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"Overarching sustainability objectives overcome incompatible directions in the Common Fisheries Policy"

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7 Abstract

8 The lack of clarity in the objectives of the Common Fisheries Policy (CFP) must be addressed to create 9 a more efficient balance across diverse ecological, economic and social dimensions. Particularly 10 economic and social objectives present at an overarching level must be made explicit and addressed in lower level management measures, in order to link them to biological objectives and allow policy 11 to build a balance across types of objectives. Selecting clear objectives is essential, particularly for 12 policy impact assessment. The aim of this paper is to demonstrate how more specific high level 13 14 objectives to managing fisheries can be derived from stakeholders. The paper first reviews the 15 definition of objectives, from a historical and conceptual perspective. Secondly, it discusses the 16 issues of manageability and acceptability, and finally describes an articulation of the high level 17 objectives derived from extensive stakeholder consultations at European and regional level. The 18 results from workshops at the European level to identify objectives were further examined at 19 regional level for the Baltic and North Seas in additional individual consultations. The German case 20 addresses two seas (Baltic and North Seas), has a complex governance structure (due to federalism) 21 and significant roles for the three types of actors (industry, government and environmental NGOs). 22 The analysis suggests that establishing higher level sustainability objectives within the CFP can help 23 diverse interest groups to develop a consensus on management actions to meet complex social 24 goals.

Keywords: Common Fisheries Policy; high level objective; sustainability goal; participatory
 method; EU fisheries management; impact assessment

27 Highlights

- High level policy objectives allow for synergies that are lost at lower level
- Manageability and acceptability of objective is key for implementation and
- 30 compliance
- Limit values of some objectives can restrict the speed at which others are achieved
- Participation of stakeholder in drafting objectives can lead to innovative approaches

34 **1 Introduction**

35 Article 2 of the Common Fisheries Policy (CFP) [1] contains a series of overarching objectives. These 36 tend to focus on core fisheries management issues, such as Maximum Sustainable Yield (MSY) and 37 the Landing Obligation (LO), but also include very high level objectives for sustainability in an 38 ecological, economic and social context - the three pillars of sustainability. Across the different 39 framework regulations for fisheries issued in Europe since 1983 the description of objectives has 40 changed from the conservation of fishing grounds to the restructuring of the sector or the 41 conservation of the resource, and in the same way the scope of the policy has been modified to 42 include fisheries, aquaculture and EU registered vessels fishing abroad.

Little prioritization between objectives can be discerned in the latest policy, which includes all three aspects of sustainability. It ranges from high level, and quite vague, objectives covering all three aspects, to specific objectives, such as for coastal activities (Article 2.5i). Prioritization has been demanded at the higher level, for example setting conservation over other goals and also creating a distinction between principles and technical implementation to avoid micro-management and a short term focus[2].

49 Clear objectives are critically important for the evaluation of the impact and success of any proposed 50 management measure[3,4]. This includes the outcomes in terms of changes in the fishery and 51 incentives for that, changes in the ecosystem (for example, progress towards Good Environmental 52 Status (GES) under the MSFD[5]), and changes in the social and economic indicators chosen to 53 represent those two pillars.

The aim of this paper is to demonstrate how clear high level objectives [6] can be derived with stakeholders to effectively and efficiently manage fisheries across a range of sustainability criteria. The paper addresses this first by reviewing the definition of sustainability objectives, from a historical and conceptual perspective. Secondly, we discuss the issues of manageability and uncertainty and finally describe an articulation of the high level objectives derived from extensive stakeholder consultations at European, regional and local levels from two research projects, as described in Marchal et al [7] and Rindorf et al. [8].

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2 The problem of defining objectives

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2.1 Sustainability objectives in context

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64 The sustainability objectives of the Common Fisheries Policy cannot be considered in isolation, as 65 they exist under a wider suite of global and European objectives. The most widely used definition of 66 a sustainability objective promoted by the United Nations at a global level was developed by the 67 Brundtland Commission in 1987[9], stating that "sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own 68 69 needs." This statement is completed by an emphasis on its two main elements. The "needs", with 70 priority given to the needs of the poor, representing a social objective, and the "limitations" imposed 71 by the need to maintain a healthy environment, representing an ecosystem objective. With respect 72 to fisheries, the United Nations Convention for the Law of the Sea in its Article 61 states that 73 conservation measures should be designed to "maintain or restore populations of harvested species 74 at levels which can produce the maximum sustainable yield, as qualified by relevant environmental 75 and economic factors, including the economic needs of coastal fishing communities and the special requirements of developing States". This qualifies a primarily technical indicator (maximum 76 77 sustainable yield, MSY) to include social, economic and ecological factors, in a very similar fashion to 78 Article 2.1 of the CFP. This demonstrates how the objectives of conservation and social and 79 economic development are tightly connected in international policies. Finally, Sustainable 80 Development Goals (SDG) were also defined by the UN[10], and in particular SDG 14 - Conserve and 81 sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development. In terms of 82 fisheries SDG 14 states: "By 2020, effectively regulate harvesting and end overfishing, IUU and 83 destructive fishing practices and implement science-based management plans, in order to restore fish 84 stocks in the shortest time feasible, at least to levels that can produce maximum sustainable yield as 85 determined by their biological characteristics", again focusing on MSY, but with a wider scope.SDG 14 86 further states: "By 2020, prohibit certain forms of fisheries subsidies which contribute to overcapacity 87 and overfishing" which can be seen as a specific governance measure. SDG 14 also emphasizes social 88 and economic sustainability, especially for developing countries, but in very general terms. The UN 89 Conference to Support the Implementation of Sustainable Development Goal 14 in New York, 2017, 90 set out a "Draft call for action" but without stating any specific objectives beyond those from 2015.

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92 At the European level, the fundamental aim of the European Union is asserted in the Treaty of Lisbon 93 where, in Article 2, it is formulated as "to promote peace, its values and the well-being of its 94 peoples". The same Article states sustainability as an aim of the internal market, detailing aspects of 95 economic growth, employment and social progress and, finally, protection and even improvement of 96 the environment. Within the European legislative framework fisheries are included under the same 97 section as agriculture, both using similar economic measures such as subsidies and price support 98 mechanisms, despite having objectives that differ substantially [9]. Again, all three pillars of 99 sustainability are represented, but without detail.

100

101 Further at the European level, the Marine Strategy Framework Directive MSFD [5,11]refers to 102 "enabling the sustainable use of marine goods and services by present and future generations" 103 (Article 1.3). Regarding social and economic aspects, Article 1.2 refers to human health and 104 "legitimate uses of the sea". Another aim of the MSFD is to coherently integrate environmental aspects into other policies affecting the marine environment¹, most pertinently, the CFP, whose first 105 106 objective is specified in the current regulation Article 2.1 [1] as "The CFP shall ensure that fishing and 107 aquaculture activities are environmentally sustainable in the long-term and are managed in a way 108 that is consistent with the objectives of achieving economic, social and employment benefits, and of 109 contributing to the availability of food supplies". Therefore, the objective includes sustainability and 110 the three pillars concept (environmental, economic and social) in an explicit way.

111

The history of the CFP provides an alternative way to understand how objectives have evolved. A framework regulation on the European fisheries sector dates back to 1983, with successive reforms in 1992 and 2002. In the first framework regulation for fisheries [12] the first element of the statement of objectives was *"the protection of fishing grounds"*, mirroring the discussion at the time over the sovereignty of territorial waters.

¹ This is a slightly different approach than fulfilling the three pillars of sustainability equally in every sector or activity. It hopefully gives clearer priorities as the MSFD defines ecosystems with good environmental status as a necessary basis for every activity.

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- 118 In the second framework regulation in 1992 [13], the scope was increased to include aquaculture, 119 processing and marketing, as well as to EU vessels operating beyond EU waters. The preamble of the 120 regulation mentions the existence of new fishing opportunities and a need to restructure the sector, 121 increasing the complexity as new issues shift the focus beyond the original objectives. The third
- 122 framework regulation from 2002 [14] introduced the integrative concept of ecosystem management.
- 123 An analysis of the implementation of ecosystem based management in the CFP can be found in[15].
- 124
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126 The most recent reform process (completed in 2013) has also gone through several stages of 127 development, with a corresponding evolution of objectives. The Green Paper on the reform of the 128 CFP [2] mentions the lack of prioritization of objectives in the previous regulations, considering that 129 the three types of objectives are compatible in the long term, but not in the short term. At the same 130 time, and in more practical terms, the document highlights the fact that in the CFP both principles 131 and instruments to achieve them are decided at the same level (the Council of Ministers), promoting 132 inappropriate high level micro-management as issues that could be managed at a lower level need to go through the Council of Ministers and in many cases also the European Parliament². The 133 134 communication from the European Commission on the reform of the CFP from 2011 [16] includes a 135 broad section on objectives, many of which can be categorized as social. In addition to a first 136 objective on improved status of the stocks, the other proposed objectives include "a future for fisheries and aquaculture industry and jobs", "thriving coastal communities", "satisfying the real 137 138 needs of informed consumers" and "better governance through regionalization". A summary of the 139 evolution of the objectives in the different versions of the CFP is given in Table 1 below.

140

141 Table 1. Sustainability objectives in the CFP across time.

Definition of ecological, economic and social sustainability objectives	Additional objectives	CFP version reference
"conservation of the biological resources []in appropriate economic and social conditions"	<i>"the protection of fishing grounds"</i>	(EEC) No 170/83 of 25 January 1983, Art.1
"protect [] living marine aquatic resources [] in appropriate economic and social conditions for the sector"	<i>"implications for the marine ecosystem"</i> <i>"the needs of both producers and consumers"</i>	(EEC) No 3760/92 of 20 December 1992, Art.2
<i>"ensure exploitation of living aquatic resources that provides sustainable economic,</i>	"providing a fair standard of living for those who depend on fishing activities and taking into account the interests of	(EC) No 2371/2002 of 20 December 2002, Art.2

² In the new CFP a co-decision process was introduced for certain decisions while in some other cases regionalization is a priority. For some issues, like discard plans, Member States in a certain region can agree on measures, which after approval by the EC clarifying whether the proposals fulfill the requirements, go into force without a decision in Council or Parliament (delegated acts).

environmental and social conditions"	consumers."	
"environmentally sustainable in the	" and of contributing to the	(EU) No 1380/2013 of 11
long-term and [] consistent with the objectives of achieving economic, social and employment benefits"	availability of food supplies"	December 2013, Art. 2

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145 The objectives of the CFP and MSFD cover most Member States and regional differences, for example 146 between the Baltic and Mediterranean areas, are critically important for the discussion of objectives. 147 The context here includes the different economic, social and cultural importance of fishing for areas 148 that are considered "most fishery dependent regions". There are also regional objectives outside of 149 EU regulations that affect fisheries, such as the environmental objectives in regional organizations 150 (such as the Helsinki Commission or the Barcelona Convention) or economic and social objectives 151 (such as in the Bergen Statement of the OSPAR Commission). At a more local level there will be 152 regional and sub-regional differences in the importance of small scale coastal fisheries, in attitudes of 153 those fishing, and in Member State choices of GES indicators and targets. More specifically, some 154 multiannual management plans include similar, but not identical, objectives to the high level aims in 155 the CFP. For example, the management plan for Baltic cod mentions social and economic incentives 156 only implicitly by stating that sustainability will be attained by "gradually reducing and maintaining 157 fishing mortality rates" [16], thus allowing industry to adapt and plan in the longer term.

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2.2 Priorities between the three pillars of sustainability

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The three pillars of sustainability were introduced in the 2002 Johannesburg Declaration [18] "the interdependent and mutually reinforcing pillars of sustainable development - economic development, social development and environmental protection - at the local, national, regional and global levels". The interdependence of those pillars is clear, but with regard to fisheries objectives, it is less clear that these have equal priority or importance.

The assumption of three equal pillars is that no priority exists between them and the text avoids explicit statements about that balance[19]. However, some approaches to objective prioritization have been carried out [[6, 20, 21]]. In the case of fisheries objectives, there can be different levels of importance attached to each of the pillars, either due to specific social values or due to practical constraints. We detail examples of this below.

171 The pillar of ecological sustainability in some cases constitute a clear priority in fisheries management. In the Green Paper on the CFP Reform[2], it states "Ecological sustainability is 172 173 therefore a basic premise for the economic and social future of European fisheries", which implies a 174 long time horizon, long enough for ecological feedback processes. Conservation of stocks, while a 175 clear ecological objective, is also important for a sustainable industry, and hence has both economic 176 and indeed social connotations, suggesting a sequential priority between pillars. The stock 177 conservation advice is provided by the International Council for the Exploration of the Sea (ICES), 178 dating from 1902. This advice is further refined by the EC Scientific, Technical and Economic 179 Committee for Fisheries (STECF), which may add an economic context. STECF was not founded until 180 2002, again suggesting the evolving importance of the economic pillar catching up with the ecological 181 pillar. Further, there are particular situations where there is a clear asymmetry towards conservation 182 objectives, such as where stocks are managed under an explicit recovery plan. An example of a 183 recovery plan is that for the stock of Irish Sea cod [22], among many other European stocks. In these 184 cases, the ecological pillar is given priority, but again, with expected benefits under the other two 185 pillars. The Green Paper formulates it as "the economic and social viability of fisheries can only result 186 from restoring the productivity of fish stocks". . Sometimes this asymmetry is incorporated into 187 harvest control rules, as for example in the Baltic Sea long term management plan for cod, where 188 higher restrictions in fishing mortality are foreseen in cases of particular danger for the stock (when 189 stock spawning biomass is below the stock specific reference point[23]).

190 The pillar of economic sustainability is often not a high priority in conventional fisheries 191 management. But economic factors can still act as a clear limit or constraint that needs to be given 192 some consideration even in what appears, at first glance, to be a simple conservation issue (e.g.[24]). 193 Fisheries are an economic activity and there may be market constraints that make fishing economically difficult or impossible under some conservation measures. The price and availability of 194 195 fish, together with the dependence on the processing industry as the main market, are issues that 196 may bring economic sustainability to the forefront. This was the case for the closure of the anchovy 197 fishery in the Bay of Biscay in 2005. Most of the catch was used in the processing industry and the 198 closure of the fishery created the risk that the processing industry would look for another source of 199 supply [25]. Fishers may thus prefer to reduce their catches to a minimum TAC for a faster re-200 opening of the fishery so that they can more effectively serve the needs of the processing industry 201 [25]. They may also introduce individual daily limits to influence prices [26]. In this way the market 202 (the processing industry in this case) may set the speed of the stock recovery. Therefore, a temporal 203 and a sectoral scale are used to emphasize the economic pillar.

204 Finally, social objectives could also alter the equilibrium of the three pillars model. A possible social 205 objective might be ensuring the survival of local fish processing firms. A good, if negative, example of this was the gradual disappearance of the filleting industry on the German Baltic Sea coast since the 206 207 1990's[27]. Only one firm now remains, and the catches of herring are generally trucked to other 208 countries due to the lack of processing capacity. Fishing cooperatives in such areas can employ in 209 fishing and processing in a ratio of 4:3. This added social value to the local community is lost when 210 most of the catch is exported [27]. Demographic factors may be a clear limiting factor in certain 211 fisheries, especially where fishing is a part-time occupation. In these cases, a closure in certain 212 fisheries breaks the income stability of a community, causing emigration of the young and loss of 213 training of local fishermen [28]. The breakdown of social sustainability can thus have irreversible 214 consequences, which may make it worthwhile to reconsider alternative management targets when 215 dealing with the biological pillar. In general, however, social objectives are not strongly emphasized 216 in fisheries management [29] and yet, understanding of social and economic dimensions can impact 217 on the success or failure of a simple conservation policy [30].

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3 Managing fisheries to meet the overarching principles of the CFP

222

3.1 The problem: manageable and acceptable objectives

223 A common description for a good objective in management is expressed by the acronym SMART: 224 Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant and Time-bound [[31,32]]. However, in the case of 225 fisheries this may not be so simple to achieve. Fisheries management is largely based on objectives 226 for stock biomass (B) achieved by controlling fishing mortality (F). So, while an objective can be 227 specific, for example, to recover a stock to a given biomass, a measure to achieve the objective may 228 not be. This would be most obvious in mixed fisheries where a measure specific to one species, say 229 reduce F, could also impact on many other species via food web interactions, but also fishing 230 opportunities where fish are caught together. Equally, while we can estimate fish stocks, monitoring 231 them is more difficult, and often lags by one or more years behind the current situation in the ocean. 232 Whether an objective is achievable depends on many factors in addition to fisheries management, 233 most obviously those factors that affect recruitment. Even the best management is ineffective in the 234 face of a persistent stock recruitment failure, such as that of North Sea herring in the early 2000s 235 [33]. F and biomass (B) objectives can probably always be seen as relevant. as B is the ecologically 236 relevant objective and F is relevant for economic and social dimensions. F may also affect other 237 species through ecological interaction with the target species. Finally, it is very difficult to have time 238 bound objectives in a complex ecosystem where many factors interact to drive fish abundance over 239 different time scales. As an example, the target of the Johannesburg Summit, which set 2015 as a time limit for reaching MSY, was already postponed by the Green Paper of the CFP to 2020 to allow 240 241 more time to develop management. While recognizing the value of SMART objectives, we would 242 suggest evaluating the objectives for the Common Fisheries Policy in terms of two key characteristics: 243 manageability and acceptability. Policy objectives clearly need to be manageable. However, there will 244 be complex environmental, ecosystem, technical, geographical and cultural factors that make 245 manageability in fisheries a complex issue. An additional difficulty is the existence of elements outside human control, illustrated by the use of biomass as an objective. Biomass is something that 246 247 cannot be tightly controlled by management due to the diverse array of uncontrolled natural 248 environmental and ecosystem factors that interact, so management needs to be adaptable and 249 resilient. Objectives of fisheries management regulations have consequently moved from highly 250 dynamic and hard to measure biomass objectives (e.g. the Bay of Biscay plaice long term 251 management plan) to fishing mortality targets (e.g. the Baltic Sea cod long term management plan), a 252 variable that can be directly influenced by management. This is not the only source of complexity of 253 fisheries that makes manageability a key issue. Fisheries regulations need to devise mechanisms to 254 manage a wide array of fishing techniques, from artisanal gillnets to the latest satellite technology 255 used by high sea trawlers. Geography is an issue when we consider the different areas where 256 European fisheries occur, and the implications of spatial issues and climate, for example for seasonal 257 or area closures. Finally, setting up the needed governance mechanisms is a challenge when we 258 consider the cultural diversity of the EU, which also faces different time horizons from international 259 framework policies, the activity of a commercial sector or the life of a fishing community. A set of 260 objectives needs to consider these factors, at least at a later stage of development, if it is to be 261 manageable.

262 Management of fisheries comprises four basic stages; policy design, implementation, monitoring and 263 enforcement. All of these phases present challenges that should be foreseen when drafting the 264 objective of the policy. First, in the design phase, information is needed, in at least the three basic 265 aspects of biologic, economic and social data. None of these data will be simple to obtain. As an 266 example, economic data for fishing firms or individual fishers is not readily available, as there are 267 confidentiality issues in many fleets, an informal economy in subsistence sectors with low data 268 availability and in general a fear of control that often creates an incentive to misreport. Second, in 269 the implementation phase there are elements that create costs both to the management and to the 270 fishers, and this can create negative incentives towards these objectives. Examples include changes 271 in mesh size, which for the fishers means buying new nets, or the setup of a license system, which 272 entails administrative costs for the management authority involved. Thirdly, monitoring progress 273 towards the objectives is costly, from creating and using Vessel Monitoring Systems VMS (both for 274 the vessel owners and for the management authority) to analyzing the vast recordings from onboard 275 cameras. Finally, while the enforcement of the management system is already very expensive, it is 276 still considered insufficient [[2], [4], [34]].

277 The Marine Strategy Framework Directive is an example of a related policy that is more recent than 278 the original CFP and is more management-oriented. It incorporates many of the elements described 279 above. The directive uses the DPSIR (Driver, Pressure, State, Impact, Response) framework and sets a 280 series of descriptors with associated indicators, where particular values can be considered as objectives [5]. In this way the objectives are intrinsically linked to the management measures, as they 281 282 have been designed based on those criteria. The CFP on the other hand tends to describe objectives 283 that lack manageability. For example, the CFP suggests that "Measures are needed to reduce the 284 current high levels of unwanted catches and to gradually eliminate discards". But it does so without specifying the type of discard (landable target species, small individuals of target species or non-285 286 commercial species, etc...) or the way in which their reduction or elimination is to be achieved. Such 287 an objective is likely to be very difficult to manage, or needs very careful specification in order to be 288 manageable [35,36].

In addition to being manageable, the objectives of the CFP need to be acceptable to fishers simply 289 290 because the cost in terms of compliance of not being so is too high. If an objective, and the measures 291 adopted to achieve it, lack acceptability, legitimacy and credibility, it is highly unlikely there will be 292 full compliance. Lack of compliance will lead to conflict between fishers and managers and indeed between different groups of fishers who view the measures as more or less acceptable ([37,38,39] 293 294 On one side, there is the cost of conflict, with cases such as the strikes in the brown shrimp fishery in 295 Germany due to low product prices in 2011 or the blocking of the port of La Rochelle in France in 296 2008 due to high fuel costs. On the other, there are the particularly high costs of enforcement, due 297 to the complexity of surveillance of many vessels, across wide areas and throughout the year. 298 Participation (in the objective setting and measures process) has been reported to improve 299 compliance [[40, 41]. Nevertheless, there are critics of the value of participation in improving social 300 outcomes of fisheries management, based on its potential to allow powerful vested interest to 301 further entrench inequality in management regimes [42].

Overall, manageability and acceptability are two clear requisites for objectives when dealing specifically with fisheries management. Manageability is necessary, given the perspective of fishing as an economic activity dealing with a highly variable resource and with an already over-complex fisheries management system. Acceptability is also a requirement, as this should lead to better compliance and a reduced control and enforcement burden. Manageability should thus be taken into account when designing management actions to meet objectives and acceptability, to have those management actions successfully implemented.

- 309 3.2 Management under lack of clear objectives
- 310

The above discussion illustrates the need for careful consideration in the setting of objectives, and in the measures taken to achieve them. One further critical factor that should be considered is the lack of clarity in the objectives themselves, and hence in the information needed to evaluate them.

314 The problem of the definition of objectives in an uncertain world has been identified in the literature 315 [[2], [43]] and defining management objectives is one of the key challenges. To improve the clarity on 316 what constitutes an objective we approach the definition by considering the social objective that we 317 want to achieve (such as in the social utility function) as conceptually separated from restrictions (the 318 "resource constraint"). Objective definitions of the social utility function that fall into this conceptual 319 characterization are sustainable development as in the Brundtland Report (meet the needs of the 320 people) and the overarching objective in the Lisbon Treaty (promote peace and well-being). The 321 study of well-being (for instance [44]) has recently been developed in economics and other social 322 sciences, where it is well known that money has a decreasing influence on feelings of "well-being" 323 above a certain level of income. So the capacity of individuals to work to achieve their goals by their 324 own effort is key to well-being. This provides a guide to why the Brundtland wording of "without 325 compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" is quite appropriate. This 326 type of objective was also found in the documents of the CFP reform [16] as "take into account the 327 interests of both consumers and producers" or "projecting the principles of the CFP internationally". 328 As to the restrictions, those suggested in section 3.1 above, present circumstances under which 329 social, economic and biological factors can be limiting. Higher level restrictions are not normally 330 considered in fisheries, but an example of such conceptual restrictions can be found in the idea of 331 planet boundaries[45], which are a minimum threshold to keep the biophysical characteristics of the 332 planet, such as marine biodiversity or the nitrogen and phosphorus cycles.

333 There is also a confusion between intermediate and final objectives making it unclear what needs to 334 be achieved within particular time frames. In the general hierarchy of objectives of society there is 335 welfare as a very high goal, and the objective of fisheries policy is not to fish, to keep the ecosystem 336 healthy or to provide employment, these become all subordinate objectives or tools to achieve the 337 higher objective of welfare. The difference can be seen, for example, inside the hierarchy of 338 objectives of fisheries policy, when a technical innovation is used to catch more fish in an overfished 339 stock or to improve the working conditions of fishers using a sustainable gear. This distinction is also 340 important because in the last CFP reform discussion there was a tendency to define objectives as the 341 avoidance of a problem, for example to decrease impact on the ecosystem or to reduce overcapacity. These are not objectives per se, but results, either of fishing or of the management process itself, 342 343 which we then seek to restore by setting these objectives. Effort and resources may also be wasted 344 due to an inappropriate conceptualization of an objective. Overall, the building of a structure 345 composed of clear objectives, from higher goals to management strategy and control measures and further to their incorporation to regulations is key to success [33]. Therefore, once objectives are 346 347 clear, we need to look at other knowledge limitations, mainly those related to lack of knowledge about the future and the ecosystem and future socioeconomic mechanisms, as for example 348 349 economic crises (e.g. [46]). From there, it should be possible to try to derive the complementarities between objectives that could be useful for assessing hypotheses, as will be shown in sections 4.1 350 351 and 4.2 below.

352 For the lack of clarity in the time horizon of objectives, there are two main issues, one internal and 353 one external. For internal issues the need to consider time comes from the manageability of 354 objectives: the inherent complexity of resource management systems that, in order to avoid harmful 355 generalizations in management design need a longer period of time for an analysis and learning 356 process [47]. Another cause of this internal need to consider time comes from management 357 implementation. Co-management, defined from a scientific point of view, is a process that requires 358 knowledge acquisition and, as such, is progressive [42] and requires a longer time horizon than other 359 ways of meeting objectives. For external issues the need to consider time comes from the longer 360 time horizons of stock and ecosystem functions themselves, and in a similar way to addressing the 361 likely impacts of climate change, it requires a sequential planning of objectives. As new aspects like 362 ecosystem interactions and new modeling capabilities [48] are being incorporated into management, 363 the target for management may need to be more adaptive. Following Lind [49] the question might be 364 "what should we be doing over the next ten years to position ourselves to act on new information and 365 new technological developments?".

366 Another source of confusion when setting the objectives for fisheries management, would be limited 367 knowledge about the real needs of consumers and citizens. On a lower level in the hierarchy of 368 objectives, the available options for management would also be a source of confusion. Meeting the needs of consumers is limited in fisheries policy to one part of the supply chain of fish as a product. 369 370 For example, the idea that discards need to be minimized or eliminated to achieve stock 371 conservation ignores the fact that more is lost in the distribution and processing of the fish than is 372 discarded; approximately 9% of catch is discarded compared to approximately 13% wasted in 373 distribution and processing [50]. To be consistent with an aim to protect the stock, a proportionate 374 emphasis should be given to avoiding the removal of wasted fish from the sea. Another issue arises 375 with consumption, where increasing consumption of fish is not differentiated from social well-being, 376 considering both real needs for overall food consumption (see for example, [51]) and for a balance in 377 the diet (as has been done with meat, see[52]). Therefore, setting the objective at the level of 378 satisfying human needs fosters a more global view that can reduce fish demand in a greater proportion, by considering the whole food supply and consumption cycle. When considering this, 379 380 avoiding discards is no longer a high level objective but just a part of a larger objective. In addition to 381 this, limitations of knowledge often constrain management actions where the different levels of 382 targets are more aligned. An example of this would be management measures that foster synergies 383 between objectives, for example practices that improve both production and good environmental effects. Examples for fisheries would include some forms of results based management [53]. In a field 384 385 where so many external uncertainties exist, aligning economic and conservation outcomes is a way 386 to work towards higher level objectives. Hence, a proposal could be to assign fishing rights to fleets that are more sustainable (as suggested by environmental NGOs and small scale fisheries 387 388 associations [54] and to relate fishing rights concessions to compliance [55]. The gradual and 389 adaptive learning process that occurs during participatory management and research allows time to 390 tackle questions as the in depth definition of objectives, the time horizons required for their 391 achievement and at the same time opens a wider array of management options.

392

393 4 Lessons from participatory research

395 It is the role of scientists to evaluate how well management measures meet objectives with the best 396 scientific and social knowledge available. For this there is a need to design an effective analytical 397 framework, which includes not only appropriate models but also consideration of wider hypotheses 398 about the relevant scenarios, states of the world and management options.

399

400 4.1Participatory definition of management objectives in research projects 401

Investigating the socioeconomic effects of the current Common Fisheries Policy requires targets
 against which the effects of the policy can be assessed, including the identification of high level policy
 objectives. The focus in the SOCIOEC project was on objectives that can be dealt with through the
 use of management measures and which are relevant to stakeholders.

To derive the high level objectives the project team used the results of a combined workshop with the MYFISH EU research project held at Vigo, Spain, in 2012 and several interviews (see section 4.2 below) to test the applicability of the objectives in a regional context. The workshop gathered representatives from different stakeholder groups, geographic regions and potential objective sets [56]. These inputs from stakeholders were analysed to produce a narrower set of objectives that could be used in the SOCIOEC project to study the impact of fisheries management measures under the CFP [56]. The results from this process of identification of objectives are shown in Table 2.

413 As with any objective in fisheries, the chosen examples (see Table 2 below) present challenges when 414 defining associated indicators. To achieve MSY it is judged more convenient to set fishing mortality as 415 a management target instead of stock biomass, as, in contrast to fishing mortality, the stock level is driven by many factors outside the control of management. Target species discard as well as bycatch 416 417 still present challenges with respect to reliable data collection, while the impact on bottom habitat requires a combined indicator that maps fishing effort (including gear and size) to habitat types 418 419 through empirical and modelled relationships. The economic objectives also present challenges, such 420 as showing the difference between societal and company interests, or including externalized costs in 421 the net present value to be optimized for the whole society. Finally, the social objectives require the 422 collection of composite indicators (employment and opportunities, hours at work and number of 423 accidents, etc) and an evaluation of not only the presence or absence of co-management processes, 424 but also their inclusiveness.

425

Table 2. High level objectives for fisheries management developed from the combined SOCIOEC MYFISH workshop.

Sustainability	Population level	Short/ long	High level objective
pillar		term	
Ecological	Society	Long term	Maximize yield in tonnes of commercial species
Ecological	Society	Long term	Gradually eliminate discards on a case-by-case
			basis
Ecological	Society	Long term	Minimizing bycatch of vulnerable and

			protected species
Ecological	Society	Long term	Minimizing negative impact on seabed habitats
Economic	Society	Long term	Maximization/optimization of present value
Economic	Society	Short term	Maximization/optimization of gross value
			added (or rent)
Economic	Firm/Individual	Short term	Maximization of profits (within ecological and
			social constraints)
Social	Society	Long term	Ensure viable coastal communities
Social	Society	Long term	Improve policy and decision making through
			improved inclusive governance structures
Social	Individual	Long term	Ensure fair living standard, improved working
			and security conditions on board of fishing
			vessels

430 More relevant with respect to the management of fisheries policy objectives is the study of how 431 objectives influence each other, in order to avoid unintended effects due to policy [47]. A practical 432 way to do this is to identify management measures for each objective that are compatible (at least 433 partially) with the other objectives. There might be a negative effect from some measures on some 434 objectives and this should be clearly shown [57]. Ideally the partial or complete fulfillment of other 435 objectives would be reinforced, or the effect should be neutral. Examples of how objectives are 436 compatible within various management measures are given below.

437 A first example would be to move towards MSY in a socially proactive way by promoting (through 438 quota or marketing incentives) the fishing gears that have a catch composition appropriate to a 439 relevant multispecies MSY. This may imply social decisions, like deciding on trade-offs between 440 species: consume more cod or more pelagic species [[58, 59]]. Another socially and economically 441 compatible measure to implement this objective would be to promote responsible consumption 442 patterns, regarding for example the minimization of fish waste across the supply chain [50] to raise 443 awareness on excess catch. The elimination of discards can also be promoted by fostering fishing 444 techniques that have sustainable catch composition, to then promote the marketing of those less 445 valued discard species [50] either as standard or sub-standard products.

446 The reduction of bycatch is compatible with using socially acceptable management measures specific 447 to each case, as short temporary closures that enable the fishers to have other sources of rent and 448 therefore allow for viable coastal communities [28]. Another way to improve management measures 449 to reach the bycatch objective is to benchmark different management measures employed in nearby 450 areas, and reach an agreement to implement similar measures regionally. This can prevent potential 451 problems of social acceptance due to a perception of unfairness when implementing different 452 measures in close by areas that share a bycatch problem. . An example of this is the different 453 measures to protect seabirds and harbour porpoises across the Danish-German border. In the 454 German Baltic coast gillnets are seen as harmful for harbour porpoises and seabirds and therefore 455 suffer restrictions, whereas in the close by Danish coast gillnets are seen as sustainable and harmless 456 and they are not restricted due to bycatch of those species. This is also influenced by the different 457 objectives of environmental NGOs in both countries [60]. An economically efficient way to achieve 458 this objective would be to promote sustainable seasonal consumption of regional fish to foster 459 ecological values, such as avoiding certain fish consumption in some periods to allow for undisturbed seasonal presence of seabirds. Finally, the fishing activities that have low seabed impact could be encouraged through targeted management measures based on detailed knowledge of fishing operations, including high definition spatial and temporal data on gear operation, as well as through support for operational (like real-time feedback mechanisms) and technical innovation (which also supports the auxiliary industries through the development of new types of more sustainable gear).

465 There are also management measures that meet economic objectives as well as ecological and social 466 sustainability objectives. To increase the net present value of fisheries aspects such as food quality, 467 leisure value (fisheries attractive to tourism [61]), and environmental values (programmes such as 468 "fish for litter" or scientific cooperation) should be promoted. This can be done by identifying the 469 fleet segments that have significant contributions to these values and taking them into account when 470 proposing closures or quota or effort restrictions. Profits can be enhanced through the promotion of 471 higher value through certification, regional product status, higher quality fish through optimized 472 operations and technological improvements. Ecological sustainability is therefore indirectly improved 473 by measures that avoid higher catches, with an objective that lies at a higher level than, for example, 474 overcapacity reduction.

475 In a shorter term perspective, maximization of gross value added (GVA) could be pursued through 476 cost reduction, as well as through policies that optimize employment according to fair living 477 standards and improved working and security conditions on board. This has special importance when 478 referring to international fisheries (see section 4.2 below). At the firm level, improvement of profits 479 subject to ecological and social constraints is encouraged through the reduction of inefficiency costs 480 (as fuel costs of gear operation, vessel steaming to and from fishing areas and final product 481 transportation). A cost benefit approach that reduces negative externalities by minimizing fuel use 482 could reduce societal expenditure in the current implicit subsidy (as tax exemption [4]) for fuel. To 483 maximize long term net present value in a cost benefit approach the reduction of fuel use would not 484 only reduce subsidies, but also minimize the environmental cost in CO₂ from the catch sector and 485 from the transport sector from imported fish.

486 Some management measures may meet both the high level social sustainability objectives and 487 ecological sustainability goals, despite often being blamed for not meeting one of them. For example, 488 measures to soften TAC reductions to keep local employment have been blamed for jeopardizing 489 stock recovery [2]. To contribute to the viability of coastal communities there should be an 490 evaluation prior to any management measure of the total economic value of sustainable fisheries, to 491 avoid spatial developments that reduce the net value creation in a community [61]. Monitoring 492 potential problems with succession of fishers [28], building realistic mid-term expectations for the 493 return to fishing activity and investigating of alternative sources of income [27,62] through longer 494 term policy coordination should also be incorporated into policy design, especially during fishery 495 closures and adaptation periods.

To improve policy and decision making processes it is important to identify the governance level at which the objectives above can be more effectively implemented, referring to location of resources, including knowledge, and incentives for action [63,64]. To promote fair living standards and improved working and safety conditions on board it is necessary to study the social impact of combined management measures at the stage of design, for example in cases where combined effort and quota limits drive fishers in small-scale fisheries to fish in bad weather conditions. Social objectives are also important, for example during fishery closures or gear bans, where policy 503 coordination with other non-fishery policies becomes especially relevant. Finally, a current issue is to 504 monitor living conditions of non-EU workers in EU vessels, especially outside EU waters through 505 international agreements. Ecological and economic sustainability goals could also be met in 506 accordance with social objectives if special attention would be paid to the whole fish supply chain. 507 This would include living standards related to the provision of imported fish products as in life cycle 508 analysis for the full environmental and economic impacts of manufacturing processes.

509 Relating to the lack of clarity in models brought about by the existence of intermediate (even 510 implicit) and final objectives, further workshops and modelling exercises in the MYFISH project show 511 a clear example. The decision support tables resulting from the project within the example of the 512 North Sea [56] maximized the fleet catches or their revenue from fishing. Referring to the catch 513 maximization, a step following the approach described in our study would entail the analysis of food security objectives in the area of origin and of consumption of the catches [65]. Beyond 514 515 enhancement of revenues, the overarching objectives approach would imply considering the fair 516 conditions of work in the area of origin of the catches including outside the EU as a minimum 517 constraint (as in the social utility function objective of "projecting the principles of the CFP 518 internationally") or tackling the distributional aspects of optimized revenue from catches beyond 519 distribution between fleet segments (e.g. inside the affected fishing community, through social 520 capital that allows for participation and succession in the industry for future generations, see[41]). 521 Kempf et al [56] also show the distinction between objectives (e.g. promoting inclusive governance) 522 and restrictions (e.g. respecting good environmental status according to the MSFD) as already 523 assumed in our study. These perspectives on the definition of objectives open new options for the 524 design of indicators and modelling approaches, and would make the management conceptually more 525 coherent.

526

527 4.2 Adapting overarching objectives to regional context: a case study

528

529 The SOCIOEC project involved stakeholders in several different ways, from analyzing incentives in 530 management measures to feedback on impact of measures to the participants who suggested them. 531 Stakeholders were consulted on both high level objectives and their implications at regional level, 532 giving them a unique opportunity to participate in a research exercise. This work on high level 533 objectives includes both group consultation (as presented in section 4.1 above) and also additional 534 individual consultation by means of semi-structured interviews. Five semi-structured interviews were 535 performed, with two fishing sector representatives, two environmental NGOs and one fisheries 536 manager. The case of Germany was found to be useful because it includes two seas (Baltic and North 537 Seas), it has a complex governance structure (due to federalism) and has a significant roles of three 538 types of actors (industry, governments and environmental NGOs).

For the ecological sustainability objectives there was agreement on MSY as a high level objective, with the exception of an environmental organization representative that expressed the need to consider a higher biomass value to provide an additional buffer for ecosystem and climate change effects. The issue of manageability came across in a very clear manner in a statement by a producer representative who said: *"I want the objective, but I think it is not achievable"*. An environmental representative also related objectives to the means to achieve them by saying *"When this is the objective, but the capacity to reach it is not given, then it is a political error"*. Additionally, other high 546 level objectives in relation to ecological sustainability included the reduction of ghost nets (nets lost 547 by fishing boats [66]) and the consideration of fuel consumption per unit of fish, which bring a wider 548 perspective (ecosystems and economic efficiency) that can be better grasped by many actors. These 549 measures could make different objectives compatible, as seen in the previous section 4.1, but note 550 the fact that, as many objective delivered by policy makers and stakeholders, they imply defining a 551 "consequence" of the fishing activity (losing nets or consuming fuel) as an "objective".

552 Economic sustainability was judged by at least one representative of each group to be closely connected to the other types of objectives. A fisheries manager related it to regional development 553 554 and jobs (objective of viable coastal communities) and with the carbon footprint of the fishing 555 industry (ecological sustainability). The importance of fishing as an activity despite its environmental 556 effects was also highlighted by an NGO representative: "The question is where they fish, how and 557 how much. This must be regulated, but it does not mean to say that there should not be any 558 fisheries". A fisheries manager suggested that a more targeted approach through the European 559 Maritime and Fisheries Fund (EMFF, an EU structural fund promoting sustainability and employment 560 in fisheries) would strengthen both economic and social sustainability of the CFP.

561 Finally, the discussion on social sustainability objectives of fisheries also produced some ideas that 562 simultaneously support (or do not hinder) other sustainability objectives. A producer representative 563 proposed that management use cooperation and search for shared incentives instead of fines, while 564 a fisheries manager suggested making regulations compatible with other regulations. These 565 approaches could improve policy making and governance structures without necessarily reducing 566 profitability or stocks, by incorporating more than one pillar in a single objective and through gains in 567 efficiency of implementation. Education of both fish producers (on sustainability) and consumers (on 568 effects of the whole fish supply chain) were also suggested by a representative of an environmental 569 NGO to achieve high level objectives such as reducing discards.

570 A summary of useful inputs to the manageability of the objectives and the synergy between 571 objectives can be found in the following quote from an environmental NGO representative, who 572 pleaded to ensure that "the fisher that goes fishing every day, is sustainable and works for the region, 573 is the one that receives most advantage from the CFP". Without specifically asking for it, all 574 stakeholders came up with relationships between the objectives presented, as well as other 575 objectives at a higher conceptual level (such as ecosystem effects or supply chain aspects). This 576 shows how clear it is that objectives of fisheries management should not be considered in isolation, 577 and that high level perspectives can help to bring both consensus and practical inputs for policy.

578

5 Conclusion

579

580 Working on policy objectives at a high level and observing the hierarchy among objectives both from 581 a research perspective allows the perception of synergistic effects that may get lost when looking 582 only at subordinate objectives. These effects are fundamental, given the ineffectiveness of the 583 existing complex regulatory and micro-management approach, especially when facing the current 584 poor state of some fishing communities and stocks.

585 Nevertheless, manageability and acceptability must be kept in mind when considering high level 586 objectives in fisheries. Manageability is a prerequisite if the objectives are to be met, given the 587 complexity of fisheries in the EU. Otherwise they will only be a paragraph in a regulation. On the 588 other hand acceptability is a key factor for compliance, if the management actions are to be 589 successfully implemented.

590 The approach presented here is useful because it allows the analysis of objectives in relative terms 591 with respect to the time perspective over which risks occur. Issues such as the scale at which an 592 objective is to be reached or the relative risk of disappearance (in terms of urgency of action) of a 593 particular species, specific fishing community, ecosystem or industry, should be incorporated into the 594 policy design discussion. The extension of the objectives to food security [65,67], ecosystems [68] 595 and community livelihoods would imply more coordination between policies outside the fisheries 596 area (including international relations and regional development in the EU) and a more adaptive 597 approach to take advantage of bottom up participatory arrangements, e.g. those started from fishing 598 communities. As discussed by Kempf et al. [8], "inclusive governance can be seen as an essential part 599 of fisheries management because of the need for a balanced and stable outcome on all three 600 dimensions of sustainability - ecological, economic and social". The policy design process would 601 benefit from a deeper conceptual analysis of objectives, and this study shows not only how this 602 conceptual analysis is useful for the design of management measures, but also how certain processes 603 of participation from stakeholders can contribute to deliver more coherent, manageable and 604 acceptable fisheries management.

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619 620

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