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Operational framework, interpretation of observations, and future
perspectives

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1 **Acoustic data collected on pelagic fishing vessels throughout an annual**
2 **cycle: operational framework, interpretation of observations, and future**
3 **perspectives**

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11

12 **Abstract**

13 Acoustic data collection trials on pelagic freezer-trawlers were realised in 2012 during several fishing trips
14 targeting blue whiting west of the British Isles in spring, North Sea herring in summer, and horse mackerel in
15 the English Channel and Celtic Sea in autumn. Echosounders were calibrated and time- and position-stamped
16 data logged along the path covered by the vessels. The acoustic detections recorded during different types of
17 trawler activity within a fishing trip ('searching', 'stationary', and 'fishing') were compared between target
18 species. The highest proportion of time spent for activity 'fishing' was observed in the blue whiting fishery
19 (82%), while that value was lower in the horse mackerel and herring fishery (68% and 54%). In all fisheries
20 the quantified mean fish densities recorded were significantly higher during 'fishing' than during 'searching'.
21 Changes in recorded fish density magnitudes over time before and after trawling also showed different
22 patterns between fisheries. The quantified peculiarities exhibited by the specific fishing trip data is discussed
23 in light of incorporating them in monitoring programs and analysis methods that can advance ecosystem
24 understanding. Potential future approaches for analysis methods of opportunistically recorded acoustic
25 fishing vessel data are discussed.

26

27 **Keywords**

28 acoustic data; blue whiting; echosounder; fishing vessel; freezer-trawler; herring; horse mackerel

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Sustainable management of marine resources and services is increasingly being based on an ecosystem
31 approach (Bianchi and Skjoldal, 2008; Levin *et al.* 2009; McLeod and Leslie, 2009; Link, 2010;
32 Katsanevakis *et al.* 2011; Kruse *et al.*, 2012). Apart from a holistic understanding about how human activities
33 impact on the system, such an approach requires quantitative knowledge about fundamental ecosystem
34 processes (Curtin and Prellezo, 2010). To develop this knowledge, information on the distribution,
35 abundance and productivity of different biological ecosystem components are required (Demer *et al.* 2009;
36 Handegard *et al.* 2013). However, the specific monitoring and sampling programmes currently in place are
37 largely designed to assess individual ecosystem components. Available data therefore often do not satisfy the
38 requirements of advanced ecosystem models (Fulton, 2010; Rose *et al.* 2010). The latter are designed to
39 enhance our ecosystem process understanding and to make predictions based on biological and physical
40 characteristics of the ecosystem over extended spatio-temporal scales.

41 Scientific acoustic surveys are an essential source of information for current stock assessments of widely
42 distributed pelagic fish populations, which show distinct migration patterns throughout their life cycles (e.g.
43 Iversen, 2002). Echosounders are used to continuously collect fish density data along systematic survey
44 transects. The acoustic intensity reflected by the fish can subsequently be converted into average fish density-
45 per-area values inside the covered area. A survey age-structured biomass index for the targeted stock can
46 then be derived from the acoustic data in combination with collected biological samples. However, scientific
47 surveys are limited by practical and financial constraints and the resulting coverage often provides only a
48 snapshot view of the stock abundance at a very particular point in time. Furthermore, many commercial
49 stocks cannot be sufficiently covered by a directed acoustic survey due to resource limitations or survey
50 practicalities. The resulting lack of spatially resolved abundance information for many species severely
51 constrains the parameterisation and prediction capabilities of advanced ecosystem models needed to serve as
52 a foundation for ecosystem-based management.

53 One possible solution to the increased data requirements for the ecosystem approach was discussed by
54 Koslow (2009), Trenkel *et al.* (2011), and Handegard *et al.* (2012), who specifically suggested the
55 combination of different acoustic sampling platforms in a framework to simultaneously collect information
56 on species distributions at previously inaccessible spatio-temporal scales. Godø *et al.* (2014) have thoroughly
57 discussed and termed this integrated monitoring concept 'Marine Ecosystem Acoustics' (MEA). They
58 highlighted adequate temporal and spatial coverage as one of the main challenges that poses to be

59 unsurmountable with traditional sampling methods. To extend the temporal scales of data collection , Godø
60 *et al.* 2014 proposed the possibility of enhanced and increased collection of acoustic data from ships of
61 opportunity (e.g. ferries or fishing vessels), which are already becoming advanced and increasingly important
62 acoustic platforms (Karp, 2007).

63 Acoustic equipment available on pelagic fishing vessels is nowadays of comparable design and performance
64 as those used on scientific research vessels. On many occasions, fishing vessels have in fact been chartered to
65 carry out dedicated acoustic surveys following a standardised design (Honkalehto *et al.* 2011; Hordyk *et al.*
66 2011; Karp 2007; Ressler *et al.* 2009). Providing that a list of protocols are defined to insure quality
67 standards (Karp, 2007), these vessels can therefore serve as acoustic data collection platforms and provide
68 useful information complementing or in some cases compensating for the lack of scientific survey data. The
69 Dutch pelagic fleet is composed of a small number of large (80 - 145m length) freezer-trawlers which are
70 operational all year round on different fishing grounds in the northeast Atlantic, off western Africa and in the
71 south Pacific. A considerable amount of quantitative information on fish distribution and biomass could
72 potentially be made available at negligible costs by simply recording acoustic data from these vessels during
73 regular fishing trips. In order to make scientific use of these data, they would need to be collected routinely
74 and at the required quality (Karp, 2007). Furthermore, it is evident that the behaviour of commercial vessels
75 exhibited during fishing activities does not follow a systematic sampling design. Therefore, to allow for these
76 data to be used as a source of useful information, it is essential to understand the mechanisms affecting the
77 way they are collected.

78 This paper describes the potential of regular acoustic data collected by freezer-trawlers to deliver:
79 complementing information to monitoring surveys, relative biomass indices for target species, or population
80 behaviour over wider temporal scales. Echosounders were calibrated and data collected during several fishing
81 trips throughout an annual cycle targeting different commercially important species. The data were analysed
82 to investigate differences caused by the behaviour of the different target species and the resulting fishing
83 activity. Understanding such peculiarities will be vital for developing analysis methods to interpret and make
84 use of these data in the process of ecosystem understanding. Eventually, potential future developments in
85 analysis methods are discussed.

86

87 **2. Materials and Methods**

88 *2.1. Data collection*

89 Acoustic data were collected and recorded on pelagic freezer-trawlers during fishing trips between February
90 and September 2012 targeting Northeast Atlantic blue whiting (*Micromesistius poutassou*), North Sea herring
91 (*Clupea harengus*), and horse mackerel (*Trachurus trachurus*) in the English Channel (Table 1). All vessels
92 included in the present study, were equipped with either the commercial Simrad ES70 or the scientific
93 Simrad EK60 echosounders operated at 38 kHz. Time- and GPS position-stamped raw acoustic data from the
94 echosounders were recorded to external hard disks. The hard disks were directly connected to the computers
95 operating the echosounders prior to each individual fishing trip and collected after the trawlers returned to
96 port. For operational reasons, echosounders were set to log data from the very beginning of the trip when
97 leaving the home port until arrival back in port to prevent accidental data loss and to monitor the proper
98 functioning of the echosounder during the whole recording period. During data collection, echosounder
99 settings such as pulse duration, input power and transceiver gain remained fixed.

100 2.2. Calibration of acoustic equipment

101 Calibration of acoustic equipment used for scientific purposes is vital to ensure the correct functioning of the
102 system, get an estimate of the stability of the recorded data, adjust the uncompensated received signal
103 amplitude relative to that of a reference target, and to gain insights into potential error sources in the resulting
104 dataset. A total of four calibrations of the 38 kHz Simrad ES70/EK60 systems installed onboard three
105 different pelagic freezer-trawlers were successfully performed either directly before, during or adjacent to
106 respective fishing trips. For each calibration, the vessels steamed into a sheltered bay close to the fishing
107 grounds (either SW Ireland or Scapa Flow, Scotland, UK) and followed common recommendations for
108 standard sphere calibrations of scientific split-beam echosounders (Foote *et al.* 1987; Simmonds and
109 MacLennan, 2005). Each calibration was performed with two spheres attached at least 4 m apart to enable
110 verification of the measurements as well as adding additional weight to the setup to enhance the stability of
111 the top sphere used for calibration measurements. The raw data recorded during the calibration procedure of
112 the ES70 systems were replayed and visualised in the calibration tool of the Simrad ER60 software
113 (Andersen, 2001) to assure a sufficient amount and satisfying spread of data points throughout the beam had
114 been collected. For the vessel where the EK60 system was available, the calibration was conducted
115 completely using the ER60 software.

116 2.3. Data processing

117 The calibration settings were used to update the transceiver gains and acoustic beam patterns on the trawler
118 equipped with the Simrad EK60 echosounder before the start of the effective fishing trip. For the other

119 vessels that used Simrad ES70 systems, the calibration values were applied *a posteriori* during post-
120 processing. Data collected by the Simrad ES70 echosounders contain an embedded systematic error
121 component (Ryan and Kloser 2004). The error has the shape of a periodic triangular wave of approximately
122 1dB peak-to-peak amplitude with a period of exactly 2721 data points. Inspection of the wave showed that
123 data points remain stable for 16 pings, after which there is a step over to the next level where the next stable
124 group of 16 data points resides. The structure of the error wave can be identified from the transmit pulse
125 section in the raw data header information and used as a basis for adjusting the entire echogram accordingly.
126 A java applet ('ES60adjust') developed by scientists from the Australian Commonwealth Scientific and
127 Industrial Research Organisation (CSIRO) was used to remove the triangular wave error (Keith et al., 2005).
128 The wave-corrected acoustic raw data from the Simrad ES70, or the original raw data provided by the Simrad
129 EK60 system, were post-processed and analysed using LSSS v1.6 (Large Scale Survey System, marec, NO,
130 www.marec.no). Implementation of the calibration results were applied through the KORONA module
131 within LSSS. The resulting error-corrected and calibrated datasets were then used for scrutinising procedures,
132 i.e. the data post-processing where acoustic volume backscatter values (s_v) of fish schools are allocated to
133 species. The scrutinising process was based on a combination of expert judgement by scientists having
134 covered the same areas and species with acoustic surveys, and the catch information available from trawl lists
135 provided by the skippers.

136 Scrutinising was done for data collected during four individual fishing trips with a total of 73 days. Individual
137 fishing trips lasting approximately 3 weeks could be scrutinised within a total effort of 24 hours using LSSS.
138 To improve data quality before the scrutinising process, the following pre-processing steps were performed
139 in LSSS (c.f. Korneliussen *et al.*, 2009): (i) remove spike noise from other, non-synchronised acoustic
140 instruments; (ii) replace any missing pings by interpolation; (iii) quantify the background noise, using the
141 data in each ping; (iv) remove the noise from the dataset. After echogram scrutiny, LSSS was used to
142 produce output reports containing mean date, time, position and acoustic area density values (Nautical Area
143 Scattering Coefficient (NASC), s_A ; $m^2 \text{ nm}^{-2}$; MacLennan *et al.*, 2002) of the respective fish species per 1 nm
144 intervals along the track covered by the trawlers.

145 2.4. Data analysis

146 Using the information provided by the skippers' logbooks, the acoustic intervals corresponding to the start
147 and end times of a trawl haul were identified for each fishing trip. For further analyses, only intervals
148 between the start of the first and end of the last trawl were used in every fishing trip. Acoustic data also

149 contained the recorded speed of the vessels, and for every 1 nm interval the average vessel speed was
150 available. During the data scrutiny process, intervals corresponding to stationary periods (e.g. after hauling or
151 during catch processing) were identified based on low observed speed (below typical speeds observed during
152 trawling: $< \sim 3$ kts). Eventually, all intervals were allocated to three different activity periods: (1) 'stationary',
153 corresponding to all intervals having low observed speed ($< \sim 3$ kts); (2) 'fishing', corresponding to intervals
154 within logbook recorded haul start and end times; and (3) 'searching', corresponding to intervals falling
155 between 'fishing' and 'stationary'.

156 Start and end times of the 1 nm intervals were used to allocate a duration and mid-time to different intervals.
157 The interval mid-time was equal to the time of the middle ping in each interval. As the trawl information was
158 time referenced, the mean times of the 1 nm fishing trip intervals were allocated to the nearest 15 minute time
159 bin relative to the trawl start, i.e. the shooting of the trawl. Thereby, all intervals with a positive 15 minute
160 time bin value (after trawl start) were only used if they also coincided with the activity 'fishing' of that
161 respective trawl. By definition, negative time bins corresponded to activity 'searching' and started soonest
162 after the end of the 'fishing' activity of the previous trawl or any subsequent 'stationary' activity. In that way,
163 fish detection information of the recorded intervals could be related to trawling time and compared between
164 the different trips.

165

166 **3. Results**

167 Data collected on blue whiting (WHB) trips covered areas along the continental shelf slope west of the
168 British Isles and Ireland. The analysed herring (HER) fishing trip generally covered the northern North Sea
169 around the Orkney and Shetland Islands, while data collected during a trip targeted at horse mackerel (HOM)
170 covered the English Channel (Figure 1). The duration of different activity periods of the acoustic fish density
171 interval data were compared by target species in the fishery. The highest proportion of time spent for activity
172 'fishing' was observed for the analysed WHB fishing trips (82%). The time proportion allocated to 'fishing'
173 activity was less for both the HOM (68%) and HER (54%) trips, where proportionally more time for
174 'searching' was used (Figure 2). Mean duration (\pm s.d.) of 1 nm trip intervals allocated to 'fishing' were 13.8
175 (± 6.6 ; HOM), 15.5 (± 6.4 ; HER), and 16.9 (± 5.8 ; WHB) minutes. The observed mean speeds (\pm s.d.) for the
176 'fishing' & 'searching' activities were 4.5 (± 1.5) & 11.8 (± 1.9) for the HOM, 3.8 (± 1.1) & 10.5 (± 2.5) for the
177 HER, and 3.5 (± 0.9) & 8.8 (± 2.2) knots for the WHB trip, respectively. s_A measured per interval on each
178 fishing trip were bootstrapped to give means and s.d. per trip activity (Figure 3). All trips showed significant

179 differences between mean s_A recorded during ‘fishing’ and ‘searching’ (Student’s t-test; HER: $t = 64.6$, $p <$
180 0.001 ; WHB: $t = 224.4$, $p < 0.001$; HOM: $t = 239.2$, $p < 0.001$). The mean s_A recorded during ‘fishing’ were
181 higher on all trips, with the HER showing a 1.5x, the WHB a 2.1x, and the HOM trip a 3.3x difference
182 between ‘fishing’ and ‘searching’. There were distinct differences in the magnitudes of observed absolute s_A
183 values between the fisheries: mean s_A values observed during WHB had magnitudes of $\times 10^3$, those for HER
184 had magnitudes of $\times 10^2$, and those for HOM had magnitudes of $\times 10^1$. For the HER fishing trip, the mean s_A
185 per individual 15 minute time bins around the time at which the net of the closest trawl was shot showed an
186 approximately Gaussian distribution pattern. A LOESS curve fitted through the values showed a gradual
187 increase in observed mean s_A per time bin from about three hours before the trawling process towards a peak
188 around the shooting time, and a coherent decrease thereafter (Figure 4a). To get an indication of expected
189 density levels when detections are at a low level in areas away from the peak spots, the 5th percentile of all
190 observed acoustic fish detections throughout the ‘fishing’ and ‘searching’ activity was taken. For HER, the
191 5th percentile of observed densities was low at just $18.3 \text{ m}^2\text{nm}^{-2}$. For WHB trips, a higher low-level fish
192 detection was observed (5th percentile: $1595 \text{ m}^2\text{nm}^{-2}$). The LOESS curve fitted through the detections of blue
193 whiting increased from 3.5 hours before trawling towards a peak around one hour before the shooting of the
194 net and declined steadily thereafter (Figure 4b). As for WHB, the HOM fishery was characterised by a
195 relatively high value of low-level fish detections (5th percentile: $22.4 \text{ m}^2\text{nm}^{-2}$) during the ‘fishing’ and
196 ‘searching’ activity when compared to peak detection values. Detections increased during the ‘searching’
197 period throughout the 3.5 hour period before the start of the trawling process and peaked at the time when the
198 net was shot. Thereafter, detections of horse mackerel decreased, however, the degree of decrease was less
199 pronounced when compared to the other two fisheries (Figure 4c). The relative mean cumulative frequencies
200 of acoustic fish detections per trawl event during the ‘searching’ activity up to the point in time when
201 trawling begun showed different rates of increase between fisheries. A logistic regression fitted to the mean
202 cumulative acoustic detections per 15 minute bin for all trawls in the HER trip showed an increase at about
203 two hours before the start of the fishing process. For the WHB trips, that increase was already evident at
204 about three hours before the start of the trawls and the subsequent rate of increase was correspondingly
205 smaller. For the HOM trip, the cumulative detections per 15 minute time bin exhibited a marked increase at
206 about one hour before the start of the fishing activity. The values were generally more variable when
207 compared to both the HER and WHB trips, resulting in a poorer (higher χ^2 ratio) albeit still significant fit of

208 the logistic regression model to the HOM data (HER: $\chi^2=0.60$, $p<0.001$; WHB: $\chi^2=0.81$, $p<0.001$, HOM:
209 $\chi^2=1.43$, $p<0.001$).

210

211 **4. Discussion**

212 In the process of incorporating the wider ecosystem in conservation and management decisions, such as for
213 the ecosystem approach to fisheries management (EAFM), a sound understanding of the processes governing
214 ecosystem mechanisms is required (Botsford *et al.*, 1997; Duda and Sherman 2002; Pikitch *et al.*, 2004; Cury
215 *et al.*, 2008; Bellido *et al.*, 2011). This knowledge will have to be based on complex trophic ecosystem
216 models relying on data collected at relevant spatial and temporal scales for validation and parameterisation
217 (Handegard *et al.* 2013). Assessment methods used for management of fisheries resources have so far largely
218 been focussing on individual species stocks and their life cycle characteristics without great consideration for
219 interactions between species or environmental parameters, however, there are exceptions (Witherell *et al.*,
220 2000; Kaufman, *et al.*, 2005; Constable, 2011). Most fisheries independent monitoring programmes currently
221 in place have developed into accurate tools to assess trends in the state (biomass or abundance at age/length)
222 of a stock life cycle stage. Consequently, they follow a rigid methodology to maintain time series integrity
223 and concentrate at times and locations that provide optimal sampling conditions. In that way, the widespread
224 distributions of pelagic fish stocks for example have led to the development of specific acoustic surveys that
225 capture the adult stock components at times when they are most receptive to that survey technique
226 (Simmonds and MacLennan, 2005). Often the time during or just before the spawning period is suitable
227 because the fish aggregate in schools in distinct areas of their distributional range that can be covered by a
228 survey vessel within a short time period (i.e. a few weeks) to minimise bias due to migration. Data required
229 for the EAFM may however need to span a longer time period and wider space in order to capture relevant
230 biological and physical interactions of fish stocks with their environment.

231 The standardised and established setup of many dedicated pelagic fish monitoring surveys prevent collection
232 of additional environmental and biological data over wider temporal and spatial scales as required for the
233 EAFM (Handegard *et al.*, 2013). Monitoring approaches that can deliver such data should ideally consist of a
234 network of connected sensor platforms that can span many trophic biological scales and physical dynamics at
235 high spatio-temporal resolution. The proposed network of sensor systems consist of stationary observations
236 (buoys, landers), autonomous and controlled platforms, but also platforms of opportunity. The latter, albeit
237 being hampered by a lack of controllable sampling design, have the advantage that they are relatively cheap

238 and operate over a wide area and time. One example of an opportunistic platform to monitor the pelagic
239 ecosystem are fishing vessels. These are nowadays advanced acoustic platforms and have been used by
240 scientists for example as survey vessels (Honkalehto et al. 2011; Hordyk et al. 2011; Karp 2007; Ressler et
241 al. 2009) or to deliver high resolution small scale information on fish schooling characteristics (Shen *et al.*,
242 2008; Shen *et al.*, 2009). In Eastern Canada for instance, near real-time management decisions about the
243 herring fishery are taken on the basis of such industry based surveys (Melvin *et al.* 2001). Based on this idea,
244 Canadian scientists have developed an automatic acoustic logging system and collected data on Atlantic
245 herring during fishing operations in early 2000 (Melvin *et al.* 2002). The data were used to monitor the
246 aggregation of herring and decide on the timing of the scientific survey (performed on the same fishing
247 vessels). However, this approach comes with its own drawbacks as the availability of fishing vessels for
248 performing such surveys is limited and the related costs and loss of income still have to be covered. Attempts
249 have been made to combine data collection and fishing activity, for example by using spare time during
250 regular fishing trips to perform mini-surveys (O'Driscoll and Macaulay 2005). But unfortunately that is only
251 practicable when such time is available (e.g. during processing of the catch on a factory vessels) and if the
252 fish resource is distributed over a restricted area (e.g. deep sea fish over sea mounts). Another way to utilise
253 fishing vessels as acoustic sampling platforms is to collect data on them opportunistically. However, the
254 application and utilisation of such data is problematic and has so far not been widely addressed. The primary
255 reasons for this are: the large volume of data collected (requiring increased resources for analysis), the lack of
256 system calibrations, and the absence of a predetermined sampling design, which therefore calls for novel and
257 innovative statistical and/or modelling approaches. Barbeaux (2012) and Barbeaux *et al.* (2013) described
258 analyses of opportunistically collected but non-calibrated fishing vessel data to inform on fish aggregation
259 and distribution. In this paper we demonstrated the potential of routine acoustic data collection on freezer-
260 trawlers, the calibration of their echosounder systems, and initial interpretation of results from different
261 fisheries as a first step in developing further data utilisation methods.

262 Processing of large acoustic data sets is a real concern. While time required for analysis of scientific survey
263 data can be considerable, the data amount resulting from weeks' worth of acoustic recordings from several
264 fishing vessels is yet an order of magnitude bigger. A potential solution to this is automated data processing
265 which may especially become applicable in cases where data were collected at more than one acoustic
266 frequency or even over a wide bandwidth. Fishing vessels are continuously upgrading their acoustic systems
267 and some already collect data at several frequencies. Such techniques have already been used successfully for

268 many years in scientific surveys to discriminate between groups of fish, micronekton and zooplankton and
269 also for discrimination between biological targets and physical phenomena such as bubbles (Horne, 2000).
270 Korneliussen and Ona (2002) used multifrequency processing techniques to distinguish various targets such
271 as mackerel, swimbladdered fish, and zooplankton. With further advances in acoustic technology such as
272 broadband systems (Lavery *et al.*, 2010; Stanton *et al.*, 2010; Stanton *et al.*, 2011), identification of scattering
273 groups or even individual species will likely be much improved and allow for more objective and automated,
274 therefore efficient data processing approaches.

275 In the data presented here, different acoustic detection patterns could be observed between the three target
276 fisheries covered. Vessels involved in the blue whiting fishery were strongly confined to geographical
277 features (shelf slope), as the resource is typically assumed to be aggregating there in high densities. As a
278 result, more constant acoustic detections could be observed when blue whiting was targeted, with less time
279 spent for searching once the fishing grounds were reached. Clupeids such as herring on the other hand are
280 typically more characterised by localised schooling behaviour with larger shoals or schools and aggregations
281 occurring more sporadically (Blaxter and Hunter, 1982; Blaxter, 1985; Beare *et al.*, 2002), hence increasing
282 the relative time spent searching for the trawlers. The observed magnitudes of fish densities in situations of
283 low detection levels, typically away from fishing hotspots, where therefore relatively low for herring. A
284 similar but even more heterogeneous distribution situation was observed for the horse mackerel fishery where
285 differences in acoustic densities between ‘fishing’ and ‘searching’ seemed to be even higher. Based on such
286 differences in aggregation and distribution patterns of the fish resource, cumulative detection patterns were
287 also better predictable for species such as blue whiting and herring. An aspect that was not considered here
288 but could have affected the nature of the observed data was the simultaneous use of acoustic equipment other
289 than the echosounder. To detect and pursuit schools especially during herring and horse mackerel fisheries
290 the skippers make extensive use of omnidirectional sonars (Brehmer *et al.*, 2006). With that additional aid,
291 covering a larger volume of water, echosounder detections were not the only source of information available
292 to influence fishing decisions. Recorded fish densities from the echosounder were therefore not solely
293 affecting the duration of the ‘searching’ period, which may have otherwise been extended had there been less
294 acoustic tools available. Such interactions will have to be considered when analysing acoustic fish detections
295 in combination with the behaviour of the fishers and fish distribution patterns to potentially derive for
296 example abundance estimates from the data. Apart from the simple extraction of acoustic fish density values

297 in 2D space, quantification of acoustic detection patterns in relation to fishing behaviour will indeed be an
298 important step in the process of deriving useful characteristics from acoustic fishing vessel data.

299 Based on the data collection exercise described here, a few conclusions can be drawn in light of developing
300 further steps to utilise acoustic fishing vessel data for ecosystem understanding. Measured acoustic densities
301 represent an important proxy for fish abundance. These recorded densities may thus easily be translated to
302 fairly accurate biomass levels representative for the locations of the different fish hotspot areas within the
303 time window covered by the fishing vessels. More importantly, however, for these data to be useful for
304 ecosystem management they need to be representative of the wider stock distribution and abundance over the
305 wider temporal scales covered. The results showed that information on distribution patterns could indeed be
306 derived from the data and that these differed between species. Given that some important species like herring
307 show no population size-dependent effect on observed acoustic densities per fish school (Beare *et al.*, 2002),
308 it may be valid to link observations from hotspot areas to stock abundance. However, due to the effect of
309 vessel behaviour the validity and sensitivity of such an approach still has to be verified. The fishing
310 behaviour-governed acoustic detection characteristics together with knowledge about distribution patterns of
311 different target species may for instance be used in developing individual based models (IBM) to verify
312 analysis methods and derive robust and representative relative abundance indices (e.g. Shin and Cury, 2004;
313 Bastardie *et al.*, 2010). Similarly, irrespective of the specific aggregation behaviour of different species, fish
314 searching time may also be affected by both stock biomass and/or stock area extension, and these factors
315 including their interactions would have to be quantified in order to draw any useful conclusions. The linking
316 of fishing patterns with acoustic observations could be facilitated by applying methods or approaches that are
317 currently used to analyse vessel monitoring system (VMS) data (Deng *et al.*, 2005; Mills *et al.*, 2007; Lee *et*
318 *al.*, 2010; Gerritsen and Lordan, 2011). Finally, geostatistics (Matheron, 1971) could make a promising
319 contribution to modelling the spatiotemporal fish distribution patterns given the preferential sampling of
320 acoustic data from fishing vessels (Petitgas, 2001; Diggle *et al.*, 2010). These different potential analysis
321 approaches are further elaborated in the following paragraphs.

322 The primary motivation of the vessel owners that participated in the collection and sharing of the data
323 presented here was the wish to partake in the fisheries data collection and monitoring process for stock
324 assessment. There is little doubt that increased stakeholder involvement in the stock assessment process has
325 several benefits and may lead to more acceptable and therefore successful integrated ecosystem based
326 fisheries management (Grimble and Wellard, 1997; Reed, 2008; Levin *et al.*, 2009). One way to achieve this

327 is by using the acoustic data collected on fishing vessels to derive abundance indices, which can then be
328 incorporate to stock assessment models. The data collected during fishing operations however follows by
329 definition a selective sampling pattern and departs from the usual requirement for scientific surveys of
330 performing a synoptic coverage of the stock. Data collected during fishing trips spans several weeks and the
331 fishing seasons for stocks considered here typically extend over a one or two month period. This implies that
332 the spatial distribution of the resource, especially for species actively migrating during the fishing season
333 such as blue whiting, may change substantially over the period covered. There is thus a real risk of double
334 counting the fish if the whole data set would be considered. In addition, sampling (i.e. fishing) effort is
335 concentrated on areas of high fish density where catches are likely to be maximised, while areas of minor
336 interest for the fishery, albeit still containing significant portions of for example younger fish, are not
337 covered. In that respect, the fishing vessel acoustic data are more similar to the common catch per unit effort
338 (CPUE) data derived in bottom trawl fisheries. ‘Acoustic detections per unit effort’ could therefore be a
339 useful CPUE proxy in pelagic fisheries, where the direct measure of CPUE solely based on trawl catches is
340 not valid (Hilborn and Walters, 1992). Nonetheless, the methods commonly implemented to derive
341 abundance estimates from scientific acoustic surveys, i.e. averaging detected fish densities over the surveyed
342 area, will not be applicable to the acoustic data collected by fishing vessels due to the lack of a non-biased
343 sampling design. Alternative types of indices, such as surface occupation indices (Castillo and Robotham,
344 2004) could also be investigated for these data. The accuracy and robustness of different types of abundance
345 indices derived from fishing vessel acoustic data may be investigated with an IBM fisheries simulator. Such a
346 tool could be developed to model the behaviour of a fleet of vessels fishing on a spatially distributed resource
347 and collecting “virtual” acoustic data along their track. Abundance indices can then be computed from these
348 virtual data using different methods and compared to the “true” abundance which is known in the simulator.
349 Realistic resource distributions can be based on the observed spatial distribution and variability of available
350 scientific survey data. Calibration of the simulator to give the vessels a more realistic behaviour could be
351 done using the combined information from the observed fishing behaviour characterised by the linked fishing
352 activity and fish abundance. That information can be obtained from the collected acoustic fishing vessel data,
353 as shown in the present study, e.g. the models and/or observed data described here in Figures 2-4.
354 Preliminary results from that type of exercise indicate that abundance indices derived from fishing vessel
355 acoustic data may be of a limited accuracy for species that are densely aggregated, such as blue whiting.
356 However, abundance indices derived for more heterogeneously distributed species such as herring yielded a

357 higher accuracy (Brunel *et al.*, 2013). This can be explained by the fact that for the latter species, searching
358 time represents a larger proportion of the fishing trips, which may therefore result in a more representative
359 sampling of the stock.

360 A fruitful approach may be the combination of VMS data analysis tools, which are typically used to classify
361 the different fishing trip activities (Lee *et al.*, 2010), with acoustic fish density recordings collected on the
362 same trips. VMS data are typically used to estimate spatial and temporal distributions of trawling impacts on
363 species, habitats, and ecosystem processes (Collie *et al.*, 2000; Kaiser *et al.*, 2002), or to monitor fleet
364 responses to management actions (Rijnsdoorp *et al.*, 2001; Dinmore *et al.*, 2003; Mills *et al.*, 2005). Since
365 2005, high resolution position data at intervals of 2h or less have been collected in EU waters from all fishing
366 vessels >15m long (EC, 2003). Recorded acoustic data provide a spatial history record of the fishing trip,
367 however at a much higher resolution, since data points are typically collected at an interval of one second. A
368 whole suite of existing VMS data analysis tools could therefore be applied to the very high resolution time-
369 space acoustic data to supply a more accurate picture of fishing effort in addition to the synoptic collection of
370 pelagic fish densities. A possible approach may then be to investigate if ‘trained’ VMS methods could be
371 used to replicate the acoustic observations of a fishing trip, i.e. to infer fish densities solely from speed and
372 time-space position patterns of vessels. Gerritsen and Lordan (2011) presented an example where VMS data
373 were combined with catch data in a bottom trawl fishery to derive spatially resolved catch and effort data at
374 much higher resolution than previously possible. Following this, the same principle could therefore be
375 applied to acoustic and VMS data in the case of pelagic fisheries.

376 Arguably the most promising approach to analyse and model fish densities from fishing vessel acoustic data,
377 due to the ability to take into account the spatial and temporal sampling peculiarities, are geostatistical
378 methods. Essentially, geostatistics is used to model spatial variability of variables such as fish densities and
379 then utilise that model to make predictions of variable values at given locations (Matheron, 1971). The
380 methods have been established and widely used for fisheries applications, especially fish survey analyses
381 (Petitgas, 2001; Rivoirard *et al.*, 2008), survey design (Barange and Hampton, 1997; Fletcher and Summer,
382 1999), or ecological studies (Cianelli *et al.*, 2008). Possible ways to use the potential of geostatistics with the
383 type of acoustic data described here may include using co-kriging to combine different spatial datasets like
384 fishing vessel, scientific survey or environmental parameter data (Petitgas, 2001). Georgakarakos and Kitsiou
385 (2008) used that approach to model the spatial distribution of small pelagic fish. The method produced the
386 best results when sea surface temperature and depth variables were included in the model, which indicated

387 the enhanced modelling potential when combining different data sources. They especially highlighted the
388 significant reduction of the overall estimation error and its effect on subsequent stock assessment and
389 management. There may also be potential in adding the acoustic information from fishing vessels usually
390 collected in high density areas with those collected by survey vessels that follow a systematic design. These
391 data would have to be from areas that were covered synoptically by both survey and fishing vessel platforms
392 in order to avoid bias due to fish movement and variations in their aggregative behaviour (Petitgas, 2001). A
393 further step may then be the incorporation of a model that takes into account the temporal change of the fish
394 population, especially since the fishing vessel data covers an extensive time range (e.g. Zhou, 1998). Denham
395 and Mueller (2010) used time varying spatial models to consider the underlying movement of fish
396 populations over extended spatiotemporal dimensions to successfully estimate changes in prawn catch rates.
397 In any case, ignoring the particular preferential sampling pattern of these data can lead to serious misleading
398 geostatistical inferences (Diggle *et al.*, 2010).

399 Based on the freezer-trawler acoustic data collection exercise and results presented here, continuation and
400 further development of such initiatives seem feasible. Opportunistically collected acoustic data from fishing
401 vessels can provide an additional puzzle piece in the process to create a more holistic picture of the
402 ecosystem. Their potential will be enhanced by the introduction of structured, more widespread data
403 collection programmes and further development of automated data processing. Thereafter, there is a clear
404 need for sophisticated data analysis methods in order to make these data operationally useful for ecosystem
405 management.

406

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542 **Figure 1.** Map of freezer-trawler fishing track from which acoustic data were collected in 2012.

543

544 **Figure 2.** Relative proportion of time spent fishing (grey) and searching (white) after the vessels have
545 reached the fishing grounds (HER: North Sea herring; WHB: Northeast Atlantic blue whiting; HOM:
546 Channel horse mackerel), between starting the first and finishing the last trawl.

547

548 **Figure 3.** Bootstrapped mean acoustic densities ($n=1000$) recorded on different fishing trips (HER: North
549 Sea herring; WHB: Northeast Atlantic blue whiting; HOM: Channel horse mackerel) during fishing (grey)
550 and searching (white) activities.

551

552 **Figure 4.** Mean (+S.E.) fish densities (NASC: nautical area scattering coefficient) per 15 minute time bins
553 before (negative values; 'searching' period) and after (positive values; 'fishing' period) shooting the net
554 (zero) during: a) the herring, b) blue whiting, and c) horse mackerel fisheries. LOESS curves (solid lines)
555 were fitted to the mean values and 5th percentiles of fish densities observed during the 'fishing' and
556 'searching' periods are given (dashed lines).

Figure 1
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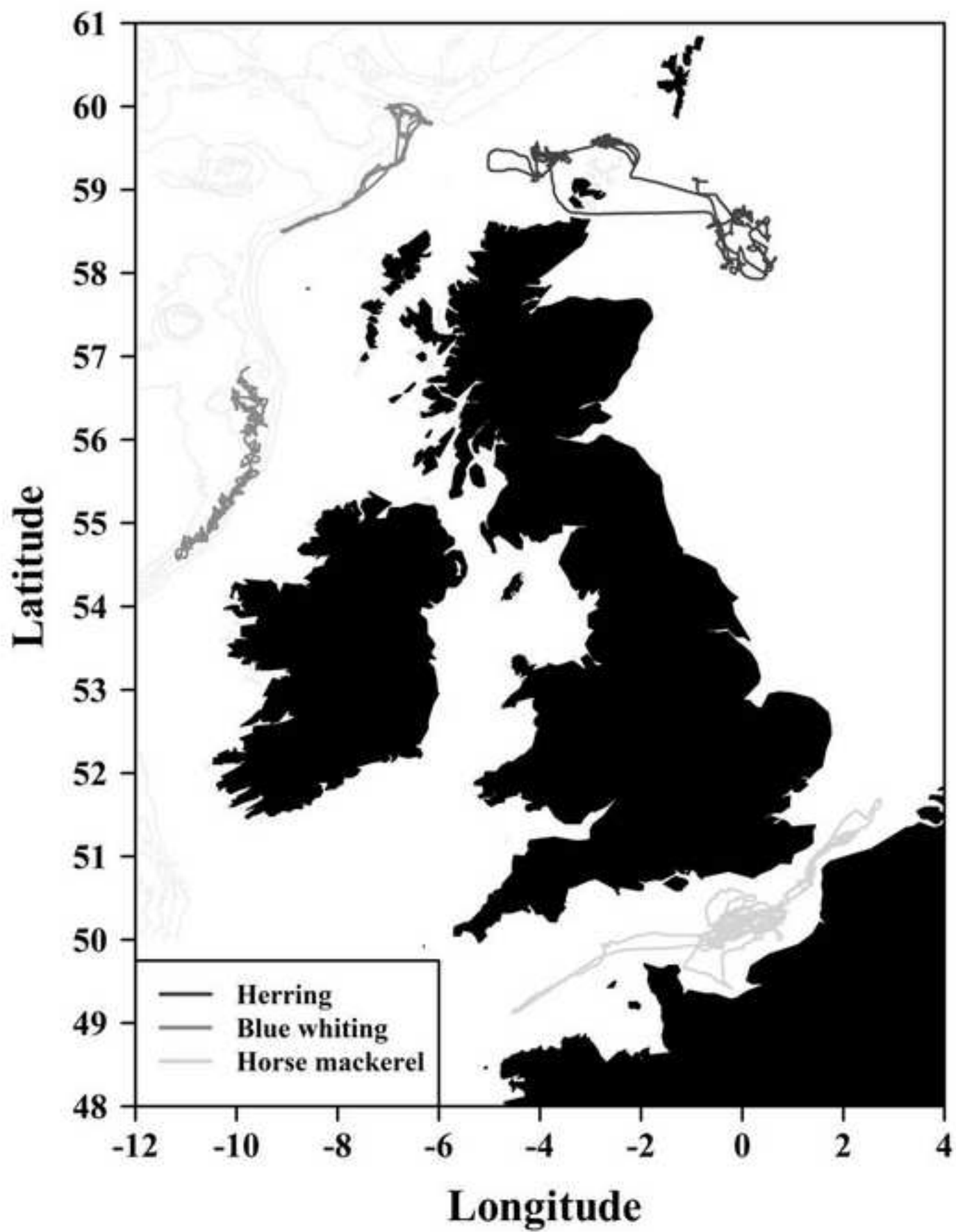


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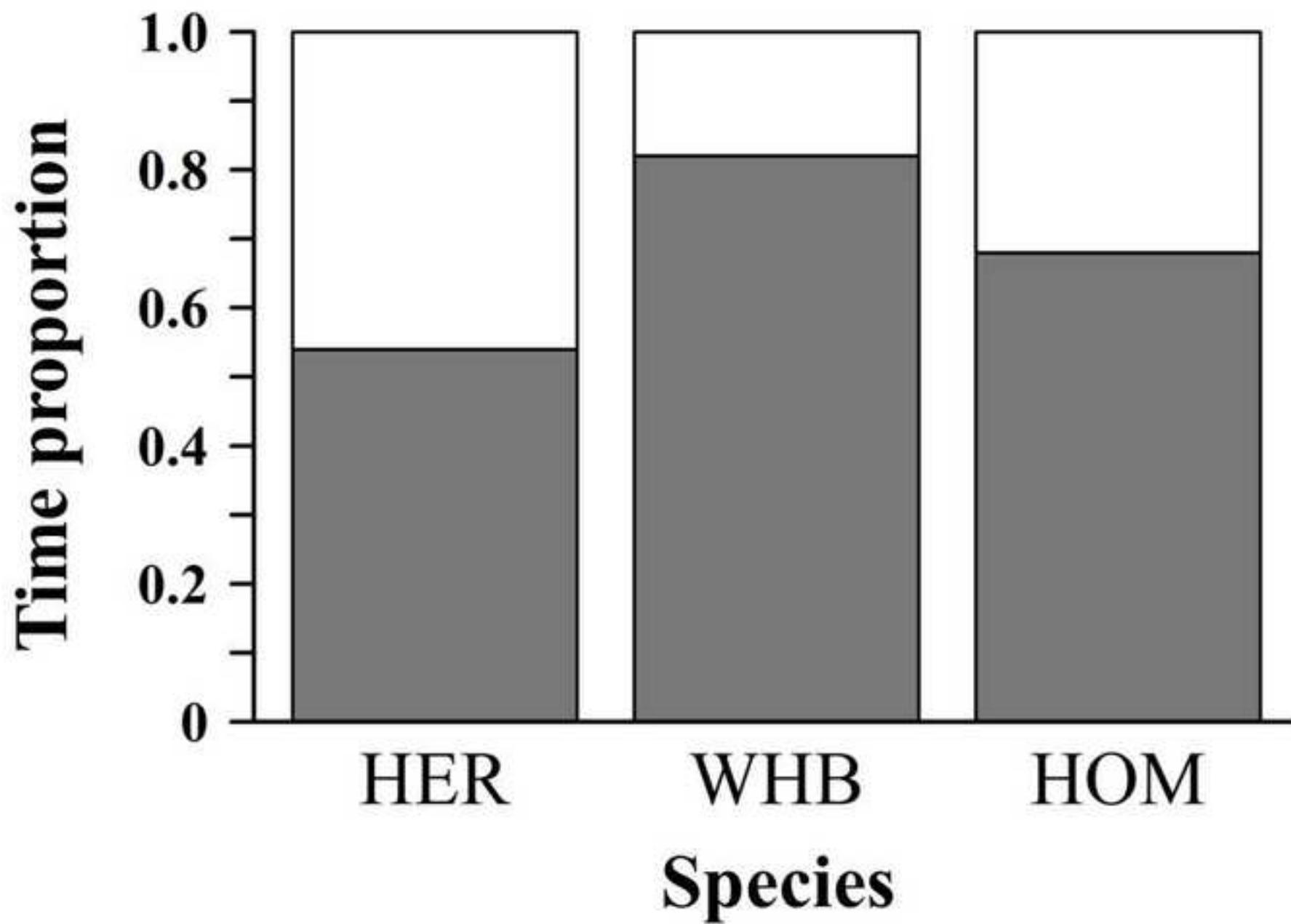


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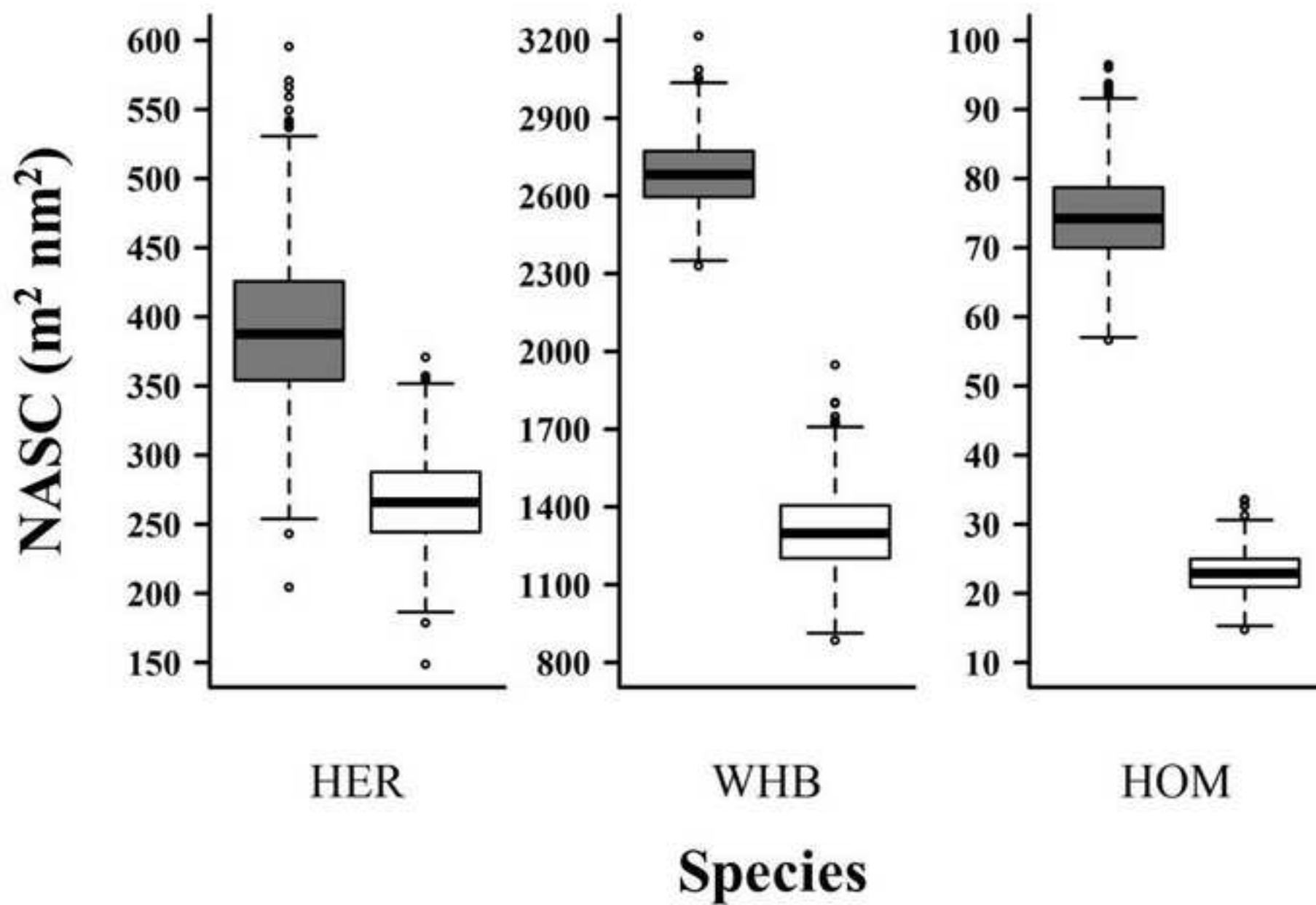


Figure 4

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