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4 1 Semi-Pelagic Trawling in The U.S. West Coast Groundfish Bottom Trawl Fishery: Effects on  
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6 2 Catch Efficiency and Seafloor Interactions  
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24 **Abstract**

25 Reducing the impacts of bottom trawling on seafloor habitats is a management priority in  
26 the U.S. West Coast groundfish bottom trawl fishery as well as other trawl fisheries internationally.  
27 Modifications to conventional bottom trawls, such as semi-pelagic trawl technology, are  
28 commonly used in demersal fisheries to reduce trawl-seafloor interactions by elevating the doors  
29 and portions of the sweeps off the seafloor. This study evaluated changes in catch efficiency and  
30 trawl geometry between a conventional bottom trawl outfitted with bottom-tending doors and the  
31 same trawl modified with midwater doors to fish semi-pelagically. We observed the seafloor  
32 interactions using Dual-frequency IDentification SONar (DIDSON) and quantified the reduction  
33 in trawl-seafloor interactions by periodically placing an altimeter on the semi-pelagic trawl door  
34 to measure height off bottom. Across the tows where the altimeter was used, results showed that  
35 the midwater doors fished off bottom >96% of all tow durations at a minimum height of 0.6 m.  
36 The midwater doors also spread 43 m wider on average than the conventional doors, which was  
37 significant ( $p<0.001$ ). Catch comparison results showed no significant difference in catch  
38 efficiency between the two gear types for any target groundfish species, however, the mean catch  
39 per unit effort for sablefish (*Anoplopoma fimbria*) did substantially increase when switching from  
40 the conventional to semi-pelagic trawl. Mean door spread did not significantly affect the catch  
41 efficiency of any species. DIDSON and altimeter data showed the midwater doors and raised  
42 sweeps provide clearance for low profile and infaunal benthic organisms to pass beneath without  
43 contact. This study demonstrates semi-pelagic trawl gear can effectively harvest demersal  
44 groundfishes in this fishery while substantially reducing trawl interactions with the seafloor. While  
45 our study has direct management implications for the U.S. West Coast groundfish bottom trawl

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4 46 fishery, our findings are also likely to apply to other demersal trawl fisheries internationally where  
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7 47 reducing the impacts of bottom trawling on seafloor habitats is a management priority.  
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## 11 49 **1. Introduction**

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14 50 Bottom trawling is widely practiced for harvesting demersal species. Globally, trawling  
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16 51 intensities are highest on continental margins with potential negative impacts on habitat  
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19 52 complexity, sedimentation, benthic communities, and marine carbon storage (Eigaard et al., 2017;  
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21 53 Bradshaw et al., 2021; Pitcher et al., 2022). On the U.S. West Coast, bottom trawl gear is used to  
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24 54 target groundfishes (e.g., Dover sole [*Microstomus pacificus*], petrale sole [*Eopsetta jordani*],  
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26 55 sablefish [*Anoplopoma fimbria*], lingcod [*Ophiodon elongatus*], and shortspine thornyhead  
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29 56 [*Sebastolobus alascanus*]) over low-relief seafloor consisting of a range of substrate types (e.g.,  
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31 57 mud, sand, gravel, cobble, boulder, and rock) and is an efficient means of harvesting these species.  
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34 58 However, the potential impacts of bottom trawl gear on habitat complexity, benthic communities,  
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36 59 biogeochemistry and essential fish habitat (EFH) remain major management concerns (PFMC,  
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38 60 2018; NOAA, 2019).  
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41 61 Significant effort has been put towards understanding the impacts of bottom trawling on  
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43 62 seafloor habitats, community structure, sediment resuspension, and biogeochemical processes  
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46 63 around the world where bottom trawl fisheries occur (Kaiser et al., 2002; Rijnsdorp et al., 2018;  
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48 64 Sciberras et al., 2018; Bradshaw et al., 2021). In the U.S. West Coast groundfish bottom trawl  
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51 65 fishery, conventional bottom trawls utilize low-aspect ratio doors (aspect ratio is determined by  
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53 66 dividing the door height by its width, where values below 1 refer to “low-aspect” and values above  
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55 67 1 refer to “high-aspect”) and lengthy sweeps (e.g., >85 m) designed to maintain seafloor contact  
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58 68 as they move along the seafloor and herd groundfishes towards the trawl mouth. The high degree  
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4 69 of bottom contact exhibited by a conventional trawl increases the potential to cause physical  
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6 70 disturbances to the seafloor or other impacts, including unobserved injuries or mortalities to non-  
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8 71 target benthic organisms such as Dungeness crab (*Metacarcinus magister*), brittle stars  
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10 72 (Ophiuroidea), polychaete worms (Polychaeta), structure-forming invertebrates like sponges  
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12 73 (Porifera), sea whips, and sea pens (Cnidarians), which are the most predominant macro-  
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14 74 invertebrates found in soft-sediment fishing grounds off the U.S. West Coast (Hixon and Tissot,  
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16 75 2007; Hannah et al., 2014; Hemery and Henkel, 2015). The Pacific Fishery Management Council  
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18 76 (PFMC), that recommends fishery management measures in federal waters off the U.S. West Coast  
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20 77 to the federal government, has utilized trawl area closures and footrope diameter restrictions within  
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22 78 the fishery management plan to protect EFH and species of concern from being impacted by  
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24 79 trawling (Hannah, 2003; PFMC, 2015; PFMC and NMFS, 2022). While these regulations have  
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26 80 been put in place to reduce trawl-seafloor-habitat interactions, it still remains a high priority of the  
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28 81 PFMC in their “Research and Data Needs” for the fishery to “*minimize fishing impacts on habitat*  
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30 82 *by adopting gear modifications to trawls to reduce the area of direct seafloor contact*” (PFMC,  
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32 83 2018).

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41 84 In demersal groundfish trawl fisheries, bottom-tending trawl doors constitute a small  
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43 85 portion (3-10%) of the groundgear that contacts the seafloor along the towline for any given trawl  
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45 86 event (Valdemarsen et al., 2007). However, they are considered a significant source of bottom  
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47 87 impact because of their weight, ability to penetrate the seafloor, and their potential to significantly  
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49 88 impact invertebrate abundances, habitat complexity, and recovery rates after a disturbance  
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51 89 (Sciberras et al., 2018). Conventional trawl sweeps and footropes, on the other hand, constitute the  
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53 90 most significant portion of the trawl gear that contacts the seafloor because of their long lengths  
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55 91 and can cause potential disturbances and impacts to benthic communities, biogeochemistry, and  
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92 EFH. To address management concerns of trawl-seafloor impacts, trawl designs have been  
93 developed that reduce seafloor interactions by making modifications to the footrope (He and  
94 Winger 2010; Nguyen et al., 2015), sweeps (Rose et al., 2010; Lomeli et al., 2019), and/or trawl  
95 doors (Sistiaga et al., 2015; Eayrs et al., 2020; Winger et al., 2024). Semi-pelagic trawl designs  
96 refer to modifications to a demersal trawl that lift sections of the footrope, sweeps, and/or doors  
97 off bottom. Semi-pelagic trawls have also been employed to reduce fuel consumption in fisheries  
98 where operating costs have become prohibitively high, as reduced seafloor contact decreases the  
99 drag forces on the trawl (Grimaldo et al., 2015; Sistiaga et al., 2016).

100         While semi-pelagic trawling has been used in demersal fisheries internationally and in  
101 Alaska, this same uptake has not been seen in the West Coast bottom trawl fishery. In Alaska,  
102 pelagic trawling and the use of elevated sweeps were quickly adopted by the groundfish fleets due  
103 to bycatch considerations from other significant fisheries such as crab and Pacific halibut  
104 (*Hippoglossus stenolepis*) (Rose et al., 2010; He and Winger, 2010) and impending regulatory  
105 changes (Balsiger, 2010; Eayrs and Pol, 2019). Fishers may be unmotivated to voluntarily modify  
106 conventional gear configurations, even ones with potential cost savings, if the impacts on catch  
107 efficiency are unknown. In the groundfish fishery, Lomeli et al. (2019) have already shown that  
108 using modified sweeps elevated 6 cm above the seafloor did not significantly change catch  
109 efficiencies of target groundfishes and reduced the overall sweep-seafloor interaction by 95% over  
110 the length of the sweep. In the West Coast groundfish bottom trawl fishery to date, the efficacy of  
111 a trawl outfitted with midwater doors and elevated sweeps has not been reported in peer-reviewed  
112 sources, leaving fishers and fisheries managers unclear of their benefits and impacts.

113         In efforts to address fisheries managers priority of reducing trawl-seafloor interactions, and  
114 development in technologies that can contribute to more sustainable fishing practices, our study

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115 objectives were: 1) compare the catch efficiency of demersal groundfishes between a conventional  
116 trawl outfitted with bottom-tending trawl doors and a semi-pelagic trawl outfitted with midwater  
117 doors, 2) quantify the degree that the semi-pelagic trawl reduces trawl-seafloor interactions  
118 compared to the conventional trawl, and 3) provide West Coast groundfish bottom trawl fishers  
119 and fisheries managers data for assessing trawl modifications that can mitigate trawl-seafloor  
120 interactions and disturbances to important macro-invertebrates and fish habitat.

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122 **2. Materials and Methods**

123 *2.1. Sea trials and sampling*

124 Our experiment was conducted aboard the F/V *Last Straw* (23.2 m LOA, 540 HP) off  
125 Oregon during September 2021 (Fig. 1, Table 1). Fishing occurred during daylight hours using the  
126 vessel's groundfish trawl. The only experimental change to the fishing gear during our study was  
127 the door type and rigging (detailed below). The trawl had a fishing mouth circumference of 180  
128 meshes (241 mm mesh size, between knot measurement [BK]) that tapered down over 77.5 meshes  
129 to a codend circumference opening that was 88 meshes. The footrope at the opening of the net was  
130 24.7 m in length and incorporated 20.3 cm diameter rubber disks, with 45.7 cm rockhopper discs  
131 placed approximately every 73.7 cm across the length of the footrope. A T90 mesh codend (127  
132 mm nominal mesh size [BK], 6.0 mm double twine) that was 88 meshes in circumference and 75  
133 meshes in length was used. After each tow, fishes were sorted into baskets by species or group  
134 (e.g., shelf and slope rockfishes [*Sebastes* spp.]) and weighed using a motion-compensated  
135 platform scale. We had a target tow duration of 60 minutes, however, tow duration varied from 30  
136 minutes (1 tow) to 75 minutes (1 tow), so all catch data were standardized per hour, and a catch  
137 per unit effort (CPUE) of  $\text{kg hr}^{-1}$ .

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138           The conventional bottom trawl (CBT) employed Thyborøn type-11 low-aspect ratio  
139 demersal doors (size = 4.8 m<sup>2</sup>; weight = 995 kg [weight in air]) (Fig. 2) rigged with a 3.1 m back  
140 strap and 10.4 m chain (16 mm long link) connected to the sweeps. The semi-pelagic trawl (SPT)  
141 employed NET Systems series 2,000 high-aspect ratio midwater trawl doors (size = 4.5 m<sup>2</sup>; weight  
142 = 568 kg [weight in air]). This door was chosen for its high aspect ratio which provides a higher  
143 lift to drag ratio, allowing the doors to fish off bottom when towed by the size of vessel used in  
144 this study per the manufacturer's specifications. The SPT rigging consisted of 2.5 m Spectra rope  
145 back strap, 18.3 m of bare wire, and 285 kg (weight in air) of in-line chain (30.5 cm link length,  
146 16 links totaling 3.6 m in length) aft of the door on each side to provide proper door setback and  
147 to keep the sweeps and net fishing on bottom (Fig. 3). Simrad PI door spread sensors were used to  
148 measure door spread between the two trawl configurations. Sweeps 121.2 m in length consisting  
149 of 4.8 cm combination wire with steel bobbins 25.4 cm in diameter placed every 30.5 m, designed  
150 to elevate sections of the sweeps off-bottom, were used on both trawls. In concept, the elevated  
151 sweeps are designed to lift 97% of the sweep off bottom, with an anticipated height of 3-4 cm  
152 above the seafloor between bobbins for each configuration. Further, the midwater doors combined  
153 with the elevated sweeps is designed to elevate 85% or more of the total length of gear between  
154 the doors and the bridles off bottom.

155           Due to limited space on the vessel, the conventional and midwater trawl doors could not  
156 be stored on the vessel at the same time requiring us to return to port to change between bottom  
157 and midwater doors. The sampling order for the CBT and SPT designs is shown in Table 1. During  
158 our gear trials, the CBT and SPT designs were each fished over similar fishing grounds and depths  
159 (Fig. 1).

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160 A mechanical altimeter was attached to the bottom of the port SPT door to measure the  
161 height off bottom continuously throughout the tow. The altimeter consisted of an Onset Hobo  
162 Pendant® acceleration data logger in a stainless-steel housing weighted with two links of chain  
163 (35.6 kg [weight in air]) which combined extended a total of 77 cm below the bottom SPT door  
164 (Fig. 2). From a series of calibrations, the conversion function used to convert the bottom contact  
165 sensor's relative units to door height was:

$$166 \text{ Door height} = 1804.3x^{-0.949} \tag{1}$$

168 where  $x$  is the voltage output from the data logger. Eq. 1 was used to measure when the door height  
169 (distance between the bottom edge of the door and the seafloor) was between 0–77 cm, averaged  
170 over the on-bottom duration of the tow. Beyond 77 cm, the sensor unit would lose contact with the  
171 seafloor and door height could not be measured, but the door was noted as being off bottom.  
172 Altimeter data was also binned as the proportion of the tow duration that the SPT doors spent off  
173 bottom (any reading >0 cm), on bottom (readings = 0 cm), and near bottom (readings between 0 –  
174 77 cm when door height could be measured).

176 Following methods employed by Rose et al. (2010) and Lomeli et al. (2019), a bottom-  
177 tending sled outfitted with a Sound Metrics ultrasonic Dual-frequency IDentification SONar  
178 (DIDSON, operating at 1.8 MHz) and an HD video camera system (equipped with scaling lasers)  
179 was towed across a pair of SPT and CBT paths (Fig. 1). Measurements were taken near start and  
180 end of tow locations to measure how each trawl configuration interacted with the seafloor.  
181 DIDSON survey tows occurred on 21 November aboard the R/V *Oceanus* (54 m LOA, 3,000 HP).  
182 Using our gear's known location and dimensions (bobbin size and spacing, footrope rockhopper



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4 183 configuration, etc.) we verified that the observed tracks in the DIDSON sonar imagery were from  
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7 184 our trawling activities.

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## 10 11 186 2.2. Catch comparison analysis

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14 187 We performed a catch comparison sampling analysis to determine how changing from the  
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16 188 CBT to SPT configurations affects the mean CPUE of target groundfishes (e.g., lingcod, sablefish,  
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19 189 shortspine thornyhead, Dover sole, petrale sole). Mean CPUE (kg hr<sup>-1</sup>) value was estimated species  
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21 190 by species separately for CBT and SPT configurations based on the standardized catch data for the  
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24 191 tows from each configuration. Specifically, the mean  $CPUE_i$  value for species  $i$  for a specific gear  
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26 192 configuration CBT or SPT was estimated by:

$$27  
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29 193  $CPUE_i = \frac{60}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \left\{ \frac{w_{ij}}{t_j} \right\}$  (2)  
30  
31$$

32 194 where the summation is over the  $n$  tows carried out with the specific gear configuration.  $t_j$  is the  
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34 195 tows from each configuration. Specifically, the mean  $CPUE_i$  value for species  $i$  for a specific gear  
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37 196 Following Lomeli et al. (2020), a bootstrapping method was used to estimate confidence limits  
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39 197 (CLs) for the mean CPUE values for each species. Specifically, 1,000 bootstrap repetitions were  
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42 198 conducted for CBT (n=23) and SPT (n=21) gear configurations. In each bootstrap repetition the  $n$   
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44 199 tows for the specific gear configuration were resampled  $n$  times with replacement and mean CPUE  
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47 200 was subsequently estimated by Eq. 2 to obtain a bootstrap population of results for the mean CPUE.  
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49 201 Finally, the Efron percentile 95% CLs (Efron, 1982) for mean CPUE were obtained from this  
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51  
52 202 bootstrap population of values. To quantify the percent change in mean CPUE ( $\Delta CPUE_{\text{mean}}$ ) for  
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54 203 each species between the CBT and SPT gear types, the following equation was used:

$$55  
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57 204  
58 205  $\Delta CPUE_{\text{mean}} = 100 \times \frac{(SPT_{\text{mean}} - CBT_{\text{mean}})}{CBT_{\text{mean}}}$  (3)  
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5 207 where  $SPT_{\text{mean}}$  is the mean CPUE for the semi-pelagic trawl and  $CBT_{\text{mean}}$  is the mean CPUE for  
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8 208 the conventional trawl. Based on the two independent bootstrap populations of results for  $SPT_{\text{mean}}$   
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10 209 and  $CBT_{\text{mean}}$  we obtained a bootstrap population of results for  $\Delta CPUE_{\text{mean}}$  following the rules for  
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13 210 bootstrap calculus outlined in Herrmann et al. (2018). This allows for estimating the mean  
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15 211 percentage change in catch efficiency ( $\Delta CPUE_{\text{mean}}$ ), but also to obtain the Efron 95% CLs for the  
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18 212 estimated mean change. Following Eq. 3, if the SPT has an increase in mean CPUE for a species,  
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20 213 then the  $\Delta CPUE_{\text{mean}}$  value will be above zero, whereas if the mean CPUE for the SPT decreases  
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23 214 then  $\Delta CPUE_{\text{mean}}$  will be below zero. The analyses described above were performed using the  
24  
25 215 statistical package SELNET (Herrmann et al., 2012), software version date 13 March 2023.  
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30 217 *2.3. Analysis of DIDSON imagery footage measurements and door spread*  
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33 218 We used the measuring tool within the DIDSON sonar software (V5.26) to analyze the  
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35 219 imaging sonar footage and measure the width of tracks (if present) created by the doors, sweeps,  
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37 220 and footrope of the two trawls. This provided quantification of the trawl-seafloor interaction of  
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39  
40 221 each configuration tested. This measuring tool was also used to estimate the height of the sweeps  
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42 222 above the seafloor. Given the bobbin has a fixed diameter of 25.4 cm, we can measure the width  
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44  
45 223 of the track left by the bobbin to determine the distance between the combination wire and the  
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47 224 seafloor given the following formula:  
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$$h = \sqrt{r^2 - \left(\frac{w}{2}\right)^2} - 2.4 \tag{4}$$
  
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228 where  $h$  is the height between the seafloor and bottom of the combination wire,  $r$  is the radius of  
229 the bobbin (12.7 cm),  $w$  is the width of the bobbin track measured from the DIDSON sonar footage,  
230 and 2.4 is the radius of the combination wire (Fig. 4).

231 Fish directly in the path of the trawl's footrope and wings will have a probability of being  
232 captured during the trawl event; however, outside of this path, fish need to be herded towards the  
233 trawl to become captured. Doors provide the horizontal force to spread the net, meaning the spread  
234 of the doors and sweeps is greater than the net path, creating a herding zone between the trawl net  
235 path and the sweeps. The length and angle relative to the direction of tow of the sweeps alter the  
236 width of the herding zone, and total trawled area, which can affect the catch efficiencies of target  
237 species. We calculated the estimated angle of attack of the sweeps (incidence angle) in relation to  
238 the direction of tow using the following equation:

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$$\theta = \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{d_s - f_s}{2S_l} \right) \tag{5}$$

241 where  $\theta$  is the sweep angle,  $d_s$  is the door spread distance,  $f_s$  is the average footrope spread of each  
242 configuration from the DIDSON survey, and  $S_l$  is the total length of the sweeps from the footrope  
243 to the trawl door for each configuration shown in Fig. 5. This equation is modified from Eighani  
244 et al. (2023), who used wing spread instead of  $f_s$ , as wing spread sensors were installed on their  
245 trawl. Since our trawl footrope extends to the trawl wing tips, the average footrope spread is an  
246 accurate proxy for this calculation in lieu of sensor data. We also used door spread along with the  
247  $f_s$ , and  $S_l$  to calculate the trawled area of each configuration. Considering that this is a demersal  
248 fishery, sections of the sweeps near or in contact with the seafloor may have a more herding effect  
249 than those lifted off by midwater doors of the SPT. In this case, we also used sweep spread ( $S_s$ )  
250 instead of  $d_s$ , to estimate the trawled area of the SPT that would have comparable sweep herding

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252 effects to the CBT.  $S_s$  was calculated as the distance between the first section of elevated sweeps  
253 24.4 m behind the doors due to the rigging (Fig. 3), which would be in contact with the bottom  
254 during fishing.

255 To determine if the mean door spread differed statistically between trawl type, a two-sided  
256 Welch's two-sample t-test analysis was used.

257

### 258 3. Results

#### 259 3.1. Fishing effort and catch comparison

260 In total, 44 valid tows were completed and used in the catch comparison analysis, with 23  
261 and 21 tows occurring for the conventional and semi-pelagic trawls, respectively. Mean tow  
262 duration, tow speed, bottom depth, and door spread values for each trial are shown in Table 2.

263 For both trawl configurations, the most abundant species caught by weight were sablefish,  
264 arrowtooth flounder (*Atheresthes stomias*), and Dover sole (Fig. 6). Shortspine thornyhead,  
265 longnose skate (*Caliraja rhina*), shelf and slope rockfishes, petrale sole, rex sole (*Glyptocephalus*  
266 *zachirus*), and lingcod were also frequently caught in both trawl configurations. The SPT on  
267 average caught more sablefish, Dover sole, lingcod, and petrale sole, but fewer arrowtooth  
268 flounder, longnose skate, rex sole, shelf rockfishes, and shortspine thornyhead than the CBT (Fig.  
269 6). The change in catch efficiency was not significantly different for any species (Fig. 7). However,  
270 sablefish showed a substantial increase in mean CPUE from 487.9 kg hr<sup>-1</sup> (CL: 235-964) to 1,167.5  
271 kg hr<sup>-1</sup> (CL: 630-1,848) when switching from the CBT to SPT, respectively. The average  
272 difference in catch efficiencies for all other species was <44% between the two gear types.

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#### 274 3.2. Trawl-seafloor interactions

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275           The bottom contact sensor was deployed on 11 of the 21 SPT tows, as adverse weather  
276 conditions made connecting the device to the door unsafe while setting the gear for the other tows.  
277 Across the tows where the bottom contact sensor was used, the altimeter data showed the SPT  
278 doors were completely off bottom on average 99.6% (SE  $\pm$  0.3) of the tow duration and only  
279 contacted the seafloor on average 0.6% ( $\pm$  0.3) of the time (Table 3). The duration of door-seafloor  
280 contact ranged from 0–3.9% between each tow sampled. The vertical position of the midwater  
281 door above the seafloor could only be accurately estimated with readings between 17.7–65.0 cm  
282 (the “height off bottom” range in Table 3), rather than the full range of 0-77 cm. This was due to  
283 the resolution of the altimeter sensor data as well as the water velocity passing below the door and  
284 affecting the tilt angle of the sensor when the doors were lifted fully off the seafloor. Over the tows  
285 where the bottom contact sensor was used, the altimeter data showed the SPT doors spent 16.3%  
286 of the time in the near bottom range, with an average altitude of 57.7 cm ( $\pm$  0.1). This mean value  
287 ranged from 47.3 cm ( $\pm$  5.6) to 62.9 cm ( $\pm$ 0.1) between each tow (Table 3). These results confirm  
288 that, for the tows that included the altimeter, the SPT doors were primarily fishing off bottom as  
289 designed.

290           We could clearly identify and measure one pair of conventional and semi-pelagic trawl  
291 paths using the DIDSON imaging sonar. The pair used in the measurement analysis are denoted  
292 with the asterisk in Fig. 1. Due to the delay between fishing and the DIDSON survey, as well as  
293 survey complications towing around the Ocean Observatories Initiative Endurance Cable Array,  
294 the other pair of trawl tracks could not be reliably identified and measured for this study. The  
295 analyzed pair of CBT and SPT tows were made 3.4 km apart in similar depths of 241 m and 247  
296 m, respectively, within 28 hours of each other. Two transects were made across these tracks as  
297 seen in Fig. 1, which captured a snapshot (<1% of total length) of each trawl path. The semi-

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298 pelagic trawl track showed that near the start of the tow, both port and starboard doors were  
299 contacting the seafloor, as well as the starboard in-line chain (Fig. 8). However, near the end of  
300 the tow the DIDSON imaging sonar showed only the port door and in-line chain were off bottom.  
301 When the SPT doors and in-line chain did make contact (which was <4% of the tow duration on  
302 tows where the bottom contact sensor was used), the average width of the door mark of 0.35 m  
303 (SE  $\pm$  0.02) and 0.76 m ( $\pm$  0.1), respectively. Door marks were present in both CBT transects with  
304 an average door width of 0.48 m ( $\pm$  0.02).

305 For both trawl configurations moving fore to aft along the length of the sweep (towards the  
306 trawl), the average distance between bobbin tracks increased due to variations in the sweeps' angle  
307 of attack. This was more pronounced in the SPT where the distance between the bobbin tracks  
308 increased from 7.7 m ( $\pm$  0.9) to 10.8 m ( $\pm$  1.4) compared to the CBT where the distance between  
309 bobbin tracks increased from 8.0 m ( $\pm$  0.8) to 8.7 m ( $\pm$  0.5). The footrope track was wider when  
310 using the SPT (23.9 m) than the CBT (22.4 m). The tracks correspond to a slight "U" shape of the  
311 lower bridles towards the footrope in both configurations, which is more pronounced with the  
312 significantly wider trawl door spread of the SPT ( $p < 0.001$ ,  $df = 25.3$ , Table 2). The mean width of  
313 the SPT bobbin track appears slightly wider ( $0.22 \text{ m} \pm 0.004$ ) than the CBT bobbin track ( $0.21 \text{ m}$   
314  $\pm 0.003$ ), corresponding to the sweeps fishing at a mean height off bottom between the bobbins of  
315 4.4 cm ( $\pm 0.4$ ) for the CBT compared to 3.1 cm ( $\pm 0.3$ ) for the SPT configuration. Due to the  
316 precision of the measurement software and small sample size, we are unable to determine if this  
317 trend persisted for each tow. The seafloor between bobbin tracks appeared undisturbed when  
318 compared to the areas outside of the trawl path, when comparing areas around the door and bobbin  
319 marks in Fig. 8. This corresponds to the sweep sections between bobbins likely having enough

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320 clearance to avoid disturbing the seafloor, however, this is only a qualitative observation on a  
321 subset of two trawl paths.

322         The door spread of each configuration (Table 2) resulted in the SPT having a greater angle  
323 of attack of the sweeps compared to the CBT (Fig. 5). The angle of attack increased from 14.8°  
324 (SE ± 0.3) to 21.2° (± 0.5) for the conventional and semi-pelagic trawls, respectively. Although  
325 the SPT is designed to have 152 m of sweep in close contact with the seafloor compared to 166 m  
326 for the CBT (with rigging included), the spread of the SPT doors resulted in a 100 m<sup>2</sup> (9%) increase  
327 in trawled area. It should be noted that the calculation of angle of attack represents the average  
328 angle over the entire sweep, from the door to the footrope, and does not account for the parabolic  
329 shape of the sweeps between the doors and the trawl that we observed in the DIDSON survey.  
330 This analysis estimates the trawl geometry, and given the significant difference in door spread,  
331 allows for a comparison of the potential herding differences between the two configurations.

332  
333 **4. Discussion**

334 *4.1. Gear performance*

335         We evaluated how changing from a conventional bottom trawl rigged with bottom-tending  
336 doors to a semi-pelagic trawl rigged with midwater doors affected the catch efficiency of target  
337 groundfishes within the U.S. West Coast groundfish bottom trawl fishery. The SPT showed no  
338 significant change in mean CPUE for any species sampled. This is similar to other studies that  
339 found little to no change in groundfish catch efficiencies when using a semi-pelagic trawl in a  
340 conventionally demersal trawl fishery (Eayrs et al., 2012). The high-aspect ratio midwater doors  
341 were elevated above the seafloor for >96% of each tow where an altimeter was deployed,  
342 influencing the trawl geometry. Notably, the SPT had an average door spread 43 m wider than the

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343 CBT, a significant increase of 33%. This resulted in a 9% increase in trawled area by the portion  
344 of sweeps in close contact with the seafloor for the SPT over the CBT. Jones et al. (2021), found  
345 that increased wing spread only impacted the total catch weight of flatfishes due to higher trawled  
346 area, rather than an influence of spread on catch efficiency. Our results agree with this study, as  
347 door spread did not affect the catch efficiency of any targeted species. Thus, the increase in the  
348 SPT's trawled area likely contributed to increased catches of sablefish, Dover sole, lingcod, and  
349 petrale sole.

350 We observed that the increased spread of the SPT configuration also increased the average  
351 angle of attack and trawled area than that of the CBT configuration. This increased trawled area  
352 results in higher fishing efficiency by covering more fishing grounds in a single pass. Increased  
353 sweep angles increase the swimming distance required to be herded into the trawl path, which may  
354 not be feasible for fish with lower endurance (e.g., smaller individuals) who get overrun by the  
355 sweeps rather than herded into the trawl (Winger et al., 1999). Although we did not measure fish  
356 lengths in this study, the SPT configuration could create length-dependent herding effects where  
357 catches select for larger-sized individuals. Understanding the length-based effects of SPT gear  
358 within the West Coast Groundfish fishery would be important for fisheries management  
359 practitioners and the fishing industry.

360 The trawl configurations we tested were designed to have 121.2 m sweeps with elevated  
361 sections off bottom, and the trawl doors rigged to be either on bottom (e.g., CBT) or elevated to  
362 hydrodynamically fly above the seafloor (e.g., SPT). We did not have door sounders to measure  
363 continuous door height for either trawl configuration, but made the assumption (from the bottom  
364 contact sensor data) that the SPT doors primarily fished above the bottom. Trawl door elevation  
365 likely fluctuated due to extrinsic factors such as sea state, altering the seafloor contact, but the



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366 variation in door height above 0.7 m is unknown. This fluctuation would put portions of the in-  
367 line chain or bare wire in contact with the seafloor, or potentially lift sections of the elevated  
368 sweeps and footrope. We acknowledge that the door sensors were not deployed on 10 tows during  
369 rough weather conditions, which could have amplified fluctuations of door position in relation to  
370 the seafloor. Issues of door and sweep uplift can occur with the conventional trawl due to changes  
371 in sea state or seafloor topography, but are likely less variable than the SPT. Overall, trawl footprint  
372 and resulting trawled area are important in this study, and the increased contact of the in-line chain  
373 or bare wire could bias these results. However, since door spread data was collected for all tows  
374 in both trials and door altimeter data was collected on more than half the SPT tows, we are  
375 confident in our results presented here. Having finer scale door sounders, as well as altimeters on  
376 parts of the in-line chain for future studies would better quantify both the trawled area and trawl  
377 footprint.

378 Increased control of the trawl door height continues to be a technical challenge for any vessel  
379 switching to a semi-pelagic trawl configuration in a demersal fishery (Valdemarsen et al., 2007;  
380 Sistiaga et al., 2016; Eayrs et al., 2020). Although we know the SPT doors spent >99% of the time  
381 fishing without contacting the seafloor when the altimeter was deployed, the actual variation in  
382 door height was largely unknown in both configurations in our study. While we have shown it is  
383 possible to successfully fish a semi-pelagic trawl without wing and door height sensors, we  
384 acknowledge that including them in both configurations would have greatly improved our ability  
385 to assess the gear performance and ensure the midwater doors were fishing at a consistent height  
386 above the seafloor. Sensors allow for better control over the position of the doors in the water  
387 column, allowing optimal trawl geometry for fishing and eliminating the doors contacting the  
388 seafloor. Alternatively, a new design of self-adjusting, semi-pelagic otter boards has recently been

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389 tested by Eighani et al. (2023), showing more consistent door height control over the total tow  
390 duration. Consideration of the spreading force of a particular door is also necessary, as being too  
391 weak (Grimaldo et al., 2015) or too strong (Sistiaga et al., 2016) can adversely affect trawl  
392 geometry.

#### 394 4.2. Trawl-seafloor interactions

395 Our results show that the doors of the semi-pelagic trawl spent on average >99% of the tow  
396 duration above the seafloor (when the altimeter was deployed). For 83% of the total fishing  
397 duration, the doors were elevated a minimum of 0.7 m above the seafloor (the maximum height of  
398 the sensor recording ability), and >96% of the time 0.6 m above the seafloor. This would provide  
399 sufficient clearance for lower-profile epifaunal (e.g., Dungeness crab, sea anemones, brittle stars,  
400 and urchins) and infaunal (e.g., polychaetes, mollusks) organisms to pass under the doors without  
401 contact. Elevated doors would also reduce contact with structure forming invertebrates that are  
402 commonly associated with fish habitat along the West Coast, and can be vulnerable to impacts by  
403 mobile fishing gears due to their slow growth rates (Whitmire and Wakefield, 2019).

404 The elevated sweeps on the SPT appeared to provide 3 cm of clearance estimated from the  
405 DIDSON imagery of one tow path, however, this was lower than the 4 cm of elevation estimated  
406 from the CBT trawl path. Lomeli et al. (2019) found that using bobbins 17.8 cm in diameter placed  
407 every 8.2 m was able to raise the sweeps 6.3 cm above the bottom. The elevated sweeps used in  
408 our study followed the Alaska industry standard of placing 25.4 cm diameter steel bobbins at the  
409 end of each sweep section (30.5 m in length in our setup) just before the hammerlock. We found  
410 that using larger bobbins spaced further apart likely reduces the clearance of the sweep above the  
411 seafloor, but doesn't diminish it completely. The sweep height estimated from the DIDSON

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412 analysis shows the elevated sections of the sweeps are capable of passing over infaunal organisms  
413 without sweep disturbance and lower-profile epifaunal organisms without physical sweep contact.  
414 Further exploration of the elevated sweeps and midwater door riggings, specifically more accurate  
415 elevation data, would expand on the potential benefits of this reduced interaction with the seafloor  
416 and benthic species.

417 Bottom-tending mobile gears with large amounts of drag (such as heavy trawl doors with more  
418 contact area) can cause greater seafloor disturbance and resuspension of sediment that rises higher  
419 above the seafloor than lighter trawl components, which can affect biogeochemical processes and  
420 fluxes (Van de Velde et al., 2018; Bradshaw et al., 2021; Breimann et al., 2022). The reduced  
421 overall footprint of the SPT in our study likely causes less resuspension of sediment than a  
422 conventional trawl. Similarly, the lighter weight midwater doors with a smaller footprint may also  
423 disturb the seafloor less than the demersal door at times when it did touch down. Research into the  
424 turbidity associated with SPT modifications, as well as the impact of trawling on sediments in  
425 West Coast fishing grounds would clarify the seafloor impacts of semi-pelagic trawling in the  
426 fishery.

#### 427 428 *4.3. Implementation into the West Coast fishery and applicability to fisheries management*

429 Technical innovations in trawl gear that minimize trawl-seafloor-habitat interactions while  
430 being effective at catching target species would be of interest to policymakers, highly beneficial  
431 to fishers, and promote ecosystem health and sustainable fisheries. Results from our research  
432 provide fishers and policymakers new data for assessing gear modifications that can mitigate trawl-  
433 seafloor interactions and disturbances to structure forming invertebrates, mobile benthic  
434 organisms, infauna, and groundfish EFH. Our research directly addresses statutory mandates in

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435 the Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act (legislation providing for the  
436 management of marine fisheries in U.S. federal waters) to develop technologies designed to assist  
437 fishing industry participants in reducing fishing gear interactions with invertebrate communities  
438 and EFH (16 U.S.C. 1884 MSA § 408), and management priorities of the PFMC (PFMC, 2018),  
439 NOAA Fisheries Deep-Sea Coral Research and Technology Program, and NOAA Fisheries West  
440 Coast Region. While our study has direct positive management implications to the U.S. West Coast  
441 groundfish bottom trawl fishery, our ability to fish a demersal trawl using midwater trawls doors  
442 is transferable to other demersal trawl fisheries regionally and internationally where conventional  
443 bottom tending doors are used.

444 For fishers needing to purchase both midwater doors and sensing equipment, this may cost  
445 upwards of US\$80,000 depending on the size of the vessel. Proper door selection and monitoring  
446 equipment are important for ensuring the benefits of reduced seafloor interactions and consistent  
447 fishing for a semi-pelagic trawl, but this can be cost prohibitive for fishers switching to this  
448 configuration. Some fishers currently participating in the U.S. West Coast groundfish bottom trawl  
449 fishery already own some or all additional sensing equipment, especially if they participate in other  
450 West Coast midwater trawl fisheries (e.g., Pacific hake [*Merluccius productus*], and widow  
451 rockfish [*S. entomelas*] and yellowtail rockfish [*S. flavidus*] fisheries), making this transition to  
452 semi-pelagic trawling easier. Increased fuel savings and catch efficiencies may incentivize  
453 switching for the portion of fishers that exclusively use conventional bottom gear not requiring  
454 this equipment. While we did not measure fuel efficiency or consumption in our study, the reduced  
455 drag of high-aspect ratio midwater doors over conventional low-aspect ratio bottom doors has been  
456 found to reduce energy consumption by 12-18% (Eayrs et al., 2012; Grimaldo et al., 2015; Eighani  
457 et al., 2023). If these benefits are also present with our design, this will yield a larger fishing

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458 capacity with decreased energy consumption due to the increased mean trawled area of the SPT.  
459 For fishers targeting sablefish, and to a lesser extent Dover sole, lingcod and petrale sole, there is  
460 a potential to fill a desired trip quota with fewer hauling hours due to increased catch efficiencies  
461 for these species. The ability to land your catch in three days instead of four, for example, would  
462 have significant benefits to fuel savings, as well as other trip costs, which are harder to quantify.  
463 The improved catch efficiencies and reduced trawl-seafloor interactions we demonstrated in this  
464 study warrants further research into fuel efficiency and consumption and output of emissions (e.g.,  
465 CO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>) between conventional and semi-pelagic trawls in this fishery.

466 Dungeness crab, a species that supports one of the West Coast’s most valuable fisheries,  
467 inhabits areas along the coast that overlap with the bottom trawl fishery. NOAA mortality reports  
468 for the West Coast groundfish bottom trawl fishery show that recent annual discard mortalities for  
469 Dungeness crabs have been ca. 45 mt (Somers et al., 2023), but as high as 200 mt in the last decade  
470 (Somers et al., 2019). These landing estimates provide data on what was retained by the trawl  
471 codend but may be missing interactions with other portions of the gear. Thus, the extent of  
472 unobserved injury or mortality of crab encountering the trawl on the seafloor is largely unknown.  
473 In the ocean shrimp trawl fishery, Hannah et al. (2013) raised the trawl footrope with 20.3 cm  
474 diameter bobbins and significantly reduced trawl interactions with Dungeness crab and other  
475 epifaunal organisms. Off Alaska, Hammond et al. (2013) predicted that tanner crab (*Chionoecetes*  
476 *bairdi*) and snow crab (*C. opilio*) mortality from bottom trawls would both decrease by >3% when  
477 using the raised sweeps tested by Rose et al. (2010) that rise 7.5 cm above the seafloor. In this  
478 study, the 0.6 m and 3 cm elevation of the doors and sweeps off the seafloor, respectively, would  
479 likely contribute to reduced interactions with Dungeness crab and other benthic organisms. In the  
480 event fishery managers seek to implement additional gear modifications in the West Coast

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481 groundfish bottom trawl fishery to reduce trawl-seafloor interactions, our study findings coupled  
482 with prior research (Rose et al., 2010; Hammond et al., 2013; Hannah et al., 2013; Lomeli et al.,  
483 2019) provide fishery managers valuable data for making well-informed and sound management  
484 decisions.

## 486 **5. Conclusions**

487 Reducing trawl-seafloor interactions and disturbances to epifaunal and infaunal  
488 invertebrate communities and EFH is a high priority to U.S. West Coast marine fisheries managers.  
489 Our research addressed this management priority by evaluating the use of a demersal trawl  
490 outfitted with midwater doors, in place of conventional bottom-tending doors commonly used for  
491 harvesting demersal groundfishes. We demonstrated that using a trawl outfitted with midwater  
492 trawl doors and elevated sweeps can significantly reduce trawl-seafloor interactions, while also  
493 allowing lower-profile benthic organisms to pass below the doors and sweeps without contact.  
494 Further, we found that changing from a conventional bottom trawl to a semi-pelagic trawl does  
495 not affect catch efficiencies of target groundfishes. These results provide valuable information to  
496 fishery managers and contribute to techniques that support sustainable fishing practices within the  
497 U.S. West Coast groundfish bottom trawl fishery. Although our study outcomes were positive, in  
498 terms of reducing trawl-seafloor interactions without impacting groundfish catches, changing from  
499 bottom tending doors to midwater doors will be a barrier to fishers that lack trawl mensuration  
500 sensor equipment needed for monitoring door spread and height. While the majority of vessels in  
501 the fishery are outfitted with trawl mensuration sensor equipment that would support the use of  
502 midwater trawl doors, for fishers lacking this equipment gear modifications such as changing from  
503 conventional bottom tending sweeps to elevated trawl sweeps can be made to reduce trawl-seafloor

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504 interactions. (Rose et al., 2010; Lomeli et al., 2019). Lastly, while our research has direct impacts  
505 and management implications to the U.S. West Coast groundfish bottom trawl fishery, our study  
506 results are likely to apply to other demersal trawl fisheries internationally where reducing trawl-  
507 seafloor interactions are a management priority.

**509 Declaration of competing interest**

510 On behalf of all the authors in our submission, as the corresponding author I (Mark J.M.  
511 Lomeli) can confirm that we do not have any conflicts of interest as defined by Ocean & Coastal  
512 Management in their “Guide for Authors”.

**514 Data availability**

515 Data will be made available on request.

**517 Acknowledgements**

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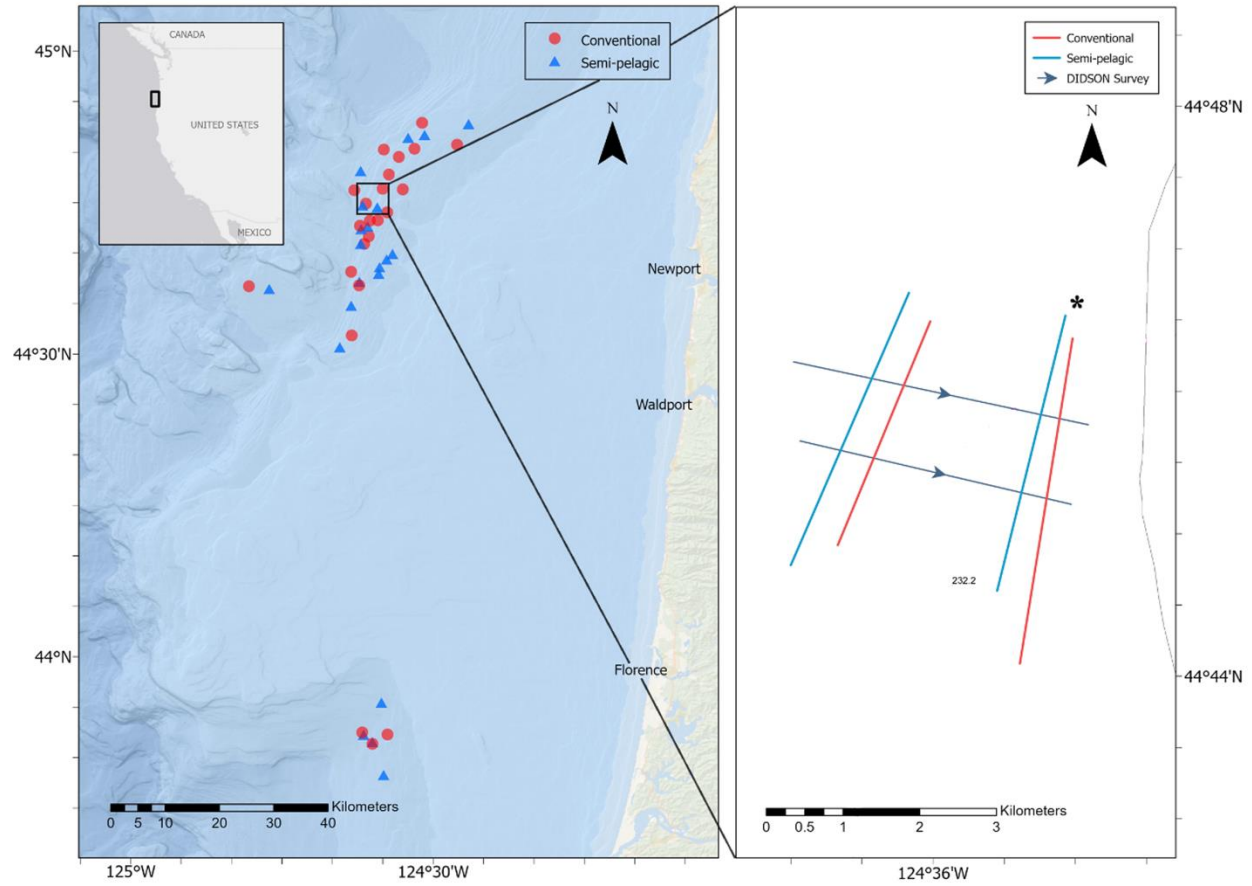
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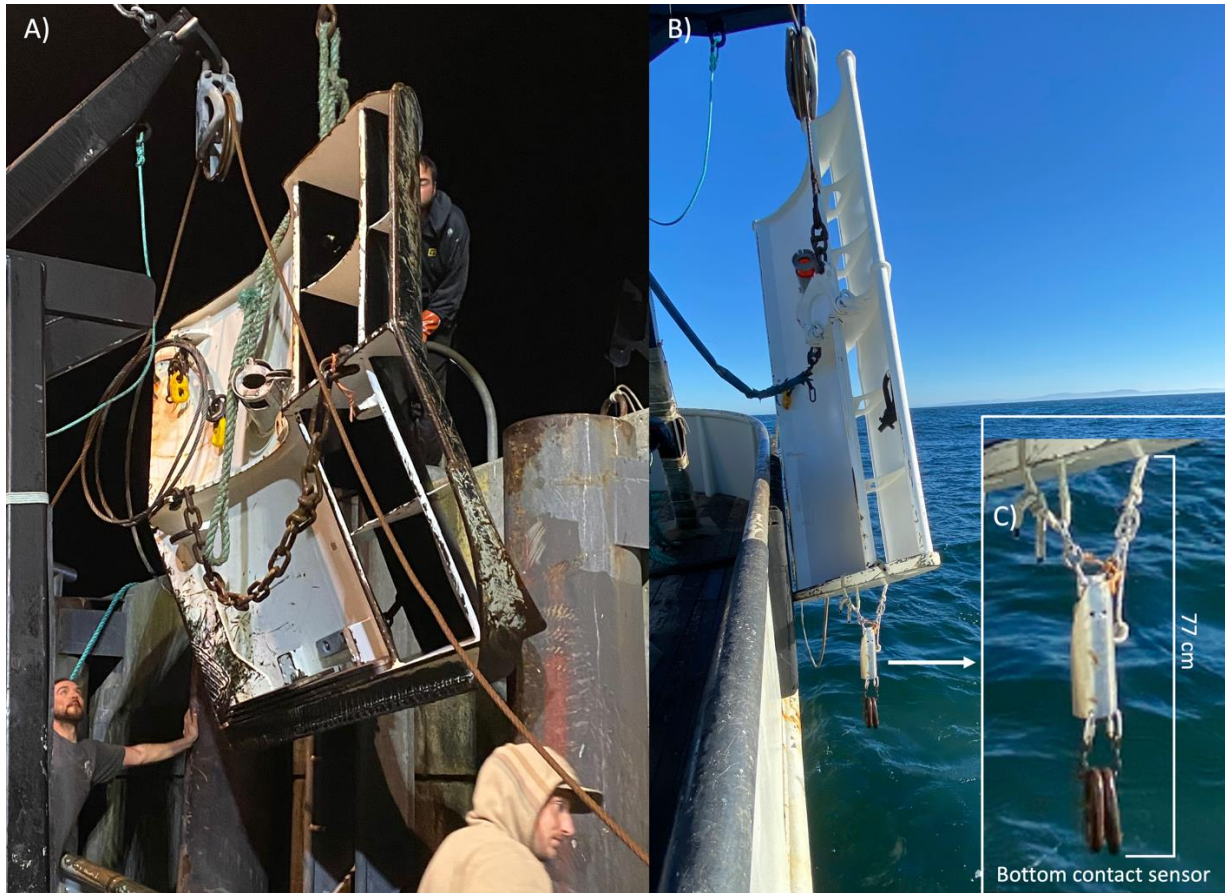
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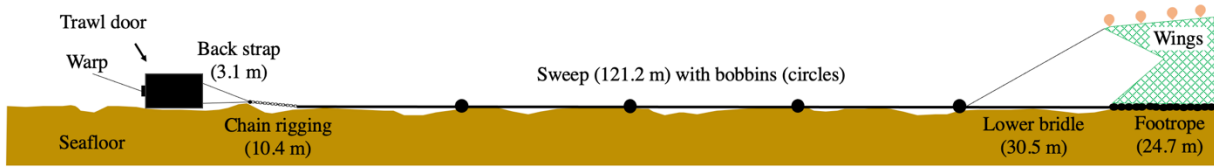


**Figure 1.** Tow locations of the two trawl configurations tested in this study (left) and DIDSON survey of pairs of trawl tracks (right). Arrows in the right panel indicate direction of tow. An asterisk denotes the paired tows used in the analysis.

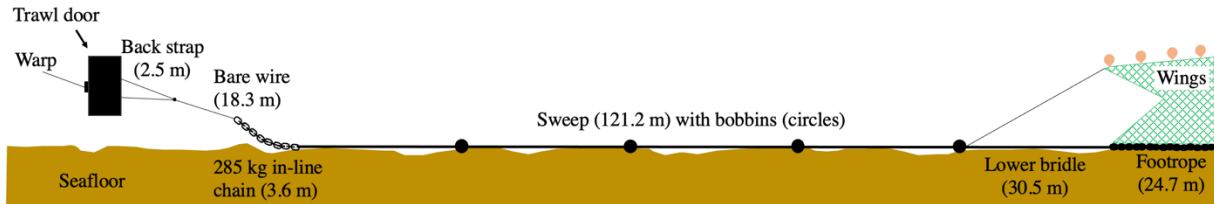


**Figure 2.** A) Image of the Thyborøn type-11 bottom trawl door (size = 4.8 m<sup>2</sup>; weight = 995 kg [weight in air]) used on the conventional trawl; B) image of the NET Systems midwater series 2,000 trawl door (size = 4.5 m<sup>2</sup>; weight = 568 kg [weight in air]) used on the semi-pelagic trawl; C) Image of a bottom contact sensor (altimeter) rigged to the port midwater trawl door of the semi-pelagic trawl.

### Conventional Trawl

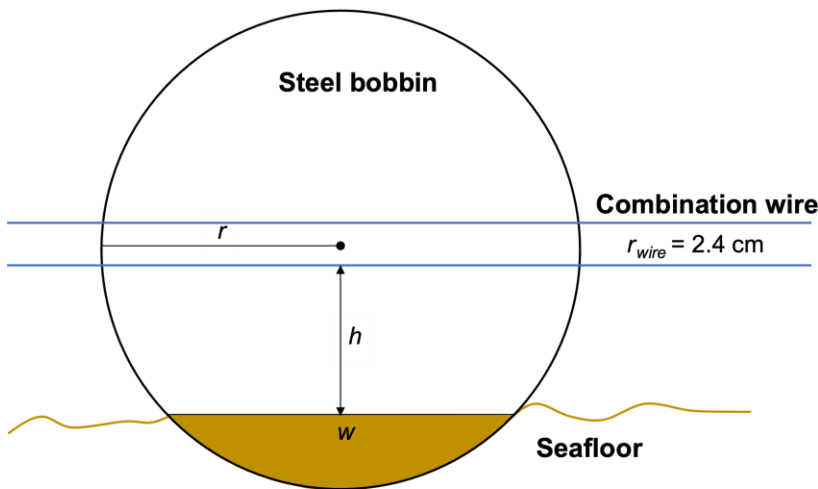


### Semi-pelagic Trawl



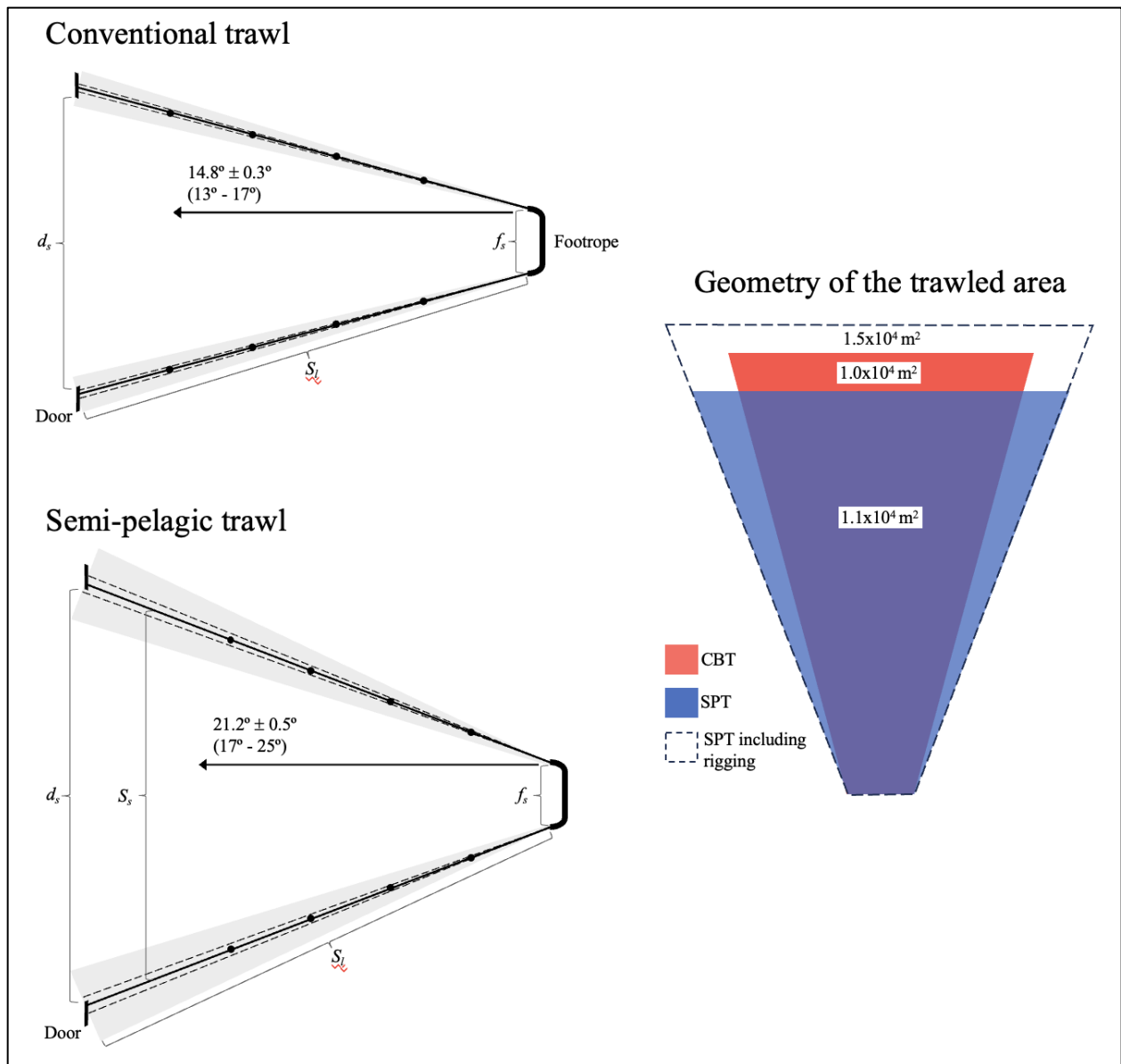
**Figure 3.** Conventional and semi-pelagic trawl gear configurations used during the sea trials.

Numerical values in ( ) are lengths of each section. Drawing is not to scale.

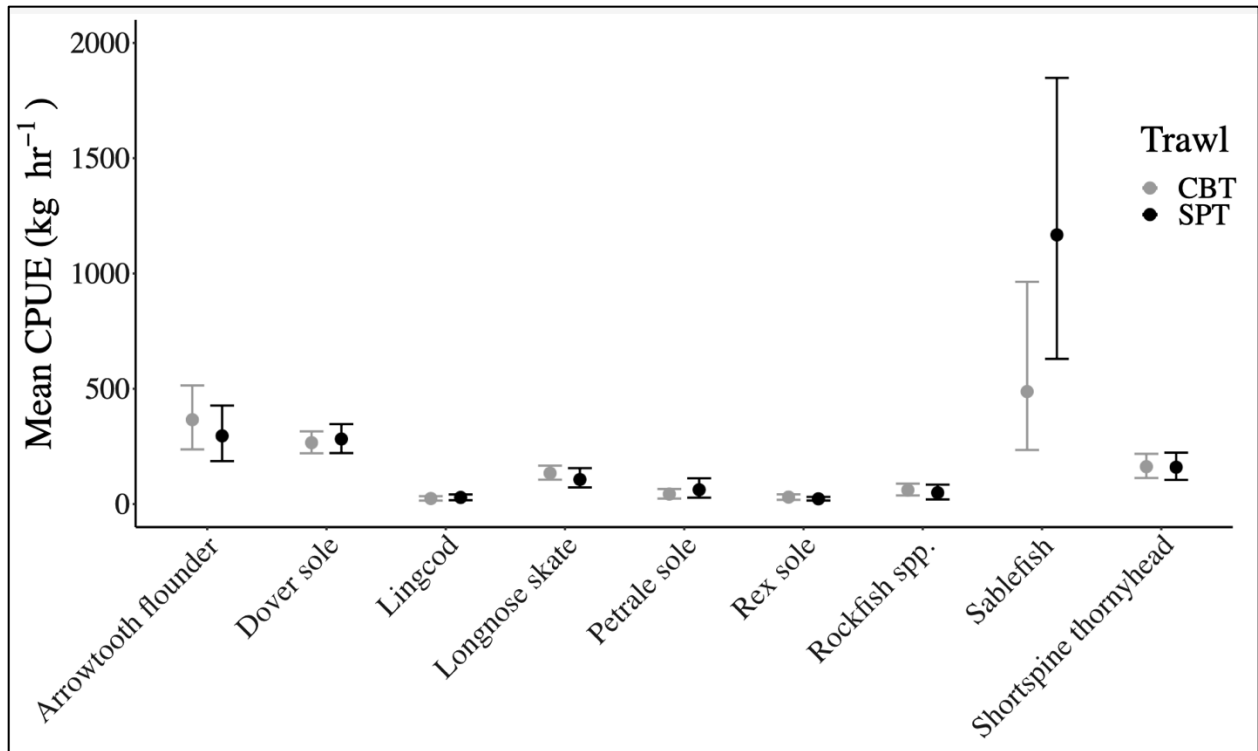


**Figure 4.** Illustration displaying the measurements used in Eq. 4, where  $h$  is the height between the seafloor and bottom of the combination wire,  $r$  is the radius of the bobbin (12.7 cm),  $w$  is the width of the bobbin track measured from the DIDSON sonar footage, and  $r_{\text{wire}}$  is the radius of the combination wire (2.4 cm). Drawing is not to scale.

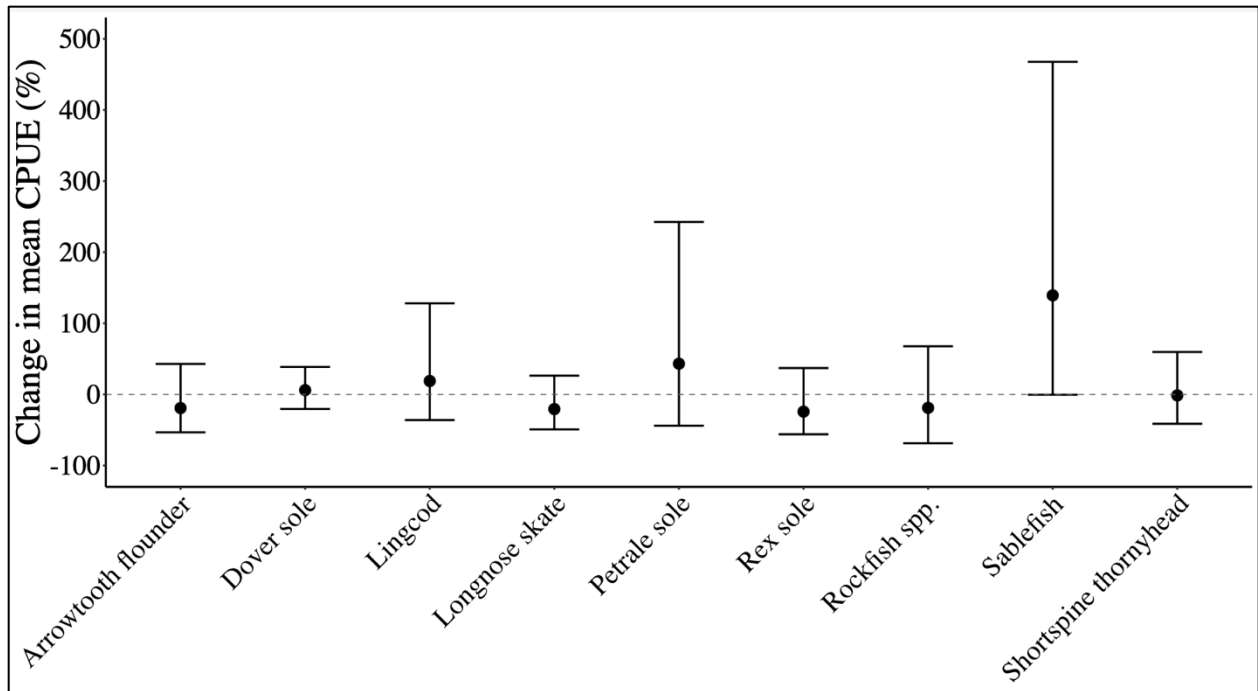




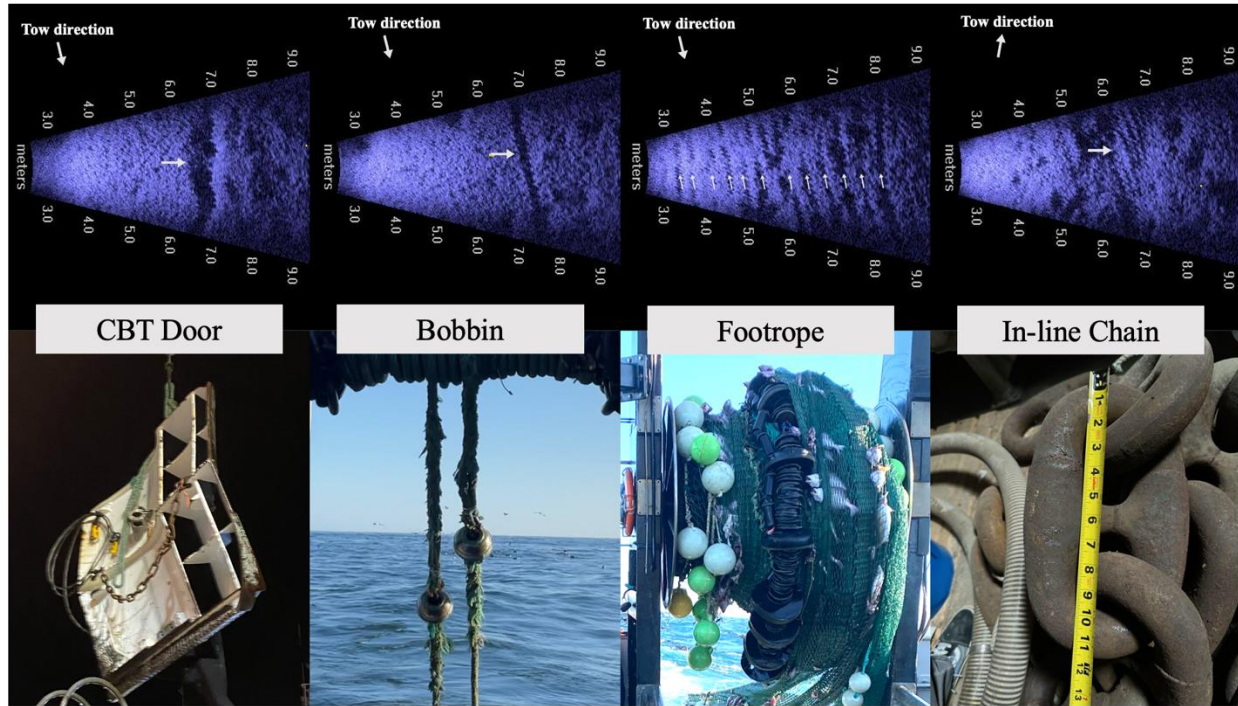
**Figure 5.** Average angle of attack of the sweeps (left) and geometry of the trawled area (right) of each trawl configuration tested. On the left, dashed lines represent standard errors, and the grey ribbon represents the maximum range of calculated sweep angles.  $d_s$  is the door spread distance,  $f_s$  is the footrope spread,  $S_l$  is the total sweep length including any rigging, and  $S_s$  is the estimated sweep spread between the first section of sweeps behind the in-line chain on the semi-pelagic trawl. The superimposed red and blue trapezoids on the right represent the available area between the doors and the footrope for the conventional trawl and semi-pelagic trawl.



**Figure 6.** Mean CPUE of target and commonly landed groundfish species for each trawl configuration tested. Symbols represent the mean and vertical lines are the 95% CLs.



**Figure 7.** Difference in mean CPUE (%) between CBT and SPT configurations. Values above zero denote higher CPUE using the SPT and vice versa for values below zero. Symbols represent the mean and vertical lines are the 95% CLs.



**Figure 8.** DIDSON sonar images (top row) of marks left by each groundgear component of the trawls (bottom row).

**Table 1.** Detail in which the conventional bottom trawl (CBT) and semi-pelagic trawl (SPT) designs were fished.

Date (dd/mm/year)	Trawl fished	Trawl doors used	# of tows
08/09/2021	CBT	Thyborøn type-11	2
09/09/2021	CBT	Thyborøn type-11	4
10/09/2021	SPT	NET Systems midwater 2,000 series	5
11/09/2021	SPT	NET Systems midwater 2,000 series	2
15/09/2021	SPT	NET Systems midwater 2,000 series	4
16/09/2021	SPT	NET Systems midwater 2,000 series	3
17/09/2021	CBT	Thyborøn type-11	4
18/09/2021	CBT	Thyborøn type-11	4
21/09/2021	CBT	Thyborøn type-11	5
22/09/2021	CBT	Thyborøn type-11	4
23/09/2021	SPT	NET Systems midwater 2,000 series	4
24/09/2021	SPT	NET Systems midwater 2,000 series	3

**Table 2.** Mean tow duration, tow spread, bottom depth, and door spread values for conventional bottom trawl and semi-pelagic trawl trials. An asterisk indicates statistically significant differences between trawl design. SE = standard error.

Parameter	Conventional bottom trawl		Semi-pelagic trawl	
	Mean (SE)	Range	Mean (SE)	Range
Tow duration (min.)	62.0 (0.8)	55-70	61.8 (1.8)	30-75
Tow speed (km h <sup>-1</sup> )	4.2 (0.02)	4.0-4.5	4.2 (0.03)	4.0-4.5
Bottom depth (m)	237.0 (9.4)	173-350	232.8 (10.3)	172-337
Door spread (m)	*107.8 (1.6)	97-121	*150.6 (3.2)	128-173

**Table 3.** Altimeter data showing the proportion of time the SPT doors spent on, off, and near the seafloor, and the height off bottom when within 77 cm of the seafloor, during the tow duration. SE = standard error.

Tow	Time on bottom (%)	Time off bottom (%)	Time near bottom (%)	Height off bottom (cm) (SE)
10	0.1	99.9	2.3	51.0 (1.3)
11	0.0	100.0	19.5	62.3 (0.1)
12	0.2	99.8	17.7	61.1 (0.3)
13	0.6	99.4	10.3	56.4 (0.6)
14	0.5	99.5	24.9	58.9 (0.3)
15	0.3	99.7	22.7	57.1 (0.4)
16	3.9	96.1	46.0	52.8 (0.3)
18	0.7	99.3	14.6	53.5 (0.5)
19	0.0	100.0	0.1	47.3 (5.6)
42	0.0	100.0	17.5	62.5 (0.1)
44	0.0	100.0	3.9	62.9 (0.1)
Mean (SE)	0.6 (0.3)	99.6 (0.3)	16.3 (3.6)	57.7 (0.1)