

1 **Estimating discard mortality using meta-analysis and fishery-dependent**
2 **sampling**

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8 **Abstract**

9 Estimates of discard mortality are difficult to obtain. Meta-analysis or life-history-based
10 approaches to estimate discard mortality could provide informed estimates when direct empirical
11 estimates are not available. We used data from published literature across a variety of fish
12 species to determine if hooking condition (good vs. poor) and species-specific values for the
13 Brody growth coefficient (K : a measure of fish physiology) were meaningful factors influencing
14 discard mortality in hook and line fisheries. We then examined whether a two-step approach,
15 combining condition- and physiology-specific estimates of discard mortality with data on
16 proportion-by-hooking-condition hooking information for a fishery, could result in an estimate of
17 discard mortality for dolphinfish *Coryphaena hippurus* comparable to an empirical estimate. A
18 model with hooking condition, K and their interaction best fitted the published discard mortality
19 data. K was an important negative covariate of discard mortality for good hooking condition,
20 with higher K species experiencing greater rates of survival. In contrast, species in poor condition
21 had similarly low rates of survival across a range of K values. Results suggests that hooking
22 condition is the dominant source of mortality when fish are hooked in vital areas but that
23 physiology should also be taken into account when estimating discard mortality for good
24 condition fish. For the recreational dolphinfish fishery in the southeastern US, we estimated a
25 median proportional discard mortality rate of 0.12 (95% credible set: 0.07, 0.17) when
26 combining the meta-analysis and field-collected proportion-by-condition data. This estimate was
27 lower than the empirical estimate of dolphinfish discard mortality but the credible sets
28 overlapped (median: 0.25; 95% credible set: 0.05, 0.39). Estimates of discard mortality from our
29 meta-analytic approach may be applicable to fisheries where empirical estimates of discard
30 mortality are not available and hooking injuries are the dominant source of mortality.

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34 **1. Introduction**

35 The disposition of discards is one of the most important issues facing fishery managers (Davis,
36 2002). Sustainable exploitation of stocks managed with size or bag limits requires estimates of
37 the number of discarded individuals in a fishery as well as an estimate of discard mortality for
38 released individuals (Coggins et al., 2007). However, discard mortality rates have not been
39 estimated or remain unknown for many species and fisheries worldwide. For these fisheries,
40 having a reasonable estimate of discard mortality would supply information useful for stock
41 assessments for data-rich species for which there are fully integrated stock assessments as well as
42 data-limited species that require a time series of catch (harvest and dead discards; Carruthers et
43 al., 2014). Additionally, estimates of dead discards can help fishery managers determine whether
44 regulations intended to reduce rates of fishing mortality in stocks managed with size or
45 possession limits are achieving their intended effects (Coggins et al., 2007).

46 Estimates of discard mortality for any given species and fishery are often measured using
47 direct, in-situ approaches (Davis, 2002). *In situ* approaches often involve conventional tagging
48 (e.g., Heuter et al., 2006; Rudershausen et al., 2014), telemetry (Heupel and Simpfendorfer,
49 2002) or satellite tagging (e.g., Horodysky and Graves, 2005). However, these are typically
50 labor-intensive or costly. Additionally, the low tag return rates for many conventionally tagged
51 pelagic marine species (e.g. $\leq 2\text{-}3\%$, Singh-Renton and Renton, 2009; Merten et al., 2014;
52 Rudershausen et al., 2019) decrease the precision about estimates of discard mortality when
53 using a relative risk modeling approach (Heuter et al., 2006; Sauls, 2014). Meta-analytic
54 approaches have been used to develop predictive models for parameter estimation in lieu of
55 empirically-derived estimates. For example, natural mortality (M) rates used in stock
56 assessments are often estimated using predictive relationships developed from meta-analyses
57 using life history or size-based predictors (Pauly, 1980; Hoenig, 1984; Lorenzen, 1996).
58 Similarly, much has been learned about fish reproductive rates from meta-analyses of stock-
59 recruitment data (Myers et al., 1999). While there are published rates of discard mortality across
60 a variety of fish species in hook and line fisheries, the utility of using these studies to predict
61 discard mortality rates when an empirical estimate is unavailable is currently unknown.

62 To develop a useful predictive model for discard mortality, we focused on factors known to
63 influence discard mortality rates and that are easily obtained from the literature. Prior reviews of
64 discard mortality have found that a combination of gear, biological, and environmental effects
65 (Muoneke and Childress, 1994; Davis, 2002; Bartholomew and Bohnsack, 2005; Benoît et al.,
66 2013) can influence discard mortality. We focused our predictive model on providing estimates
67 for hook-and-line gear given the increasing levels of discarding with this gear (Arlinghaus et al.,
68 2007; Cooke and Schramm, 2007). If specific environmental effects were the most important
69 factors influencing discard mortality, this would suggest that species-specific data are necessary
70 for a fishery over particular regions or seasons where a fishery operates. In contrast, if discard
71 mortality was shown to be predominantly a function of gear injury, then discard mortality in
72 data-limited fisheries could simply be estimated using published data where similar gear-related
73 injuries were recorded. The latter finding would support the conclusion that hooking injury is the
74 dominant source of mortality in hook and line fisheries; that conclusion is supported in reviews
75 (Muoneke and Childress, 1994; Bartholomew and Bohnsack, 2005; Brownscombe et al., 2017).
76 Lastly, there could be differences in physiology between species that might influence discard
77 mortality; physiology is known to correlate with readily accessible life history metrics like
78 growth parameters (von Bertalanffy, 1938; Beverton and Holt, 1959; Snover et al., 2005).

79 The meta-analytic approach we present here assumes that the main sources of discard
80 mortality can be accounted for through limited sampling and published information on discard
81 mortality and species biology. This does not rule out that other factors, such as a suite of
82 environmental and biological effects, can influence discard mortality (reviewed in Muoneke and
83 Childress, 1994; Bartholomew and Bohnsack, 2005; Brownscombe et al., 2017). Rather, we are
84 testing whether, after sampling for gear trauma and obtaining an estimate of species-specific
85 physiology, we can estimate a discard mortality rate that suffices for a species-specific empirical
86 estimate when one is not available. If gear trauma is a determinant of discard mortality, this
87 would indicate that a predictive model could be developed from the published literature where
88 discard mortality and gear trauma were reported. If physiology is a determinant of discard
89 mortality, this suggests that an accurate estimate of discard mortality should incorporate species-
90 specific physiology. Rates of discard mortality can have a direct relationship with water
91 temperature within species-specific preferences (Gale et al., 2013) and the wide seasonal
92 temperature ranges of many fisheries could also contribute to variability about rates of discard
93 mortality. Water temperature data are often published as part of discard mortality studies and
94 could be an additional source of data incorporated into discard mortality models.

95 This meta-analytic approach is a means to bypass costly (e.g., satellite tagging) and labor-
96 intensive methods (e.g., conventional tagging) to estimate discard mortality. The first step of the
97 approach involves using published studies to develop a predictive model between discard
98 mortality and important explanatory variables such as hook location and variables related to
99 physiology. The second step involves fishery-dependent sampling to collect data on hook
100 location. We then examine the utility of this approach by estimating discard mortality for a
101 recreational fishery (dolphinfish *Coryphaena hippurus*) in the southeastern US (SEUS) Finally,
102 we compared this discard mortality estimate to an empirically-derived estimate of discard
103 mortality for this species. Our goal was to determine whether a discard mortality estimate from a
104 combined meta-analytic and limited field approach could be a suitable proxy when an empirical
105 discard mortality rate is either unavailable or impractical to estimate.

106 **2. Methods**

107 *2.1 Modeling discard mortality from published literature*

108 Publications in multiple natural resource journals as well as gray literature (Supplement 1) were
109 searched for observed (e.g., tank holding) or inferred (e.g., satellite tagging) data on discard
110 mortality. We restricted our literature search to studies that had researched the effects of the same
111 gear type (hook and line) as our empirical test fishery (see below). We recorded numbers of dead
112 and live fish (i.e., binomially-distributed response data) in five hook injury categories (see
113 below) and only used studies that had discard mortality information on at least five individual
114 fish within each category to avoid extreme mortality probabilities (close to 0 or 1) observed with
115 small sample sizes. We restricted data collection to studies that either reported the number of
116 specimens studied and those dying, or if these numbers could be extrapolated from text, tables,
117 figures, or calculated values. We did not use unpublished correspondence or direct
118 communication with authors to try to clarify ambiguous or unknown gear interactions (hooking
119 locations), release conditions, or data summaries, owing to the spirit of our study to evaluate a
120 novel means of estimating discard mortality solely with data accessible via research library
121 resources. Finally, we restricted data gathering from the literature to research where the angler
122 actively uses hook-and-line gear; thus, we did not consider other hook gears such as longline.
123 This eliminated discard mortality studies with gears where a fish's interactions with the hook is
124 passive, without angler participation in the hook setting process. Mean study water temperature

125 was obtained from each publication when reported; in several instances it was estimated from
126 geographic location and time of year that the study took place (Supplement 1).

127 Our first goal was to use data from our review, initially without covariates, to estimate
128 rates of discard mortality for fish hooked in several commonly reported hooking locations: jaw,
129 external body, gills, stomach/esophagus, and eyes/roof of mouth. These were also hooking
130 locations observed in our dockside sampling of dolphinfish (see below). Discard mortality by
131 hooking location was estimated through Bayesian inference by fitting beta/binomial models
132 (Ntzoufras, 2011) (Supplement 2). For each of the five hooking locations we assigned an
133 uninformative beta prior probability distribution (prior) ($a = b = 1$) for mortality probability. We
134 then specified a binomially distributed likelihood that looped over data sets on each hooking
135 location, with mortality probability shared among studies.

136 Our next goal was to account for factors related to physiology that could explain variation in
137 discard mortality and are easily obtained from studies of discard mortality and published
138 information on species biology. To account for species-specific physiology in mortality
139 modeling, we used the Brody growth coefficient (K); this is a parameter estimated from the von
140 Bertalanffy growth function (von Bertalanffy, 1938) and an indication of metabolic rate (von
141 Bertalanffy, 1938; Beverton and Holt, 1959; Snover et al., 2005). Species-specific values for K
142 (where available) were obtained from the freely available *fishbase* website (www.fishbase.org) or
143 from published sources when not supplied by *fishbase* (see Supplement 1 for exceptions). When
144 more than one value of K was available for a species, we used the study value geographically
145 closest to where the published study of discard mortality was conducted.

146 Water temperature has also been shown to influence discard mortality (Gale et al., 2013).
147 Preliminary testing showed that K and water temperature reported in discard mortality studies
148 were correlated (Pearson $r = 0.45$, $p < 0.001$). Thus, we elected to retain K in the mortality
149 modeling and to exclude study water temperature. Plots of K by hooking condition (good vs.
150 poor) revealed a potential interaction between hooking location and physiology. For this reason
151 we fitted mortality models that included main effects ('main effects ANCOVA') and also models
152 that included the interaction ('interaction effects ANCOVA') (Kéry and Royle, 2015)
153 (Supplement 3). Models were also fitted that included just hooking condition and just the
154 regression intercept. For logistic models, hooking conditions from published mortality data were
155 classified as either 'good' (jaw/mouth and external body) or 'poor' (gill, stomach/esophagus, and
156 eye/roof-of-the-mouth). We assumed when a study reported 'shallow hooking' that this was
157 synonymous with good condition and 'deep hooking' was synonymous with poor condition. Our
158 assignment of published hooking areas to two broad anatomical locations follows the conclusion
159 that fish hooked in critical tissues or organs suffer higher mortality rates (Muoneke and
160 Childress, 1994; Bartholomew and Bohnsack, 2005). Using two broad hooking locations also
161 allowed for a more direct comparison to a species-specific empirical study of discard mortality
162 for a data-limited fishery (see below).

163 Mortality models were fitted using Bayesian methods and the 'means parameterization'
164 (Kéry and Royle, 2015). Each of the four fitted models specified a binomially distributed
165 likelihood shared among studies. Separate prior probability distributions (mean and precision of
166 0 and 0.01, respectively) were assigned to each hooking location for each model's intercept and
167 (when it was fitted) the regression coefficient for the covariate K . Model parsimony was
168 compared using the Deviance Information Criterion (DIC) and the Akaike weight (w_i) for each
169 model. We evaluated the importance of the effects of hooking location and K on discard
170 mortality by examining 95% credible sets; if the credible set for a coefficient of hooking

171 condition or K did not overlap zero then it was considered important in predicting discard
172 mortality.

173 *2.2 Two-step approach to estimate discard mortality for a data-limited fishery*

174 We used the model developed from the meta-analysis in conjunction with fishery-dependent
175 sampling to estimate a rate of discard mortality for dolphinfish in the SEUS. The fishery-
176 dependent sampling provides information about the proportion of individuals in each hooking
177 condition. The dolphinfish is a highly migratory pelagic marine predator (Merten et al., 2014,
178 2016) found in tropical and sub-tropical waters worldwide. The dolphinfish stock in the SEUS
179 region is considered ‘data-limited’ (Prager, 2000; SAFMC, 2003) despite being one of the most
180 heavily landed species in this US federal fisheries management region (NOAA Fisheries, 2018;
181 Shertzer et al., 2019). Recreational harvests comprise roughly 96% of the annual catch
182 (commercial harvests ~4%) (SAFMC, 2013). Despite the use of size and possession limits to
183 manage this recreational fishery for dolphinfish (SAFMC, 2018), the rate of discard mortality
184 following capture with hook and line in this region was, to our knowledge, not estimated until
185 recently (Rudershausen et al., 2019).

186 To collect proportion-by-condition information, we conducted post-mortem dockside
187 sampling. In theory, this sampling could be conducted for other data-limited fisheries via
188 observations of individuals that are either caught and released, or harvested; in this study we do
189 the latter. Specifically, we examined dolphinfish harvested by a recreational charter boat fleet
190 operating out of Morehead City, North Carolina (USA). While there is a minimum size limit in
191 the SEUS fishery, this size limit does not apply to dolphinfish landed in North Carolina. This
192 fleet is part of a larger recreational fishery directed for dolphinfish in the SEUS, Gulf of Mexico,
193 and Caribbean that, depending on the season, uses trolling and/or bailing (casting dead natural
194 bait to schooling fish from a stationary or slowly moving boat) for targeting this species with
195 hook and line (Rudershausen et al., 2012). In estimating a rate of discard mortality for the
196 fishery, we assumed that hook injuries observed in landed dolphinfish also applied to dolphinfish
197 caught and released in this fishery. We further assumed that the breadth of our seasonal sampling
198 accounted for fish caught via both trolling and bailing, consistent with the data collection for the
199 empirical estimate of dolphinfish discard mortality (Rudershausen et al., 2019).

200 Fishery landings were sampled during springs and summers of 2016 and 2017. We binned
201 hooking data into the two general conditions for consistency with the two condition groupings
202 (good vs. poor) in the species-specific estimate of dolphinfish discard mortality (Rudershausen et
203 al., 2019). Clearly visible hook marks, the presence of coagulated blood, and embedded
204 hooks/line were used to guide our assignment of hooking condition in each sampled individual.
205 Fish hooked in two locations were assigned the hooking location most injurious based on
206 published studies of discard mortality rates (Supplement 1). Jaw hooking (good condition) was
207 considered in the vicinity of the mandible, maxillary, or in the hinge between the two. Fish with
208 unknown hooking locations were assumed jaw-hooked due to the lack of visible evidence (e.g.,
209 blood) indicating injury to vital tissues or organs. Specimens hooked in the roof of the mouth
210 were assumed to be poor condition due to evidence that roof-of-mouth hooked dolphinfish
211 sustain injuries more closely resembling eye- than jaw hooking (Mikles et al., 2018).

212 For proportion by hooking location information, each study trip to sample carcasses yielded
213 data that were assigned to the two hooking conditions. However, the true proportion of
214 dolphinfish hooked in different conditions is not known in the fishery due to the inability to
215 census the recreational catch at this port or in the larger management region. For this reason, in
216 modeling proportion by condition information, we defined the probability of sampling these

217 hooking locations over each visit to the docks as a multinomial-distributed random variable. This
218 variable was assigned a Dirichlet prior probability distribution with each α value (probability of
219 obtaining the random variable for each hooking location) equal to 1, which allocates individual
220 membership to each category uniformly across groups (Royle and Dorazio, 2008). This portion
221 of the model was fitted to numbers-by-condition data for each sampling trip; the minimum
222 number of carcasses to be considered a trip was one. This approach using dockside samples to
223 characterize the behavior of anglers and disposition of fish released at sea assumes that the
224 proportion by condition of dolphinfish sampled dockside is representative of the proportions
225 released by anglers *in situ*. Violations to this assumption would lead to a biased estimate of
226 discard mortality if the hooking conditions dockside were not representative of live releases at
227 sea. For this reason, we estimated an overall rate of mortality for the fishery using all sizes of
228 dolphinfish sampled at the dock, and then conducted a second model run just with sub-legal fish
229 (see below).

230 2.3 Overall model fitting to estimate discard mortality for the dolphinfish fishery

231 We fitted a probabilistic model using Bayesian methods to estimate a rate of discard mortality
232 for the dolphinfish hook and line recreational fishery (Supplement 3). The model had three sub-
233 components: 1) an estimate of discard mortality as a function of published data and covariates
234 (above), 2) an estimate of proportion-by-condition from sampling the fishery (above), and 3) a
235 calculation of overall discard mortality. In calculating the overall estimate of discard mortality
236 for the fishery, we used the most parsimonious mortality model (lowest DIC value) from the
237 fitted sub-models (above). The overall estimate of discard mortality for the fishery was defined
238 as the addition of two products with each product found by multiplying the estimated
239 proportional mortality by the proportion of individuals sampled in that hooking condition. We
240 estimated discard mortality across all sizes of dolphinfish given that this species is managed
241 through both size limits and annual catch limits (ACLs); thus, fish of legal size may need to be
242 discarded in the event that an ACL is exceeded. The model to estimate dolphinfish discard
243 mortality used a value of K averaged across previous studies of this species in the SEUS and
244 Gulf of Mexico regions (0.74: *fishbase.org*). Estimates of discard mortality for dolphinfish in
245 good and poor hooking conditions were obtained by setting the last two values in each of the
246 four data input vectors to values appropriate for dolphinfish. This allows the modeler to obtain a
247 prediction of the posterior probability distribution given those values (Lunn et al., 2012); for
248 dolphinfish, the last two values in each vector were the two hooking conditions (1=good and 2=
249 poor) in the hook condition vector, an arbitrary number of trials for theoretical study subjects
250 (100 in this case) for the “N” vector, the number of mortalities (set at NA in the “C” vector), and
251 the value of K for dolphinfish (0.74yr^{-1}) in the K vector. This provided a prediction of the
252 number of dead dolphinfish for each hooking condition that was then divided by 100 to express
253 the mortality for each hooking condition as a proportion.

254 All models were fitted through *OpenBUGS* software (version 3.2.1) (Spiegelhalter et al.,
255 2010) using *R* software (R Development Core Team, 2020) and the software interface package
256 *R2OpenBUGS* (Sturtz et al., 2020). Each model fit was conducted using three chains of initial
257 values that were generated by the software. Each model was updated 5,000 times with the first
258 2,000 updates discarded as adaptive phase. Stationarity (convergence) of each model parameter
259 was determined by examining the values for the Gelman-Rubin statistic (\hat{R}) that *OpenBUGS*
260 computes for retained updates; convergence is indicated when \hat{R} for a parameter is < 1.1
261 (Gelman, 1996). Convergence was also assessed by inspecting trace plots of retained values.

262 The estimate of discard mortality of dolphinfish for the fishery using the present approach
263 was compared to an empirically-derived estimate of discard mortality from a long-term tag-
264 recapture study; details of this empirical study can be found elsewhere (Rudershausen et al.,
265 2019). Briefly, in that study, dolphinfish ($n = 4,648$) were captured by hook and line,
266 conventionally tagged, and released by researchers and cooperating recreational fishers in the
267 SEUS, Caribbean, and Gulf of Mexico. A relative risk model was fitted to data on numbers of
268 fish tagged and numbers returned in each of two release conditions (good and poor); each release
269 condition was assigned based on hooking condition and qualitative assessment of post-release
270 swimming performance. The 100% survival of good-condition fish assumed in estimating
271 discard mortality with a relative risk modeling approach (Heuter et al., 2006) was tested and
272 incorporated into that study's mortality model as a scaling factor by using the results of two
273 known-fates experiments on good-condition fish (tank holding and satellite tagging). Due to
274 calculated values within that model, estimated rates of proportional mortality could exceed 1 or
275 be less than 0. Finally, an overall rate of discard mortality for the SEUS recreational fishery was
276 estimated in the empirical study by summing across two products, each one computed by
277 multiplying the condition-specific mortality rate by the proportion of individuals caught and
278 released boat-side in that condition. Each posterior of overall mortality that was compared
279 between studies was plotted by using the retained values for all three chains ($n = 9,000$ updates
280 total).

281 Goodness of fit of the best fitting meta-analytic model was assessed by computing a Pearson
282 residuals discrepancy measure between the observed data set of binomially distributed mortality
283 data and a replicate data set generated using the parameter estimates produced from model fitting
284 to the real data (Kéry, 2010) (Appendix 2). A Bayesian probability (p) value (Gelman et al.,
285 1996) was then computed as part of each model run. This p -value (distinct from the p -value in
286 hypothesis testing) computes the proportion of instances when the discrepancy measure for the
287 replicated data set exceeds that for the observed data set; p -values roughly equal to 0.5 suggest
288 adequate fits while values close to 0 or 1 suggest poorer fits (Kéry, 2010).

289 We conducted leave-one-out cross validation (LOOCV) to determine the accuracy of the
290 best-fitting model. LOOCV through Bayesian inference involves sequentially omitting each
291 observation from the data set and then re-running the model with that observation removed
292 (Lunn et al., 2012). The model results are then examined to see whether the 95% predictive
293 credible set for the omitted observation encompasses the observed value for that omitted
294 observation. This process is sequentially repeated for each observation in the data set.

295 **3. Results**

296 We found 111 suitable published data sets, across the five different anatomical hooking
297 categories and 33 species, which contained observed or estimated rates of discard mortality
298 (Supplement 1). After combining the data across specific hooking locations into two general
299 hooking conditions for any single study, this resulted in 73 rows of observations.

300 There were differences in discard mortality among the five hooking locations. Fish hooked
301 in locations (jaw and external body) considered 'good' had lower median rates of discard
302 mortality than fish hooked in locations considered 'poor' (gills, stomach/esophagus, and eye/roof
303 of mouth). Median proportional rates of discard mortality (2.5/97.5 credible intervals) were
304 0.060 (0.056, 0.065) for jaw, 0.170 (0.150, 0.190) for external body, 0.450 (0.410, 0.490) for gill,
305 0.463 (0.436, 0.489) for stomach/esophagus, and 0.238 (0.211, 0.266) for eye/roof of mouth
306 (Fig. 1).

307 When collapsed into two hooking location categories (good vs. poor), discard mortality was
308 most influenced by hooking location while the proxy for physiology (K) had a smaller negative
309 effect on discard mortality but only for good-condition fish (Tables 1 and 2; Fig. 1). The
310 interaction-effects model provided the most parsimonious fit to the data (lowest DIC score); this
311 was the only logistic model that received model support (Table 1). In this model, the influence of
312 K was meaningful (95% credible set overlapping zero) only for the good hooking condition
313 (Table 2). From this most parsimonious model, dolphinfish in good hooking condition were
314 predicted to have a median rate of discard mortality of 0.019 (-0.010, 0.052) while those in poor
315 hooking condition were predicted to have a median rate of 0.348 (0.224, 0.480) (Fig. 2). The
316 Bayesian p-value from the goodness of fit test of this model was 0.17 suggesting adequate model
317 fit.

318 There were 2,141 recreationally landed dolphinfish carcasses sampled for hooking locations
319 over 79 trips to the Morehead City, North Carolina docks in 2016 and 2017. Unknown hooking
320 locations (assumed to be the jaw) were recorded for 258 (12.1%) of carcasses sampled. The
321 median estimated proportion of jaw- and external body ('good') hooking condition (0.606:
322 0.582, 0.630) was greater than the median estimated proportion of poor hooking condition
323 (0.394: 0.370, 0.418). There were 142 sub-legal fish (< 508 mm FL) that were sampled during 34
324 trips to the docks; using just these fish, the median estimated proportion of jaw- and external
325 body ('good') hooking condition (0.667: 0.588, 0.741) was also greater than the median
326 estimated proportion of poor hooking condition (0.333: 0.259, 0.412). Each parameter in the
327 beta-binomial models and logistic models (above), as well as estimated sampling proportions of
328 good and poor conditions, had acceptable values for the convergence statistic ($\hat{R} < 1.05$) and
329 converged based on visual inspection of trace plots.

330 For the overall rate of discard mortality in the recreational fishery for dolphinfish, there was
331 overlap in posterior probability distributions between the meta-analysis and the tag-recapture
332 approach (Fig. 3). The median rate of overall discard mortality was 0.12 (0.07, 0.17) for the
333 meta-analytic approach using all dockside samples and 0.25 (0.05, 0.39) from the published tag-
334 recapture experiment. Thus, the 95% credible set for the posterior distribution of overall
335 mortality using the two-step approach was mostly contained within that of the tag-recapture
336 approach (Fig. 3). When fitting the model to just small fish from dockside sampling, the overall
337 rate of discard mortality was 0.13 (0.08, 0.18). The results on leave-one-out cross validation
338 (LOOCV) for the best-fitting model (Table 1) showed that the 95% credible set for predicted
339 discard mortality of the left-out observation encompassed the observed value of discard mortality
340 in 32 (44%) of the 73 study observations (Supplement 4).

341 **4. Discussion**

342 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to have estimated a species-specific discard
343 mortality rate using a combination of previously published data and fishery-dependent samples.
344 While Bartholomew and Bohnsack (2005) conducted a meta-analysis on discard mortality, it was
345 to determine important factors affecting discard mortality rather than to develop a predictive
346 model. Benoît et al. (2013) used time-to-mortality during air exposure from trawl-caught fish as
347 a proxy for discard mortality and found it was influenced by multiple factors; their time-to-
348 mortality-in-air metric was informative in determining factors important to discard mortality but
349 the proxy does not provide information on the percentage of live discards that die. In contrast,
350 our models can be used to predict discard mortality by hooking condition and K and can be used
351 along with fishery-specific information on proportion by hooking condition to estimate discard

352 mortality in the fishery. Our method is a substitute for empirical estimates of condition-specific
353 mortalities when the latter do not exist.

354 Data to estimate discard mortality in the two-step approach presented here can be obtained
355 from published literature and from representative sampling of the fishery of interest. Our meta-
356 analysis confirmed prior review studies of hook-and-line datasets that show hook location is the
357 dominant driver of discard mortality (Muoneke and Childress, 1994; Bartholomew and
358 Bohnsack, 2005; Fobert et al., 2009; Brownscombe et al. 2017). We provide meta-analysis
359 estimates of discard mortality for specific (five categories) and general (two categories) hook
360 injury categories for flexibility in the types of fishery-dependent data that might be collected in
361 future applications of this approach. The influence of K was not important for fish in poor
362 hooking condition, suggesting that hooking trauma overrides physiological effects when trauma
363 is present. Species with higher K have higher metabolic rates (Beverton and Holt, 1959; Snover
364 et al., 2005) and might be expected to be more susceptible to mortality from capture; however,
365 we found that higher K was associated with lower discard mortality suggesting that physiology
366 plays a role in determining release outcome in those cases where hook trauma does not occur.
367 This result could be an artifact of the data available for the meta-analysis or it may mean that fish
368 with higher K have physiological traits (e.g., higher metabolic scope for activity) that allow them
369 to better accommodate increased oxygen demand during hook-and-line capture. We recommend
370 future research in determining the mechanism behind the inverse relationship between K and
371 discard mortality.

372 The two-step model was used to estimate discard mortality for a recreational fishery for
373 dolphinfish. We believe that this is only the second estimate of dolphinfish discard mortality
374 despite its many fisheries around the world (e.g., Kraul, 1999; Lasso and Zapata, 1999;
375 Thompson, 1999). The meta-analytic approach here was motivated by the expense and logistics
376 involved in collecting conventional tag-recapture data and satellite tag data to estimate discard
377 mortality for the dolphinfish (Rudershausen et al., 2019). These financial and logistic
378 considerations arose due to the open ocean habitats used by dolphinfish, intermittent catches, and
379 limited recapture data to inform models of discard mortality. The approach presented in this
380 paper benefitted from our knowledge of the hook and line recreational fishery for dolphinfish in
381 the SEUS and our assumption that a principal source of discard mortality in this fishery
382 (Rudershausen et al., 2012) could be accounted for through dockside sampling. Using the two-
383 step approach, median overall estimates of discard mortality were 0.12 for the model run using
384 all sizes of dolphinfish and 0.13 for the model run using just undersized dolphinfish.
385 Rudershausen et al. (2019) ran different models (based on different assumptions) on tagging data
386 that resulted in median estimates of overall discard mortality ranging from 0.16 to 0.41; the base
387 model run from that paper had a median of 0.25 and is the distribution provided in Fig. 3. The
388 overlap in credible sets and the similarities between the two-step approach and some of the
389 empirical estimates are encouraging. We recommend future comparisons, using other species
390 and fisheries, to confirm the utility of our two-step approach.

391 There are additional factors, not modeled in this study, which could influence rates of discard
392 mortality (Muoneke and Childress, 1994; Davis, 2002; Bartholomew and Bohnsack, 2005;
393 Cooke and Suski, 2005). Indeed, there was large and unexplained variation in discard mortality
394 rates for poor condition fish (Fig. 2B). We acknowledge that un-sampled or un-modeled effects,
395 such as various stress indicators (Sopinka et al., 2016), air exposure (Cook et al., 2015), post-
396 release predation (Raby et al., 2013), and fish size (Davis, 2002), may influence rates of discard
397 mortality. Ideally these and other indicators of impairment are measured in discarded fish to

398 obtain a more complete understanding of factors influencing mortality for species-specific
399 fisheries. For example, using individual fish size to model rates of discard mortality would have
400 been ideal. However, most of the literature that we used to model discard mortality did not report
401 fish size for each of the fates that were studied. In the meta-analysis presented here, we fitted
402 models to factors with data that could be efficiently recovered from the literature and dockside
403 sampling. Another improvement to the meta-analytic model would be the inclusion of a family
404 or other taxonomic grouping as a random effect; we were unable to include a random effect
405 because most taxonomic groupings had too few studies.

406 One area where our study could have been biased in estimating a rate of discard mortality is
407 how species are represented in the literature with respect to anatomical hooking location. For
408 example, if mortality rates for eye hooking are under-studied for obligate sight feeding species
409 such as dolphinfish, estimates of mortality using data from our review would be biased low when
410 applying this approach to estimating discard mortality for dolphinfish or other obligate sight
411 feeders. The eye and roof-of-mouth areas represented fairly common hooking locations in our
412 fishery-dependent sampling (20% of dolphinfish were hooked in the eye or roof-of-mouth into
413 the eye). However, we found only 14 studies with data on these two hooking locations
414 (Supplement 1). Any confinement and handling of eye or roof-of-mouth hooked fish in tank
415 holding studies with easily obtained food and no predators would also likely mask the true
416 effects of hook trauma on obligate sight-feeding species when they are released back into the
417 wild.

418 Misidentifying hooking locations in dockside sampling may have biased the estimated
419 proportions of each condition relative to directly observing hooking locations and swimming
420 behavior, as was done in the tag-recapture study. In this study, it is unlikely that the estimated
421 proportion of poor condition fish was biased high via mistaking hooking in vital organs for what
422 was actually hooking in the jaw, given the diagnostics used dockside to determine hooking in
423 vital areas (e.g., presence of blood, hook wounds, and deeply embedded hooks left in fish). We
424 assumed that carcasses with unknown hooking locations were hooked in the jaw, the least lethal
425 location among a variety of species studied for discard mortality (Muoneke and Childress, 1994;
426 Supplement 1). Mis-classification of hooking locations assumed to be in the jaw would bias
427 overall estimates of discard mortality low relative to true rates.

428 The meta-analytic approach presented here should be considered as a substitute for a species-
429 specific estimate only when the dominant sources of discard mortality can be accounted for. For
430 our meta-analysis, those sources were hooking location and physiology. As described earlier,
431 there are other species and fisheries (e.g., trawl or gill net) where these would not be the main
432 sources of discard mortality; other factors that can be dominant sources of mortality include post-
433 release predation, air exposure, or water depth (pressure trauma). Using the approach presented
434 in this study to estimate discard mortality where other sources are known to be a major cause of
435 death would require a separate meta-analysis. Within a single species, Campbell et al. (2014)
436 used a meta-analytic approach to estimate the effect of depth on discard mortality in red snapper
437 *Lutjanus campechanus*, a species for which pressure trauma can be (depending on depth of
438 capture) a significant contributor to discard mortality.

439 We assume that the rate estimated for dolphinfish from recreational landings sampled in
440 North Carolina is representative of the larger area. A potential source of error would occur in this
441 study if the sampled post-mortem hooking conditions do not represent live at-sea releases that
442 occur in the fishery; if the sizes of dolphin released at sea differ from what we observed at dock
443 then this could be a potential source of bias because hooking condition differed by dolphinfish

444 size. A plot of 40 years of freely available US federal survey data of marine anglers (MRIP,
445 2018) shows that dolphinfish releases in the SEUS, Caribbean and Gulf of Mexico as a
446 proportion of the annual catch of this species have been increasing in recent years, even before
447 the minimum size limit in the SEUS went into effect in 2012 (Fig. 1 in Rudershausen et al.,
448 2019). This indicates that releases of dolphin are not a result of size limits; thus, a variety of
449 dolphinfish sizes are likely released at sea. However, it is possible that elective releases are
450 skewed towards small fish regardless of size limits; to address this possibility, we ran a second
451 model using dockside hooking conditions from dolphinfish that were less than the 508 mm FL
452 (minimum size limit). The credible set for this mortality estimate also widely overlapped that for
453 the empirical estimate, suggesting that the discard mortality rate for smaller fish did not differ
454 dramatically from the dockside samples or our past empirical estimates across all sizes. Onboard
455 scientific observers, while not required in this fishery, could help determine the validity of the
456 assumption that the proportion of fish in various conditions that are brought to the docks are
457 representative of those conditions released by anglers, provide information on sizes of
458 dolphinfish released in this fishery, and collect data on the proportion of fish released at sea
459 relative to those landed. The (US) South Atlantic Fisheries Management Council has begun a
460 citizen science effort called ‘MyFishCount’ (<https://www.myfishcount.com/about>) to collect
461 harvest, release, and fish condition data. There is also a new requirement in the SEUS that
462 charter captains maintain logbooks of their catches. These could be additional sources of
463 information from the fishery for the type of approach we present in this study. We remind the
464 reader that, given that the number of dead fish is required for management and stock
465 assessments, it is necessary to have estimates of the number of live releases to estimate the
466 number that die given a discard mortality rate.

467 Different types of terminal tackle and fishing styles by fishers landing their catch at ports that
468 we did not sample could contribute to different rates of discard mortality than estimated in this
469 study. However, large differences in proportion-by-hooking location seem unlikely based on our
470 previous work in this fishery. Our research group held a workshop to determine common types
471 of tackle and fishing styles used to target dolphinfish across the SEUS and Gulf of Mexico
472 regions (Rudershausen et al., 2012). Workshop stakeholders agreed that trolling using J-hooks
473 rigged with natural baits and bailing using cut natural baits affixed to non-offset circle hooks
474 were the gear styles most commonly used to target dolphinfish in North Carolina and in the
475 larger management region. Thus, it is likely that discard mortality rates estimated from sampling
476 in this study would be similar to other areas in the region.

477 The majority of the world’s fisheries are considered data-poor/limited (Dowling et al., 2018).
478 Our meta-analytic approach to estimate discard mortality might be useful in situations where
479 fishery managers wish to determine whether the discard mortality rate is sufficiently low that
480 regulations are achieving their intended effects. We also envision it being used to estimate
481 discard mortality for data-rich species for which a stock assessment is being conducted but no
482 discard mortality estimate exists. We recommend further comparison between empirically-
483 derived estimates of discard mortality and the approach presented here to determine its
484 applicability to other species and fisheries.

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637 Von Bertalanffy, L., 1938. A quantitative theory of organic growth (inquiries on growth laws
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641 Table 1. Logistic models fitted using Bayesian methods to published discard mortality data
 642 across a variety of fish species. The covariate considered in models was the Brody growth
 643 coefficient (K) while the factor considered in models was general hooking condition (HL) (good
 644 vs. poor). K was centered around the mean ($\text{ave}(K)$). Model parsimony was evaluated with the
 645 Deviance Information Criterion (DIC) and relative Akaike weights (proportional support) for
 646 each model (w_i). ANCOVA = analysis of covariance.

Model description	Likelihood structure	DIC	w_i
Interaction-effects ANCOVA	$\alpha[\text{HL}[i]] + \beta [\text{HL}[i]] * (K[i]-\text{ave}(K))$	1287	1
Main effects ANCOVA	$\alpha[\text{HL}[i]] + \beta * (K[i]-\text{ave}(K))$	1303	0
Binomial t-test	$\alpha[\text{HL}[i]]$	1336	0
Intercept only	α	2918	0

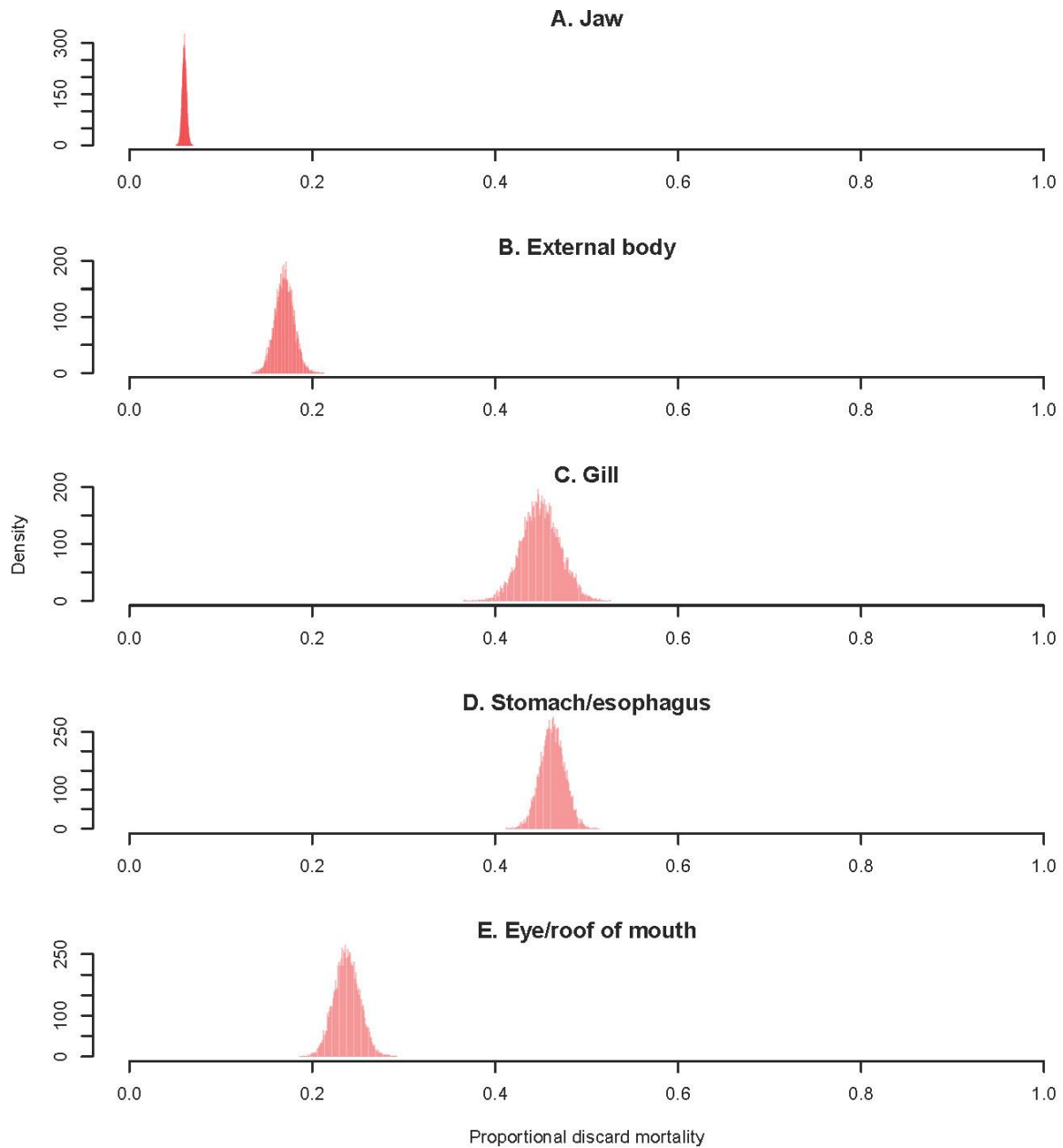
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648 Table 2. Median along with 2.5 and 97.5 credible estimates of parameters obtained from fitting
 649 an interaction-effects analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) model to the factor hooking location
 650 and the covariate K (Brody growth coefficient) to binomially distributed data on discard
 651 mortality across a variety of fish species. Parameter values were considered meaningful if the
 652 95% credible set did not overlap zero.

Parameter name	Parameter description	2.5	Median	97.5
alpha[1]	Intercept for fish in good hooking condition	-2.91	-2.80	-2.69
alpha[2]	Intercept for fish in poor hooking condition	-0.55	-0.46	-0.36
beta[1]	Regression coefficient for K for fish in good condition	-3.23	-2.45	-1.75
beta[2]	Regression coefficient for K for fish in poor condition	-1.01	-0.36	0.27

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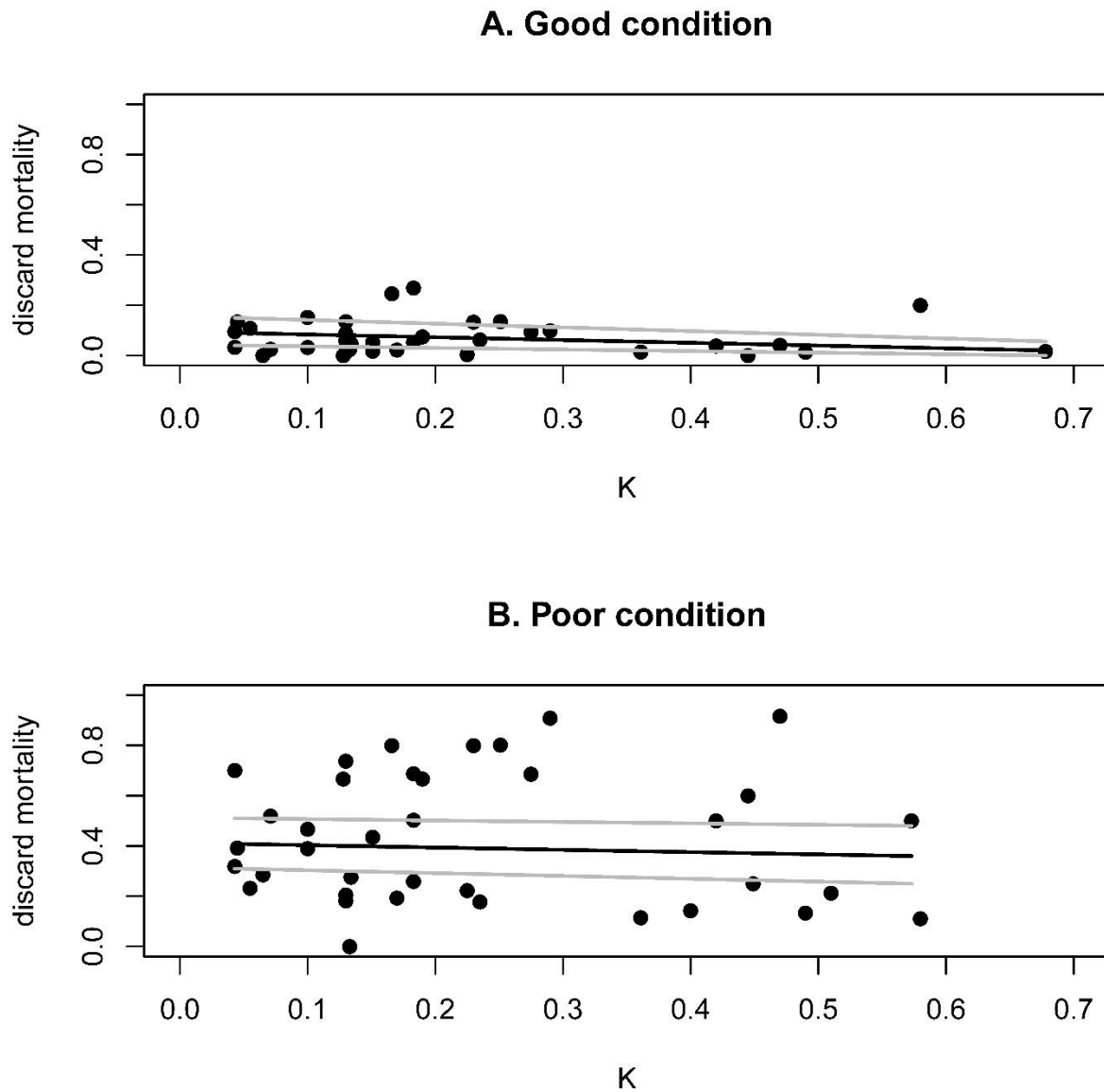
654 Figure 1. Posterior probability distributions (posteriors) for the estimated proportional discard
655 mortality of fishes hooked in five anatomical locations, based on data obtained from published
656 literature. Each histogram displays the density (y-axis) of discard mortality estimates (x-axis) for
657 retained updates across three chains (9,000 retained updates total).



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663 Figure 2. Observed (circles) and predicted values (lines) for relationship between the Brody
664 growth coefficient (K) (x-axis) and proportional discard mortality (y-axis) for a variety of fish
665 species from a meta-analysis of discard mortality. Predictions include the median (black line) as
666 well as 2.5 (lower gray line) and 97.5 credible values (upper gray line). Data and predictions are
667 broken down between good-hooking condition (panel A) and poor-hooking condition (panel B).
668 Predictions were obtained by fitting a binomially distributed model that included the effects of
669 hooking condition and K and their interaction. The scale of the y-axis is identical between
670 panels.

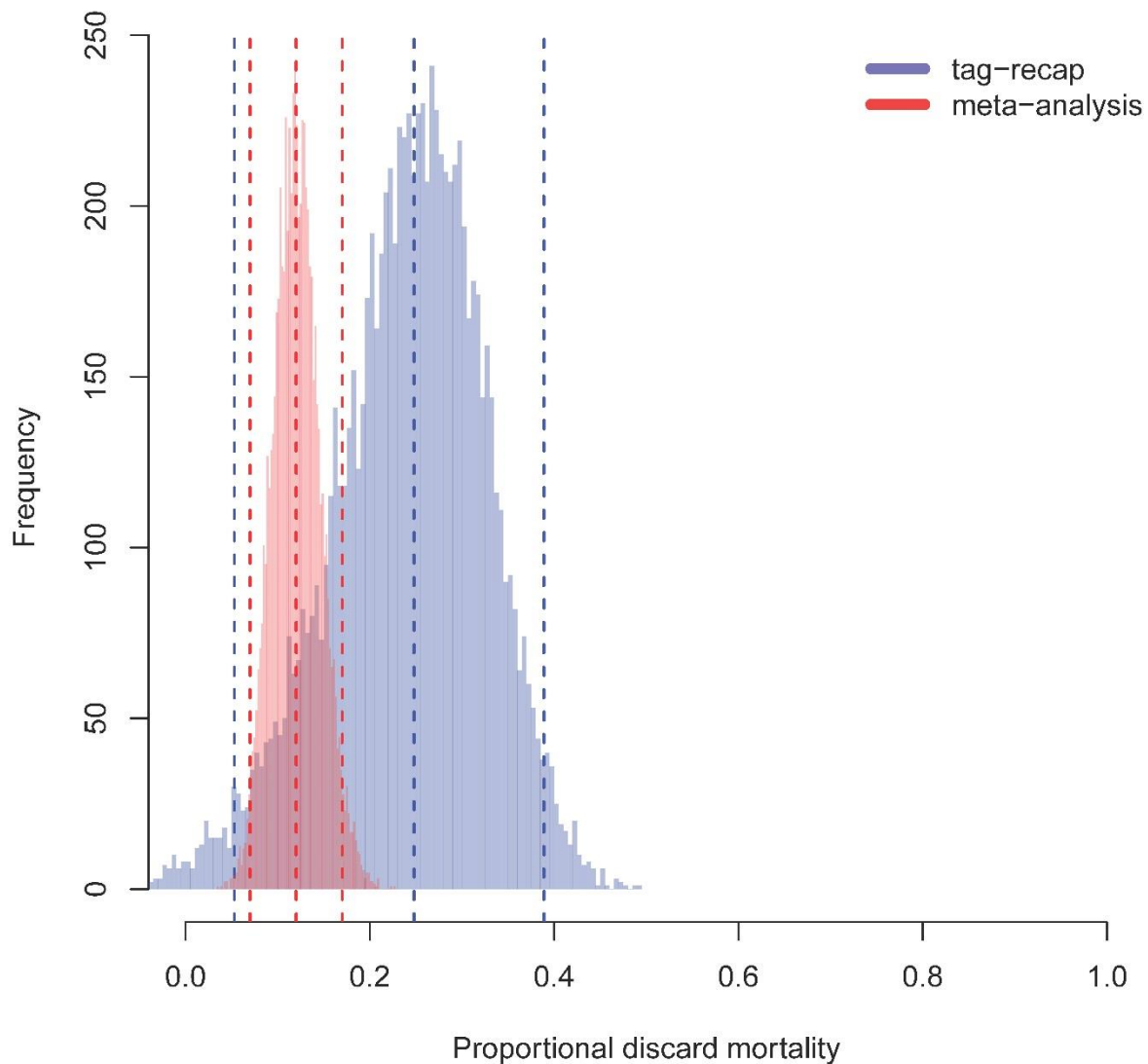
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674 Figure 3. Posterior probability distributions (posteriors) for the estimated overall rate of discard
675 mortality in a hook and line recreational fishery for dolphinfish *Coryphaena hippurus* sampled in
676 the southeastern US. The blue histogram is the posterior from a published tag-recapture ('tag-
677 recap') study to estimate discard mortality through fitting a relative risk model to dolphinfish
678 released in two different conditions (see Rudershausen et al., 2019 for details). The posterior
679 from a two-step approach ('meta-analysis': this study) using published data and dockside
680 sampling to estimate discard mortality is shown in the red histogram. Blue and red vertical lines
681 (left to right) are 2.5, median, and 97.5 credible intervals for the respective posteriors.



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