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Challenges and opportunities for fleet- and métier-based approaches for fisheries management under the European Common Fishery Policy

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ABSTRACT

The inconsistency of single-species objectives in a mixed-fisheries context has repeatedly been highlighted as a key issue in the current European Common Fishery Policy, and it has long been suggested that this issue would be better addressed through fleet (group of vessels) and métier (type of activity) – based approaches. Since the late 1980s, when such approaches were first introduced, there have been substantial developments in this area of science, to the point where the concepts of fleet and métier now underpin the whole EC Data Collection Framework. However, their implementation in the management system has been slow and difficult, being hampered by a number of intrinsic issues. Mixed fisheries are an ongoing "governance headache" combining management complexity, scientific uncertainty and political sensitivity.

This paper summarises the current state of play for fleet-based approaches in EU fisheries management, and highlights our views on both their potential and the challenges they face in the context of the future CFP. As a convenient layer between the current single-stock level and the level of the individual vessel, fleet/metier- approaches could potentially address a wide range of issues, especially with regards to the policy emphasis on ecosystem-based fisheries management. However, the rigid categorisation they induce may not properly address the flexibility of individual vessels, and should therefore be supplemented by more detailed considerations at the local scale.

Keywords: Common Fishery Policy (CFP), Data Collection Framework (DCF), métier, fleet dynamics, Ecosystem-Based Fisheries Management (EBFM), mixed-fisheries, results-based management

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23 **1 Introduction**

24 1.1 The problem

There is a general understanding that mixed-fisheries aspects are a key issue in the traditional single-25 26 stock management approach, because of the evidence that catches of the various species are interlinked due to technical interactions between different fleets and gears (Figure 1). In addition, 27 availability, abundance and economic attractiveness differ across species, adding to the complexity of 28 the problem. This issue is well illustrated by the demersal fisheries in the North Sea over the 2000s. 29 30 The North Sea cod stock had declined to a very low biomass while the stock of haddock, which to a large extent is caught together with cod, had reached very high biomass levels (ICES, 2011b). Effort 31 32 reductions have been introduced through the successive European cod management plans (EC, 2004 and EC, 2008b), but the central management measure for these stocks has remained single-stock Total 33 34 Allowable Catches (TACs), which in practice have regulated landings rather than catches. One result 35 is that vessels may exhaust the cod TAC before the haddock TAC, and the subsequent cod catch may then have to be discarded. Hence the cod TAC, despite being based on advice consistently intended to 36 37 reduce fishing mortality, has not achieved its intended conservation benefit (STECF, 2011a). 38 Bannister (2004) identified the mixed-species nature of the fishery, along with its international 39 dimension, as the two main factors contributing to the cod decline.

In theory, fleet-based approaches are valuable improvements to the current approach of managing
single-species fish stocks (Vinther et al., 2004; Nielsen and Limborg, 2009). The long history of the
EU Common Fisheries Policy (CFP) of aiming at, but often failing to, manage complex fisheries
through TACs provides an illustration of the limits of the current stock-based management approach.
When implemented in their most usual form in EU, i.e. involving competitive shared quotas and
landings control, single-stock TACs are not able to control total removals and fishing mortality in
mixed-fisheries (ICES, 2011b, STECF, 2011a).

47 In practice however, the implementation of fleet-based approaches in the management system has 48 been slow. Since the seminal work of Laurec et al. (1991), the topic has attracted considerable scientific attention. Twenty years of European research in fleet and fishery analyses have led to 49 substantial improvements in the data collection, understanding of processes and improved 50 51 standardization across nations. In spite of this, the scientific advice provided by the International 52 Council for the Exploration of the Sea (ICES) has only recently made some progress in accounting for 53 technical interactions in a quantitative way (ICES, 2011a; Ulrich et al., 2011). Some of this inertia undoubtedly reflects the complexity of the fisheries involved. ICES (2011a) compiled data for all 54 55 countries, fleets and gears catching demersal target species in the North Sea. Even after aggregation of the minor fleets and gears, the data still include 72 different fleet, gear and métier groupings. 56 However, the problem is clearly not only a scientific one. In 2011, the paradigm that decreasing 57 single-stocks TACs is the path towards sustainability is still prevalent in the political action of the 58 European Commission (EC, 2011a). The maintaining of the principle of relative stability, ensuring 59 60 fixed shares of the individual TACs to the various Member States, has inhibited the political ability to apprehend mixed-fisheries in a sensible and integrated approach. With such a combination of high 61 uncertainty, high political sensitivity, and associated complex science, Wilson and Jacobsen (2009) 62 63 call mixed-fisheries management a "governance headache".

This paper aims thus both at describing the current state of play regarding the actual implementation of of fleet- and fishery based approaches in EU, focusing on some intrinsic issues that have been of hindrance,, and at discussing the opportunities and challenges for these approaches under the future CFP. Our case is based on our experience (mainly from North Sea and Baltic Sea regions), both as providers of scientific advice for fisheries managers and as collaborators on a suite of research projects studying fleet dynamics and fisheries management. It should therefore only be taken to represent a subset of the wide range of knowledge and opinions to be found around this broad topic.

71 1.2 Glossary

72 First of all, the basic concepts must be defined. The terminology has evolved over the years. ICES 73 (2003) initially considered three types of fishing units: the fleet, the fishery, and the métier. In 2008, 74 the European Data Collection Framework (DCF; EC, 2008a) retained only two concepts, which we 75 adopt for this paper: A fleet (or fleet segment) is a group of vessels with the same length class and 76 predominant fishing gear during the year. Vessels may have different fishing activities during the 77 reference period, but might be classified in only one fleet segment. A métier is a group of fishing 78 operations targeting a similar (assemblage of) species, using similar gear, during the same period of 79 the year and/or within the same area and which are characterized by a similar exploitation pattern. As 80 such, the fleet describes the vessels while the métier(s) describes the fishing activity(ies) in which the 81 fleet engages (Figure 1).

2 State of the art: Current implementations at the European Union level

84 2.1 Fleets and métiers in the CFP

85 The European Commission (EC) has long expressed its interest in fleet-based approaches. In 2001 the Green Paper (CEC, 2001) underlined that "TACs can only play a limited role in the management of 86 87 fisheries in which many species of fish are taken simultaneously by each operation of the fishing gear 88 (the mixed or multi-species fisheries) (...). Mixed fisheries are prevalent in Community waters and therefore it may be preferable to manage groups of stocks for well-defined fisheries. The setting-up of 89 90 a true effort management regime could be one of the means to approach multi-species management." 91 A more recent Green Paper (CEC, 2009), recognized again fleet-based approaches as a one key area of interest for the future. Ultimately, the proposal on the reform of the European Union's CFP (EC, 92

93 2011b) provides a concrete context for this. Long-term management plans have been an important

94 component of EU fisheries management since 2002. Public consultation in relation to the recent
95 reform proposal has found very strong support for the implementation of long-term management
96 plans. The current proposal widens the basis for the use of management plans as follows:

97 *"Multi-annual plans should where possible cover multiple stocks where those stocks are jointly*

98 exploited. The multiannual plans should establish the basis for fixing fishing opportunities and

99 quantifiable targets for the sustainable exploitation of stocks and marine ecosystems concerned,

100 defining clear timeframes and safeguard mechanisms for unforeseen developments."

101 These ideological seeds, thus planted long ago, have so far yielded two major realizations. We102 describe them below.

103 2.2 The Data Collection Framework

Many years of development in data collection programs have led to a standardized European sampling program for fisheries biological and economic data based on fishing activities as sampling strata (EC, 2008a). It specifies the standard for national sampling programs, using the fleet as the basis for economic data sampling, and the métier as the basis for biological data sampling. Integrating fishing activities represents a major change compared to the EU Data Collection Regulation (DCR) previously in force (EC, 2001).

110 The DCF defines métiers according to a hierarchical structure using six nested levels: Level 1-

111 Activity (fishing/non fishing), Level 2- Gear class (e.g. trawls, dredges), Level 3- Gear group (e.g.

bottom trawls, pelagic trawls), Level 4- Gear type (e.g. Bottom otter trawl, Bottom pair trawl), Level

113 5- Target assemblage based on main species type (e.g. Demersal fish vs. Crustaceans or Cephalopods),

114 Level 6- Mesh size and other selective devices. In addition, economic variables should be reported for

115 fleet segments defined by the dominant gear (in terms of fishing effort) used by vessels, and for six

116 length classes.

The definitions of the DCF métiers were initiated during two pan-European workshops (EC, 2005a, 2006), and are still extensively debated (ICES, 2010). No unified quantitative method has yet been agreed (see section 3 below), leaving some room for interpretation at the national level. This has slowed the development of a standard, generic EU approach, leading to continuing national differences in métier definitions within the same EU region.

In summary, the DCF has from 2009 led to major steps towards quantification and monitoring of fleets
and métiers, through improved agreement on the basic concepts and definitions, as well as increasing
facilities and collaboration to exchange data. However, it is also true that substantial national
differences still exist, and further initiatives are still necessary in order to achieve full consistency
across member states (STECF, 2011b, Deporte et al., 2012).

127 2.3 Métier-based effort management

128 In parallel to the work undertaken within DCF, but without any linkages to it, métier-based effort regulations have been enforced in European waters. Effort restrictions (days at sea) were first 129 130 introduced in 2003 to supplement TACs in areas covered by the cod recovery plan (EC, 2004), and 131 have been updated annually since then. Subsequently, similar effort restrictions were introduced in 132 relation to southern hake and Nephrops, western channel sole and sandeel fisheries. Categories 133 (métiers) for days at sea limits were defined in terms of gear type and cod-end mesh size combinations. 'Special condition' categories were also defined such that a vessel qualifying for such 134 135 status would be entitled to a greater number of days at sea than the default value for the same gearmesh size group. 136

These categories are therefore quite different from the DCF métiers described above, and only limited consideration has been given to this. Reeves et al. (2008) provided a useful overview on the processes and scientific issues underlying these days at sea regulations. While the establishment of the DCF involved an extensive and long scientific process based on available information, in contrast, the days at sea regulations were designed and implemented over a very short period of time and without any

142 clear scientific basis. Subsequently, sub-groups of the European Commission's Scientific, Technical 143 and Economic Committee for Fisheries (STECF) were tasked to evaluate the effects of these regulations. This requires extensive compilation of effort and catch data, aggregated such that the 144 145 hierarchy of gear, mesh size and special condition status match those in the annual Council 146 Regulations fixing EU fishing opportunities and associated conditions in EU Community waters (see 147 for example STECF 2010a). These exercises proved to be difficult, time-consuming, error-prone and 148 inconsistent across EU Member States. A main reason is that the scientific data are collected following 149 DCF standards, while monitoring the days at sea management requires more detailed information of 150 gear descriptors, which are not usually available in the data provided to national scientific institutes. Furthermore, the implementation of the days at sea system led to strong protests from the fishing 151 152 industry questioning both its fairness and its basis. The system was implemented as a top-down command and control system, and was conceived on the assumption that cod catches could simply be 153 154 reduced by reducing the cod-directed fishery. As cod is caught by most gears in the North Sea, most 155 demersal fisheries were affected by the system and the industry considered this conservation measure 156 to be neither efficient nor fairly shared. The protests pressured the Member States to exempt some of 157 their fleets. This resulted in increasingly detailed micromanagement, and an even more complex set of 158 regulations that basically changed every year (Table 1). In 2008, the system was no longer considered 159 sustainable, controllable and effective by the EC, and a complete new approach for effort control was 160 agreed with Members States. This moved from limitations at the level of the individual vessel and métier to limitations at the level of the Member States over broader gear/mesh size categories, thus 161 162 allowing for more flexibility. This system was implemented in 2009 (EC, 2008b), based on a reduced 163 number of categories, but with new mechanisms aiming at encouraging cod-avoidance behavior in the 164 fishing industry. STECF (2011a) conducted a detailed evaluation of that plan. The increased use of incentives-based management was evaluated as a positive innovation, but it was also pointed out that 165 166 there was still little support from the industry towards the effort constraints induced by the plan. 167 Interestingly, the so-called incentives in the cod plan are in reality almost all negative in the sense that

action to avoid cod will result in reductions in income (sub-optimal areas; loss of fish through changes
in selectivity), as will no action (reduction in fishing effort opportunities). Each business needs to
weight up the degree of loss associated with these negative choices, leading to a somehow unclear
perception of the incentivizing mechanisms and a difficult monitoring of their effects (Holmes et al.,
2011, Needle and Catarino, 2011).

173 **3** A fundamental challenge: agreeing on basic definitions and

174 categorization.

192

Jacobsen, 2009).

175 The two initiatives described in section 2 are the most advanced attempts to implement operational fleet- and métier-based approaches so far. They clearly illustrate the difficulties faced in practice and . 176 there is also a striking difference in the definition of métiers that have been used in these two cases. 177 178 The two processes have been conducted independently, illustrating the risks of mismatch occurring if science is setting its agenda without a solid anchor to management rules, or if management regulations 179 are implemented without insuring that scientific support will have the ability to monitor and evaluate 180 181 their outcomes. This difference leads us to reflect on a fundamental issue in fleet- and métier-based 182 approaches, which relates to the basic difficulty of categorizing fishing activities.

Obviously, implementation of any fleet based approach requires the definition of management units 183 (fleets and/or métiers), as well as of quantifiable rules to populate fishing trips into métiers and fishing 184 185 vessels into fleets. The concepts of fleets and métiers are appealing as they offer a convenient and 186 valuable trade-off between reducing the complexity of the system into few tractable categories, while maintaining sufficient information on its characteristics and dynamics. However, defining these 187 concepts has in itself been a primary hindrance to their operational implementation so far. It is not 188 189 simply, as we often hear, that things are not "clearly defined", it is more than that. Many of the concepts we have to deal with in mixed fisheries are 'essentially contested concepts' (Gallie 1955), 190 191 meaning that their definition always depends on the speaker's interest in how it is defined (Wilson and

Fleets and métiers are only aggregations of individual operations and vessels operated by humans, and
as such are not natural entities but social entities created and continually redefined by human beings.
Because each vessel (and each trip, respectively) is unique in terms of catch rate, fishing type,
profitability, incentives, etc., it is very difficult to get simple and meaningful averages and to identify
key fishing patterns.

Métiers were created by scientists and managers as analytic and bureaucratic units, being relevant to management measures in terms of e.g. vessel size and gear. These kinds of definitions are necessary for both promulgating and analyzing the impacts of management measures, but may not reflect the true dynamics and reality of fishing (Wilson and Jacobsen, 2009). We illustrate here the differences, and even antagonisms, that arise in different approaches to the problem of categorization.

203 3.1 Scientific approach

204 As explained above, the DCF requires the categorization of fishing activities based on hierarchical criteria, but this can be achieved in any number of ways. ICES (2003) provided general concepts and 205 206 ideas, but no clear quantitative guidelines. Indeed, a variety of approaches have been used in a number 207 of case studies over the last two decades: see reviews in Marchal (2008), Reeves et al. (2008) and 208 Deporte et al. (2012), and references herein. Recalling that métiers should reflect the fishing intention 209 but that this often cannot be observed directly, Marchal (2008) described the classification approaches 210 as being either input-based, output-based, or combined methods. Input-based methods either make use 211 of existing records of the technical features of fishing trips, e.g. gear and mesh size used, fishing 212 grounds visited, season, fishing power; or build on direct interviews with stakeholders. Output-based methods assume that catch profiles perfectly reflect fishing intention, and build therefore on empirical 213 or statistical analyses of landings or catches in weight or in value. Combined methods relate catch 214 profiles (outputs) to fishing trip characteristics (inputs). Marchal (2008) compared some of these 215 216 approaches analytically, and concluded that they could result in contrasting outcomes for a number of 217 fleets. Species assemblages cannot be easily defined from logbooks, since (1) as primary issue,

218 discards are usually not included in these analyses due to low sampling levels, and therefore the data 219 available provide an imperfect estimate of the actual catch compositions. This can furthermore be 220 biased by factors such as quota availability, market prices, traditions, etc, (2) species assemblage is an 221 outcome of the fishing action, but may not accurately reflect the true targeting intention of the fishers 222 due to imperfect knowledge of the underlying resource distribution, being therefore significantly 223 influenced by skipper skills (Mahévas et al., 2011) and (3) clustering of fishing operations based on 224 species assemblage is not very robust when a continuum is observed between different types of target species (e.g. "mixed categories" in between clear "Nephrops" operations and clear "demersal fish" 225 226 operations). Clusters are also not necessarily constant over time if species abundance varies.

Similar methods and issues apply to the grouping of fishing vessels into fleet segments. Vessels can be aggregated on the basis of their main activity following identical statistical approaches (e.g. Pelletier and Ferraris 2000, Ulrich and Andersen, 2004), on the basis of their technical characteristics (e.g. main gear and vessel size, ICES, 2011b) or according to their fishing efficiency (Marchal et al., 2001). In these cases, further work may be necessary to distinguish between the vessels belonging to one management unit and area from one belonging to another, for example using revenues thresholds or home port.

In conclusion, no unified methods have yet been agreed upon for the standard scientific definition of 234 fleets and métiers, despite a significant activity in this field. There is no easy solution to these issues 235 and problems, which are intrinsic to the categorization process. The only way forward is to increase 236 237 the regional and European collaboration in order to establish European standards which would be agreed as supranational compromises (Deporte et al., 2012). Defining regional métiers would also 238 239 reduce the needs for costly sampling at the national métier level, both by potentially reducing the 240 number of categories to the broader common and significant patterns (Deporte et al., 2012), and by 241 promoting exchanges of biological samples across nations within unified categories.

242 3.2 Fishers' approach

243 Some stakeholders are questioning these approaches to fleets and métiers. Stakeholders recognise the 244 need for such definitions to address a number of complex issues in fisheries management, but their 245 perception may differ widely from the above views. Indeed, the categorization issue has been relevant 246 to them only recently, since they did not have to deal with it under the usual single-stock TAC system, 247 where they would individually "race for fish" under national competitive quotas or operate under 248 individual transferrable quotas (ITQs). Under such a system, fishers could with relative ease switch 249 from one fishery to another based on seasonal fluctuations of species abundances and prices. The 250 introduction of rigid and somewhat arbitrary fisheries-based regulations (such as the days at sea limitations), represented a major violation of their free choice and a significant restriction to their 251 252 traditional fishing patterns (STECF, 2011a), and this made them consider the fairness of the category definitions. Jacobsen et al. (2009) and Wilson and Jacobsen (2009) performed an extended analysis of 253 254 stakeholder views on the issue of fleet and métier definition and concluded that fishers have a strong wish to preserve their seasonal flexibility, arguing that gear says very little about what kind of fish will 255 be caught, particularly for the coastal multi-purposes vessels. They are therefore reluctant to 256 management based on narrow categories and would prefer broader and less constraining grouping 257 258 allowing for individual variability. However the focus of management on the individual stocks, with 259 individual quotas and licenses, may force the vessels towards a growing polarization and 260 specialization in one type of fishing instead of shifting according to e.g. season and/or area (Pascoe et al., 2010) This, in turn, may lead to the somehow paradoxical situation mentioned above, where , in 261 262 order to cope with pressure from their own industry, Member States have pushed the initial broad cod 263 plan categories defined in 2003 towards detailed micro-management and multiple categorization.

In terms of fisheries, one interesting example was a reflection by a stakeholder within the North Sea

265 Regional Advisory Council (RAC), quoted by Wilson and Jacobsen (2009). The stakeholder noted that

the fisheries referred to bear no resemblance to the kinds of fisheries and métiers explained above,

being based on the main (group of) target species in the demersal North Sea fishery but without

268 reference to the mesh size. Wilson and Jacobsen (2009) also found that the issue of defining target 269 species and by-catch may be just as problematic to fishers. It is of no direct concern for stock 270 assessment whether mortality results from catching a targeted or non-targeted fish (unless this results in unrecorded discard or inaccurate commercial CPUE indices). Therefore these concepts have not 271 272 been systematically investigated by fisheries scientists. NGOs are often more concerned by target and 273 by-catch issues. A clearer distinction between the two categories would make it easier to claim for 274 more selective fishing practices limiting unwanted by-catch. Fishers on the other hand aim at gaining 275 profit from the species assemblage that they harvest, and do not support assigning certain fish to by-276 catch categories that may be more subject to restrictions, unless there is a strong reason to do so 277 (Wilson and Jacobsen, 2009).

In summary, harmonizing the categorization of the basic units (fleets, métiers and target species) is a
fundamental prerequisite for any future implementation in management. The groups defined should
ultimately be quantifiable (i.e. should link to the data available for monitoring), manageable and
supported by stakeholders.

282 4 Additional issues and challenges in fleets/métiers-based

283 approaches

284 In addition to the above, a number of issues remain in the implementation of fleet-based 285 approaches, mostly linked to the quantification of effort. These are not new topics, so we will not 286 develop these here, but refer instead to comprehensive reviews such as those by Motos and Wilson (2006) and Reeves et al. (2008). In short, important issues are i) there is a continuous change in the 287 288 fishing power of the fleets, among other as a result of technological improvements and increased 289 fishers knowledge (Branch et al., 2006; Eigaard, 2009; Eigaard and Munch-Petersen, 2010). ii) The 290 detailed dynamic of effort and catches is insufficiently monitored, with logbook declarations at the scale of the fishing day and geographical square (Branch et al. 2006; Andersen et al. 2012; STECF, 291 2010a). iii) The relationships between fishing effort, fishing mortality and catches are still poorly 292

understood (e.g. Marchal et al., 2001, 2006, 2007; van Oostenbrugge et al., 2008; STECF, 2011a),. iv)
There is still limited knowledge about the basic drivers of the fleet's dynamics, which may jeopardize
the anticipated effects of management (Andersen et al., 2010, 2012; <u>Fulton et al., 2011</u>); and v) The
effective fishing effort being a combination of input factors, the regulation of one type of input (e.g.
fishing days or vessel size) may be compensated by increasing other unregulated inputs (input
substitution, Pascoe and Robinson, 1998).

299 These issues make it very difficult to measure, compare and scale the efficiency of metiers and fleets 300 between each other and between countries. Interestingly, most of these issues represent mainly a 301 hindrance to prescriptive input control. This underlines that, against a common belief (cf. e.g. CEC, 302 2001), mixed-fisheries may actually not necessarily be better addressed by effort control rather than 303 catch control. One concrete example of this is shown by the Faroe Islands, which have moved from TAC management to effort-based management. In spite of a relatively favourable environment 304 305 comprising a small scale and local fishery, limited extent of mixed-fisheries interactions and sustained 306 stock productivity, the system has overall proven to be little flexible and not fully successful in reducing fishing mortality (Nielsen et al., 2006; Jákupsstovu et al., 2007, Baudron et al., 2010, Eigaard 307 et al., 2011). 308

309 5 Opportunities for fleet-based approaches in the future

Common Fisheries Policy.

The previous chapters have underlined the challenges linked to any implementation of fleet-based
approaches to management. However, these nevertheless bear great potential for improvements
compared to the current system.

314 5.1 New technologies for monitoring and modelling

As a counterpart to the many arguments above that would argue against the operational use of effort control in fleet-based approaches, it is worth emphasising that rapid technological developments are 317 providing new monitoring tools, which increasingly address some of these shortcomings, and improve 318 the feasibility of the approach. For example (with regards to point ii) above), access to individual 319 Vessel Monitoring System (VMS) data allows the derivation of more precise estimates of the spatial distribution of effort and landings (Bastardie et al., 2010b; Hintzen et al., 2012), and more in-depth 320 investigation of the links between both. These tools can also supplement other particular concerns 321 322 when assessing e.g. the impact of fleet-specific activities on the sea floor and benthic communities 323 (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011), and provide information to the broader marine spatial planning and EU 324 Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD, see also section 5.3 below). Improved monitoring is 325 also reinforced by the introduction of electronic logbooks, or by mounting video cameras on fishing 326 vessels to report for fully documented fishery (Kindt-Larsen et al., 2011). Thanks to these tools, 327 continuous improvements on the quantification (nominal vs. effective) and the qualification (e.g., low 328 vs. high impact for a given pressure indicator) of the fishing effort are expected to be gained in a near 329 future. these should give further insights to support the development of fleet-based management. 330 The requirements for assessing potential uncertainties, misuses (e.g. non-compliance), pitfalls or side effects of management options to properly meet the overall objectives of sustainability also call for 331 332 appropriate modelling tools (with regards to points i) and iii) in section 4 above). A variety of

modelling frameworks have been developed in recent European research projects, and some are

particularly generic and flexible for addressing a wide range of issues (e.g., the FLR library in R, Kell

et al., 2007). Their continuous development provide improved options for coupling and integrating the

complex dynamics of multiple stocks, fleets and management layers (Figure 2), allowing the

evaluation of various management scenarios at different scales (cf. recent works by e.g. Pelletier et al.,

2009, Andersen et al., 2010, Bastardie et al. 2010c, Ulrich et al. 2011, and reviews in Reeves et al.,

339 2008, Prellezo et al., 2012).

340 One step further into effort modelling is maybe done by directly simulating the economic activity of

341 individual vessels in an Individual-Based Model (e.g. Millischer and Gascuel, 2006, Beecham and

342 Engelhard 2007, Bastardie et al. 2010a, Poos et al., 2010), which can advantageously capture the

differences in characteristics, incentives and dynamics existing across individual vessels and thus
improve the bio-economic realism of the modelling (addressing the points iv) and v) above). Pros and
cons of fleet-based modelling vs. individual-vessel-based modelling will certainly shape future
developments in the implementation and monitoring of fishery management and spatial marine
planning.

In conclusion, the landscape of fisheries and fleet-based science and technology is evolving rapidly,
opening for new usages and potentials. We have considered a number of these, which could contribute
directly to the objectives of the future CFP and MSFD.

351 5.2 Mixed-fisheries management plans

352 An increasing number of European stocks are being managed through long-term management plans 353 (LTMP). In many cases these plans are based on F-indicators resulting from single-stock assessments. 354 As such, they are mostly an extension of the current stock-based system incorporating more long-term 355 considerations. Single-stock TAC-based management is not challenged, it is simply made less 356 dependent on scientific uncertainty through limitations in its inter-annual variability. However, the 357 complex processes involved in the actual harvesting are often disregarded or loosely summarized into 358 "implementation uncertainty" (Rosenberg and Restrepo, 1994) when evaluating the effectiveness of 359 these management plans, even though, fleets dynamics might potentially affect this effectiveness in 360 ways that cannot be necessarily anticipated (e.g. Bastardie et al. 2010c, Andersen et al., 2010). There 361 are currently only few cases where technical interactions have been explicitly integrated in EU fisheries management. One is the case of the North Sea flatfish (sole and plaice) management plan 362 (EC, 2007), whose setup built on a long previous history of modeling of mixed-fishery interactions in 363 the Dutch beam trawl fishery (e.g., Kraak et al., 2008 and reference therein). Noticeably, this fishery 364 presents a relatively simple configuration with only two species and relatively few and homogeneous 365 366 fleets involved, implying that the pre-required categorization of fishing activity described above was 367 easier to solve. Another exception is the management plan of Nephrops in the Iberian Peninsula (EC,

2005b), the harvest control rule of which explicitly accounts for the fishing mortality of Southernhake, which is caught in the same mixed fishery.

370 Clearly, fleet-based approaches have a real potential for designing integrated mixed-fisheries 371 management plans at the regional level, even in complex fisheries. Furthermore, accounting for fleets 372 and métiers is central to integrated bio-economic management and advice. It allows for more direct 373 and effective bio-economic and socio-economic evaluation of consequences of management. The 374 recent history of demersal fisheries in the North Sea again provides a useful case study. In spite of the well known and relatively well studied mixed-fisheries interactions, separate single-species 375 376 management plans have been adopted for cod, haddock, saithe and whiting. A Nephrops management plan is also under development. The linkages between stocks have so far not been integrated in the 377 378 design of these plans, and only the *ex-post* evaluations conducted afterwards shed light on the risks of implementation error linked to their potential inconsistencies (Hamon et al., 2007, Ulrich et al., 2011, 379 380 STECF, 2011a).

381 To summarise, we believe that in spite of the implementation hurdles explained above, acknowledging these mixed-fisheries issues and integrating these from the beginning in the design of the management 382 383 plans would be less risky than ignoring these. As mentioned in the introduction, integrated regional approaches have long been acknowledged by the EC, but it is only now, in the frame of the current 384 reform of the CFP, that the consideration of fleet-based management plans is starting to take its entire 385 political dimension, and new developments in their design will emerge in the very near future. Indeed, 386 387 a STECF Expert Group is scheduled in 2012 to formulate suggestions for bringing the North Sea cod 388 management plan in its wider mixed-fisheries context (see also section 5.4 below), and this work 389 might yield useful learning.

390 5.3 Ecosystem-Based to Fisheries Management

Management of fisheries and marine resources is moving towards Ecosystem-Based Fisheries and
 Marine Management (EBFM / EBMM) as anticipated by the EU MSFD. Spatial planning in particular

393 is coming increasingly into focus, and both ecosystem aspects and all types of anthropogenic impacts 394 on the marine environment have to be considered, within an integrated fisheries management approach. Advice on impacts on non-target commercial species, but also on those other components of 395 396 the ecosystem that are impacted by fishing activities, is needed. In this respect, the incorporation of 397 fleet and fishery information provides a bridge between the traditional single species advice and the 398 ecosystem approach to fisheries management, by recognizing that fisheries can have a wider and diverse range of impacts than just on the major target species (Nielsen et al., 2006; Tserpes et al., 399 400 2006; Ulrich et al., 2008, Gascuel et al., 2012). The explicit representation of métiers and fleets also 401 means that these can be more easily mapped and distinguished in the areas to be managed (e.g. 402 Hintzen et al., 2012), than is the case with the stock-based approach alone.

403 Importantly, there is an inherent difficulty in applying fleet- and métier-based approaches at a highly 404 disaggregated spatial scale. Complex interactions between stocks, fleets, management measures, and 405 the environment are common components of mixed fisheries at the local scale. Several types of 406 regulations may act on top of each other, making it difficult to evaluate the impacts of the individual 407 regulations on fishers' access to their livelihood. Therefore, attempts to locally manage mixed 408 fisheries based on complex definitions of fleets, may reduce fishers' operational flexibly, which can, 409 in turn, interfere with the implementation of EBFM. An example of this was given by the "Invest in 410 Fish" initiative, (Squires and Renn, 2011) which aimed to gather information on all usages of marine 411 living resources in the South West of England through detailed description of commercial and recreational activities and stakeholder's negotiations. While this project led to a positive experience of 412 good communication and governance, no consensus emerged about management actions to be taken 413 because of the high complexity and uncertainty. 414

This local complexity makes us believe that, while considering fleets- and métiers for EBFM is fully relevant for defining objectives at a regional scale and monitoring trends in fisheries development, the actual management implementation to achieve these objectives would potentially be more successfully

418	achieved by leaving it up to the individual actors to reach given results within this frame rather than
419	prescribing fixed rules to fixed groups. This idea is developed in the next section.

420 5.4 Results-based management

421 The European Commission has acknowledged that the current centralised and "one size fits all"

422 single-stock management might not account properly for the diversity of regional situations,

423 particularly with regards to mixed-fisheries interactions.. Hence, the development of regional

424 approaches to management might be encouraged in the future CFP (EC, 2011b).

425 One direction that is already promoted within the current CFP is the "results-based management" 426 (RBM) or "outcome-oriented management" (Holland, 2007) linked to a "reversal of the burden of 427 proof" so that the industry is responsible for demonstrating that it is in compliance with the limits that 428 have been set on its ecological impacts (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011). A results-based management 429 approach envisions two complementary processes. One of these is the setting of management 430 objectives and corresponding limits on the environmental impacts that will be allowed for user groups. 431 In an ecosystem-based approach this process would mean developing operational constraints based on 432 limits set at government level. The second process is the development of exploitation plans that allow 433 the user groups to undertake economic activities while remaining within these limits. The latter of the 434 two processes is carried out by the user groups, in cooperation with scientists, and centred on meeting 435 the reversed burden of proof, i.e., how the industry will be monitored and held accountable for staying within the set limits would have to be part of their plan. 436

One highly relevant benefit of RBM for mixed-fisheries management is the removing of the need for precise and detailed fisheries definitions for prescriptive management; as they would be defined by users themselves. Management measures proposed within the context of RBM are applied at the level of local fishery or fleet segment, rather than at the level of the stock. Fleets and métiers will still have to be defined in a political sense to define the groups entering into these contracts. Therefore, this model suggests a strategy for handling the multi-scale, multi-stakeholder problem of processing information and making decisions for mixed-fisheries management. It would also allow the industry
flexibility in shifting to changes in markets, fish abundance and avoiding ecological impacts (Wilson
and Jacobsen 2009). Reliance on a single type of management measure with an extensive impact such
as a TAC may therefore be supplemented or supplanted by local measures operating within the frame
of this global approach.

448 RBM approaches have been used successfully in various places around the world. An example with 449 relatively small scale fishing enterprises is Nova Scotia's RBM approach for mixed groundfish fisheries. Fishing Conservation Harvest Plans are adopted by groups of fishers as a formal contractual 450 451 agreement with the Canadian Authorities. These contracts meet the sustainability requirements while shifting much of the management responsibility to county-based Management Boards (Loucks 1998,. 452 453 Ulrich and Wilson 2009). The Management Boards are all operated differently, which is part of the idea of local control (Charles et al. 2005). A much larger scale example is found in the pollock fishery 454 455 in the Gulf of Alaska. Here the industry is organized into cooperatives that fulfil three functions: 1) The allocation and transfer of both pollock harvest shares and limitations on species other than pollock 456 457 including prohibited species catch; 2) by catch reduction; and 3) monitoring and enforcement 458 (Witherell et al. 2000). Wolff and Hauge (2009) found that this system has worked very well, 459 especially in regard to fisheries conservation. The Marine Stewardship Council (MSC) eco-labelling 460 scheme is increasingly one of the best examples of a basic RBM approach in fisheries. MSC has 461 created a broad set of criteria for sustainable fishing based on three principles: sustainable fish stocks, minimising environmental impact and effective management. The first two principles set the 462 463 groundwork for the limits that MSC imposes on a fishery if it is to carry an MSC label, and the third 464 sets the burden on the fishery to prove it is meeting the standards. The MSC uses scientist certifiers to work in detail with fishing fleets to decide how indicators to express these principles can be fairly 465 466 established, measured and met in their particular situation.

In Europe, the current EC Cod Plan (EC, 2008b) provides again a useful illustration of attempts at
implementing RBM in complex mixed-fisheries. There, the metiers are defined at the level of Member

469 State and broad range of activity, but internal flexibility is left to individuals to comply with the 470 allocated effort threshold. Significant changes in dynamics of entire fleet segments have been initiated 471 (Kindt-Larsen et al., 2011; Needle and Catarino, 2011, STECF, 2011a), underlying the importance of 472 setting the incentives right at the level of the vessel or group of vessels (Hilborn, 2007).

473 Implementing RBM in Europe will not be easy, both with regards to implementation and enforcement

474 (Fitzpatrick et al., 2011) and evaluation (Holmes *et al.*, 2011, STECF, 2011a). RBM moves

475 evaluation away from writing detailed prescriptions for activities, but it also brings with it a new set of problems. The environmental impacts have to be clearly defined, and this raises questions such as 476 477 defining both temporal and spatial definitions of these impacts. From a legal point of view reversing the burden of proof is routed in the precautionary principle. The issue of "who must prove" cannot be 478 479 treated without looking at the issue of "what must be proved". Secondly, concerning compliance, reversal of the burden of proof comes down to the industry having to foresee the instruments for 480 481 monitoring and reporting of fishing activities so as to allow for an effective control that the strategies are implemented correctly. Uncertainty in the marine environment is high. In regulatory contexts that 482 uncertainly accumulates over a series of uncertain scientific decisions (Wilson 2009). Under RBM 483 484 precautionary limits on impacts must be identified with their related indicators, and translated into a 485 burden of proof that has to be met (and paid for) by the industry. While we use the term "industry", it 486 must be kept in mind that a very substantial portion of fishing enterprises in Europe are small 487 businesses taking place in vulnerable rural communities. Hence, there is a strong need to develop methods by which the decrease of uncertainty is cost effective and possible for industry. 488

489 6 Summary and Conclusions

490 Stock-based management has the advantage that the units managed and advised upon are broadly 491 agreed upon in e.g. the European fishery system. Even though some stocks are not well defined as 492 actual biological stock units, they are not really questioned as robust advisory and management units 493 today. A fish belongs to a stock and does not change to another stock from time to time. As long as the 494 management system keeps focusing on allocation issues for a number of well-defined commercial 495 stocks, stock-based approaches present undeniable advantages in relation to monitoring, control and 496 sharing of resources. However, EBFM requires more comprehensive, integrated, multi-disciplinary 497 and detailed advice for an increasing number of ecosystem elements, even while the available data 498 supporting that advice are limited. It is difficult to see how stock based management alone could 499 provide this.

500 We believe that a better knowledge of the characteristics and dynamics of the various fishing activities 501 is an obvious and necessary move forward for achieving these new requirements, both for minimising 502 impacts on the ecosystem and ensuring the sustainability of the fisheries exploiting its multiple components. The whole harvesting process cannot be simply reduced to a single fishing mortality 503 504 estimate that can be tuned in ecosystem-based marine models. Therefore broad conservation objectives can only be reached through a proper understanding and management of the drivers and incentives of 505 506 the dynamics of the fishery. In this regard, fleet/metier- approaches represent an intermediate layer 507 between the current single-stock level and the level of the individual vessel, which can therefore be 508 used as a convenient and tractable way to define and evaluate management and conservation 509 objectives at the regional level. We have also shown that such fleet-based approaches may not be 510 necessarily best achieved through effort control due to the inherent issues linked to effort definition 511 and quantification, implying that output-based management with a proper control of catches rather 512 than landings (catch quota management, cf. www.fvm.dk/yieldoffish) may indeed be the most suitable path in mixed-fisheries. 513

Recent history has however clearly shown how difficult it has been to implement such an approach to management within a classical command and control system. Mixed fisheries management is a serious political challenge for managers because questions of fairness among groups of fishers (and between countries) arise more quickly than in any other set of fisheries management problems, and because of the imperfect link between the inputs used for fishing and its outputs in terms of global ecosystem impact. This explains why twenty years of development of management science in this field have not

520 fully resolved the key definitions issues that were described here. A bottom line is that the 521 management and monitoring systems requires analytic and bureaucratic definitions of fisheries, but the 522 industry, and sometimes even the environment and marine ecosystems, may pay some real costs when 523 these definitions become overly detailed and restrictive.

524 There is neither quantitative nor qualitative answer to this issue of definition, and a beneficial way forward is to work towards increased cooperation to establish agreed compromises. At first, it is 525 526 necessary that the different actors harmonise their views internally. On the scientific and management 527 side, the highest priority should be given to full consistency between the fleet /métier management 528 measures and the scientific data available to monitor and evaluate them. Progress in this direction is encouraging. On the industry side, highest priority should be given to moving away from single-stock 529 530 management plans and towards integrated regional plans; and to agreeing on the qualitative categories of fleets and métiers they would acknowledge as a relevant basis for management. From that, it might 531 532 then be possible to link the two, in that the qualitative categories empirically defined by stakeholders 533 may be crossed with the scientific data for quantification and modelling. The continued improvement in the resolution of scientific data may contribute to this at the fine scale. Yet, even when the questions 534 535 of definitions and categories are resolved, fleet-based approaches to management may still have to be 536 robust and adaptive, rather than precise and prescriptive, because of the changing dynamics of the 537 system.

538 However, the fundamental issues that the imposition of pre-determined, generic categories poses at the 539 local level, with its evident risk of increased command and control micro-management, suggest that 540 these objectives may be potentially better achieved through results-based management. Here, local 541 actors are left with the flexibility to decide upon the optimal paths towards sustainability. Results-542 based management also allows the complex challenges of an EBFM to be structured hierarchically 543 from the regional stock level using fleet and métier concepts, to the local level of the fishery. This 544 suggests that in the EU, the current efforts towards fleet-based approaches to management should not 545 be decoupled from the other ongoing key issues, such as regionalization or the implementation of

rights-based management. We also believe that the current EC cod management plan (EC, 2008), while imperfectly designed and implemented so far (STECF, 2011a), is nevertheless a significant and innovative step in this direction, in that it acts at different scales. This plan involves setting broad objectives at the stock level, quantifying the impact of the various fleets and métiers and defining limits to these, as well as encouraging responsible and results-based individual behaviour within fleet segments independent of the activity of others. Improvements and further extensions of this innovative approach are anticipated in the revised CFP (CEC, 2011b).

553

554 In conclusion, we underline that although the premises of fleets and métier-based approaches to 555 management were initiated twenty years ago, the main developments have occurred over the most 556 recent years. This has taken place within the scientific community through the DCF and a number of 557 large scale research projects investigating fleet dynamics, as well as the movement towards EBFM and 558 spatial planning. It has also taken place within the management system and with the stakeholders 559 through effort limitation systems. Therefore, experience and lessons are continuously being gained, 560 and the whole system is evolving rapidly towards improved consistency and cooperative management. 561 We hope that a mature stage will be reached in the near future.

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865 9 Figures Caption

Figure 1. Conceptual diagram of the links between fleets, métiers and species in a mixed-fisherycontext.

Figure 2. Conceptual view on scales for modeling the fishing mortality *F* on an hypothetical stock in a

given management area (a) Stock-based F applying an overall stock-specific F on the stock; (b) Fleet-

- 870 or metier-based F after pooling vessels and/or activities with similar exploitation patterns; (c) Spatially
- and seasonally explicit fleet-based F and (d) Individual vessel-based F describing the catch removal
- 872 over the area vessel by vessel. Situations a and b are irrespective of the stock distribution while
- situations c and d are applied on an hypothetical underlying stock abundance distribution (grey levels).

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Table 1. Overview over the number of regulated gear categories (top value) and corresponding

special conditions (bottom value) by year in the EU Cod Management plan for the North Sea,

879 Skagerrak and Eastern English Channel. (From ICES, 2009)

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Gear type	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Demersal Trawls, seines, towed gears	3	3	3	5	5	5	3
	-	2	4	15	17	17	-
Beam trawl	1	1	1	4	4	4	2
	-	-	1	5	5	5	-
Static demersal nets	1	1	1	-	-	-	-
	-	2	2	-	-	-	-
Gillnets	-	-	-	2	4	4	1
	-	-	-	1	1	1	-
Frammel	-	-	-	1	1	1	1
	-	-	-	1	1	1	-
Long lines	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	6	10	13	35	39	39	8

883 Figure 1.



