

# Discard ban: a simulation-based approach combining hierarchical Bayesian and food web spatial models

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## Abstract

Discarding is one of the most important topics in fisheries management, both for economic and ecological reasons. The European Union has included, through the current EU Common Fisheries Policy (CFP) Regulation, a discard ban with a quite controversial instrument: to enforce the landing of unwanted catch as a measure to promote their reduction. This management decision may condition the future of the fishing exploitation in European Sea. Within this context, both stakeholders and policy makers are now claiming for more effective tools that can be used to support the decision-making framework. In this study, we propose a simulation-based approach combining hierarchical Bayesian Spatial Models (H-BSMs) with the spatial-temporal module of Ecopath with Ecosim (EwE) approach, Ecospace, in the North Western Mediterranean Sea. In particular, we firstly assessed high-density discard areas using H-BSMs with fisheries and environmental data, and secondly, we simulated potential management options to identify the trade-offs of the discard ban application within these areas using EwE. We argue that coupling novel methods, as the ones used in this study, could be a decisive step to identify the best management action among a set of different scenarios within the context of the discard ban application in European Seas.

**Keywords:** Bayesian model, discards, Ecospace, food web model, landing obligation, Mediterranean Sea, spatial ecology.

## 46 **Introduction**

47 Worldwide discarding is one of the most important issues in fisheries management as it has negative  
48 impacts on ecosystems, the economy, and society [1, 2]. Indeed, discards represent a wasteful use of  
49 resources and, consequently, generate future economic losses for fisheries, populations,  
50 communities and ecosystems [3].

51 There is an increasing effort to understand the complex array of factors that influence the discard  
52 process [4:6] and to assess the spatial-temporal dynamics surrounding this process [7:10].

53 Within the European Union (EU hereafter) waters, a number of factors are responsible for the high  
54 level of discards, including the use of non-selective fishing gear, lack of market value for certain  
55 species, minimum landing size restrictions, and the overlap between fishing grounds and species  
56 home range [11]. One of the most important recent changes regarding discard management is the  
57 shift in focus to what is caught rather than what is landed [12, 13]. The European Common  
58 Fisheries Policy (CPF) introduced a ‘discard ban’ measure between January 1, 2015 to the January  
59 1, 2019 for all regulated species in EU waters (Article 15, EU Regulation 1380/2013), which  
60 determined that all catches of regulated commercial species be landed and counted, and compared  
61 against their quota. This management strategy, should it be extended, could determine the future of  
62 fishing exploitation in European seas with short-term and long-term socio-economic and ecological  
63 implications. For these reasons, stakeholders and policy makers alike now demand more effective  
64 tools to support the decision-making framework.

65 To explore alternative management options and to identify the ecological trade-offs of the discard  
66 ban, a simulation-based approach that couples species distribution models, specifically the  
67 hierarchical Bayesian Spatial Models (H-BSMs), with ecosystem models, using the food-web  
68 model Ecopath with Ecosim (EwE), might offer an innovative approach. H-BSMs are particularly  
69 appropriate to identify discard hotspots as they can explicitly model the spatio-temporal variability  
70 of discards [14]. When geo-referenced discard data are analyzed, it is common to include

71 geographic coordinates (latitude and/or longitude) in the models as continuous explicative variables  
72 [15, 16], given that fixed effects and, therefore, the spatial dependency of observations is not  
73 considered. Similarly, a non-random spatial variable [17] or geographic fishing boundaries [18] can  
74 be included as predictors in models to try to capture spatial discard trends [7]. However, only  
75 geostatistical techniques intrinsically incorporate a component to account for spatial autocorrelation  
76 [19, 20]. H-BSMs extend the concept of spatial autocorrelation in multilevel structures, including a  
77 spatial random effect that is a stochastic process indexed in space, which represents all spatially  
78 explicit processes that may influence the discard pattern. By applying H-BSMs to discard data the  
79 multiple sources of uncertainty associated with both the observed data and the discard process can  
80 be included in the analysis to generate a more robust statistical inference. Moreover, H-BSMs is not  
81 only better able to identify discard hotspots, but also predict them and, therefore, contribute to better  
82 spatial management planning [21, 7, 8, 10, 22].

83 Ecological processes and human activities, in addition to environmental factors, can indeed affect  
84 the discard phenomena and need to be explicitly considered in process-based oriented modelling,  
85 such as Ecopath with Ecosim food-web modelling (EwE) [23]. EwE is an ecosystem modelling  
86 approach that builds food-web models by describing the ecosystem through energy flows between  
87 functional groups with similar functional and ecological traits. Within EwE, Ecospace is a spatial-  
88 temporal dynamic module that represents temporal and spatial 2D dynamics of trophic web  
89 components [24, 25]. This approach has been widely used to quantify the spatial impact of fisheries  
90 on marine species [26], to analyse the impact of management scenarios such as the establishment of  
91 marine protected areas [27], to develop spatial optimization routines [28], and to assess the impact  
92 of climate change on marine ecosystems [29, 30]. EwE has also been used to model the ecological  
93 impacts of changes in fishing gear, for example to measure the ecological consequences of reducing  
94 discarding from bottom trawling in the NW Mediterranean Sea [31]. Recently a new Ecospace  
95 module has been implemented that integrates niche modelling into the food web modelling

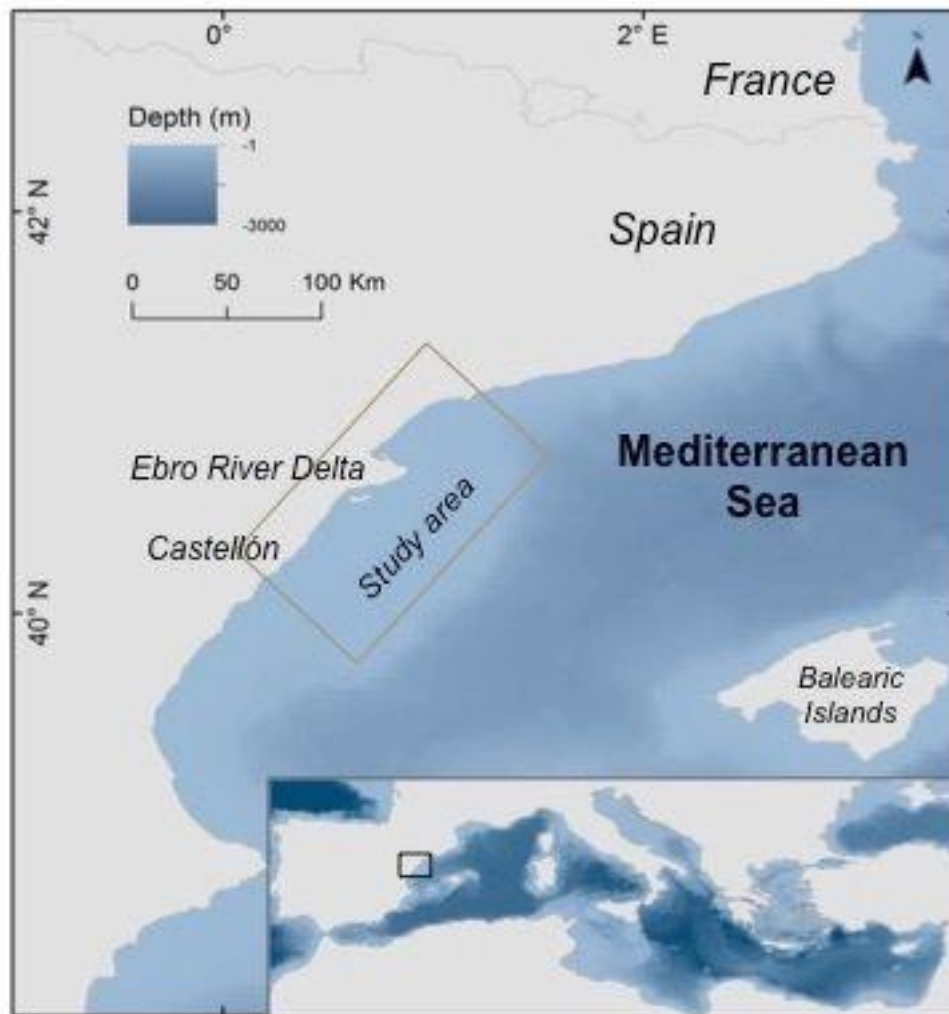
96 approach [32: 36]. This new tool, combined with the spatial-temporal framework module of EwE  
97 [30], bridges the gap between envelope environmental models and food web models [32].  
98 In this study, we apply Bayesian spatial modelling with ecological modelling techniques to analyze  
99 fishery discard and environmental data in the Southern Catalan Sea ecosystem. First, the Bayesian  
100 approach is used to model the amount and distribution of discards in the study area. Next, we use  
101 the EwE approach to evaluate the ecological consequences of discards on commercial and non-  
102 commercial species under different degrees of the discard ban by examining a broad number of  
103 ecological indicators related to trophic network dynamics. Finally, we reflect on how the  
104 simulation-based coupling framework tested here can provide a new and useful tool to explore  
105 management strategies that benefit fishers and possibly improve economic revenues while reducing  
106 the ecological impacts and pressure on non-target species.

107

## 108 **Material and Methods**

### 109 *Study area*

110 The study was carried out in the Southern Catalan Sea (Figure 1), an area of relatively high  
111 productivity due to a joint effect of the Northern current and the run-off of the Ebro and Rhone  
112 rivers [37, 38]. The continental shelf in this area is narrow, with the northern current flowing south-  
113 westwards along the continental slope toward the wider continental shelf surrounding the Ebro  
114 Delta River. This area is an important fishing ground for both small pelagic and demersal species  
115 [39, 40], as well as at risk predatory marine species, such as marine mammals and seabirds [41].



116

117 *Figure 1: Study area located in the North-western Mediterranean Sea.*

118

119 ***Discards, landings and fishing effort datasets***

120 Catch and discards data from 2009 to 2016 were collected by the Instituto Español de Oceanografía  
 121 (IEO, Spanish Oceanographic Institute), under the EU Data Collection Framework (EC Regulation  
 122 199/2008) [42]. A *métier* approach was used in the sampling design, which is a method that  
 123 formally segments fisheries by vessel type, gear, fishing grounds and target species [8]. On-board  
 124 observers collected monthly discards data for each sampled haul as estimation between landings  
 125 and the total catch. The reference fleet for this study was the bottom otter trawl fleet that operates in  
 126 the Southern Catalan Sea (Geographical Sub Area 06 North), which targets a mixed species *métier*  
 127 (hereafter OTB-MIX). The OTB-MIX includes trawlers that usually operate in the continental shelf

128 waters (from 50 to 200 m depth) with different target species. European hake (*Merluccius*  
129 *merluccius*), red mullet (*Mullus barbatus*), Norway lobster (*Nephrops norvegicus*), and octopus  
130 (*Octopus vulgaris*), are the most common species. These trawlers make short hauls of about 2-4  
131 hours with about 2-3 fishing hauls per trip and land in Castellón and Tarragona harbours, the two  
132 main fishing ports in the study area.

133 Since the catch and discard statistics varied markedly among vessels, catch per unit effort (CPUE)  
134 and discards per unit effort (DPUE) were calculated by the catch and discard weight per haul  
135 duration (kg/h). Two CPUE variables were calculated: one of the total discards (hereafter CPUE<sub>tot</sub>),  
136 and the other of the regulated species (hereafter CPUE<sub>reg</sub>) defined in Annex III of Regulation (EC)  
137 No 1967/2006 (see Appendix 1 for the specific regulated species). Similarly, two DPUE response  
138 variables were created: one representing total discards in order to assess the overall ecological  
139 impact of the fishery (hereafter DPUE<sub>tot</sub>), and the other representing the discards of regulated  
140 species, which have a minimum landing size (hereafter DPUE<sub>reg</sub>). Finally, all DPUE measures were  
141 log-transformed to down weight extreme values, to achieve normality and ensure a better fit of the  
142 models (Shapiro and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests, p-values < 0.05). Landing datasets collected in the  
143 fishery harbours located in the studied area where the OTB-MIX métier land were provided by the  
144 General Secretariat of Fisheries of the Spanish Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Environment  
145 (MAPAMA).

146

#### 147 ***Environmental data***

148 To predict DPUE we included both oceanographic variables (i.e., Sea Surface Temperature (SST),  
149 Sea Bottom Temperature (SBT), Sea Surface Salinity (SSS), Sea Bottom Salinity (SBS), Primary  
150 Production (PP)) and physical descriptors (i.e., bathymetry and type of the seabed) as possible  
151 predictors in the models (Table 1).

152 Oceanographic variables were derived for the entire study area from a regional application of the

153 ROMS model [43] which is coupled with a biogeochemical nitrogen-based plankton model [44]  
154 already tested for spatial applications in the Mediterranean Sea [45, 33, 36]. Implementation of the  
155 ROMS was adapted to the Catalan Sea with a grid of 2 x 2 km resolution and a vertical resolution of  
156 40 levels. Climatologies were used as boundary conditions and were derived from the NEMO  
157 model (available from <http://www.nemo-ocean.eu>) [46], following the same procedure used in Coll  
158 et al., [47]. Bathymetry and the types of seabed were obtained from the European Marine  
159 Observation Data Network (EMODnet Bathymetry Consortium (2018): EMODnet Digital  
160 Bathymetry (DTM), <http://doi.org/10.12770/18ff0d48-b203-4a65-94a9-5fd8b0ec35f6>).  
161 Specific values for the environmental variables In each fishing location were extracted using the  
162 “extract” function of the “raster” package [48] in the R software [49].  
163 Both physical and oceanographic variables were explored for correlation, collinearity, outliers, and  
164 missing data before they were included in the model. Correlation among variables was checked by  
165 performing a Spearman’s correlation test with the “cor.test” function of the R software. Collinearity  
166 was tested by computing the generalized variance-inflation factors (GVIF), which are the corrected  
167 VIF values by the number of degrees of freedom of a predictor variable [50]. The GVIF was  
168 assessed using the “corvif” function in R software. All variables used in the models have a GVIF  
169 lower than 3 and a Spearman’s correlation lower than 0.70 (p-value >0.05). Outliers and missing  
170 data were checked using the procedure elaborated by Zuur et al. [51].  
171 Environmental predictors, as well as the computed CPUEs measures, were standardized (difference  
172 from the mean divided by the corresponding standard deviation) to facilitate visualization and  
173 interpretation.

174

### 175 ***Modelling high density DPUE areas***

176 Hierarchical Bayesian spatial models (H-BSMs) were used to identify the high-density DPUE areas  
177 for both total discards and discard of regulated species. Specifically, the expected values of DPUE

178 in each haul ( $\mu$ DPUE) were related to the spatial, temporal and environmental covariates according  
179 to the general formulation,

$$180 \quad \mu DPUE_{ijk} = X_{ij} \beta + Y_j + W_i + Z_k \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

181 where  $\beta$  represents the vector of the regression coefficients,  $X_{ij}$  is the vector of explanatory  
182 covariates listed in Table 1 at year  $j$  and location  $i$ ,  $Y_j$  is the component of the temporal unstructured  
183 random effect in year  $t_j$ ,  $W_i$  represents the spatially structured random effect at location  $i$ , and  $Z_k$  is  
184 the random effect of the vessel. The remaining potential source of DPUE variability could be due to  
185 differences among vessels caused by a skipper effect or unobserved gear characteristics. To remove  
186 bias caused by vessel-specific differences in fishing operation, we included a vessel effect. In  
187 addition to the environmental variables, CPUE measures ( $CPUE_{\text{tot}}$  and  $CPUE_{\text{reg}}$ ) for each fishing  
188 haul were included as possible predictors of DPUE variability, as well as a month factor to assess  
189 intra-annual variations.

190 H-BSMs were fitted using the Integrated Nested Laplace Approximation (INLA) package [52] in  
191 the R environment. INLA performs Stochastic Partial Differential Equations (SPDE) [53] for the  
192 spatially structured random effect, which approximates a continuously indexed Gaussian Field (GF)  
193 with a Matérn covariance function by a Gaussian Markov Random Field (GMRF). The spatial effect  
194 is a numeric vector that links each observation to a spatial location and, thus it accounts for  
195 independent region-specific noise that cannot be explained by the available covariates [54]. This  
196 component is defined in terms of two hyperparameters,  $\kappa$  and  $\tau$ , that are related to the range and  
197 scale of the spatial effect [55]. A multivariate Gaussian distribution with a mean of zero and a  
198 Matérn spatially-structured covariance matrix were assumed for the spatial component (see [54] for  
199 more information about how to express prior knowledge of spatial effects).

200 A vague Gamma prior distribution with shape and scale parameters of 1 and  $5e-05$ , respectively,  
201 was assumed for the precision parameter  $\gamma$  of the temporal component. Vague prior distributions



202 with a zero-mean and a standard deviation of 100 were used for all the fixed effects since no prior  
203 information was available.

204 Model selection was performed by testing all possible combinations among the non correlated  
205 variables considering the Watanabe Akaike Information Criterion (WAIC) [56] for goodness of fit  
206 and the Log-Conditional Predictive Ordinates (LCPO) [57] for predictive quality measures.

207

### 208 ***Ecopath with Ecosim modelling approach***

209 The basic routine of *Ecopath* is to provide a snapshot of the structure and flows of a food web and  
210 describe the balance between production of functional groups and consumption within an  
211 ecosystem. Each functional group can represent a species, a sub-group of a species (e.g., juveniles  
212 and adults) or a group of species with functional and ecological similarities. *Ecopath* is the starting  
213 point to develop temporal and spatial-temporal modelling approaches using *Ecosim* and *Ecospace*  
214 [22]. A description of the EwE methodology, main applications and limitations can be found in the  
215 literature [23, 58, 59, 60].

216 The *Ecopath* model uses a system of linear equations to describe the average flows of mass and  
217 energy between these groups during a specific period of time, (normally a year). The flow to and  
218 from each group is described by the following equation:

$$219 \quad B_i \cdot (P/B)_i = \sum B_j \cdot (Q/B)_j \cdot DC_{ij} + Y_i + E_i + BA_i + B_i \cdot (P/B)_i \cdot (1 - EE_i) \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

220 where  $B_i$  is the biomass of group  $i$ ,  $(P/B)_i$  is the production per unit of biomass,  $Y_i$  is the total fishery  
221 catch rate,  $E_i$  is the net migration rate (emigration–immigration),  $BA_i$  is the biomass accumulation  
222 rate,  $EE_i$  is the ecotrophic efficiency, which is defined by the proportion of production that is  
223 utilized in the system,  $B_j$  is the biomass of consumers or predators  $j$ ,  $(Q/B)_j$  is the consumption per  
224 unit of biomass  $j$ , and  $DC_{ij}$  is the fraction of  $i$  in the diet of  $j$ .

225 For each functional group  $i$ , at least three of the four basic parameters are required: biomass ( $B_i$ ),

226 consumption rates  $(Q/B)_i$  and production rates  $(P/B)_i$ , and ecotrophic efficiency  $(EE_i)$ . The fourth  
227 parameter is estimated in the model [23]. Diet composition  $(DC_{ij})$  and fishing yields and other  
228 exports  $(Y_i$  and  $E_i)$  are also needed.

229 Ecosim is a temporal dynamic module that is able to simulate ecosystem effects of (mainly fishing)  
230 mortality changes and environmental forcing over time [23, 24, 25]. The model uses a system of  
231 time-dependent differential equations from the baseline mass-balance model (see Eq. 3), where the  
232 biomass growth rate is calculated as:

$$233 \quad dB_i/dt = g_i \cdot \sum Q_{ji} - \sum Q_{ij} + I_i - (M_i + F_i + e_i) \cdot B_i \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

234 where  $dB_i/dt$  represents the biomass growth rate of group  $i$  during the time interval  $dt$ ,  $g_i$  is the net  
235 growth efficiency (production/consumption ratio,  $P/Q$ ),  $M_i$  is the natural mortality rate  
236  $((P/B)_i \cdot B_i (1 - EE_i))$ ,  $F_i$  is the fishing mortality rate,  $I_i$  is immigration rate, and  $e_i$  is emigration rate.  
237 The two sums from equation 3 estimate consumption rates. The first expresses total consumption by  
238 group  $i$ , and the second predation by all predators in the same group  $i$ . The consumption rates,  $Q$ ,  
239 are calculated based on the ‘foraging arena’ concept, where  $B_i$ ’s are divided into vulnerable and  
240 non-vulnerable components [61].

241 The set of Ecosim equations are used in the spatial routine Ecospace, the spatial-temporal model of  
242 *EwE*, which predicts the biomass dynamics in a two-dimensional space [24]. ‘Water’ cells in  
243 Ecospace can be assigned to contain one or more habitat types and species can be assigned  
244 preferred habitats [23]. Fishing fleets can be limited to fish in specific habitats and can be subjected  
245 to zonal fishing regulations (no take zones) [24]. The model further incorporates organism dispersal  
246 rates and other behavioural parameters [23].

247 In this study, the ecosystem model of the Southern Catalan Sea that was developed with Ecopath  
248 with Ecosim (EwE) [62, 63, 64] was run to analyze the spatial-temporal dynamics of marine  
249 resources and the ecosystem under different discard ban policy scenarios. This model, previously

250 fitted to 1978- 2010 time series [65] includes 40 functional groups and four fishing fleets (bottom  
251 trawling, purse seining, long lining and tuna fishing), and covers an area of 5,000 km<sup>2</sup> with depths  
252 from 50 to 400 m [66]. A previous Ecospace model, which was developed to evaluate the combined  
253 effects of environmental conditions and fishing in the ecosystem dynamics of the Southern Catalan  
254 Sea, was used as a starting point with the original configuration as the default setting [66]. The  
255 environmental variables used to parameterize the Ecospace model were the same as those used for  
256 the H-BSMs. The primary production spatial pattern was used to drive the dynamics of the  
257 phytoplankton group (through the variation of the initial P/B value) of the food web model [64].

258

### 259 *Ecosystem simulations and analyses*

260 Starting from the original Ecosim model and previously developed Ecospace configurations [64, 65,  
261 66], a series of spatial-temporal simulations were run and compared against a non-discard ban  
262 scenario. Spatial-temporal simulations were developed for the period 2016 to 2020 and the model  
263 was let to keep running until 2030 (Table 2). EwE version 6.6 and the spatial-temporal framework  
264 module of *EwE* [30] were used to implement the discard ban scenarios at specific points in time and  
265 space.

266

267 A first group of simulations was carried out and ran until 2030 using an Ecosim temporal dynamic  
268 model and did not include spatial information:

269 S0: Baseline simulation - the original Ecosim model fitted to time series from 1978 to 2010 was  
270 used and ran to 2030 and did not include implementation of a discard ban policy.

271 S1: total implementation of the discard ban on regulated species, i.e., 100% reduction of discards of  
272 these species in the entire study area from 2016 to 2020 and run to 2030.

273 S2: total implementation of the discard ban on all discarded species (both regulated and not  
274 regulated species), i.e., 100% reduction of all discards in the entire study from 2016 to 2020 and run  
275 to 2030.

276

277 In a second group of simulations, spatial-temporal scenarios were developed, which integrated the  
278 H-BSMs outputs in the spatial-temporal model Ecospace [47], and reduced 100% of discards from  
279 2016 to 2020, while running to 2030:

280 S3: total implementation of the discard ban (100% reduction of discards) of regulated species in the  
281 entire study area.

282 S4: total implementation of the discard ban for total discarded species in the entire study area.

283 S5: total implementation of the discard ban for the regulated species only in the high intensity  
284 DPUE<sub>reg</sub> areas identified by H-BSMs.

285 S6: total implementation of the discard ban for total discarded species only in the high intensity  
286 DPUE<sub>tot</sub> areas identified by the H-BSMs.

287

### 288 *Ecological indicators*

289 Results from scenarios were compared by using a set of selected ecological indicators that were  
290 calculated for three different years: the year the discard ban policy started (2016), the year set for  
291 full policy implementation (2020), and 10 years after full implementation of the ban (2030) (Table  
292 3).

293 The ecological indicators that were chosen were divided into two categories: (1) biomass and catch-  
294 based indicators, such as total catch, total catch of important commercial species (such as hake, red  
295 mullets, Norway lobster, anchovy, sardine, flatfish and demersal species), total biomass of exploited  
296 species, total biomass of important commercial species, total invertebrates over fish biomass, total  
297 demersal over pelagic biomass, predatory biomass; and (2) ecosystem and biodiversity-based

298 indicators, such as, Kempton's Q biodiversity index, marine trophic index (MTI), Trophic level of  
299 the catch (TLc) and TLco 3.25. These are all common indicators that are regularly extracted from  
300 EwE modelling [64, 65, 67]. The Kempton's Q index was calculated as a relative index of biomass  
301 diversity based on the Kempton's Q index developed for expressing species diversity [61]. This  
302 index includes those species or functional groups with a  $TL \geq 3$ , so an increase in this index implies  
303 an increase in the biomass of various high TLs organisms. The TLc was used to describe how the  
304 fishery and ecosystem might interact because of modelled policy measures [23].

305

## 306 **Results**

307 A total of 201 fishing hauls were sampled in the study area over the period 2009 to 2016. Total  
308 catch and discards for that period were 49,517 kg and 12,720 kg respectively, which is equivalent to  
309 26% of all fisheries catch during that period. Overall, the most discarded species were *Scyliorhinus*  
310 *canicula* (726.93 kg), *Engraulis encrasicolus* (631.78 kg) and *Galeus melastomus* (604.97 kg).  
311 Among the regulated species, the most discarded were *Engraulis encrasicolus*, *Sardina pilchardus*  
312 (356.19 kg) and *Pagellus acarne* (148.24 kg).

313

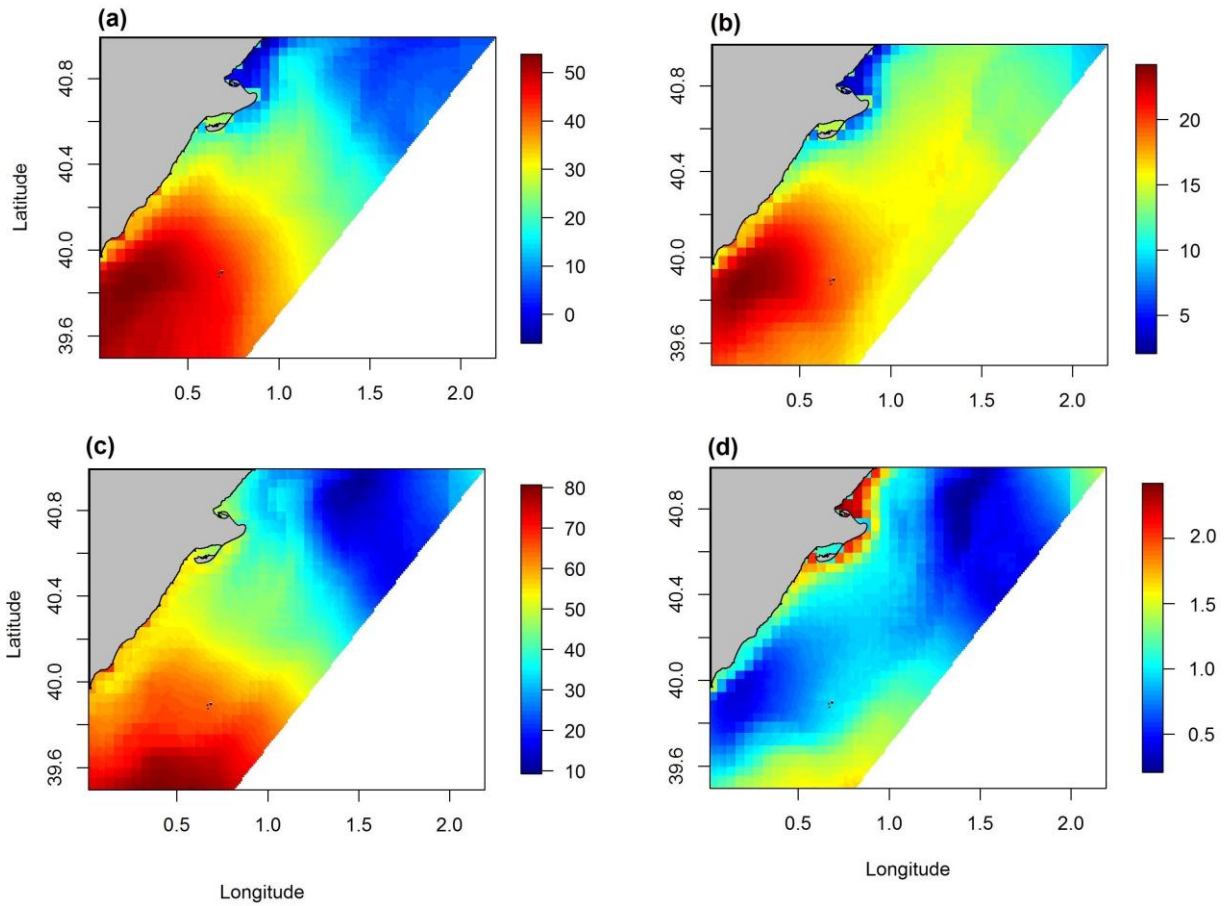
### 314 ***Hierarchical Bayesian spatial models***

315 SSS was highly correlated to SBS ( $r > 0.80$ ) and SST was highly correlated to SBT ( $r > 0.80$ ).  
316 Moreover, the variables SSS and SST have a Generalized Variance Inflation Factors of (GVIF)  $> 3$ .  
317 Given this, separate H-BSM runs were performed and each run included only one of the highly  
318 correlated variables to determine which one would explain the most discard variance.  
319 For total discards, the selected predictors (based on the lowest WAIC and LCPO values) were  
320  $CPUE_{tot}$ , month, SBT, PP and the vessel random effect, plus a stochastic spatial component that  
321 accounts for the residual spatial autocorrelation. No relevant inter-annual differences were found in  
322 this area for the  $DPUE_{tot}$  variability. Indeed, all H-BSMs that contained the temporal effect revealed

323 higher WAIC and LCPO values than those lacking.

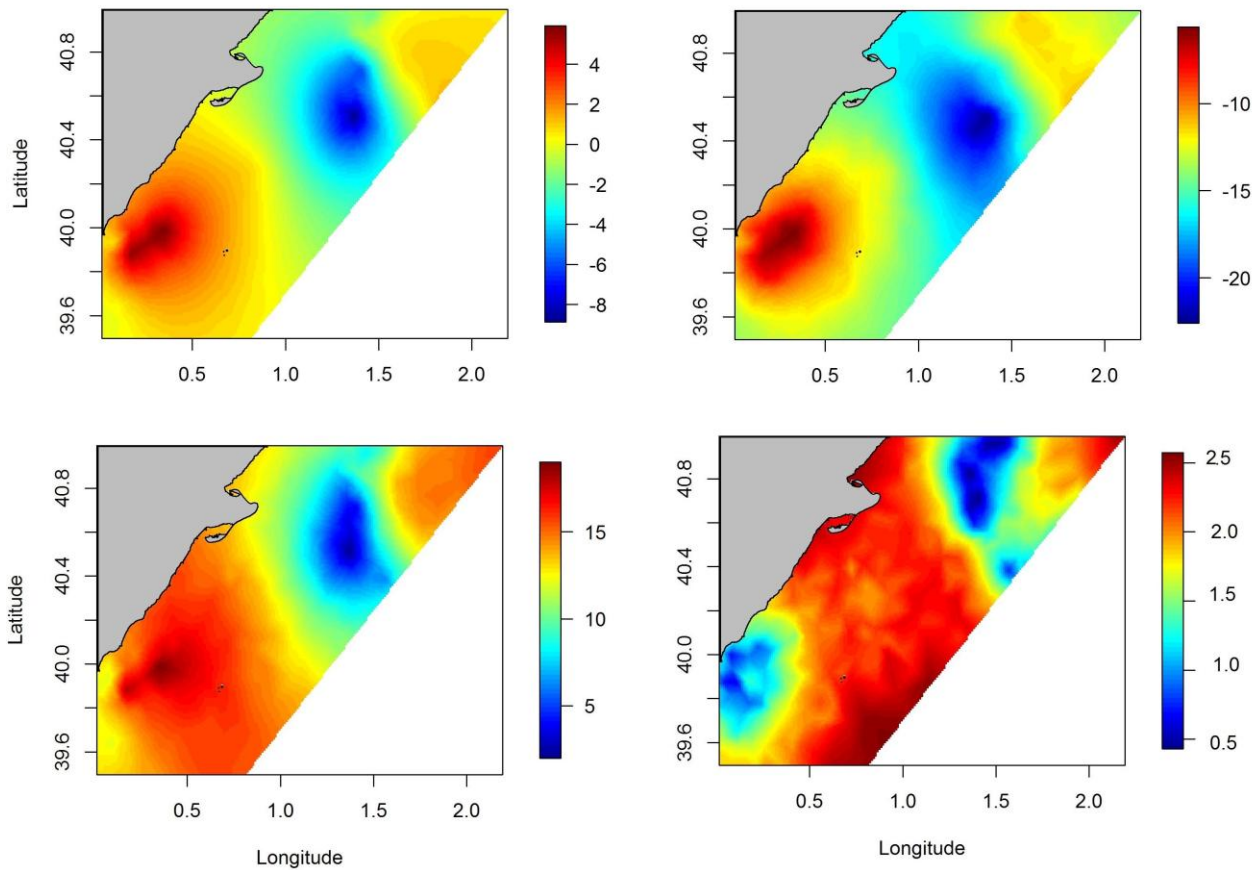
324 The findings showed a positive relationship between  $CPUE_{tot}$  and  $DPUE_{tot}$  (posterior mean= 1.65;  
325 95% CI= [0.96; 1.84]). Conversely, both SBT and PP presented negative relationships with  $DPUE_{tot}$   
326 variability (posterior mean= -0.65; 95% CI= [-0.33; -0.10]; posterior mean= -1.15; 95% CI = [-1.19;  
327 -0.53], respectively). Thus, higher values of  $DPUE_{tot}$  were found in colder waters with lower  
328 concentrations of PP. The months with higher estimated coefficients than the reference level  
329 (January) were February and May (posterior mean = 1.23; 95% CI= [0.41; 1.92]; posterior mean=  
330 1.05; 95% CI = [0.34; 1.52], respectively). By contrast, September was found to be the month with  
331 the lowest  $DPUE_{tot}$  values.

332 Maps of the  $DPUE_{tot}$  revealed latitudinal patterns, and the highest values were reached in the  
333 southern part of the study area (Figure 2) where the continental shelf is wider. The spatial  
334 component effect was consistent and revealed a similar pattern (Figure 3).



335

336 *Figure 2: Posterior predictive distribution of the  $DPUE_{tot}$ : mean (a); 95% credible intervals with*  
 337 *the first (b) and third (c) quantiles and the standard deviation (d).*  
 338



339

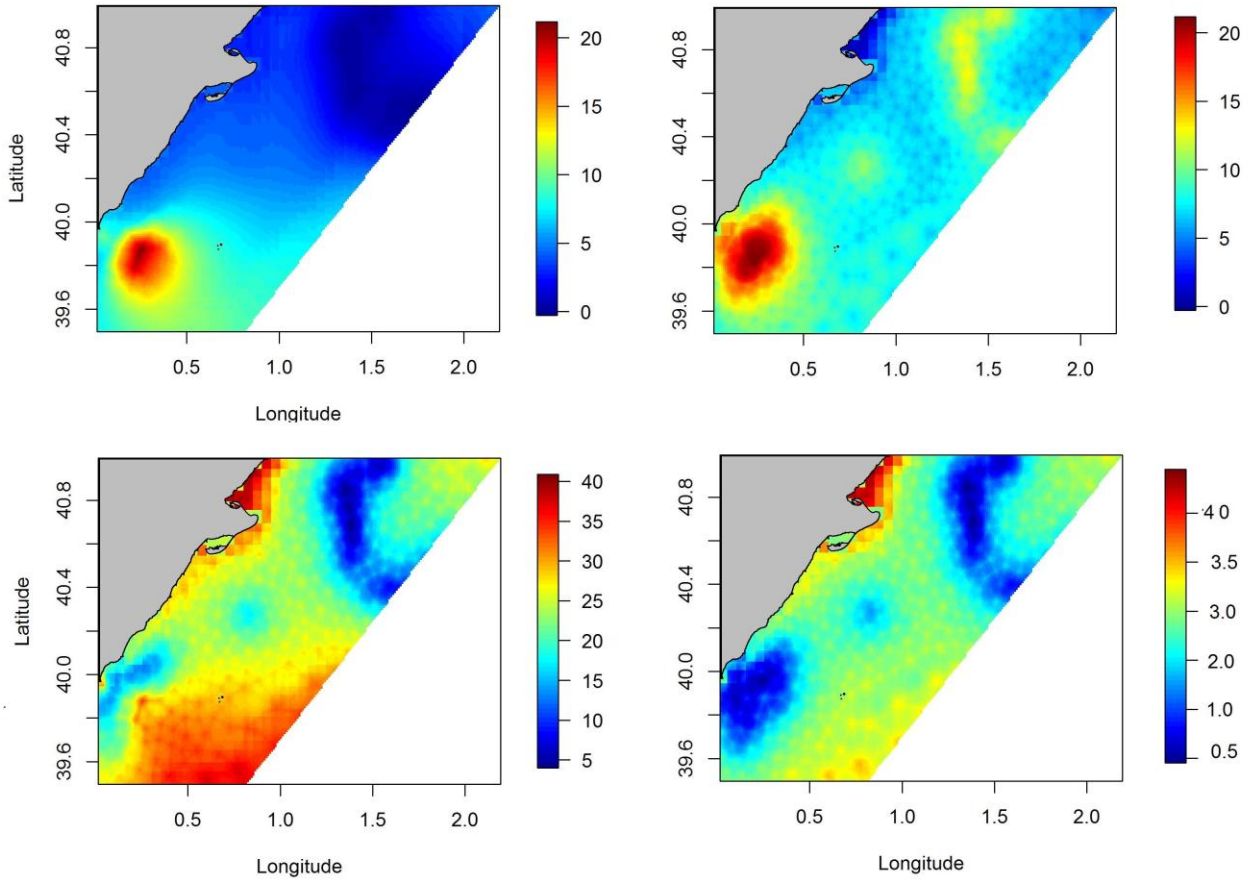
340 *Figure 3: Posterior distribution of the spatial effect of the  $DPUE_{tot}$ : mean (a); 95% credible*  
 341 *intervals with the first (b) and third (c) quantiles and the standard deviation (d).*

342

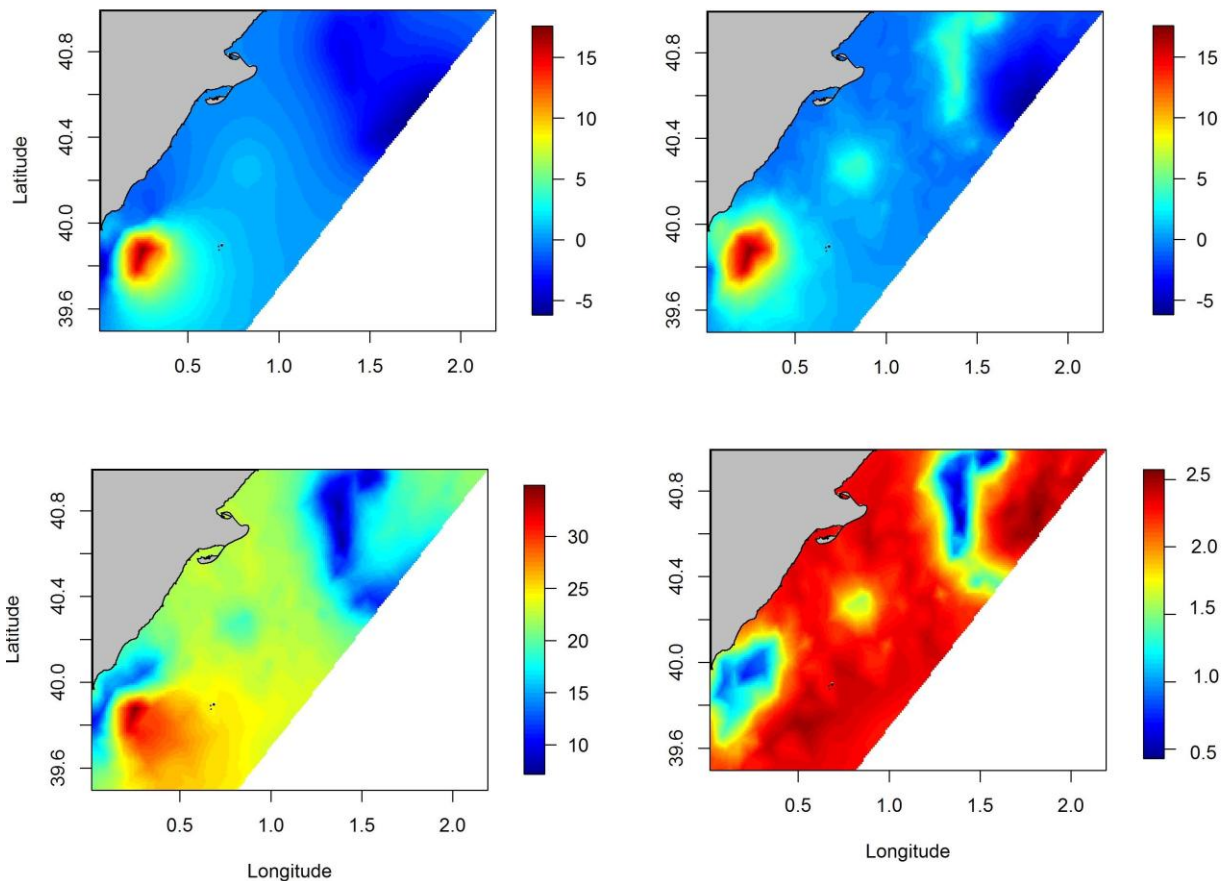
343 With respect to  $DPUE_{reg}$ , the relevant covariates for the best model were  $CPUE_{reg}$  bathymetry and  
 344 PP together with the vessel and spatial random effects. As for the  $DPUE_{tot}$ , no inter-annual  
 345 variability was identified for the  $DPUE_{reg}$ . Moreover, no monthly variation was found for  $DPUE_{reg}$ . A  
 346 positive relationship was found between  $DPUE_{reg}$  and the bathymetry, (posterior mean= 1.42; 95%  
 347 CI= [0.74; 2.01]), and between  $DPUE_{reg}$  and  $CPUE_{reg}$  (posterior mean= 1.84; 95% CI= [1.02;  
 348 2.34]). By contrast, a negative relationship was found between PP and  $DPUE_{reg}$  (posterior mean= -  
 349 0.49; 95% CI= [-0.53; -0.09]).

350 Both the predictive spatial  $DPUE_{reg}$  values map and the posterior mean of the spatial effect map  
 351 (Figures 4 and 5) demonstrated that the southern part of the study area has the highest  $DPUE_{reg}$   
 352 concentrations. A specific marked hotspot with higher  $DPUE_{reg}$  was identified in waters located off





356 *Figure 4: Posterior predictive distribution of the DPUE<sub>reg</sub>: mean (a); 95% credible intervals with*  
357 *the first (b) and third (c) quantiles and the standard deviation (d).*



359

360 *Figure 5: Posterior distribution of the spatial effect of the  $DPUE_{reg}$ : mean (a); 95% credible*  
 361 *intervals with the first (b) and third (c) quantiles and the standard deviation (d).*

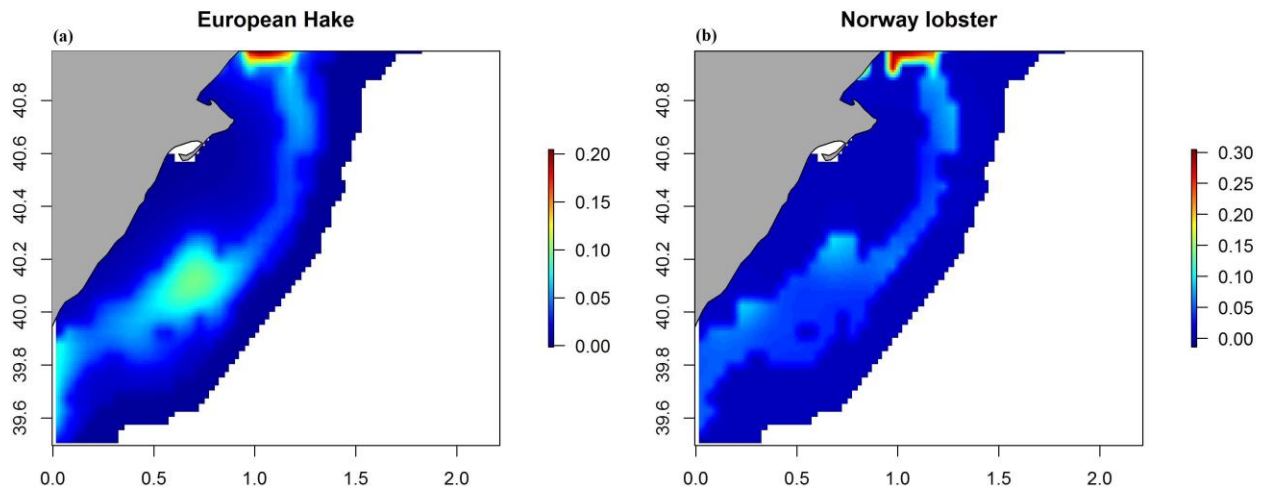
362

### 363 ***Ecosystem scale simulations of the discard ban impact***

364 Compared to the baseline scenario of no discard ban, the simulations performed with the ecosystem  
 365 EwE model that considered regulated species predicted that the biomass and hake catch would  
 366 increase, especially when submitted to spatial-temporal effects. (Table 4 and Figure 6a). These  
 367 increases were higher in simulations that extended the discard ban to all discarded species, not just  
 368 regulated ones. Results for Norway lobster showed that biomass increased when compared to the  
 369 baseline scenario (Figure 6b), although there were no clear increases in catches. On the contrary,  
 370 anchovy and sardine biomass and catches either slightly declined or increased depending on the  
 371 simulation. For anchovy, the discard ban on all species had a larger negative effect than it did on the

372 discard ban for only regulated species, whereas similar results were observed for sardine in both  
373 simulations of the discard ban. Result for flatfish species were contrasting. A discard ban on  
374 regulated species was shown to have large positive effects, whereas a discard ban on all discarded  
375 species predicted negative results, both in terms of biomass and catch (Table 4).

376 Simulations with the ecosystem EwE model predicted slight declines (mostly < 1%) of total catch  
377 and total biomass in both 2020 and 2030 under the different simulations tested in the study, when  
378 compared to 2016 (Table 5). Overall, the discard ban is predicted to have moderate positive effects  
379 on demersal fish catch and biomass, a slight negative impact on invertebrates (less than 1% change)  
380 and a slight negative impact on total fish biomass (less than a 2% change). Changes to the total  
381 invertebrates/total fish biomass were also predicted to be small, and results were contrasting:  
382 positive results were obtained when the discard ban was simulated on regulated species, and  
383 negative results were obtained when the discard ban was simulated on all discarded species.  
384 Biomass results for other predatory species contrasted between temporal simulations (which  
385 revealed a notable increase in biomass) and spatial-temporal simulations (which revealed either a  
386 slight increase or decline) (Table 5). The Kempton's Q index mainly revealed slight positive  
387 increases in the simulation of the discard ban on retained species, but slight negative increase was  
388 observed when all species were banned from discarding. A similar behaviour was observed with the  
389 MTI indicator, whereas the TLc slightly increased in all simulations, including the baseline (Table  
390 5).



391

392 *Figure 6: Ecospace predicted distribution of biomass ( $\log(t \cdot km^{-2})$ ) for European hake (a) and*  
 393 *Norway Lobster (b) in the study area under Scenario 6 of discard banning (Table 2)*

394

395

396

### 397 **Discussion**

398 Solving the discards problem is an urgently need to better manage fisheries. However, it is quite a  
 399 complex issue given that discards vary substantially over time and space and are due to numerous  
 400 factors, including environmental conditions and species composition, as well as fisheries and  
 401 economic characteristics [7, 8]. The new obligation to land discards in European Seas may have  
 402 unpredictable and unwished ecological, socio-economic and operational impacts [2, 68]. For these  
 403 reasons we tested a simulation-based approach that combined H-BSMs with spatial-temporal EwE  
 404 modelling to assess the potential effects of implementing the ‘landing obligation’ in a highly  
 405 exploited ecosystem in the North Western Mediterranean Sea. Overall, we found that the amount of  
 406 discard in our study area between 2009-2016 accounted for 26% of the total catch. Similar studies  
 407 on demersal trawls reported higher discard ratios, such as in the north-eastern Mediterranean Sea  
 408 (38-49%) [69:71] and in the south Spain area (31-34%) [7]. However, the discard ratio in our study  
 409 area was higher than the ratio reported for mid-water trawls in the Turkish Black Sea (5.1%) [72]  
 410 and in the Adriatic Sea (up to 15%) [73].

411 From a species composition point of view, a large portion of discard was of the elasmobranch  
 412 species, which are considered vulnerable species due to their biology and K-selection life-history

413 traits [74]. Discard non-target vulnerable species may have negative consequences for both  
414 commercial and non-commercial species owing to the effects on species interactions and cascading  
415 effects throughout the trophic web.

416 Our findings did not identify any relevant temporal trends over the years in either DPUE measures.  
417 On the contrary, intra-annual variability was a relevant factor for the DPUE<sub>tot</sub>. February and May,  
418 specifically, were the months that recorded the highest DPUE values. This could be attributed to the  
419 fisher targeting behaviour during these months [75], and in general due to spatial seasonal patterns  
420 of the marine community [76, 77].

421 Furthermore, discarding is a decision taken on board and based on a given fisher's discarding  
422 pattern, which is influenced by different factors, such as market dynamics for a given species or  
423 other legal and regulatory constraints. Indeed, for both DPUE measures, H-BSMs identified the  
424 random vessel effect to be a relevant variable that could affect the discard amount. This effect  
425 should collect this hidden variability that otherwise could not be analyzed.

426 Moreover, for both DPUE measures, results showed a direct and positive relationship between the  
427 CPUE and the DPUE, meaning that more catches lead to more discard. This result is in line with  
428 other studies that found the same relationship in other exploited areas [6, 8].

429 In terms of which variables could be driving the spatial distributions and discard abundance, some  
430 differences were found between total discards and regulated species discards. For example,  
431 bathymetry was only an important factor influencing the DPUE variability for regulated species.  
432 This result is in line with other discard studies that highlighted depth-related variations of DPUE  
433 quantities as this is linked to differences in species composition and in the length-frequency  
434 distribution of some particular species as the *Boops boops* [6, 78].

435 Both total discards and regulated species discards were affected by the primary production  
436 concentration (PP). Waters with lower concentrations of PP recorded higher DPUE values.  
437 Similarly, the sea bottom temperature (SBT) was negatively related to the DPUE of total discards.

438 Thus, areas with colder and less productive waters were also the areas with high discard  
439 abundances. These results can potentially be explained by two different hypotheses or a  
440 combination of both: 1) the “environmental hypothesis” whereby these environmental variables are  
441 directly correlated to the habitat preferences of *métier* target species (i.e., European hake, red  
442 mullet, Norway lobster), which are also favourable to the organisms that are part of the discard; 2)  
443 the “effort hypothesis” whereby fishing is more intense in areas with these characteristics and where  
444 the stock of target species is more abundant.

445 The spatial effect, which indicates the intrinsic spatial variability of the discards after excluding  
446 explicative variables, was relevant for both DPUE measures (total species and regulated species).  
447 This result could reflect the effect of other hidden factors, such as community composition or  
448 biological interactions, on the total values of DPUE. Maps show a clear latitudinal pattern with a  
449 specific DPUE hotspot of regulated species in waters located in front of Castellón. The  
450 identification of these spatial-temporal trends and in particular of the DPUE hotspots can be  
451 particularly useful for spatial management of the analyzed fleet. The intra-annual/spatial effects  
452 could potentially be exploited in a spatial management strategy to reduce DPUE quantities,  
453 providing there are necessary economic incentives for fishers to adopt selective temporal rotation of  
454 fishing grounds.

455 According to the simulations from the ecosystem modelling exercise, the ecological benefits of the  
456 discard ban would be mainly positive on European hake, a vulnerable and highly exploited or  
457 overexploited species [79, 80], and on Norway Lobster, a highly exploited invertebrate [81, 82] in  
458 the Mediterranean Sea. These impacts would be larger if the discard ban were extended to the entire  
459 list of discarded species, instead of just the regulated ones. However, other regulated species would  
460 show contrasting results. Likely, due to their role as prey and competitor species, smaller species  
461 that mainly play a prey role in the ecosystem may be negatively affected by the recovery of their  
462 predators (such as European hake as predator and anchovy as prey) or recovery of competitors

463 (such as demersal fish and flatfishes that can compete for similar preys). These results highlight that  
464 considering inter-specific food-web dynamics are essential to identifying the ecological  
465 consequences [68] and trade-offs of fisheries management and exploitation alternatives [83].

466 Ecosystem simulations also illustrated that the impact of the discard ban on the ecosystem may be  
467 limited and only a slight recovery of the ecosystem structure may be achieved by a discard ban.  
468 Some indicators showed a partial recovery of the ecosystem health with the implementation of the  
469 discard ban, such as demersal fish biomass. However, most of them did not show clear signs of  
470 recovery [67]. This can be related to the fact that the study exclusively simulated a discard ban of  
471 bottom trawling and did not include other measures or fleets. Additional fleets, such as purse seiners  
472 and small-scale fisheries, also have a large negative effect on marine resource and thus an  
473 intervention on these fleets may be needed to recover highly exploited Mediterranean species and  
474 communities, such as a reduction of fishing effort or total closure of sensitive areas (e.g., nurseries,  
475 spawning areas or aggregation areas). Due to the poor situation of many exploited stocks (such as  
476 European hake, European sardine and European anchovy) and ecosystems in the Mediterranean Sea  
477 [80] this study highlights that more drastic measures may be needed to yield clearer results in terms  
478 of recoveries of stocks and communities in Southern European Seas, in addition to a full  
479 implementation of the discard ban.

480 Finally, our results highlight that the choice of modelling framework used to analyse the discard ban  
481 outcomes is important because in some cases our modelling results contrasted when implementing a  
482 temporal or a spatial-temporal approach. This is mainly because fishing effort, catch and discarding  
483 generation show heterogeneous spatial patterns.

484 Bayesian spatial models can be a powerful approach to identifying discard hotspots given that they  
485 quantify both the spatial magnitude and the different sources of uncertainty. However, these models  
486 often include only implicit biotic interactions (such as competition, predation etc.) and simulation of  
487 future management scenarios are not performed straightforwardly. By contrast, these options are

488 available with the *EwE* approach, which did not include an explicit spatial component to account for  
489 the spatial autocorrelation and a quantification of the uncertainty. By combining these two  
490 techniques we can gain clear advantages for the exploration of management strategies and,  
491 specifically, assess possible discard ban implementations and consequences. This approach could be  
492 extended to others case study in others European fishing areas using similar data to test similarity  
493 and possible difference in the discard ban implementation.

494

#### 495 **Acknowledgments**

496 Data analysis of this study was funded by the Project iSEAS, Ref. LIFE13 ENV/ES/000131,  
497 “Knowledge-Based Innovative Solutions to Enhance Adding-Value Mechanisms towards Healthy  
498 and Sustainable EU Fisheries”, cofounded under the LIFE+Environmental Program of the European  
499 Union. This study is a contribution to the PELWEB project (ES-PN-2017-CTM2017-88939-R,  
500 Spanish National Plan).MC and JS acknowledge financial support from the European Union’s  
501 Horizon research program grant agreement No 689518 for the MERCES project. MAT has received  
502 funding by the European Commission’s Horizon 2020 Research and Innovation Programme under  
503 Grant Agreement No. 634495 for the MINOUW project. The authors are deeply grateful to all the  
504 observers who gathered the fishing data, as well as the fishers who participated in the sampling.  
505 Collection of the fishing data used in this paper was funded by the European Union through the  
506 European Maritime and Fisheries Fund (EMFF) within the National Program of collection,  
507 management and use of data in the fisheries sector and support for scientific advice regarding the  
508 Common Fisheries Policy.

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754 *Appendix 1: List of the regulated species in the Mediterranean Sea as defined in Annex III to*  
 755 *Regulation (EC) No 1967/2006 that shall be brought and retained on board the fishing vessels,*  
 756 *recorded, and landed, when the landing obligation will be implemented. The length (cm) refers to*  
 757 *the Minimum Landing Size. Acronyms are: TL= total length and CL = carapace length.*  
 758

Species	Length (cm)
<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>	25
<i>Diplodus annularis</i>	12
<i>Diplodus puntazzo</i>	18
<i>Diplodus sargo</i>	15
<i>Diplodus vulgaris</i>	15
<i>Engraulis encrasicolus</i>	9
<i>Epinephelus spp.</i>	45
<i>Lithognathus mormyrus</i>	20
<i>Merluccius merluccius</i>	20
<i>Mullus spp.</i>	11
<i>Pagellus acarne</i>	12
<i>Pagellus bogaraveo</i>	33
<i>Pagellus erythrinus</i>	15
<i>Pagrus pagrus</i>	18
<i>Polyprion americanus</i>	45
<i>Sardina pilchardus</i>	11
<i>Scomber spp.</i>	18
<i>Solea vulgaris</i>	20
<i>Sparus aurata</i>	20
<i>Trachurus spp.</i>	15
<i>Homarus gammarus</i>	30 TL, 10,5 CL
<i>Nephrops norvegicus</i>	7 TL, 2 CL
<i>Palinuridae</i>	9 CL
<i>Parapenaeus longirostris</i>	2 CL
<i>Pecten jacobaeus</i>	10
<i>Venerupis spp.</i>	2.5

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