
The value of commercial fish size distribution recorded at haul by haul compared to trip by trip

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Abstract :

Data from commercial fishing vessels may enhance the range of observations available for monitoring the marine environment. However, effort and catch data provide information on fish distribution with a bias due to spatial targeting and selectivity. Here, we measured the shortcomings of standard fishery-dependent data and advocate for the utilization of more precise datasets indirectly collected by the commercial fishery. Data from a Danish traceability system, which records size of commercial fish at the haul level, are held against the set-up of current eLog and sales slips' data collected for the Danish fisheries. We showed that the most accurate mapping of the spatial distribution of catches per size group is not only possible through size records collected at the haul level but also by high resolution on fishing effort data. In Europe, the regulation to land all catches with a quota or minimum size limit, including unwanted, has increased the focus on avoidance and discards; we show the potential of such data sources to inform on fish abundance and distribution, especially of importance where fishery-dependent data are the only source of information.

Keywords : electronic monitoring, sea-packing commercial fishery data, spatial analysis, spatial scale, species size distribution

26 **Introduction**

27 In many areas, commercial fishers are required to declare the landed amount of species in official
28 logbooks. Since 2015, EU vessels must report landings in weight in the logbooks for each haul, or as
29 a minimum once every 24 hours (EU, 2012). Additionally, EU vessels above 12 meters in length are
30 required to carry a Vessel Monitoring System (VMS) (EU, 2011) which transmit time, position, speed
31 and course of the vessel at predefined time intervals. By coupling logbook and VMS data, it is
32 possible to estimate the spatial and temporal distribution of landings by species (Bastardie *et al.*,
33 2010; Gerritsen and Lordan, 2011). However, the entry format of logbooks only provides knowledge
34 on the species, not the body sizes of the fish (EU, 2011). Concurrently, along assessing the status of
35 the marine fish species, scientific surveys conducted by research vessels do collect species and size
36 information at a fine spatial scale. However, the temporal coverage and data quantity are much lower
37 for survey data than commercial fisheries data that pose challenges in using them for widescale
38 mapping of fish (Pennino *et al.*, 2016; Bourdaud *et al.*, 2017).

39 In a fisheries management context, the objective of the measures is to limit the fishery within
40 predefined objectives (Hilborn, 2007). For such purpose, more detailed information of the catch
41 composition including size of the fish at the actual fishing event ('haul' for active gears) may allow
42 for better adaptations of management measures, at least in regions like the EU where the on-board
43 observer coverage is closer to 1% than to 100% (Little *et al.*, 2015; James *et al.*, 2019). The full
44 implementation of the European landing obligation in 2019 (EU, 2013; Salomon *et al.*, 2014) further
45 increases the need for more detailed information as the fisheries adapt to the regulation, by increasing
46 fishing gear selectivity e.g. with mesh size changes, grid panels or LED lights on gear (O'Neill *et al.*,

47 2019), or by avoiding the hotspots of unwanted fish spatially, which is also a way of making the
48 fishing more selective (Little *et al.*, 2015; Reid *et al.*, 2019). Although certain species are always
49 unwanted, some target species can also become unwanted e.g., in the case where the allocated quota
50 is close to being exhausted (Borges and Penas Lado, 2019), or the encountered fish are undersized
51 and therefore not marketable (Catchpole *et al.*, 2018; Villasante *et al.*, 2019), or simply because
52 fishers have expectations on market preferences for certain species or sizes (Ono *et al.*, 2013; Batsleer
53 *et al.*, 2015). Conversely, some bycatches may be wanted because they act as a bonus on top of the
54 regular targeted species (Mortensen *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, being able to locate where the species
55 population distribute and where its unwanted components are located, especially the undersized fish,
56 is of importance to help achieve a more selective fishing (STECF, 2018) while maintaining the
57 profitability of the fishery. Tailoring the avoidance of unwanted fish depends on the individual vessel,
58 and the species and fishing grounds may at times translate into subtle tactical avoidance measures
59 based on empirical experience at sea. For example, Mortensen *et al.* (2018) described some avoidance
60 tactics used by individual fisher, some of which may appear counterintuitive: if large amount of saithe
61 (*Pollachius virens*) are caught in a haul, the best approach might simply be to continue with a new
62 haul at the same heading as the previous, on the basis that the previous haul had passed through the
63 school of saithe, whereby a new haul in the same transect would likely be after the school.

64 Tools such as averaged species distribution maps can assist the fishermen in optimizing their fishing
65 tactics at a larger scale (Little *et al.*, 2015; Reid *et al.*, 2019; Robert *et al.*, 2019). But at the scale of
66 the individual fishing operation, better knowledge on the size distribution of target species may not
67 only help spatial avoidance but could also increase the profit of fishing, in the situation of limited
68 overall catch allowance, because of higher prices per kg fish landed.

69 The current data level in eLog reporting is at the haul level and sales slips' information from landings
70 in port. This mean that any size information is collected at the level of the full fishing trip (EU, 2011,

71 2016). This trip-level information can be redistributed back to the haul level by using the size
72 composition of each species for the fishing trip, under the assumption that size composition at the
73 trip-level reflects the size composition at the haul level (Plet-Hansen *et al.*, 2018). Possible
74 discrepancies when deducing spatial distribution from analysing commercial fishing data might not
75 be an issue when using data from small-scale vessels which perform only few hauls within short
76 distance, but could be pronounced for large-scale vessels conducting several hauls per day and
77 weeklong fishing trips, making a mismatch between trip and haul fish size composition highly likely.
78 In this study, we investigated this possible mismatch by using a recent commercial fisheries system
79 collecting at-sea observations of species and their commercial size class from grading machines on-
80 board vessels. We test whether a difference exists in terms of the false presence of certain size classes
81 at the haul level, estimate the impact of the level of spatial resolution for data aggregation based on
82 trip-level records and investigate the potential bias that would arise from the chosen grid cell size
83 and shape (Dark and Bram, 2007).

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85 **Material and methods**

86 **At-sea grading machine, SIF data**

87 The Danish “*Sporbarhed I Fiskerisektoren*” (SIF) database contains information on haul positions
88 and times derived from fishers entries in their electronic logbook (eLog) and landed amount in kg of
89 each commercial size class by species derived from records by on-board grading machines on the
90 vessel. It has been mandatory for Danish fishing vessels to fill in their eLog for each since 2015
91 (Miljø- og Fødevarerministeriet, 2014). SIF therefore contain landings of species and their commercial
92 size classes together with positional data at a haul-by-haul level. Commercial size classification
93 follows the requirements of the EU (EU, 1996). Plet-Hansen *et al.* (2018) previously described the

94 SIF dataset in details and investigated its usefulness for scientific purposes through comparison to
95 logbook and sales slips data. The dataset was considered suitable for further scientific analyses,
96 notwithstanding some variability in data quality across years, vessels, species and size classes (Plet-
97 Hansen et al. 2018).

98 In the present study we used SIF data from 10,092 hauls from six vessels over the period 2015-2017,
99 for which the quality was deemed high for the following 12 species: cod (*Gadus morhua*), haddock
100 (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*), hake (*Merluccius merluccius*), lemon sole (*Microstomus kitt*), ling
101 (*Molva molva*), monkfish (*Lophius spp.*), pollack (*Pollachius pollachius*), saithe (*Pollachius virens*),
102 turbot (*Scophthalmus maximus*), witch flounder (*Glyptocephalus cynoglossus*), wolffish (*Anarhichas*
103 *spp.*) and whiting (*Merlangius merlangus*) (Table 1). These 12 species constituted 76.5% of the total
104 landings in value and 67.1% of the total landings in weight for the three years for these six vessels.
105 The final dataset after the validation according to Plet-Hansen et al., 2018 is the baseline for
106 comparison as records of species and sizes are directly available at the individual haul level. The
107 dataset is henceforth referred to as “SIF”.

108 **Trip-level reconstructed data**

109 In order to estimate the gain of having size class recorded at the haul level, we calculated a second
110 dataset from aggregating the SIF data to mimic the level of aggregation of standard logbooks data. In
111 this second dataset, we aggregated the weight of the specific size classes for each of the 12 species in
112 SIF to the trip level, as this is the stage at which size class information can be derived from vessels
113 without on-board grading machines in Denmark. We calculated the full landing of each species for
114 each haul, disregarding the size class information to mimic the entry format in the eLog. We then
115 reallocated the average size composition aggregated at the trip-level for each species back to the full
116 landings of each species at each haul. Thereby, this second dataset has the size class information as

117 if it had been then the trip-level origin of size records (TOR). TOR thus represents the size class
118 information that can be collected under the current limitation of size class information at the trip level,
119 while full species composition information is available at the haul level from the eLog. Giving an
120 example for illustration: Two hauls recorded in SIF, one with 2 kg of size class 5 cod and one with 8
121 kg of size class 1 cod will in TOR result in two hauls that both have size class 5 and size class 1
122 recorded. However, in TOR the first haul will have 0.4 kg of size class 5 cod and 1.6 kg of size class
123 1 cod and the second haul will have 1.6 kg of size class 5 cod and 6.4 kg of size class 1 cod. The
124 reason for this is that the TOR dataset is created under the assumption that the trip level size
125 composition is the same as the haul level size composition. There, the percentage of size class 5 cod
126 and the percentage for size class 1 cod for the full trip (20% for size class 5 and 80% for size class 1)
127 will be redistributed back to the hauls as if the percentwise size composition for the trip also is the
128 percentwise size composition for each haul.

129 **Estimation of difference between SIF and TOR**

130 For each haul, we calculated the difference between SIF and TOR by weight in landings of each
131 species and size class and we aggregated size classes into two overall groups for each species (“small
132 fish” and “large fish”) in order to reduce the number of categories and amplify the potential
133 differences between the datasets. Such a small/large fish division can be based on different factors,
134 such as age and maturity. Here we used the price difference as the main factor (Sjöberg, 2012; Hoff
135 *et al.*, 2019). Because SIF data is commercial data and is influenced by the expected price of the sold
136 fish, the separation was based on the economic value of the size classes for each species. The mean
137 price per commercial size classes was calculated on SIF for the study period 2015-2017. The
138 threshold under which size classes at the fish market are perceived as “small” was defined at the point
139 where the value of the fish drops. Additionally, we used literature indicating size class and economic
140 effect on discarding practices as an extra indication to help validate this threshold (Table 2). Hence,

141 for cod, haddock, hake, saithe, pollack, whiting, ling and lemon sole these divisions coincide with
142 75-100% expected maturity of the fish (Silva *et al.*, 2013; ICES, 2014a, 2014b, 2014c, 2014d;
143 Macdonald *et al.*, 2017; FishBase, 2019a). For monkfish, turbot, wolffish and witch flounder the
144 maturity at division between “small” and “large” is uncertain but likely less than 50%, potentially as
145 low as 0% (Bowering, 1976; Robinson *et al.*, 2010; Gunnarsson *et al.*, 2013; Silva *et al.*, 2013;
146 Macdonald *et al.*, 2017; FishBase, 2019b; The Safina Center, 2019).

147 When using fisheries-dependent data from active fishing gear types, each haul can be viewed as a
148 data sampling transect. Every haul containing a species and size class thereby becomes a record of
149 presence. An analysis of fish presence/absence between SIF and TOR data setup was made to estimate
150 possible ‘false presence’ samples (hauls) occurring when size class information from trip-level is
151 redistributed to the haul-level. Haul locations were assigned to grid cells of 0.1° latitude by 0.2°
152 longitude representing ca. 121 km² at the study area latitude (North Sea region). The grid cell size
153 was decided based on two factors. i) the average distance of hauls (~17 km N/S and ~16 km E/W),
154 meaning that an average haul would not cross through more than two or three grid cells. ii) to comply
155 with regulation protecting the confidentiality of individual vessels data on the fine-scale and
156 infrequent fishing grounds. Each haul is thereby treated as a transect passing through a grid cell.
157 Because only the total amount caught per haul in this dataset is known and therefore the exact timing
158 of each caught fish within the haul is unknown, the landed amount from each haul is treated as equally
159 likely to originate from any grid cell in which the haul passed through. The share of ‘false presence’
160 samples was calculated for each species and size grouping as presence records in TOR where no
161 presences occurred in SIF, divided by the total number of hauls passing through the grid cell.

162 To evaluate the degree of discrepancy between SIF and TOR when describing the spatial patterns of
163 landed amounts of fish sizes, and the effect of the grid cell resolution, we used the SPAtial EFficiency
164 metric (SPAEF) introduced in (Koch *et al.*, 2018). SPAEF is calculated as:

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$$SPAEF = 1 - \sqrt{(\alpha - 1)^2 + (\beta - 1)^2 + (\gamma - 1)^2}$$

where α is the Pearson correlation coefficient between SIF and TOR grid values, β is the coefficient of variation for SIF grid values divided by the coefficient of variation for TOR grid values and γ is the histogram overlap between the grid patterns with SIF values and grid patterns with TOR values. SPAEF is thereby a multi-composite and statistical metric that summarizes the degree of matching of two spatial patterns in one single value (between $-\infty$ and 1 where 1 is full overlap) based on the balancing between multiple components from where the spatial comparison can be made, an approach which has been advocated for among geoscientists (Krause *et al.*, 2005; Gupta *et al.*, 2012; Koch *et al.*, 2018). While the topic for which this metric has been developed is not within the field of fisheries, the metric should be universal for spatial analysis and apply to any spatially distributed data such as delocalized recording of fish catches (Ciannelli *et al.*, 2008). Comparison of two by two spatial patterns results in many SPAEF outputs. Therefore, the visual SPAEF outputs are illustrated only for monkfish (Fig. 2-5), which is a data-poor species in the study area (Poos *et al.*, 2018). SPAEF metrics of the remaining species are presented briefly, but detailed visual outcomes for each of the other species are available in the Supplementary Material.

To illustrate the effect of chosen grain size, also known as the Modifiable Areal Unit Problem, which exist in spatial analysis including those directed at fisheries management (Jelinski and Wu, 1996; Dark and Bram, 2007; Guisan *et al.*, 2007; Salmivaara *et al.*, 2015), SPAEF was calculated at different raster grid cell sizes. In addition to the above-mentioned default cell size of 0.1 by 0.2 degrees, we chose the coarser grids defined by The International Council for the Exploration of Sea (ICES), whereby statistical rectangles (0.5 by 1.0 degrees) are officially used for landings declaration in fisher's logbooks (Hintzen *et al.*, 2018; ICES, 2019), and the finer grid resolution of 0.05 by 0.05 degrees, which have been used for VMS analysis, including in the ICES Working Group on Spatial Fisheries Data (WGSFD) (Hintzen *et al.*, 2012; ICES, 2018).

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190 **Results**

191 **False presence sampling estimation**

192 Across all species, size groupings and years the average number of cells with a ‘false presence’
193 recorded by TOR was 33 out of the total cell count of 883 when using a grid cell extend of 0.1°
194 latitude by 0.2° longitude. The highest number of hauls recorded in SIF passing through a grid cell
195 during 2015-2017 was 31 while the lowest is 1. The ‘false presence’ recorded hauls by TOR compared
196 to SIF in the affected grid cells ranged from 3.22% (small hake) to 100% (Fig. 1).

197 The amount of false presence samples (hauls) occurring in TOR differed between species and size
198 class groupings (Fig. 1). Large cod, haddock, lemon sole, large ling, monkfish, pollack, small saithe,
199 small witch flounder and wolffish all had a share of false presence hauls in TOR extending to 100%.
200 Large saithe (up to 15 hauls), small haddock (up to 11 hauls), small hake (up to 12 hauls), small
201 monkfish (up to 31 hauls), small turbot (up to 22 hauls) and small wolffish (up to 25 hauls) had grid
202 cells where this false presence share was out of more than 10 hauls. For all other species and size
203 groupings, the false presence share was applying to less than 10 hauls passing through a false positive
204 cell. Smaller sizes were affected more than the larger sizes by the false presence in TOR, the lack of
205 a finer information assuming small fish to distribute on where they were not found in reality (i.e. in
206 SIF), and this was particularly consistent for monkfish, turbot and wolffish, which showed signs for
207 smaller fish to not be distributed evenly but encountered patchily.

208 **Distribution of landed amount and spatial resolution effect**

209 Higher SPAEF coefficient was found for monkfish of the size grouping “large” (Fig. 2) compared to
210 monkfish of the size grouping “small” (Fig. 4). Additionally, small grid cells (VMS) produce larger
211 SPAEF output (Fig. 2) compared to large grid cells (ICES square) (Fig. 3). That is, for monkfish in

212 2017, the difference in spatial distribution of abundance data between SIF and TOR is higher for the
213 small size grouping of monkfish and also becomes higher if data is aggregated to grid cells with
214 substantial spatial extent (ICES squares) compared to grid cells with a relatively small spatial extent
215 (VMS). The difference in the gradient scale extend between Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 is caused by the
216 aggregation of more samples into each grid cell when the spatial extent of a grid cell is relatively
217 large (ICES squares) compared to relatively small grid cells (VMS).

218 Cod, haddock, hake, lemon sole, ling, large monkfish, small pollack, saithe, turbot, large witch
219 flounder and large wolffish have SPAEF values were close to 1 when moving from large grid cell
220 sizes (ICES, 0.5° by 1.0°) towards small grid cell sizes (VMS, 0.05° by 0.05°)(Fig. 5). Small
221 monkfish, large pollack, small witch flounder, whiting and small wolffish do not show the same
222 tendency. Small monkfish, large pollack and small witch flounder have the main increase in SPAEF
223 value when moving from the largest grid cell size (ICES, 0.5° by 1.0°) to the medium grid cell sizes
224 (0.1° by 0.2°) and with no apparent increase in SPAEF value going from medium grid cell sizes to
225 the smallest grid cell sizes (VMS, 0.05° by 0.05°). Whiting and small wolffish have no apparent
226 increase in SPAEF value regardless of grid cell sizes, if any change, rather a potential decrease in
227 SPAEF value when moving from large grid cell sizes (ICES, 0.5° by 1.0°) towards small grid cell
228 sizes (VMS, 0.05° by 0.05°). For the species and size groupings with a tendency for an increase in
229 SPAEF value when grid cell sizes are reduced, the main SPAEF metric behind the increased SPAE
230 value is the histogram overlap.

231

232 **Discussion**

233 We set out to estimate the potential mismatch that occurs between the fish size composition in the
234 marine-wild fisheries landings data only collected at the individual trip-at-sea level compared to the

235 more accurate but less available haul-by-haul level. If redistributing trip-based data to hauls is
236 routinely done, e.g. in Denmark, it remains crucial to examine and confirm if such an approach does
237 provide actual benefits with better estimates. We used opportunistically the data collected by a
238 traceability system (SIF), to make this estimation. However, the data were only available for a subset
239 of the Danish fleet and mainly for large scale demersal trawlers.
240 Our findings show that spatial mismatch in species landings distribution, for instance due to ‘false
241 presence’ records do arise from the lack of fish body size information at the haul-level. While the
242 mismatch occurs for both large and small size groups, it is more profound for small individuals
243 compared to the large individuals. A possible explanation for this is that in general, the large animal
244 size groupings contain more commercial sizes classes than the small animal size group. Thereby, the
245 information aggregation for larger size classes resemble that of size data collected at a trip-level more
246 than that of the small size classes. The focus of this study was to present the added value of size level
247 at the haul-level and the influence of the geographical resolution chosen for the gridding. Hence, we
248 divided the landings per size group related to a price index to illustrate this added value. If this
249 grouping could appear coarse, our findings already measure a substantial spatial mismatch between
250 the two levels of data resolution, which underpins the influence of the data record level.

251 Besides, when aggregating data spatially, the specific area size and shape will affect which samples
252 fall within the area and thereby affect the modelled outcome (Guisan *et al.*, 2007; Amoroso *et al.*,
253 2018a). In theory, this problem could be avoided if each observation is analysed individually (Jelinski
254 and Wu, 1996). In reality, it is often necessary to aggregate data spatially, e.g. due to the spatial
255 resolution at which data is available and thereby the scale at which it is reasonable to present the data
256 (Salmivaara *et al.*, 2015; Amoroso *et al.*, 2018b; Kroodsma *et al.*, 2018). When choosing the grid cell
257 size for modelling spatial gradient data, a balance between the data record level and the wanted
258 analysis has to be made.

259 The outcome of the mismatch analysis for most species and size groups in our study was that the
260 mismatch reduced when the used grid was fine. At first, this might give the impression that grid cell
261 sizes should simply be as small as possible. However, one has to take into account whether the data
262 record level truly allows for pinpointing data to small grid cell sizes. Otherwise, one risk representing
263 data in grid cells that in fact did not contain these records in reality. While most species show a trend
264 towards a higher SPAEF value when grid cell size decrease, the trend is asymptotic with the main
265 increase in degree of overlap achieved when moving from ICES grid cells to lat. 0.1° by long. 0.2°
266 grid cell sizes. Additionally, the SPAEF metric which mainly drives this increase is the histogram
267 overlap, meaning that whether a data record truly originate from a grid cell or not is key. That is,
268 whether false presences or absences are inserted into the data when aggregating into grid cells. False
269 absence or methodological absence occurs when the method for data collection is unable to ensure a
270 valid record of absences, whereby data records will have absences where presences should have been
271 observed (Lobo *et al.*, 2010; Barbet-Massin *et al.*, 2012). What our analysis shows (Fig. 1) is that the
272 reverse situation, false presence, may also occur when relying on fisheries dependent data as a source
273 of data. Unlike the false absence, the false presence does not present itself at the species-level as the
274 species was actually caught. If integrating commercial fisheries data with scientific surveys to boost
275 the data availability (Rufener *et al.*, 2018), one risk inducing false presences for fish body size into
276 the distribution of the commercial fisheries data if potential false presences are not accounted for.
277 However, for most species in our analysis, such mismatch can be decreased by using smaller grid cell
278 sizes.

279 Our findings suggest that beside fish body size records at the haul level, positional data records of
280 fishing activities (effort data), recorded at a fine-scale also will lower the mismatch between size class
281 collected at the haul-level or the trip-level. Fine-scale effort data will allow for finer grid cells because
282 the positional data will represent the correct track line of the fishing vessel better than when coarser

283 positional data is used (Needle *et al.*, 2015). Several possibilities to achieve this exist. Since EU
284 fishing vessels are already required to carry VMS, in theory higher precision of effort data could be
285 recorded by simply increasing the ping rate. That is, instead of recording position, speed and course
286 at every 1 to 2 hours, the record could be done at e.g. a 5 minutes interval, just like that of AIS data
287 (Gerritsen *et al.*, 2013; Girard and Du Payrat, 2017). Another option would be to use AIS data from
288 the fishing fleet. One should keep in mind, however, that AIS was developed for security and
289 navigational purposes (IMO, 2019) and therefore skippers can turn AIS equipment on and off as they
290 wish, contrary to the VMS. A third option would be to use electronic monitoring systems that record
291 positional data at at 10 seconds intervals beside recording the ongoing fishing activities with sensors
292 on the fishing gear (Plet-Hansen *et al.*, 2019; van Helmond *et al.*, 2020). Indeed, such electronic
293 monitoring systems, where no video feed is installed but merely sensor and GPS equipment, are
294 already mandatory for certain mussel fisheries in Denmark and Scotland (Nielsen *et al.*, 2014).

295 In our study, there are a few cases where a higher resolution of spatial effort data does not seem to
296 translate into a higher degree of overlap. Whiting, small monkfish, large pollack, small wolffish and
297 arguably small witch flounder show no obvious improvement in spatial allocation when using smaller
298 grid cell sizes. Indeed for whiting and small wolffish, it seems that the use of smaller grid cell sizes
299 even makes the spatial allocation mismatch larger. One reason could be that these species and size
300 classes are landed in lower amounts than for instance species and size classes like large monkfish or
301 wolffish or species like cod, haddock or saithe. The lower amount of entries for SPAEF to be run on
302 may simply make the statistics less robust. Whether this is the case or if other factors like different
303 spatial distribution of these species and size classes are at play could be subject for further study.

304 From an ecological modelling perspective, more data availability of size records are of interest to
305 feed into species distribution models (Elith and Leathwick, 2009) given that fish tend to distribute
306 differently along their life stage while fishing select only a fraction of the overall abundance. On-

307 going advances using image recognition could increase the relevance of grading machine data,
308 including data from sea-packing grading machinery, by automating the recording of fish lengths of
309 fish packed in boxes according to the EU commercial size class specifications (Álvarez-Ellacuría *et*
310 *al.*, 2019). However, because fishers target specific species of commercial interest and use specific
311 fishing techniques which are differently selective over fish body sizes, commercial fishing is by
312 nature a non-random process which means that the fisheries-dependent data cannot be assimilated to
313 stratified random sampling (Smith, 2000; Sims *et al.*, 2008; Madsen and Valentinsson, 2010;
314 Fauconnet and Rochet, 2016). Using such kind of data source for the species distribution modelling
315 would risk biasing the modelling with “false absence” (Barbet-Massin *et al.*, 2012) that may originate
316 from the spatial, temporal and technical selectivity of the commercial fisheries data (Lobo *et al.*,
317 2010).

318 In this study, size grouping was based on categories that would relate to fishers’ behaviour and
319 thereby fisheries management. This is because the actual size composition of catches and landings is
320 the result of, among other driving factors, the fish quota availability, and the fish price per kg that
321 influence the targeting behaviour of fishers (Graham *et al.*, 2007; Bourdaud *et al.*, 2018; Robert *et*
322 *al.*, 2019). If species-related non-sized data may be sufficient in informing the possible avoidance of
323 unwanted catches, including fish body size-related information will also help to support other
324 economic drivers for the fishers to optimise their fishing effort spatially. Anticipating the possible
325 size composition of the following hauls holds both ecological and economic values that are likely to
326 influence fishers’ decision-making (Little *et al.*, 2009; Bourdaud *et al.*, 2018). Such refined
327 information as used in this study may help in adapting management measures to fit management goals
328 better by accounting for the adaptive behaviour of fishers (Abbott and Haynie, 2012) as well as by
329 supporting the fisheries sector with documentation and tools, easing the compliance with the rules,
330 and eventually minimising the fishing impacts (Hintzen *et al.*, 2018; Bradley *et al.*, 2019; Reid *et al.*,

331 2019). It is important to keep in mind though, that the commercial fisheries data used in this study
332 only contain information on landings and thereby lack information for potential discards.

333

334 **Conclusion**

335 Our study measured to what extent using commercial fisheries data to deduce the spatial distribution
336 of species and sizes comes with the risk of assuming that fish sizes are distributed to where they are
337 not. We compared data recorded at the haul-level to the same data arranged as if it was recorded at
338 the trip-level. The mismatch was found to be greater for small sizes of a species compared to larger
339 sizes. Using commercial fisheries data records recorded at the trip level may be useful or even
340 necessary. Yet it is important to acknowledge the limitations and potential bias of one's data sources.
341 A clear limitation with the commercial fisheries data used in this study is that it rely solely on records
342 of landings, whereby the influence of potential discards cannot be covered. Our findings do however
343 suggest that the potential bias induced by redistributing sizes recorded at the trip-level onto the haul-
344 level could be decreased if the positional data for the actual fishing activities are collected at an
345 interval allowing for refined fishing effort data. For certain species, however, fine-scale effort data
346 did not help, while size information recorded at the haul level still did. While this might be influence
347 by low landing volumes, other factors such as different spatial distribution of these species could be
348 a potential reason too. Further studies are needed to investigate this.

349 **Supplementary material**

350 The following supplementary material is available at ICESJMS online: Detailed SPAEF outcomes
351 for the 12 species divided by size grouping for the three investigated grid cell sizes.

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359 **Date availability**

360 The data underlying this article cannot be shared publicly due to the privacy of fishers and data
361 protection of personal information. The data will be shared on reasonable request to the corresponding
362 author.

363

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601 Table 1. Total Degrees of Freedom (DF), r-squared (r^2) and r-squared for data with log-
 602 transformation (log-transformed r^2) for the 12 species identified as being well in accordance with
 603 sales slips and logbook records for the six vessels in the years 2015-2017.

Species	DF	r^2	log-trans r^2
Cod	3510	0.871	0.841
Haddock	1589	0.884	0.877
Hake	1503	0.810	0.935
Lemon sole	1549	0.916	0.944
Ling	1058	0.974	0.937
Monkfish	2382	0.944	0.944
Pollack	824	0.962	0.928
Saithe	1617	0.879	0.916
Turbot	1653	0.894	0.931
Witch flounder	1653	0.908	0.931
Whiting	167	0.950	0.865
Wolfish	1161	0.916	0.944

604

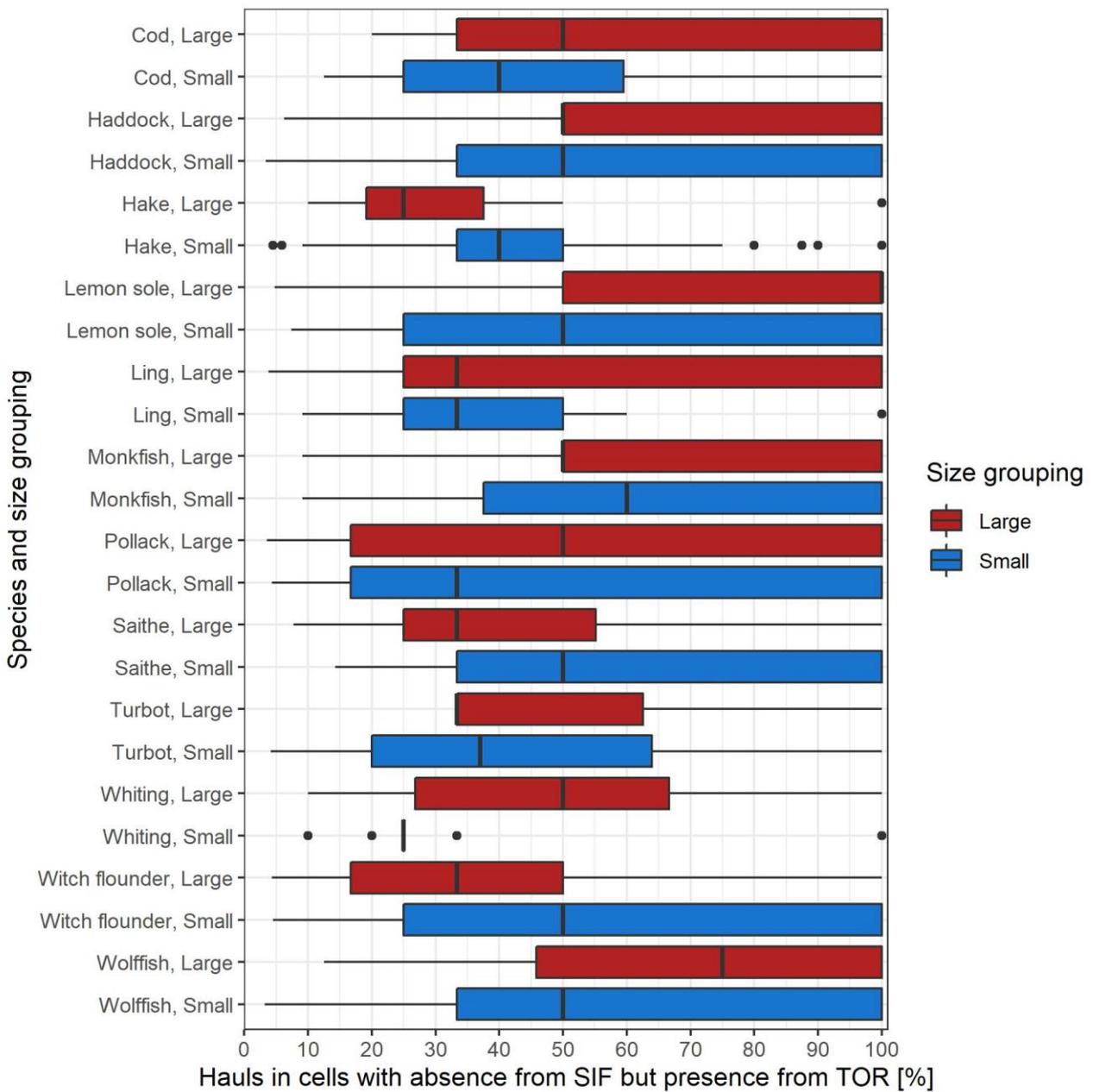
605 Table 2. Division by size class and kg between small and large grouping.

Species	Division small/large	Number of size classes in size group small	Number of size classes in size group large	Rationale
Cod	Size class 3 (≥ 2.00 kg)	2	4	(Ulrich <i>et al.</i> , 2013)
Haddock	Size class 2 (≥ 0.57 kg)	2	2	(Stratoudakis <i>et al.</i> , 1998; Bergsson <i>et al.</i> , 2017)
Hake	Size class 2 (≥ 1.20 kg)	2	3	(Bergsson <i>et al.</i> , 2017)
Lemon sole	Size class 2 (≥ 0.35 kg)	1	2	Prices 2015-2017
Ling	Size class 2 (≥ 3.00 kg)	1	2	Prices 2015-2017
Monkfish	Size class 4 (≥ 1.00 kg)	1	4	Prices 2015-2017
Pollack	Size class 2 (≥ 3.00 kg)	2	2	Prices 2015-2017
Saithe	Size class 3 (≥ 1.5 kg)	1	3	(Bergsson <i>et al.</i> , 2017)
Turbot	Size class 3 (≥ 1.00 kg)	1	3	Prices 2015-2017

Witch flounder	Size class 2 (≥ 0.3 kg)	1	2	Prices 2015-2017
Whiting	Size class 2 (≥ 0.35 kg)	2	2	(Stratoudakis <i>et al.</i> , 1998; Bergsson <i>et al.</i> , 2017)
Wolffish	Size class 3 (≥ 1.00 kg)	1	2	Prices 2015-2017

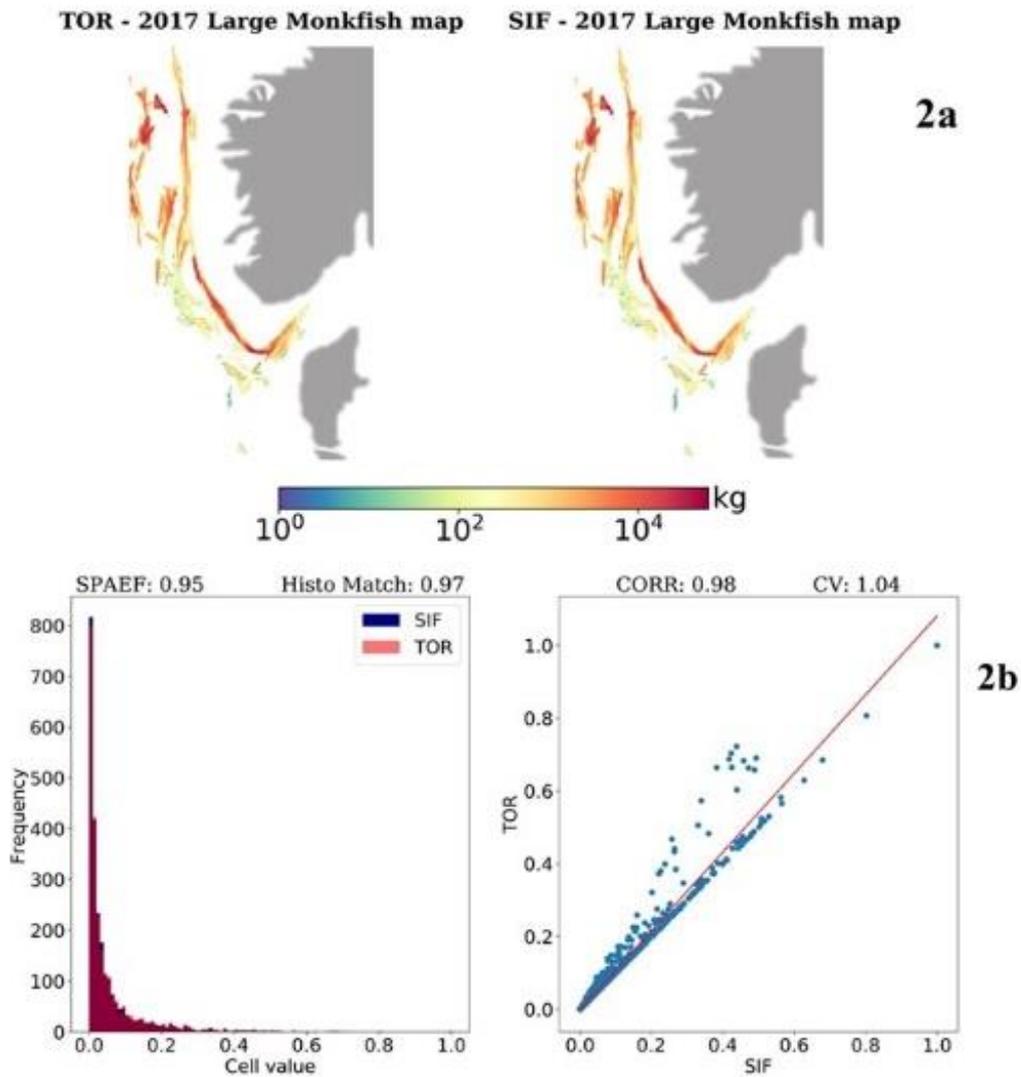
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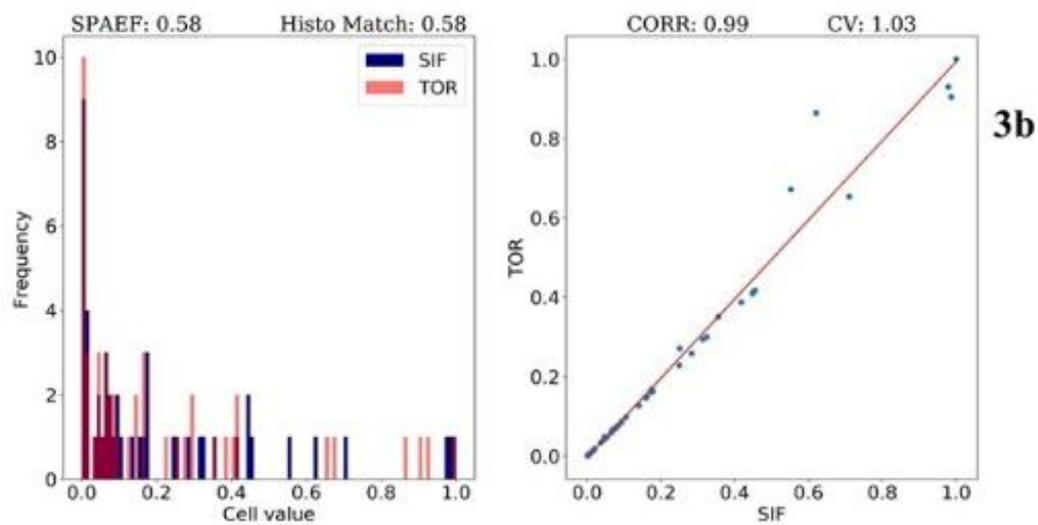
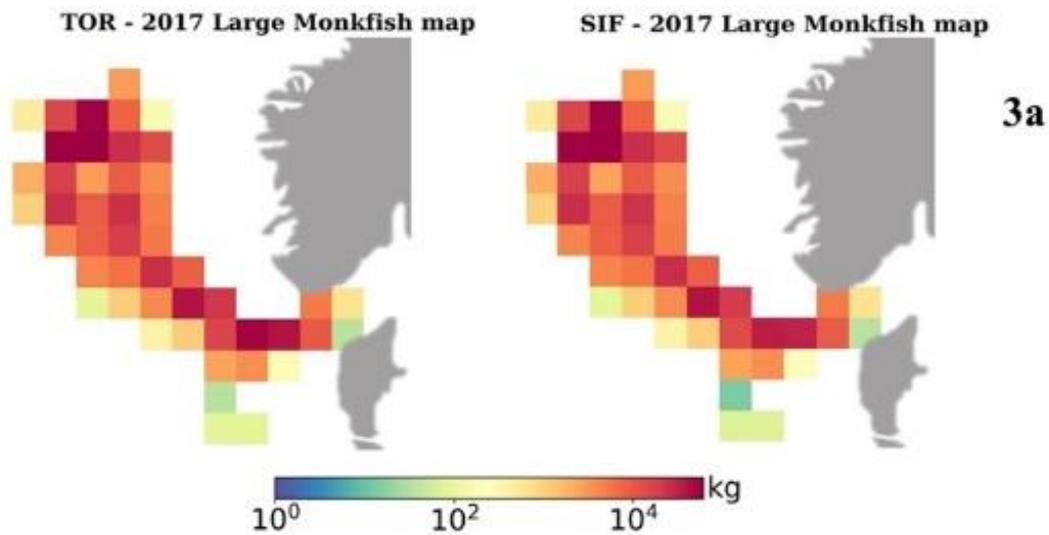
610 Figure 1. The box-and-whiskey plot of the share of ‘false presence’ samples (hauls) in grid cells of
 611 0.1° latitude by 0.2° longitude where species are absent in SIF but present in TOR. The x-axis
 612 shows species and size grouping, the y-axis shows the percentile share of hauls with a ‘false
 613 positive’ record in TOR out of the total amount of hauls passing through a cell.



614

615 Figure 2. SPAEF output when using VMS grid cell sizes (0.05° by 0.05°) for large monkfish in
 616 2017. Subplot a) compares the spatial overlap for TOR and SIF. Gradient colour is the amount of
 617 monkfish in kg associated with each grid cell on a logarithmic scale. Grey area is a sketch of
 618 western Norway and Denmark. Subplot b) compares the histogram overlap and the correlation
 619 between TOR and SIF. SPAEF coefficient is 0.95, histogram overlap is 0.97, Pearson correlation is
 620 0.98 and CV/CV is 1.04.

621



622

623 Figure 3. SPAEF output when using ICES grid cell sizes (0.5° by 1.0°) for large monkfish in 2017.

624 Subplot a) compares the spatial overlap for TOR and SIF. Gradient colour is the amount of

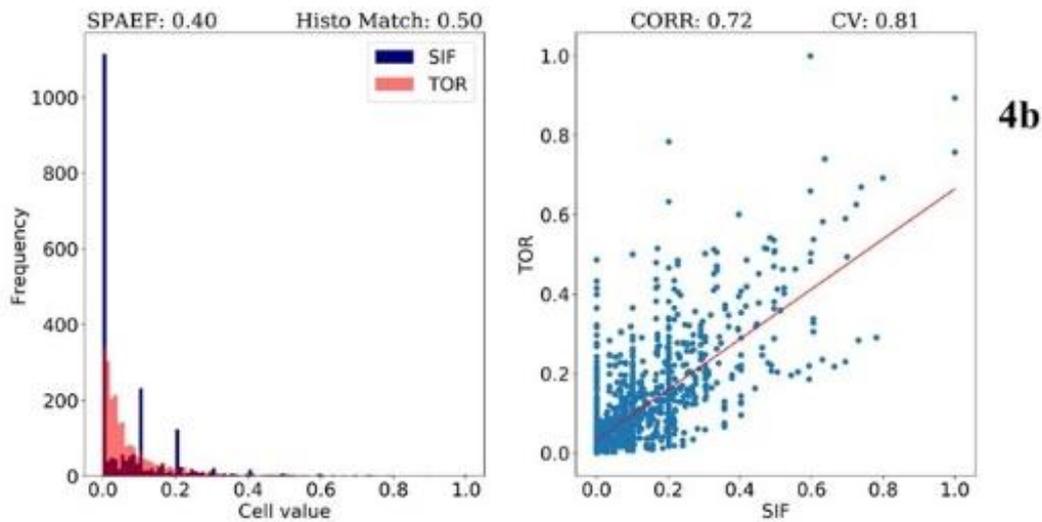
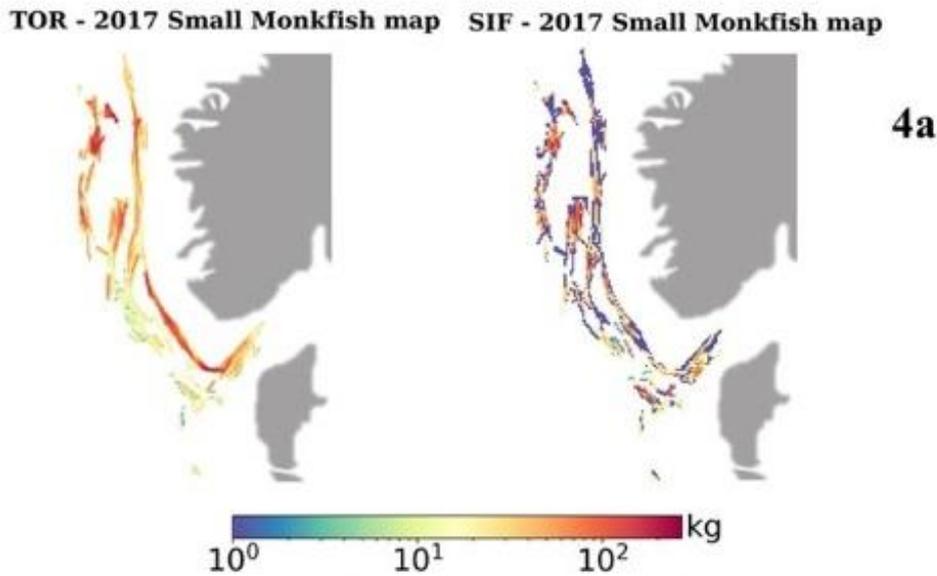
625 monkfish in kg associated with each grid cell on a logarithmic scale. Grey area is a sketch of

626 western Norway and Denmark. Subplot b) compares the histogram overlap and the correlation

627 between TOR and SIF. SPAEF coefficient is 0.58, histogram overlap is 0.58, Pearson correlation is

628 0.99 and CV/CV is 1.03.

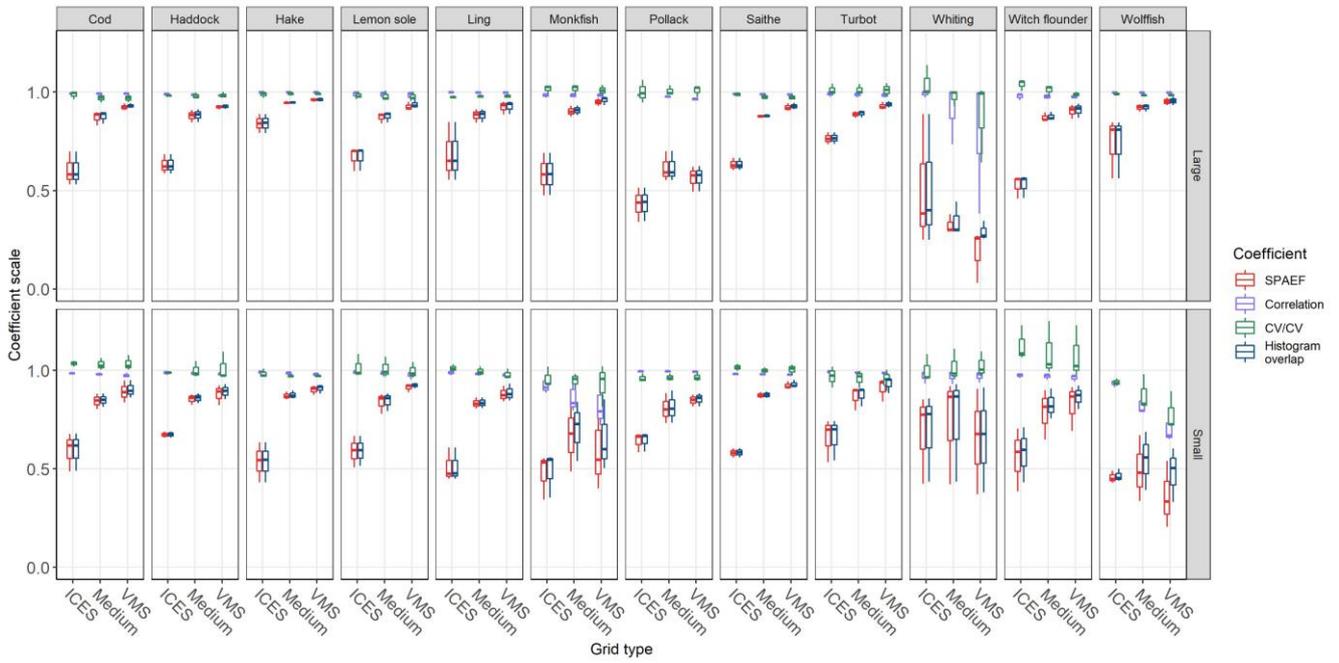
629



630

631 Figure 4. SPAEF output when using VMS grid cell sizes (0.05° by 0.05°) for small monkfish in
 632 2017. Subplot a) compares the spatial overlap for TOR and SIF. Gradient colour is the amount of
 633 monkfish in kg associated with each grid cell on a logarithmic scale. The grey area is a sketch of
 634 western Norway and Denmark. Subplot b) compares the histogram overlap and the correlation
 635 between TOR and SIF. SPAEF coefficient is 0.40, histogram overlap is 0.50, Pearson correlation is
 636 0.72 and CV/CV is 0.81.

637



638

639 Figure 5. Box-and-whiskers plot of outcome for SPAEF and its three composite coefficients for the
 640 large and small size group of the 12 species by the three grid cell sizes for the years 2015-2017. A
 641 SPAEF at 1 means full match between the two trip-based TOR and haul-based SIF spatial patterns.

642