishing sub-model operates spatially on a 254 daily time-step so that for future days the biomass available to the fishery is 255 reduced in the areas fished. The cumulative effect is to make heavily fished 256 areas less attractive as a future fishing location choice as reduced catch rates will be experienced.

2.5. Fisheries independent survey

A fisheries-independent survey is simulated where fishing on a regular grid
begins each year at the same time for a given number of stations (a fixed station
survey design). Catches of the populations at each station are recorded but not
removed from the population. This provides a fishery independent snapshot
of the populations at a regular spatial intervals each year, similar to scientific
surveys undertaken by fisheries research agencies.

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267 2.6. Software

The simulation framework is implemented in the statistical software package R (R Core Team, 2017) and available as an R package from the authors github site (www.github.com/pdolder/MixFishSim).

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3. Parameterisation

273 3.1. Population models

We parametrised the simulation model for four populations with different 274 demographics; growth rates, natural mortality and recruitment functions (Table 275 4). Habitat preference (Figure S1) and temperature tolerances (Figures S3, S4) were unique to each population resulting in differently weekly distribution 277 patterns (Figures S5-S7). In addition, each of the populations has two defined 278 spawning areas that result in the populations moving towards these areas in 279 pre-defined weeks (Figure S2) with population-specific movement rates (Table 280 4). The individual habitat preferences and thermal tolerances result in different spatial habitat use for each population (Figure S9) and consequently different 282 seasonal exploitation patterns (Fishing mortality in Figure S10).

3.2. Fleet parametrisation

The fleets were parametrised to reflect five different characteristic fisheries 285 with unique exploitation dynamics (Table 5). By setting different catchability parameters $(Q_{fl,p})$ we create different targeting preferences between the fleets and hence spatial dynamics. The stochasticity in the random walk process 288 ensures that within a fleet different vessels have slightly different spatial dis-289 tributions based on individual experience. The step function was parametrised 290 dynamically within the simulations as the maximum revenue obtainable was not known beforehand. This was implemented so that vessels take smaller steps 292 when fishing at a location that yields landings value in the top 90th percentile 293 of the value experienced in that year so far (as defined per fleet in Table 5). 294

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With increasing probability throughout the simulation, fishing locations were chosen based on experience of profitable catches built up in the same month from previous years and from the previous trip. 'Profitable' in this context was defined as the locations where the top 70 % of expected profit would be found given previous trips revenue and cost of movement to the new fishing location. This probability was based on a logistic sigmoid function with a lower asymptote of 0 and upper asymptote of 0.95, and a growth rate that ensures the upper asymptote (where decisions are mainly based on past knowledge) is reached approximately halfway through the simulation.

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3.3. Survey settings

The survey simulation was set up with a fixed gridded station design with 100 stations fished each year, starting on day 92 and ending on day 112 (5 stations per day) with same catchability parameters for all populations ($Q_p = 1$). This approximates a real world survey design with limited seasonal and spatial coverage.

2 3.4. Example research question

To illustrate the capabilities of MixFishSim, we investigate the influence of the temporal and spatial resolution of different data sources on the reduction in catches of a population given spatial closures. To do so, we set up a simulation to run for 50 years based on a 100×100 square grid (undetermined units), with five fleets of 20 vessels each and four fish populations. Fishing takes place four times a day per vessel and five days a week, while population movement is every week.

We allow the simulation to run unrestricted for 30 years, then implement spatial closed areas for the last 20 years of the simulation based on data (either derived from the commercial catches, fisheries-independent survey or the 'real population') used at different spatial and temporal scales.

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- The following steps are undertaken to determine closures:
- 1. Extract data source
 - 2. Aggregate according to desired spatial and temporal resolution
- 3. Interpolate across entire area at desired resolution using simple kriging using the *interp* function from the R package akima (Akima, 2006).
 - 4. Close area covering top 5 % of catch rates
- In total 28 closure scenarios were run that represent combinations of:
- data types: commercial logbook data, survey data and 'real population',
 - temporal resolutions: weekly, monthly and yearly closures,
- spatial resolutions: 1 x 1 grid, 5 x 5 grid, 10 x 10 grid and 20 x 20 grid,
- closure basis: highest 5 % of catch rates for the protected species
- Survey closures were on an annual basis only, as this was the most temporally resolved survey data available.

8 4. Results

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4.1. Simulation dynamics

It can be seen from a single vessels movements during a trip that the vessel exploits four different fishing grounds, three of them multiple times (Figure S11), while across several trips fishing grounds that are further apart are fished (Figure S12). These different locations relate to areas where the highest revenue were experienced, as shown by Figure S13, where several trips for the vessel overlaid on the revenue field, i.e.

$$\sum_{c=1}^{c} \sum_{s=1}^{s} B_{s,c} \cdot Q_{s,c}$$

Vessels from the same fleet (and therefore targeting preference) exploit similar but slightly different fishing grounds depending on their own personal experience during the explore phase of the fishery (Figure S14), that is the result
of the randomness in the correlated random walk step function, with distance
moved during the exploitation phase and the direction stochastically related to
the revenue experienced on the fishing ground (Figure S15).

- 4.2. How does sampling-derived data reflect the underlying population structure?
 In order to answer this question we compare different spatial and temporal
 aggregations of the 'real population' distributions to:
 - a) fisheries-independent data: the inferred population from a fixed-site sampling survey design as commonly used for fisheries monitoring purposes;
- b) **fisheries-dependent data:** the inferred population from our fleet model that includes fishery-induced sampling dynamics.

Figure 2 shows the aggregated catch composition from each of the data sources over a ten-year period (to average seasonal patterns) at different spatial resolutions. The finer spatial grid for the real population (top left) and commercial data (top middle) show visually similar patterns, though there are

large unsampled areas in the commercial data from a lack of fishing activity (particularly in the lower left part of the sampling domain). The survey data at 359 this spatial resolution displays very sparse information about the spatial distributions of the populations. The slightly aggregated data on a 5 x 5 grid shows 36 similar patterns and, while losing some of the spatial detail, there remains good 362 consistency between the 'real population' and the commercial data. Survey data 363 starts to pick out some of the similar patterns as the other data sources, but lacks spatiotemporal coverage. The spatial catch information on a 10 x 10 and 20 x 20 grid lose a significant amount of information about the spatial resolu-366 tions for all data sources, and some differences between the survey, commercial 367 and 'real population' data emerge. 368

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Figure 3 shows the consequences of different temporal aggregations of the data over a ten-year period, with weekly (top), monthly (middle) and yearly 371 (bottom) catch compositions from across an aggregated 20 x 20 area. By com-372 parison to the 'real population', the monthly aggregation captures the major 373 patterns seen in the weekly data, albeit missing more subtle differences. The 374 yearly data results in a constant catch pattern due to the aggregation process 375 (sometimes known as an aggregation bias). The commercial data on a weekly 376 basis shows some of the same patterns as the 'real population', though the first 377 species (in red) is less well represented and some weeks are missing catches 378 from the area. The monthly data shows some consistency between the 'real population' and commercial data for species 2 - 4, though species 1 remains under-represented. On an annual basis, interestingly the commercial data un-381 der represents the first species (in red) while the survey over represents species 382 1. This is likely due to the biases in commercial sampling, with the fisheries 383 not targeting the areas where species 1 are present, and the biases in the survey sampling from over representation of the spatial distribution.

386 4.3. How does data aggregation and source impact on spatial fisheries manage-387 ment measures?

We implemented a spatial closure using the different data sources and spatial and temporal aggregations as outlined in the protocol in Section 3.4. We used this to assess the efficacy of a closure in reducing fishing mortality on species 3, given availability of data and its use at different resolutions in order to evaluate the trade-offs in data sources.

The trend in fishing mortality for each species show that in most cases the 393 fishery closure was successful in reducing fishing mortality on the species of in-394 terest (species 3; Figure 4), though interestingly the largest reductions in fishing 395 mortality happened immediately after the closures, following which the fisheries 396 "adapted" to the closures and fishing mortality increased again somewhat. The exception to the success was the closures implemented based on the coarsest spatial (20 x 20) and temporal resolution (yearly) that was ineffective with all 399 data sources. As expected, closures based on the "known" population distribu-400 tion were most effective, with differing degrees of success using the commercial 401 data. Fishing mortality rates on the other species changed in different propor-402 tions, depending on whether the displaced fishing effort moved to areas where 403 the populations were found in greater or lesser density. 404

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A regression tree (using the R package REEMtree (Sela and Simonoff, 2012)) 406 highlights that the factor most contributing to differences in fishing mortality before and after the closure was the population (72 % showing that the closures 408 were effective for population 3), followed by data resolution (21 %), data type 409 (7%) with the least important factor the timescale (< 1%). In general the finer 410 the spatial resolution of the data used the greater reduction in fishing mortality 411 for population 3 after the closures (Figure 5). The notable outliers are the com-412 mercial data at the coarsest spatial resolution (20 x 20) at a yearly and weekly 413 timescale, where closures were nearly as effective as the fine-scale resolution. In 414 this case the closures were sufficiently large to protect a core are of the habitat 415 for the population, but this was achieved in a fairly crude manner by closing a large area - including area where the species was not found (Figure S17) that may have consequences in terms of restricting the fishery in a much larger area than necessary.

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5. Discussion

Our study evaluates the importance of data scaling and considers poten-422 tial bias introduced through data aggregation when using fisheries data to infer 423 spatiotemporal dynamics of fish populations. Understanding how fishers ex-424 ploit multiple heterogeneously distributed fish populations with different catch limits or conservation status requires detailed understanding of the overlap of 426 resources; this is difficult to achieve using conventional modelling approaches 427 due to species targeting in fisheries resulting in preferential sampling (Martínez-428 Minaya et al., 2018). Often data are aggregated or extrapolated which requires 429 assumptions about the spatial and temporal scale of processes. Our study explores the assumptions behind such aggregation and preferential sampling to 431 identify potential impacts on management advice. With modern management 432 approaches increasingly employing more nuanced spatiotemporal approaches in 433 order to maximise productivity while taking account of both the biological and human processes operating on different time-frames (Dunn et al., 2016), un-435 derstanding assumptions behind the data used - increasingly a combination of 436 logbook and positional information from vessel monitoring systems - is vital to 437 ensure measures are effective. 438

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440 5.1. Simulation dynamics

We employ a simulation approach to model each of the population and fishery dynamics in a hypothetical 'mixed fishery', allowing us to i) evaluate the consequences of different aggregation assumptions on our understanding of the spatiotemporal distribution of the underlying fish populations, and ii) evaluate the effectiveness of a spatial closure given those assumptions.

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Our approach is unique in that it captures fine scale population and fishery dynamics and their interaction in a way not usually possible with real data and thus not usually considered in fisheries simulations. While other simulation frameworks seek to model individual vessel dynamics based on inferred dynamics from VMS and logbook records (Bastardie et al., 2010), or as a system to identify measures to meet particular management goals (Bailey et al., 2018), our framework allows users to explore the assumptions in modelling observational data and evaluate the underlying dynamics of such approaches at a fine spatial and temporal scale. This offers the advantage that larger scale fishery patterns are emergent properties of the system and results can be compared to those obtained under a statistical modelling framework.

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Typically, simulation models that treat fish as individuals are focussed on 459 exploring the inter- and intra- specific interactions among fish populations (e.g. 460 OSMOSE Shin et al. (2004)) in order to understand how they vary over space 461 and time. Our focus was on understanding the strengths and limitations of 462 inference from catch data obtained through commercial fishing activity with 463 fleets exploiting multiple fish populations and realising catch distributions that 464 may differ from the underlying populations. As such, we favoured a minimum 465 realistic model of the fish populations (Plagányi et al., 2014), while incorporating detailed fishing dynamics that take account of different drivers in a mechanistic 467 way. In this way we take account of heterogeneity in fleet dynamics due to 468 different preferences and drivers similarly to other approaches (Fulton et al., 469 2011), but at an individual vessel rather than fleet level. We do not explicitly 470 define fleets as rational profit maximisers at the outset, but consider there are 471 several stages to development of the fishery; information gathering through 472 search where the resource location is not known, followed by individual learnt 473 behaviour of profitable locations. This provides a realistic model of how fishing 474 patterns are established and maintained to exploit an uncertain resource through an explore-exploit strategy (Mangel and Clark, 1983; Bailey et al., 2018).

5.2. How does sampling-derived data reflect the underlying population structure?

Our results demonstrate the importance of considering data scale and resolu-

tion when using observational data to support management measures. We find that understanding of the community composition dynamics will depend on the level of data aggregation and its important to consider the scale of processes; including population movement rates, habitat uniformity and fishing targeting practices if potential biases in data are to be understood and taken into account.

EXPAND - relate to survey, commercial etc.. in Figure 2

485 5.3. How does data aggregation and source impact on spatial fisheries manage-486 ment measures?

From our simulations spatial disaggregation was more important than the temporal disaggregation of the commercial data. This reflects the fact that there was greater spatial heterogeneity over the spatial domain than experienced in individual locations over the course of the year (Figure S9). This indicates that fixed closures, at the right resolution, when based on commercially derived data have the potential to reduced fishing mortality. The likely cost of poor spatial and temporal resolution is associated with reduced effectiveness and potentially closing fishing opportunities for other fisheries.

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Two contrasting real world approaches in this respect were the spatial closures to protect cod in the North Sea. In one example, large scale spatial closures were implemented with little success due to effort displacement to previously unfished areas (Dinmore et al., 2003), while in another small scale targeted spatiotemporal closures were considered to have some effect in reducing cod mortality without having to disrupt other fisheries significantly (Needle and Catarino, 2011). These examples emphasise the importance of considering the right scale and aggregation of data when identifying area closures and the need

to consider changing dynamics in the fisheries in response to such closures.

Our study showed that fishing rates on other populations also changed (both up and down) as a side-effect of closures to protect one species. This indicates the importance in considering fishing effort reallocation following spatial closures, and our simulation allows us to consider the spatiotemporal reasons for these changes.

5.4. Model assumptions and caveats

We model the population and fleet dynamic processes to draw inference on the importance of data scale and aggregation in understanding and managing mixed fisheries and their impact on multiple fish populations. In doing so, we have necessarily had to make a number of simplifying assumptions.

Fish populations in our simulations move in pre-defined timescales and according to fixed habitat preferences and temperature gradients (Figures S1, S3). Our assumptions in parametrising the model (movement rates, temperature tolerances) will have a direct impact on our conclusions on the relative importance of spatial and temporal processes. These assumptions could be explored in a future study by varying the parameters and assessing the robustness of our conclusions. For our example application we have chosen movement rates to reflect aggregation periods observed in past studies (Poos and Rijnsdorp, 2007b).

In addition, we have assumed that fishing vessels are not restricted by quota and therefore discarding of species for which vessels have no quota or that are unwanted is not taken into account. This is likely to be a significant source of bias in any inference using commercial data and should also be explored. For example, MixFishSim could be altered to allow for spatiotemporal appraisal of the impact of discarding on fisher behaviour and underlying populations via inclusion as discarding behaviour, or through move-on rules or cessation of fishing activity when quota is exhausted.

5.5. Future applications of MixFishSim

We consider that the increased availability of high resolution catch and locational information from commercial fisheries will require it to be a key source of data for ensuring management is implemented at the right scale in future. For example, identifying hot-spots for bycatch reduction or identifying spatial overlaps in mixed fisheries (Dolder et al., 2018; Gardner et al., 2008; Little et al., 2014; Dedman et al., 2015; Ward et al., 2015). Our simulation model has the potential to test some of the assumptions behind the modelling approaches in identifying such hotspots and indeed behind spatiotemporal modelling in general (e.g. comparing GAMs, GLMMs, Random Forests and geostatistical models under different data generation processes as exampled by Stock et al. (2019)).

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Other novel applications of our framework could be; testing different sur-547 vey designs given multiple species and data generating assumptions (Xu et al., 548 2015); commercial index standardisation methods and approaches and understanding of appropriate scales and data aggregations and non-proportionality 550 in catch rate and abundance (Harley et al., 2001; Maunder and Punt, 2004); 551 exploring assumptions about the distribution of natural mortality and fishing 552 mortality throughout the year and importance of capturing in-year dynamics 553 in estimating stock status (Liu and Heino, 2013); at sea sampling scheme designs to deliver unbiased estimates of population parameters Cotter and Pilling 555 (2007); Kimura and Somerton (2006); adaptive management (Walters, 2007; 556 Dunn et al., 2016); testing the ability of commonly employed fleet dynamics 557 models such as Random Utility Models to capture fine scale dynamics and un-558 derstand their importance Girardin et al. (2016); and as a detailed operating model in a management strategy evaluation Mahévas and Pelletier (2004). 560

6. Conclusions

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Bigger picture stuff:: LO, increasing desire for more nuanced spatiotemp
mgmt... Wider applicability: birds, wildlife??

Study shows ....

This is important because ....

How we might apply this in future ....
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Abbreviations

Detail any unusual ones used.

573 Acknowledgements

those providing help during the research..

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579 Appendices

Table 1.	Description	of wariables	for population	dynamics of	h modulo
rable i:	Describtion	or variables	тог роршалоп	ovnamics si	то-тоате

Variable	Meaning	Units					
	Population dynamics						
Delay-difference model							
$B_{c,d}$	Biomass in cell c and day d	kg					
$Z_{c,d}$	Total mortality in cell c for day d	-					
$R_{c,\tilde{y}}$	Annualy recruited fish in cell	yr^{-1}					
ho	Brody's growth coefficient	yr^{-1}					
Wt_R	Weight of a fully recruited fish	kg					
Wt_{R-1}	Weight of a pre-recruit fish	kg					
α_d	Proportion of annually recruited fish recruited during	-					
	$\mathrm{day}\ d$						
Baranov co	atch equation						
$C_{c,d}$	Catch from cell c for day d	kg					
$F_{c,d}$	Instantaneous rate of fishing mortality in cell \boldsymbol{c} on	-					
	$\mathrm{day}\ d$						
$M_{c,d}$	Instantaneous rate of natural mortality in cell \boldsymbol{c} on	-					
	$\mathrm{day}\ d$						
$B_{c,d}$	Biomass in cell c on day d	kg					
Recruitment dynamics							
$\tilde{R}_{c,d}$	is the recruitment in cell c for day d	d^{-1}					
$B_{c,d}$	is the Biomass in cell c for day d	d^{-1}					
α	the maximum recruitment rate	kg					
β	the biomass required to produce half the maximum	kg					
	rate of recruitment						

Table 2: Description of variables for population movement sub-module								
Variable	Meaning	Units						
	Population movement dynamics							
Habitat me	Habitat model							
a	b	с						
Thermal to	olerance							
$T_{c,wk}$	Temperature for cell in week	$^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$						
μ_p	Mean of the thermal tolerance for population	$^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$						
σ_p^2	Standard deviation of thermal tolerance for the pop-	$^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$						
	ulation							
Population	n movement model							
λ	decay rate for population movement	-						
$Hab_{c,p}^2$	Square of habitat suitability for cell \boldsymbol{c} and population	-						
	p							
$Tol_{c,p,wk}$	Thermal tolerance for population p in cell c at week	-						
	wk							
d_{IJ}	euclidean distance between cell I and cell J	-						

Table 3: Description of variables for fleet dynamics sub-module

Variable	Meaning	Units					
Short-term fleet dynamics							
Rev	Revenue from fishing tow	€					
L_p	Landings of population p	kg					
Pr_p	Average price of population p	$\in kg^{-1}$					
StepL	Step length for vessel	euclidean					
		distance					
Br	Bearing	degrees					
k	Concentration parameter for Von mises distribution	-					
β_1	shape parameter for step function	-					
eta_2	shape parameter for step function	-					
eta_3	shape parameter for step function	-					

Table 4: Population dynamics and movement parameter setting

Parameter	Pop 1	Pop 2	Pop 3	Pop 4
Habitat quality				
Matérn ν	1/0.015	1/0.05	1/0.01	1/0.005
Matérn κ	1	2	1	1
Anisotropy	1.5, 3, -3, 4	1,2,-1,2	2.5,1,-1,2	0.1,2,-1,0.2
Spawning areas (bound	40,50,40,50;	50,60,30,40;	30,34,10,20;	50,55,80,85;
box)	80,90,60,70	80,90,90,90	$60,\!70,\!20,\!30$	30,40,30,40
Spawning multiplier	10	10	10	10
Movement λ	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Population dynamics				
Starting Biomass	1e5	2e5	1e5	1e4
Beverton-Holt Recruit 'a'	6	27	18	0.3
Beverton-Holt Recruit 'b'	4	4	11	0.5
Beverton-Holt Recruit σ^2	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6
Recruit week	13-16	12-16	14-16	16-20
Spawn week	16-18	16-19	16-18	18-20
K	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
wt	1	1	1	1
wt_{d-1}	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
M (annual)	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1
Movement dynamics				
μ	12	15	17	14
σ^2	8	9	7	10

Table	5: Fleet dyn	amics para	meter setti	ng	
Parameter	Fleet	Fleet	Fleet	Fleet	Fleet
	1	2	3	4	5
Targeting preferences	pop	pop	-	pop 4	pop
	2/4	1/3			2/3
Price Pop1	100	100	100	100	100
Price Pop2	200	200	200	200	200
Price Pop3	350	350	350	350	350
Price Pop4	600	600	600	600	600
Q Pop1	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01
Q Pop2	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.03
Q Pop3	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.02
Q Pop4	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.05	0.01
Exploitation dynamics					
step function β_1	1	2	1	2	3
step function β_2	10	15	8	12	7
step function β_3	Q90	Q90	Q85	Q90	Q80
step function rate	20	30	25	35	20
Past Knowledge	${ m T}$	${ m T}$	${f T}$	${ m T}$	T
Past Year & Month	${ m T}$	${ m T}$	T	T	T
Past Trip	${ m T}$	Τ	Τ	T	T
Threshold	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Fuel Cost	3	2	5	2	1

Table 6: Fishing mortality effects of the closure scenarios. Results show the fishing mortality before the closure (f_before) and after the closure (f_after) and the percentage change in f (f_change). The results are ordered by most effective scenario first, least effective last.)

scenario	metric	pop	f_before	f_after	f_change	timescale	basis	data_type	resolution
9	F	spp_3	1.08	0.29	-73.47	weekly	high_pop	real_pop	1.00
10	F	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	0.29	-72.94	monthly	$high_pop$	$real_pop$	1.00
11	F	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	0.35	-68.04	yearly	$high_pop$	$real_pop$	1.00
45	F	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	0.58	-46.70	yearly	$high_pop$	commercial	20.00
1	F	spp_3	1.08	0.58	-46.21	weekly	$high_pop$	commercial	1.00
23	F	spp_3	1.08	0.59	-45.27	weekly	high_pop	real_pop	5.00
2	F	spp_3	1.08	0.59	-45.06	monthly	$high_pop$	commercial	1.00
7	F	spp_3	1.08	0.60	-44.48	yearly	$high_pop$	survey	1.00
24	F	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	0.61	-43.20	monthly	$high_pop$	$real_pop$	5.00
3	F	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	0.64	-40.82	yearly	$high_pop$	commercial	1.00
25	F	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	0.65	-39.94	yearly	$high_pop$	$real_pop$	5.00
17	F	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	0.67	-38.11	yearly	$high_pop$	commercial	5.00
15	F	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	0.71	-34.38	weekly	$high_pop$	commercial	5.00
43	F	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	0.71	-34.31	weekly	$high_pop$	commercial	20.00
16	F	spp_3	1.08	0.73	-32.58	monthly	$high_pop$	commercial	5.00
51	F	spp_3	1.08	0.78	-27.92	weekly	$high_pop$	$real_pop$	20.00
37	F	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	0.78	-27.76	weekly	$high_pop$	$real_pop$	10.00
39	F	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	0.79	-26.98	yearly	$high_pop$	$real_pop$	10.00
38	F	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	0.81	-25.47	monthly	$high_pop$	$real_pop$	10.00
21	F	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	0.81	-25.21	yearly	$high_pop$	survey	5.00
35	F	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	0.81	-25.05	yearly	$high_pop$	survey	10.00
44	F	spp_3	1.08	0.87	-19.91	monthly	$high_pop$	commercial	20.00
52	F	spp_3	1.08	0.88	-18.39	monthly	$high_pop$	$real_pop$	20.00
30	F	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	0.96	-11.06	monthly	$high_pop$	commercial	10.00
29	F	spp_3	1.08	0.98	-9.80	weekly	$high_pop$	commercial	10.00
31	\mathbf{F}	spp_3	1.08	1.03	-4.36	yearly	$high_pop$	commercial	10.00
53	\mathbf{F}	${\rm spp_3}$	1.08	1.06	-1.64	yearly	$high_pop$	$real_pop$	20.00
49	F	spp_3	1.08	1.07	-1.01	yearly	$high_pop$	survey	20.00



Figure 2: Data aggregation at different spatial resolutions over a ten year period

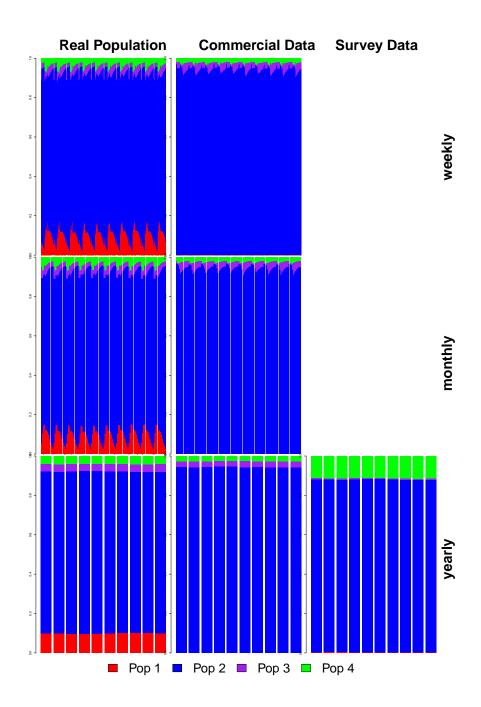


Figure 3: Data aggregation at different temporal resolutions over a ten-year period

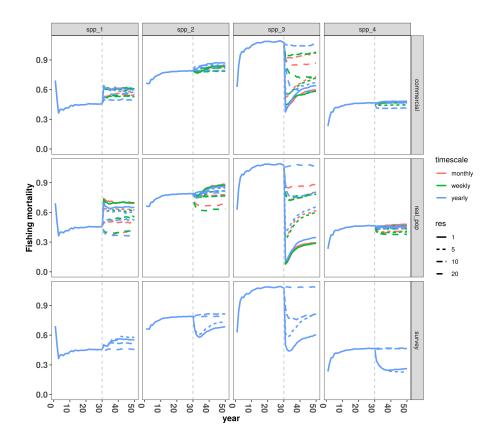


Figure 4: Comparison of closure scenarios effect on fishing mortality trends. Line colour denotes the timescale, while linestyle denotes the spatial resolution.

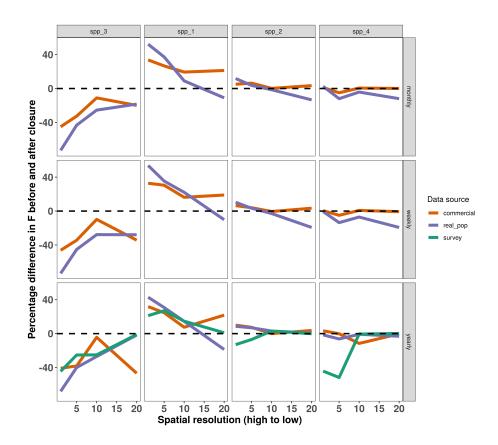


Figure 5: Comparison of closure scenario effectiveness based on different spatial and temporal resolutions.

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