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Reducing cetacean interactions with bottom set-nets and purse seining using acoustic deterrent devices in southern Iberia

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2 **Ana Marçalo^{1*}, Flávia Carvalho¹, Magda Frade¹, Luís Bentes¹, Pedro Monteiro¹, João Pontes¹,**
3 **Sofia Alexandre¹, Frederico Oliveira¹, Allen Kingston², Karim Erzini¹, Jorge MS Gonçalves¹**

4

5 ¹Centre of Marine Sciences (CCMAR), Universidade do Algarve, Campus de Gambelas, FCT Ed. 7,
6 8005-139 Faro, Portugal

7

8 ² Sea Mammal Research Unit, Scottish Oceans Institute, University of St Andrews, St Andrews, UK

9

10 **Correspondence:**

11 * Ana Marçalo, Centre of Marine Sciences (CCMAR), Universidade do Algarve, Campus de
12 Gambelas, FCT Ed. 7, 8005-139 Faro, Portugal. Email: amarcalo@ualg.pt

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23 **Abstract**

24 In southern Iberia (NE Atlantic), cetacean bycatch is reported in several fisheries, while depredation
25 by bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops truncatus*) is commonly observed in bottom-set net fisheries. This
26 study tested the effectiveness of acoustic deterrent devices in discouraging small cetaceans from
27 approaching bottom set-nets and purse seine, to reduce interactions. The acoustic deterrent devices
28 used in the study were dolphin deterrent devices and dolphin interactive devices for the bottom set-net
29 fishery to reduce dolphin bycatch and depredation, and dolphin deterrent devices in the purse seine
30 fishery to reduce common dolphin (*Delphinus delphis*) bycatch. Data collection was carried out by at-
31 sea observers and trained fishing vessel crew observers. Hauls with and without acoustic deterrent
32 devices were compared and analyzed to investigate differences in catch per unit effort, factors affecting
33 the interaction, probability of interaction and habituation (in bottom set-nets only). In bottom set-nets,
34 the depredation rate was significantly lower and reduced by about 50 % in hauls using acoustic
35 deterrent devices. Habituation of the bottlenose dolphins to the devices was observed but was gradual.
36 In the purse seine fishery, common dolphin bycatch was reduced by 100 % when using the acoustic
37 deterrent devices. Overall, the results are promising, but the different interaction reduction efficiencies
38 observed between gear types, indicate that the potential application of acoustic deterrent devices should
39 be considered on a métier-by-métier basis. Other mitigation measures should be developed, especially
40 for static gears, in collaboration with the fishing sector in an inclusive management approach to reduce
41 direct interactions between fisheries and cetaceans.

42

43 **KEYWORDS**

44 acoustic deterrent devices, bottom set-nets, bycatch, cetaceans, depredation, habituation, mitigation,
45 purse seine, Southern Iberia

46

47 **1 | INTRODUCTION**

48 Direct and indirect interactions between fishing gears and cetaceans occur when fishing grounds
49 overlap with the cetaceans' preferred feeding habitats. Direct interactions occur when cetaceans come
50 into contact with fishing gear, potentially resulting in bycatch often leading to serious injury or even
51 mortality (Northridge & Hofman, 1999; Read 2008; Jog et al., 2022). These interactions represent a
52 conservation concern as they pose a threat to certain cetacean populations, particularly if bycatch
53 surpasses the population's capacity to maintain their abundance levels (Read 2008). Another form of
54 direct interaction is depredation, where cetaceans interfere with fishing activities by preying on the fish
55 caught resulting in economic loss for fishers due to damaged gear and/or reduced catch (Brotons, Grau
56 & Rendell, 2008; Bearzi & Reeves 2022). Indirect interactions result from fishery-induced changes to
57 ecosystem dynamics, such as resource competition, which can lead to prey depletion (Kaschner &
58 Pauly, 2005; Alexandre et al., 2022) and impact cetacean behaviour and distribution (Aguilar, 2000).

59
60 Cetacean bycatch occurs when individuals are accidental entangled, trapped, or hooked in fishing gear.
61 Bycatch events have been reported in various gear types (FAO, 2021; ICES, 2022), with drivers of
62 incidental capture being mostly related to gear operational aspects (e.g. gear type, fishing practices,
63 location, fishing effort and crew awareness) and target species, which may also be the main prey for
64 certain megafauna species (Kaschner & Pauly, 2005; Plagányi & Butterworth, 2009). In Europe,
65 cetacean bycatch is most commonly associated with purse seining, bottom set-nets (gillnets and
66 trammel nets) and pelagic trawls (Marçalo et al., 2015; Dias et al., 2022; ICES, 2022). Meanwhile,
67 depredation is associated with artisanal static net fisheries (Bearzi, 2002; Cox et al. 2004; Read, 2008;
68 Brotons, Grau & Rendell, 2008; Gönener & Özdemir, 2012; Rechimont et al., 2018; Revuelta et al.,
69 2018), with reports indicating that some fishers respond by taking retaliatory measures against
70 cetaceans (Gazo, Gonzalvo & Aguilar, 2008; Read, 2008; Wells & Scott, 2009; Revuelta et al., 2018).

71

72 In Portuguese mainland waters, bycatch predominantly occurs in gillnets and trammel nets, with the
73 common dolphin (*Delphinus delphis*), the most abundant cetacean species, being most affected (Silva
74 & Sequeira 2003; Gilles et al. 2023; Marçalo et al. 2024). Studies have identified areas of significant
75 habitat overlap between cetaceans and the Portuguese purse seine fishing fleet, particularly when
76 targeting sardine (*Sardina pilchardus*), a primary prey of common dolphins, leading to frequent
77 interactions and incidental bycatch (Wise et al., 2018; Marçalo et al., 2015; Dias et al., 2022).
78 Additionally, research has documented cetacean-fishery interactions across various fisheries and
79 estimated bycatch rates (Goetz et al., 2014; Alexandre et al., 2022). Bottlenose dolphins (*Tursiops*
80 *truncatus*) are also known to frequently interact with coastal commercial fisheries, often due to
81 depredation events in bottom-set nets, particularly gillnets and trammel nets targeting species such as
82 hake (*Merluccius merluccius*) or red mullet (*Mullus surmuletus*) (Alexandre et al., 2022; Marçalo et
83 al., 2024). These issues are especially pronounced in southern Portugal, which, due to its proximity to
84 the Mediterranean, faces similar challenges to those reported in Mediterranean fisheries, where such
85 interactions are a common source of conflict (Bearzi, 2002; Cox et al., 2004; Brotons, Grau & Rendell,
86 2008; Read, 2008; Gönener & Özdemir, 2012).

87
88 To address such interactions, two types of acoustic deterrent devices (ADDs), that should be chosen
89 according to the cetacean species that has been interacting with the gear, have been developed by
90 companies: low-intensity devices that emit low frequencies (<150-160 dB), mostly used to reduce
91 bycatch of small cetaceans; and louder devices emitting higher frequencies (>132-185 dB) to reduce
92 cetacean bycatch and discourage depredation, with studies indicating no significant impact on target
93 fish catch rates (Dawson et al., 2013; Hamilton & Baker, 2019). Over time, ADDs have evolved in
94 peak frequency, signal length, and source level, incorporating random periodicity and varied intensity
95 of frequency to address responding the growing challenges of reducing cetacean interactions in specific

96 fisheries of concern, such as gillnet fisheries (Waples et al., 2013; Dawson et al., 2013, Puente et al.
97 23).

98
99 Studies have shown significant success in using ADDs in various regions to reduced bycatch of harbour
100 porpoises (*Phocoena phocoena*) in the United States and Europe (Kraus et al., 1997; Trippel et al.,
101 1999; Palka et al., 2008; Carlström, Berggren & Tregenza, 2009; Gönener & Bilgin, 2009; Larsen,
102 Krog & Ritzau, 2013; van Beest et al., 2017), franciscana (*Pontoporia blainvillei*) in Argentina
103 (Bordino et al., 2002), beaked whales in the United States (Carretta, Barlow & Enriquez, 2008) and
104 small cetaceans (e.g. common dolphin) in California (Barlow & Cameron, 2003) and Peru (Alfaro-
105 Shigueto et al., 2010). However, some trials have reported limited efficacy of ADDs with certain
106 studies showing no deterrent effect (Stephenson & Wells, 2008; Berrow et al. 2009; López & Marinó,
107 2011; Santana-Garcon et al., 2018). Research on bottlenose dolphins, in particular, have shown varied
108 results, ranging from significant reductions in direct interactions (Gazo, Gonzalvo & Aguilar, 2008;
109 Waples et al., 2013; Ceciariini et al., 2023), to cases where ADDs had no deterrent effect (Cox et al.,
110 2004; McPherson et al., 2004; Erbe et al., 2016) and even reports of bycatch in nets equipped with
111 active devices (Ana Marçalo pers. Comm.; Northridge, Vernicos & Raitos-Exarchopolous, 2003;
112 Read & Waples, 2010). This inconsistency in effectiveness suggests that the utility of ADDs is likely
113 influenced by specific factors such as area, species, and gear type (Hamilton & Baker, 2019). In
114 addition to effectiveness concerns, the use of ADDs raises welfare issues, as these devices may lead to
115 habitat exclusion causing cetaceans to avoid essential areas. To mitigate these risks, European
116 regulations now impose limits on ADD sound intensity and frequency to help reduce potential
117 physiological impacts on cetaceans while still effectively deterring bycatch (Dawson et al., 2013;
118 Hamilton & Baker, 2019). The potential welfare implications highlights the importance of
119 implementing carefully tailored and context-specific approaches when using ADDs as a sustainable
120 mitigation tool.

121

122 Given the high levels of documented cetacean-fishery interactions along the Portuguese mainland
123 coast, this study focused on bottom set-nets and purse seines—the two gears with the most significant
124 records of direct conflict with cetaceans (Marçalo et al., 2015, 2024; Alexandre et al., 2022; Dias et
125 al., 2022; ICES, 2022). Over a three-year period, pilot mitigation trials were conducted as part of two
126 projects along the south coast of Portugal (NE Atlantic, FAO Division 27.9.a.) to evaluate the
127 effectiveness of loud acoustic deterrent devices (ADDs) in reducing cetacean interactions with bottom
128 set-nets (gillnet and trammel net) and purse seine fisheries. This study aimed at determining whether
129 ADDs could reduce cetacean bycatch and depredation by bottlenose dolphins in bottom set-nets and
130 bycatch of common dolphins in purse seines. In addition, we assessed the potential for habituation –
131 the gradual reduction in cetacean response to the acoustic signals over time - which may lessen the
132 deterrent effect of the devices. We also investigated whether the use of ADDs could lead to habitat
133 exclusion, where cetaceans might avoid areas where devices are deployed, potentially altering their
134 natural behavior or habitat use. Finally, we examined the potential impact of the use of ADDs on the
135 commercial catch per unit effort (CPUE) in both fisheries, providing insights into the broader
136 implications of ADDs as a sustainable mitigation tool.

137

138 **2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS**

139 **2.1 | Study area**

140 The study area included the waters off southern mainland Portugal (Figure 1), also known as the
141 Algarve. The study area comprises a small area in the south-west coast (~50 km extension), from
142 Odeceixe (37°26' N - 8°47' W) to Cape São Vicente (37°1' N - 8°59' W), and the Southern coast (~170
143 km extension), from Cape São Vicente to Vila Real de Santo António (37°11' N - 7°25' W). This
144 coastal region has a very narrow continental shelf (5–20 km wide) influenced locally by upwelling
145 events that occur mostly in the south-western area.

146

147 **2.2 | Fleet characterization and target gears for trials**

148 The Portuguese fishing fleet is composed of around 3100 licensed vessels, with around 80 % classified
149 as “local” vessels, a designation for those under 9 meters in length (DGRM, 2022). These local vessels
150 predominantly operate as multi-gear vessels, using a variety of fishing methods including gillnets and
151 trammel nets, longlines, pots and traps and less frequently purse seines. Vessels with ≥ 9 meters in
152 length are categorized as “coastal” vessels. The coastal fleet is more diverse, including multi-gear
153 vessels as well as large purse seiners, bottom trawlers and offshore vessels that operate in international
154 waters, such as longliners. Both local and coastal multi-gear vessels target a range of pelagic and
155 demersal species, while purse seiners specifically target small schooling pelagic fish, including sardine
156 (*Sardina pilchardus*), horse mackerels (*Trachurus* spp.), Atlantic chub mackerel (*Scomber colias*) and
157 European anchovy (*Engraulis encrasicolus*). Around 30 % of the national fleet is based in the Algarve
158 (INE, 2023). For the mitigation trials, selection of vessels operating bottom-set nets and purse seines
159 was randomised within a subset of fishers with whom trust bonds exist (Table 1) and the number of
160 ADDs available. The chosen vessels made daily fishing trips.

161

162 **2.3 | Data collection and monitoring**

163 Data on cetacean bycatch and depredation were collected using two methods: (1) At-Sea Observers
164 (SO) and (2) Vessel crew Observers (VO). SOs were trained biologists who went on board to collect
165 data, VOs were crew members, normally skippers, that were trained by the SOs to collect data. For
166 VO, paper logbooks were designed specifically for the trials and were filled in voluntarily by the
167 skippers of the vessels participating in the trials. For both methods, data collected included: fishing
168 gear configurations (including gear dimensions and mesh size), environmental conditions (Beaufort
169 wind and Douglas sea state scales), vessel activities (timing of fishing operations - net shooting,
170 hauling, and soaking times), location at the beginning of the haul, fish caught (weight in kg per species),

171 cetacean presence and cetacean species identification in the vicinity of the boat during fishing
172 operations and type of interaction (bycatch with or without mortality and/or depredation).

173

174 We monitored fishing hauls with (experimental) and without (control) the use of acoustic deterrent
175 devices (ADDs). Although the decision to deploy ADDs was at the discretion of the fishers during the
176 testing period, they tended to use the devices more frequently in métiers or when targeting species with
177 higher interaction rates, such as hake and red mullet in bottom-set nets (Marçalo et al., 2024) or sardine
178 in purse seines (Marçalo et al., 2015; Dias et al., 2022). Recognizing this potential for bias, we
179 implemented regular oversight to balance the data collection process. Scientific Observers (SOs)
180 conducted weekly onboard visits to guide and monitor Voluntary Observers (VOs), verifying that
181 control hauls and experimental hauls using ADDs were conducted consistently across different times
182 and areas. While we acknowledge that full control over fisher choices in an operational setting is
183 challenging, this strategy allowed us to achieve a balanced and representative dataset for analysis. An
184 increased SO effort during the initial testing year (2019) was intentional, aimed at selecting and training
185 vessel crew members to ensure effective data collection.

186

187 Depredation by bottlenose dolphins was assessed based on visible signs of damage to both fish and
188 gear, whether or not the animals were observed near the vessels. Distinctive indicators include: 1)
189 partially consumed catches, often with the head intact and identifiable bottlenose teeth marks; and 2)
190 cases where the entire prey is consumed, leaving noticeable tears or holes in the nets, as bottlenose
191 dolphins typically tear through the net to feed on entangled prey (Revuelta et al., 2018; Marçalo et al.,
192 2024).

193

194 **2.4 | Equipment – Acoustic devices**

195 The ADDs used in this study were “Dolphin Deterrent Devices” (DDD; model DDD 03), and “Dolphin
196 interactive Devices” (DiD), produced and distributed by STM Products (Italy). The DDD 03 is an
197 electronic device with a microprocessor of 16 bits that controls the emission circuit for randomized
198 signals. These ADDs activate when submerged in water, where the sounds start being emitted with
199 sequences of random frequencies that vary from 5 to 500 kHz and a potency of emission not higher
200 than 165 dB (1 μ Pa@1m). The random frequencies should decrease habituation. The DiD model is an
201 upgrade of the DDD with an internal function that only activates the acoustic emissions when any
202 cetaceans (species not specified by the manufacturer) are in the vicinity, and not when it falls into the
203 water (<https://www.stm-products.com/en/products/fishing-technology>). For bottom set-nets (gillnets
204 and trammel nets), both the DDD 03N and the DiD models were used, whereas for purse seine nets
205 only the DDD 03H model was used. Their application followed the recommendations of the
206 manufacturer with some adaptations as explained in section 2.5. These models were chosen and used
207 taking into account the statement of the manufacturer affirming that they are certified as not being
208 physiologically harmful to cetaceans or fish.

209

210 **2.5 | Experimental design**

211 **2.5.1 | Bottom set-nets**

212 Bottom-set net trials were conducted along the Algarve coast, off Quarteira, Olhão, Culatra Island,
213 Portimão and Monte Gordo, from June 2019 to June 2022 (Table 1). The ADDs were applied to the
214 bottom set-nets with the aim to reduce bycatch and depredation by bottlenose dolphins (Alexandre et
215 al., 2022; Marçalo et al., 2024). According to information from fishers from previous studies,
216 depredation resulting in loss of catch and gear damage is most frequent in fisheries targeting hake, red
217 mullets, occasionally soles (*Solea* spp.), and cuttlefish (*Sepia officinalis*; Alexandre et al., 2022), so
218 we focused the bottom set-net trials on vessels targeting those species (Table 1).

219

220 The spacing of ADDs on the bottom set-nets followed a consistent design across all trials conducted
221 (Supplementary Figure 1A), to make sure the performance of the acoustic devices remained unaffected.
222 The DDD 03N model was attached to the nets at intervals of 400 meters, while the DiD model was
223 attached every 800 meters, which was the maximum distance recommended by the manufacturer. SO
224 monitoring effort was used to ensure battery autonomy and performance (battery duration was, on
225 average, 48 hours soaking time), checking for battery life span with a voltmeter and training fishers in
226 this process. When charging was needed, the devices were collected, charged, and delivered back to
227 fishers. From 2021 onwards, battery chargers were delivered to fishers together with a battery life
228 protocol based on the previously tested average battery charge duration.

229

230 **2.5.2 | Purse seine nets**

231 The purse seine trials were conducted along the Algarve coast, off Olhão, Portimão, and Sagres, in
232 2021 and 2022, during the peak sardine (*Sardina pilchardus*) fishing season (mid-spring to early
233 autumn). This period corresponds to increased fishing effort and a heightened risk of common dolphin
234 (*Delphinus delphis*) bycatch (Marçalo et al., 2015; Dias et al., 2022). Information on the number of
235 vessels participating in the trial is presented in Table 1. The manufacturer suggested the use of 3 ADDs
236 per purse seine net, one of them attached to the seiner, which required hanging ropes that could lead to
237 unwanted entanglements in the vessel propeller and detrimental implications during the setting of the
238 net. After a preliminary consultation with skippers, it was decided to use just one ADD for practical
239 reasons. This protocol was maintained up to the end of the trials, as one ADD showed good results and
240 covered the range of the diameter of the net. After the initial trips when the SOs checked for battery
241 life span and delivered a battery charging protocol to the fishers, each unique vessel was equipped with
242 one ADD and one charger. The ADD was connected at the end of a 10 meters rope, taken by the fisher
243 in the skiff and put in the water in the beginning of net shooting. Since the ADD remained in the water

244 only during the shooting and encircling, the soak time of the device was no longer than 4-5 minutes
245 (Please check diagram on DDD application in a purse seiner in supplementary Figure 1B).

246

247 **2.6 | Analysis**

248

249 In this study, due to the high incidence of hauls with zero interactions, we employed a two-stage model,
250 commonly known as the "hurdle model", applied in previous studies, particularly following the
251 approach of Puente et al. (2023). Separate models were developed for bottom set-nets and purse seine.
252 For bottom set-nets, we only tested for depredation due to the rarity of bycatch events. We used
253 Generalized Additive Models for Location, Scale, and Shape (GAMLSS) with a two-stage “Zero
254 Adjusted Poisson” (ZAP) distribution and logit link function to analyse the presence and absence of
255 interaction in both fisheries. This approach using the gamlss.dist R package allowed us to: (1) Model
256 the probability of the occurrence of direct interactions (bycatch) in purse seine nets, and depredation
257 in bottom set-nets with a logistic Generalized Linear Model (GLM); (2) For the hauls where direct
258 interactions did occur, estimate the intensity or count of interaction events (such as the number of
259 depredation events or individuals caught) using a zero-truncated Poisson GLM. The probability of
260 having an interaction event (bycatch in purse seine nets, and depredation in bottom set-nets) was
261 analysed using a binomial test considering the presence-absence of cetacean interaction for
262 experimental hauls (with ADDs) and control hauls (without ADDs), obtaining 95% confidence
263 intervals.

264

265 To assess the factors influencing cetacean depredation in bottom-set nets, we analysed several
266 explanatory variables in control hauls, including latitude, longitude, depth, year, season, month,
267 soaking time, total CPUE, CPUE of striped red mullet, CPUE of hake, and observer type (SO or VO).
268 Starting with a model that included all explanatory variables, we used backwards selection to identify

269 the best model (i.e. each time the least important non-significant variable was dropped, and the model
270 was re-run). The best model was the one that presented the lowest Akaike Information Criterion value
271 [AIC, (Akaike, 1974)].

272

273 ADD efficiency, a variable to predict habituation, was estimated for bottom set-nets by dividing the
274 number of fishing operations where ADDs were used and where no depredation occurred by the total
275 number of fishing operations where ADDs were used. Polynomial regressions were used to determine
276 the rate of efficiency of the ADDs.

277

278 Catch per Unit Effort (CPUE) was calculated by dividing the total catch by fishing effort. For bottom
279 set-nets fishing effort was considered as the soaking time; for purse seine, fishing effort was considered
280 as the time from the beginning of the search to the end of the fishing activity, marked by the end of
281 fish transfer to the vessel (Marçalo et al., 2015). To test the potential influence of ADDs on commercial
282 catches, square-root transformed CPUEs were compared between hauls with and without ADDs in
283 both fisheries. Although we used the non-parametric Mann-Whitney test due to failed normality tests,
284 the square root transformation was applied to reduce variability and improve data interpretability,
285 thereby minimizing potential skewness and outlier influence. A significance level of 0.05 was used in
286 all tests.

287

288 All analyses were performed using the R software (R Core Team, 2016) and maps were created using
289 QGIS (Version 3.10.0; QGIS Development Team, 2019).

290

291 **3 | RESULTS**

292 **3.1 | Bottom set-nets**

293 **3.1.1 | Effort and cetacean observations during fishing operations**

294 A total of 877 trips in bottom set-nets (gillnets and trammel nets) were monitored (each trip represented
295 a fishing day with one haul). The total effort for each ADD model was 360 days/hauls (151 days/hauls
296 control plus 209 days/hauls with device) for DiD and 517 days/hauls (185 days/hauls control plus 332
297 days/hauls with device) for DDD (Table 2). Monitoring effort (number of hauls with or without ADDs)
298 showed greater seasonal discrepancies in 2019 and 2022, as both were incomplete years (trials began
299 in late June in 2019 and finished in June 2022). Soaking times were extended during hauls using DiDs,
300 particularly in trials targeting hake, leading to longer gear deployment in the water. In the bottom set-
301 net fishery, cetaceans were observed during 18.4% of control hauls and 13.6% of hauls using DDDs.
302 Conversely, in hauls with DiDs, cetaceans were sighted more frequently, with 50.3% of control hauls
303 and 80.9% of hauls using DiDs reporting cetacean presence. All observations occurred during hauling
304 operations, with cetaceans (all bottlenose dolphins) seen from near the vessel to a maximum distance
305 of 50 meters. Of all trips monitored, SO effort was 22% in 2019 and about 8 - 9% from 2020 to 2022,
306 with the remaining trips being monitored by vessel crew observers (VO).

307

308

309 **3.1.2 | Probability of interaction**

310 Interaction with bottom set-nets, either depredation or bycatch, occurred along the whole study area in
311 both control (Figure 1A) and experimental (Figure 1B) hauls. It is worth noting that bycatch
312 occurrences were relatively rare, with only four animals being captured during the trials (Table 2).
313 Three of these animals were captured in control hauls, while one animal was captured in a haul with a
314 DiD device. However, it should be noted that during the haul using the DiD where the bycatch
315 occurred, an onboard SO confirmed that the device closest to the animal was not functional.
316 Depredation was observed in 9.9% (CI 7.2 -13.6%) of the hauls using DDDs, compared to 20.5 % (CI
317 14.7-26.4%) in the control treatment. Similarly, during trials using DiDs, depredation occurred in

318 18.2% (CI 13.2-24.1%) of hauls, versus 36.6% (CI 29.0-44.8%) in the control treatment. These
319 differences were assessed using binomial testing, considering the presence or absence of cetacean
320 depredation across treatments. The results showed significantly lower depredation rates in hauls using
321 ADDs compared to control hauls, with a 48% reduction in depredation probability for DDDs and 50%
322 for DiDs. Further statistical analysis using the GAMLSS model showed that the number of hauls with
323 depredation was significantly different between control and experimental treatments (GAMLSS, $p <$
324 0.01 for both types of ADDs). This indicates that the use of ADDs significantly reduced the occurrence
325 of depredation in bottom set-nets by bottlenose dolphins (Table 3).

326

327 **3.1.3 | Factors affecting the interaction**

328 Table 4 summarizes the model results during control hauls. For DDD control hauls, bottlenose dolphin
329 depredation showed a slight positive relationship with year, a stronger positive relationship with
330 latitude and vessel, and a negative relationship with the CPUE of red mullet. The best-fitting model,
331 selected based on the lowest AIC value, explained 12.2% of the observed deviance. For DiD control
332 hauls, depredation was negatively associated with the CPUE of hake and positively associated with
333 latitude, with the final model explaining 5.4% of the deviance.

334

335 **3.1.4 | Acoustic device efficiency**

336 Throughout the period of the trials, the effectiveness of both ADDs in reducing depredation in bottom
337 set-nets showed a decreasing trend (Figure 2A). Initially, in 2019, both models achieved efficiencies
338 above 90%. However, by 2022, the efficiency of the DiD had decreased to 77 %, while the DDD's
339 efficiency decreased to 73 %. Regarding seasonal variation, the efficiency of ADDs showed distinct
340 patterns (Figure 2B). The DiD model demonstrated higher efficiency during spring, while the DDD
341 model was more effective during summer and autumn. Indeed, at the conclusion of the three-year trial,

342 it is clear that both ADD models achieved an overall average efficiency above 70%. Despite the
343 observed seasonal variations in their effectiveness, the combined data from the entire trial period
344 demonstrates that both DiD and DDD models consistently achieved a considerable level of efficiency
345 in reducing depredation in bottom set-nets.

346

347 **3.1.5 | Catch per unit effort**

348 When comparing the total CPUE between hauls with and without ADDs, for both DDD and DiD
349 models (Figure 3a and 3b, respectively), a significant difference was observed in the trial involving
350 DDDs (Mann-Whitney test; $P < 0.001$), where experimental hauls showed higher CPUE values.
351 Meanwhile, no significant CPUE differences were found between control and experimental hauls using
352 DiDs (Mann-Whitney test; $P = 0.096$). Furthermore, when comparing CPUE between net hauls with
353 and without depredation occurrences (Figure 3c), regardless of the type of treatment (with or without
354 ADD), CPUE was significantly lower in hauls experiencing depredation (Mann-Whitney test; $P <$
355 0.001).

356

357 **3.2 | Purse seine**

358 **3.2.1 | Effort and cetacean observations during fishing operations**

359 A total of 461 fishing days/trips (518 hauls) were monitored in the purse seine fishery. Control (Figure
360 1C) and experimental (Figure 1D) treatments were distributed across the same fishing areas. Table 2
361 shows the total effort for each treatment, where 268 hauls were controls, and 250 hauls used ADDs.
362 All cetacean sighted were common dolphins, which were mainly observed post-net shooting and during
363 hauling. These sightings were observed in 18% of control hauls and 14% of experimental hauls. It is
364 important to note that common dolphins when sighted during the experimental treatments were only
365 seen after fishing operations were finished, when the ADD had already been removed from the water.
366 Bycatch was observed only in control hauls (6%; Figure 1C). Of the 38 bycaught animals, 29 were

367 released alive (post release mortality rates are unknown) and 9 were already dead when observed by
368 the fishers. SO effort was 8% in 2020 and 4% in 2021, the remaining trips were monitored by VOs
369 (Supplementary Table 1).

370

371 Monitoring effort during the trials increased in the second year as more vessels actively participated,
372 leading to a higher number of monitored trips and hauls. This increase can be attributed to the positive
373 perception among fishers regarding the successful prevention of common dolphin bycatch events when
374 using the DDDs. As a result, fishers became more motivated to use these devices during their fishing
375 operations, leading to a significant increase in the adoption of this preventive measure. In the meantime,
376 SO's, when present, made efforts to reinforce the need for control hauls to equilibrate the treatments.

377

378 **3.2.2 | Probability of interaction**

379 The binomial analysis investigating the presence and absence of cetacean bycatch in the purse seine
380 fishery confirmed that hauls with ADDs had a significantly lower bycatch rate. On average, direct
381 interactions occurred in 0 % (CI 0 -1.5 %) of hauls using the ADDs, compared to 5.6 % (CI 3.2 – 9.1
382 %) of hauls in the control group. Further analysis using the GAMLSS model showed that the number
383 of hauls with bycatch was significantly different between control and experimental treatments, with
384 hauls equipped with ADDs showing a significantly lower occurrence of common dolphin bycatch in
385 purse seine nets (GAMLSS, $p < 0.01$; Table 3). This outcome highlights the effectiveness of ADDs in
386 reducing the likelihood of cetacean bycatch during purse seine operations.

387

388 **3.2.3 | Catch per unit effort**

389 Considering all purse seine net hauls monitored during the trial, the medians of the Catch Per Unit
390 Effort (CPUE) of the main target species of this fishery (sardine), showed a significant difference
391 (Mann-Whitney test, $P < 0.001$) between hauls with and without ADDs (Figure 3d). CPUE values were

392 higher when using ADDs, indicating that the presence of ADDs positively influenced the catch rates
393 of sardines. Focusing on the subset of hauls where cetaceans were observed during fishing operations,
394 CPUE of sardines was significantly higher when using the ADDs compared to the control hauls (Mann-
395 Whitney test; $P = 0.017$; Figure 3e).

396

397

398 **4 | DISCUSSION**

399 The mitigation trials conducted with two distinct fishing gears (bottom set-nets and purse seine nets),
400 have provided valuable insights into the efficacy of DDDs and DiDs as mitigation tools in Southern
401 Atlantic Iberia. The use of ADDs within each specific fishery demonstrated a substantial reduction in
402 negative interactions between cetaceans and the fishing gears. It is important to note that this study is
403 the first to report on the use of DDDs in purse seine fishery. The extended temporal scope of this study
404 (3 years) allowed for an analysis of the potential habituation of the animals to the devices and an
405 assessment of animal presence near the vessels. These observations are crucial for understanding
406 possible habitat exclusion, a concern associated with the use of ADDs (Omeyer et al., 2020). The
407 potential displacement of cetaceans from their usual habitat demands for a comprehensive evaluation
408 of the broader ecological implications of ADDs (Kolipakam et al., 2022).

409

410 Direct interactions between fisheries and cetaceans depend on several variables such as the cetacean
411 species, fishing operation, area, and sea conditions (Dawson et al., 2013). Therefore, mitigation
412 measures that are successful in some areas may not be appropriate for others, which makes mitigating
413 these conflicts a continuous challenge. Acoustic measures have been used for decades, an array of
414 different ADD models have been developed to deter different species of cetaceans from approaching
415 fishing gears (Dawson et al., 2013; Coram et al., 2014). DDDs and DiDs have primarily been used in

416 short-term trials in trawl and bottom set-net fisheries in the European Atlantic, Mediterranean waters,
417 and Australia (Morizur et al., 2009; De Carlo et al., 2012; Santana-Garcon et al., 2018; Ceciari
418 2023; Puente et al., 2023), with mixed outcomes regarding reduction of cetacean bycatch and
419 depredation.

420

421 In the context of bottom set-nets, this three-year study revealed a notable decrease in depredation rates
422 when using ADDs. The implementation of both DiDs and DDDs culminated in an approximate 50 %
423 reduction in depredation rates across various métiers, showcasing the efficiency of these devices in
424 mitigating cetacean depredation. Some inferences could be taken from bycatch as well, revealing
425 higher bycatch in the control hauls. However, despite hundreds of monitored fishing operations, the
426 low rates of bycatch occurrence and low variance in the GAMLSS models for the bottom set-net fishery
427 for both ADD models tested, highlights the need for caution when replicating these mitigation trials in
428 other areas or drawing definitive conclusions.

429

430 In Portuguese waters, bottlenose dolphins are typically a coastal cetacean species known to have a
431 flexible and opportunistic feeding behaviour on highly valuable fish and cephalopod species (Giménez
432 et al., 2017; Ana Marçalo pers. comm.). These are also the target species in several coastal bottom set-
433 net fisheries (Bearzi, 2002; Rechimont et al., 2018; Marçalo et al., 2024), potentially leading to the
434 increase of depredation and/or bycatch. In our study, fishers expressed concerns about the fact that
435 depredation occurred mostly in métiers targeting hake and red mullet, the most valuable species.
436 However, métiers that target other species (i.e. soles) often also catch hake and mullets. As a result,
437 the effort towards these two fish species is high, overlapping with bottlenose dolphin feeding grounds
438 and preferred coastal habitats.

439

440 The presence of bottlenose dolphins and their interaction with bottom set-net fisheries can significantly
441 impact catches and damage fishing gear, ultimately reducing the profitability of these fisheries
442 (Revuelta et al., 2018; Rechimont et al., 2018; Alexandre et al. 2022; Marçalo et al., 2024). In the
443 Alboran Sea, bottlenose dolphins and non-native species have been shown to negatively affect trammel
444 net fisheries, leading to reduced catches and increased gear damage (Baéz et al., 2023). Similarly,
445 spatial and temporal partitioning by resident dolphin species in the Western Mediterranean Sea affects
446 the distribution and availability of target fish species (Torreblanca et al., 2023). Recently, the only
447 study **to date** on bottlenose dolphin depredation in the Algarve region (Marçalo et al., 2024) showed
448 that the impact of depredation might have similar consequences in the south of Portugal, potentially
449 affecting local fish populations and fishing practices. In our present study, the negative correlation
450 observed between depredation events and CPUEs of target fish species, suggesting that lower catch
451 volumes may provoke increased depredation activity, presents an intriguing contrast to findings from
452 Rechimont et al. (2018), where depredation was positively correlated with CPUE, with dolphins
453 preferentially targeting nets with higher catch volumes. This discrepancy highlights the complex
454 interplay between prey availability, dolphin behavior, and environmental factors, underscoring the
455 need for careful interpretation of depredation dynamics, which may vary across fisheries, species, and
456 ecological contexts. As noted previously, CPUE is influenced by numerous factors beyond
457 depredation, including resource availability, crew expertise, fishing area, and temporal oceanographic
458 changes (Chávez-Martínez et al., 2022), all of which could modulate these interactions.

459

460 Mitigation experiments often lack adequate funding for extended periods, preventing robust
461 conclusions regarding animal habituation to the devices or insights into animal welfare (e.g. indirect
462 interactions such as habitat exclusion or unintended harmful effects of the sound produced by the
463 acoustic devices that could be detrimental to the protected species; Cox, Read & Tregenza, 2001;
464 Kolipakam et al., 2022). In this regard, our study provided the opportunity to collect data over an

465 extended period, making the findings and conclusions on ADD performance and cetacean habituation
466 more robust. For instance, the decline in efficiency during the bottom set-net trial period highlights the
467 need for continuous monitoring and potential improvements to maintain the effectiveness of ADDs in
468 mitigating depredation in this fishery. However, an average efficiency above 70% at the end of the
469 three-year trial indicates that the implementation of ADDs can be a valuable and effective approach in
470 mitigating depredation events during fishing operations over an extended period of time.

471

472 Underwater noise associated with these types of ADDs should be taken into consideration and
473 recommendations should be considered for their use (Read, 2021). In static fisheries such as bottom
474 set-nets, which can be several kilometres long, it is wise to restrict the continuous use of this type of
475 alarms wherever possible, for example by using them on a seasonal and métier specific basis (based
476 on higher interaction rates). Mitigation with ADDs should always be considered with caution and not
477 as the only solution, since it may be financially challenging to be applied in small-scale fisheries, and
478 the fact that the large-scale use of ADDs can contribute to noise pollution in the marine environment.
479 Opting for the use of DiDs seems to be a good option as they emit the sound only when dolphins
480 approach the fishing gear, thus limiting noise pollution or potentially slowing habituation of the
481 animals to the devices. However, it is important to note that this interactivity is largely theoretical and
482 should be confirmed through further studies. The current models of DiDs are based on detecting
483 cetacean presence through sound, but advancements in technology, such as AI-based systems (e.g.
484 automated detection of dolphin whistles using convolutional networks, Korkmaz et al., 2023;
485 Scaradozzi et al., 2024), could improve the accuracy and efficiency of such devices. Future research
486 should focus on developing more reliable and interactive pingers to ensure minimal acoustic pollution
487 and greater efficacy in mitigating interactions. Moreover, special care should be taken when
488 considering the use of high frequency ADDs in designated priority areas where sensitive neophobic
489 (timid) species occur, such as the harbour porpoise which, in Iberian waters, holds a critical threatened

490 status (Pierce et al. 2024). In this respect other mitigation options should be considered such as reducing
491 fishing effort of gears with higher interaction risk in seasons of higher abundance of individuals in a
492 particular area (Read, 2021) coupled with seasonal gear shifts (Virgili et al. 2024).

493

494 Despite recent advancements in studying cetacean abundance and distribution along the Portuguese
495 coast (Cañadas et al., 2023; Gilles et al., 2023), our understanding remains somewhat limited. While
496 recent studies have provided valuable insights, the historical lack of comprehensive research has
497 hindered progress in developing ecosystem-based management strategies and delayed the
498 implementation of measures across various regions.

499

500 Regarding the purse seine fishery, the study encompassed two consecutive years characterized by
501 enhanced fishing activity when targeting sardines, which occurs mostly from late spring to early
502 autumn and peaks in the summer months when the resource is more expensive. Furthermore, sardines
503 are also one of the primary prey species of common dolphins in the area (Marçalo et al., 2018).
504 Consequently, the periods of higher fishing effort coincide with the peak occurrences of common
505 dolphin bycatch (Marçalo et al., 2015; Dias et al., 2022). Our trials indicated that incidental captures
506 occurred exclusively in control hauls. The absence of bycatch events in hauls using ADDs is an
507 important finding, highlighting the effectiveness of these devices in reducing common dolphin bycatch
508 during purse seine fishing operations. Results showed that the use of ADDs not only reduced cetacean
509 bycatch, but also had a positive impact on the catch rates of the target species (sardine). Higher catch
510 rates may be directly related to the reduced presence of cetaceans near the vessels during net setting,
511 as their presence tends to disperse or break up the fish schools (Marçalo et al., 2015). According to
512 Marçalo et al. (2015) and Dias et al. (2022), bycatch of common dolphins occurs in 1-2% of the annual
513 purse seine fishing effort, this corresponds to the bycatch of hundreds of animals per year along the
514 Portuguese mainland coast. Our results showed the successful elimination of bycatch during purse

515 seine fishing operations when using DDDs, with the added benefit that only one DDD needs to be
516 deployed during net setting (encirclement), which usually lasts around five minutes.

517

518 Our study provides preliminary evidence that the use of ADDs in fishing operations does not seem to
519 induce habitat exclusion of dolphins, which is a crucial consideration for ensuring sustainable fisheries
520 management and minimizing disruptions to cetacean populations. The abundance of dolphin sightings
521 during hauls with ADDs, whether during net hauling (in both fisheries) or fish transfer (in purse seining
522 only), challenges the notion that these devices deter cetaceans from the vicinity of fishing vessels.
523 Observations in both fisheries revealed that a significant number of dolphins remained near the vessels
524 during operations involving ADDs. In purse seining, cetaceans, if present during net setting with a
525 DDD, were observed to quickly return to the area once the device was removed from the water,
526 suggesting that their natural behavior was not substantially disrupted by the use of ADDs. However,
527 further research is needed to confirm these observations over longer timeframes and across different
528 environmental contexts. Such insights are vital for ensuring that mitigation tools like ADDs are both
529 effective in reducing bycatch and minimally invasive to cetacean habitats.

530

531 While acknowledging the limitations inherent to our regional pilot study, conducted with a relatively
532 small subset of vessels that represent less than 5% of the national purse seine fleet and less than 1% of
533 the national polyvalent fleet operating bottom set-nets, our findings provide a valuable regional
534 example for the appropriate utilization of ADDs. The conclusions drawn, along with the associated
535 limitations, are particularly relevant within the context of the regional scenario, offering insights that
536 can contribute meaningfully to the broader discussion on cetacean interactions in fisheries
537 management. As a further limitation, it is important to note that our analysis combined gillnet and
538 trammel net data to enhance dataset robustness, with the only discrimination being based on the target
539 species of the métier (either red mullets or hake, used as explanatory variables, as both fish species are

540 the most depredated; Marçalo et al., 2024). While our approach allowed for a comprehensive
541 examination within these specific métiers, it may introduce nuances and complexities that could be
542 better understood through more detailed métier-specific analyses in future studies.

543

544 There is no simple way to mitigate conflicts between fisheries and cetaceans. Nevertheless, there seems
545 to be some consensus that mitigation should be an inclusive process involving all stakeholders
546 (scientists, fishers, governmental entities, and NGO's) to discuss strategies. These strategies rely on
547 changes of behaviour when managing the ocean, from increasing global awareness, using mitigation
548 tools, and reducing fishing effort to increasing surveillance. Similarly, the adoption of good practices
549 on board should be voluntary as governmental impositions are not necessarily well accepted.
550 Mitigation measures to reduce direct interactions with cetaceans must be practical and not consume
551 much time and/or affect the regular fishing operations so that fishers can easily adopt them.

552

553 In the course of both projects (iNOVPESCA and CetAMBICion), several workshops with stakeholders
554 took place, where the results of the mitigation trials were presented and fishers' knowledge and
555 experience added to the discussions. We consider that finding solutions to reduce direct interactions
556 with marine megafauna have to take comprehensive inclusive steps involving the fishing community
557 and take into account the social context, area, type of fishery and target species, on a case-by-case
558 scenario. Moreover, our findings hold broader implications for the conservation of cetaceans, as the
559 collaborative and inclusive approach to mitigation strategies, as well as the successful integration of
560 ADDs into fishing practices, exemplify a promising model for minimizing direct interactions between
561 fisheries and marine megafauna. By fostering a constructive dialogue among scientists, fishers,
562 governmental entities, and NGOs, our study not only contributes with valuable insights to local
563 fisheries but also advocates for a holistic, community-driven approach that can be adapted and scaled
564 for broader conservation efforts.

565

566

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576

577 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

578 The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding
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580

581 **ETHICS AND PERMIT APPROVAL STATEMENT**

582 No approvals were required.

583

584 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

585 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest associated with this work.

586

587 **ORCID**

588 Ana Marçalo 0000-0002-0485-341X
589 Flávia Carvalho 0009-0001-2751-7689
590 Magda Frade 0000-0002-4006-5648
591 Luís Bentes 0000-0001-6884-2886
592 Pedro Monteiro 0000-0003-1446-8256
593 João Pontes 0000-0002-7223-5699
594 Sofia Alexandre 0000-0002-6647-2559
595 Frederico Oliveira 0000-0002-4318 -604X
596 Allen Kingston 0009-0003-8210-2413
597 Karim Erzini 0000-0002-1411-0126
598 Jorge MS Gonçalves 0000-0001-7704-8190

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904 **TABLES**

905

906 **TABLE 1** Number of vessels in the trials by fishery, fishing port, vessel size, métier, device model,
 907 target species and mesh size. A. Project iNOVPESCA; B. Project CetAMBICion; GNS – Set gillnets;
 908 GTR – Trammel nets.

Fishery	Ports	Vessel size	A. N° vessels; Métier; Device model	B. N° vessels; Métier; Device Model	Main target fish species	Mesh size (mm)
Bottom set-nets	Olhão	> 9 m	1; GNS; DiD	2; GNS; DiD	Hake	80
	Culatra	< 9 m	1; GNS, GTR; DDD	2; GNS; DDD	Soles	50, 52, 55
	Quarteira	< 9 m	1; GNS; DDD	1; GNS; DDD	Red mullet	60
	Portimão	> 9m	-	1; GNS; DiD	Red mullet	75
	Monte Gordo	< 9 m	-	2; GNS; DiD	Soles	50, 52, 55
Purse seine	Olhão	> 9m	1; PS; DDD	4; PS; DDD	Pelagic fish (sardines, mackerels, anchovies)	16
	Portimão		2; PS; DDD	3; PS; DDD		
	Sagres		2; PS; DDD	2; PS; DDD		

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921 **TABLE 2** Monitoring effort in trials with two different models of acoustic device (i.e. experimental
 922 treatment) and without (i.e. control treatment) in bottom set-nets and purse seine. Number of trips;
 923 Number of hauls; Depth (mean and standard deviation); Number of hauls with cetacean interaction
 924 (bycatch and depredation) and with presence of cetaceans during fishing operations; Soak time (mean
 925 and standard deviation); TTR – *Tursiops truncatus*, DDE– *Delphinus delphis*. All bycaught animals
 926 were dead upon net retrieval.

Fishery	ADD model	Control	Experimental
	<i>DDD</i>		
Bottom-set nets	Hauls	185	332
	Depth (meters)	29.1 ± 33.6	31.6 ± 37.6
	Soak time (hours)	9.4 ± 10.1	6.0 ± 6.9
	Hauls with cetacean bycatch	1 (1 TTR)	0
	Hauls with cetaceans sighted during fishing operations	34 (18.4%)	45 (13.6%)
	Hauls with depredation	38 (20.5%)	33 (9.9%)
	<i>DiD</i>		
	Hauls	151	209
	Depth (meters)	65.1 ± 19.8	115.3 ± 65.2
	Soak time (hours)	15.2 ± 7.6	15.1 ± 7.6
Hauls with cetacean bycatch	2 TTR	1 DDE *	
Hauls with cetaceans sighted during fishing operations	76 (50.3%)	169 (80.9%)	
Hauls with depredation	56 (37.1%)	38 (18.2%)	
<i>DDD</i>			
Purse seine	Trips	228	233
	Hauls	268	250
	Depth (m)	31.7 ± 11.9	32.2 ± 12.0
	Hauls with cetacean bycatch	15 DDE	0
	Cetaceans bycaught	38 DDE (9 dead)	0
	Hauls with cetacean sighted during fishing operations	47 (17.5%)	34 (13.6%)

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*Acoustic device not functional

929 **TABLE 3** Coefficients from GAMLSS Model for interaction with cetaceans, in the trial with and
 930 without acoustic devices. Here the intercept represents the rate of net interaction for the control
 931 (without alarm) condition. Significant terms are highlighted in bold.

Fishery	Alarm Model	DDD				DiD			
		Term	Estimate	SE	Z	p	Estimate	SE	Z
Bottom-set nets	<i>Intercept</i>	-0.71	0.10	-7.16	0.0000	-0.57	0.13	-4.46	0.0000
	Alarm-active	0.85	0.26	3.30	0.0010	0.95	0.25	3.89	0.0001
Purse seine	<i>Intercept</i>	-36.08	4430.97	-0.01	0.0060				
	Alarm-active	8.77	738.50	0.01	0.0090				

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949 **TABLE 4** Results of the final GAMLSS models for factors explaining the interaction of cetaceans
 950 with bottom set-nets with two types of acoustic devices (DDD and DiD). Akaike Information Criterion
 951 (AIC) and Simulation-based calibration (SBC) for best models are presented. Significant P-value (P
 952 <0.05) in bold.

Response variable (Model equation)	Explanatory variable	Estimate	SE	P-value	Explained Variance (%)	AIC	SBC
Bottom-set nets – DDD (Interaction_cetaceans ~ latdec + depth_m + soak + CPUE + cpue_stripedredmullet + year + factor(vessel))	latitude	25040	8346	0.003	12.2	161.0	193.1
	depth	4218	16.33	0.796			
	soak time	28.41	119.3	0.812			
	CPUE	-72.72	37.94	0.057			
	CPUE_striped mullet	-502.6	171.2	0.004			
	year	444.9	221.9	0.046			
			3251				
	vessel	11350	0	0.008			
Bottom -set nets – DiD (Interaction_cetaceans ~ latdec + CPUE + CPUE_hake + factor(observer_scheme))	latitude	18.54	8603	0.036	5.4	72.8	83.2
	CPUE	0.149	0.091	0.108			
	CPUE_hake	-0.274	0.133	0.045			
	Observer scheme	0.729	0.677	0.286			

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966 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

967 **FIGURE 1** – Map of the study area (Algarve, Mainland Portugal), showing the main fishing ports and
968 the distribution area of fishing hauls. The map includes hauls from both bottom-set nets and purse seine
969 trials, conducted with and without acoustic devices (ADDs). The hauls are categorized as follows: (A)
970 bottom-set nets without acoustic devices (control), (B) bottom-set nets with acoustic devices
971 (experimental), (C) purse seine without acoustic devices (control), and (D) purse seine with acoustic
972 devices (experimental). Different bullet symbols in the legend represent the level of interaction in each
973 haul for: no dolphins present; dolphins present but no interaction occurred; hauls with depredation
974 (bottom-set nets only), and hauls with bycatch.

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976 **FIGURE 2** Polynomial regressions showing the acoustic device efficiency applied to bottom set-nets
977 over the duration of this study by: A - year; B - season.

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979 **FIGURE 3** Square-root transformed catch per unit effort for the different treatments (control or
980 acoustic device) for the two different acoustic device models in the trial with bottom set-nets (a - DDD;
981 b – DiD; c - hauls with depredation and no depredation) and for the purse seine fishery (d - all hauls; e
982 - only hauls with the presence of cetaceans during fishing operations). The median, first and third
983 quartile, range of observed values and outliers are shown.

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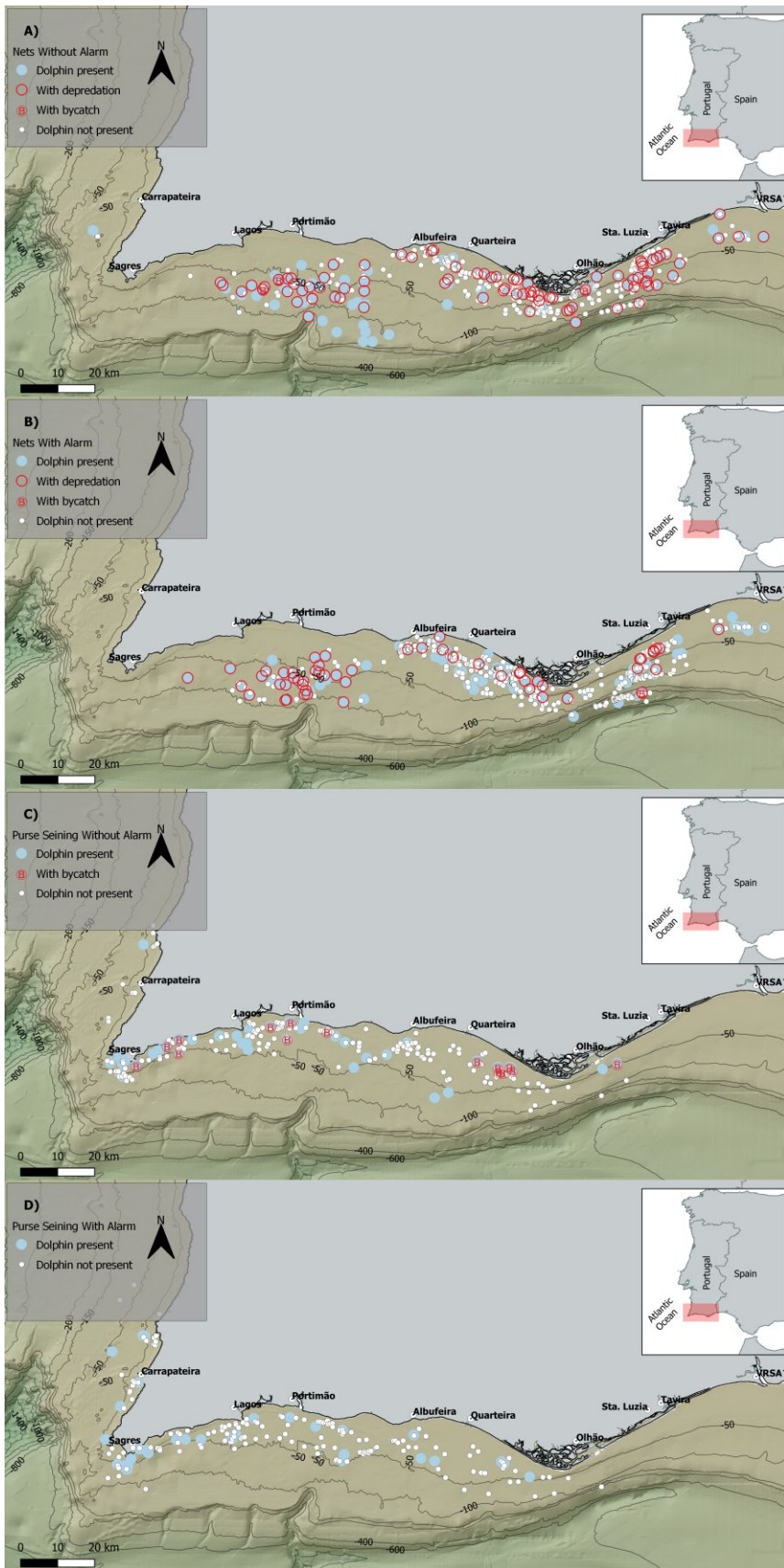
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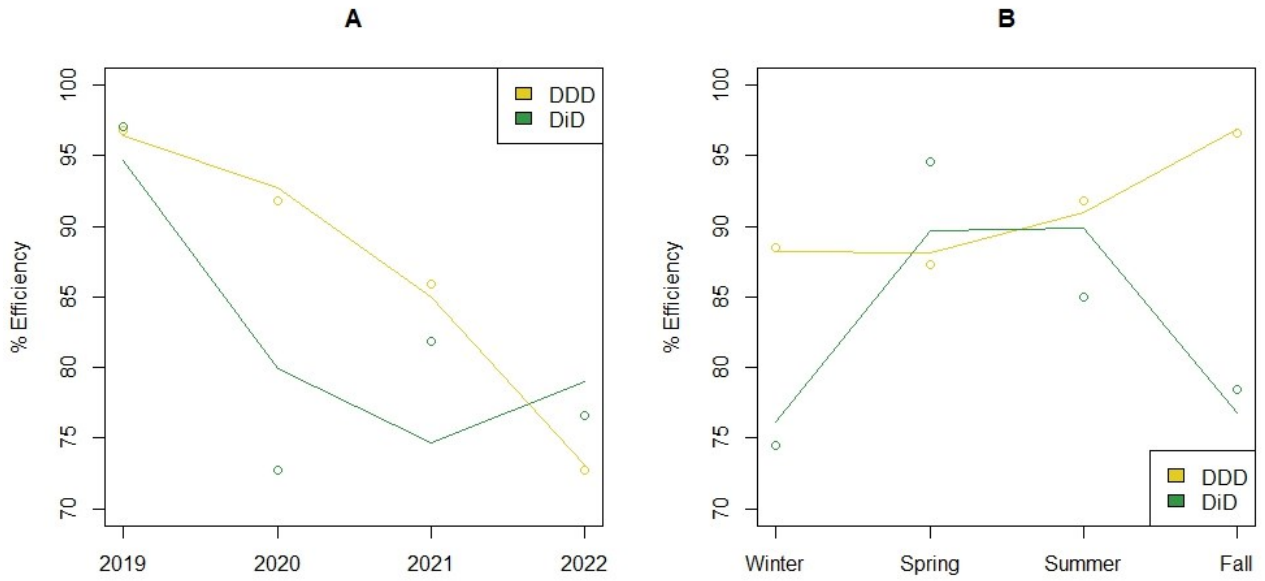
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