
Exploring habitat credits to manage the benthic impact in a mixed fishery

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Abstract :

The performance of a combined catch quota and habitat credit system was explored to manage the sustainable exploitation of a mix of demersal fish species and reduce the benthic impacts of bottom trawl fisheries using a dynamic state variable model approach. The model was parameterised for the Eastern English Channel demersal mixed fishery using otter trawls or dredges. Target species differed in their association with habitat types. Restricting catch quota for plaice and cod had a limited effect on benthic impact, except when reduced to very low values, forcing the vessels to stay in port. Quota management had a minimal influence on fishing behaviour and hence resulted in a minimal reduction of benthic impact. Habitat credits may reduce the benthic impacts of the trawl fisheries at a minimal loss of landings and revenue, as vessels are still able to reallocate their effort to less vulnerable fishing grounds, while allowing the fishery to catch their catch quota and maintain their revenue. Only if they are reduced to extremely low levels can habitat credits potentially constrain fishing activities to levels that prevent the fisheries from using up the catch quota for the target species.

Keywords : Fleet dynamics, Dynamic state variable modelling, TAC, Total allowable catch, Mixed fisheries, Eastern English Channel, Plaice, Cod

27

28 **Introduction**

29 The impact of bottom trawl fisheries on benthic habitats and ecosystems is a matter of
30 global concern (Kaiser et al. 2006; 2016). Such bottom trawl fisheries use towed gears that
31 make direct physical contact with the seafloor to catch species living or feeding close to the
32 bottom substrate (Valdemarsen et al., 2007). As a consequence, these fisheries potentially
33 reduce structural complexity of habitats, injure or kill target and non-target species, alter species
34 composition, and modify ecosystem processes such as benthic production (Dayton et al., 1995;
35 Collie et al., 1997; Thrush et al., 1998 ; Kaiser et al., 2002).

36 The extent to which bottom trawl fisheries disturb benthic ecosystems depends on the
37 type of fishing gear used, the frequency and distribution of fishing activities in an area (Kaiser
38 et al., 2006; Rijnsdorp et al. 2015) but also depends on the sensitivity of habitats and benthic
39 ecosystems to fishing disturbance (Collie et al., 2000; Hiddink et al. 2007; Eno et al., 2013).
40 This sensitivity differs across habitats as a result of differences in natural disturbance (bottom
41 shear stress, effects of waves), bottom typology (e.g. slope and depth), sediment composition,
42 and species composition (Hall, 1994; Jennings and Kaiser, 1998; Snickars et al., 2013, van
43 Denderen et al., 2014). Complex biogenic habitats with emergent structures are likely to be
44 more affected as compared to naturally disturbed soft sedimentary habitats (Jennings and
45 Kaiser, 1998; Lindholm et al., 2015).

46 Fish species caught by bottom trawl fisheries differ in their preference to habitat types,
47 because of their morphological and behavioural characteristics. Habitat preference generally
48 changes along the life cycle of species, because of ontogenetic niche shifts (Thouzeau et al.,
49 1991; Le Pape et al., 2003; Atkinson et al., 2004). Adult roundfish species, for example, have
50 a preference for hard bottom habitats with a high structural complexity providing food and
51 shelter (Tupper and Boutilier, 1995; Wieland et al., 2009), while flatfish species such as plaice

52 *(Pleuronectes platessa)* and sole (*Solea solea*) prefer soft bottom habitats in which they can
53 burry themselves to avoid predation (Gibson and Robb, 2000). As a result, the impact of a
54 fishery on the sea bed habitat and benthic ecosystem depends on the linkage between the habitat
55 preference of the different species, and the species preference of the fishery.

56 In many fisheries management systems around the world, fisheries management
57 historically focussed on the sustainable exploitation of commercial fish and shellfish stocks by
58 setting Total Allowable Catches (TACs) but ignoring the potential wider ecosystem effects of
59 fishing (Pikitch et al., 2004; Chu 2009; Holland and Schnier 2006). Policy developments such
60 as the amendments to the Magnuson-Stevens Act in the U.S. and the reform of the Common
61 Fishery Policy (CFP) in Europe have recognised the importance of safeguarding ecosystem
62 composition, structure and functioning and have embraced an ecosystem-based approach. This
63 objective requires managers to assure a sustainable use of natural resources while minimising
64 impacts of fishing activities on the structure and functioning of sea bed habitats and benthic
65 ecosystems. In this context, the EU is establishing marine Natura 2000 sites. While these sites
66 do protect habitat features and species, this is not a fisheries management object, but rather a
67 conservation objective in relation to biodiversity.

68 The conventional approach of fisheries managers to maintain or restore ecosystem
69 processes focusses on technical measures, including gear restrictions and spatial measures, as
70 well as direct limitations on fleet capacity and fishing effort (Rice et al., 2012). Most spatial
71 management measures aim to either protect habitat, preserve biodiversity, or maintain a reserve
72 of fishes and often do not have a socio-economic management objective (Halpern, 2003; Lester
73 et al., 2009). As a result, socio-economic benefits of spatial management are not necessarily to
74 be expected and one could consider a spatial management measure to be successful as long as
75 it meets its primary objectives without causing any socio-economic harm (Darling, 2014;
76 Caveen et al., 2015). Several studies have proposed the use of a credit system as an alternative

77 management approach (Holland and Schnier, 2006; Kraak et al., 2012). These credit systems
78 try to balance economic and environmental values associated with fisheries by addressing
79 specific conservation goals with limited effects for the fishery (Van Riel et al., 2013).

80 Our study explores the performance of individual catch quota combined with a habitat
81 credit system to manage the sustainable exploitation of a mix of demersal species and to
82 minimise the benthic impacts of bottom trawl fisheries. Results are compared to traditional
83 quota management for two commercial species, cod and plaice, which have different habitat
84 associations. We apply an individual based simulation model of the effort allocation and
85 discarding decisions in a mixed fishery (Poos et al., 2010; Batsleer et al. 2013). The model is
86 adapted to include individual habitat credits (IHC) and is parameterised for the French
87 multipurpose bottom trawl fleet in the eastern English Channel. This fleet may switch between
88 dredging for scallops (*Pecten maximus*) and otter trawling for a mix of demersal fish species
89 (Carpentier et al., 2009). We then evaluate the extent to which the incorporation of habitat
90 credits in a quota management system can be a tool for ecosystem based management, in terms
91 of benthic impacts reduction and sustainable exploitation of fish.

92

93 **Methods**

94 *Study area*

95 The Eastern English Channel (International Council for the Exploration of the Seas
96 (ICES) division 7.d) consists of 15 ICES rectangles ($\sim 30 \times 30$ nautical miles), which we have
97 divided into grid cells of 3x3 nautical miles each. Spatial distribution of habitats is derived from
98 a detailed map of Eastern English Channel sea bed habitats in Coggan and Diesing (2011)
99 (Figure 1). Each grid cell was assigned the dominant habitat type present within that cell. We
100 distinguished five habitats based on grain size and depth (soft, infralittoral coarse, circalittoral
101 coarse, deep coarse, and rock), following Coggan and Diesing (2011). Soft sediment habitats,
102 consisting of fine sand or muddy sediments, are found along the coast and in the eastern part
103 where the English Channel borders the North Sea. Coarse sediment habitats were the
104 predominant type in the eastern English Channel. Rocky sea bed habitats were a combination
105 of infralittoral and circalittoral rock and other hard substrates occurring towards the west along
106 the coast with an extensive reef found in the western part of the study area (Diesing et al., 2009).
107 Within each ICES rectangle adjacent cells of the same habitat type were merged and counted
108 as a single fishing area, resulting in 126 fishing areas.

109 Habitat impact credits were assigned to each fishing area based on the sensitivity of
110 habitats to fishing activities. Rock habitat and deep coarse sediment habitat support emergent
111 epibenthos such as sponges, bryozoans and hydroids, making them more vulnerable to trawling
112 compared to more shallow and dynamic soft sedimentary habitats (Jennings and Kaiser, 1998;
113 Kaiser et al., 2006; Eno et al., 2013; Boulcott et al., 2014). Because of the increasing sensitivity
114 of habitats to fishing activities, impacts credits were divided into three classes with increasing
115 credits: infralittoral coarse and soft sediment habitat were assigned 2 credits, circalittoral coarse
116 were assigned 5 credits, and deep coarse and rock habitats were assigned 10 credits (Table 1).
117 The classification of infralittoral coarse habitat as being less sensitive to fishing than

118 circalittoral course and deep coarse habitat reflects the natural, tidal disturbance of the sea
119 bottom in the infralittoral, making its ecological community more resilient to additional
120 disturbance from bottom fishing. If used in policy setting, the amount credits assigned to each
121 habitat should be decided by policy makers, and can be based on sensitivity matrices (Eno et
122 al., 2013).

123 **Study fleet**

124 We selected the French multipurpose bottom trawl fleet as a case study because it uses
125 bottom contact gears that affect bottom habitats. Vessels within this fleet switched between
126 demersal otter trawling (OTB) and dredging for scallops (*Pecten maximus*), making daily trips
127 to their fishing grounds, while operating from several ports around the Eastern English Channel,
128 mainly Boulogne-Sur-Mer and Dieppe. The scallop fishery was fully open between November
129 and April (Guyader et al., 2004). Demersal otter trawling was generally operated with 80mm
130 mesh size nets, targeting a variety of demersal species. The scallop dredge (DRB) lands few
131 other commercial valuable species (Carpentier et al. 2009). The southern part of the eastern
132 English Channel was the most important scallop fishing ground and some fishers temporarily
133 changed harbour to reduce their journey to the scallop fishing grounds.

134 Catch data were derived from logbooks and sales slip data of the fleet for the period
135 2006 to 2010. The data included information of individual vessels by fishing trip on vessel
136 length, engine power, gear type, mesh size, fishing ground (ICES rectangle), fishing effort
137 (hours fished), and the weight and value of the landings per species. Aggregated fishing effort
138 estimates per fishing area were derived at the fine scale resolution (3 x 3 nmi) for 2008 from
139 Delavenne (2012) (Table 1).

140

141

142 **Spatial and temporal shifts in catch rate**

143 Five species (scallops - *Pecten maximus*, sole - *Solea solea*, plaice - *Pleuronectes*
144 *platessa*, cod - *Gadus morhua*, sea bass - *Dicentrarchus labrax*) and one taxonomic grouping
145 of cephalopods which included cuttlefish - *Sepia officinalis*, squids - *Loligo vulgaris*, and *L.*
146 *forbesii*). From now on, these will be referred to as six “species”, for the sake of simplicity,
147 keeping in mind that one of these “species” really represented the taxonomic grouping of
148 cephalopods. These species were considered because of their economic importance for the
149 multipurpose trawling fleet, i.e. combined these contribute 67% of the total annual income.

150 Catches in the present study were estimated on the basis of landings per unit effort of
151 French commercial vessels. For each of the species the mean and variance of catches were
152 estimated from the logbooks at their spatial (ICES rectangle) and temporal (week) scale (Figure
153 2). These mean and variance in catches (kg) were estimated using generalized additive models
154 (GAMs) (Wood, 2006). In the GAMs, fishing effort (hr) was used as model offset (Zuur, 2012).
155 This use of effort as a model offset allows the prediction of catch rates (kg/hr) from the GAM
156 results. A negative binomial response with a logarithmic link function was applied (Zuur et al.,
157 2009). Scallop catch rates were analysed only including trips with dredges, while catch rates of
158 the other five species were analysed for trips operated by demersal otter trawls. The model
159 estimating the catch C per species s by area per day is given by:

$$160 \quad C_s = \alpha + \beta(\text{year}) + f_1(\text{engine power}) + f_2(\text{mesh size}) + f_3(\text{lat, lon, DOY}) + \log(\text{effort})$$

161 Where α is the model intercept and f_1, f_2 and f_3 are smooth functions based on a tensor product
162 smoother (Zuur, 2012). The differences in catch rates among years is estimated in the parameter
163 $\beta(\text{year})$. The tensor product smoother $f_1(\text{engine power})$ is included due to its influence on the
164 catch efficiency (Rijnsdorp et al., 2006) and $f_2(\text{mesh size})$ is included as the choice of mesh
165 size may indicate the species the fishery is targeting. The interaction term $f_3(\text{lat, lon, DOY})$ fits
166 the effects of space (latitude and longitude based in geographic midpoint of the ICES rectangle)
167 and day of year when the vessel returned to port (DOY). The term is based on a thin-plate spline

168 (Wood, 2003) for the space variables and a cyclic cubic regression spline for DOY. The cyclic
169 cubic regression spline was chosen to receive equal values and slopes at the beginning and end
170 of the year (Wood, 2006). For scallops the cyclic cubic regression spline for DOY was changed
171 into a cubic regression spline because of the closed season from May to October. The Akaike
172 Information Criterion (AIC) was used to assess the model fit whereby the model with the lowest
173 AIC was selected as best candidate. The best models included a limited degree of freedom for
174 the f_1 and f_2 smoothing terms ($k=4$), but a higher degree of freedom for the f_3 smoothing term
175 of the space * time interaction ($k=9$). All analyses were done using the *mcgv* package within
176 the R statistical program (version 2.12.1; R Core Development Team 2013; Wood, 2006).

177 **Catch rates by fishing area**

178 The GAM provides estimates of catch rates per species per ICES rectangle. The
179 rectangles are composed of mosaics of habitats (Figure 1). To estimate catch rates by fishing
180 area within ICES rectangles, catch rates were assumed to be positively correlated with effort
181 per fishing area (Figure 2). This assumption is supported by observations that fishing effort is
182 not homogeneously distributed within an ICES rectangle, but is distributed on a finer spatial
183 scale, concentrating within areas of high fish densities (Rijnsdorp et al. 2011).

184 Observed fishing effort per fishing area on the fine scale resolution (3 x 3 nmi) were
185 derived from combining weekly effort from logbooks by ICES rectangle with fine-scale effort
186 distribution (Table 1) as follows: First, the fraction of effort distributed over the habitat types
187 within each ICES rectangle was calculated for each gear type based on Delavenne (2012).
188 Multiplying these fractions with the effort distribution by ICES rectangle in the logbooks
189 resulted in a distribution of effort in habitat type h within an ICES rectangle a in week w (E_{haw}).

190 Catch rates at the resolution of the habitat type h within each ICES rectangle a (L_{ha})
191 were not available, because catch data are not collected at the scale within which different
192 habitats can be detected. Meanwhile, information on the fine scale distribution of fishing effort

193 was available in Delavenne (2012). Although catch data in logbooks can be distributed over
 194 fishing positions recorded in VMS data, such procedures generally assume that catches are
 195 uniformly distributed over VMS positions (Dinmore et al., 2003; Gerritsen and Lordan, 2011;
 196 Hintzen et al. 2012). However, fishing activities may concentrate within areas and habitat types
 197 with a high catch rates of target species (Rijnsdorp et al. 2011). To capture both assumptions of
 198 the relationship between effort and catch rates we used the equation:

$$199 \quad L_{ha} = \frac{\left((L_a * \sum E_{haw}) * \left(\frac{E_{haw} * \left(\frac{E_{haw}}{S_{ha}} \right)^\alpha}{\sum \left(E_{haw} * \left(\frac{E_{haw}}{S_{ha}} \right)^\alpha \right)} \right) \right)}{E_{haw}},$$

200 where E_{haw} is the effort per week w in habitat type h in ICES rectangle a and S_{ha} is the surface
 201 area of habitat type h in ICES rectangle a . The coefficient α is a scaling-factor to aggregate the
 202 highest fish density within habitat types with the highest effort by area ratio. When α is set to
 203 zero, catch rates are equal over each habitat type within an ICES rectangle. Increasing α results
 204 in a differentiation in catch rates over habitat types, with larger catch rates in habitat types with
 205 the highest aggregation of effort (Figure 3). The value of α is set to 0.5, thus assuming fishing
 206 activities concentrate within areas and habitat types with high catch rates of target species
 207 (Rijnsdorp et al. 2011).

208 To scale the catch rates by week, estimates are rescaled to reflect the average fishing
 209 effort per week. Fishing effort per week was estimated from the logbooks; resulting in the
 210 average time spent at sea (10h day⁻¹) and average number of trips per week (4 trips week⁻¹).

211 **Economic data**

212 Mean weekly market values for the six species are calculated from auction price
 213 data in the period 2006-2010 (Figure 4). During the scallop season, scallops contribute to more
 214 than 85% of the gross revenue and account for almost 40% of the annual income of the fleet
 215 (Carpentier et al., 2009). The five other species included in our study account for another 27%
 216 of the total annual income.

217 The model includes a fine for overshooting individual landings quota or individual
218 habitat credits (IHC). The fines have been set to values of 1950€ kg⁻¹ and 5000€ IHC⁻¹, being
219 several orders of magnitude higher than the market prices of the target species, ensuring vessels
220 complied with the management regulations in the model.

221 Variable costs for this fleet include fuel costs, landing costs, and crew salaries (Table
222 2). Fuel costs depend on the type of vessel and gear used. Fuel costs were approximately 440€
223 fishing day⁻¹ when operating a dredge and 730€ fishing day⁻¹ (F. Daurès, pers. comm.) when
224 operating a demersal otter trawl (in the period 2008-2010). Crew costs are 40% of the total
225 revenue obtained at the end of the fishing trip. Landing costs are defined as the fees paid by the
226 vessel when catches are landed and are 6% of the total revenue. Other variable costs (e.g. ice,
227 bait, food) are 40€ fishing day⁻¹. Landing costs, salary costs and other variable costs are derived
228 from a study of (Daurès et al., 2013) and assumed to be independent of the gear type used during
229 a fishing trip.

230 **Simulation model**

231 The performance of a combined catch quota and habitat credits system is forecasted
232 using a Dynamic State Variable Model (DSVM) (Houston and McNamara, 1999; Clark and
233 Mangel, 2000). Such models have been applied in fisheries research to forecast fishing
234 strategies under different management and market constraints (Gillis et al., 1995; Poos et al.,
235 2010; Dowling et al., 2012).

236 The model is parameterized for vessels from Boulogne-sur-Mer with the predicted
237 spatial and temporal catch rates of the 6 species under consideration (scallops, sole, plaice, cod,
238 sea bass and cephalopods), ex-vessel prices, and variable costs. Two gear types are modelled
239 that can be used interchangeably: demersal otter trawls can be used throughout the year
240 targeting the 4 finfish and cephalopod species, while scallop dredges can only be used during
241 the scallop season. The model assumes individual skippers will maximize their expected annual

242 net revenue by making weekly decisions on (i) whether to go fishing or not; (ii) what type of
 243 gear to use and, (iii) where to fish. These choices are affected by their annual catch quota and
 244 habitat credits.

245 The optimal fishing strategy in each week of the year, denoted by t , depends on the state
 246 of the individual skipper. In our case, the cumulative uptake of habitat credits as well as
 247 cumulative landings of the quota constrained species affects the possibility to continue fishing
 248 without exceeding the annual habitat credits or landing quota. To simplify model results,
 249 simulations were done assuming catch quota are restrictive for two species: cod and plaice.
 250 These species were chosen because they differ in their preference of habitat types (Tupper and
 251 Boutilier, 1995; Gibson and Robb, 2000).

252 DSVMs find the optimal behavioural strategy by working backwards, starting at the end
 253 of the year. The expected net revenue at the end of the year is linked to the choices in the
 254 preceding weeks by means of a value function between time t and the end of the year T . The
 255 value function for an individual skipper depends on the cumulative landings of the quota species
 256 L , the amount of quota U for cod or plaice, the cumulative uptake of habitat credits I , the amount
 257 of habitat credits available C and the fine for exceeding the quota or habitat credits D and is
 258 expressed as $V(L, U, I, C, D, t)$. Individuals exceeding their quota or habitat credits pay a fine
 259 that depends on the quota ($L - U$) or credit ($I - C$) overshoot and the fine per unit weight (d_1)
 260 and per credit (d_2). The state-dependent part of the revenue at the end of the year, after all
 261 fishing has been completed, $V(L, U, I, C, D, T)$ is defined by the fine of overshooting quota
 262 and/or credits

$$263 \quad \phi(L, U, I, C, D) = \begin{cases} 0, & L \leq U \text{ and } I \leq C \\ -(L - U)d_1, & L > U \text{ and } I \leq C \\ -(I - C)d_2, & L \leq U \text{ and } I > C \\ -(L - U)d_1 - (I - C)d_2, & L > U \text{ and } I > C \end{cases}$$

264 For each week before T , the expected net revenue is determined by the value function,
 265 the weekly gross revenue from the catch and the cost of fishing. Each week individuals choose

266 to use a type of gear g and to visit a fishing area a (including area 0: “staying in harbour”). For
 267 all time t preceding T we use stochastic dynamic programming to find the optimal solution by
 268 backward iteration of the net expected revenue H from t to the end of the year considering the
 269 choices a and g and the states L and I at t and optimal choices in subsequent weeks

$$270 \quad H(L, U, I, C, D, t; a, g) = R(a, g, t) * \left(\frac{100}{\kappa}\right) - C(a) + \mathbb{E}_{a,g}[V(L', U, I', C, D, t + 1)]$$

271 Where $R(a, g, t)$ is the expected immediate contribution of the gross revenue from the sales of
 272 the catch in a week resulting from choices a and g . The term κ represents the percentage that
 273 the six species contribute to the total income (i.e. 67%). The term $C(a)$ represents the variable
 274 costs in a week resulting from choosing fishing area a and using gear type g including fuel,
 275 crew, landing costs and other variable costs. The term L' reflects the change of the state L
 276 resulting from the weekly landings for the quota species. This change is stochastic and depends
 277 on the means and variances found in the statistical analyses of the catch rates. The term I'
 278 reflects the change of state I as a result of the weekly choice of fishing in an area with a given
 279 amount of habitat credits. The term $\mathbb{E}_{a,g}[V(L', U, I', C, D, t + 1)]$ denotes the expected value taken
 280 over all possible states resulting from choices a and g . The future utility given that an individual
 281 behaves optimally from time t onwards is

$$282 \quad V(L, U, I, C, D, t) = \max_{a,g}\{H(L, U, I, C, D, t; a, g)\}.$$

283 Starting with $V(L, U, I, C, D, T) = \Phi(L, U, I, C, F)$ we can iterate backwards in time and find the
 284 optimal choice in terms of location and gear type for all possible states, combining the direct
 285 net revenue obtained in a fishing trip and the effect of the fines when exceeding annual quota
 286 or habitat credits.

287 The expected direct gross revenue $R(a, g, t)$ from the sale of the six target species for any
 288 choice depends on the catch and the ex-vessel price in a given week. The catch is determined
 289 by the choice of gear and the spatial and temporal distribution of the target species.

290 **Management scenarios**

291 This study explores the performance of individual quota management for plaice and cod
292 in combination with a habitat credit system to sustainably exploit resources and minimize the
293 impact of the fishery on the benthic ecosystem. First, the performance of traditional quota
294 management for plaice and cod is evaluated in relation to benthic impact. Individual quota for
295 plaice are gradually increased from 1 to 8 tonnes per year. Given the low observed quotas for
296 cod under the cod recovery plan (Kraak et al., 2013), individual quota for cod are lower and
297 increased from 0.2 to 1.6 tonnes per year. Second, management scenarios were explored that
298 combined individual catch quota and habitat credits. Habitat credits varied from 20 to 300 per
299 year, while quota varied from 1 to 9 tonnes and 0.1 to 1.5 tonnes per year for plaice and cod,
300 respectively. The maximum of 300 habitat credits per year was based on the maximum uptake
301 of habitat credit by fishers in unconstrained model simulations.

302

303 **Results**

304 **Catch quota simulations**

305 First we explored the effect of individual catch quota on habitat impact by estimating
306 the fishing effort in different habitat types. Reduction of plaice quota affects the level of fishing
307 effort and the choice of habitats (Figure 5a). At high quota vessels fish year-round (52 trips yr⁻¹),
308 and the majority of trips occur in low impact circalittoral coarse and soft sediment habitats.
309 If plaice quotas are below 4 tonnes per year, the number of trips is reduced, mainly in the
310 circalittoral coarse sediment habitat. The effort reduction and reallocation result in a decrease
311 in habitat impact over the year, measured as the use of habitat credits (Figure 5a).

312 A reduction of cod quota also affects the level of effort and the habitat choice (Figure
313 5b). At the highest cod quota, a vessel will fish year-round, allocating the majority of trips over
314 circalittoral coarse and soft sediment habitats. A decrease in cod quota results in a gradual
315 decrease to 48 trips per year at the lowest cod quota and a slight increase in fishing in the more
316 sensitive deep coarse habitats. This reallocation results in a slight increase in habitat impact
317 over the year in spite of the reduction in the number of trips (Figure 5b).

318

319 **Catch quota and habitat credit simulations**

320 In this section we explore how a habitat credit system can mitigate benthic impact in a
321 fisheries managed by individual catch quota for the main target species. In this fishery, the
322 amount of habitat credits allocated to the fishery affect the actual credit use up to 220 IHC year⁻¹,
323 but this depends on the quota, particularly for plaice (Figure 6a, b).

324 When habitat credits are combined with plaice or cod quota, a decrease in habitat credits
325 from 300 to 100 IHC has a limited influence on the overall effort of the fishery (Figure 6c, d).
326 At high IHC, effort will be allocated to both gear types, with most effort being allocated to the
327 DRB (Figure 6e, f). A decrease in IHC from 300 to 100 results in a reduction of OTB effort

328 (Figure 6g, h), but hardly affects DRB effort, irrespective of the quantity of quotas. Only when
329 IHC are < 100 IHC effort decreases and vessels no longer choose to fish using OTB, but only
330 fish with the DRB (as long as $IHC > 60$).

331 Decreasing IHC from 300 to 100 only results in a modest (approximately 7%) reduction
332 of net revenue (Figure 6i, j). This is largely the result of a small increase in DRB effort that
333 compensates the reduction OTB effort. When IHC are very low (<100 IHC), and the fishery is
334 fully targeting scallop, net revenue sharply declines below 200 K€. Because plaice and cod have
335 a relatively lower economic value and a lower catch rate, compared to other target species, the
336 loss in revenue from plaice and cod at reduced catch quota is compensated by increasing the
337 DRB effort, targeting scallops. Our results thus suggest that when reducing habitat credits from
338 high to low, the net revenue only decrease slightly at first, and more steeply at low IHCs. This
339 result is largely independent of the individual catch quota available.

340 **Trip allocation over habitat types**

341 When habitat credits are combined with plaice quota, the choice of fishing grounds is
342 determined by the IHC available and the quantity of plaice quota (Figure 7). High IHC (> 160)
343 and high plaice quotas (> 5 tonnes) result in an allocation of trips predominantly to circalittoral
344 coarse and soft sediment habitats, although a few vessels will fish in areas with more sensitive
345 deep coarse sediments. A reduction in IHC (< 160) pushes vessels away from circalittoral
346 coarse sediments to less sensitive infralittoral coarse and soft sediments. The shift from more
347 sensitive to less sensitive habitat types is influenced by the amount of individual plaice quota.
348 Fishing in deep coarse sediments stops when habitat credits are reduced below 140 IHC. At low
349 plaice quota (< 5 tonnes), trips to deep coarse sediments decline but continue until IHC are
350 lower than 100 IHC and trips to these sensitive habitats are no longer operated.

351 In addition to the IHC available, low cod quota influence the choice of fishing grounds
352 (Figure 7). At high IHC and low cod quota, vessels will allocate more trips to sensitive deep

353 coarse sediment habitats and less trips to fishing grounds with circalittoral coarse sediment
354 habitat. Nevertheless, circalittoral coarse and soft sediment habitats still remain the dominant
355 fishing grounds. At high cod quota, fishing in more sensitive habitat types rapidly decreases if
356 IHC are reduced (Figure 7). At low cod quota, however, a decrease in IHC initially result in a
357 small increase in the number of trips to circalittoral fishing grounds and a decrease in the
358 number of trips allocated to fishing grounds with deep coarse sediment habitats. A further
359 decrease in IHC will push vessels away from sensitive habitat types and as a result, all effort is
360 concentrated in infralittoral coarse and soft sediment habitats.

361 **Discussion**

362 *Overview of findings*

363 The model results indicate that managing fisheries by catch quota does not necessarily
364 reduce benthic impact exerted by French bottom trawlers in the Eastern English Channel.
365 Reduction of individual catch quotas could even result in an increase in the benthic impact as
366 vessels could reallocate effort towards fishing grounds located in more vulnerable habitats to
367 avoid catching quota-restricted species. In the model, we show that benthic impacts can be
368 reduced by introducing individual habitat credits, with limited cost in terms of landings and
369 revenue. Vessels are still able to reallocate their effort to less vulnerable fishing grounds while
370 maintaining their effort and revenue. When IHC are reduced further vessels cannot make any
371 profit out of fishing and they have to stay in port to not exceed their habitat credits.

372 **Simulation Model**

373 The simulation model was parameterized for the Eastern English Channel French
374 bottom trawl fleet. Results of the fleet response are indicative for this particular fleet given the
375 necessary simplifications made. Model simplifications include the assumptions that: (i) fishers
376 are profit maximizers and comply fully with management regulations given severe sanctions
377 for non-compliance, (ii) individuals have perfect knowledge about the temporal and spatial

378 distribution of catch rates, (iii) the quota for a single species (plaice or cod) is constraining the
379 fishery, and these quota are not transferable, and (iv) there is no competition among fishers.
380 The hypothesized effects of these simplifying assumptions have been discussed in Poos et al.
381 (2010) and Batsleer et al. (2013). We further assume that the scallop season was open from
382 November to April throughout the Eastern English Channel and that vessels did not move from
383 Boulogne-Sur-Mer to other harbours at the opening of the scallop season.. In reality the opening
384 of the season depends on annual scientific advice and the opinion of authorities, and may be
385 different among areas (Carpentier et al., 2009). Also, vessels may temporarily move to harbours
386 close to the best scallop fishing grounds.

387 Although we had to make a large number of simplifying assumptions, as discussed
388 above, these assumptions will not affect the qualitative results showing that within mixed
389 fisheries the seasonally and spatially variable availability of target species allows a variety of
390 effort allocation patterns that yield similar net revenue with widely different benthic impacts.

391 In this study, habitat impact credits were set independent of the historic fishing activities
392 in the habitat. However, historic fishing activities can be an important factor determining
393 fishing impact on the benthic ecosystem (Kaiser, 2005). Reducing habitat credits in frequently
394 fished areas may lead to a concentration of fishing activities in those areas, given the reduced
395 cost of fishing (Holland and Schnier, 2006). This reduces the risk of trawling in areas that were
396 previously untrawled (Piet et al., in prep).

397 The habitat credits in the model do not vary by gear type. Empirical studies, however,
398 indicate that gear type strongly affects the magnitude of fishing impact (Collie et al., 2000;
399 Kaiser et al., 2006; Eigaard et al., 2015). Sensitivity matrices synthesize these results,
400 describing the sensitivity of habitats to different gears based on the physical bottom of each
401 gear and the sensitivity of the benthic community to the additional mortality caused by the

402 bottom contact. These sensitivity matrices can be used by policy makers to assign gear-specific
403 habitat credits (Eno et al., 2013).

404 **Practical application and broader relevance**

405 There is a growing awareness of effects of fisheries on ecosystems, beyond the obvious
406 reductions in population biomass as a result of the fisheries catches. An ecosystem-based
407 approach to fisheries management aims at mitigating these effects. One aspect of ecosystem-
408 based management is the recovery and conservation of the composition, structure and
409 functioning of ecosystems. Management approaches, such as credit management systems, have
410 been suggested as a mean to protect or improve ecosystem structure and function (Holland and
411 Schnier, 2006; Kraak et al., 2012), in complement to traditional measures such as closed areas
412 (Caveen et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2010; Winter and May, 2001; Raakjær Nielsen, 2003; Abbott
413 and Haynie, 2012). Such systems build on incentivizing responsible fishing practices,
414 constraining fishers with a number of credits or a share of the property while allowing them to
415 adjust their behaviour and chose freely when and where to fish to make optimal use of their
416 credits or share. However, management objectives in such systems will only be achieved if
417 credits or quota are set at the right target or limit reference point (Van Riel et al., 2013). Setting
418 these targets or limit reference points will be a process where policy-makers, scientists, fishing
419 industry and other stakeholders need to be engaged and agree on the goals of the management
420 system. Successful implementation further depends on the availability of data and knowledge
421 on habitats and their functioning, as well as detailed monitoring of vessel locations, and
422 bookkeeping systems of credits in the fishing industry and government institutions.

423 Our study shows that a complementary use of habitat credits with catch quota could
424 reduce benthic impact, while the fishery can continue to sustainably exploit a mix of resources.
425 The development of credit systems, however, is still in its infancy and requires more knowledge
426 on the relationship between different ecosystem components, the relationship between human

427 use components, an improved data collection at the right spatial and temporal scale, and
428 extensive monitoring and enforcement (Kraak et al., 2012; Van Riel et al., 2013; Tidd et al.,
429 2015; Sys et al., 2016). The collection of more detailed information and data gathering would
430 require more effort from the fishing industry in terms of privacy and investments on board, but
431 then again fishers will retain their freedom to choose when and where to fish. Hence, for spatial
432 measures to meet ecological objectives and to be cost-effective, an understanding of the
433 adaptive behaviour of fishers to these measures is critical.

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624

625 **Table and figures**

626 **Table 1 Habitat types, associated habitat impact credits and fishing effort distribution**
 627 **(%) for demersal otter trawls (OTB) and scallop dredgers (DRB) estimated from**
 628 **Delavenne (2012).**

Habitat	Habitat impact credit	Effort OTB (%)	Effort DRB (%)
Rock	10	1.0	0.2
Deep Coarse	10	14.9	16.4
Circalittoral Coarse	5	68.4	71.3
Infralittoral Coarse	2	9.2	5.7
Soft	2	6.6	6.4
Total (h yr ⁻¹)		394385	46545

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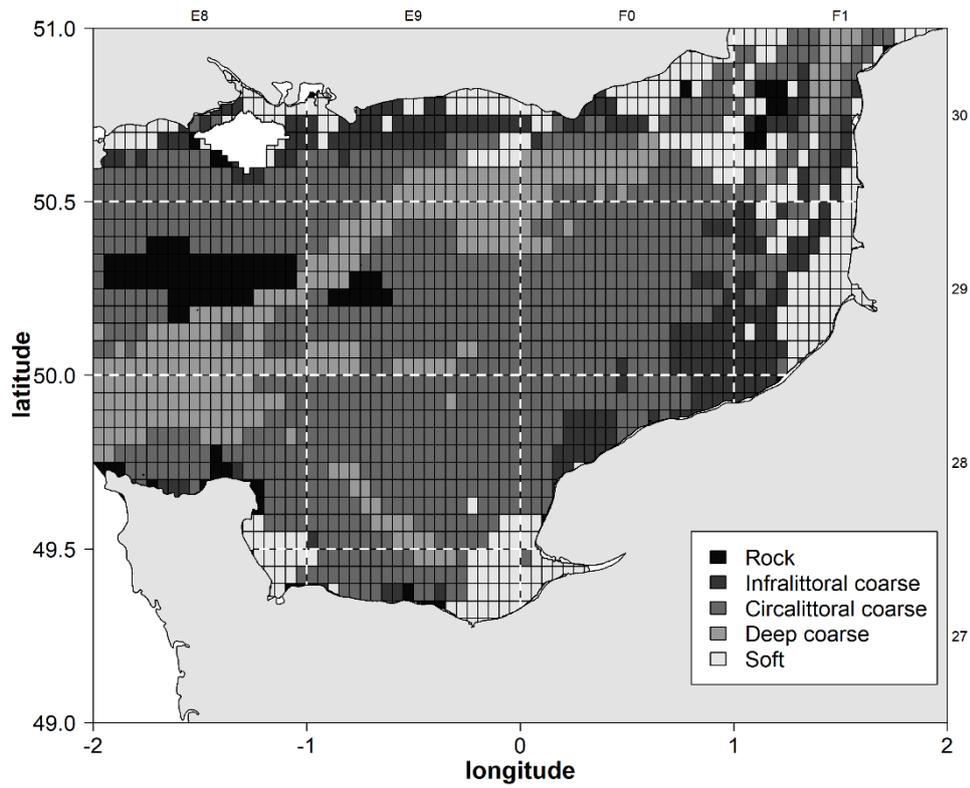
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631 **Table 2 Variable cost of the scallop dredgers (DRB) and demersal otter trawl (OTB) used**
 632 **in the simulation.**

Variable costs	OTB	DRB
Fuel (€ fishing day ⁻¹)	730	440
Crew costs (% of revenue)	40	40
Landing costs (% of revenue)	6	6
Other variable costs (€ fishing day ⁻¹)	40	40

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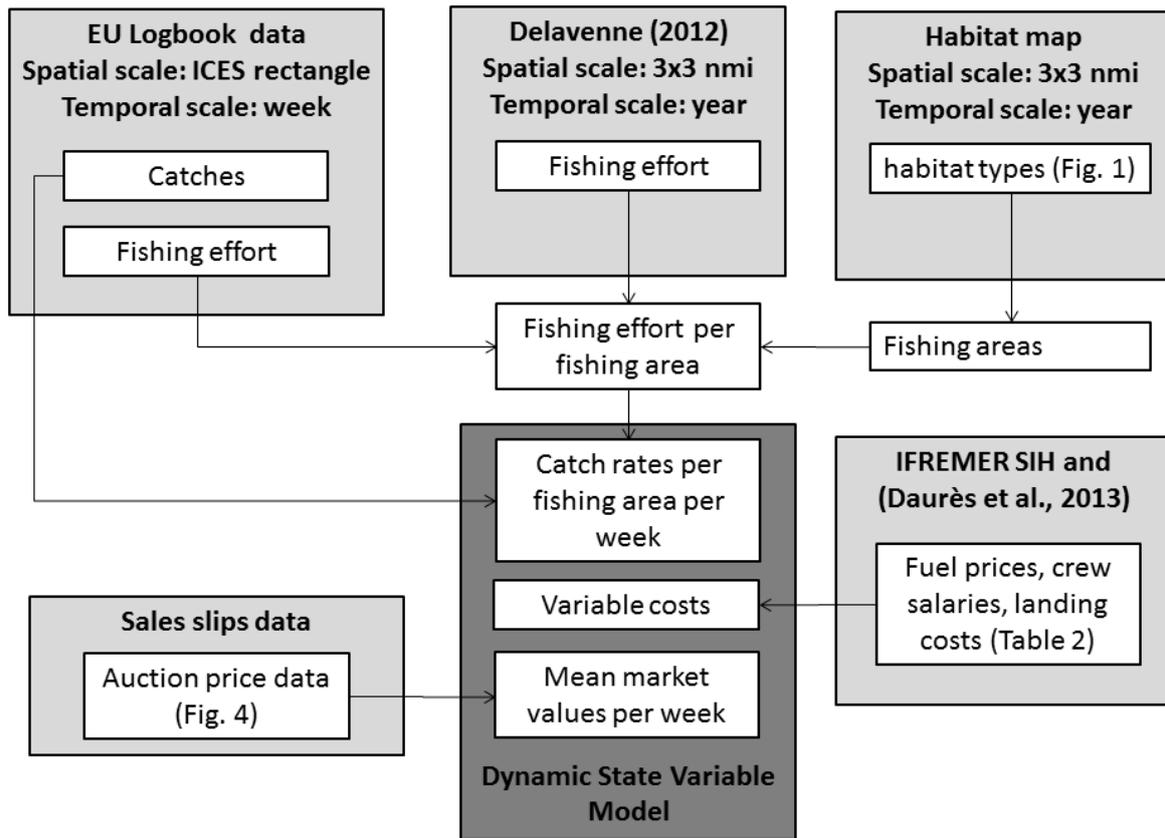
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636 **Figure 1.** Habitat distribution map based on Coggan and Diesing (2011), with the main French
637 fishing harbours used in this study. ICES rectangles are delineated by the white dashed lines.

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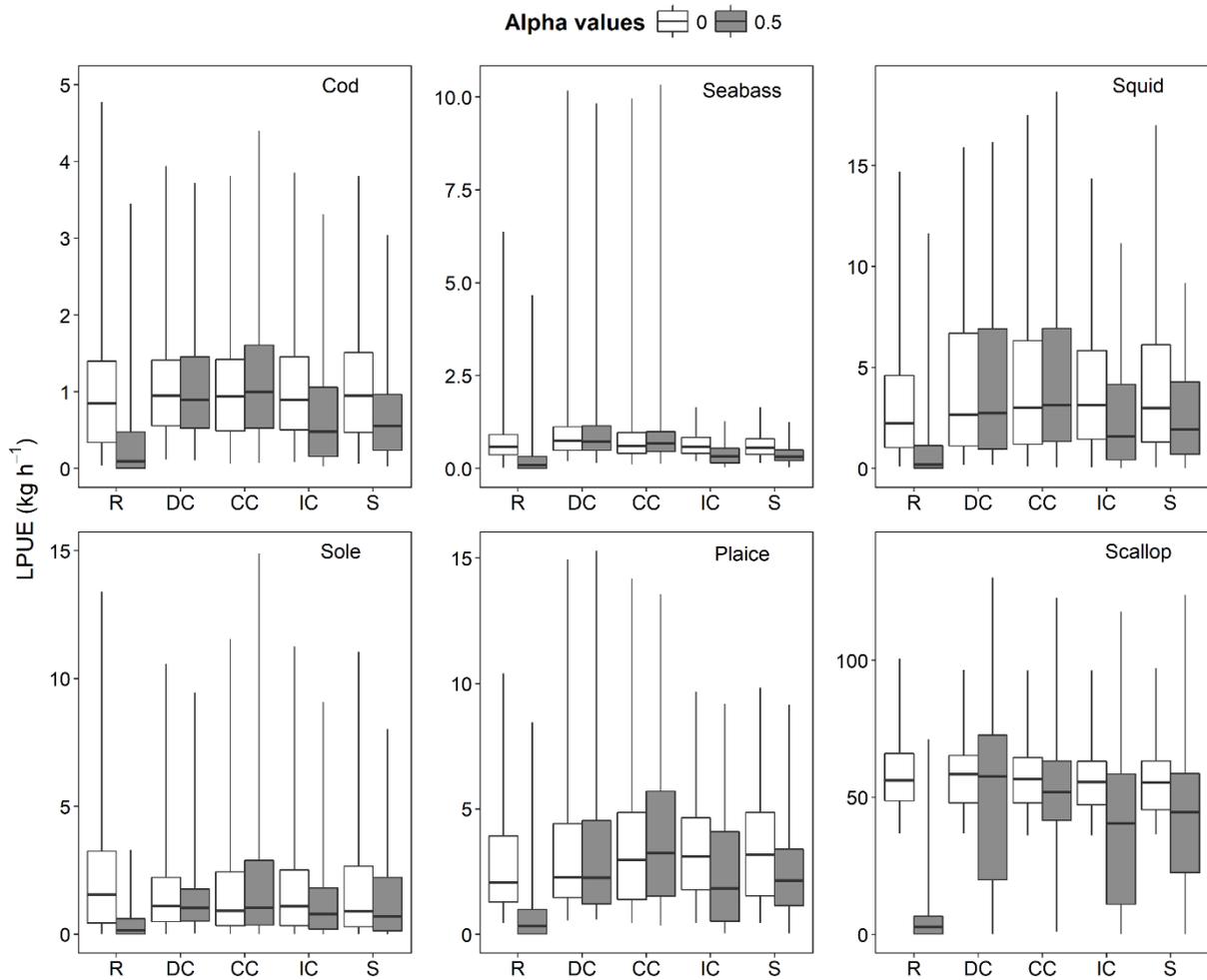


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640 **Figure 2.** Schematic representation of the methodology and data used in this study.

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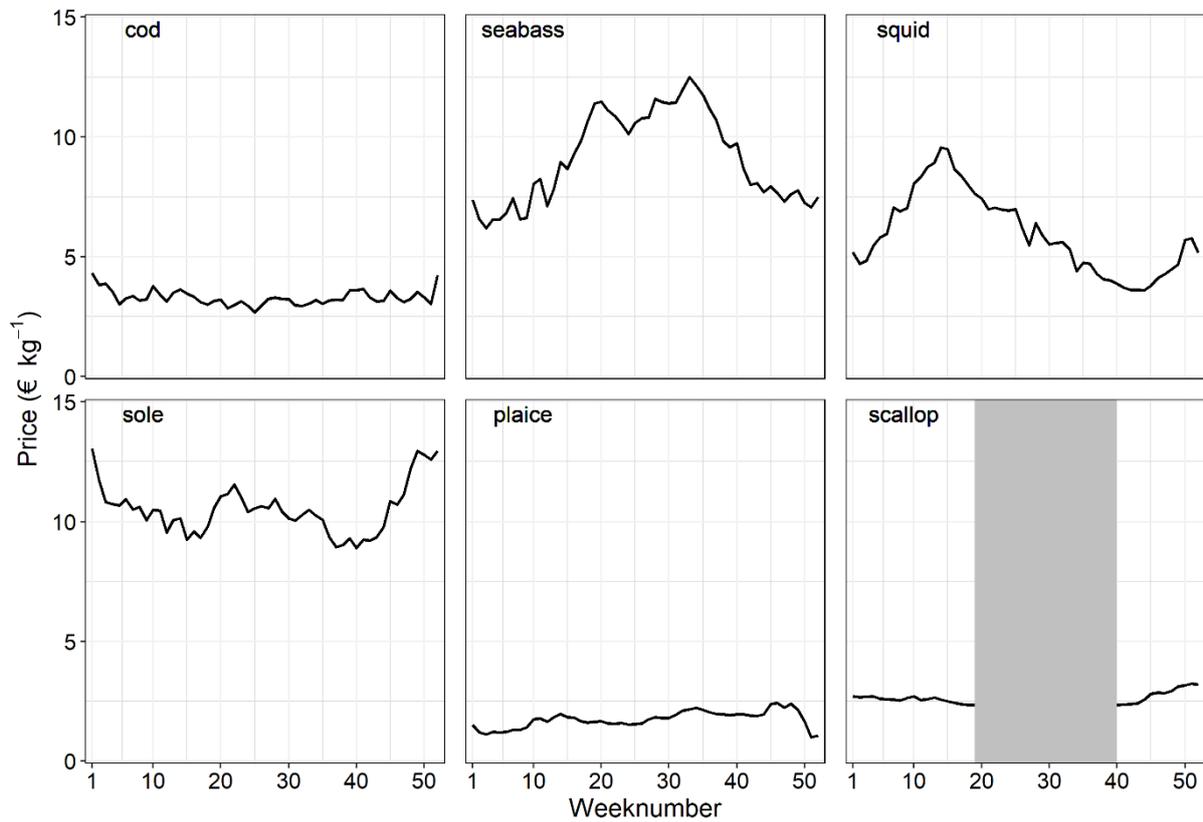
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644 **Figure 3.** Variation in catch rates (kg h^{-1}) for 6 target species on different substrates. Rock
 645 (R), deep coarse sediment (DC), circalittoral coarse sediment (CC), infralittoral coarse sediment
 646 (IC) and soft sediment (S). Black horizontal bars correspond to medians, lower and upper hinges
 647 correspond to the first and third quartiles, whiskers extend to data range. The coefficient α is a
 648 scaling-factor used to differentiate catch rates over habitat types. Setting α to zero results in
 649 equal catch rates over each habitat type, while increasing α results in larger catch rates in habitat
 650 types with the highest aggregation of effort.

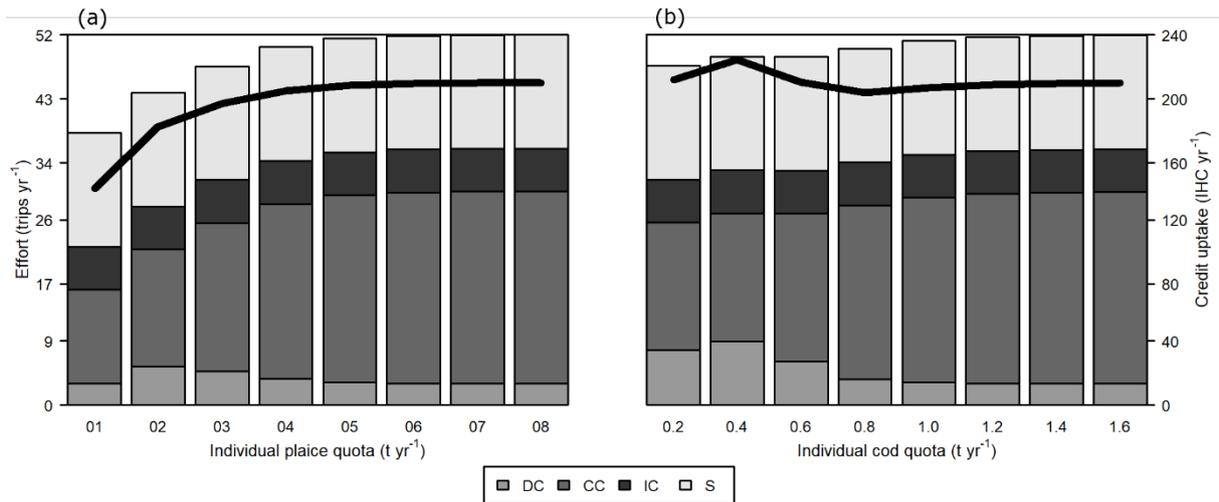
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653 **Figure 4.** Average ex-vessel price per week for each of the target species in the period 2006-
 654 2010. No prices are available for scallops from May to October because of the closed season
 655 (shaded area).

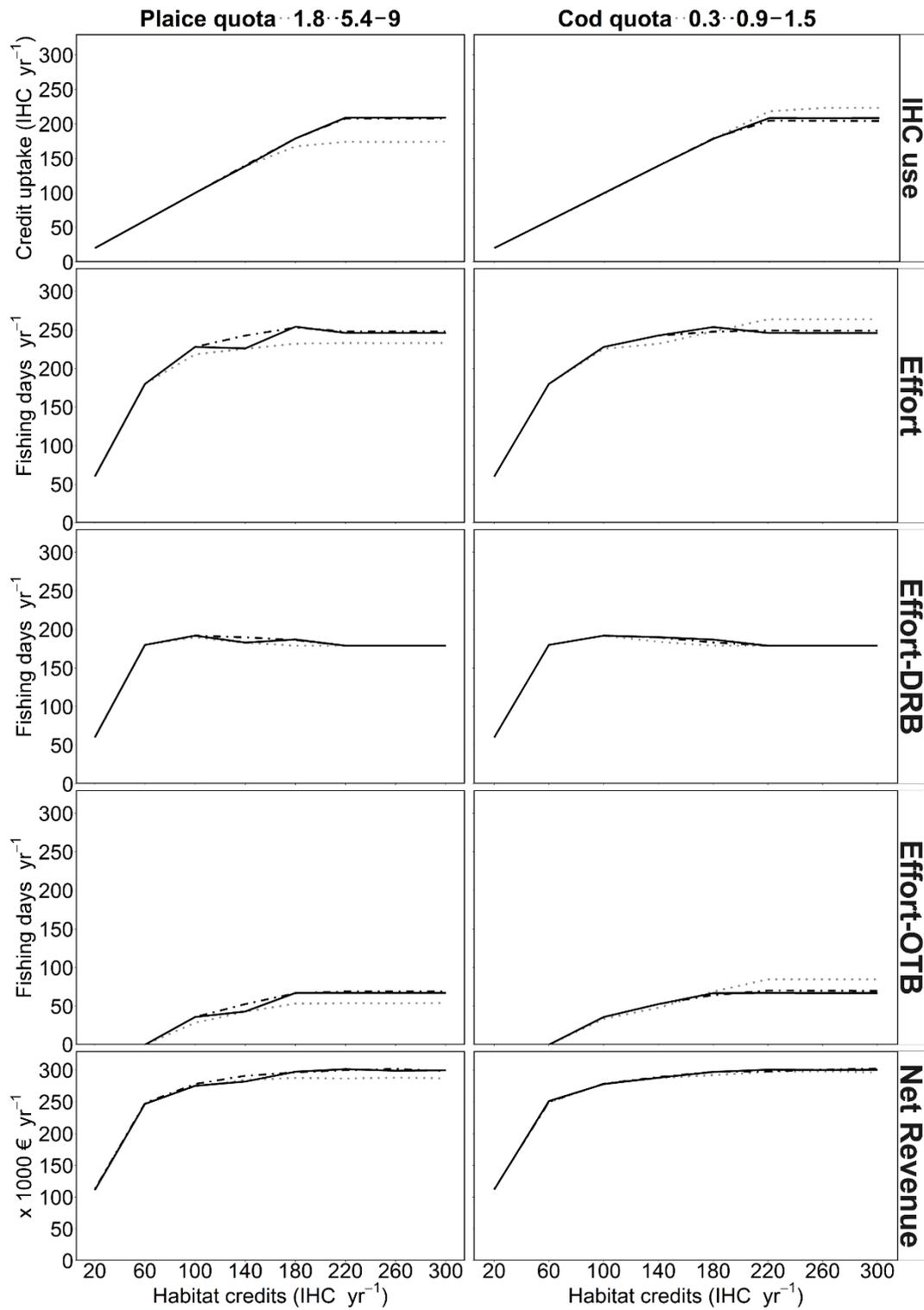
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658 **Figure 5.** Average number of trips in a year to a substrate-type (DC = Deep coarse, CC=
 659 Circalittoral coarse, IC= Infralittoral coarse and S = Soft sediment), depending on the quota of
 660 plaice (a) and cod (b). The black line shows the average impact (credit uptake).

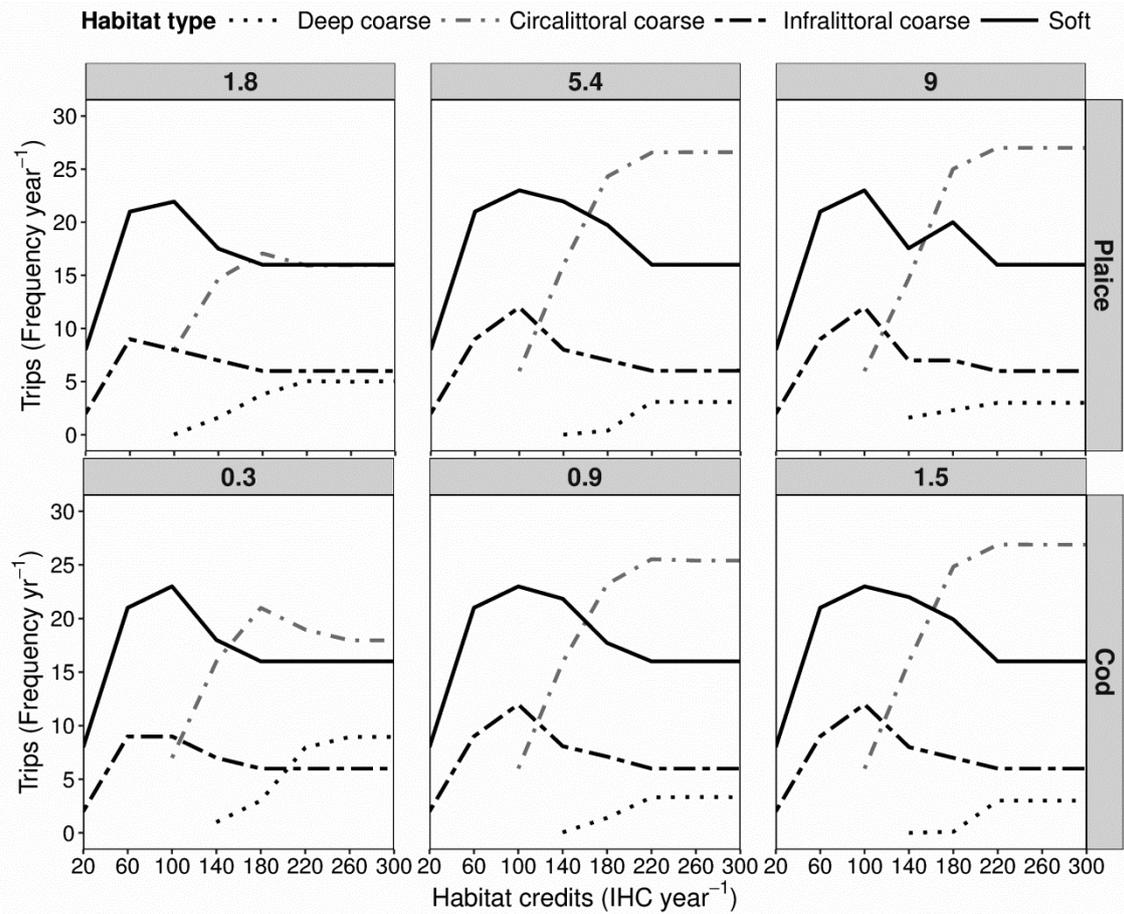
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665 **Figure 6.** Credit uptake, total effort, dredge effort, otter trawl effort, and net revenue in relation
 666 to the individual habitat credits in combination with three levels of individual catch quota for
 667 plaice and cod. Plaice quota range from 1.8 to 9 tonnes per year and cod quota range from 0.3
 668 to 1.5 tonnes per year

669



670

671 **Figure 7.** The average number of trips made to a certain habitat type for the different impact
 672 scenarios. Top panels are a fishery under plaice quota from 1.8 to 9 tonnes per year. Lower
 673 panels are for the fishery constrained by cod quota from 0.3 to 1.5 tonnes per year.

674