

1 **Title:** Quantifying the historical development of recreational fisheries in Southeast
2 Queensland, Australia

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9 **ABSTRACT:**

10 Recreational fisheries are of global socio-ecological importance and contribute
11 significantly to local economies and fisheries harvests. In some regions of Australia,
12 organized recreational fishing activities have existed for over 150 years. However,
13 historical understanding of the spatio-temporal development and resource usage of
14 recreational fisheries has been hampered by the lack of continuous time-series catch
15 and effort data. This study used historical newspaper articles of reported landings by
16 fishing clubs to reconstruct catch rate trends and evaluate changes in catch
17 composition of marine recreational fishing activities in Moreton Bay, Queensland,
18 Australia, from 1920 to 1984. Using generalized additive mixed models (GAMMs), two
19 catch rate metrics (number fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹; kg fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹) were constructed as
20 functions of time and distance travelled. Significant nonlinear relationships were found
21 for n fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹. Fluctuations in n fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ were strongly influenced by
22 time, while increases in distance travelled predicted larger n fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹. Kg fish
23 fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ was tightly linked to increases in distance travelled but did not vary with
24 time. Spatial analysis revealed shifts in areas fished, from inshore reefs during the
25 1920s and 1930s (pre-WWII), towards isolated offshore island systems in later

26 decades (>1950s; post-WWII). Reported catches pre-WWII were strongly associated
27 with reef species, while reported catches post-WWII were predominantly
28 characterized by demersal coastal fish. Spatially resolved time-series fisheries data
29 can be reconstructed from archival sources, providing valuable information about the
30 development of recreational fishing activities and explaining the historical social-
31 ecological dynamics that led to current ecosystem states.

32

33 **Keywords:** Time series, historical fisheries, Australia, angling, recreational fishing

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39 **Running page head:** Quantifying historical recreational fisheries

40 **1. INTRODUCTION**

41 Recreational fishing is a popular leisure activity which contributes significantly to local
42 economies and fisher's welfare (Arlinghaus et al. 2015, Griffiths et al. 2017). It is
43 estimated that approximately 120 million people engage in marine recreational fishing
44 activities globally, generating economic revenue of USD\$39.7 billion annually
45 (Cisneros-Montemayor & Sumaila 2010, Roberts et al. 2017, Hyder et al. 2018,
46 Arlinghaus et al. 2021). Participation rates vary regionally, with general trends showing
47 signs of declines over time (Brownscombe et al. 2014, Hyder et al. 2018, van der
48 Hammen & Chen 2020). Nonetheless, landings by recreational fishers can match or
49 exceed commercial harvests, particularly in nearshore areas (West & Gordon 1994,
50 Coleman et al. 2004), contributing substantially to total fishing mortality (Radford et al.
51 2018).

52
53 To evaluate the effects of fishing on marine populations, catch and effort data are
54 commonly used in stock assessments to estimate population trends and provide
55 sustainable fisheries strategies (Punt 2019, Maunder et al. 2020). Historically,
56 commercial fisheries have been subject to mandatory documentation of fishing
57 activities (i.e. total catches, vessel and gear types, locations and hours fished).
58 Fisheries data have been used to improve our understanding of ecosystem-level
59 responses to fishing by evaluating the ecological impact of commercial fishing and
60 inform about fishing spatial expansion due to local depletion of marine resources (e.g.
61 Thurstan et al. 2010, Cardinale et al. 2011, Buckley et al. 2017, Watson & Tidd 2018).
62 Fisheries-dependent research has highlighted how severe depletion of high trophic
63 level species can disrupt complex ecosystems leading to declines in overall species
64 diversity, and reduction in species' geographical ranges (Jackson et al. 2001, Estes et

65 al. 2011, Maxwell et al. 2013). Conversely, recreational fisheries are rarely subjected
66 to mandatory documentation of their fishing activities, and often have fewer spatial
67 and temporal effort limits than commercial fisheries (Camp et al. 2018). Despite recent
68 efforts by governmental agencies to collect recreational fishing data (Griffith & Fay
69 2015), lack of long-term fisheries data can make assessments of the cumulative
70 impacts of recreational fishing extremely challenging (Pitcher 2001, Post et al. 2002).

71

72 Compared to their commercial counterparts, recreational fisheries are characterized
73 by their greater temporal and spatial heterogeneity, with effort distributed across large
74 geographical areas (Haab et al. 2012, Hunt et al. 2019). Therefore, systematic
75 compilations of recreational fisheries statistics are often logistically demanding and
76 expensive due to the temporally and spatially diffuse nature of these fisheries (Griffiths
77 & Fay 2015). While fishing effort is commonly concentrated in coastal areas that offer
78 easy access points (Cooke & Cowx 2004), fishers' spatial distribution can vary
79 significantly depending on the species targeted, fishers' motivation, and personal
80 definition of what constitutes a positive fishing experience (Johnston et al. 2010,
81 Beardmore et al. 2015, Pokki et al. 2020). For example, some fishers might value
82 landing greater numbers of fish over larger-sized fish, while others might seek
83 relaxation or an outdoors experience (Johnston et al. 2010, Griffiths et al. 2017).
84 Spatial heterogeneity of fishing effort can also be influenced by non-fishing motives,
85 such as accessibility, travel costs, uncrowded surroundings, nature, and regulations
86 (Hunt 2005, Johnston et al. 2010, Arlinghaus et al. 2014, Koemle et al. 2021). When
87 the spatial and temporal complexity of fishing activities can be accounted for, impacts
88 from recreational fisheries can be useful for assessing the effectiveness of
89 management strategies (e.g. catch or size limits regulations), delineating boundaries

90 of marine protected areas, avoiding conflicts among stakeholders, and informing
91 strategies for conservation and restoration of essential fish habitats (Lorenzen et al.
92 2010).

93

94 Whilst some data exists for recreational fisheries, they are frequently characterized as
95 data-limited (Griffiths & Fay 2015). Commonly, management agencies collect fishing
96 effort data over relatively short time periods (e.g. one survey every two or four years),
97 through telephone surveys or boat ramp interviews (QDAF 2017, Ryan et al. 2019,
98 Teixeira et al. 2021). These 'snapshots' are valid representations of the fishery at a
99 particular time and place but might not capture the overall variability of the fishery,
100 such as participation rate fluctuations, landing trends, or environmental changes
101 (Gartside et al. 1999). As such, short-term fisheries perspectives can provide
102 inaccurate representations of the state of the fishery, and potentially underestimate
103 the cumulative impact of recreational fisheries on marine resources (Post et al. 2002,
104 Thurstan et al. 2015).

105

106 In the absence of long-term historical fisheries data, unconventional data sources can
107 provide useful information for reconstructing fishery trends and help to fill gaps in
108 historical knowledge (Lotze & McClenachan 2013). Fishing club records, newspapers,
109 magazines, and logbooks have been used to reconstruct catch rate trends, catch
110 compositions, and spatial usage of marine resources through time (e.g. McClenachan
111 2009a, Young et al. 2015, Buckley et al. 2017, Thurstan et al. 2017). Moreover,
112 qualitative data derived from open-access news media (e.g. newspapers, magazines)
113 can inform about societal and cultural drivers that have led to current fisheries states
114 (Thurstan et al. 2017, Chong-Montenegro et al. 2021). Historical reconstructions of

115 recreational fisheries have described catch rate declines of popular recreational fish
116 species, including bonefish (*Albula vulpes*: Santos et al. (2017)) and, Atlantic goliath
117 grouper (*Epinephelus itajara*: McClenachan (2009b)), as well as changes in overall
118 ecosystem productivity (Altieri et al. 2012, Lawson et al. 2021). Documenting past
119 ecosystem states provides valuable information about the ecological footprint of
120 fisheries and can provide context for choosing appropriate recovery targets for species
121 and ecosystems at risk (Goodall 2008, Thurstan et al. 2015, Beller et al. 2020).

122

123 Recreational fishing in Australia ranks among the most popular leisure activities in the
124 country, with approximately four million Australians participating in fishing activities,
125 generating economic revenue of AUD\$2.56 billion annually (Colquhoun 2015). In
126 Queensland, written documentation of organized fishing activities (e.g. social fishing,
127 fishing club competitions) can be traced back as early as the 1870s via recreational
128 fishing excursions, charter businesses (Thurstan et al. 2016), and the establishment
129 of local and regional fishing clubs (i.e. The Amateur Fishermen's Association of
130 Queensland, founded in 1904). Despite the existence of recreational fishing activities
131 for at least 150 years in Queensland, government-based recreational catch and effort
132 data are limited to four statewide annual surveys and one boat-based survey, the
133 earliest of which commenced in 2000-01 (Webley et al. 2009, Teixeira et al. 2021).
134 Additional literature exists on catch and effort in individual species including summer
135 whiting (Thwaites & Williams 1994) and a few species of mackerel (Cameron & Begg
136 2002, Zischke et al. 2012) but studies into long-term trends in multi-species
137 recreational catch rates remain rare. Using records of fishing excursions submitted by
138 clubs to newspapers, this study aimed to quantify and reconstruct the development of
139 marine recreational fishing activities in Moreton Bay, Queensland, since its earliest

140 inception. More specifically, we aimed to i) reconstruct and evaluate trends of two
141 catch rate metrics (i.e. number of fish per fisher per trip and the amount of kilograms
142 of fish per fisher per trip) of recreational fisheries in Moreton Bay, ii) evaluate temporal
143 changes in distance travelled to fishing grounds, iii) identify historical fishing hotspots,
144 and iv) identify shifts in catch composition over time. Finally, we acknowledge the
145 Traditional Owners of the land on which carried out our study, the Turrbal/Jagera and
146 Quandamooka people and the long history of Aboriginal fishing practices in
147 Quandamooka Sea Country (Moreton Bay). We note that no written records specific
148 to Indigenous recreational fishing were found, and therefore Aboriginal fisheries were
149 not included in this study.

150 **2. METHODS**

151 2.1. Study area

152 The Moreton Bay catchment region is located adjacent to the city of Brisbane in
153 Southeast Queensland, the third most populous city (c. 2.5 million people) in Australia
154 (ABS 2021). Covering an area of c. 1,500 km² Moreton Bay is a relatively shallow body
155 of water (max. depth ~30 m) bordered by four large sand islands (i.e. North and South
156 Stradbroke Island, Bribie Island, and Moreton Island) (Lanyon 2019). A range of
157 marine ecosystems exist in the region, including inshore reefs, seagrass meadows,
158 mangroves, and sand flats, which provide suitable habitats for a large diversity of fish
159 species (Olds et al. 2019) (Fig. 1). Moreton Bay has experienced a long history of
160 fisheries exploitation by Indigenous, commercial, and recreational groups (Thurstan et
161 al. 2019). Currently, the Moreton Bay catchment region is the most heavily fished area
162 across the state of Queensland, supporting c. 12% (combined commercial and
163 recreational) of the total fish catches of the state (Thurstan et al. 2019).

164

165 In Queensland, fisheries regulations commenced during the 1870s for the commercial
166 and recreational fishing sectors, with the establishment of catch size limits for eight
167 fish species [The Queensland Fisheries Act 1877] and mandatory licensing for
168 commercial fishers (Thurstan et al. 2019). Since that time, size limits have been
169 adopted for several fish species in line with the following legislations: *The Fish and*
170 *Oyster Act of 1914*, *Fisheries Act of 1957* and the *Fisheries Act of 1994*
171 (supplementary material). The latter piece of legislation introduced regulations on bag
172 limits (i.e. in-possession limits), a first for recreational fisheries in Queensland
173 (Thurstan et al. 2019). Subsequently, in 2009, a zoning plan was introduced in
174 Moreton Bay with no-take zones (i.e. green zones) (QDAF 2020). Although not
175 fisheries legislation, it does restrict fishing activities and access to specific grounds.

176

177 At present, there are no restrictions on the number of participants that enter the
178 recreational sector (i.e. marine recreational fishing is open access). Between 2019 and
179 2020, it was estimated that approximately 943,000 Queenslanders participated in
180 recreational fishing activities, with 43% of the fishing effort (1.2 million fishing days)
181 occurring in the Moreton Bay catchment fishing region (Teixeira et al. 2021). The
182 primary fishing gear used by recreational fishers is lines (i.e. rod and line), commonly
183 used to target finfish, such as whiting (*Sillago maculata*) and yellowfin bream
184 (*Acanthopagrus australis*) (Teixeira et al. 2021).

185

186 2.2. Data collection

187 Historical fishing records were systematically sourced from local and state libraries,
188 including digitized collections from the National Library of Australia TROVE repository

189 (NLA 2019). A combination of keywords was used to maximize the number of relevant
190 recreational fishing articles resulting from online and library catalogue searches.
191 These keywords included: "fishing" AND "club". Results were filtered to popular
192 newspapers from the Brisbane metropolitan area between the 1900s and the 1980s,
193 including all subsequent name variations. The newspapers were: i) *The Courier* (1861-
194 1864) (later titles: *The Brisbane Courier* (1864-1933); *The Courier-Mail* (1933-1954)),
195 ii) *The Telegraph* (1872-1947) (later title: *Brisbane Telegraph* (1948-1984)), iii) *The*
196 *Daily Mail* (1903-1926), and iv) *Daily Standard* (1912-1936). The temporal extent of
197 the digitized material was limited to pre-1954, hence, more recent newspapers were
198 manually searched from microfilm archives from the Queensland State Library. All
199 articles were reviewed in a chronological matter to avoid potential double counts.

200

201 Due to the large quantities of newspaper issues per year, a stratified random sampling
202 approach was implemented to maximize temporal coverage. This approach consisted
203 of sampling newspaper articles covering four months within every other year (even
204 years) between 1900 and 1984 inclusive. To account for any potential catch variability
205 related to weather, we chose the months of January, April, August, and December to
206 be representative of the two predominant seasons in southeast Queensland: the wet
207 season (November-March), and the dry season (April-October). Newspapers after
208 1984 were excluded due to a lack of publicly available archives (e.g. paywall
209 restrictions to newspaper articles, and overcoming hesitancy in information/data
210 sharing among recreational fishing clubs), and to avoid potentially catch biases from
211 fishing legislation such as the *Queensland Fisheries Act 1994* that introduced bag
212 limits for several fish species in the state of Queensland.

213

214 2.3. Catch rate standardization

215 From each recreational fishing article, quantitative and qualitative fisheries data was
216 extracted, including information on: *location fished; total number of fish caught; total*
217 *weight of the catch; number of fishers per fishing trip; hours fished; fishing club name;*
218 *and list of species caught* (Fig. 2). While Moreton Bay is a popular fishing location for
219 international and interstate travelers, here we focused on fishing clubs located in and
220 around the Brisbane metropolitan area and assumed that most fishers were local
221 members of these clubs and were commonly residents of the area.

222

223 Locations fished were geo-referenced based on historical fishing and boating guides
224 (supplementary material). Catch rate metrics were defined as number of fish fisher⁻¹
225 trip⁻¹ and kg of fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ based on data availability. Effort was estimated as the
226 number of hours fished per fishing trip. This value was taken from articles that explicitly
227 mentioned the starting and end time of the fishing trip. For records in which fishing
228 effort was not explicitly stated, a conservative value of 5 hours was estimated based
229 on *a priori* data estimation of the mean hours calculated from completed articles.

230

231 For fishing records in which *number of fishers* was not explicitly stated, a multivariate
232 imputation by chained equations (MICE) approach was implemented to complete this
233 missing data (Rubin 1987). This approach assumes that the data are missing at
234 random and uses multiple imputations (*m* times) to generate missing values based on
235 observed data (i.e. when *number of fishers* was provided), and relationships between
236 that observed data and a set of variables included in the imputation model (i.e. *year*
237 and *club name* variables) (Schafer & Graham 2002, Azur et al. 2011).

238

239 Catch rates were analyzed using generalized additive mixed models (GAMMs) to
240 evaluate trends in the number fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ and kg fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ over time
241 (Maunder & Punt 2004). Using smoothing functions (e.g. splines), this modelling
242 approach evaluates nonlinear relationships between a given response variable and
243 various covariates (i.e. explanatory variables), and quantifies the variance found in the
244 model. Two catch rate models (*n* and *kg*) were performed using the *gam* function from
245 the *mgcv* R package (Wood 2017). The response variable for each catch rate model
246 was number fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ and kg fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹. Each model was constructed
247 with two covariates, 'year' and 'distance' (i.e. distance between fishing location and
248 closest access point, such as boat ramps or jetties), with 'fishing club' as a random
249 factor. Both models were fitted using a gamma distribution with a log link function.
250 Model assumptions were validated by inspecting the distribution of the residuals
251 against the fitted values (homoscedasticity) using the *DHARMA* R package (Hartig
252 2020).

253

254 Given that fishing origin (i.e. point of departure) was missing from fishing articles,
255 distance to fishing grounds was assumed to begin from the closest access point to the
256 fishing location. Distance travelled was calculated as geodesic distance from fishing
257 locations to the coordinates of the nearest access point. Estimates of distance were
258 calculated using the *st_distance* function from the *sf* R package (Pebesma 2018).
259 Geo-referenced access points were obtained from the Queensland Spatial Catalogue
260 (QDTMR 2019). A non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis (KW) test followed by a Dunn's post
261 hoc test was applied to test for significant differences distance travelled by recreational
262 fisheries in Moreton Bay at a decadal scale. All statistical analyses were run in R
263 (version 4.0.3).

264

265 2.4. Geographical distribution of fishing hotspots

266 Historical fishing hotspots were identified by overlaying a 0.05 degree (5 km) grid over
267 the area of Moreton Bay (152.9°S, 28°E to 153.7°S, 25°E). This resolution was chosen
268 to account for spatial distribution of effort surrounding fishing grounds. Hotspots were
269 identified as areas experiencing more than 5% of the total reported trips that occurred
270 per decade, that fell within each fishing location. For visualization purposes, raster files
271 were created for each decade and stacked for standardization. All spatial analyses
272 were performed using the *raster* and *stack* functions from the *raster* R package
273 (Hijmans 2020).

274

275 2.5. Species catch composition

276 Changes in catch composition were analyzed using a presence-absence (Jaccard)
277 dissimilarity matrix for species mentioned in each sampled year. The dissimilarity
278 matrix was used to create a non-metric multidimensional scaling ordination plot
279 (nMDS) to identify and visualize shared and unique species among groups (i.e.
280 decades, years). Given the information derived from most fishing articles, fish were
281 identified to the lowest possible taxonomic level. In most instances, identification to
282 genus was possible (i.e. flathead = *Platycephalus* spp.; whiting = *Silago* spp.). Species
283 were assigned to a habitat type according to information published in the *Fishes of*
284 *Australia* atlas (i.e. coastal, reef, and pelagic) (Bray 2018). For species that could be
285 assigned to more than one habitat, the preferred habitat was chosen based on the
286 location described in the fishing article.

287 To test for significant differences ($p < 0.05$) in catch composition among decades, a
288 permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) was used with 999

289 permutations. Multivariate analysis was performed using the *adonis* function from the
290 vegan R package (Oksanen et al. 2020).

291 **3. RESULTS**

292 We searched approximately 41,000 articles from digitized newspaper articles and
293 microfilms for recreational fishing in Moreton Bay, of which 8,800 articles were
294 subsampled for review. Of these, 913 articles contained quantitative and qualitative
295 information on recreational fishing in Moreton Bay, spanning from the 1920s to the
296 1980s.

297 3.1. Catch rate reconstruction

298 Quantitative and qualitative data derived from 913 articles allowed us to reconstruct
299 catch rates over six decades. Six hundred and thirty-three articles mentioned the
300 number of fish caught, and 339 articles mentioned total catch in weight (kg). Two
301 hundred and ninety-eight articles explicitly reported the number of hours fished (effort),
302 and 496 articles mentioned the number of fishers participating in the fishing activity.
303 Using imputation, the *number of fishers* increased from 496 observations to 592. Five
304 hundred and eighty-eight articles subsequently provided completed information on
305 *number of fish caught*, *number of fishers*, and *hours fished*, the three variables used
306 to reconstruct number fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹, while 331 articles provided completed
307 variables for kg fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹.

308

309 The number fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ catch rate GAMM explained 23.1% of the deviance in
310 the data. The model showed a significant nonlinear trend in n fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ through
311 time ($F = 4.8$, $p < 0.05$, Table S1) (Fig. 3A). In 1920 (at the beginning of the time
312 series), the mean n fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ was estimated as 3.61 (95% confidence intervals

313 = 3.02 - 4.31). The n fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ peaked in 1930 (4.01 n fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹, 95%
314 CI = 3.53 - 4.55) pre-WWII, then sharply declined to 2.63 (95% CI = 2.29 - 3.02) in
315 1950. From approximately 1960, the mean n fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ increased again, with
316 average catch rates of 3.10 n fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ (95% CI = 2.61 - 3.67) in 1980. In
317 addition, the model predicted a slight but significant increase in n fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ for
318 trips as distance away from the closest access points increased ($F = 3.07$, $p = 0.04$)
319 (Fig. 3B). For example, for a fishing trip that took place one km away from the closest
320 access point, an average of 2.15 n fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ (95% CI = 1.87 - 2.48) was
321 expected, while for a trip of 35 km away, 2.84 n fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ (95% CI = 2.01 - 4.02)
322 was expected.

323

324 The kg fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ catch rate GAMM explained 35.5% of the deviance in the data.
325 The model found no significant trends in the kg fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ through time (year
326 covariate, $F = 2.61$, $p = 0.06$, Table S2), but values clearly declined between 1920 and
327 1960 (Fig. 3C). However, the model showed a significant nonlinear, but overall
328 increasing, trend in kg fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ with distance from the closest access points
329 ($F = 5.02$, $p < 0.05$) (Fig. 3D). For example, for a fishing trip that took place five km
330 away from the closest access point an average of 0.71 kg fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ (95% CI =
331 0.55 - 0.91) was expected, while for a trip 30 km away 1.43 kg fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ (95%
332 CI = 0.92 - 2.22) was expected.

333

334 Distances travelled by recreational fishers significantly differed among decades (KW,
335 $\chi^2 = 74.41$, $p < 0.05$). The mean distance travelled in the 1920s was 5.41 km (± 4.93
336 sd), while in the 1950s, the mean distance travelled was 10.9 km (± 8.63 sd), a two-
337 fold increase. The post hoc test revealed significant differences in distance travelled

338 between the 1920s and 1950s ($z = -5.59, p < 0.05$), and between the 1920s and 1960s
339 ($z = -7.56, p < 0.05$) (Fig. 4). The 1930s significantly differed from the 1950s ($z = -3.15,$
340 $p = 0.02$) and 1960s ($z = -4.52, p < 0.05$). The 1940s were excluded from this analysis
341 due to the low number of observations ($n = 7$). This might be due to a shift in publication
342 focus, from local news to more global news events such as World War II (1939 - 1945).
343

344 3.2. Historical fishing hotspots

345 Spatial analysis revealed a shift in the reported areas fished, from inshore reefs during
346 the 1920s and 1930s to island areas with sandy and seagrass habitats (i.e. Moreton
347 and Stradbroke Islands [North and South]) in the 1950s through the 1980s (Fig. 5). In
348 the 1920s and 1930s (pre-WWII), most of the reported fishing trips (24% and 18%,
349 respectively) took place around the inshore reefs of Moreton Bay, such as Peel Island.
350 Additional fishing locations included the southeast of Bribie Island (15%) in the 1920s
351 and Jumpinpin (16%) in the 1930s. In the 1950s, Jumpinpin (37%) was the most
352 heavily fished location, followed by Tangalooma (16%) and Comboyuro (7%) on
353 Moreton Island, areas whose habitats are primarily sandy flats. In the 1960s, most of
354 the trips were to Jumpinpin (36%), Tangalooma (13%), Donnybrook (9%) and
355 Comboyuro (7%). In the 1970s, most of the fishing trips were to Jumpinpin (23%),
356 Comboyuro (9%), Reeders Point (5%) and Caloundra heads (5%). In the 1980s, most
357 fishing trips took place at Jumpinpin (19%), Caloundra heads (15%) and Hayes Inlet
358 (7%). Overall, Jumpinpin was consistently the most heavily fished location during the
359 1950-1980s.
360

361 3.3. Species composition of catch

362 Reported catch composition significantly differed among decades (PERMANOVA, $F =$
363 4.6, $p < 0.05$, Table S3). To maximize information on catch composition and due to
364 the low number of fishing articles in the 1940s ($n = 7$) and 1980s ($n = 27$), articles in
365 these decades were pooled with the 1950s, and 1970s, respectively. Overall, the non-
366 metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) ordination plot showed two clusters
367 associated with the catch composition: the 1920s and 1930s (pre-WWII) grouped
368 distinctly from the 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s (post-WWII) (Fig. 6A). The pre-WWII
369 period was strongly characterized by the reported capture of reef species such as
370 *Chrysophrys auratus* (snapper), *Argyrosomus japonicus* (mulloway), *Choerodon* spp.
371 (parrotfish), and *Epinephelus* spp. (cod) (Fig. 6B). The post-WWII period was primarily
372 characterized by the demersal species *Platycephalus* spp. (flathead), *Sillago* spp.
373 (whiting), and *Acanthopagrus* spp. (bream).

374 4. DISCUSSION

375 Recreational fisheries are often characterized as data-limited due to a general lack of
376 continuous catch and effort fisheries data. In this study, we highlight the use of
377 newspaper articles as valuable data sources to fill gaps in historical knowledge about
378 the spatial and temporal development of recreational fishing activities over the span
379 of six decades in Moreton Bay, Australia. We demonstrate that detailed spatially
380 resolved fisheries data derived from open-access sources (e.g. historical newspapers)
381 can be used to reconstruct historical catch rate trends and evaluate social-ecological
382 changes in recreational fishing activities. Catch rate models ($n \text{ fish fisher}^{-1} \text{ trip}^{-1}$, kg fish
383 $\text{fisher}^{-1} \text{ trip}^{-1}$) showed highly dynamic nonlinear trends strongly associated with time
384 and distance travelled by recreational fishers. In addition, quantitative and qualitative

385 data obtained from fishing articles allowed for spatial reconstructions of fishing
386 hotspots, demonstrating the historical heterogeneity of fishing activities in Moreton
387 Bay, as well as detecting shifts in the targeted fish reported species through time.

388 4.1. From quantity to quality, changes in fishing club targets

389 Catch rate reconstructions showed a significant increase in $n \text{ fish fisher}^{-1} \text{ trip}^{-1}$ in pre-
390 WWII decades, followed by a sharp decline post-war, while $\text{kg fish fisher}^{-1} \text{ trip}^{-1}$
391 displayed a steady decrease throughout the study period. Fluctuations in catch rates
392 models might be attributed to a combination of factors such as changes in fishing
393 club's rules/aims, increases in fishers' participation, fishers' behavior and attitudes
394 towards fishing.

395 In the early 20th century (i.e. pre-WWII), recreational fishing clubs incentivized the
396 landing of the greatest numbers of fish and the heaviest cumulative weight (e.g. Daily
397 Standard, 17 December 1920). Fishing reports commonly included a list of the total
398 number of fish caught and total weight of the catch for each participant. For example,
399 on 21 October 1921, The Telegraph published a list of all fishers and their respective
400 catch and weight, such as the landing of “93 fish weighing a total of 15 kg by Mr H.
401 Shaw”. The goal of landing as many fish as possible was prevalent into the 1930s,
402 and is reflected in catch rates trends during this period. A similar temporal pattern in
403 catch rates, where $n \text{ fish fisher}^{-1} \text{ trip}^{-1}$ was higher pre-WWII and was followed by a
404 significant decline in later decades, was found for recreational fishers in the Noosa
405 Estuary (approximately 140 km north of Brisbane) (Thurstan et al. 2017). This
406 incentivization by fishing clubs statewide likely explained the increase in catch rates
407 (n and kg) in pre-WWII decades.

408 The subsequent decline in catch rate trends (n and kg) which began in the late 1930s
409 and early 1940s might be attributed to changes in fishing clubs aims driven by the

410 public's perceptions on the effects of fishing on fish populations. For example, toward
411 the latter half of the 1930s, fishing columnists began to report concerns about the
412 landing of undersized fish (e.g. "Throw back undersized fish", The Telegraph, 24 April
413 1936). Articles about the ecological consequences of landing undersized fish were
414 concurrently being reported statewide (e.g. Noosa, Thurstan et al. (2017);
415 Rockhampton, Chong-Montenegro et al. (2021)), and in other regions of Australia (e.g.
416 Western Australia, Christensen and Jackson (2014)) and around the world (e.g. North
417 America and England, Policansky (2002)). Following public concerns, fishing articles
418 transitioned to highlighting the largest fish in a given catch, rather than the greatest
419 number of fish (e.g. "Light gear experts land big fish", The Telegraph, 5 August 1938;
420 "Big game fishing association had notable first year" The Telegraph, 26 August 1938).
421 The observed decline in catch rate trends from the late 1930s and early 1940s
422 onwards might be attributed to shifts in fishing clubs aims and incentives which
423 influenced fishers' decisions to catch fewer but larger fish during this period.

424

425 In addition, catch rates are also influenced by the number of actively participating
426 fishers. After World War II ended in 1945, Australia saw a period of economic and
427 infrastructure growth, with high levels of employment in addition to receiving a large
428 number of European immigrants (Clark 2017). Increases in disposable incomes
429 combined with cheap, accessible, and effective fishing gear allowed more people to
430 engage in fishing activities more readily (Clark 2017, Thurstan et al. 2018). Fishing
431 reports showed an increase in the number of fishers per club from the 1950s onwards
432 (Fig. S1), likely influencing fluctuations in catch rate trends, as total catches in terms
433 of number of fish caught and total weight was shared among more individuals.

434

435 By the end of the time series, an era of growing environmental consciousness became
436 apparent in the 1980s and 1990s, as fishers' attitudes shifted towards the conservation
437 of nature (Young et al. 2014, Young et al. 2015, Thurstan et al. 2018). This attitude
438 might have been influenced by global and local public awareness on issues related to
439 a changing climate, such as the Kyoto Protocol, an international treaty committed to
440 the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions, signed by 192 countries (including
441 Australia) in 1997 and the later introduction of the *Environment Protection and
442 Biodiversity Conservation Act 1999* that focuses on the protection of species and
443 ecological communities in Australia. During this period, catch-and-release fishing
444 became increasingly popular (Thurstan et al. 2018). Awareness of the ecological
445 impacts of fishing was common among other branches of recreational fishing, such as
446 spearfishing. For example, Young et al. (2014) found that spearfishing-themed
447 magazines would report concerns of declining fish populations and encouraged self-
448 regulation, even prior to the establishment of governmental regulations. Changes in
449 overall fishers' attitudes towards nature in combination with catch-and-release
450 practices might have influenced the relatively low catch rates from the later years of
451 the time-series, despite the fact that some fishers were still driven to catch large
452 numbers of fish if they could (Claydon 1996, Thurstan et al. 2018).

453

454 4.2. Spatial and temporal expansion of fishing effort

455 Fishers' site choice is associated with travel costs, accessibility to fishing grounds,
456 environmental conditions, encounters with other fishers, and fishing regulations (Hunt
457 2005). Given the limitations in the qualitative information derived from the fishing
458 articles, determining the specific reasons and motives of Moreton Bay fishers falls
459 outside the scope of this research. However, our spatial analysis combined with the

460 catch rate models suggests overcrowding and technological advancements as
461 possible factors influencing the expansion of fishing effort through time.

462

463 In the 1920s and 1930s, the inshore reefs experienced the highest levels of fishing
464 effort in Moreton Bay, becoming hotspots for many fishing clubs. These reefs are
465 located in proximity to populated urban areas and have easy access points to the Bay
466 via public boat ramps and jetties. The popularity of these reefs might have led to
467 overcrowding, boosting the need for fishers to travel farther distances to enhance or
468 maintain their fishing experiences. In addition, engine power and car ownership
469 increased rapidly after WWII, allowing fishers to reach more distant access points and
470 fishing grounds (Clark 2017, Thurstan et al. 2018). Detailed evaluations of the effects
471 of fishing gear by recreational fishers could not be achieved due to minimal data on
472 vessels and gear used. However, Thurstan et al. (2018) investigated the transition and
473 adoptions of technological innovations of recreational and commercial fishers over the
474 span of 140 years (1870-2010) in Moreton Bay. During the post-WWII era vessel
475 engine power and the adoption of eco-sounders and GPS increased significantly,
476 allowing fishers to discover new productive fishing grounds (Thurstan et al. 2018). In
477 addition, changes in fishing gear from natural fiber lines and cane rods to
478 monofilament line and cheap but durable fiberglass rods made fishing gear more
479 efficient and accessible (Clark 2017, Thurstan et al. 2018, Chong-Montenegro et al.
480 2021). Ultimately, improvements in refrigeration and cold storage systems allowed
481 fishers to keep fish fresh for extended periods (Clark 2017), enabling extended trips
482 and greater spatial coverage.

483

484 4.3. Shifts in catch composition and broader ecological changes in Moreton Bay
485 Fishing reports demonstrated a shift in catch composition over time, from reef fish to
486 demersal fish. Deriving species-specific information from newspaper articles was
487 challenging due to the common use of generic fish names to report catches and the
488 early confusion associated with names of fish. For example, the Brisbane Courier, 28
489 June 1886, published this confusion: “It is greatly to be regretted that so much
490 confusion exists with regard to the names of fish - that is the common or popular
491 names... It is when the common name is used that uncertainty and vagueness
492 prevails”. However, identification of the catch was possible during the 20th century,
493 when columnists would clarify the fish species. The Sunday Mail, 26 November 1933,
494 published an article referring to the Queensland groper (*Epinephelus lanceolatus*)
495 using various common names: “The groper, or giant perch is the largest fish we
496 possess, and is sometimes taken of an enormous size, as much as 6 ft long and 450
497 lb in weight”. These general descriptions allowed for identification of fish, generally to
498 the family level, providing an opportunity to understand ecological changes from a
499 broad functional perspective.

500

501 Catches in the 1920s and 1930s (pre-WWI) consisted mostly of groupers
502 (*Epinephelidae*) and parrotfish (*Labridae*). Groupers are often the first group of reef
503 species to succumb to fishing pressure due to their particular life history
504 characteristics: they are relatively long-lived (>30 yr) top-predators, with late maturity,
505 high site fidelity, and complex reproductive strategies (e.g. protogynous
506 hermaphrodites) (Sadovy de Mitcheson et al. 2020). High fishing selectivity of
507 groupers, such as the targeting of the largest fish (e.g. trophy size fish) can lead to
508 reproductive failure, jeopardizing the sustainability of the population (Alonzo & Mangel

509 2005). The historical targeting of the largest Atlantic goliath grouper (*Epinephelus*
510 *itajara*) by recreational fishers in Florida led to severe local depletions and changes in
511 the age and sex structure of the population (Bullock et al. 1992, McClenachan 2009b).

512

513 Large marine predators (e.g., groupers) are important in marine ecosystem, often
514 playing significant roles in the structure of fish communities (Stallings 2008, Sadovy
515 de Mitcheson et al. 2013), and can have positive physical effects on habitat structure
516 (Coleman et al. 2010). The mass removal of large predatory marine species can
517 significantly impact complex ecosystems, causing declines in overall species diversity,
518 reduction in geographical ranges, and alteration of trophic structures (Estes et al.
519 2011, Maxwell et al. 2013). Subsequently, severe overfishing can lead to local and
520 functional extinctions, jeopardizing the long-term sustainability of fisheries (Jackson et
521 al., 2001).

522

523 While temporal shifts in the catch composition from reef species to demersal species
524 might have been a result of exploitation, it is also possible that the observed trends
525 are responses to wider ecological changes in Moreton Bay (Lybolt & Pandolfi 2019,
526 Richards 2019). Since the settlement of non-Indigenous people in the 1820s, the entire
527 Moreton Bay catchment has undergone major ecosystem changes (Richards 2019).
528 Over the past 200 years, the inshore coral reefs assemblages shifted from fast-
529 growing branching (i.e. *Acropora*) to slow-growing massive corals (i.e. *Favia*) as a
530 response to long-term anthropological impacts, including increases in sedimentation
531 and nutrient runoff associated with European colonization (Lybolt & Pandolfi 2019).
532 Loss of structural complexity of reef systems can significantly reduce fish density and
533 biomass (Graham & Nash 2013). Thus, overall declines in reef structure and habitat

534 quality caused by declines in water quality probably acted in combination with fishing
535 mortality of reef species to drive fishers' decisions to target more readily available
536 demersal species such as whiting, bream, and flathead.

537 **5. CONCLUSION**

538 This work demonstrated that long-term spatially resolved catch and effort data can be
539 derived from unconventional data sources, thus filling significant knowledge gaps on
540 social-ecological drivers and trends in recreational fishing activities over decadal time
541 scales. Despite the challenges associated with interpreting historical data, we
542 presented evidence of ecological and societal changes in recreational fishing activities
543 in Moreton Bay since the 1920s. Readily available archival sources provide
544 opportunities to uncover broad social-ecological processes that have led to the current
545 fisheries state and have the potential to inform fisheries management about the
546 cumulative impact of fishing on marine resources and ecosystems. Ultimately, this
547 study highlights the importance of archival data for fisheries science and management
548 and its potential to contribute to knowledge gaps about the historical development of
549 recreational fisheries.

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560

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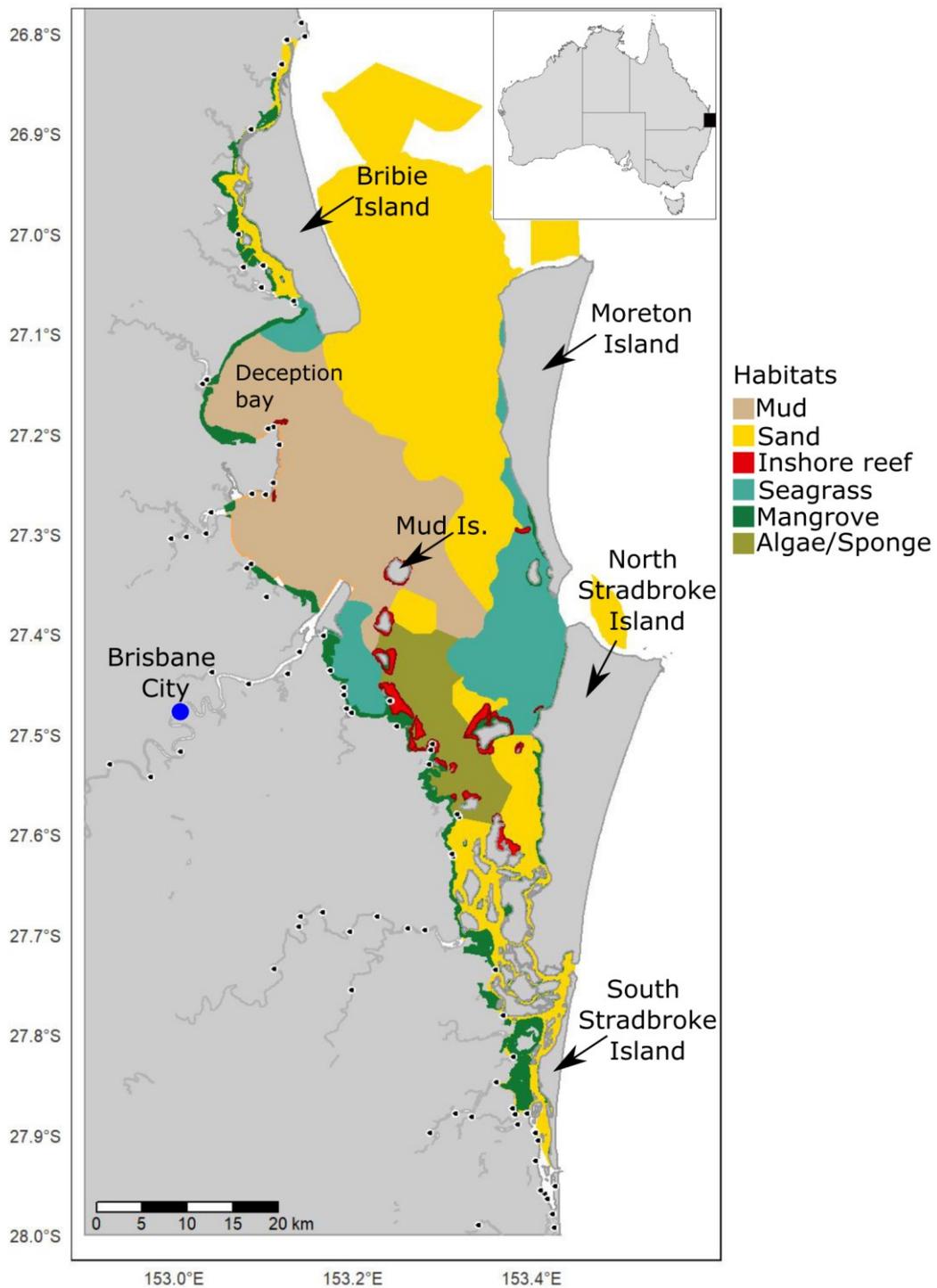
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- 789

790 **Figures**

791 **Figure 1.** Map showing Moreton Bay region and major benthic habitat types. Black
792 dots are access points to the water. Inset map showing the study area location in
793 Australia (black square). Moreton Bay habitat shapefiles were obtained from the
794 Department of Environment and Science (DES) (2008).

795



796

797 **Figure 2.** Example of newspaper articles reporting recreational fishing information in
798 Moreton Bay through time.

799

A) The Telegraph 1921

SUNDAY, 7.45 A.M. TO 12.15 P.M.			
	No. Fish.	Weight lbs. ozs.	Points.
H. Shaw	65	22 1	109.2
W. Brett	97	32 8	162
H. M. Turner	85	30 12	146.8
E. Frost	82	27 15	137.14
W. Nicklin	65	23 13	112.10
H. W. Wood	67	21 4	109.8
G. Shaw	62	21 8	105
T. Levingson	63	18 10	100.4
N. Cross	57	19 2	95.4
L. F. Legge	42	14 11	71.6
H. Oxley	46	16 13	79.10
G. Bryan	35	13 4	61.8
J. A. Grant	37	11 13	60.10
L. Williams	36	12 3	60.6
R. Bryan	28	9 4	46.8
B. Lloyd	23	8 12	40.8
— Guthrie	24	8 6	40.12
		914	312 11

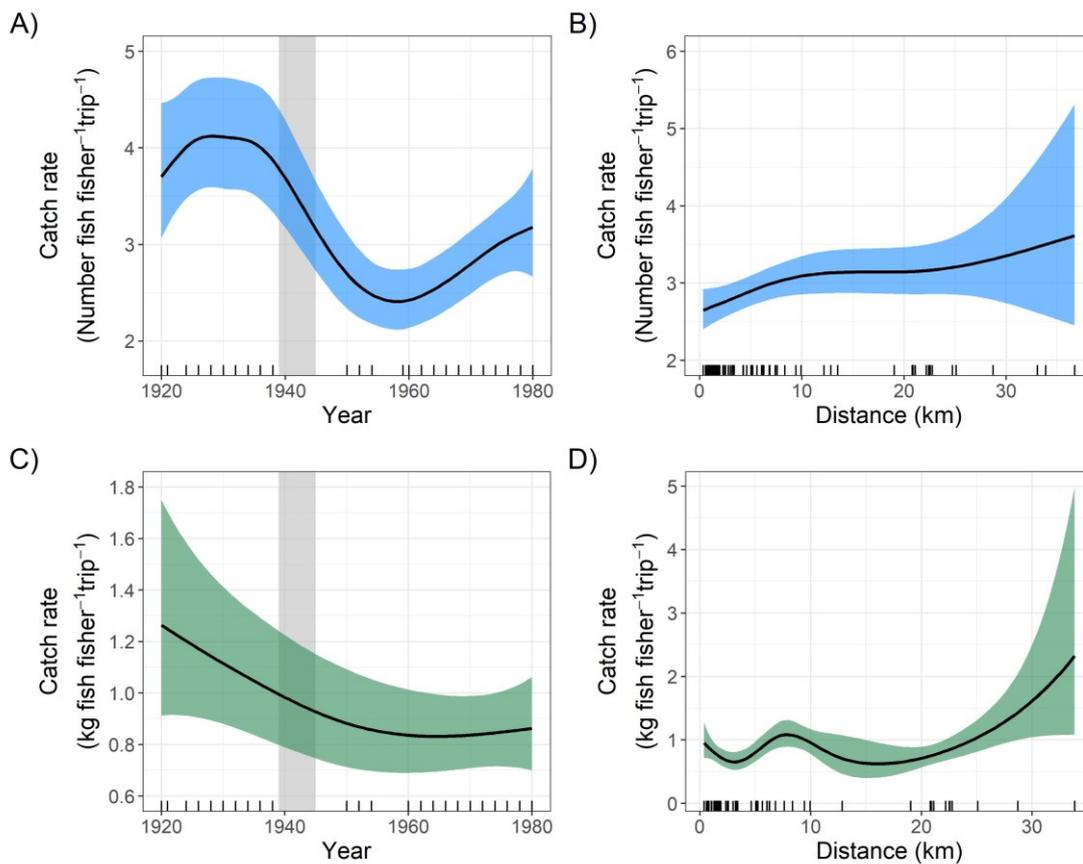
B) The Courier-Mail April 1934

The Graceville Club opened the season at Jumpin Pin last Sunday, and 12 members weighed in 123 fish for an aggregate of 1151lb. 9oz. W. Weston secured first place in the competition with 31 fish, weight 20lb. 3oz., 72 points. Then came W. Huet, 9 fish, 21lb. 14oz., 52 points; R. Shaw, 17 fish, 14lb. 6oz., 46 points; G. Petri, 9 fish, 15lb. 13oz., 40 points; P. Berry, 16 fish, 8lb. 15oz., 33 points; H. Le Breton, 11 fish, 10lb. 12oz., 32 points. W. Huet caught the heaviest fish, a flathead weighing 7lb. 12oz. G. Petrie creeled three flathead of the aggregate weight of 10lb. 3oz., and a squire weighing 2lb. 1oz. J. Woods and W. Faulkner also had good catches.

C) The Telegraph April 1960

GRACEVILLE landed 161 at the Pin. M. Shaw won from H. Blummell. J. Evans caught a 3lb. 11oz. Flathead, next trip is to the Pin on May 7. leaving Graceville at 2 a.m.

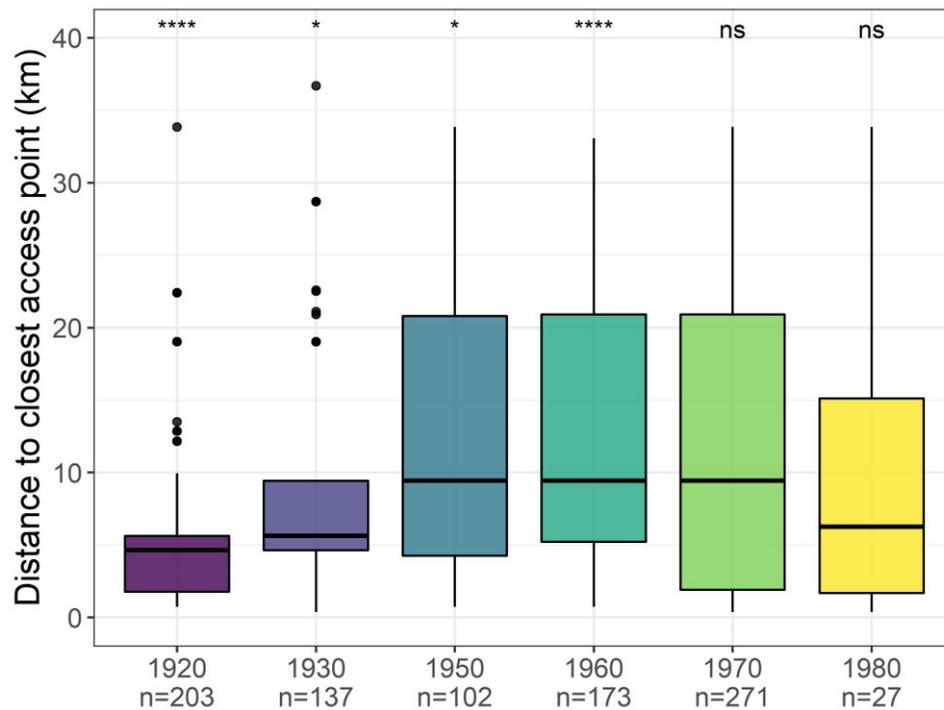
800 **Figure 3.** Fitted generalized additive mixed models (GAMMs) of two catch rates
801 metrics (number of fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ [A,B], and kg of fish fisher⁻¹ trip⁻¹ [C,D]) and the
802 additive effects of year and distance (km) for recreational fishing in Moreton Bay. Mean
803 catch rate (n and kg) estimates are shown in the black solid line. Blue and green
804 shading represents the 95% confidence intervals of the mean for each catch rate
805 model. The grey bar represents War World II period (1939-1945). Within each plot, the
806 short vertical tick marks (known as “rug”) along the x-axis represent the relative density
807 of data points.
808



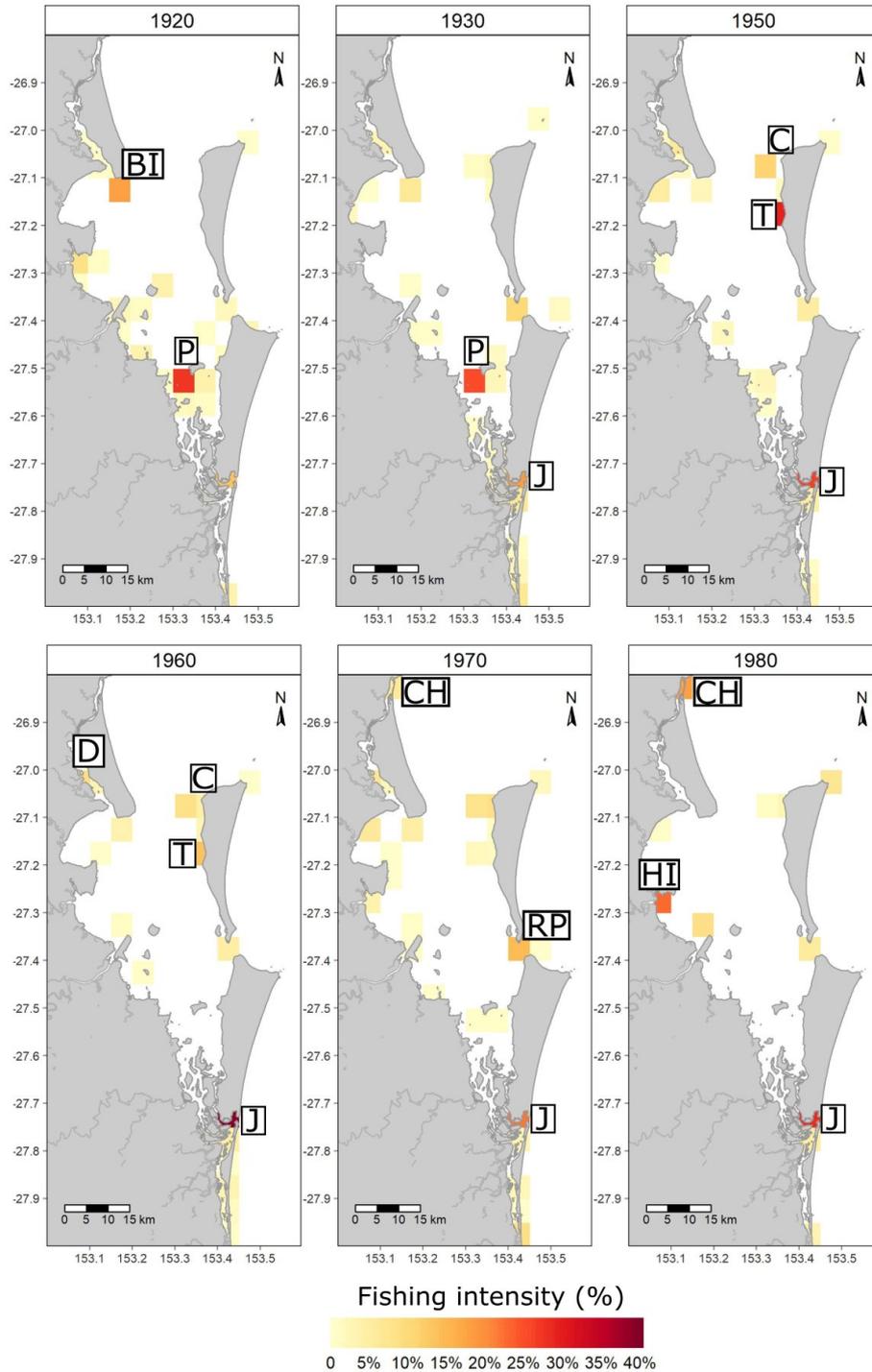
809 **Figure 4.** Boxplots showing the distance travelled between the closest coastal access
810 point and fishing location (kilometers) by recreational fishers per decade in Moreton
811 Bay. Asterisk above the boxplots indicates that distance travelled significantly differed
812 among decades according to the Kruskal-Wallis test, followed by a Dunn's post hoc
813 test. NS = not significant.

814

815



816 **Figure 5.** Recreational fishing hotspots represented by the fishing intensity
 817 (percentages) per decade in Moreton Bay. Fishing locations inside white rectangles
 818 are mentioned in the text. P = Peel Island, BI = Bribie Island; J = Jumpinpin; T =
 819 Tangalooma; C = Comboyuro; D = Donnybrook; CH = Caloundra Heads; RP =
 820 Reeders Points; HI = Hayes Inlet.



821

Figure 6. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) ordination plot for historical catch composition of recreational fisheries in Moreton Bay. A) Recreational catch composition by decade (convex hulls), and B) vectors and magnitudes of significant fish species ($p > 0.05$) in the nMDS.

