

## Using Bayesian time series models to estimate bycatch of an endangered albatross

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### ABSTRACT

Developing unbiased estimates of incidental bycatch poses a challenge for species where fishing-induced mortality is a rare occurrence. Expanding rare mortality events using ratio estimators or bycatch of proxy species can result in highly variable estimates based on untested and often untestable assumptions. We estimated short-tailed albatross bycatch in a U.S. West Coast groundfish fishery using Bayesian time series modeling. The best model used a constant bycatch rate and inferred annual expected bycatch and variability using a Poisson distribution, given specified levels of observed effort. Fleet-wide bycatch estimates varied annually and peaked at 1.35 birds in 2011 (the year of the only observed mortality). The probability of exceeding the limit of five estimated takes in a 2-year period was very low throughout the time series, and estimated takes in the unobserved portion of the fleet are more likely with lower observer coverage and higher fishing effort. The Bayesian model-based approach avoids assumptions inherent in ratio estimators and proxy methods; it incorporates uncertainty, reduces volatility, and enables comparisons of bycatch estimates to management thresholds. This analytical approach offers natural resource managers a framework for estimating bycatch in data-limited contexts, which can result in better guidance for management actions and mitigation strategies.

### *Keywords:*

Bayesian times series modeling

Bycatch

Short-tailed albatross

Take threshold

## 1 **1. Introduction**

2  
3 Incidental mortality (bycatch) of seabirds in fisheries is one of the top threats contributing to  
4 the decline of seabirds worldwide. The number of globally threatened species affected by  
5 bycatch has increased from 40 species (Croxall et al., 2012) to 50 in recent years (Dias et al.,  
6 2019), and many seabird populations have declined since 1950 (Paleczny et al. 2015).  
7 Albatrosses are particularly imperiled, with 15 of 22 species classified by the International Union  
8 for Conservation of Nature as globally threatened (Critically Endangered, Endangered, or  
9 Vulnerable) and six other species as near threatened (IUCN, 2022). All 15 of the imperiled  
10 albatross species are caught as bycatch in fisheries, which has, in part, contributed to their  
11 population declines (IUCN, 2022).

12  
13 Estimating seabird bycatch can be challenging for a variety of reasons. Seabirds typically  
14 have little economic value for fishers and therefore, seabird bycatch is almost always discarded  
15 at sea and not available for dockside sampling. To document seabird and other at-sea discards,  
16 fishery managers often employ at-sea observers onboard fishing vessels, or, in more recent years,  
17 electronic monitoring equipment such as video cameras. Because these monitoring programs can  
18 be costly, monitoring of fishing activities is often less than 100%, and bycatch is thus sampled on  
19 only a subset of vessels within a fleet. Observed bycatch on sampled vessels is used to estimate  
20 fleet-wide bycatch by expanding the sampled portion of the fleet to the unsampled portion of the  
21 fleet, assuming the bycatch rate on sampled vessels reflects the rate on unsampled vessels.  
22 Expanding bycatch estimates to the entire fleet requires data on the size of the fleet and some  
23 metric of fishing effort (e.g., number of trips, number of gear deployments, number of hooks,  
24 etc.) which might not always be available or accessible.

25  
26 Sampling biases also present a challenge to accurate bycatch estimates. Some sampling  
27 biases are inherent in the bycatch process. For example, cryptic mortality, where bird mortalities  
28 are not observed and therefore go unsampled, is a form of sampling bias (Gilman et al., 2013). In  
29 trawl fisheries, birds in flight can strike aerial cables and rigging, which can cause injury or  
30 death; however, these interactions are largely unobserved and go unrecorded (Tamini et al.,  
31 2015, Melvin et al., 2011). In hook-and-line fisheries, birds hooked during deployment of gear  
32 and subsequently drowned might become dislodged from the hook prior to gear retrieval, which  
33 can result in them going unrecorded (Zhou et al., 2020). Other sampling biases can arise from  
34 non-random deployment of observers on vessels; these can result from hidden spatial or temporal  
35 strata in the fishery, observer coverage waivers resulting from safety concerns, or just from  
36 reluctance of fishing captains to carry observers. There is also the potential for “observer  
37 effects”, when vessels change their fishing behavior or locations due to the presence of fishery  
38 observers (Benoît and Allard, 2009). Finally, observer programs are sometimes not designed to  
39 focus on seabirds but rather on documenting bycatch and discard of non-target fish species.

40  
41 The method employed to estimate bycatch can also introduce assumptions about the data and  
42 the underlying bycatch process. Historically, ratio estimators have been widely used to expand  
43 the observed bycatch estimate to the unobserved portion of the fleet (Stratoudakis et al., 1999;  
44 Borges et al., 2005; Walmsley et al., 2007). However, using observer samples to estimate  
45 bycatch in the unsampled portion of the fishery relies on the assumption that bycatch is  
46 proportional to some fishing effort metric common to both observed and unobserved vessels.

47 This assumption is often not supported by data, as bycatch might vary nonlinearly or even be  
48 unrelated to the ratio denominator (Rochet and Trenkel, 2005).

49  
50 Bycatch estimates produced using ratio estimators have also been shown to be biased,  
51 particularly when observer coverage is low (Carretta and Moore, 2014, Martin et al., 2015).  
52 Under such circumstances, relatively minor differences in observed bycatch could result in  
53 greatly disparate fleet-wide estimates. For example, the absence of bycatch events in the  
54 observed portion of the fleet results in a fleet-wide estimate of zero, despite the fact that the real  
55 estimate could be something greater than zero. Alternatively, one or a few bycatch events could  
56 result in unrealistically large estimates, when the true value is likely lower. Thus, ratio estimators  
57 are considered unsuitable for rare events (Carretta and Moore, 2014; Martin et al., 2015).

### 58 59 *1.1 Short-tailed albatross and West Coast sablefish fisheries*

60  
61 The short-tailed albatross (*Phoebastria albatrus*) was likely once the most abundant of the  
62 North Pacific albatrosses, along with black-footed albatross, *P. nigripes*, and Laysan albatross, *P.*  
63 *immutabilis*, with 14 known historical breeding colonies in the northwestern Pacific Ocean  
64 (USFWS, 2008). In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, millions of short-tailed albatross were  
65 hunted for feathers, oil, and fertilizer, and, by 1949, the species was thought to be extinct  
66 (USFWS, 2008). The species has been recovering since the 1950s, and their present range  
67 encompasses the Pacific Rim from southern Japan through Alaska and British Columbia to  
68 northern California. Individuals spend time primarily along continental shelf margins, which lead  
69 to extensive overlap with many commercial fishing operations (Guy et al., 2013).

70  
71 Despite conservation efforts resulting in a steady population increase over the last decade  
72 (USFWS, 2020), bycatch of short-tailed albatrosses in commercial fisheries continues to be a  
73 major conservation concern, especially for younger age classes. Since 1983, 21 short-tailed  
74 albatross mortalities have been documented throughout the North Pacific, and 2/3 of them have  
75 been individuals younger than 4 years old (Table 1). Considered globally threatened and listed as  
76 Vulnerable by the International Union for Conservation (Birdlife International, 2022), the short-  
77 tailed albatross was listed as endangered under the U.S. Endangered Species Act (ESA)  
78 throughout its range, including the United States, by the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service  
79 (USFWS, 2000). The Short-tailed Albatross Recovery Plan (USFWS 2008) and subsequent  
80 reviews summarizing the status of the species (USFWS, 2009, 2014, 2020), have identified  
81 fisheries bycatch as a major and continuing threat.

82  
83 Sablefish (*Anoplopoma fimbria*) is one of the most commercially valuable species for U.S.  
84 west coast groundfish fisheries. From 2000-2019, sablefish landings averaged 5,571 metric tons  
85 and revenue averaged \$29.4 million USD; while this represented only 5% of annual groundfish  
86 landings, it represented 37% of annual revenue on average (PFMC 2020). Sablefish is targeted  
87 using trawl and fixed gear, with the latter (longline, pot) being prosecuted under multiple  
88 permits, including Limited Entry, Limited Entry Daily Trip Limits, Open Access, and Catch  
89 Shares sectors (see Somers et al., 2022 for fishery descriptions). Demersal longline gear in these  
90 sectors overlaps with albatrosses off the U.S. West Coast, particularly in shelf-slope habitats  
91 north of 36° N latitude (Guy et al. 2013). Most seabird bycatch, including of albatrosses, occurs  
92 in sablefish longline fisheries, particularly the Limited Entry (LE) sablefish demersal longline

93 fishery (Jannot et al. 2020).

94

95 Estimating short-tailed albatross bycatch in U.S. West Coast groundfish fisheries has been a  
96 challenge because documented short-tailed albatross mortalities are extremely rare. In April  
97 2011, a single, sub-adult short-tailed albatross was recorded taken off the coast of Oregon  
98 (USFWS, 2012) in the LE sablefish demersal longline fishery. To overcome the shortcomings of  
99 ratio estimators, we explore model-based methods for estimating short-tailed albatross bycatch in  
100 the LE sablefish longline fishery. Model-based methods are particularly useful when bycatch is  
101 dominated by zeroes; there is reduced bias from rare events, and the methods incorporate  
102 uncertainty (Martin et al., 2015). Model-based estimation of bycatch done in a frequentist or  
103 Bayesian setting can reduce variability by using all of the information contained in the time  
104 series and can preclude arbitrary decision-making about how many years of data to combine. We  
105 use a Bayesian approach because it enables probabilistic inference for bycatch and mortality  
106 within years, conditional on fishing effort; this approach has been demonstrated with other rare  
107 bycatch species, such as cetaceans, delphinids, pinnipeds, sea turtles, and sharks (Martin et al.,  
108 2015; Cosandey-Godin et al., 2015; Jannot et al., 2021a). Bayesian approaches have recently  
109 been applied to seabirds (Hatch, 2018; Parsa et al., 2020), including to understand spatiotemporal  
110 patterns and locations of seabird bycatch hotspots (Rujia et al., 2021). We use this modeling  
111 framework to predict annual short-tailed albatross bycatch in the Limited Entry sablefish  
112 longline sector off the U.S. West Coast for the years 2002-2019.

113

## 114 **2. Methods**

115

### 116 *2.1 Data*

117

118 We applied Bayesian time-series models to short-tailed albatross bycatch using fisheries-  
119 dependent data from the LE sablefish longline fleet of the U.S. West Coast groundfish fishery  
120 (Table 2) provided by the Fisheries Observation Science Program at the National Oceanographic  
121 and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Northwest Fisheries Science Center. The fisheries  
122 observer program collects independent, at-sea fisheries data by deploying trained fisheries  
123 observers on commercial fishing vessels along the U.S. west coast (NWFSC, 2020a). A subset of  
124 the ~90 permitted vessels are randomly selected and monitored during the fishing season (April -  
125 October). The observed portion of the fleet was used to estimate bycatch for the entire fleet  
126 (observed + unobserved). While the program strives to deploy observers on 30% of LE sablefish  
127 longline fishery trips using a spatially stratified sampling scheme, realized annual observer  
128 coverage averages 28% and ranges from 7 - 46% (Somers et al., 2020). Observer coverage is  
129 calculated as the percentage of fleet-wide landings (by weight) estimated from landing receipts,  
130 called fish tickets, that are generated when the fish is purchased at the dock (see Supplemental  
131 Text for description of fish ticket processing).

132

133 During fishing trips, fisheries observers record interactions with and bycatch of seabirds and  
134 other protected species as well as information on catch and fishing effort, including fishing  
135 location and depth. For West Coast groundfish fisheries, observers prioritize documenting  
136 interactions of short-tailed albatross and other ESA-listed species with fishing vessels (NWFSC,  
137 2020a). On hook-and-line vessels such as those in the LE sablefish longline fleet, observers  
138 sample 30 - 100% of the catch from each set/haul during a fishing trip to determine its species

139 composition. In many cases, 100% of the set/haul is sampled, and seabird counts represent a  
140 complete census of the set/haul (see NWFSC, 2020b). When less than 100% of the catch was  
141 sampled, seabird counts were expanded to the set/haul level prior to modeling. Serious injury and  
142 mortality designations were determined by seabird experts. Under the ESA, a ‘take’ of a short-  
143 tailed albatross is defined as any act that harasses, harms, pursues, hunts, shoots, wounds, kills,  
144 captures, or collects, or attempts to engage in any such conduct (USFWS, 2017). Fisheries  
145 observer notes and data, and, when available, photographs and video, recorded at the time of  
146 interactions, informed take designations. Observers typically detail the nature of the injury and  
147 changes in the animal’s behavior following its release, and notes indicating a potential mortality  
148 could include evidence of bleeding, broken bones, wounds, trailing gear, vomiting, and abnormal  
149 behavior (NWFSC, 2020a). For the purposes of our models and estimating bycatch, all  
150 interactions designated as takes were considered mortalities and therefore, bycatch.

## 151 152 2.2 Statistical Model

153  
154 We used Bayesian generalized linear models (GLMs) to estimate annual means and  
155 variability of short-tailed albatross bycatch within the LE longline fleet, for both the observed  
156 and unobserved portions of the fleets. The simplest version of our estimation model used  
157 assumes that the number of observed bycatch events for each year follows a Poisson distribution,  
158

$$159 \quad n_{take,y} \sim Poisson(\lambda_y = \theta \cdot E_y)$$

160  
161 where:

162  $n_{take,y}$  = the number of observed bycatch events (or take events) in year  $y$

163  $\lambda_y$  = expected observed bycatch (# of animals)

164  $\theta$  = estimated observed bycatch rate

165  $E_y$  = observed effort in year  $y$ .

166  
167 This formulation is identical to that of widely used GLMs, where a log-link is used to  
168 estimate  $\theta$  and  $E_y$  is included as an offset term,  $\log(\lambda_y) = \log(\theta) + \log(E_y)$ . The unobserved  
169 bycatch rate can be calculated similarly, replacing  $E_y$  with the unobserved effort in year  $y$ . In this  
170 formulation, the estimated bycatch rate  $\theta$  is not time-varying, but does include parameter  
171 uncertainty that is propagated through calculations of mean bycatch,  $\theta \cdot E_y$ . Variability in  
172 estimated observed bycatch rates over time is thus driven by changes in observed effort.  
173 Additional factors such as albatross distribution in space or time, or major changes in fisheries  
174 gear may also affect observed bycatch rates, but those quantities are assumed constant here.

175  
176 We considered several extensions to the base model described above. First, we evaluated  
177 models where observed bycatch was drawn from alternative distributions (negative binomial,  
178 Poisson hurdle model), which can be appropriate for zero-inflated datasets. Second, we evaluated  
179 the potential to fit models that allowed the bycatch rate to be variable through time. To simulate  
180 that bycatch rate variability through time, we modeled bycatch rate as a random walk in log-  
181 space,  $\theta_y \sim Normal(\theta_{y-1}, \sigma_\theta)$ , where  $\sigma_\theta$  is an added parameter that controls the variability of  
182 the random walk. Finally, we explored how two alternative measures of fishing effort (number of  
183 observed hooks, mass of observed retained catch) affected inference and model performance.

184 Due to the paucity of bycatch events, covariates of interest, such as year or environmental  
185 effects, were not included.

186  
187 Estimation was done using Stan and the R package *rstan* (Stan Development Team, 2016),  
188 which implements Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) using the No-U Turn Sampling (NUTS)  
189 algorithm (Hoffman and Gelman, 2014; Carpenter et al., 2017). Weakly informative Student-t (3,  
190 0, 2) priors were used for all fixed effect parameters. For each model considered, we ran three  
191 parallel MCMC chains for 4000 iterations each, discarding the first 50% of the samples.  
192 Convergence was assessed using  $\hat{R}$  and effective samples size (Gelman et al., 2013) along with  
193 trace plots. To evaluate models with the highest predictive accuracy, we used the Leave One Out  
194 Information Criterion (LOOIC, Vehtari et al., 2017, 2022) as a model selection tool, which  
195 approximates leave-one-out cross-validation. Code to perform these analyses is available as an R  
196 package (*bycatch*, <https://ericward-noaa.github.io/bycatch/>; Ward and Jannot, 2021; Jannot et al.,  
197 2021b).

### 198 199 *2.3 Expanding bycatch to the unobserved portion of fleet*

200  
201 Observer coverage is  $< 100\%$  and variable through time, therefore observed bycatch  
202 estimates need to be expanded to the unobserved portion of the fleet to estimate total bycatch.  
203 There are a number of ways to calculate bycatch in the unobserved part of the fleet, including  
204 dividing  $\theta \cdot E_y$  by the observer sampling rate; however, this ignores uncertainty in the expansion.  
205 To fully propagate uncertainty forward, we used the posterior predictive samples from the  
206 observed portion of the LE sablefish longline fleet to expand to the unobserved portion of the  
207 fleet (Jannot et al., 2021b), which was derived by subtracting observed fishing effort from total  
208 fishing effort. These posterior predictive estimates of the unobserved portion of the fleet were  
209 then added to observed bycatch to estimate total albatross bycatch.

### 210 211 *2.4 Evaluating management thresholds*

212  
213 We used the simulated values from the posterior predictive distribution to generate 95%  
214 credible intervals (CIs) for the predicted total bycatch in each year to evaluate existing  
215 management thresholds. The incidental take of short-tailed albatross in this fishery is expected to  
216 be no more than one observed or a mean of five estimated albatross over a 2-year period  
217 (USFWS, 2017). As the management threshold based on observed data is known, we focused on  
218 the probability of Bayesian estimates of total fleetwide bycatch exceeding this threshold. In  
219 addition to evaluating the probability of exceeding this management-set threshold, we also  
220 evaluated the probability of exceeding a more conservative threshold of three or four animals/2-  
221 year period.

### 222 223 *2.5 Sensitivity analysis*

224  
225 To understand how the likelihood of detecting future bycatch events in the unobserved portion of  
226 the fleet is affected by changes in observer coverage, fishing effort, and observed bycatch events,  
227 we used the Bayesian framework described above and the Poisson data model with a constant  
228 bycatch rate to explore fishery scenarios. We varied fishing effort within the range of historically  
229 observed values (300 - 900 sets/year) and annual observer coverage from 0 - 100%. For each of

230 these cases, we used the existing observations of bycatch to estimate the bycatch rate. We then  
231 varied the observed takes in a future year; as these are generally rare events, we only explored  
232 future observations of 0 mortalities or 1 mortality. We fit the Bayesian model to each  
233 permutation (4 MCMC chains, 40,000 iterations to better approximate posterior predictive  
234 frequencies). The posterior predictive distributions were then used to estimate the probabilities of  
235 unobserved takes occurring in the unobserved portion of the fleet. The total estimated bycatch is  
236 simply a sum of observed and predicted bycatch for the unobserved portion of the fleet,  
237

$$238 \quad N_{obs} + Poisson(\theta \cdot U_y),$$

239  
240 where  $N_{obs}$  is the number of observed bycatch events,  $\theta$  is the estimated bycatch rate using  
241 historical data, and  $U_y$  is the unobserved effort in year  $y$ .

242

### 243 **3. Results**

244

#### 245 *3.1 Model Diagnostics and Selection*

246

247 Models employing a constant bycatch rate and drawn from a Poisson distribution did  
248 converge, and the model with the highest predictive accuracy for short-tailed albatross bycatch  
249 (with the lowest LOOIC) used observed sets for fishing effort (Table 3). Models using observed  
250 hooks or retained catch for fishing effort resulted in lower predictive accuracy ( $\Delta LOOIC = 0.3$ ,  
251  $0.5$  respectively); these differences were smaller than the LOOIC estimates' standard errors ( $7.6$   
252  $- 8.1$ ), and the models were qualitatively similar. Of the models using a time-varying bycatch rate  
253 and drawn from alternative distributions, only a single negative binomial model and two Poisson  
254 hurdle models demonstrated convergence (Table 3). Despite the increased flexibility of those  
255 alternative error distributions, the LOOIC statistics indicated that the Poisson model with  
256 observed sets for fishing effort and a constant bycatch rate had slightly better predictive accuracy  
257 than the Poisson hurdle model (Table 3). The best model resulted in a bycatch rate  $\theta$  of  $0.139$   
258 takes per 1000 sets (95% CIs =  $0.007 - 0.452$ ).

259

#### 260 *3.2 Estimated bycatch of short-tailed albatross*

261

262 Annual expected mortalities for the observed portion of the fleet varied over the course of the  
263 times series, generally increasing from around  $0.05$  birds from 2002-2004 to around  $0.10$  from  
264 2017-2019. Estimated mortalities peaked at nearly  $0.10$  birds in 2005, averaged around  $0.07$  for  
265 three years, bottomed out at  $0.04$  in 2009, peaked above  $0.10$  in 2010, trended downward for  
266 three years, and trended upward since 2013, peaking in 2018 (Fig. 1a). Mean estimated bycatch,  
267 and associated uncertainty with that estimate, for the observed fleet was greatest in years with  
268 more observed effort (2005, 2010, 2018; Fig. 1a).

269

270 Fleetwide bycatch estimates (unobserved estimates plus documented observed mortalities)  
271 also varied annually; estimates did not trend upward or downward over the times series, but  
272 peaked at  $1.35$  birds in 2011, the year of the only observed mortality (Fig. 1b). The total  
273 fleetwide bycatch and upper confidence limit estimates were relatively high in 2009 ( $0.52$ ). In  
274 addition, 2019, as well as 2004 ( $0.28$ ), 2006 ( $0.26$ ), 2010 ( $0.3$ ), and 2012 ( $0.26$ ), had relatively  
275 high bycatch estimates for the unobserved portion of the fleet (Table 4). The expanded estimates

276 of total bycatch from models using observed hooks or retained catch for fishing effort (see Table  
277 2) were qualitatively similar to estimates using observed sets.

278  
279 As expected, the posterior predictive distributions for unobserved sets is highly skewed with  
280 the majority at 0, resulting in 95% credible intervals that are not variable for many years (*e.g.* the  
281 upper 95% credible interval for total bycatch is 1.0 for the last five years; Fig. 1b). The posterior  
282 distribution of total positive takes [ $\Pr(\text{takes} \geq 1)$ , the probability of non-zero takes occurring] is  
283 an alternative measure of uncertainty or risk. In most years the probability of more than 0 takes  
284 occurring was  $< 0.20$ ; this probability was 1.0 in 2011, when an actual take occurred, and 0.36 in  
285 2009, when observer coverage was very low (Table 4).

### 286 287 *3.3 Evaluating management thresholds and likelihood of future STAL takes*

288  
289 The probability of the fleetwide estimate of short-tailed albatross bycatch exceeding five  
290 takes in a 2-year period was low throughout the time series ( $< 0.02$ ), but was elevated during the  
291 period from 2009-2012 (Fig. 2), with a peak of approximately 0.018 in 2011. Exceeding lower  
292 thresholds of three or four estimated takes in a 2-year period had higher probabilities, especially  
293 during the 2009-2012 period, with peaks of 0.15 and 0.05, respectively (Fig. 2). The probability  
294 of reaching the five takes/2-year period threshold was approached only under conditions of very  
295 low observer coverage, very high fishing effort, and multiple takes in the observed portion of the  
296 fleet (Fig. 3).

297  
298 The probability of short-tailed albatross takes in the unobserved portion of the fleet in a  
299 future year increased, as expected, with lower observer coverage and higher fishing effort (Fig.  
300 4). Having at least one take in the observed portion of the fleet (as compared with zero) also  
301 increased the estimated bycatch rate, translating into a higher probability of a take in the  
302 unobserved portion of the fleet (Fig. 4). For the relatively high observer coverage spanning the  
303 last five years ( $\sim 37\%$ ), this probability ranged from 0.07 - 0.16 with no observed takes to 0.11 -  
304 0.27 with one observed take, depending on the level of fishing effort.

## 305 306 **4. Discussion**

307  
308 Estimating rare mortalities has been a challenge in fisheries monitoring because of untested  
309 assumptions of ratio estimators and proxy methods as well as the volatility of estimates from  
310 ratio estimators (Rochet and Trenkel, 2005; Martin et al., 2015). This challenge hinders assessing  
311 the impacts of fisheries on rarely caught seabirds. The Bayesian approach we used here to  
312 expand and estimate total bycatch of short-tailed albatross in the U.S. West Coast LE sablefish  
313 longline fleet overcomes these challenges. We found that expected mortalities, while variable,  
314 are effectively zero for most years, and thus below the management threshold established for this  
315 endangered species. Challenges remain, however, due to sampling biases from cryptic mortality  
316 or non-random distribution of fishing effort in time or space.

317  
318 We found that estimates and uncertainty around total bycatch in a given year were sensitive  
319 to how bycatch rates were modeled. In addition to the positive influence of effort on bycatch,  
320 changes in observer coverage also affected bycatch estimates. Higher observer coverage rates  
321 decrease uncertainty in the model and reinforce the rarity of observed bycatch, thus reducing



322 uncertainty in the likelihood of bycatch overall and resulting in lower expected bycatch in the  
323 unobserved portion of the fleet. That is, the more samples showing zero bycatch, the more likely  
324 unsampled portions of the fleet also encountered zero bycatch. By contrast, low observer  
325 coverage increases uncertainty and thus inflates estimates of total bycatch; historically low  
326 observer coverage in 2009 (7%) resulted in a greater estimate for the unobserved portion of the  
327 fleet and thus total bycatch for that year. High fishing effort in 2010 and 2018 also resulted in  
328 higher estimates for the observed portion of the fleet; however, lower observer coverage in 2010  
329 relative to 2018 led to greater fleetwide estimates in 2010 compared to 2018.

330

331 Fisheries with rare-event bycatch and low observer coverage create unique problems for  
332 estimating bycatch over time and space, especially where estimates are compared with  
333 conservation thresholds, such as delisting criteria, or management thresholds, such as incidental  
334 mortality limits. Our analyses demonstrate that Bayesian time series modeling is an effective  
335 method for estimating bycatch of a rarely caught seabird, making our approach preferable to  
336 simple ratio estimation. Uncertainty intervals from the Bayesian method can be interpreted as  
337 probability distributions, the probability of exceeding thresholds can be easily calculated, and  
338 modeling is robust to future potential mortality in the context of fisheries and endangered species  
339 management. Simple bycatch-generating processes (*i.e.*, Poisson) work well when data are rare  
340 but not over-dispersed, whereas over-dispersed data can be accommodated by more complex  
341 distributions (Jannot et al., 2021a). Using information from the entire time series, our modeling  
342 resulted in reduced bias and reporting uncertainty, which are useful when using the precautionary  
343 principle to craft management policies.

344

345 Unlike ratio estimators, which can produce highly volatile and unrealistic results when  
346 bycatch is rare (data sets are zero-inflated), our Bayesian modeling produced predicted annual  
347 means and credible intervals that are more realistic, given the extent of short-tailed albatross  
348 bycatch documented throughout the North Pacific. Estimates of bycatch produced through ratio  
349 expansion result in many years with zeroes and a few years with alarmingly high values if any  
350 bycatch is observed. For example, using ratio estimation on this dataset would result in a point  
351 estimate of 4.8 short-tailed albatross mortalities for 2011 and zeroes for every other year. This  
352 estimate did not include any estimates of error around the point estimates, which implies  
353 certainty that we do not have, given observer coverage levels of less than 100%. Bayesian  
354 estimation of bycatch for seabirds in these fisheries are much less volatile compared to ratio  
355 estimation, which oscillates between low and high annual estimates with no estimated  
356 uncertainty (Jannot et al., 2018).

357

358 Bayesian modeling also enabled exploration of probabilities associated with having a fishery  
359 that has a substantial portion of the fleet that is unobserved. Our analyses showed that the  
360 probability of reaching the management threshold of five short-tailed albatross takes/2-year  
361 period is extremely low ( $< 0.02$ ), except under the exceedingly unlikely conditions of very low  
362 observer coverage, very high fishing effort, and multiple takes in the observed portion of the  
363 fleet; this was true even for a year with a documented take (2011). To clearly link probability of  
364 STAL bycatch to population recovery, it would be advisable to consider insights from the  
365 sensitivity analyses presented here in any revised bycatch thresholds set using Bayesian  
366 modeling.

367

368 Our Bayesian modeling approach also enabled us to show that the probability of short-tailed  
369 albatross takes in the unobserved portion of the fleet increased, as expected, with lower observer  
370 coverage, higher fishing effort, and documented takes in the observed portion of the fleet. As the  
371 bycatch rate ( $\theta$ ) is assumed constant over time, future observed takes will increase both the mean  
372 bycatch rate and the probability of unobserved takes occurring, because the rate is increased. For  
373 a given level of risk (*e.g.*, a 5% chance of an unobserved bycatch rate occurring), our simulations  
374 highlight the changes in effort or changes in observer coverage that would be necessary to  
375 achieve the acceptable risk level. Like any model framework that assumes a constant bycatch  
376 rate, if short-tailed albatross experience non-stationary dynamics (future population growth  
377 and/or distributional changes), inference from our current model may not yield unbiased  
378 estimates.

379  
380 Probability-based methods are advantageous where bycatch is dominated by zeroes -- they  
381 reduce bias from rare events, incorporate uncertainty, and have less reliance on assumptions. The  
382 model-based Bayesian approach has been employed with other rare bycatch species, including  
383 marine mammals, sea turtles, and sharks (Martin et al., 2015). While we believe these methods  
384 show promise, as in any modeling situation, it is possible to overfit a particular dataset;  
385 especially in data-poor situations, we suggest analyses start with simpler models.

386  
387 These methods also reduce volatility by using all information in the time series, reduce  
388 arbitrary decisions about how many years of data to combine, and enable probabilistic inference  
389 for bycatch conditional on fishing effort. This is particularly important for translating bycatch  
390 estimates into probabilities of exceeding management thresholds, which is conceptually simpler  
391 and can also be more easily interpreted by resource managers. These qualities highlight why  
392 these methods are important for understanding bycatch patterns and responding to years of high  
393 bycatch; accurate and properly bounded estimates of bycatch are critical for both adaptive  
394 fisheries management and conservation and recovery of listed species.

395  
396 As with many bycatch expansion methods, a limitation of our modeling approach is that it is  
397 much more informative if there is at least one observed mortality in the time series to estimate  
398 bycatch (with no takes, the modeling produces large variance estimates). There is interest in  
399 estimating short-tailed albatross bycatch in other longline fishing fleets along the U.S. West  
400 coast, including the Limited Entry Daily Trip Limit and Open Access fleets. However,  
401 differences in areas fished, targeted species, quotas and catch limits make it inappropriate to  
402 apply bycatch rates estimated for the LE sablefish longline fleet to these other fleets or to simply  
403 combine these fleets into a single analysis. Non-injurious encounters, such as feeding on offal  
404 and bait, and sightings of short-tailed albatross have been recorded by observers on actively  
405 fishing vessels in these fleets (Jannot et al., 2021b). These interactions raise concerns with  
406 resource managers and conservation practitioners because of the potential for serious injury or  
407 mortality. Therefore, assessing bycatch risk to short-tailed albatross from other U.S. West Coast  
408 fishing fleets continues to be a priority.

409  
410 Data availability is another limitation of these or any expansion methods, as we rely  
411 exclusively on observer data. In the LE sablefish longline fleet, observers collect information  
412 that might provide insight into seabird bycatch risk in general, such as fishing depth, latitude,  
413 setting speed, set duration, etc. Without comparable data from the unobserved portion of the

414 fleet, our analyses cannot fully utilize the rich data sets provided by observers. Rather, our  
415 analyses must assume that the spatio-temporal aspects of fishing are similar among observed and  
416 unobserved vessels, and such assumptions limit our understanding of the causes of bycatch. The  
417 “observer effect” posits that observed vessels can behave quite differently than unobserved  
418 vessels (Benoît and Allard, 2009; Faunce and Barbeaux, 2011); therefore, any inferences about  
419 seabird bycatch in general must be tempered by the limited data available from unobserved  
420 vessels and the potential for an observer effect.

421

422 In the future, data from unobserved vessels in this fleet may be obtained through increased  
423 use of vessel logbooks (not yet required but are being developed for U.S. West Coast longline  
424 fisheries) or the expanded use of electronic monitoring. These data would not only increase our  
425 understanding of the substantial unobserved portion of the fleet, but they might also reveal any  
426 spatial and temporal strata in the fishery that could affect bycatch estimates. Still, any estimates  
427 of seabird bycatch will still be affected by sampling biases from unobserved and unrecorded  
428 mortality (Gilman et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2020) as well as from constraints from observer  
429 programs designed to document bycatch and discard of non-target fish species.

430

431 That said, the Bayesian method has been adopted by management agencies (Good et al.,  
432 2021; Jannot et al., 2021b), tailoring analyses to particular fisheries, assumptions, and  
433 management thresholds. For example, analyses of humpback whales (*Megaptera novaeangliae*)  
434 bycatch in the West Coast sablefish pot fishery built on the Bayesian estimation by including a  
435 simulation component that examined model support for alternate distributions of sparse data  
436 (Jannot et al. 2021a). The analyses presented here built upon the Bayesian estimation by  
437 including analyses exploring how fishing effort variation and potential future bycatch affected  
438 inferences about exceeding the management threshold.

439

440 Potential future analyses include modeling the effects of covariates on bycatch estimates.  
441 These include factors based on known or suspected operational or environmental factors, time-  
442 varying bycatch rates (which might result from shifts in population distribution for example), or  
443 a steadily increasing short-tailed albatross population. While our limited data precluded  
444 modeling the effects of covariates for estimating bycatch, recent analyses of black-footed  
445 albatross bycatch in U.S. West Coast groundfish fisheries (Wuest et al., pers, comm) suggest  
446 there is merit to exploring covariate effects for more commonly bycaught species (Jannot et al.,  
447 2021b). One covariate of particular interest to explore in more populated bycatch time series  
448 (such as for black-footed albatross) is that of streamer line use. While the single instance of a  
449 short-tailed albatross mortality occurred on a set where streamer lines were deployed, this  
450 seabird dissuasion technique has proven to be effective for albatross bycatch reduction in many  
451 longline fisheries. Streamer lines are included in best practices to reduce bycatch in longline  
452 fisheries worldwide, and their use is mandated in U.S. West Coast longline fisheries (USFWS,  
453 2017).

454

455 Seabird bycatch, particularly when rare, is challenging for fisheries management  
456 organizations to estimate, but its estimation is a necessary first step toward mitigating any  
457 bycatch-related impacts on the population. Conservation efforts require accurate accounting of  
458 fisheries-related mortality, which can be difficult when not all fisheries are monitored or not all  
459 vessels in a fishery are observed. The Bayesian modeling described here addresses this latter

460 challenge and provides estimates of observed as well as unobserved bycatch in such partially  
461 monitored fisheries. These modeling efforts are flexible and applicable to commonly used  
462 generalized linear models; they can produce uncertainty estimates around means as well as  
463 estimates of undetected bycatch when observed bycatch in a given year is zero. Interactions of  
464 short-tailed albatross and fisheries throughout the North Pacific may increase as the species  
465 continues to recover, and distributional shifts may occur in the species and fisheries due to  
466 climate change, which could lead to increased bycatch risk. The modeling framework presented  
467 here provides managers and analysts with an important tool to more accurately assess the  
468 impacts of fishing on rarely caught and endangered seabirds.

469

#### 470 **Data availability statement**

471

472 The data that support the findings of this study are available in the tables of this article.

473

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475

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479

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**Table 1.** Short-tailed albatross mortalities associated with North Pacific fisheries (Alaska, West Coast U.S., Russia, Japan) since 1983, including report date, fishery, if reported in observer program, age of bird, and source.

Report Date	Location	Fishery	Observer program	In sample*	Bird age	Source
7/15/1983	Bering Sea	Net	No	n/a	4 months	USFWS (2008)
10/1/1987	Gulf of Alaska	Halibut	No	n/a	6 months	USFWS (2008)
8/28/1995	Aleutian Islands	IFQ sablefish	Yes	No	1 year	USFWS (2008)
10/8/1995	Bering Sea	IFQ sablefish	Yes	No	3 years	USFWS (2008)
9/27/1996	Bering Sea	Pacific cod Hook-and-line	Yes	Yes	5 years	USFWS (2008)
4/23/1998	Bering Sea, Russia	Russian salmon drift net	n/a	n/a	< 1 year	USFWS (2008)
9/21/1998	Bering Sea	Pacific cod hook-and-line	Yes	Yes	8 years	USFWS (2008)
9/28/1998	Bering Sea	Pacific cod hook-and-line	Yes	Yes	Sub-adult	USFWS (2008)
7/11/2002	Sea of Okhotsk, Russia	Russian**	n/a	n/a	3 months	YIO (2011)
8/29/2003	Bering Sea, Russia	Russian demersal longline	n/a	n/a	3 years	YIO (2011)
8/31/2006	Kuril Islands, Russia	Russian**	n/a	n/a	1 year	YIO (2011)
8/27/2010	Bering Sea/Aleutian Islands	Pacific cod hook-and-line	Yes	Yes	7 years	NOAA Fisheries (2010)
9/14/2010	Bering Sea/Aleutian Islands	Pacific cod hook-and-line	Yes	Yes	3 years	NOAA Fisheries (2010)
4/11/2011	Pacific Ocean/Oregon	Sablefish demersal longline	Yes	Yes	1 year	USFWS (2012)
10/25/2011	Bering Sea	Pacific cod hook-and-line	Yes	Yes	1 year	NOAA Fisheries (2011)
5/24/2013	Pacific Ocean, Japan	Hook-and-line seabird bycatch research	No	n/a	1 year	YIO, pers. comm.
9/7/2014	Bering Sea/Aleutian Islands	Greenland turbot hook-and-line	Yes	No	5 years	NOAA Fisheries (2014a)
9/7/2014	Bering Sea/Aleutian Islands	Greenland turbot hook-and-line	Yes	Yes	Sub-adult	NOAA Fisheries (2014b)
12/16/2014	Bering Sea/Aleutian Islands	Pacific cod hook-and-line	Yes	Yes	< 1 year	NOAA Fisheries (2015)
9/26/2020	Bering Sea/Aleutian Islands	Pacific cod demersal longline fishery	Yes	Yes	9 years	NOAA Fisheries (2020a)
10/16/2020	Bering Sea/Aleutian Islands	Pacific cod demersal longline fishery	Yes	Yes	2 years	NOAA Fisheries (2020b)

\* “In sample” refers to whether specimen was in catch sample analyzed by a fisheries observer

\*\* Specifics regarding the type fishery are unknown

n/a = not applicable

**Table 2.** Data for calculating short-tailed albatross bycatch, including observed fishing effort (number of observed sets, hooks, and retained catch), observer coverage (proportion of fleet-wide catch observed), and short-tailed albatross (STAL) takes in the LE sablefish longline fishery from 2002–2019 (data from the West Coast Groundfish Observer Program).

<b>Year</b>	<b>Observed Sets (#)</b>	<b>Observed Hooks (#)</b>	<b>Observed Retained Catch (MT)</b>	<b>Observer Coverage (%)</b>	<b>Observed STAL takes (#)</b>
2002	391	779,624	190.8	24	0
2003	351	733,602	222.8	21	0
2004	326	492,009	180.0	14	0
2005	678	1,456,102	481.5	36	0
2006	470	939,951	295.9	21	0
2007	517	1,034,046	298.5	27	0
2008	540	1,244,141	338.1	31	0
2009	287	648,980	97.8	7	0
2010	762	1,761,173	345.8	27	0
2011	673	1,405,444	240.7	21	1
2012	532	1,580,075	239.3	22	0
2013	353	1,047,526	166.4	22	0
2014	495	1,200,615	203.2	27	0
2015	632	1,536,820	397.8	41	0
2016	671	1,743,233	338.1	33	0
2017	701	2,107,656	396.8	37	0
2018	839	2,411,652	467.2	46	0
2019	673	1,791,897	359.3	39	0

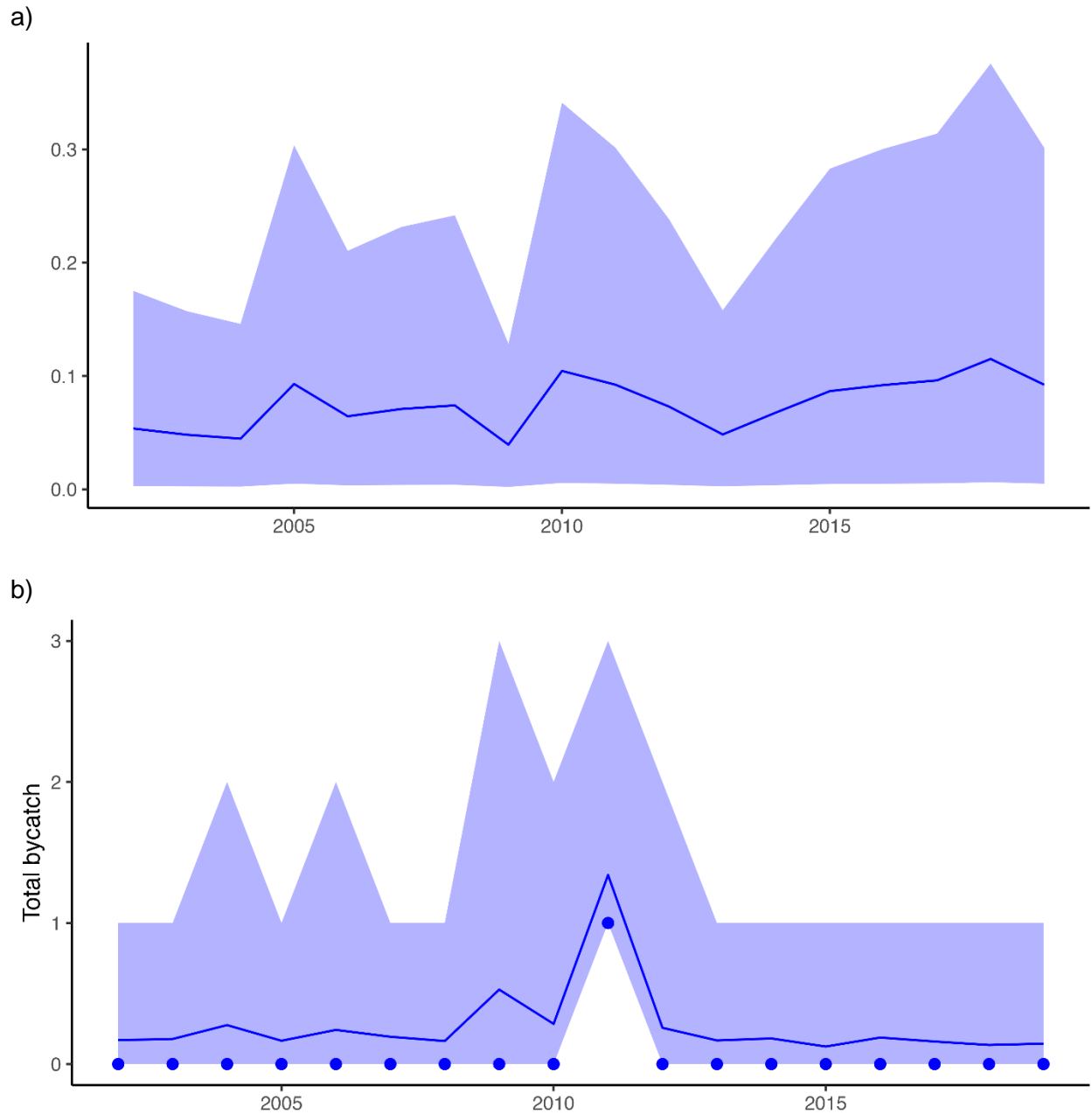
**Table 3.** Model diagnostics (convergence, LOOIC, LOOIC Standard Error [SE]) for 18 combinations of fishing effort metric, bycatch rate, and bycatch process model choice. LOOIC statistics not reported for models that did not converge or had many divergent transitions.

<b>Fishing effort metric</b>	<b>Bycatch rate</b>	<b>Bycatch process</b>	<b>Model convergence</b>	<b>LOOIC</b>	<b>LOOIC SE</b>
Number of sets	Constant	Poisson	Yes	10.4*	7.6
Number of hooks	Constant	Poisson	Yes	10.7	8.1
Observed landings	Constant	Poisson	Yes	10.9	8.0
Number of sets	Time-varying	Poisson	No	-	-
Number of hooks	Time-varying	Poisson	No	-	-
Observed landings	Time-varying	Poisson	No	-	-
Number of sets	Constant	Negative binomial	No	-	-
Number of hooks	Constant	Negative binomial	No	-	-
Observed landings	Constant	Negative binomial	Yes	11.4	8.3
Number of sets	Time-varying	Negative binomial	No	-	-
Number of hooks	Time-varying	Negative binomial	No	-	-
Observed landings	Time-varying	Negative binomial	No	-	-
Number of sets	Constant	Poisson hurdle	Yes	11.4	7.4
Number of hooks	Constant	Poisson hurdle	No	-	-
Observed landings	Constant	Poisson hurdle	No	-	-
Number of sets	Time-varying	Poisson hurdle	No	-	-
Number of hooks	Time-varying	Poisson hurdle	No	-	-
Observed landings	Time-varying	Poisson hurdle	Yes	11.7	7.7

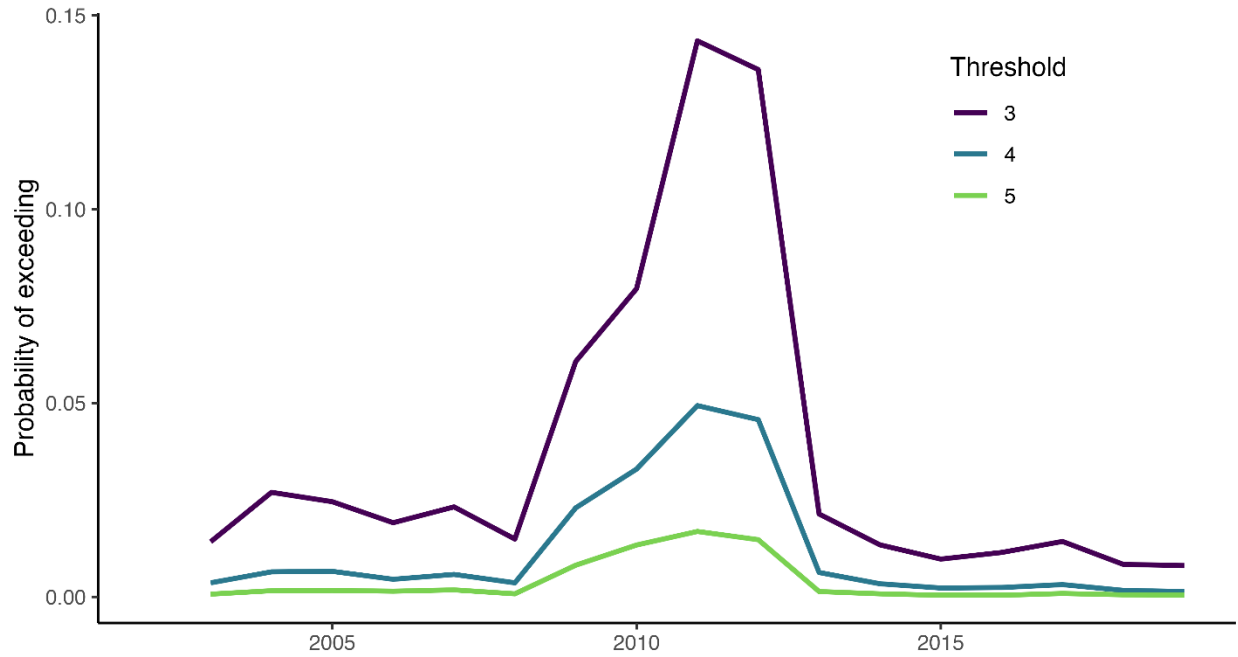
\* model that both converged and had the lowest LOOIC

**Table 4.** Estimated annual bycatch of short-tailed albatross in the U.S. West Coast limited entry longline sablefish fishery, including mean bycatch for observed sets (bycatch rate multiplied by effort), mean total bycatch for observed and unobserved portions of the fleet (plus actual takes from Table 2), 95% credible intervals for mean total bycatch, and probability of  $\geq 1$  total takes for combined observed and unobserved sets.

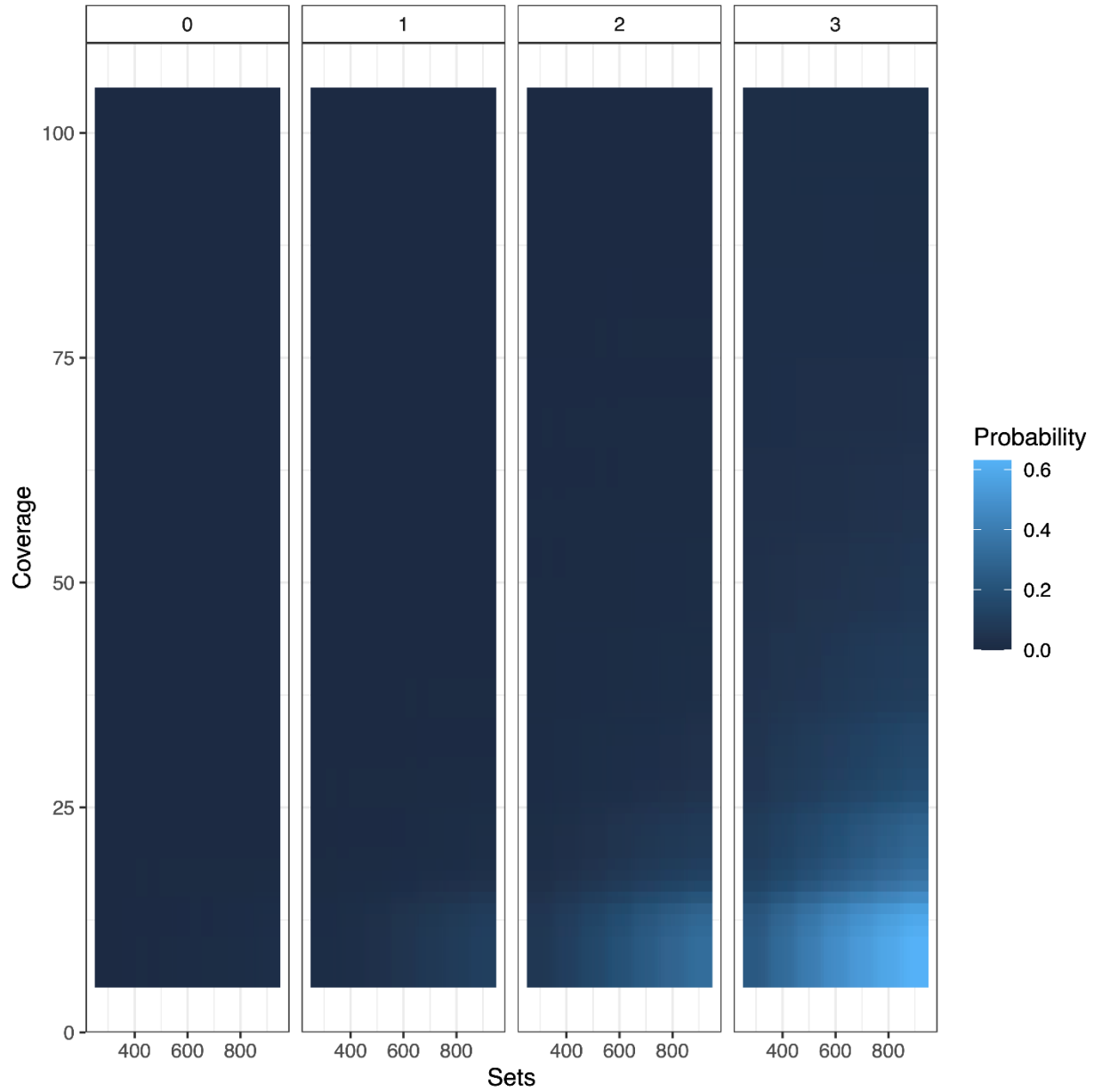
<b>Year</b>	<b>Expected bycatch (observed)</b>	<b>Mean total bycatch</b>	<b>95% CIs</b>	<b>Pr (<math>\geq 1</math>)</b>
2002	0.054	0.179	0 - 1	0.151
2003	0.049	0.189	0 - 1	0.157
2004	0.045	0.281	0 - 2	0.223
2005	0.094	0.172	0 - 1	0.147
2006	0.065	0.255	0 - 2	0.203
2007	0.072	0.199	0 - 1	0.167
2008	0.075	0.168	0 - 1	0.145
2009	0.040	0.525	0 - 3	0.361
2010	0.106	0.299	0 - 2	0.229
2011	0.094	1.351	1 - 3	1.000
2012	0.074	0.263	0 - 2	0.214
2013	0.049	0.175	0 - 1	0.150
2014	0.069	0.189	0 - 1	0.160
2015	0.088	0.128	0 - 1	0.114
2016	0.093	0.187	0 - 1	0.165
2017	0.097	0.166	0 - 1	0.145
2018	0.117	0.138	0 - 1	0.121
2019	0.094	0.149	0 - 1	0.129



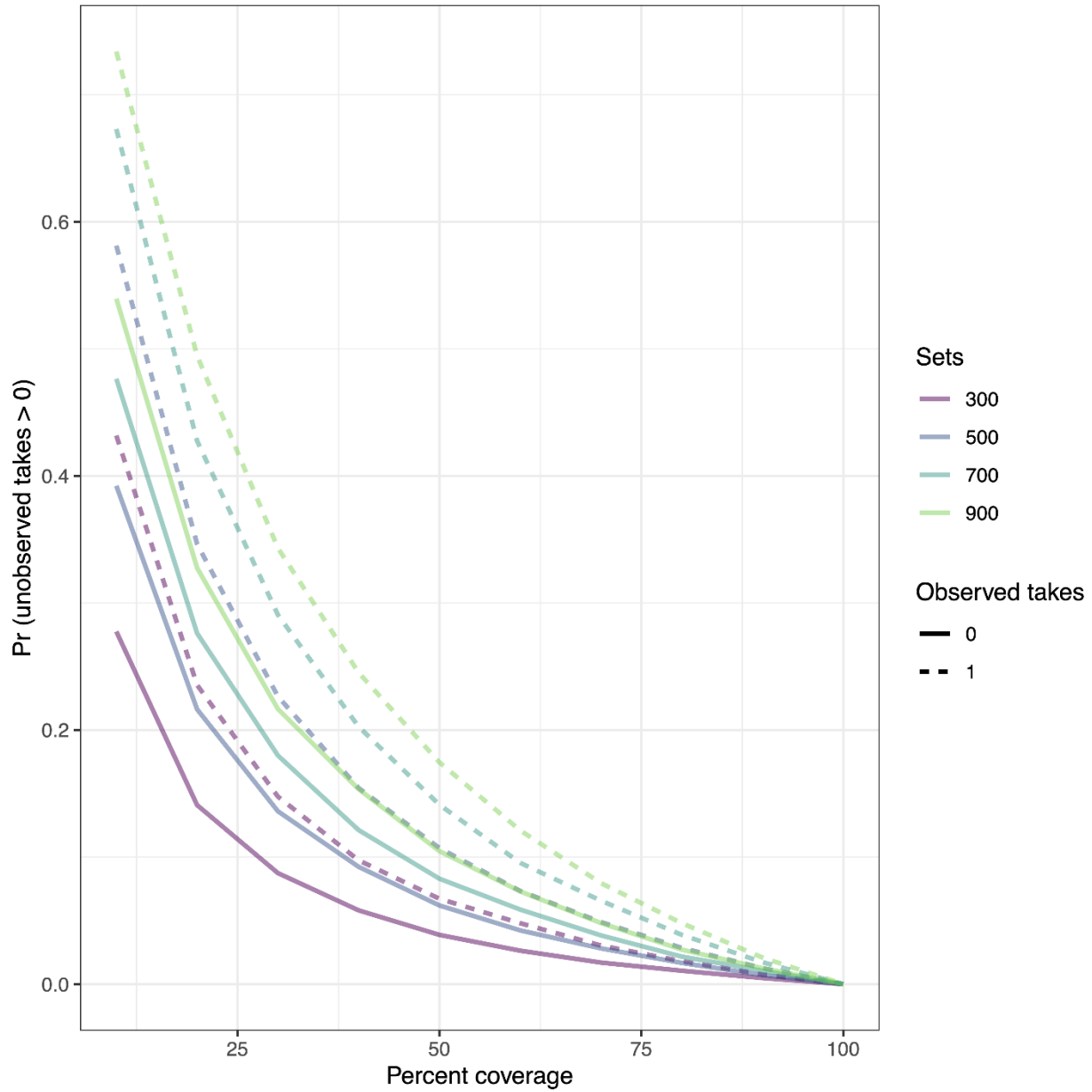
**Figure 1.** Estimated (a) mean short-tailed albatross bycatch ( $\lambda_y$ ) in the observed fleet and (b) total short-tailed albatross bycatch in the entire LE sablefish longline fleet from 2002-19 using a constant bycatch rate, a Poisson distribution for bycatch, and observed sets as the measure of effort. Mean bycatch is calculated as the bycatch rate multiplied by observed effort (sets), where effort varies through time (Table 4). Solid lines represent the posterior mean, the shaded area represents the 95% credible interval, and dots represent observed bycatch.



**Figure 2.** Probability of meeting or exceeding estimated bycatch threshold of 3, 4, or 5 short-tailed albatross over a 2-year window. The model used a constant bycatch rate, a Poisson distribution for bycatch, and the number of sets as effort.



**Figure 3.** Probability of exceeding the take threshold (fleet-wide estimate of 5 short-tailed albatross over a 2-year period) in the U.S. West Coast sablefish longline fleet. This threshold is estimated across future observed effort (x-axis), observer coverage (y-axis) and future observed takes (facets). As these probabilities are variable by year, the year with the highest 2-year probability is shown (2011-2012).



**Figure 4.** Probability of non-zero takes in the unobserved portion of the fishery, in a future year, based on bycatch estimates from 2002-2019. The posterior probability of takes being greater than 0,  $\Pr(\text{takes} > 0)$  is shown for levels of observer coverage, future effort (measured in numbers of sets), and future takes in the observed portion of the fleet (0, 1).





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**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: