

1 **No evidence from long-term analysis of yellowfin**
2 **tuna condition that Drifting Fish Aggregating**
3 **Devices act as ecological traps**

4 **DOI:** <https://doi.org/10.3354/meps14313>

5 **Authors:** Amaël Dupaix^{1*}, Laurent Dagorn¹, Antoine Duparc¹, Aurélie
6 Guillou¹, Jean-Louis Deneubourg², Manuela Capello¹

7 ¹: MARBEC, Univ. Montpellier, CNRS, Ifremer, IRD, Sète, France

8 ²: CENOLI, Université Libre de Bruxelles (ULB), Bruxelles, Belgium

9

10 **Abstract**

11 Human-induced habitat modifications can severely impact the biology
12 and behavior of wild species. Drifting Fish Aggregating Devices (DFADs),
13 used by industrial purse seine tropical tuna fisheries, significantly
14 increased the number of floating objects found in the open ocean, to
15 which tropical tuna associate. This habitat change raised concerns over
16 the risk of modifying the behavior and altering the biology of tuna and
17 other associated species (the so-called ecological trap hypothesis).
18 Relying on a time-series from 1987 to 2019 of more than 25,000 length-
19 weight samples collected in the western Indian Ocean, we reject the
20 hypothesis that the body condition (Le Cren's relative condition factor K_n)
21 of yellowfin tuna (*Thunnus albacares*) decreased concurrently with the
22 increased number of DFADs. This result suggests the absence of negative
23 long-term impacts of DFADs on the condition of tuna. As other factors
24 may have counteracted possible negative effects of DFADs, we
25 recommend a long-term monitoring of habitat, biological and behavioral
26 parameters of tunas to detect any critical change.

27 **Keywords:** Indicator log, relative condition factor, *Thunnus albacares*,
28 Indian Ocean, industrial tuna fisheries, floating objects

* corresponding author: Amaël Dupaix

e-mail: amael.dupaix@ens-lyon.fr

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Natural floating objects (designated as NLOGs), such as logs or
31 branches, are a component of the oceanic habitat of tropical tunas, which
32 associate with them. Although the reasons for this associative behavior
33 are poorly understood, fishers traditionally used this behavior to find and
34 capture associated fish (Fréon & Dagorn 2000). In the early 1980s,
35 industrial tropical tuna purse-seine fleets began to commonly attach
36 buoys on NLOGs and to construct and deploy their own man-made
37 floating objects (FOBs), called drifting Fish Aggregating Devices (DFADs)
38 (Dagorn et al. 2013b). In the Indian Ocean (IO), deployment and use of
39 DFADs began in the 1990s and has steadily increased since then, such
40 that from 2012 to 2018, DFADs were demonstrated to represent more
41 than 85% of the total floating objects in the western IO (Dupaix et al.
42 2021).

43 Soon after their wide-scale use began, it was hypothesized that DFADs
44 may act as “ecological traps” for tropical tunas (see Figure 1) (Marsac et
45 al. 2000, Hallier & Gaertner 2008). An ecological trap occurs when
46 individuals exhibit a higher or equal preference for a poor-quality habitat
47 (*i.e.* associated with a lower fitness) over another habitat, being misled
48 by cues that no longer correlate to habitat quality due to anthropogenic
49 changes (Robertson & Hutto 2006, Gilroy & Sutherland 2007). This
50 decorelation between habitat quality and habitat selection cues
51 ultimately leads to a reduction in the fitness of individuals (Gilroy &

52 Sutherland 2007, Swearer et al. 2021). The hypothesis of DFADs acting
53 as ecological traps, as it was first formulated, relies on one of the
54 hypotheses formulated to explain tuna associative behavior: the
55 *indicator-log* hypothesis (Fréon & Dagorn 2000), which posits that
56 natural floating objects are located in productive areas because they
57 originate from rivers and tend to accumulate in rich frontal areas (Hall
58 1992, Hallier & Gaertner 2008). Thus tropical tunas and other associated
59 species would select natural floating objects as a cue for good-quality
60 habitat. The massive deployment of DFADs would modify the density and
61 spatial distribution of floating objects, with potentially large numbers of
62 artificial objects occurring in areas that are not optimal for tunas,
63 creating the risk of an ecological trap. Hence, there is an urgent need to
64 assess the likelihood of DFADs acting as ecological traps.

65 A proxy to assess tuna fitness is physiological condition. Tunas caught at
66 DFADs may be considered to be in poorer condition than those caught in
67 free-swimming schools (FSC) which infers a negative biological
68 consequence from the association with DFAD (Marsac et al. 2000, Hallier
69 & Gaertner 2008). Robert et al. (2014) also found a difference between
70 the condition of associated and non-associated tunas, but in an area (the
71 Mozambique Channel, Western Indian Ocean) that was rich in natural
72 floating objects and thus only marginally modified by the addition of
73 DFADs. Hence, it is possible that the association with a floating object
74 results in a poorer condition, but that the evolutionary advantage of the
75 associative behavior would not be related to short-term trophic benefits.

76 Tunas could recover faster after associating because they are in a more
77 productive area or in larger schools (Fréon & Dagorn 2000). This led us
78 to consider the ecological trap hypothesis over a long period of time, to
79 examine the condition of tuna before and after the use of DFADs.

80 The objective of this study was to test the hypothesis that the body
81 condition of yellowfin tuna has decreased since the wide-spread use of
82 DFADs began in the Indian Ocean, in the 1990s. We used length and
83 weight measurements to calculate Le Cren's relative condition factor
84 (K_n), and investigated the temporal evolution of the body condition of
85 yellowfin tuna (*Thunnus albacares*) from 1987 to 2019 in the Indian
86 Ocean.

87 **2. Material and Methods**

88 ***2.1. Biological data***

89 A total of 25,914 yellowfin tuna (*Thunnus albacares*) were sampled from
90 1987 to 2019 in the Indian Ocean Tuna canning factory (IOT) in Victoria,
91 Seychelles (Guillou et al. 2021). All the sampled fish were caught by
92 purse seine vessels in the western IO (details of the sample sizes are
93 provided in Tables S1 & S2 in Supplement 1). The total weight (W) of the
94 individuals and their fork length (FL) were measured. For each sampled
95 tuna, the fishing vessel and the fishing trip were recorded, but not the
96 specific fishing set from which it was caught. As a consequence, all
97 fishing sets from a trip are a potential catch location for every samples

98 (see statistical analyses section for details on how the uncertainty on
99 location and date was managed). The type of school (either FOB-
100 associated or FSC) was not considered in the main analysis because it
101 was unknown for a large proportion of the sampled fish (around 75 %,
102 Table S1 in Supplement 1). The year (Y) and quarter (Q) of the catch of
103 each tuna were estimated from the middle of the interval covered by the
104 fishing trip dates. The quarters were defined to be synchronous with the
105 general movement of the fleet, fishing seasons and areas (Dupaix et al.
106 2021): Q1, December to February; Q2, March to May; Q3, June to
107 August; and Q4, September to November. The total range of FL was
108 divided in three intervals, defining size classes (SC): small (<75cm),
109 medium (75-120cm) and large (>120cm).

110 ***2.2. Relative condition factor***

111 To calculate the theoretical weight of individuals (W_{th}), FL and W
112 measures for the whole period were used to estimate the parameters of
113 the length-weight allometric relationship, using the theoretical power-
114 law equation: $W_{th} = a FL^b$. Details on the fit of this power-law are
115 presented in Supplement 2. Secondly, for each individual fish, the
116 relative condition factor (Le Cren 1951) was calculated as follows:

$$117 \quad K_n(i) = \frac{W(i)}{W_{th}(i)}$$

118 where $W_{th}(i)$ is the theoretical weight of individual i calculated from
119 length-weight allometric relationship coefficients according to FL(i), and

120 $W(i)$ is the measured total weight. By definition, $K_n(i)$ measures the
121 deviation of an individual from the weight of a mean individual of the
122 same length. The mean relative condition factor calculated for a group of
123 individuals (either per year, per size class or per quarter) is denoted as
124 K_n .

125 ***2.3. Statistical analysis***

126 In order to determine if K_n decreased with the concurrent increase in
127 DFAD numbers during the study period, a Generalized Additive Model
128 (GAM) was performed considering $K_n(i)$ as the dependent variable, with a
129 Gaussian link function to account for explanatory variables. Explanatory
130 variables were chosen to assess the effect of the fishing year (Y), season
131 (fishing quarter, Q), size of the individuals (size class, SC), and fishing
132 location (longitude, Lon; latitude, Lat, see details below). Longitude and
133 latitude were included in the model as a smoothed term, and other
134 variables were considered as factors. No precise time-series of DFAD
135 number exist in the IO over 1987-2018, but the deployment of DFADs
136 increased during that period, hence we considered the fishing year as a
137 proxy for DFAD density.

138 Because K_n is the ratio of two correlated random variables (Pearson's
139 correlation coefficient between W and W_{th} , Pearson's $\rho = 0.99$), it did not
140 follow a normal distribution and displayed overdispersion. For this
141 reason, and because it did not change the interpretation of the GAM
142 results, we transformed the $K_n(i)$ using a Geary-Hinkley transformation

143 before performing the GAM (Geary 1930, see Supplement 3). The
144 Generalized Additive Model was performed on the transformed $K_n(i)$,
145 noted $T(K_n(i))$. Complementary analyses showed that size class and its
146 interaction with other explanatory variables and fishing mode (Figures
147 S1 & S2 in Supplement 1 respectively) did not impact the main results of
148 the study. These results remained consistent when considering only fish
149 from FOB-associated schools (Figure S3 in Supplement 1).

150 As the exact geographic coordinates were not available for most of the
151 sampled fish, a bootstrap process was applied: a dataset was generated
152 by sampling one set of coordinates from all the fishing sets of the trip for
153 each individual and a GAM was then performed. This operation was
154 repeated 1,000 times and for every model built, we selected the most
155 parsimonious explanatory variables based on the Akaike information
156 criterion (AIC), using a stepwise selection procedure and a threshold of
157 2. The iterated GAM coefficients of the explanatory variables considered
158 as factors (Y, Q and SC) were averaged over the bootstrap replica and
159 their standard deviation was calculated.

160 All analyses were performed using R software v.4.0.3 (R Core Team
161 2020), and the scripts used for the study are available on GitHub ([https://](https://github.com/adupaix/Historical_YFT_condition)
162 github.com/adupaix/Historical_YFT_condition
163 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6123417>).

164 **3. Results**

165 ***3.1. Mean relative condition factors (K_n)***

166 The mean relative condition factor value (K_n) was 1.01 ± 0.088 and mean
167 annual K_n values varied between 0.93 ± 0.064 (in 1987) and 1.07 ± 0.079
168 (in 2012). The relative condition factor displayed annual variations, with
169 low K_n values in 1987-1990 and around 2005-2007, and the highest K_n
170 values observed around 2012 (Figure 2A). The mean annual K_n displayed
171 similar variations per size class as when all the sampled fish were
172 considered together (Figure 2A). No clear trend in K_n variations were
173 observed.

174 ***3.2. Yearly variations of K_n***

175 The most parsimonious model, selected using the AIC, included year (Y),
176 quarter (Q), size class (SC) and the smoothed term for longitude and
177 latitude. The selected model explained 29.2% of the deviance. The
178 residuals displayed no spatial autocorrelation and their distribution was
179 not significantly different from a Gaussian distribution (Figure S4 in
180 Supplement 1). The GAM performed on the transformed relative
181 condition factor, $T(K_n(i))$, showed that strongest $T(K_n(i))$ variations were
182 significantly correlated with fishing year (Figure 2B; Figures S5 & S6 in
183 Supplement 1). The annual GAM coefficients displayed a non-monotonous
184 trend which was non-decreasing in time, with 1987 being the year with
185 the lowest coefficient (-0.475 ± 0.007) while 2012 was the year with the

186 highest coefficient (0.673 ± 0.006 ; Figure 2B). The observed patterns
187 were similar to those displayed when considering only the mean annual
188 K_n (Figures 2A&B).

189 **4. Discussion**

190 Ecological traps in animals are likely to become more common as human-
191 induced environmental changes increase. These traps can increase
192 extinction risk locally and regionally, impacting population persistence,
193 and present an important challenge for the management of animal
194 populations (Battin 2004, Hale et al. 2015, Swearer et al. 2021). The
195 yellowfin tuna population in the Indian Ocean (IO) is currently overfished
196 and subject to overfishing (IOTC 2021). It is therefore critical to assess
197 not only direct impacts of DFADs - through fisheries - but also potential
198 indirect impacts which could also negatively impact tuna populations
199 (Hallier & Gaertner 2008). The hypothesis that DFADs could act as
200 ecological traps was developed more than 20 years ago (Marsac et al.
201 2000) and implies that the introduction of DFADs would have negatively
202 impacted the condition of tunas, following roughly three decades of
203 DFAD deployment (Figure 1). Under the hypothesis that DFAD number
204 increased during the study period, we expected a decrease of yellowfin
205 tuna condition throughout the years. The relative condition factor ($K_n(i)$)
206 values obtained here did not display any clear temporal trend over the
207 study period (Figure 2), which does not support the tested hypothesis.

208 Hence, the present study suggests that under the conditions encountered
209 by yellowfin tuna in the IO during the last three decades, the addition of
210 DFADs to the pelagic environment has not led to the creation of an
211 ecological trap for this species.

212 Data used in this study were not uniformly distributed across size classes
213 and years (Figure S7 in Supplement 1), and tunas from both fishing
214 modes (FOB-associated and FSC) were considered, which could influence
215 the results (Hallier & Gaertner 2008, Robert et al. 2014). However, no
216 decreasing trend of condition factor was observed concurrently with
217 increasing DFAD use when performing a GAM on data of each size class
218 independently (Figure S1 in Supplement 1). Also, even though the mean
219 K_n of FOB-associated tuna was lower than that of FSC tuna, no
220 decreasing trend of condition was observed when considering the fishing
221 mode (Figures S2 & S3 in Supplement 1).

222 For a habitat modification to lead to an ecological trap, individuals
223 selecting the modified habitat have to experience a reduction in their
224 fitness, namely their reproductive success, which includes survival and
225 reproduction. Physiological condition can be considered a good proxy of
226 individual fitness as it can impact both individual's survival and
227 reproduction. The morphometric index used here, K_n , was the only
228 condition indicator for which a long time-series was available. Other
229 indices can be used to assess physiological condition, such as Bio-
230 Impedance Analysis (BIA; Robert et al. 2014), organosomatic indices or

231 measurements of biomarkers (Lloret et al. 2014). Sardenne et al. (2016)
232 alerted on the fact that different morphometric indices could show
233 inconsistency and are not always the best proxies of tropical tuna
234 condition. All of these stresses the need to develop experimental
235 approaches, to measure a set of condition indices on captive tuna under
236 various feeding/fasting conditions, in order to better understand the
237 validity of these indices. DFADs could also impact the biology of tuna in a
238 variety of complex ways, impacting other biological processes leading to
239 a reduction of fitness, like growth rate (Hallier & Gaertner 2008), or
240 reproduction (Zudaire et al. 2014). This highlights the need to monitor
241 tuna physiological condition more thoroughly, by performing regular data
242 collection of biological data.

243 Many studies demonstrated that tuna associated with DFADs tend to be
244 in lower condition than FSC tunas (Marsac et al. 2000, Hallier &
245 Gaertner 2008, Jaquemet et al. 2011). However, Robert et al. (2014)
246 observed a similar result when comparing tuna associated with NLOGs
247 and FSC tuna, and concluded that the associative behavior could be the
248 consequence and not the cause of a lower physiological condition. These
249 studies testing the ecological trap hypothesis were performed on short
250 temporal scales of up to a few months and therefore were not able to
251 conclude on a potential long-term impact of DFADs. Other long-term
252 phenomena could also impact the physiology of tropical tuna. For
253 example, since the 1980s, climate change has already impacted tuna
254 habitat, by inducing changes in sea surface temperature or oxygen

255 concentration (Erauskin-Extramiana et al. 2019). Erauskin-Extramiana et
256 al. (2019) projected that yellowfin tuna will become more abundant
257 under a climate change scenario. Our study is the first performed on a
258 time-series long enough to allow assessing the potential long-term impact
259 of the increase of DFAD density on tuna condition. A decreasing trend of
260 small tunas' condition was observed in the later years of the study
261 (Figure 2A), which was not correlated with the number of FOBs
262 (Supplement 4). Hence, to investigate possible long-term physiological
263 changes due to climate change and/or any environmental disturbances,
264 continuous effort to develop routine biological sampling and routinely
265 monitor fish condition should be established to develop long time-series
266 of biological indices. This effort should be combined with the collection of
267 data on habitat modifications induced by DFADs.

268 Tuna associative behavior plays a key role in determining the potential
269 indirect impacts of DFADs on tuna condition. This associative behavior
270 could also depend on several other factors than DFAD density, such as
271 environmental conditions or social behavior (Capello et al. 2022). It could
272 also be impacted by their physiological condition, for example one could
273 hypothesize that tuna would associate with a DFAD until its condition
274 lowers a given threshold value that would cause it to leave. Several
275 hypotheses - *e.g.* the association being a consequence of a low condition
276 and individuals departing from FOBs beyond a given condition threshold
277 - could explain the absence of a long-term impact of DFADs on tuna
278 condition, which need to be further explored.

279 By demonstrating the absence of any decreasing trend in yellowfin tuna
280 condition during the past three decades in the Indian Ocean,
281 concurrently to the observed increasing DFAD density, this study rejects
282 the ecological trap hypothesis as it was originally formulated more than
283 20 years ago. To continue assessing the indirect impacts of DFADs on
284 tuna condition, experimental studies are needed, to determine the
285 relevant temporal scales and indices to monitor these impacts. Finally, it
286 is necessary to establish long-term monitoring programs to track (i)
287 habitat changes (*e.g.* DFAD density), (ii) variations of tuna behavioral
288 features (*e.g.* association dynamics) and (iii), temporal variations of
289 biological indicators of fitness.

290 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

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

294 **Data availability statement**

295 Data used in this study is available in Guillou et al. (2021) and were
296 collected through the Data Collection Framework (Reg 2017/1004 and
297 2021/1167) funded by both IRD and the European Union.

298 A preprint version of the article is available at:

299 <https://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal-03690665>

300 **Acknowledgments**

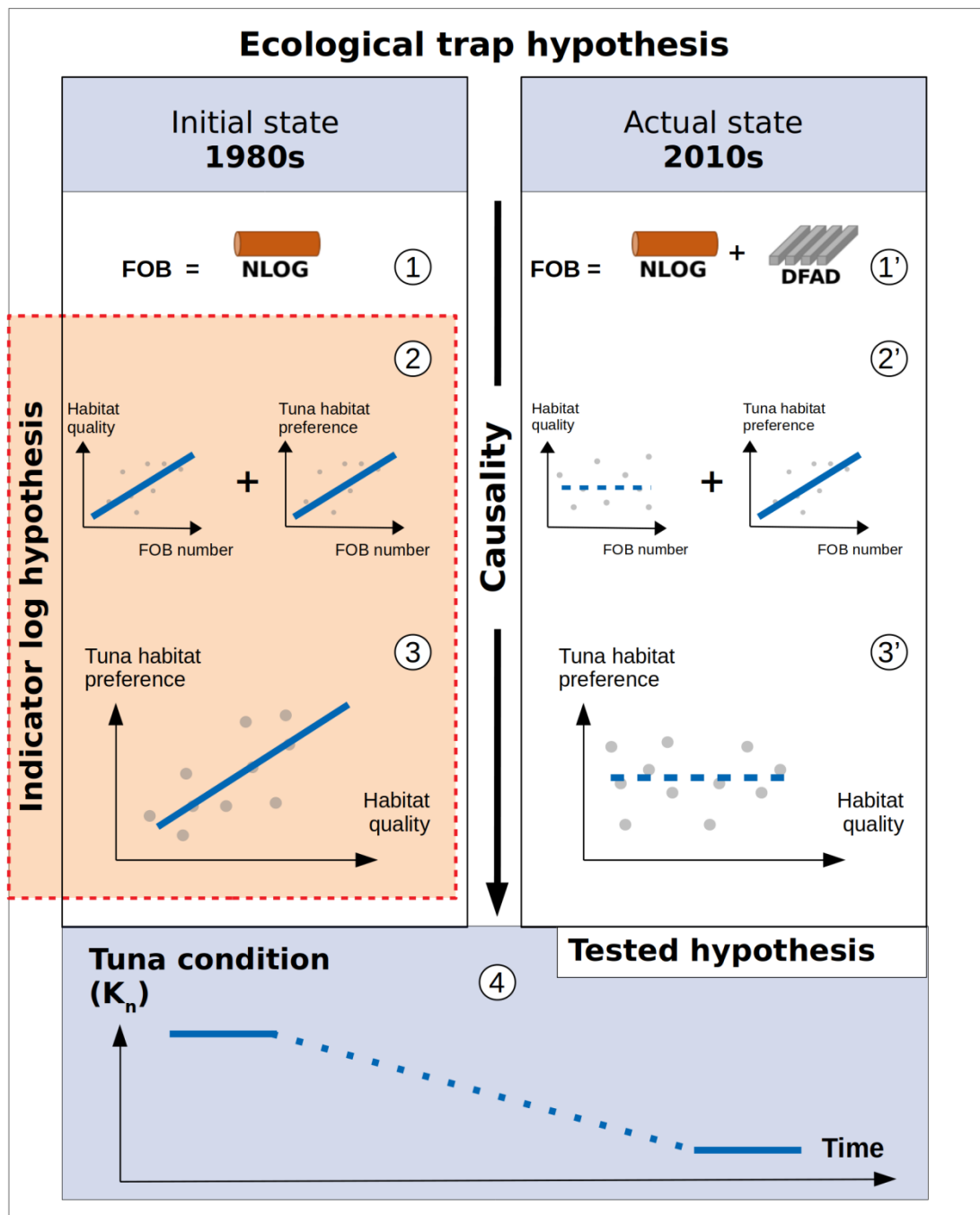
301 The authors sincerely thank IRD's Ob7—"Observatoire des Ecosystèmes
302 Pélagiques Tropicaux Exploités"— in charge of the observer data
303 collection, processing, management, and for sharing the data used in this
304 study; M. Simier for her inputs on statistical analyses; J.D. Filmalter for
305 his proofreading. The authors acknowledge the Pôle de Calcul et de
306 Données Marines (PCDM) for providing DATARMOR storage, data
307 access, computational resources, visualization, web-services,
308 consultation, support services, URL: <http://www.ifremer.fr/pcdm>. This
309 work was supported by the MANFAD project (France Filière Pêche),
310 URL: <https://manfad-project.com>. We thank ISSF for its involvement in
311 the overall project. The authors also thank two anonymous reviewers and
312 the handling editor for their insightful remarks.

313 **References**

- Battin J (2004) When Good Animals Love Bad Habitats: Ecological Traps and the Conservation of Animal Populations. *Conserv Biol* 18:1482-1491.
- Capello M, Rault J, Deneubourg J-L, Dagorn L (2022) Schooling in habitats with aggregative sites: The case of tropical tuna and floating objects. *J Theor Biol* 547:111163.
- Dagorn L, Holland KN, Restrepo V, Moreno G (2013) Is it good or bad to fish with FADs? What are the real impacts of the use of drifting FADs on pelagic marine ecosystems? *Fish Fish* 14:391-415.
- Dupaix A, Capello M, Lett C, Andrello M, Barrier N, Viennois G, Dagorn L (2021) Surface habitat modification through industrial tuna fishery practices. *ICES J Mar Sci* 78:3075-3088.
- Erauskin-Extramiana M, Arrizabalaga H, Hobday AJ, Cabré A, Ibaibarriaga L, Arregui I, Murua H, Chust G (2019) Large-scale distribution of tuna species in a warming ocean. *Glob Change Biol* 25:2043-2060.

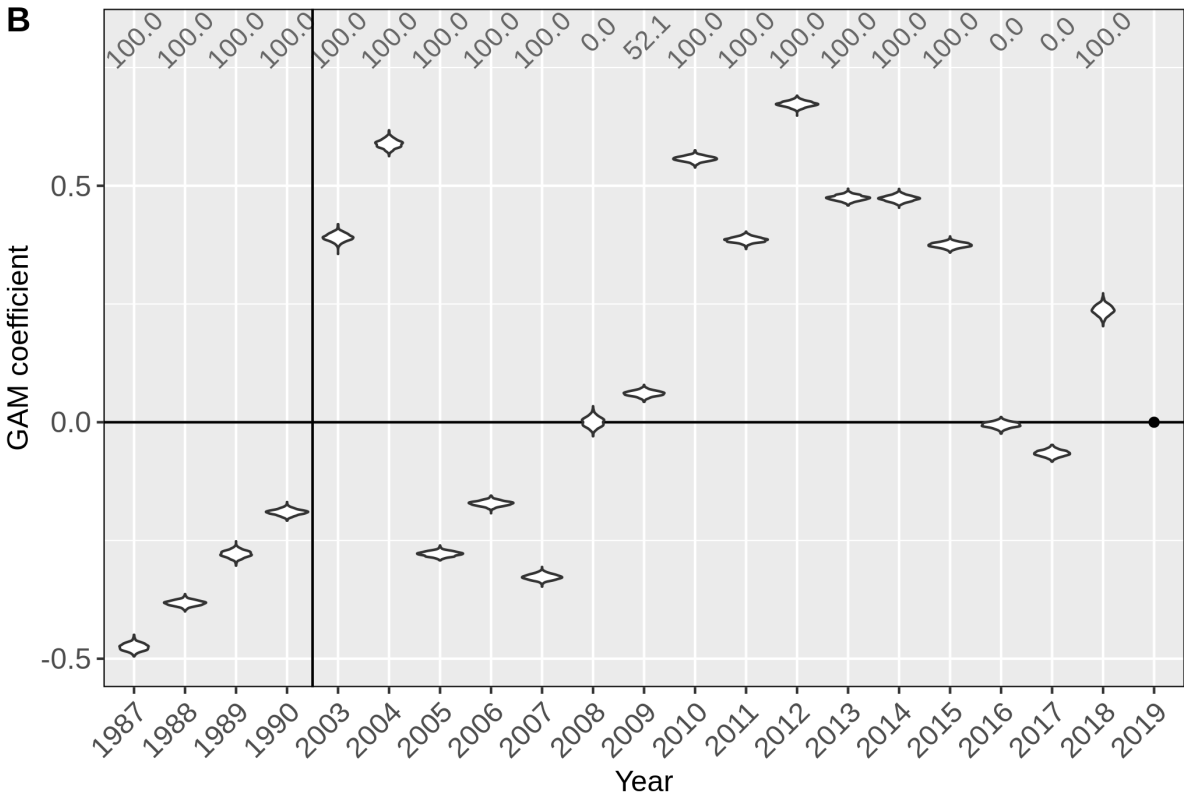
- Fréon P, Dagorn L (2000) Review of fish associative behaviour: toward a generalisation of the meeting point hypothesis. *Rev Fish Biol Fish* 10:183-207.
- Gilroy J, Sutherland W (2007) Beyond ecological traps: perceptual errors and undervalued resources. *Trends Ecol Evol* 22:351-356.
- Guillou A, Bodin N, Chassot E, Duparc A, Fily T, Sabarros P, Depetris M, Amande MJ, Lucas J, Diaha C, Floch L, Barde J, Pascual Alayon PJ, Baez JC, Cauquil P, Briand K, Bach P, Lebranchu J (2021) Tunabio: biological traits of tropical tuna and bycatch species caught by purse seine fisheries in the Western Indian and Eastern Central Atlantic Oceans.
- Hale R, Treml EA, Swearer SE (2015) Evaluating the metapopulation consequences of ecological traps. *Proc R Soc B Biol Sci* 282:20142930.
- Hall M (1992) The association of tunas with floating objects and dolphins in the Eastern Pacific Ocean. 1992. Part VII. Some hypotheses on the mechanisms governing the association of tunas with floating objects and dolphins. In: *International Workshop on Fishing for Tunas Associated with Floating Objects*. Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission, La Jolla, CA, February 11-13, 1992, p 7
- Hallier J-P, Gaertner D (2008) Drifting fish aggregation devices could act as an ecological trap for tropical tuna species. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 353:255-264.
- IOTC (2021) Executive Summary Yellowfin Tuna (2021). Indian Ocean Tuna Commission.
- Jaquemet S, Potier M, Ménard F (2011) Do drifting and anchored Fish Aggregating Devices (FADs) similarly influence tuna feeding habits? A case study from the western Indian Ocean. *Fish Res* 107:283-290.
- Le Cren ED (1951) The Length-Weight Relationship and Seasonal Cycle in Gonad Weight and Condition in the Perch (*Perca fluviatilis*). *J Anim Ecol* 20:201.
- Lloret J, Shulman GE, Love RM (2014) Condition and health indicators of exploited marine fishes. Wiley Blackwell, Chichester, West Sussex; Hoboken, NJ.
- Marsac F, Fonteneau A, Ménard F (2000) Drifting FADs used in tuna fisheries: an ecological trap? *Pêche Thonière Dispos Conc Poissons* 28:537-552.
- R Core Team (2020) R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.
- Robert M, Dagorn L, Bodin N, Pernet F, Arsenault-Pernet E-J, Deneubourg J-L (2014) Comparison of condition factors of skipjack tuna (*Katsuwonus pelamis*) associated or not with floating objects in an area known to be naturally enriched with logs. *Can J Fish Aquat Sci*.

- Robertson BA, Hutto RL (2006) A framework for understanding ecological traps and an evaluation of existing evidence. *Ecology* 87:1075-1085.
- Sardenne F, Chassot E, Fouché E, Ménard F, Lucas V, Bodin N (2016) Are condition factors powerful proxies of energy content in wild tropical tunas? *Ecol Indic* 71:467-476.
- Swearer SE, Morris RL, Barrett LT, Sievers M, Dempster T, Hale R (2021) An overview of ecological traps in marine ecosystems. *Front Ecol Environ* 19:234-242.
- Wang S-B, Chang F-C, Wang S-H (2002) Some Biological Parameters of Bigeye and Yellowfin Tunas Distributed in Surrounding Waters of Taiwan. p 13
- Zudaire I, Murua H, Grande M, Pernet F, Bodin N (2014) Accumulation and mobilization of lipids in relation to reproduction of yellowfin tuna (*Thunnus albacares*) in the Western Indian Ocean. *Fish Res* 160:50-59.



315 **Figure 1: Schematic representation of the ecological trap**
 316 **hypothesis applied to Fish Aggregating Devices and tropical tuna.**

317 FOB: Floating object of any kind; DFAD: Fish Aggregating Device; NLOG:
318 Natural floating object. Under this hypothesis, before DFAD introduction,
319 when only NLOGs were present (1), floating objects were distributed in
320 productive areas (2), hence tunas, which associate with floating objects,
321 preferred high quality habitats (3). Since DFAD introduction (1'), the
322 distribution of floating objects has been modified and is no longer
323 correlated with habitat quality (2'). Hence, tunas, which still associate
324 with floating objects, do not select high quality habitat anymore (3'). As a
325 consequence of this habitat modification, the physiological condition of
326 tunas would have decreased since the 1990s (4). Preference is defined
327 here as the likelihood of a resource being chosen if offered as an option
328 with other available options.

A**B**

330 **Figure 2: No observed trend in yellowfin tuna condition: (A) Mean**
331 **relative condition factor per year.** The K_n is represented for all
332 individuals (all, black circles), for small individuals (<75, red circles),
333 medium-size individuals (75-120, blue triangles) and large individuals
334 (>120, green diamonds). Values are represented only when more than 50
335 individuals of the given class were measured. Error bars represent the
336 standard error of the mean. (B) Coefficients of the fishing year in the
337 Generalized Additive Model. Each coefficient represents the mean
338 deviation of $T(K_n)$ from the values for a year of reference (2019,
339 represented by a black dot). The shape of the points represents the
340 distribution of the values obtained with the bootstrap process. Numbers
341 in grey in the upper part of the panels represent the percentage of the
342 models generated in the bootstrap for which a given category was
343 significantly different from the category of reference.