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Estimating spatio-temporal distribution of fish and gear selectivity functions from pooled scientific survey and commercial fishing data

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Abstract:	<p>Model-based prediction of fish distribution at fine resolutions in space and time has the potential to inform area-based and dynamic forms of management, such as permanent marine protected areas or real-time temporary closures. A major limitation to the spatial and temporal mapping resolution that is achievable is the amount of high quality, standardised data that can be utilized for fitting statistical models. To achieve an adequate spatio-temporal resolution from sparse data, one option is pooling information from several sources, such as scientific surveys and fisheries data. Because surveys and fisheries data usually use different sampling methods, pooling information from different sources requires cross-calibration of catch rates values across multiple gears. However, the individual gear efficiency and selectivity curves (the ratio between catch and availability at a given length) for all fishing gears and species are typically unknown. Using cod (<i>Gadus morhua</i>) in the northern North Sea as a case study, we developed a new formulation of spatio-temporal generalised additive models (GAM) of relative abundance of fish, combining catch data from multiple sources. Differences in gear efficiency and selectivity were internally calibrated within the model by the estimation of the local spatio-temporal variation in abundance. We show that pooling data sources enables the prediction of multi-annual and seasonal spatial variation in cod relative abundance-at-size, at spatio-temporal resolutions that are relevant for informing fishing strategies, e.g., reducing bycatch in real-time, or management objectives, e.g., real-time closed areas. We also show that GAM models fit to catch and effort data can reveal the relative efficiency and selectivity of different survey and commercial gears. The selectivity curve estimates that emerged as a by-product of our analysis are consistent with expert knowledge of the performance of the gears employed for cod. Our analytical approach can therefore serve two useful purposes: to estimate spatio-temporal variation in relative abundance of fish and to estimate relative gear efficiency and selectivity.</p>

1 Estimating spatio-temporal distribution of fish and gear selectivity functions from pooled
2 scientific survey and commercial fishing data

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14

15 **Abstract**

16 Model-based prediction of fish distribution at fine resolutions in space and time has the
17 potential to inform area-based and dynamic forms of management, such as permanent marine
18 protected areas or real-time temporary closures. A major limitation to the spatial and temporal
19 mapping resolution that is achievable is the amount of high quality, standardised data that can
20 be utilized for fitting statistical models. To achieve an adequate spatio-temporal resolution
21 from sparse data, one option is pooling information from several sources, such as scientific
22 surveys and fisheries data. Because surveys and fisheries data usually use different sampling
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24 values across multiple gears. However, the individual gear efficiency and selectivity curves
25 (the ratio between catch and availability at a given length) for all fishing gears and species are
26 typically unknown. Using cod (*Gadus morhua*) in the northern North Sea as a case study, we
27 developed a new formulation of spatio-temporal generalised additive models (GAM) of
28 relative abundance of fish, combining catch data from multiple sources. Differences in gear
29 efficiency and selectivity were internally calibrated within the model by the estimation of the
30 local spatio-temporal variation in abundance. We show that pooling data sources enables the
31 prediction of multi-annual and seasonal spatial variation in cod relative abundance-at-size, at

32 spatio-temporal resolutions that are relevant for informing fishing strategies, e.g., reducing
33 bycatch in real-time, or management objectives, e.g., real-time closed areas. We also show
34 that GAM models fit to catch and effort data can reveal the relative efficiency and selectivity
35 of different survey and commercial gears. The selectivity curve estimates that emerged as a
36 by-product of our analysis are consistent with expert knowledge of the performance of the
37 gears employed for cod. Our analytical approach can therefore serve two useful purposes: to
38 estimate spatio-temporal variation in relative abundance of fish and to estimate relative gear
39 efficiency and selectivity.

40

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42

43 **1. Introduction**

44 High resolution descriptive modelling of the distribution of harvested fish populations in time
45 and space has been the focus of considerable research interest in recent years (e.g. [Maunder et al., 2020](#);
46 [Pinto et al., 2019](#); [Stock et al., 2018](#); [Thorson et al., 2020](#)). Understanding the relative
47 contribution of spatial and temporal components in fish distribution has direct implications for
48 implementing spatially-explicit management objectives, particularly avoiding unwanted or
49 bycatch species. Statistical models that incorporate space, time and other covariates are
50 inherently complex but advances in computational implementation has made fitting these
51 models more feasible. One of the most popular statistical approaches for modelling spatio-
52 temporal dynamics in fish populations are the generalised additive models (GAMs, [Hastie and
53 Tibshirani, 1990](#); [Wood, 2006](#)). The popularity of GAMs is due to: 1) flexibility in the non-
54 linear relationship between response and explanatory variables using smoothing techniques;
55 and 2) the range of error distributions to model the response variable. GAMs allow a
56 straightforward estimation of spatio-temporal components through bi-variate smooth functions
57 for two geographical coordinates (longitude and latitude) and time can similarly enter as
58 smooth, or fixed or random factor terms (e.g. [Jaureguizar et al., 2016](#); [San Martín et al., 2013](#)).
59 GAMs are also computationally efficient for managing datasets that are large but
60 heterogeneous (in space or time) over broad geographical areas, as is often the case for data
61 obtained from research vessel surveys and the fishing industry.

62 Recent spatio-temporal models developed for commercial fish populations have often focused
63 on resolving the distributions of unwanted components of the catch, either undersized fish or
64 non-targeted species which are potential bycatch (e.g. [Cosandey-Godin et al., 2014](#); [Rezende
65 et al., 2019](#)). Unwanted bycatch and discards have been serious concerns globally, posing a
66 threat to the sustainability of fisheries through economic, biological and ecological losses
67 ([Komoroske and Lewison, 2015](#)). Beginning in 2015, a discard ban known as the Landing
68 Obligation has been imposed by the Common Fisheries Policy on commercial fishing
69 operating in European waters. The Landing Obligation requires all catches of regulated
70 commercial species on-board to be landed and counted against quota. The Landing Obligation
71 effectively incentivised the fishing industry to avoid catching unwanted species or size classes
72 given that a single, “lightning strike” haul that exhausts the available quota for that target
73 species can potentially result in that vessel being tied up if there was no further quota available
74 to the vessel for the unwanted catch. Incentivising bycatch avoidance has future potential to
75 changing attitudes of skippers towards sharing catch data and behaviors of skippers with
76 respect to the use of spatio-temporal information, for example maps of bycatch hotspots (e.g.
77 [Merrifield et al., 2019](#)).

78 The data used to develop spatio-temporal models are usually obtained from research vessel
79 surveys which are conducted at fixed time intervals and utilize a statistical survey design
80 intended to produce unbiased estimators of abundance. An alternative source of data
81 describing commercial fish populations is generated by fishing vessels, normally collected for
82 compliance purposes. Combining both data sources together presents several advantages and
83 disadvantages for modelling fish distribution. Commercial fishing data are a rich source of
84 highly resolved spatio-temporal sampling of fish distributions, however, these data are
85 associated with challenging statistical features including a high proportion of zero
86 observations ([Kai et al., 2016](#); [Maunder et al., 2020](#)), non-random spatial sampling (bias)
87 ([Conn et al., 2017](#); [Diggle et al., 2010](#); [Pennino et al., 2019](#)) and temporal correlation ([Ciannelli
88 et al., 2008](#); [Cosandey-Godin et al., 2014](#)). Survey data have several advantages over
89 commercial data because sampling location is determined independently of local abundance
90 using an underlying statistical design, e.g. stratified random sampling, and consistent methods
91 are applied over decadal time scales. However, the relatively low intensity of survey data limits
92 the spatio-temporal resolution of predictions. Recent advances in spatio-temporal modelling
93 have combined data from commercial fishing and survey sources ([Pinto et al., 2019](#)),
94 enhancing spatio-temporal coverage and resolution, and resulting in improving the analysis

95 and understanding of population dynamics. Nevertheless, pooling data from several sources,
96 is challenging because requires cross-calibration of catches rates across multiple gears.
97 However, selectivity curves for individual gears (the ratio between catch and availability at a
98 given length) are typically unknown, since availability at the time and location of the fishing
99 operation is not directly observable, and gear efficiency experiments are relatively expensive
100 and difficult to perform.

101 The clustered nature of fish distribution in space and time (Swartzman et al., 1992) results in
102 localised areas of high abundance or “hotspots” which limits the ability of fishers to manage
103 their portfolio of quotas for different species (Bailey et al., 2010). This clustering also adds to
104 the challenge of developing predictive models that are sufficiently resolved and reliable to be
105 used to inform tactical decisions at sea. The development of such models will aid manage
106 unwanted species of size-classes in the catch. Recently, Pinto et al., 2019 proposed a spatial
107 model to predict occurrence (presence/absence) of data-limited species by combining surveys
108 and commercial fishing data.

109 The underpinning rationale in the Pinto et al., 2019 approach is to reduce heterogeneity in
110 catchability to a point where it should not affect the resulting inference. This was done by
111 reducing the information to only presence/absence of the species, and by selecting a relatively
112 homogenous subset of the data (based on mesh size). Drawbacks of the approach include the
113 loss of information on stock abundance and size structure due to conversion to
114 presence/absence, and the limited ability to integrate data sources with heterogeneous catch
115 effort and catchability. Furthermore, modelling bycatch so as to be sensitive to the size
116 structure of the stock (e.g., to predict local abundance of juveniles) brings an extra complexity
117 when combining datasets, because size-selectivity of different fishing gears needs to be
118 accommodated into the modelling approach.

119 Selectivity refers to the probability of catching to availability at different age/sizes. The term
120 selectivity is known as direct, if the population age/size structure is known (estimated) as is
121 the case of selectivity resulting from the application of an integrated stock assessment model
122 (Quinn and Deriso, 1999). On the other hand, experimental selectivity usually is indirectly
123 estimated by comparing catches from different variants of the same fishing gear (Millar, 1992).
124 For example, indirect selectivity studies in trawling are based on the covered codend method,
125 where a small mesh cover is attached to the outside of the codend to retain most of the fish
126 that pass through the codend mesh (Madsen and Holst, 2002). Another experimental method

127 is the trouser trawl which consists of a net with two codends, each one constructed from a
128 different size and/or shape of mesh (Cadigan and Millar, 1992). Although commonly
129 undertaken by gear technologists several decades ago, indirect experiments to estimate
130 selectivity are expensive because they require specially designed surveys and modifications of
131 the routinely used commercial fishing gear. Millar, 1992 proposed an alternative statistical
132 method to estimate indirect selectivity from size structures retained in the total catches in
133 fisheries in which variants of the same fishing gears (e.g. different types of trawling nets) are
134 operating simultaneously in the fishing area, without the requirement of a covered codend
135 design. Millar's method of statistical inference relies on estimating the parameters of
136 predetermined selectivity at length functions, using generalised linear models to estimate the
137 probability of being caught by a fishing gear.

138 Using cod (*Gadus morhua*) in the Northern North Sea as a case study, we develop a new
139 spatio-temporal GAM of fish relative abundance combining survey and commercial fishing
140 data to explore the potential of high-resolution distribution models as bycatch reductions tools.
141 Our model-based approach to gear selectivity calibration has conceptual similarities with that
142 of Millar, 1992, but draws on the opportunities that GAMs provide to estimate catch per unit
143 effort, by jointly modelling the selectivity function of each fishing gear and the spatio-temporal
144 variation in availability. Through internal cross-calibration of observations per unit effort for
145 different sources of data, our model is capable of: 1- estimating high-resolution spatio-
146 temporal trends of cod abundance across length classes, distinguishing repeatable from
147 stochastic components of distribution between and within years/seasons, and 2- approximate
148 the relative efficiency and selectivity of survey and commercial fishing gears, without the need
149 for costly paired gear experiments.

150

151 **2. Material and Methods**

152 Study Area

153 The full application of the Landing Obligation in 2019 created a strong incentive for
154 developing effective bycatch avoidance strategies to reduce the probability of catching either
155 choke species or undersized fish that must be counted against the quota but cannot be sold
156 (Needle et al., 2015). In Scotland, there is previous experience with using spatially resolved
157 catch data to reduce catch of juvenile cod in the North Sea (Kraak et al., 2013). For a limited
158 number of years real-time closures were established and had a good level of compliance

159 (Holmes et al., 2009; Little et al., 2015; Needle and Catarino, 2011). Currently, there is
160 renewed interest in applying spatial management measures to conserve North Sea cod (C.
161 Needle, Marine Scotland Science, personal comm.) which would benefit from combining
162 different sources of data to identify spatial hotspots of unwanted catches (Marshall et al.,
163 2017).

164

165 Survey Data.

166 The North Sea International Bottom Trawl-survey (NS-IBTS) is a demersal trawl survey
167 conducted twice a year (quarter 1 & 3) since 1997 and coordinated by the *International*
168 *Council for the Exploration of the Sea* (ICES). The NS-IBTS is a multispecies survey with
169 standardised data sampling and processing design and provide data for estimation of relative
170 abundances for fish species in an area within 51⁰-62⁰ N latitude and 4⁰W -9⁰E longitude and
171 depths shallower than 300 m (Fig.1). Participating countries use a standardised trawl gear for
172 data collection. The survey area is sampled following a stratified sampling design based on
173 ICES statistical rectangles of approximately 60x30 nautical miles (1-degree longitude x 0.5-
174 degree latitude). Each country is allocated a certain number of rectangles to sample and
175 surveys are organised so that each rectangle has at least two hauls sampled by two different
176 countries (ICES, 2015). Information available for each haul includes georeferenced
177 starting/finishing trawling (latitude and longitude), date, count of cod caught per length class
178 to the nearest centimeter and additional information such as trawling depth in meters (ICES,
179 2015). In terms of the Landings Obligation, juvenile cod were defined as individuals < 35 cm
180 of total length. In this study, we used cod count data from 2011-2015 downloaded from
181 ICES (https://datras.ices.dk/Data_products/Download/Download_Data_public.aspx; access
182 date: April 2017) which summed up to a total of 2,462 hauls uniformly distributed throughout
183 the North Sea (Fig.1). Fishing effort was 0.5 hours for 99.78% of hauls. For the remaining
184 0.22% of hauls, the raw counts were standardized to 0.5 hours (a legacy of preliminary
185 analyses)

186

187 Commercial Fishing data

188 The commercial catch data were obtained from the discard monitoring programs conducted by
189 Marine Scotland Science (MSS) and Scottish Fishermen's Federation (SFF). A common

190 sampling protocol is used by onboard scientific observers in both programs. The MSS and SFF
191 programs select vessels to carry observers using a stratified random sampling design by area,
192 gear, and quarter within each year (Jermyn and Robb, 1981). The data collected for each haul
193 includes count of a sample of cod by length-class to the nearest centimeter, trawl duration,
194 depth of trawling, and information regarding operational characteristics such as gear type or
195 mesh size. The total number of individuals at length is then scaled-up to the total amount of
196 catch per hauls. Effort is predefined as trawling time.

197 Commercial fishing data available for research purposes were anonymised to protect
198 confidentiality. Although the MSS/SFF observer program covers a wider area than the NS-
199 IBTS survey, only data for the North Sea (55° - 61° N latitude & 5° - 7° W longitude) between
200 2011-2015 were available for the analysis (Fig.1). Total data used from commercial fishing
201 represented 3,585 hauls covering all quarters, in depths shallower than 200m and included
202 multiple fishing fleets targeting different species using nine different trawl-type gears. These
203 fishing gears are coded as: Seine net (SEN), Light trawl (LTR), Multiple trawl heavy (MTH),
204 Multiple trawl demersal (MTD), Multiple trawl nephrops (MTN), Pair trawl demersal (PTD),
205 Industrial Trawl (ITR), Nephrops trawl single (NTR) and Single trawl demersal (MTR).

206

207 Statistical model

208 The number of cod at length was modelled with a generalised additive model with mixed-
209 effects (GAMs, Hastie and Tibshirani, 1990; Wood, 2006). The proposed model used smooth
210 functions of geographic location, lengths, fishing gear and temporal attributes (month, year)
211 and vessels as random effect. A general form is given by the following expression:

212

$$213 E[Y]=g^{-1}[F + \beta_0 + \sum_i s_i(X_i) + \mathbf{Z}u] \quad (1)$$

214

215 where $E[Y]$ is the expected catch of fish at length, g is the link function which defines the
216 relationship between the response and the linear predictor $[F + \beta_0 + \sum_i s_i(X_i) + \mathbf{Z}u]$. β_0 is
217 the intercept, F is an offset (variable with fixed coefficient 1), X_k corresponds to the k -th
218 covariate and $s_k(\circ)$ is a smooth function of the k -th variable, with a shape to be estimated
219 from the data. \mathbf{Z} is the design matrix for the random effect u .

220

221 The specific model we propose to model cod catch accounts for fixed, random effects and
 222 interactions as follows:

$$223 \ln(Y) = F + \beta_0 + ti_1(E, N, M, L) + ti_2(D, M, L) + ti_3(D, L) + ti_4(M, L) + ti_5(M) + \\
 224 ti_6(D) + s_{1,g}(L) + u_v + \beta_{1,y} + \beta_{2,g} \quad (2)$$

225

226 Where $ti(\circ)$ define a smooth tensor product interaction applied to the variables month (M),
 227 length class (L), depth (D), longitude/eastings (E), latitude/northings (N). $ti(\circ)$ terms used a
 228 combination of thin plate regression splines (tp) for depth and length class, thin plate
 229 regression splines with smoothing penalties (ts) for longitude and latitude and cyclic cubic
 230 regression spline (cc) (i.e. a penalized cubic regression splines whose ends match) for month.
 231 tp splines were selected among other options for being considered the optimal default spline
 232 for any given dimension/rank (Wood, 2006). ti_1 accounts for the spatio-temporal distribution
 233 of fish, assuming continuous variation across length classes. Thus, the model assumes that
 234 hauls that are close in space and time will have more similar counts of cod at length class than
 235 those that are widely separated. ti_2 defines the pattern of depth use varying continuously with
 236 fish length class. ti_3 , ti_4 , ti_5 and ti_6 are the nested interactions and main effects of t_1 and t_2 and
 237 are designed to be orthogonal (Wood 2017). $s_{1,g}(\circ)$ is tp smooth term of length class for each
 238 fishing gear (g) to capture the length-specific gear selectivity. u_v is a normal random effect
 239 of individual vessel (v) with mean zero and variance σ_v^2 , and $\beta_{1,y}$ and $\beta_{2,g}$ are fixed
 240 effects of year (y) and gear (g) respectively, allowing to account for correlation within groups
 241 (Candy, 2004).

242 Coming back to the more general model formulation in Eq 1, using a natural log-link function,
 243 and defining F as the natural log of sampling effort, and including the gear effect, we specify
 244 the model:

$$245 \ln(Y) = \ln(effort_g) + \beta_0 + \sum_i s_i(X_i) + Zu + \beta_{2,g} + s_{1,g}(L) \quad (3)$$

246 which can be re-written as:

$$247 \frac{Y}{effort_g} = e^{\beta_0 + \sum_i s_i(X_i) + Zu + \beta_{2,g} + s_{1,g}(L)} \quad (4)$$

248 Showing the classical log-link model formulation with log-effort as an offset, in which
 249 coefficients can be interpreted as the multiplicative effect of predictors on catch per unit effort

250 (CPUE) (Candy, 2004). In our case a unit effort in one gear type may not be equivalent in
251 CPUE to a unit effort in another gear type. For example, for a given trawling time, a seine and
252 a bottom trawl net are unlikely to yield the same catch due to operational characteristics (in
253 fact in the general case, effort may not even be measured in the same currency for all gear
254 types, with efforts sometimes being described by area covered, or duration or their
255 combination). This leads to a potential difficulty of interpretation of the model.

256 However, re-parametrization of the gear effects $\beta_{2,g} + s_{1,g}(L)$ yields:

$$257 \frac{Y}{e^{\beta_{2,g} + s_{1,g}(L)} \times effort_g} = e^{\beta_0 + \sum_i s_i(X_i) + Zu} \quad (5)$$

258 in which it can be seen that the linear predictor of relative abundance is independent of gear,
259 and the combined gear effects $e^{\beta_{2,g} + s_{1,g}(L)}$ estimate the gear-specific effort adjustment factor
260 for a given fish length. This gear term therefore represents the relative selectivity of survey
261 and commercial fishing gears, and their efficiency relative to the reference gear (here
262 arbitrarily defined as the survey gear).

263 Several options exist for modelling the distributions of count data, including the Poisson or
264 negative binomial, since all these distributions bound the predictions down to zero. In line with
265 the expectation for schooling fish species, preliminary examination of residual plots indicated
266 significant over-dispersion ($\frac{Residual\ deviance}{n-p(df)} > 1$) compared to the expectation from a Poisson
267 distribution, and the negative binomial was chosen.

268 Components of the model in Eqn (2) were chosen to represent the length-specific seasonal
269 variation in the spatial distribution of fish at length which is the primary focus of the study,
270 alongside variation due to vessel and gear reflecting important sampling design features. We
271 used AIC to compare two models with and without the vessel random effect, to evaluate its
272 importance. Models were fitted using Restricted Maximum Likelihood estimation (REML).
273 Other terms in the model were core to the aims of the study and were not subjected to selection.

274 The optimal shape and degree of smoothing for the non-linear terms was automatically
275 estimated from the data as part of the model fitting procedure using the REML method
276 implemented in the ‘gam’ function (Wood, 2006). Correct specification of the number of knots
277 for each smoothing term was checked after initial model fitting following the protocol
278 described in Wood, 2006. Trials to increase the number of knots in smoothing terms resulted
279 in a significant intensification of computational power and convergence fails (approximately

280 12 hours of computing time with default settings, in a 6th Gen Intel Skylake Core i7-6700HQ
281 256GB SSD, 16GB RAM processor type for a total of 134,221 fishing operations and 192
282 knots for t_{ij}). The goodness-of-fit was visually assessed using residuals and fitted values
283 versus observed values and model covariates to explore heterogeneity and independence
284 assumptions (Supplementary materials; Fig.1).

285 Predictions from the model were computed on a grid with a total of 2,141 cells, each
286 representing 1/16 of an ICES statistical rectangle. Cod length was grouped in 2cm bins to
287 reduce computational requirements. For each haul, zeros were included when no cod was
288 captured in a given size class. For visualization purposes, lengths classes were further grouped
289 in 10 cm bins. Thus, model predictions represent the average counts of cod in 10 cm groups
290 within each grid cell for a given year/month and by a specific fishing gear. Average depth
291 within each grid cell was used for model predictions. Bathymetry data was downloaded from
292 General Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans
293 (http://www.gebco.net/data_and_products/gridded_bathymetry_data/; access date: April
294 2017). Coordinates of the center of each grid cell were used as latitude and longitude predictors.

295 To understand the contribution of each data source in model inference and emphasize the
296 benefits of data pooling, a second model excluding the survey data was implemented using
297 Eq.2. Predictions of both models, with and without scientific data were then computed, using
298 the grid described above, to assess the correlation of the predictions between both data sources.
299 As we suspect the quality of the available data is strongly affected by the different strata of
300 our model, predictions were compared in four months and five different length classes.

301 All analyses were conducted using R (R Core Team, 2021), and code is available at
302 <https://github.com/gfmg/Spatiotemporal-Cod>

303

304 3. Results

305 A comparison of the two models in Table 1 indicated that the vessel effect is relevant, as it
306 considerably lowered the value of AIC. All the smoothing components of the model were
307 found to have a significant effect ($p < 0.05$, Table 2). Other terms in the model, such as gear
308 effects, relate to the model or study design and had to be included irrespective of their
309 statistical significance. Their statistical significance is irrelevant to the objectives of this study
310 but were reported (along with confidence intervals) in the interest of illustrating some of the

311 features of the data and of the corresponding estimates. Fixed year effects were all different
312 from 2011, except for year 2013. While the reality of differences in catch efficiency across the
313 variety of gears studied is unquestionable (and not part of the research questions of interest for
314 the present study), differences between scientific (“GOV”) and commercial gears (all others)
315 in mean efficiency across all lengths were not significant ($p>0.05$, [Table 2](#)), reflecting the
316 limited precision of the estimates relative to the size of the true differences. The model
317 performed well, with a total explained deviance of 60.8% and a coefficient of determination
318 R^2 between log-observed and log-predicted values of 0.371 ([Table 2](#), [Supplementary Materials](#);
319 [Fig.2](#)).

320 [Figure 2](#) provides an indication of the amount of spatio-temporal overlap between the
321 deployments of different gears, which is key to enabling the estimation of relative gear
322 efficiencies in the model. Thanks to an extensive spatial coverage in two quarters of the year,
323 the IBTS scientific survey has a good volume overlap with most commercial gears. One
324 commercial gear (MTR) overlapped with a large proportion of other gears, whereas other pairs
325 of commercial gears ranged from a strong spatio-temporal overlap to an almost complete
326 segregation.

327 Our analysis confirms that the data contain sufficient information to estimate relative gear-
328 specific selectivity at length, as indicated by the significant non-linear effect of length on catch
329 rates per unit effort, for all gear types. The smooth selectivity functions in [Figure 3](#) showed
330 different patterns across fishing gears, with uncertainty increasing for lengths smaller than 10
331 cm, as expected given the high escape rate and resulting usual lower sample size for small fish.
332 Most gears show an asymptotic behavior after 30 cm, except for MTD, MTN and NTR where
333 a decrease in the effectivity of the fishing gear to catch these size classes is suggested ([Fig. 3](#)).
334 Comparison across fishing gears show a broadly similar pattern among them, except for GOV
335 and ITR ([Fig 3](#)). GOV (survey) gear is the least selective gear for fish <30 cm, due to the
336 attachment of a codend in survey nets. Among commercial vessels, ITR, MTD, PTD and SEN
337 gears tend to be more effective at excluding fish <30cm. In particular, ITR gear shows
338 considerably high selectivity against fish <30cm.

339 [Figure 4](#) illustrates the marginal main effects of months (ti_5 in Eq 2), depth (ti_6) and years on
340 CPUE of juvenile fish. The marginal effect of month showed a peak between July and August.
341 Afterward, between September and February CPUE of cod decreased with a minimum found
342 during March-April. Higher relative abundances of cod were found at depths between 50 and

343 100 m with low numbers of data and higher levels of uncertainty beyond 150 m (Fig. 4).
344 Overall cod relative abundance was maximal in 2015 and 2014 and lowest in 2012 (Fig. 4).

345 In order to evaluate variation in the effects of depth across months and lengths, we used the
346 sum of marginal predictions of terms ' ti_2 ', ' ti_3 ' and ' ti_6 ' in Eqn 2. Standardised marginal effect
347 of depth across months and lengths is presented in Figure 5, where a clear separation is found
348 between fish below and above a length of 25 cm. Fish smaller than 25cm are generally found
349 in shallower depths. A general pattern can be observed in autumn/winter months (November
350 to March) when most of fish < 25 cm appear at depths ranging from 80 to 10 m. On the other
351 hand, during late spring and summer months (May-August) the separation of pattern moves
352 around 35 cm with an increase of length with depth, with the majority of fish larger than 40
353 cm are in depth of around 150 m. Fish below 10cm were only found during July, August and
354 September at very shallow depths below 50m. Conclusions from other periods of the year
355 cannot be drawn for these smaller fish as few of these sizes classes are present in the data.

356 Model predictions of cod abundance on the log scale for 10 cm length intervals are shown in
357 Figure 6 for February, May, August and November. The proposed model captured clear
358 differences in the spatial distribution of CPUE across length strata and time of year. Markedly
359 different distribution patterns were found for cod under and above the 20-30cm length stratum
360 (Fig. 6), reinforcing evidence for a bimodal spatial behavior of cod, with a split around a length
361 of 25 cm, previously described in Figure 5. Likewise, differences were found among months
362 in which February and May were characterized by the lack of 0-10 cm (0-group) cod. During
363 these months the model also predicted a hotspot near the southeast limit of the study area,
364 while the distribution of higher length classes (20-30, 30-40 & 40-50 cm) appeared more
365 homogeneously distributed in northern zones, yet changing seasonally (Fig. 6). Depth was an
366 important predictor of the relative abundance of cod. For example, smaller fish (<20 cm) were
367 found closer to the coastline, while larger fish were located in deeper waters matching the
368 bathymetry contours of -50 and -100m depth (Fig.6). Results indicated that the model was able
369 to capture both large and small scale patterns of relative abundance distribution of specific
370 lengths of cod, in each month of the year.

371 Figure 7 shows predictions of models fitted with and without the scientific survey data, across
372 four different months and five different length classes. The plots show two contrasting
373 behaviors. For the larger length classes of fish (30-50 cm) there was a good correlation between
374 both models, whereas the smallest fish (10 cm) showed a strong divergence, with high

375 predicted values in the model fitted with only the commercial data. The 20 cm fish show a
376 transition pattern between the two behaviors described above, with good correlation between
377 the model predictions only in February and May, months where the IBTS survey occurs (Feb)
378 or where commercial gears tend to catch these size classes.

379

380 4. Discussion

381 We proposed a modelling approach which combines commercial fishing and survey data to
382 predict the spatio-temporal distribution of cod. One of the main strengths of this approach is
383 the ability to combine information about catch rates coming from gears with different
384 selectivities. Such combination of information is achieved by implementing an additive model
385 structure where heterogeneity caused by factors affecting catch rates were incorporated into a
386 model via fixed or random effects. Combining information from different sources is firmly
387 rooted in fisheries sciences, particularly in the area of integrated stock assessment modelling
388 (Maunder and Punt, 2013). However, when dealing with spatial and temporal modelling the
389 combination of data sources is less common because heterogeneity across fishing methods (i.e.
390 commercial fishing vs surveys) needs to be incorporated into the modelling approach.
391 Recently, Pinto et al., 2019 combined survey and commercial fishing data to model the spatio-
392 temporal dynamics with application to data-limited fisheries. The model in Pinto et al., 2019,
393 is based only on presence/absence of fish in space and the critical assumption is that variability
394 in selectivity and catchability across sampling methods is negligible in informing the
395 presence/absence of fish. In other words, if the studied fish species is present in the area, any
396 of the sampling methods should be able to detect it with the same probability. Our modelling
397 framework follows a similar philosophy as the analysis in Pinto et al., 2019, in the sense that
398 all sampling methods (different fishing gears) can detect cod. However, in our case gear
399 efficiency needs to be accounted to accommodate differences in catch rates among gears, and
400 because we aim to model sizes, we made extra allowance for differential selectivity of different
401 fishing gears into the model. We incorporated length effect differences between sampling
402 methods using spline-based models which proved to be a flexible framework to accommodate
403 differences in gear selectivity. The shape of these selectivities estimated within the model
404 broadly agreed with expert knowledge for cod in the North Sea (B. O'Neill, Marine Scotland
405 Science, personal comm).

406 In our study we expect sampling bias by commercial fishers to be reduced by their limited
407 ability to trigger a fishing operation following detection of demersal fish, but also due to our
408 focus on undersized fish which are not directly targeted by the fleets (although some degree
409 of active avoidance may occur). The model approach further makes estimates more robust to
410 spatially-biased sampling effort. Indeed, the use of flexible smoothing splines serves the same
411 function as the spatial random fields in [Pinto et al., 2019](#), making the estimation of model
412 parameters more local spatially and temporally. Intuitively, a more local estimation means a
413 higher reliance on a smaller pool of local data, and a lesser influence of more distant and
414 potentially over-sampled areas of low or high fish abundance (depending on the nature of the
415 sampling bias). Nevertheless, model estimation benefits hugely from highly resolved
416 commercial data being complemented by systematic surveys, to fill potential data gaps
417 particularly in the size classes of fish that are not targeted by commercial gears, as the
418 comparison of predictions after excluding the scientific sources suggests. Bias in the
419 abundance estimates due to non-random sampling by the commercial fleet may not always be
420 possible to eliminate effectively, particularly where sampling is very heavily biased towards
421 high fish densities, as would be the case in pelagic detect-and-catch fisheries without
422 complementary survey data. In this case, jointly modelling the sampling process and
423 abundance may be required ([Conn et al., 2017](#); [Diggle et al., 2010](#); [Pennino et al., 2019](#)).

424 Due to their extensive spatial coverage, survey data also ensured a consistent spatio-temporal
425 overlap with most other sources of data, and thus played an important role in enabling the
426 cross-calibration of CPUE between gears. Although in the case of the North Sea cod, dropping
427 the survey data generated some noise in the estimates, there was still enough information in
428 the commercial data alone for the model to perform well ([Fig 7](#)), thanks to the partial overlap
429 between pairs of commercial gears, despite none of them covering the entire study area ([Fig.](#)
430 [2 and Supplementary materials](#)).

431 Our model estimates reveal important aspects of the biology and life cycle of North Sea cod,
432 including the size-specific bathymetric preferences and seasonal changes in distribution. In the
433 North Sea, cod spawning occurs between February and April, while larvae settling during the
434 late summer/ autumn months ([Brander, 2005](#)). The increase in relative abundance for cod
435 between 0-10cm predicted by the model during the August/November months in the shallower
436 South-Eastern limit of the North Sea and coastal areas of Scotland, agrees with previously
437 reported nursery grounds ([Brander, 2005](#); [Fox et al., 2008](#); [Lelièvre et al., 2014](#)). Larger size
438 classes of cod are known to appear in deeper waters and broadly geographically distributed

439 throughout the North Sea. In addition, our model shows a clear pattern of sizes and depth in
440 which cod smaller than 25 cm rarely appearing beyond 100 m of depth. This is consistent with
441 [Neat et al., 2006](#), who reported that cod generally stayed deeper during winter/spring from
442 mark-recapture experiments. Our results describing the distribution of very small fish (<10 cm)
443 should be interpreted with caution due to the limited sample sizes. However, results of
444 distribution of smaller size classes can be seen as suggesting the behaviours of smaller fish
445 which should be considered when designing nursery areas or closed areas for fisheries
446 management purposes.

447 A major strength of the modelling framework is to combine commercial and survey data,
448 accommodating high resolution variations of cod at length, season, depth, space and fishing
449 gear. High spatio-temporal resolution is enabled by combining interaction smoothing terms
450 giving account of the space (latitude, longitude), depth, month effects, using a (very) large
451 number of knots, with the achieved resolution being determined statistically by the amount of
452 data available locally and/or practically by increasing computational costs. The modelling of
453 a fine scale spatial pattern in many cases will prove more useful for the fishing fleet in terms
454 of fishing suitability maps. In fisheries with large amount of bycatch, the location of areas that
455 are temporarily closed to fishing in order to avoid unwanted catch is determined empirically
456 from real-time data provided by fishing vessels and shared among other members of the fleet
457 ([Little et al., 2015](#)). Several examples worldwide have shown successful outcomes as the finer
458 spatial and temporal scale of this approach better addresses fisheries management issues (e.g.
459 [Bailey et al., 2010](#); [Cosandey-Godin et al., 2014](#)). Compared to richer mechanistic population
460 models (e.g. [Kristensen et al., 2014](#)), the high resolution, simplicity and computational speed
461 of our descriptive modelling method mean that it has potential for informing spatial fisheries
462 management in near-real time.

463 The proposed approach aims at modelling spatio-temporal variation in fish relative abundance
464 across size classes and could aid fisheries managers to tackle bycatch problems or inform
465 marine spatial planning. Moreover, recent advances in CPUE standardization have recognized
466 the importance of explicitly including spatio-temporal correlation in catch rates (e.g. [Grüss et al., 2019](#);
467 [Maunder et al., 2020](#); [Thorson, 2019](#); [Zhou et al., 2019](#)). We suggest that our spatio-
468 temporal modelling approach may be used for CPUE standardization, adding the ability to
469 standardize CPUE across multiple commercial or scientific gears at once. Indeed, abundance
470 or recruitment indices may be derived by integrating our model predictions over areas and
471 length classes of interest, for example in the context of integrated stock assessment. In doing

472 so, practitioners should pay attention to selecting an appropriate time of the year as a reference.
473 Where a biomass index is required, weight-at-length relationship may be used for conversion,
474 although it could be advantageous to directly model the log-biomass of the catch in place of
475 fish count, when fitting the model.

476 An emergent property of the proposed model, not formally noted in previous investigations of
477 cross-calibration studies (e.g. [Punt et al., 2000](#)), is the potential for generating selectivity
478 curves from different fishing gears from routine commercial and observational data. This can
479 be seen as a by-product of the spatial model, because these selectivity curves are needed to
480 accommodate differences between fishing gear efficiencies into the modelling approach.
481 Our approach to estimating selectivity functions within the model has some similarities with
482 that of [Millar, 1992](#). In this study, Millar used generalised linear models to estimate the
483 parameters of predetermined selectivity at length functions, using the contrast between the size
484 structures retained in two fishing gears operating experimentally in close proximity. The
485 greater flexibility of GAMs allows us to relax two major constraints of Millar's method. First,
486 smoothing splines of fish size effects remove the need to assume a parametric form of the
487 selectivity function. Second, the smooth spatio-temporal terms effectively act as a soft
488 statistical pairing device, performing "on the fly" matching of fishing operations with different
489 gear types based on spatio-temporal proximity. The approach therefore relies on having partial
490 spatial and temporal mixing of different sampling gears, as was the case in the North Sea cod
491 data. It draws on a similar idea as [Punt et al., 2000](#), but introducing size-dependence of relative
492 catch efficiency, allowing arbitrary catch effort currencies, and relaxing reliance on pre-
493 defined arbitrary regions. The method appears to work well in a data-rich context like the
494 North-Sea cod, producing results consistent with the empirical knowledge of the stock and of
495 the gears in use. It is unclear yet the extent to which reducing the resolution of the spatio-
496 temporal trends in the model would lower the precision of relative gear efficiency estimates,
497 for example in the case of more data-poor species. Simulation studies and further application
498 of the proposed method would be required in this regard, but earlier work by [Punt et al., 2000](#)
499 suggests that much coarser spatial resolutions would still afford useful estimates. More
500 generally, empirical and simulation studies would also be useful to better understand factors
501 affecting the accuracy of the relative abundance estimates, including the use of more
502 environmental predictors, and the levels of spatio-temporal overlap between gears that are
503 likely to be sufficient for effective CPUE cross-calibration. Our statistical method for jointly
504 estimating spatio-temporal fish distributions and relative selectivity of any number and type

505 of gears is promising, because the shape of the selectivity is usually unknown in most fisheries.
506 It synthesises and considerably generalises previous methods by [Millar, 1992](#); [Punt et al., 2000](#),
507 and [Pinto et al., 2019](#), by providing a flexible and generic approach to estimating indirect
508 selectivity without the need to undertake costly gear research.

509

510

511 **5. Credit authorship contribution statement**

512

513 **Guillermo Martin Gonzalez:** concept, coding, writing original draft, visualisation and
514 editing. **Rodrigo Wiff:** concept, coding, writing original draft, editing. **C. Tara Marshall:**
515 concept, draft preparation, project administrator, funding acquisition, editing. **Thomas**
516 **Cornulier:** concept, model design, draft preparation, funding acquisition, editing.

517

518

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660

661

662 CAPTIONS

663 **Table 1:** Model selection, effective degrees of freedom, and AIC value.

664

665 **Table 2:** model estimate, standard error (Std.error), effective degree of freedom (edf), value
666 of Chi square statistic (Chi.sq) and p-values for fixed and smooth terms in model m01.

667

668 **Figure 1:** North Sea study area for the GAM model with locations of hauls between 2011-
669 2015 for observer data (grey triangles) and NS-IBTS survey data (black circles).

670

671 **Figure 2:** Overlap between the spatio-temporal distributions of gears in the North Sea cod
672 data, on a [0-1] scale (left panel). Overlap was approximated using the default parameters in
673 the R package “hypervolume”. The panels on the right show examples of calculated spatio-
674 temporal volumes around the data for four pairs of gears, including the IBTS survey (“GOV”).
675 Hypervolumes are materialized by random points within each hypervolume (raw data not

676 shown). The 3 axes are: scaled latitude (bottom to top, "ShootLat.sc"); scaled longitude (back
677 to front-right, "ShootLon.sc") and scaled time of year (right to left, "J.day.sc")

678

679 **Figure 3:** Relative gear selectivity marginal effects according to linear predictor for m01 with
680 95% confident intervals for: a) GOV; b) ITR; c) LTR; d) MTD; e) MTH; f) MTN; g) MTR; h)
681 NTR; i) PTD; j) SEN and k) showing comparison between different relative gear selectivity
682 functions.

683

684 **Figure 4:** Marginal cod abundance smooth effects from m01 for a) Month; b) Depth and c)
685 marginal cod abundance fixed effect for Year. The covariates are centered, i.e., zero
686 corresponds to the mean of the covariate. Shade around smoother corresponds to 95%
687 confidence bands.

688

689

690 **Figure 5.** Standardised marginal effects by length class according to the combined length and
691 depth smooth interaction. Values calculated as the sum of marginal effects for terms ti2, ti3
692 and ti6 in Eq. 2. Marginal predictions for 2015 were standardised to the interval (0-1) by length
693 classes (within each month).

694

695

696 **Figure 6:** Spatio-temporal model predictions of counts of cod (log scale) for 0-10, 10-20, 20-
697 30, 30-40 and 40-50 cm length groups (columns) during February, May, August, and
698 November (rows). Prediction for 2015 based on counts per 1h trawling effort. Bathymetry
699 contours for -50, -100 and -200 meters in blue scale colors.

700

701 **Figure 7:** model predictions of counts of cod (response scale) with both data sources (X-axis)
702 and only commercial data (Y-axis) for 10, 20, 30, 40 and 50 cm length bins (columns) during
703 February, May, August and November (rows). Range of both axes limited from 0-2 to aid in
704 the visualization of the main cloud of points due to the presence of outliers. Transparency of
705 predictions proportional to its standard error.

Table 1:

Fixed structure	Random intercepts	Df	AIC
ti(x,y,m,L)+ti(D,m,L)+ ti(D,L)+ti(m,L)+s(L, by=Gear)+ti(m)+ti(D)+Year+Gear	-	315.70	833953
ti(x,y,m,L)+ti(D,m,L)+ ti(D,L)+ti(m,L)+s(L, by=Gear)+ti(m)+ti(D)+Year+Gear	Vessel	467.09	244964

Table 2

Fixed terms	Smooth terms			Smooth terms		
	Estimate	Std.error	p-value	edf	Chi.sq	p-value
GOV:2011	-7.527	1.066	1.36e ⁻¹²	ti(x,y,m,L)	142.37	9961.99 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
ITR	-5.081	3.436	0.139	ti(m,L,D)	41.81	1329.24 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
LTR	-1.822	1.234	0.140	ti(L,D)	14.59	2828.22 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
MTD	-2.371	1.246	0.057	ti(m,L)	11.83	1257.71 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
MTH	-1.848	1.096	0.091	s(L):GOV	8.91	1845.70 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
MTN	-1.352	1.074	0.208	s(L):ITR	5.48	201.54 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
MTR	-1.455	1.093	0.183	s(L):LTR	6.34	92.16 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
NTR	-1.089	1.079	0.313	s(L):MTD	5.38	146.31 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
PTD	-1.082	1.107	0.329	s(L):MTH	6.89	2813.43 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
SEN	-2.745	1.453	0.059	s(L):MTN	8.57	2483.16 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
2012	-0.308	0.042	1.1e ⁻¹³	s(L):MTR	7.28	3037.90 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
2013	-0.037	0.040	0.358	s(L):NTR	7.15	753.85 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
2014	0.122	0.040	0.002	s(L):PTD	6.51	2444.64 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
2015	0.352	0.040	<0.05	s(L):SEN	5.46	660.57 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
				ti(D)	3.77	138.00 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
				ti(m)	2.95	337.35 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
				Vessel (random effect)	152.75	4007.94 < 2e ⁻¹⁶
Total deviance explained			60.80%			
Shape parameter Theta (θ)			0.179			

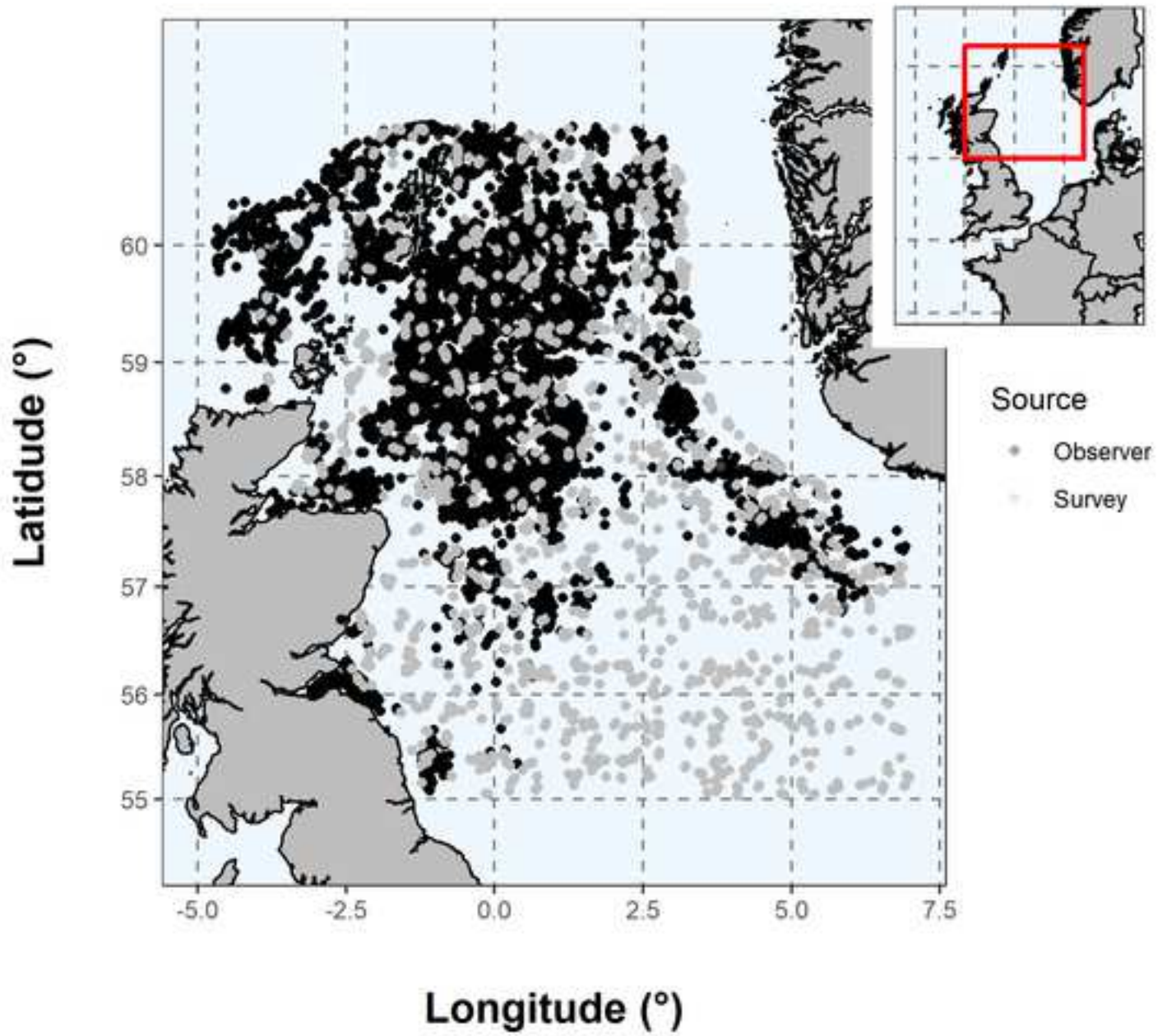
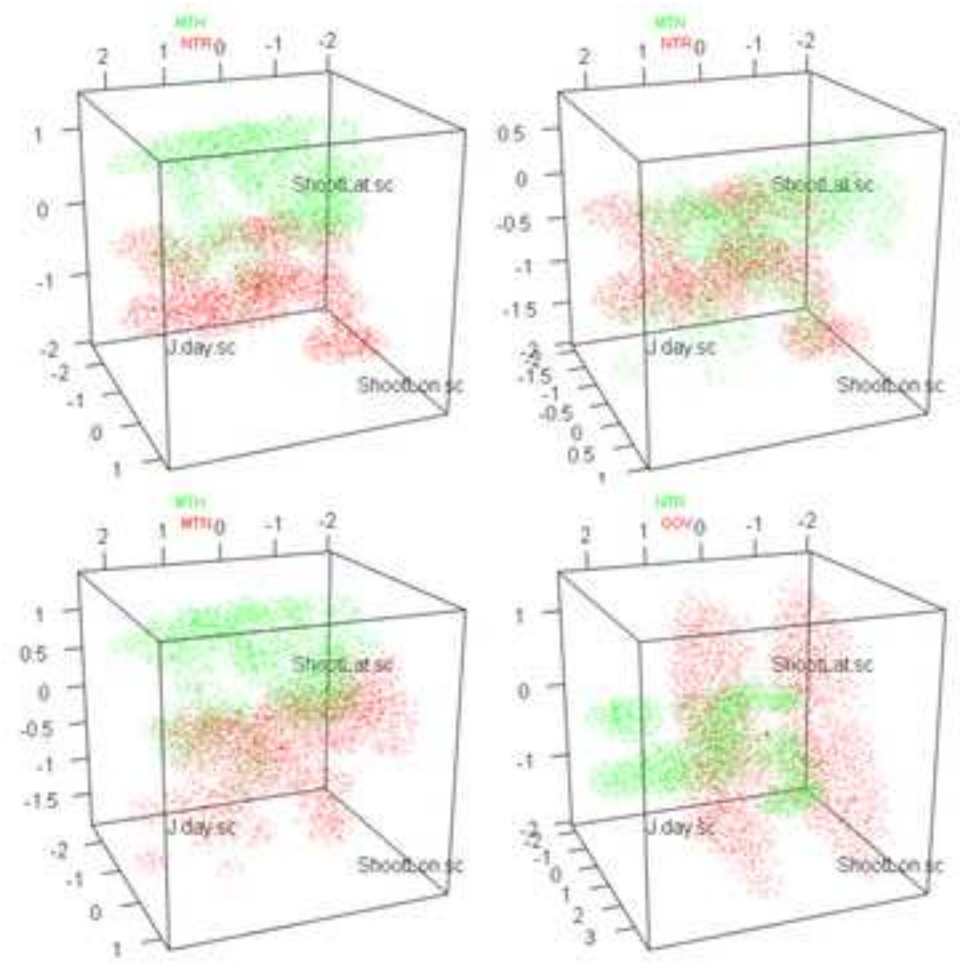
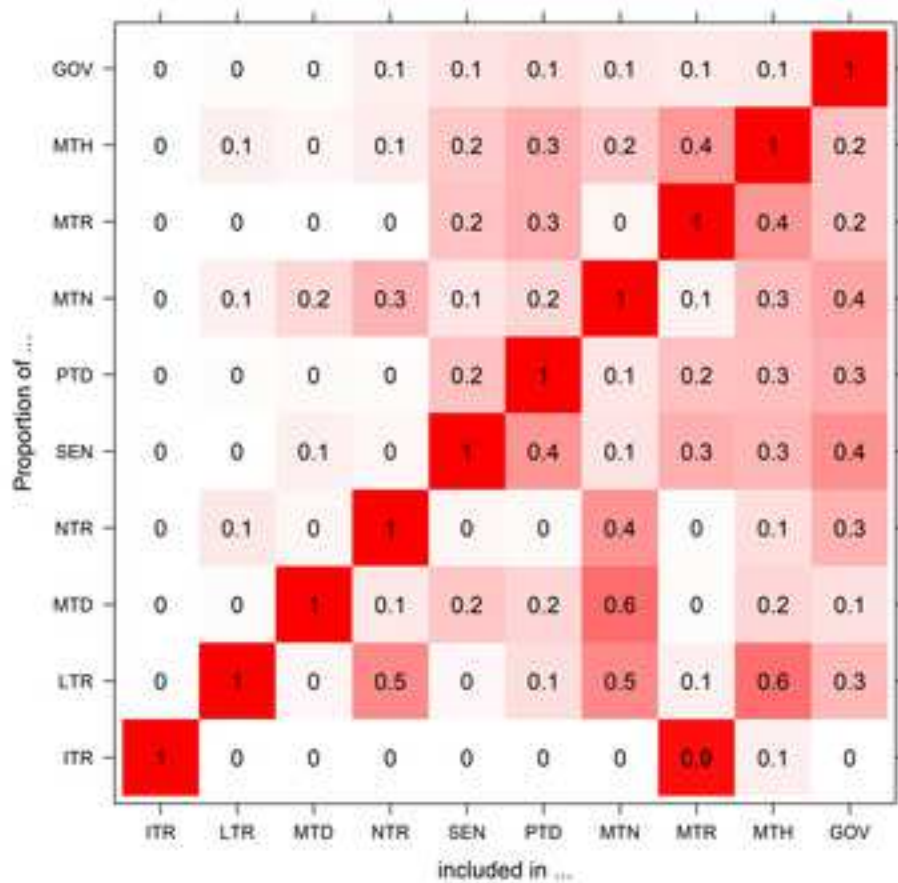


Figure 2



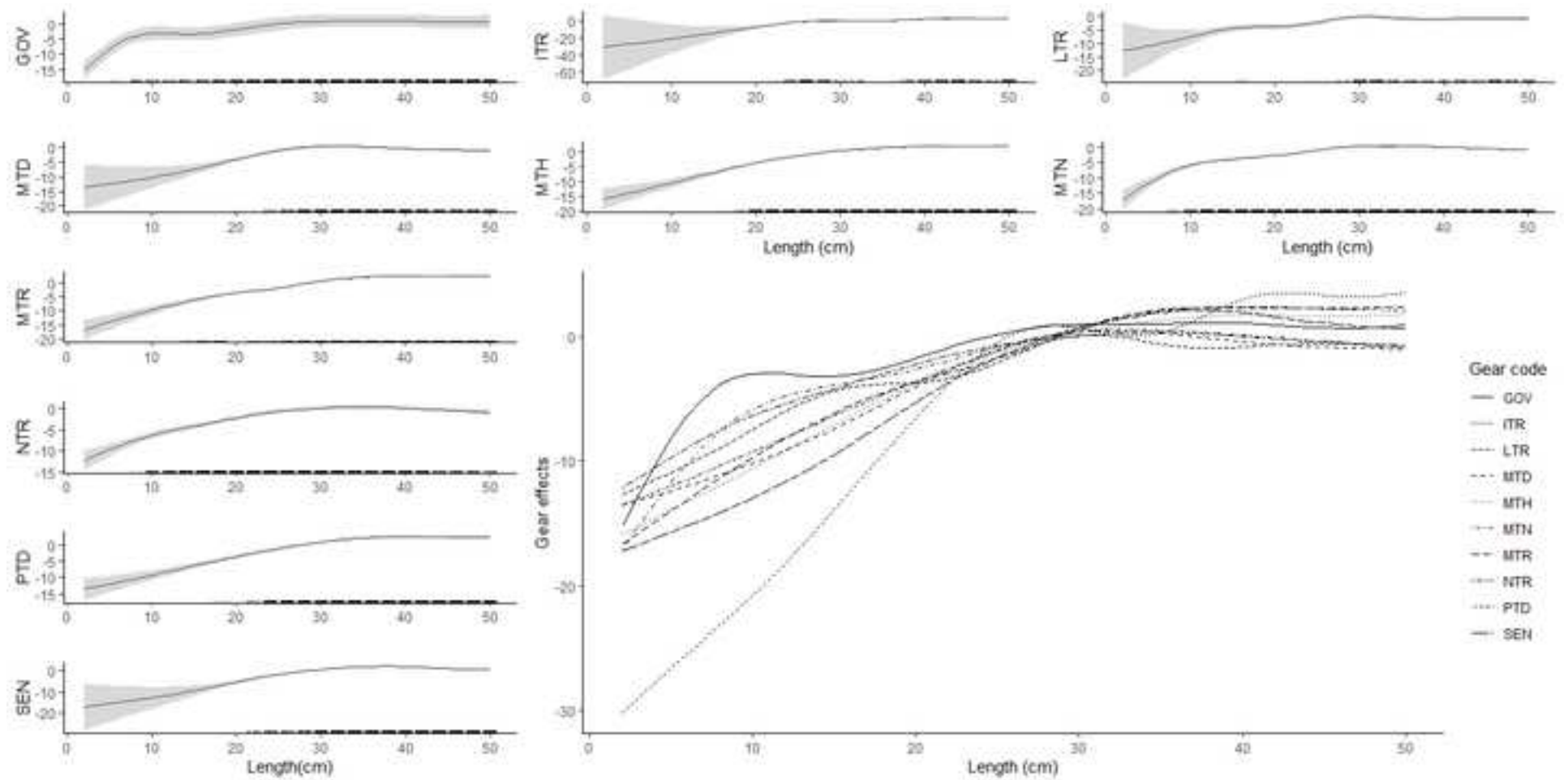


Figure 4

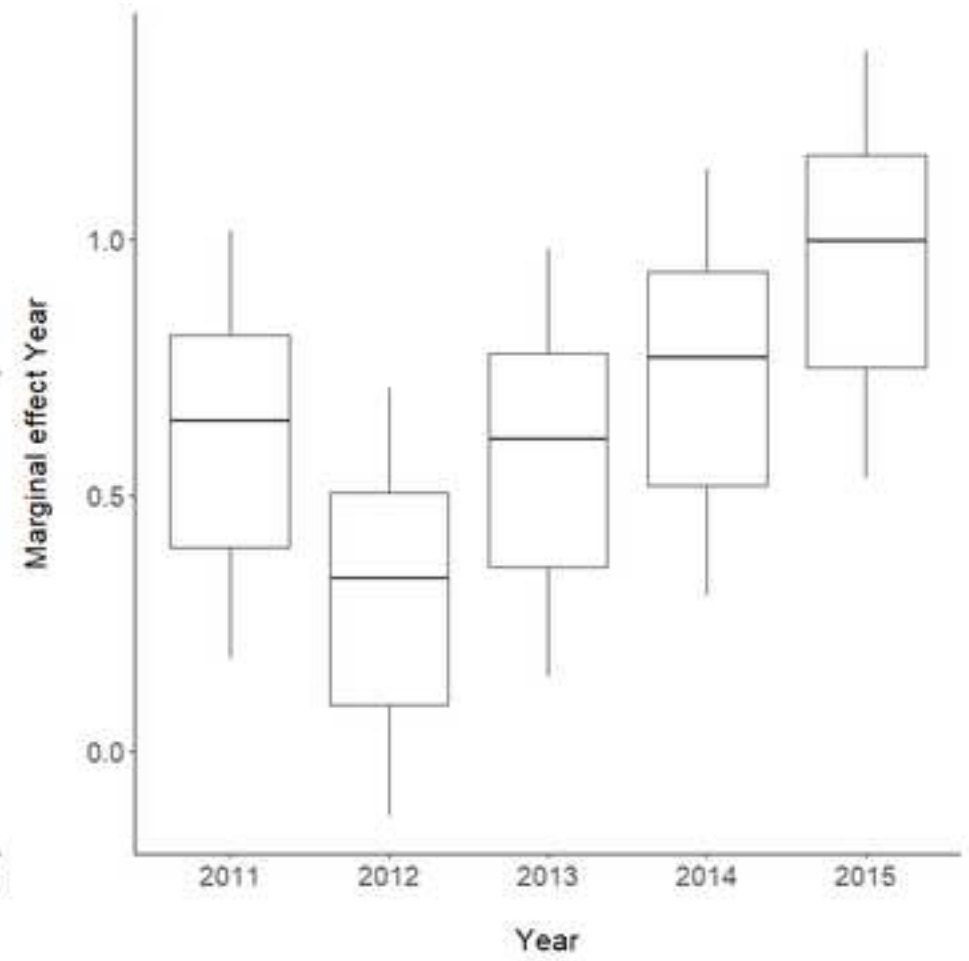
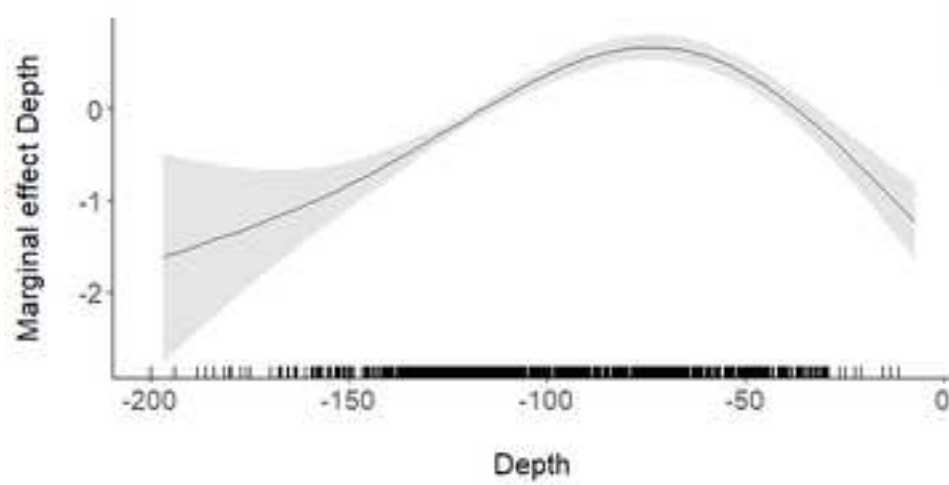
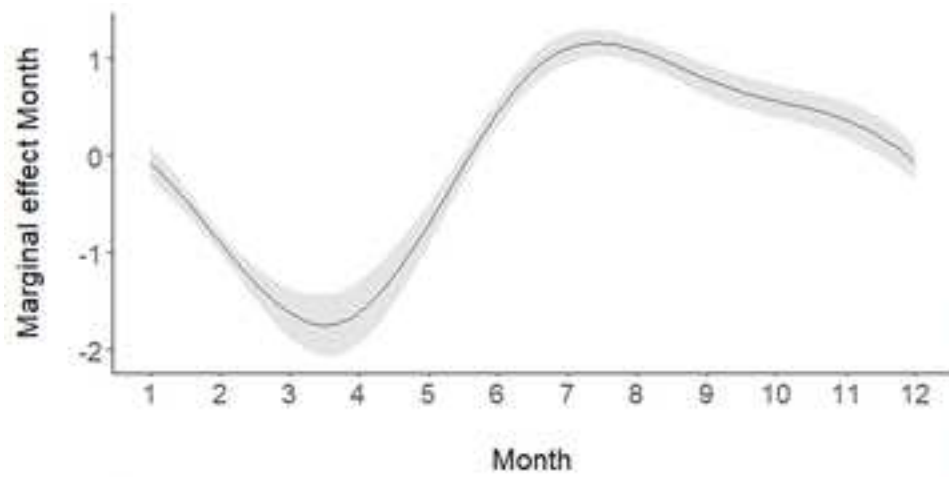
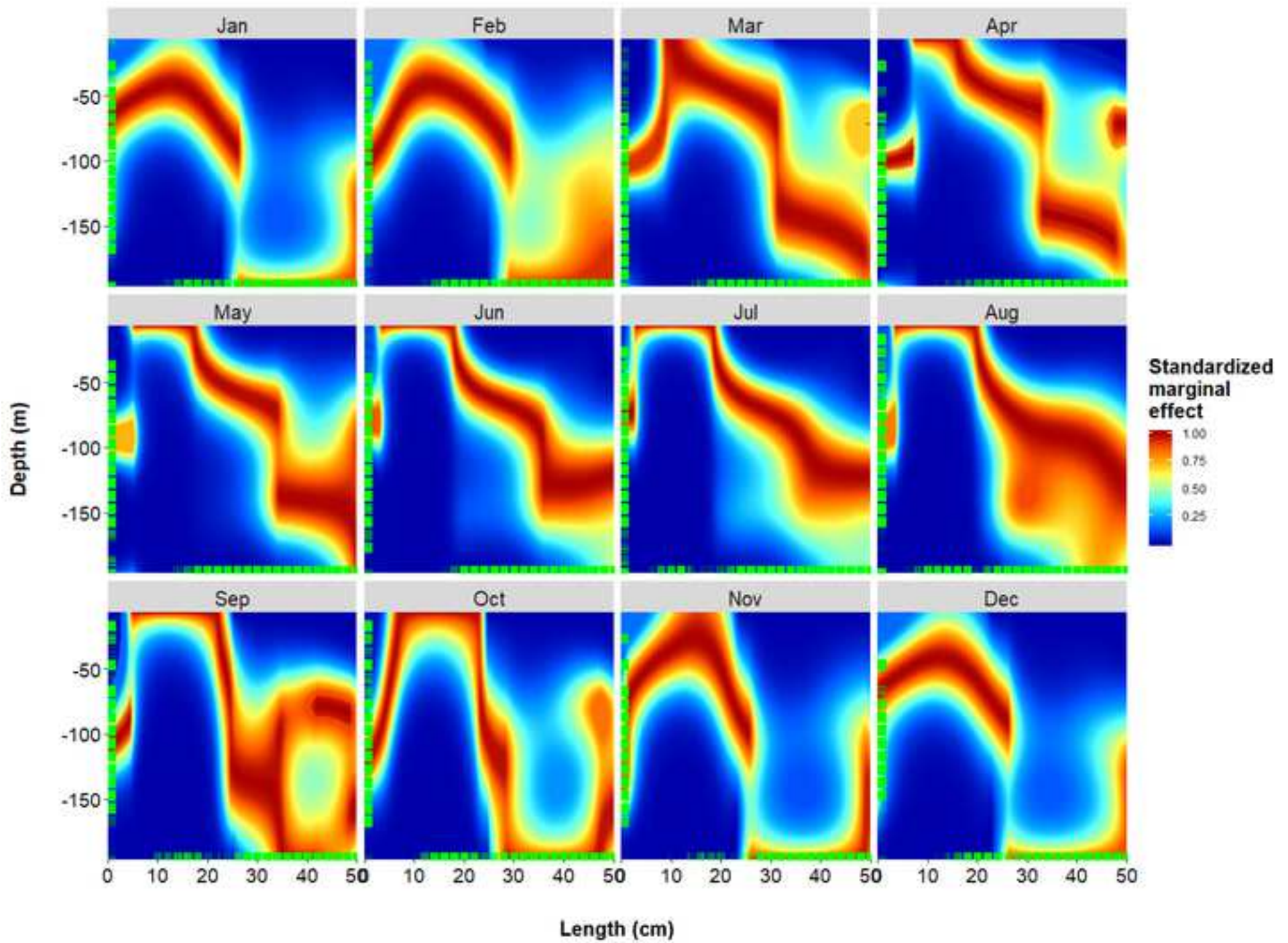


Figure 5

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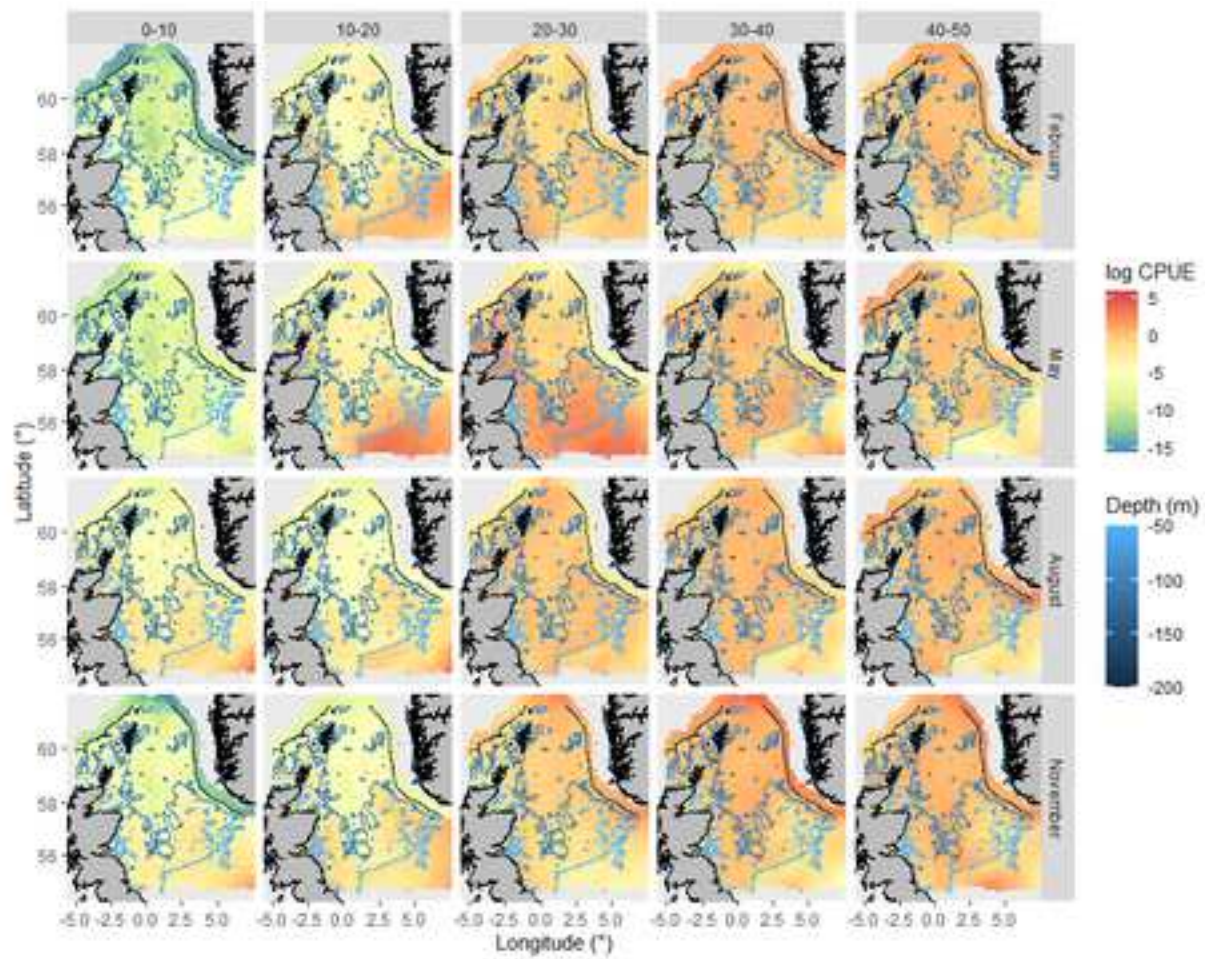
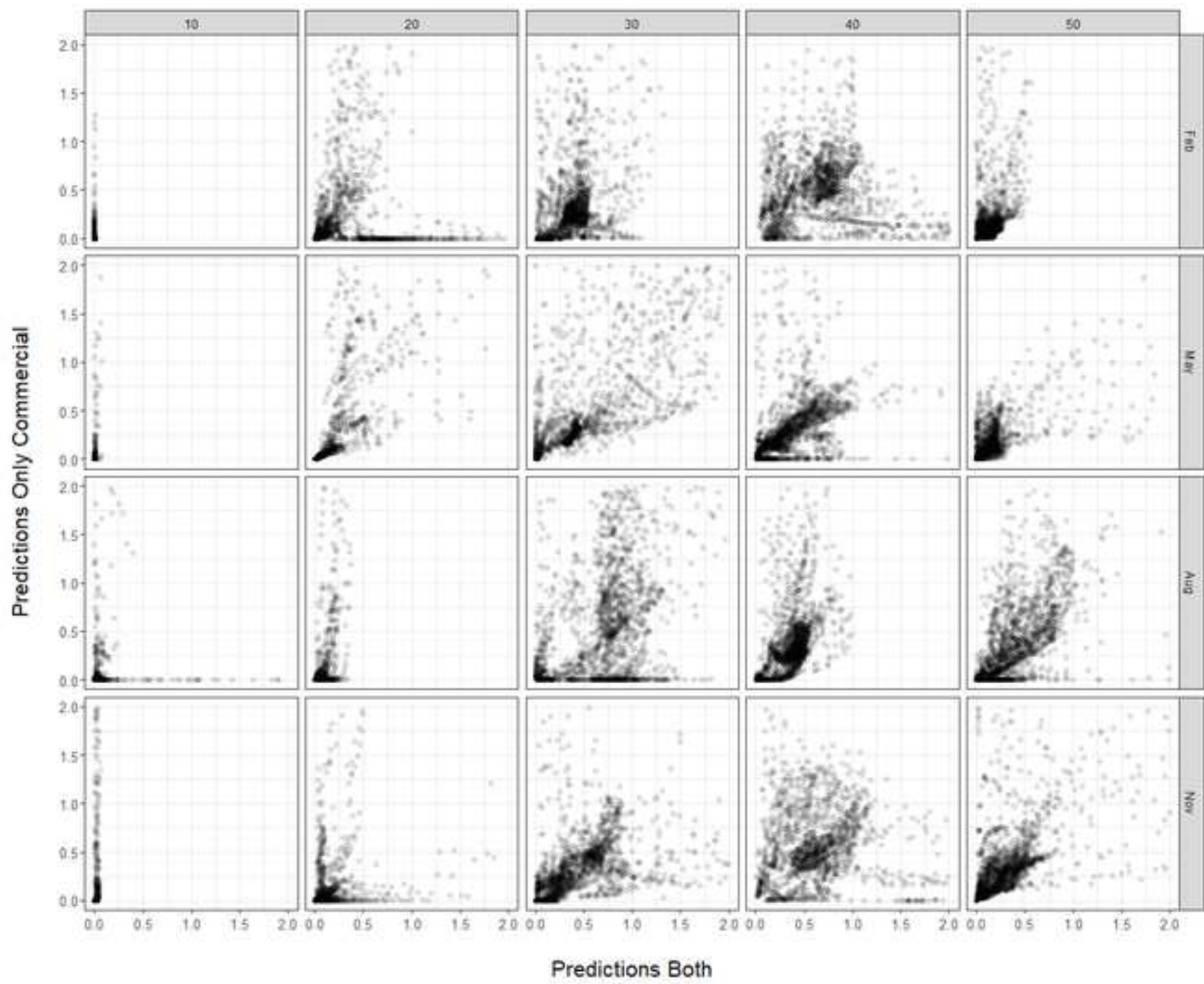


Figure 7

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Guillermo Martin Gonzalez: concept, coding, writing original draft, visualisation and editing.

Rodrigo Wiff: concept, coding, writing original draft, editing. **C. Tara Marshall:** concept, draft preparation, project administrator, funding acquisition, editing. **Thomas Cornulier:**

concept, model design, draft preparation, funding acquisition, editing.