

## Fishing impact and environmental status in European seas: a diagnosis from stock assessments and ecosystem indicators

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### Abstract:

Stock-based and ecosystem-based indicators are used to provide a new diagnosis of the fishing impact and environmental status of European seas. In the seven European marine ecosystems covering the Baltic and the North-east Atlantic, (i) trends in landings since 1950 were examined; (ii) syntheses of the status and trends in fish stocks were consolidated at the ecosystem level; and (iii) trends in ecosystem indicators based on landings and surveys were analysed. We show that yields began to decrease everywhere (except in the Baltic) from the mid-1970s, as a result of the over-exploitation of some major stocks. Fishermen adapted by increasing fishing effort and exploiting a wider part of the ecosystems. This was insufficient to compensate for the decrease in abundance of many stocks, and total landings have halved over the last 30 years. The highest fishing impact took place in the late 1990s, with a clear decrease in stock-based and ecosystem indicators. In particular, trophic-based indicators exhibited a continuous decreasing trend in almost all ecosystems. Over the past decade, a decrease in fishing pressure has been observed, the mean fishing mortality rate of assessed stocks being almost halved in all the considered ecosystems, but no clear recovery in the biomass and ecosystem indicators is yet apparent. In addition, the mean recruitment index was shown to decrease by around 50% in all ecosystems (except the Baltic). We conclude that building this kind of diagnosis is a key step on the path to implementing an ecosystem approach to fisheries management.

**Keywords:** Ecosystem approach to fisheries management ; ecosystem indicators ; good environmental status ; Marine Strategy Framework Directive ; stock assessment ; trophic level

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## **1. Introduction**

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Since the publication of the Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries (FAO 1995), the ecosystem approach to fisheries management (EAFM) has progressively been recognized as a

necessity worldwide. The concept aims at assessing the global impact of fisheries on ecosystem functioning, whilst taking into account the fact that fisheries are embedded into the environment and cannot be managed in isolation (Garcia et al. 2003; Jennings and Rice 2011; Pikitch et al. 2004; Rice 2011). More generally, the ecosystem approach to fisheries management is the application of sustainable development principles to the fishing sector, combining ecological sustainability of stocks and ecosystems, economic viability of the fishing industry, and social viability and fairness for local communities as well as the broader society (Garcia and Cochrane 2005; Gascuel et al. 2011a).

In the European Union, efforts to implement the ecosystem approach to fisheries management led to the definition of a reference list of nine ecosystem indicators (STECF 2006 & 2007; European Commission 2008a), with the objective of assessing the fisheries impact not only on targeted stocks, but also on fish communities, biodiversity, seafloor integrity, population genetics, discarded species, and fishery fuel consumption. In recent years, several authors and working groups under the auspices of the International Council for Exploration of the Sea (ICES) have used or developed these ecosystem indicators (Greenstreet et al. 2011 and 2012; Shephard et al. 2011; Fung et al. 2012). Nevertheless, analyses of ecosystem impacts of fisheries remained partial, covering only some ecosystems with no associated standard monitoring in place at the pan-European level.

Things have started to change recently with the implementation of the Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD; European Commission 2008b) by the European Commission. The overarching goal of this Directive is achieving Good Environmental Status across all European marine waters by 2020, based on 11 qualitative descriptors (European Commission 2010) and a set of associated indicators that is still under development. While the ecosystem approach first emerged in the context of fisheries management, the MSFD now requires its implementation of the ecosystem approach in the wider context of integrated management involving multiple sectors beyond fisheries. The indicators initially proposed for ecosystem approach to fisheries management are now finding their way into the MSFD as both share common sustainability goals.

100 Several working groups have been set up by ICES and the European Commission to work on this.  
101 In particular, the European Scientific Technical and Economic Committee for Fisheries (STECF)  
102 has set up an expert working group on the “Development of the Ecosystem Approach to Fisheries  
103 Management in European Seas”, with the overall objective of developing a feasibility approach to  
104 provide useful advice on ecosystem status in support of the Common Fisheries Policy. In line with  
105 the MSFD implementation, one of the main objectives of this working group was to assess the  
106 health of European ecosystems, using currently available data.

107 The current paper presents the main 2013 results from this working group. Our aim is to show that  
108 stock-based and ecosystem-based indicators can provide a complementary diagnosis on the fishing  
109 impact and environmental status of European seas. Seven ecosystems covering the Baltic and  
110 Atlantic European marine waters (West Scotland and Ireland, Irish Sea, North Sea, Celtic Sea, Bay  
111 of Biscay, Iberian Coast) were used as case studies. For each of them: i) trends in landings since  
112 1950 were examined with the objective of providing a comprehensive overview of the dynamics of  
113 the whole fishery; ii) integrated syntheses of the status and trends in fish stocks, derived from ICES  
114 assessments, were consolidated at the ecosystem level; and iii) trends in ecosystem indicators were  
115 analysed based on available time series of landings and scientific survey data.

116

## 117 **Material and Methods**

### 118 **Marine ecosystems considered and data used**

119 The current study considered seven European ecosystems covering the Baltic and Atlantic waters of  
120 the European seas (Fig. 1). These ecosystems refer to the reference list of marine ecosystems  
121 defined by the European Scientific Technical and Economic Committee for Fisheries (STECF,  
122 2011) which have to be considered as the functional and assessment units used for the operational  
123 implementation of the Ecosystem approach to fisheries management in European waters. These  
124 STECF marine ecosystems are comparable with the MSFD (sub)regions, but, according to the

125 marine eco-regions defined by ICES (2004), ecosystems boundaries have been defined in order to  
126 match the divisions or sub-divisions used for fisheries statistics and stock assessments.

127 A specific database was set up to compile the various tables required for the current analysis:

128 (i) The ICES Statlant database ([www.ices.dk](http://www.ices.dk), accessed April 2013) was used to analyse trends in  
129 landings from 1950 to 2010. This international database of fisheries landings is coordinated by  
130 ICES and includes landings of fish and shellfish from 20 countries, at the spatial resolution of ICES  
131 divisions and subdivisions. Landings were aggregated by ecosystem according to the boundaries of  
132 the ecosystems analysed. Until 1982 some landings were reported for a pool of several ICES  
133 subdivisions (referring to ICES areas VII, VIII, or VIId the English Channel). These landings were  
134 distributed among ecosystems proportionally to the mean landings of the two most recent decades.  
135 This allocation has negligible effects on catch, except in the Bay of Biscay. Therefore, landings-  
136 based indicators were not calculated prior to 1983 in the Bay of Biscay.

137 (ii) Data related to all stocks assessed by ICES were used in order to build stock-based aggregated  
138 indicators at the ecosystem level. Catches, spawning stock biomass (SSB), fishing mortality rate  
139 (F), recruitment (R), and reference values for F and SSB were extracted for the 2012 single stock  
140 assessments from the ICES website ([www.ices.dk](http://www.ices.dk); accessed 30 April 2013). Until 2010, ICES used  
141 reference values for fishing mortality and spawning stock biomass based on the ‘precautionary  
142 approach’ as thresholds for sustainable exploitation (i.e.  $F_{pa}$  and  $B_{pa}$ , to determine if a stock is  
143 within “safe biological limits”, thus avoiding recruitment overfishing). According to the  
144 commitments of the 2002 World Summit of Sustainable Development (WSSD 2002,  
145 Johannesburg), the MSFD, as well as the revised Common Fisheries Policy, now aim for a  
146 sustainable exploitation and new reference values for fishing mortality,  $F_{MSY}$  (i.e. the fishing  
147 mortality assumed to produce the Maximum Sustainable Yield, thus avoiding growth overfishing),  
148 was adopted. More precisely the fishing mortality of overexploited stocks should be reduced to  
149  $F_{MSY}$  by 2015 ‘where possible’, and for all stocks by 2020. As the previous reference value for  
150 fishing mortality ( $F_{pa}$ ) was, in practice, often treated as a target value (Piet and Rice, 2004) while

151 the current and markedly lower  $F_{MSY}$  should be treated as a limit, this should lead to a significant  
152 decrease in fishing mortality and a subsequent increase in SSB for almost all stocks. Therefore, the  
153 management of European fisheries is currently following a transition scheme, using the three  
154 reference values  $B_{pa}$ ,  $F_{pa}$  and  $F_{MSY}$ . These values were extracted, when available, from the ICES  
155 website and used in the current analysis. For stocks not assessed in 2012, the last available  
156 assessment (from 2005 to 2011) was considered. A total of fifty-seven assessed stocks were  
157 included in the analyses (see the list in the Supplementary Material). When a stock occurred in  
158 several ecosystems, catches and biomass estimated from the assessment were allocated in each  
159 ecosystem in the same proportions as the mean 2000-2010 ratio of landings per ecosystem.

160 (iii) Trawl survey data were extracted from ICES DATRAS database (online DAtabase of TRAwl  
161 Surveys, [datras.ices.dk](http://datras.ices.dk); accessed 30 March 2013) to calculate ecosystem indicators along the  
162 longest standardized time series possible. For consistency, demersal trawl surveys with a similar  
163 protocol were selected for each ecosystem (for instance, the time series selected for the North Sea  
164 starts in 1983, the year in which all areas of the ICES International Bottom Trawl Survey were  
165 conducted with a standardized GOV trawl gear). Only surveys covering the larger part of the  
166 ecosystem were considered (i.e. local coastal surveys were excluded), using the stations located  
167 within the studied ecosystem (see details on surveys selection and data extraction in the  
168 Supplementary Material). In the Celtic Sea two surveys occurred each year (France-Evhoé and UK-  
169 WCGFS), using distinct sampling design, gears and vessels. In this case two different estimates  
170 were calculated for each indicator.

171

## 172 **Landings and stock-based indicators**

173 ICES Statlant statistics were used to analyse long-term trends in total landings of the seven  
174 ecosystems. Times series of two indices of the landed species diversity were calculated for each  
175 ecosystem, based on:

176 (i) The number of exploited species whose landings were significant, i.e. higher than a minimum  
177 level, conventionally set equal to 0.5% of the mean annual total landings of the last ten years (i.e.  
178 2001-2010);

179 (ii) The Shannon diversity index (Shannon 1948):  $H' = \sum_s [P_s \cdot \log_2(P_s)]$ , where  $P_s$  is the proportion  
180 in mass of species  $s$  in the yearly total landings.

181 The proportion of exploited species covered by stock assessments was computed for the 1950-2010  
182 period. It reflects current assessment-based knowledge about the fishable fraction of the ecosystem.  
183 Then, for all stocks subjected to a stock assessment, three indicators were estimated to produce a  
184 synthesis of multiple stock trajectories at the ecosystem level: the total spawning stock biomass, the  
185 mean fishing mortality, and the mean recruitment index. Recruitment indices were computed per  
186 stock as the ratio of recruitment in year  $y$  divided by the average recruitment of that stock over the  
187 period where data for all species was available. The mean fishing mortality and the mean  
188 recruitment index were then averaged over the number of species using a geometric mean.

189 For many ecosystems, there was only a relatively short period during which data were available for  
190 all assessed stocks. By restricting the number of stocks included in indicator calculations, longer  
191 (but less representative) time series may be built. Therefore, within each ecosystem and for all  
192 ecosystems combined, two indicators were considered. The first one is related to all the currently  
193 assessed stocks. The second one is based on a subset of stocks, choosing a minimum of 60% of the  
194 assessed stocks allowing for the calculation of the longest possible but still sufficiently  
195 representative, time series. Sensitivity analyses to various subsets of the stocks considered are  
196 included in the Supplementary Material.

197 The current status of assessed stocks and their overall mean trajectory over time was summarized  
198 within each ecosystem on a common graph in reference to what are considered the main aspects of  
199 stock status, fishing mortality ( $F$ ) and reproductive capacity ( $SSB$ ). Two reference values were  
200 considered for the fishing mortality: the point at maximum sustainable yield ( $F_{MSY}$ ) and the  
201 precautionary reference point ( $F_{pa}$ , which is in fact usually higher and thus less precautionary than

202  $F_{MSY}$ ). For SSB, only the precautionary biomass was used ( $B_{pa}$ ) because  $B_{MSY}$  is currently not  
203 considered as a threshold for stock management in European waters and values are not available.  
204 For all stocks for which  $F_{MSY}$ ,  $F_{pa}$  and  $B_{pa}$  limits were estimated by ICES, the comparison of the  
205 assessments (current  $F$  and SSB estimates) with associated reference points were presented  
206 following a modified version of the synoptic method developed by Garcia and de Leiva Moreno  
207 (2005). Thus, the current  $F$  is compared to reference points (here  $F_{MSY}$  and  $F_{pa}$ ) by estimating a  
208 normalized index of fishing mortality as:  $F^* = (F_{current} - F_{MSY}) / (F_{pa} - F_{MSY})$ . It should be stressed  
209 here that the resulting normalized fishing mortality index  $F^*$  is no longer proportional to realized  $F$ ,  
210 but rather it increases with  $F$ .  $F^*$  is conventionally set equal to 0 and 1, for  $F_{current}=F_{MSY}$  and  
211  $F_{current}=F_{pa}$  respectively. Thus, it allows us to simultaneously assess stock status in reference to both  
212 the 'old'  $F_{pa}$  and the 'new'  $F_{MSY}$  reference values. The normalized biomass only refers to  $B_{pa}$  and  
213 thus is expressed as  $B^* = (B_{current}) / (B_{pa})$ . Trajectories in overall stock status were obtained  
214 calculating the mean  $F^*$  and  $B^*$  for each year (replacing  $F_{current}$  by  $F_{year}$  in previous equations) and  
215 for all assessed stocks (for which target limits are known). These indicators  $F^*$  and  $B^*$  allow for the  
216 representation of the current status and the mean trajectory of assessed stocks in a single graph (e.g.  
217 Figures 5 and 6).

218

### 219 **Ecosystem indicators calculated**

220 Four ecosystem indicators were calculated from the survey data:

221 (i) The large fish indicator (LFI) reflects the size structure of the fish assemblage, which is assumed  
222 to be primarily affected by size-selective exploitation but is mediated by species composition  
223 (Shephard et al. 2012) as well as the fishing-induced reduction of life expectancy of each exploited  
224 species. This indicator was calculated as:  $LFI = W_{>40cm} / W_{total}$ , where  $W_{>40cm}$  is the weight of fish  
225 greater than 40 cm in length and  $W_{total}$  is the total weight of all fish in the survey (Greenstreet et al.  
226 2011; see details on calculations in the Supplementary material).



227 (ii) The mean maximum length of fish (MML) reflects the species composition of a fish  
 228 assemblage, where fishing is expected to cause a decrease in the proportion of species with large  
 229 asymptotic body size, slow growth rate, late age and large size at maturation (Shin et al. 2005). This  
 230 indicator was calculated according to ICES (2009) based on the asymptotic total length of each  
 231 species ( $L_{\infty_s}$  from Fishbase; Froese and Pauly 2012; [www.fishbase.org](http://www.fishbase.org); accessed 30 March 2013)  
 232 as:  $MML = \sum (W_s \cdot L_{\infty_s}) / \sum W_s$ , where  $W_s$  is the total weight of species  $s$  caught during the survey.

233 (iii) The mean trophic level (MTL) of all fish caught during the survey indicates the effect of  
 234 fishing on the food web (Jiming 1982; Pauly et al. 1998). It was calculated as:  
 235  $MTL = \sum (TL_s \cdot W_s) / \sum W_s$ , where  $TL_s$  is the mean trophic level of species  $s$  (from Fishbase) and  
 236  $W_s$  is the total weight of species  $s$  caught during the survey.

237 (iv) The marine trophic index (MTI) reflects the trophic structure of the fish assemblage where  
 238 fishing is expected to affect mostly the upper part of the food web, i.e. predatory fish. It is defined  
 239 as the mean trophic level of predatory fish caught during each survey, taking into account only  
 240 species whose trophic level is higher than or equal to 3.25 (Pauly and Watson 2005).

241 As such we refer to the large fish indicator (LFI) and mean maximum length (MML) as length-  
 242 based indicators while the mean trophic level (MTL) and marine trophic index (MTI) are trophic  
 243 indicators even though strictly speaking only the LFI captures changes in size structure while the  
 244 three others reflect only changes in species composition, weighted by the species asymptotic total  
 245 length (MML) or mean trophic level (MTL and MTI).

246 In order to highlight trends rather than the short term variability, all indicators were smoothed using  
 247 a three year moving average. For the Celtic Sea, mean indicators were calculated by averaging  
 248 estimates from the two available surveys (Evhoe and UK WCGFS). Mean indicators were also  
 249 calculated for all ecosystems together except the Iberian coast, due to the very short time series  
 250 available. Because the surveys selected in the various ecosystems did not cover the same time  
 251 period, such a calculation required a preliminary standardisation of each time series. This

standardization was obtained by rescaling the indicator series for each given ecosystem to the mean value of this indicator for all ecosystems over the 1997-2008 period, which is common to all the selected surveys.

Ecosystem indicators were also calculated from commercial fishery landings using the same equations (except LFI, because length frequencies were not available for landings). In this case, the mean trophic level (MTL) and the marine trophic index (MTI) were calculated for all species landed, including finfish and invertebrates. Trophic levels of invertebrates were extracted from SeaLifeBase ([www.sealifebase.org](http://www.sealifebase.org); accessed 30 March 2013) or, when not available, conventionally assumed equal to 2.6 (Guénette and Gascuel 2012).

Trophic-based indicators were shown to be sensitive to the value of the trophic levels used for the top level species (Branch et al. 2010). Thus, sensitivity analyses were conducted, either changing the TL of cod (according to Branch et al. 2012), or using TLs from local Ecopath models. Detailed results of these analyses are presented in the Supplementary Materials and briefly summarized below. It should also be stressed that landings-based indicators are supposed to reflect ecosystem structure but may be biased by changes in fishing activities, involving gear selectivity (e.g. by technical creep or substitution of gear) or spatial distribution caused by the availability of quota. Thus, from a theoretical point of view, indicators based on surveys are preferred for un-biased analysis of fishing-induced changes in ecosystem health. However, because in practice, surveys only consider a subset of the fish community (i.e. often demersal finfish) and cover a relatively short period, complementary indicators based on landings can be applied to put the survey-based information in a longer-term and broader perspective.

## **Results**

### **Long term trends in landings**

Total landings in European seas increased from 3 million tonnes in the early 1950s to more than 7.2 million in the mid-1970s (Fig. 2). Since that period, landings have been decreasing, slowly until the

278 mid-1990s but accelerating during the last period, falling to 4.3 million tonnes in 2010. In the North  
279 Sea, which is by far the most important fishing area in Europe, yield declined by >50% over this  
280 period, from almost 4 million tonnes in the turn of the 1970s, to around 1.7 million tonnes during  
281 the most recent years. The same trends were observed in almost all the considered European  
282 ecosystems, with landings peaking during the 1970s and strongly declining afterwards: from  
283 160 000 to 60 000 tonnes in the Irish sea, from 780 000 to 450 000 tonnes in the Celtic Sea, from  
284 350 000 to 130 000 tonnes in the Bay of Biscay and from 740 000 to less than 400 000 in the  
285 Iberian coast marine ecosystem.

286 Only two ecosystems exhibited a different pattern. In the Baltic Sea, landings were close to 1  
287 million tonnes during the 1970s, peaked above this value in the mid-1990s, before slightly  
288 decreasing to less than 0.8 million during the last ten years. In the West of Scotland and Ireland,  
289 landings increased over almost the entire period, reaching a maximum of 1.4 million tonnes in  
290 2006, before being halved in the most recent years. This particular trend was due to a single species,  
291 the blue whiting (*Micromesistius poutassou*, Gadidae), whose exploitation started in deeper waters  
292 in 1975, increased in the 1990s, reached 1.1 million tonnes in 2006 and subsequently declined. In  
293 this ecosystem, the total landings of other species followed a more common pattern with a  
294 maximum in the 1980s (around 700 000 tonnes) decreasing to about 50% at present.

295 The EU is by far the dominant fishing operator within European seas. In the considered ecosystems,  
296 more than 80% of the total landings were caught by EU Member States, landings by non-EU  
297 countries being significant only in the North Sea (mainly due to Norway), the West Scotland and  
298 Ireland (mainly due to Iceland), and the Baltic Sea prior to 1990 (mainly due to the former Soviet  
299 Union and Poland).

300 The share of landings from stocks assessed by ICES increased over the studied period, reaching  
301 approximately 90% of the total landings since the 1980s, in the three northern ecosystems: the  
302 Baltic Sea, the North Sea, and the West of Scotland and Ireland (note that, in certain years, catches  
303 used by ICES scientists were even greater than official catches from the ICES Statlant database, and

304 that most ICES assessments considers discards and potential un-reported landings as well as  
305 potential re-allocation of landings between areas or between species). In contrast, stock assessments  
306 cover a smaller part of the total landings in the four southern ecosystems further decreasing over the  
307 most recent years, from about 60% in the 1980s or 1990s to around 40% today.

308 The decrease in catch observed in almost all the studied ecosystems over the last 3 or 4 decades  
309 occurred while new species started to be exploited intensively. This was especially the case for  
310 sandeels (*Ammodytes marinus*, Ammodytidae, more than 1 million tonnes in the North Sea),  
311 Norway pout (*Trisopterus esmarkii*, Gadidae), mackerel (*Scomber scombrus*, Scombridae), horse  
312 mackerel (*Trachurus trachurus*, Carangidae) and for some crustaceans and molluscs. More  
313 generally, the landings diversity indices show that a progressively greater proportion of each  
314 ecosystem was exploited over the period (Fig. 3). The number of species significantly exploited  
315 within each ecosystem peaked in the 1980s for the Irish Sea and West Scotland/Ireland ecosystems,  
316 in the 1990s for the Celtic Sea and the Iberian Coast ecosystems, and in the 2000s for the North Sea  
317 and the Bay of Biscay ecosystems. On average, the number of species significantly exploited  
318 jumped from 8 in 1950 to almost 24 in the late 1990s. At the same time, the Shannon diversity  
319 index (H) increased from 2.8 to 3.7. In other words, the increase in catch observed in the 1950s and  
320 1960s progressively included more exploited species, and landings became more diverse. This  
321 process continued until the mid or late 1990s, while catches declined, suggesting fishermen tried to  
322 compensate for their losses by the exploitation of new resources. In the most recent years, the H  
323 diversity index remained high, while the number of exploited species slightly decreased, with  
324 landings of some species declining below the minimum level considered in the index calculation.

325 The general pattern of an increasing diversity of catch until the 1990s is observed in all ecosystems,  
326 with the exception of the Baltic Sea, and to a lesser extent of the West of Scotland and Ireland. In  
327 the first case, diversity remained very low and decreased slightly since the early 1970s, while in the  
328 second case the predominance of the blue whiting starting in the 1980s reduced the diversity of  
329 landings.

330

### 331 **Stock-based indicators**

332 In the seven ecosystems considered, the fishing mortality index, reflecting mean fishing pressure on  
333 the assessed stocks, exhibited high values in the 1990s and a clear decreasing trend over the last 12  
334 years. On average, for all the 57 available assessed stocks together, fishing mortality increased from  
335 0.45 in the mid-1980s to almost 0.55 in 1998, and then decreased to approximately 0.30 by 2010  
336 (Fig. 4 left column). Results appeared very consistent for all time series (i.e. either for short time  
337 series with all stocks or for longer time series based on fewer stocks). The same decreasing trend in  
338 fishing mortality was observed in all the studied ecosystems, with lower values around 0.25 at the  
339 end of the time series in the North Sea, the Celtic Sea and the Iberian coast. In the Baltic Sea,  
340 moderate fishing mortalities around 0.35 were already observed in the 1980s and the recent  
341 decrease is a return to this rather moderate level following a high fishing mortality period in the late  
342 1990s. In all other ecosystems, fishing mortalities were lowest in the most recent years of the  
343 available time series. Note that in the Bay of Biscay several important stocks (cod *Gadus morhua*,  
344 Gadidae, anglerfish *Lophius* spp., Lophiidae) were not assessed for the most recent years, thereby  
345 leading to reduced knowledge over this period for this ecosystem.

346 Trends in stock abundances, based on spawning stock biomass time series (SSB), fluctuated  
347 between 10 and 14 million tonnes over the period, decreasing from the late 1980s to the mid-1990s,  
348 increasing until the mid-2000s and decreasing again in the most recent years (Fig. 4 middle  
349 column). This index was driven by a small number of large stocks, with contrasting trends between  
350 ecosystems. Blue whiting is the main stock driving changes observed in the West Scotland /Ireland  
351 ecosystem, with an SSB peaking in the mid-2000s before declining. Horse mackerel was especially  
352 abundant in the late 1980s, inducing an increase in the overall assessed SSB for the Celtic Sea and  
353 the Bay of Biscay. In the last ten years, when the fishing pressure was decreasing, an overall  
354 increase in SSB was only observed in the North Sea, essentially due to the recovery of plaice and  
355 herring. The Irish Sea, the Celtic Sea, and the Bay of Biscay exhibited an increasing trend in SSB

356 while remaining at low levels compared to earlier periods. On the Iberian coast, SSB continued to  
357 decline reaching its lowest values at the end of the period.

358 In contrast, recruitment indices exhibited a consistently decreasing trend. On average for all  
359 assessed stocks together the mean recruitment has approximately halved since the mid-1980s (Fig. 4  
360 right column). The same trend was observed with the same order of magnitude in all the studied  
361 ecosystems, with the only exception being the Baltic Sea, where recruitment fluctuated with no  
362 clear trends. In the North Sea, the West of Scotland and Ireland, and the Irish Sea the decrease  
363 occurred over a long period, apparently starting from the 1980s. In the Celtic Sea and the Bay of  
364 Biscay, the decline was only observed during the last decade.

365

#### 366 **Mean stock status and trajectories**

367 ICES have estimated single stock based reference levels for 21 European assessed stocks  
368 (representing 34 % of the total 2010 landings). Among these, nine stocks met the current ICES  
369 management targets, with biomass above  $B_{pa}$  and a fishing mortality below the  $F_{MSY}$  level (Fig. 5).  
370 This is the case for plaice (*Pleuronectes platessa*, Pleuronectidae) in the North Sea and the Irish  
371 Sea, haddock (*Melanogrammus aeglefinus*, Gadidae) in the North Sea and Western waters  
372 (Rockall), saithe (*Pollachius virens* Gadidae) in the North Sea, Baltic herring (sub-div.30) (*Clupea*  
373 *harengus*, Clupeidae), and cod and sole (*Solea vulgaris*, Soleidae) in the Celtic sea. In contrast,  
374 eleven stocks failed to meet the requirements of the ‘past’ precautionary approach, with biomass  
375 lower than  $B_{pa}$  and/or fishing mortalities higher than  $F_{pa}$ . This especially applies for four strongly  
376 depleted stocks (i.e. biomass lower than  $0.5 \cdot B_{pa}$ ): sole in the Irish Sea, and cod in the North Sea,  
377 Irish Sea and West Scotland and Ireland. The criterion for reproductive capacity  $B_{pa}$  was not met by  
378 three additional stocks (West of Scotland haddock, and the North Sea and Skagerrak stocks of sole),  
379 while four others exhibited fishing mortalities higher than  $F_{pa}$  (the Baltic cod (sub-div.22-24) and  
380 herring (riga), and the Biscay and the East Channel stocks of sole). Finally, one stock (West  
381 Channel plaice) met the requirements of the precautionary approach ( $F_{pa}$  and  $B_{pa}$ ) but not the  $F_{MSY}$

382 criterion. It can also be noted that among the 21 assessed stocks, a majority exhibited low biomass  
383 with 7 stocks below the precautionary level  $B_{pa}$  and 7 additional stocks close to that level (between  
384 1.0 and 1.3  $B_{pa}$ ).

385 The trajectory of average fishing mortality of these assessed stocks confirmed that fishing  
386 mortalities were very high in the 1980s and 1990s, with mean values above  $F_{pa}$  (Fig. 6). Starting in  
387 the early 2000s, fishing mortality decreased and the mean value has been between  $F_{pa}$  and  $F_{MSY}$   
388 since 2008, and very close to  $F_{MSY}$  in 2011 (but based on only 16 stock assessments). In spite of  
389 this, no increase was observed in the mean spawning biomass of these stocks which remains at a  
390 low level, close to  $B_{pa}$  and thus far below  $B_{MSY}$ . A similar trajectory was observed in the North Sea,  
391 with a current mean fishing mortality between  $F_{pa}$  and  $F_{MSY}$  and biomass decreasing over the most  
392 recent years and currently very close to  $B_{pa}$ . In the West of Scotland and Ireland and in the Celtic  
393 Sea, the  $F_{MSY}$  target was reached in 2011 (mean  $F$  below  $F_{MSY}$ ), but the mean spawning biomass of  
394 assessed stocks remained very low, still decreasing and below  $B_{pa}$  in the former, slightly increasing  
395 and above  $B_{pa}$  in the latter. The three Irish Sea stocks showed mean fishing mortality fluctuating  
396 above  $F_{pa}$  while the mean SSB decreased to below  $B_{pa}$  from the late 1990s onwards and was still  
397 very close to that level in 2011. Once again, the Baltic Sea exhibited a different pattern, with mean  
398 fishing mortality fluctuating markedly, with moderate values occurring in the early 1990s, higher  
399 levels in the 2000s and current mean fishing mortality between  $F_{pa}$  and  $F_{MSY}$ .

400

#### 401 **Ecosystem indicators**

402 Ecosystem indicators exhibited contrasting trends among ecosystems (Fig. 7).

403 (1) In the Baltic Sea, where the biodiversity is lower (Narayanaswamy et al. 2013), indicators based  
404 on demersal surveys were mainly driven by cod abundance. Thus, higher values observed for all  
405 indices between 1990 and 1996 may be attributed to a temporary increase in cod recruitment after  
406 the 1993 inflow event, while the increase occurring from about 2006 can be attributed to a recent  
407 overall increase in cod recruitment. Landings-based indicators provide a broader picture taking into

408 account demersal and pelagic species and a longer period starting in 1950. A clear and strong  
409 decreasing trend is observed over the whole period in the mean trophic level index (MTL went from  
410 3.7 to 3.2) and in the mean maximum length (MML went from more than 70 cm to around 30 cm).  
411 This trend is mostly driven by a decrease in cod landings (representing almost 50 % of total  
412 landings in the 1950s and less than 10 % in the 2000s) and by the huge increase in sprat landings  
413 (from less than 5 % to more than 50 % of total landings). An increase in landings was also observed  
414 for some other low trophic level species, such as bivalves (e.g. mussel *Mytilus edulis*, Mytilidae,  
415 and common roach *Rutilus rutilus*, Cyprinidae), while landings of whiting (*Merlangius merlangus*,  
416 Gadidae) - a high TL species - decreased over the period. Note that the high cod recruitment  
417 occurring in the early 1980s temporarily interrupted the long-term decrease of the two indices,  
418 which accelerates in the following years. In this ecosystem, landings having high TL comprise  
419 almost exclusively cod, explaining why the marine trophic index MTI was remarkably stable over  
420 the whole period.

421 (2) In the North Sea, length-based indicators from surveys (LFI and MML) decreased between 1985  
422 and 1993 and have remained at a low level over the last twenty years, suggesting that the ecosystem  
423 is now dominated by small fish and other small species. The mean trophic level estimated from  
424 surveys decreased over the whole period (the MTL went from 4.1 to 3.9), but with a large year-to-  
425 year variability masking the trend over the most recent years. Indicator values based on landings  
426 decreased slightly during the 1970s and 1980s (the mean trophic level MTL went from 3.4 to 3.3,  
427 and the mean maximum length MML from 50 to 40 cm), at a time when a larger part of the  
428 ecosystem started to be exploited with an increasing catch of sandeel, mackerel and sprat (*Sprattus*  
429 *sprattus*, Clupeidae). The marine trophic index fluctuated at about 3.9 from 1950 to the mid-1980s  
430 with lower values at 3.8 for the last twenty years. Such a change can be explained by decreasing  
431 abundance and landings of cod, but also of other high trophic level species such as whiting and  
432 anglerfish.



433 (3) The West Scotland and Ireland ecosystem is the only one where the large fish indicator LFI  
434 exhibited a clear increase over the most recent period. This indicator was largely driven by the stock  
435 status of saithe, which collapsed in the early 1990 before recovering. This survey also moved into  
436 deeper water in more recent years, possibly introducing a bias towards larger fish. In contrast, other  
437 indicators based on surveys exhibited a consistent decline since the 1980s accelerating in recent  
438 years (mean maximum length MML from 90 to 70 cm, and the mean trophic level MTL from 4.0 to  
439 3.4), while the marine trophic index only slightly decreased over the last decade (MTI from almost  
440 4.2 to 4.0). This trend reflects the decreasing abundance of large fish predators such as cod and  
441 whiting. Indicators based on landings showed a decreasing trend over the past 60 years, with major  
442 changes occurring during the 1970s (the MTI went from 4.2 to 3.8, and the MML from 75 to 52  
443 cm), when the blue whiting and mackerel fisheries developed, and a continuous but smaller decline  
444 over the 30 years, mainly explained by the decreasing abundance and catch of cod, and spurdog  
445 (*Squalus acanthias*, Squalidae).

446 (4) In the Irish Sea, length-based indicators from surveys (LFI and MML) exhibited a slightly  
447 increasing trend, but with absolute values smaller than in all other ecosystems (proportion of large  
448 fish LFI on average below 0.12, and mean maximum length MML around 42 cm). In contrast,  
449 trophic-based indicators sharply decreased over the past 20 years in the survey data and over the  
450 past 30 years in the landings (MTL from 3.5 to 2.8, and the MTI from 4.2 to 3.9). Changes observed  
451 in landings reflect the increasing catch of species like Norway lobster (*Nephrops norvegicus*,  
452 Nephropidae) but also the decreasing trend in abundance and catch of cod, whiting, saithe or hake  
453 (*Merluccius merluccius*, Gadidae). The mean maximum length MML from landings increased  
454 around 1980 mainly due to the collapse of herring.

455 (5) In the Celtic Sea, the large fish indicator LFI seemed to slightly increase over the last decade (in  
456 contrast to the results of Shephard et al. (2013), which were based only on the UK WCGFS survey).  
457 All other ecosystem indicators based on surveys remained stable over the study period (1993-2010)  
458 showing no clear sign of recovery that may be attributed to the observed decrease in fishing

459 pressure. This relative stability is put in perspective by complementary landings-based indicators  
460 suggesting that major changes already occurred in this ecosystem before the beginning of scientific  
461 surveys, with very strong decreases from 1950 to the late 1970s (the mean trophic level MTL went  
462 from 3.9 to 3.6, and the mean maximum length MML from 85 to 45 cm) and subsequently  
463 stabilising at low levels.

464 (6) In the Bay of Biscay, indicators were only available for a relatively short period (1997 to 2010).  
465 A slight increase was observed in length-based indicators from surveys (the LFI went from 0.09 to  
466 0.15, and the MML from 52 to 56 cm), while trophic indicators remained stable. Time series of  
467 indicators based on landings were also shorter compared to other ecosystems. Since the mid-1980s,  
468 mean trophic levels appeared to be stable, while the marine trophic index and the mean maximum  
469 length of landed fish decreased around 2000, mainly driven by increased catches of horse mackerel.

470 (7) On the Iberian coast, available time series of surveys were even shorter (from 2002 to 2008) and  
471 hence it is difficult to draw conclusions on indicator trends. In contrast, indicators from landings  
472 were available since the 1950s. Mean trophic level and mean maximum length remained rather  
473 constant over the whole period, exhibiting the lowest values (about 3.4 and 43 cm respectively) of  
474 all ecosystems analysed in this study. The marine trophic index decreased (from 4.0 to 3.7)  
475 reflecting changes in landing composition, with hake landings in particular decreasing due to over-  
476 exploitation, and more blue whiting or mackerel caught over time.

477

478 In summary, despite of the difference in magnitude between ecosystems, a long term overall decline  
479 in the landings-based indicators was observed across all assessed European seas (Fig. 8). Thus,  
480 since 1950, the mean trophic level of landings has declined from 3.7 to 3.3, while the marine  
481 trophic index decreased on average from more than 4.0 to about 3.8. This trend is not modified  
482 when indicators are calculated using values of trophic levels from local Ecopath models, instead of  
483 the standard values from Fishbase (see detailed results of the sensitivity analyses in the  
484 Supplementary Material). Over the same period, the overall index of mean maximum length

485 decreased from 68 cm to 49 cm. In other words, landings from European Seas progressively became  
486 dominated by smaller species and lower trophic levels.

487 Even if calculated over a shorter period, indicators based on surveys showed that the decrease in  
488 landings was not only related to putative changes in fishing strategy, but also to observed ecosystem  
489 change. The global trophic-based indicators confirmed a deterioration of the community structure of  
490 the ecosystems from 1985-2010 (MTL decreased from 4.05 to 3.80 and MTI dropped from almost  
491 4.1 to less than 4.0). This decrease had an impact on all the 5 ecosystems where time series started  
492 before 1995, with the only exception being the Baltic Sea. Length-based indicators from surveys  
493 exhibited some similarities in their trends over the period. From the start of the time series both  
494 showed an initial strong decline (MML 90 cm to 74 cm, LFI 0.27 to 0.12) reaching a minimum in  
495 the early 1990s (MML) or early 2000s (LFI) after which the MML fluctuated below 80 cm while  
496 the LFI increased to 0.20 in 2010. This improving trend of the large fish indicator LFI over the last  
497 decade was clearly observed in the Bay of Biscay, but also to a lesser extent in the North Sea, the  
498 Irish Sea and the Celtic Sea.

499 It should be stressed that survey-based ecosystem indicators calculated for all ecosystems together  
500 are highly correlated with landing-based indicators ( $r=0.77$ ,  $0.92$ , and  $0.80$  for MML, MTL and  
501 MTI respectively). At the ecosystem level, a positive correlation was observed in 9 of 21 cases  
502 ( $p<0.05$ ; see Table S4 in the Supplementary Material). Importantly, the recent declines in fishing  
503 mortality may only have resulted in an overall recovery of the fish community size structure while  
504 all other ecosystem indicators continue to decline.

505

## 506 **Synthesis on trends over the last decade**

507 The global picture of recent indicator trends (Fig. 9) highlighted several points:

- 508 ■ The decrease in mean fishing mortality rates was significant in the seven European ecosystems  
509 considered in the study. The same trend was observed for nominal fishing effort when data were  
510 available; in particular fishing effort in terms of kw\*fishing day approximately halved between

2002 and 2010 for the North Sea, the Irish Sea, and the West of Scotland and Ireland (data from STECF 2012). Landings also decreased in all ecosystems.

- With the exception of the Baltic Sea, the decrease in the mean recruitment index was significant in all ecosystems.

- The spawning biomass of assessed stocks increased in several ecosystems, but remained at low levels (especially in the North Sea, the Irish Sea, and the West Scotland and Ireland), and is still decreasing on the Iberian coast. On the other hand, the large fish indicator (LFI) seemed to improve in several ecosystems, suggesting that the size structure of exploited stocks has started to recover. The observed decrease in recruitment may have counterbalanced the benefit expected from the release of the fishing pressure, leading to almost stable total biomass.

- Even when the total biomass of assessed stocks was increasing, several ecosystem indicators still declined suggesting ongoing degradation in ecosystem health. This suggests that the observed decrease in fishing pressure has not been sufficient or is still too recent to allow recovery of ecosystems from a depleted state, especially in terms of species composition and trophic biodiversity.

- Some contrasts do exist within ecosystems. In particular, based on the available indicators, the Bay of Biscay ecosystem seems in better shape, or showed stronger improvement than others. In contrast, many indicators exhibited deteriorating trends in the West of Scotland and Ireland ecosystem. However, due to the relatively limited availability of data in the Bay of Biscay and the Iberian Sea compared to the northern areas, this conclusion is cautious.

- More data and/or longer time series are available in the northern European seas (in the Baltic Sea, North Sea and West Scotland and Ireland). In particular, indicators based on stock-assessments (i.e. fishing mortality  $F$ , spawning stock biomass  $SSB$ , recruitment  $R$  and sustainable fishing mortality index  $F^*$ ) can be considered representative of the whole fished fraction of ecosystems. In contrast, most landings in other ecosystems are related to non-assessed stocks and are thus not included in some of our analyses due to data availability.

537

## 538 **Discussion**

### 539 **Building ecosystems diagnoses in support of a science-based EAFM**

#### 540 *. Using landings-based indicators*

541 In order to implement an Ecosystem Approach to Fisheries Management (EAFM), an assessment of  
542 the status of marine ecosystems and of temporal change is required. In order to draw valid  
543 conclusions, the longest time-series available should be considered (Guénette and Gascuel 2012). In  
544 the European seas it emerged that surveys alone are not sufficient to build diagnoses on ecosystem  
545 health, as they only describe a relatively short period before which the system was already impacted  
546 and major changes had occurred. Catch or landing statistics are available over a longer period, but  
547 using such data to infer information about stock abundance or ecosystems health has been strongly  
548 debated among fisheries scientists (Branch et al. 2011; Carruthers et al. 2012; Pauly et al. 2013).  
549 Some of the observed changes since World War II reflect adaptations by the industry, either to  
550 ecological change (including that induced by fishing), consumer habits or markets. Changes also  
551 reflect developments in gear technology, which have allowed the emergence of new fisheries, for  
552 instance in deeper waters. Also, management and regulations as well as discarding practices have a  
553 significant impact on landings. Such changes may have a substantial impact on catch rates (Marchal  
554 et al 2006) and can thus cause bias in any landings-based indicator. In other words, some caution is  
555 required when interpreting catch or landing reconstructions and inferring changes over time since  
556 the latter may be influenced by both the species and the fleet segments included in the analysis  
557 (Essington et al. 2006; Thurstan and Roberts 2010; Heath and Speirs 2011). Nevertheless, landings  
558 reconstruction provides a long term perspective on exploitation history, which has to be kept in  
559 mind when attempting to assess ecosystem health in a more recent period of time. In European seas,  
560 landings showed that major changes took place from the 1950s to the 1970s, before contemporary  
561 scientific surveys started.

562

563 . *Using stock-based indicators and management targets*

564 Examining aggregated metrics based on formal stock assessment results was another important step  
565 in our approach towards an ecosystem approach to fisheries management. Using the results of  
566 single species stock assessments may not be perceived as the most obvious contribution to an  
567 ecosystem approach, but has also been recently applied to pelagic fish communities in the North  
568 Sea and Celtic Seas (Shephard et al. 2014). The current analysis shows that such an approach allows  
569 the compilation of stock-based indicators at the ecosystem level, using the best available estimates  
570 regarding the status of all the assessed stocks, and thus provides a useful diagnosis of state in the  
571 fished and assessed part of the ecosystem. The synthesis was based on  $F_{pa}$ ,  $B_{pa}$  and  $F_{MSY}$  so that the  
572 status of each stock as well as their mean trajectories were defined with reference to both the “old”  
573 precautionary reference values and the new MSY-based reference value. According to the  
574 commitments of the 2002 Johannesburg world summit, the MSY-based objectives (implicitly  
575 defined based on the  $B_{MSY}$  target) should be reached, wherever possible, by 2015. The transition  
576 scheme, currently in force within ICES working groups, aims at the enforcement of this objective,  
577 but only considering  $F_{MSY}$  and not  $B_{MSY}$  as the new threshold (except for a few short lived species  
578 such as Norway pout), while maintaining  $B_{pa}$  as the SSB threshold even if  $B_{pa}$  is far below  $B_{MSY}$  for  
579 most stocks,.

580 In addition, the chance of the European Union to achieve the MSY objective by 2015 for all stocks  
581 seems highly unlikely (Froese and Proelß 2010; Villasante 2010). The Aichi Targets, defined at the  
582 Nagoya Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD 2010), set 2020 as the deadline to achieve MSY  
583 for all stocks worldwide, while the 2008 Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD)  
584 implements the same 2020 deadline to achieve Good Environmental Status across all European  
585 waters, including for the MSFD Descriptor 3 which specifically addresses commercial fish and  
586 shellfish (European Commission 2008b and 2010). Thus, at present, both the MSFD and the newly  
587 revised Common Fishery Policy have adopted MSY as the reference level that should be reached by  
588 2020 and applied this to the two indicators used to assess stock status: fishing mortality (F) and

589 Spawning Stock Biomass (SSB). Therefore, it will be especially interesting to monitor stocks  
590 trajectories (for each individual assessed stock or as a whole) in the coming years.

591 A limitation of our method is that reference points were not available for all stocks assessed by  
592 ICES, because they have not yet been estimated. The reference point  $F_{0.1}$  derived from yield per  
593 recruit analyses could be used as a proxy of  $F_{MSY}$ , where no direct estimate of  $F_{MSY}$  is available  
594 (STECF, 2011). Nevertheless, this proxy is not often specified by ICES working groups, and thus in  
595 some instances only certain stocks could be considered in our calculations of mean stock  
596 trajectories. This was especially the case in the southern ecosystems we studied, where in general  
597 only a relatively small part of the catch comprised assessed stocks. However, an assessment based  
598 on the largest proportion of exploited resources should be considered an important requirement for  
599 achieving an ecosystem approach (including reference point estimates) and thus for the MSFD,  
600 specifically Descriptor 3 (on commercial fish and shellfish), but could also have relevance for the  
601 descriptors 1 (biodiversity), 4 (food web) and 6 (seafloor integrity). Such assessments would not  
602 necessarily be required on an annual basis and using the same full set of age-based methods. In  
603 particular for non-target species, where complete coverage is not realistic, a risk-based approach  
604 could be defined in order to assess key vulnerable species, and to determine the number of stocks  
605 necessary to provide a representative overall assessment of species exploited in each ecosystem.

606 There are, however, some issues to consider when attempting to apply these MSY-based reference  
607 points as part of an ecosystem approach because biological interactions may prevent achieving  
608 current single-species-based  $B_{MSY}$  thresholds simultaneously for all stocks (Piet and Rice 2004).  
609 Also since  $F_{MSY}$  is considered a limit reference value it may imply that some of the stocks caught in  
610 a multi-species fishery will need to be caught at levels below  $F_{MSY}$ . In addition, changing the size  
611 selectivity of the fishery will affect the values of the management threshold, and have consequence  
612 for ecosystem health leading to a smaller impact on marine resources (Brunel and Piet 2012, Froese  
613 et al. 2008). In other words, new targets will have to be defined, using multi-species and ecosystem

614 models where the biological interactions (e.g. predation) and other ecosystem aspects of integrated  
615 stock sustainability are taken into consideration.

616

617 . *Using ecological indicators*

618 Ecological indicators are not routinely calculated for European ecosystems in any ICES or  
619 European working group or scientific program. The application of the MSFD indicators of Good  
620 Environmental Status to support integrated marine resource management is currently in a state of  
621 flux (Greenstreet et al. 2012; Lassen et al. 2013) which is nicely reflected by the indicators we  
622 considered which seem to capture relevant aspects of the fish community and probably also the  
623 wider ecosystem, and appear sensitive to the effects of fishing. In particular, trophic-based  
624 indicators appeared useful, highlighting a clear and continuous decreasing trend in several  
625 ecosystems as well as for the aggregated indicators. In addition, and in contrast to other studies (e.g.  
626 Branch et al. 2010 and 2012), trophic indicators based on landings appeared little sensitive to the  
627 uncertainty that exists regarding values of trophic levels per species. A decrease is also observed  
628 until the early 1990s for the mean maximum length indicators (MML). It reflects changes that have  
629 occurred in the species composition of demersal communities. In contrast, the LFI suggests the first  
630 signs of recovery from about 2000 onwards. If, indeed, the fishing pressure is decreasing as figure 4  
631 shows, it suggests that the size structure of fish stocks is more sensitive than the species  
632 composition of fish communities during the start of the recovery phase.

633 Finally, this study showed that the landing-based indicators (MTL, MTI and MML) appeared to be  
634 highly correlated to survey-based indicators for most ecosystems, which contrasts with the results of  
635 Branch et al. (2010). Using a worldwide approach, these authors observed some negative  
636 correlations between landing-based and survey-based indicators and concluded that the mean  
637 trophic level from landings is an unreliable indicator of ecosystem health, potentially biased by  
638 changes occurring in fishing strategies. In European seas, we found that the decrease observed in  
639 the trophic indicators from landings may be partially due to changes which occurred in fishing



640 strategies, with fishermen progressively targeting a wider part of ecosystems and landing more prey  
641 fishes. This reflects a ‘fishing through the food web’ process (Essington et al. 2006), which is  
642 confirmed by the observed increase in the index of landings diversity. However, the declining trend  
643 in mean trophic level was also observed in survey-based indicators, corresponding to a decrease in  
644 predator abundance. This reveals that a ‘fishing down the marine food web’ process has happened  
645 simultaneously, which also affects the mean trophic level of landings. Such a result reflects the  
646 global higher sensitivity to fishing of high trophic level species, due to their typically lower rates of  
647 turnover (Pauly et al. 1998; Gascuel et al. 2008 and 2011b). Analysing correlations between life-  
648 history traits and the occurrence of fish stock collapses, Pinski et al. (2011) showed that stocks of  
649 low trophic level species (e.g. small pelagics) may be more liable to collapse. This reflects their  
650 small number of age classes, but also frequently very high exploitation rates. In Europe, bottom  
651 trawl fisheries targeting large higher trophic level demersal species have been historically dominant.  
652 It is thus not surprising that many such species are currently very depleted, and that a fishing down  
653 process can be observed. More generally, the strong decrease in large demersal fish abundance and  
654 in the mean maximum length of survey data is a global pattern (Worm et al. 2009).

655  
656 *. Implementing an effective ecosystem approach to fisheries management*

657 More research on ecosystem indicators is still needed and several research initiatives aimed at  
658 developing operational ecosystem indicators exist, such as IndiSeas (Shin et al. 2012), several  
659 ICES working groups or regional sea conventions such as OSPAR or HELCOM . Once the  
660 selection process of appropriate indicators begins to converge, the use of these indicators, as part of  
661 an ecosystem-based resources management towards the achievement of good environmental status,  
662 needs to be (further) developed and routinely enforced. It should be stressed that the objective of  
663 reaching the good environmental status is required but will not be sufficient. As such ecosystem  
664 approach to fisheries management goes beyond ‘just’ ensuring Good Environmental Status. It aims  
665 to take into account not only ecological sustainability, but also economic profitability and social

666 fairness (Garcia and Cochran 2005; Gascuel et al. 2011a; Bundy et al. 2012). In other words, its  
667 major objective (its specific value-added) is to analyse trade-offs between ecology, economy and  
668 social aspects, the three pillars of the sustainable development of fisheries (Gascuel et al. 2012;  
669 STECF 2010). In addition, according to several European directives where responsibility has been  
670 delegated by Member States to the EU, fisheries management in European Seas is an integrated  
671 policy. Therefore, the ecosystem approach to fisheries management could (or should) be  
672 implemented at the European level, while environmental policy and therefore enforcement of the  
673 MSFD have to be conducted at the national level.

674 Finally, this study shows that the large ecosystems considered in the present analyses, according to  
675 the reference list defined by STECF (2012), represent a good compromise in terms of size and the  
676 appropriate scale to synthesise stock status and analyse trends in the ecosystem indicators and can  
677 be easily aligned to MSFD subregions. These ecosystems are similar to eco-regions used by ICES  
678 except that two of the large ICES eco-regions (i.e. ‘Celtic Sea and West of Scotland’, and the ‘Bay  
679 of Biscay and Iberian Seas’) have each been sub-divided into two ecosystems. The availability of  
680 the data we used, as well as the results we obtained, seem to validate these four subsystems, with  
681 notably contrasted trends and diagnoses from one ecosystem to the other. The seven ecosystems we  
682 considered also appear to be appropriate for the study of ecological impacts and economic  
683 performances of fleet segments, and to analyse trade-offs between economy and ecology in order to  
684 develop fleet-based management of fisheries in the frame of an operational ecosystem approach to  
685 fisheries management (STECF 2010 and 2012; Gascuel et al. 2012). They also should be the basis  
686 to develop ecosystem models devoted to scientific advice on both ecology and economics, and to  
687 define long term management plans in support of the Common Fisheries Policy. Finally, they form  
688 “territories” where dialogue should be improved and stakeholders involved in participative  
689 management of fisheries, in line with the strengthening of the role of the Regional Advisory  
690 Councils (RACs) established by the European Commission. Therefore such ecosystems should be  
691 the basis for the collection and availability of data required for the further development and

692 application of the ecosystem approach, which is still a major concern in areas including the  
693 Mediterranean and Black Sea (Coll et al. 2013).

694

#### 695 **A global diagnosis on fishing impact in European seas**

696 European seas have been exploited for millennia (Lotze et al. 2006) and fishing has been identified  
697 as a major human impact in these systems (Narayanaswamy et al. 2013). Motorised boats as well as  
698 large bottom trawls have been used since the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Herubel 1912) but until World  
699 War II, catches remained relatively low. Only about 1.4 million tonnes were landed in 1938 from  
700 the North Sea, by far the most productive area within European Seas (Christensen et al. 2003).  
701 Trends in fishing effort and fishing mortality rates strongly increased from the 1950s until the  
702 1990s. For instance, the overall French nominal fishing effort increased from 164 thousand KW in  
703 1950 to 500 thousand in 1970, and to 750 thousand in the late 1990s (Guénette and Gascuel 2012).  
704 In the North Sea, fishing mortality of herring (the most important species in term of landings)  
705 jumped from 0.2 in 1950 to more than 0.9 in 1970, while it increased for cod from 0.48 in 1963 (the  
706 first available year in assessments), to 0.8 in the mid-1970s and to around 1.0 during the 1980s and  
707 1990s (ICES, 2013). In the North Sea, where some ICES assessments started early, overexploitation  
708 had occurred by 1953 for herring and sole, 1957 for plaice, 1963 for cod, haddock and whiting, and  
709 1967 for saithe (ibid.). Due to limitations in data availability at the ecosystem scale, our analyses  
710 did not provide results on trends in stock abundance before the 1980s, but several studies show that  
711 fish stocks had already declined in Europe before that period. Using a CPUE index for the Celtic  
712 Sea and the Bay of Biscay, Guénette and Gascuel (2012) estimated that the overall abundance of  
713 exploited species declined by around 80% between 1950 and the late 1970s. Based on stock  
714 assessment results for the 1970s, a very strong decrease in the mean spawning biomass was also  
715 recorded by Garcia and De Leiva Moreno (2005) for a selection of 14 large European stocks, and by  
716 Froese and Proelß (2010) for 54 fish stocks of the Northeast Atlantic.

717 Until the 1970s, total landings increased reaching more than 7.2 million tonnes for the seven  
718 considered ecosystems, of which 3.4 million tonnes came from the North Sea. It should be noted  
719 that the data available for this period are likely to underestimate total catches due to discarding  
720 practices and unreported landings (e.g., Pitcher et al. 2002, Zeller et al. 2011). The number of  
721 species exploited at that time was relatively low, with fishermen mainly targeting the most abundant  
722 stocks, often consisting of large predatory species (especially cod, but also whiting, saithe, hake and  
723 tunas). In the North Sea, an increase in gadoid recruitment occurred in the late 1960s (the ‘gadoid  
724 outburst’, Cushing 1980), leading to an increase in biomass and catch. This increase occurred as the  
725 various herring stocks were in decline, probably under the stress of heavy fishing (ibid.). It  
726 temporarily masked or postponed the decline of fisheries for herring and other species, which may  
727 have commenced by the late 1960s.

728 From the mid-1970s yields began to decrease everywhere (the Baltic Sea being an exception) as a  
729 result of the overexploitation of some major stocks. In order to compensate for their losses,  
730 fishermen adapted by increasing fishing effort and targeting a wider range of species, and thus  
731 exploiting a wider part of ecosystems. In particular small pelagic species, but also invertebrates, and  
732 since the late 1980s deep-water species, have increasingly been targeted. Thus, the diversity of  
733 landings increased, and this trend persisted until the late 1990s. Nevertheless, this was insufficient  
734 to compensate for the decrease in abundance of many stocks, and total landings have continuously  
735 declined in all the NE Atlantic ecosystems studied. Both the landing-based and survey-based  
736 indicators revealed a trend of increasingly deteriorating ecosystems, at least until the late 1990s. It  
737 is likely that significant fishing-induced changes in the species assemblages have occurred, with  
738 increasingly lower abundances of vulnerable species, especially large predators. According to the  
739 ‘fishing down marine food web’ process, higher trophic levels were the most affected by  
740 overfishing, while prey species (at least some of them) might have benefited from the release of  
741 predation. This release from predation pressure, but also the impact of trawlers on the seafloor, may  
742 partly explain, in some areas such as the west of Scotland, the dramatic shift from whitefish

743 dominated fisheries to fisheries dominated by Norway lobster and scallops (Thurstan and Roberts  
744 2010).

745 The highest fishing impact on the environmental status of European seas seems to have taken place  
746 in the late 1990s, with high fishing mortality rates and a clear decrease in stock-based and  
747 ecosystem indicators. In 1998, the EU formally adopted the ‘precautionary approach’, using  $B_{pa}$  and  
748  $F_{pa}$  as threshold to calculate total allowable catch and quotas. Scientific advice based on those  
749 thresholds was not always followed. Piet et al (2010) showed that for only 8% of the 125 stocks for  
750 which ICES provided advice over the period 1987–2006 the official total quotas equalled scientific  
751 advice, while the official quotas overshot scientific advice by >50%. Nevertheless, in the short term  
752 this approach led to more restrictive quotas and may have contributed to the decrease in fishing  
753 mortality rates observed in the following years. This decrease is expected to continue now that the  
754 more precautionary thresholds based on MSY are adopted and the uptake of scientific advice  
755 appears to have improved. In addition, other restrictions like fishing gear limitations or fishing  
756 effort quotas were enforced at that time as part of the implementation of long term management  
757 plans. Decommissioning schemes within the EU have also had some success in reducing fleet  
758 capacity. However the level of reductions varies between ecosystems, and the rate of reduction has  
759 been criticized as being too slow to counter other technological advances (European Commission  
760 2012 and 2013). It should also be stressed that  $B_{MSY}$  is still not used as a target for fisheries  
761 management in Europe, assuming that as long as the reproductive capacity of stock is not  
762 compromised (i.e.  $B \geq B_{pa}$ ) and fishing mortality is at a sustainable level (i.e.  $F \leq F_{MSY}$ ) stocks  
763 should ultimately recover to their ecosystem-based MSY level. However,  $B_{pa}$  is the edge of safe  
764 biological limits and a stock at that size can be considered as probably safe but not as in good  
765 condition.

766 Overall, the mean fishing mortality rate of assessed stocks has almost halved over the last decade.  
767 This may have contributed to the accelerated decrease in landings observed in the recent years,  
768 notably in the North Sea. In spite of this dramatic decrease in fishing pressure, a large number of

769 stocks still failed to meet the requirement of the ‘past’  $B_{pa}$  or  $F_{pa}$  targets (11 stocks among 21, in our  
770 analysis based on 2013 assessments). No clear recovery in the biomass is currently apparent and the  
771 total biomass remains close to  $B_{pa}$ , a level far below  $B_{MSY}$ . Several recent meta-analyses (Cardinale  
772 et al. 2013, Fernandes and Cook 2013), and oral presentations made by ICES experts under the  
773 auspice of the European commission (Fernandéz, 2013), confirmed the strong reduction in mean  
774 fishing mortality of NE Atlantic fish stocks over the last decade. Nevertheless, these analyses also  
775 suggested a significant increase in the mean biomass of these stocks, while we observed no clear  
776 positive trend. In fact, these apparent contradictions are linked to differences in methods. On the  
777 one hand, we only considered stocks in European seas, while the ICES conclusions were based on  
778 stocks of the whole Northeast Atlantic, including Norwegian waters and Barents sea where several  
779 large stocks are currently recovering very rapidly (especially the Barents sea cod stock). On the  
780 other hand, ICES used as an index the average of standardised biomasses, while we considered the  
781 total biomass. Thus, results indicate that several small stocks do exhibit positive trends in biomass,  
782 while some large stocks would still be in decline.

783 Regarding ecosystem indicators, the large fish indicator LFI is the only one showing a positive  
784 trend, suggesting that the age and size structure has started to recover for some exploited stocks. But  
785 at the same time, other indicators of community structure (MML, MTL and MTI) continued to  
786 deteriorate or remained at low levels. This result suggests that the decrease in the fishing pressure  
787 has not yet been sufficient, or is still too recent, to allow for the recovery of ecosystem health from  
788 such a depleted state. Synergic effects between stock size, age structure, recruitment, ecosystem  
789 indicators, may explain the observed delay or lack of rebuilding. Other factors, especially related to  
790 environmental and global change, might also intervene and counterbalance or delay the benefit  
791 expected from the release of the fishing pressure.

792 In this context, the observed decrease in our overall recruitment index was an unexpected result  
793 which requires particular attention. In some cases, where fishing patterns change over time,  
794 recruitment estimates based on cohort analyses can be biased (e.g. Fonteneau et al., 1998).

795 However, it is very unlikely that such biases would affect all or even most of the ICES assessments  
796 and the decrease in recruitment appeared as a consistent pattern observed over a long period (more  
797 than twenty years) in all the European ecosystems we considered across many stocks (except for the  
798 Baltic Sea). Many stocks were close or below  $B_{pa}$  for a long time and their age structure is such that  
799 experienced, large, fecund females with high-quality eggs have disappeared due to overfishing and  
800 fishing of juveniles. Thus, recruitment overfishing may explain, at least partially, the decrease in  
801 recruitment. Several ecological mechanisms, potentially synergistic, should also be considered as  
802 additional hypotheses able to explain this trend. In particular: the impact of climate change on  
803 ecosystems productivity and food web; anthropogenic impacts on essential habitats (especially on  
804 coastal nursery grounds); fishing impact on seafloor and benthic productivity (Hiddink et al. 2006);  
805 unexpected ecosystem effects due to changes in species assemblages; and the loss in the genetic  
806 biodiversity for some severely overexploited species (Heath et al. 2013). In all cases, such a  
807 decrease in the mean recruitment index for a large set of assessed European stocks is of great  
808 concern for fisheries and may explain, at least partially, why the biomass of exploited stocks has not  
809 yet recovered, despite declining fishing pressure and possible recovery in the length-based LFI. In  
810 the coming years, poor recruitment may lead to reduced catches and higher fishing mortalities (for a  
811 given quota) than expected from stock assessments, therefore compromising the effectiveness and  
812 the social acceptance of fisheries management. It would be difficult to follow the transition scheme  
813 and to reach the new MSY target in such a context, and thus to achieve Good Environmental Status  
814 under the EU MSFD by 2020. In the medium term, if the trend continues, it could also lead to a  
815 decrease in absolute landings, with obvious potential impacts on fisheries profitability. In addition,  
816 it should be stressed that in many instances, targets set for ecological indicators are established on  
817 the basis of historical indicator values. If physical and hydrographical conditions are now very  
818 different from those prevailing in the early 1980s, such that recruitment indices have all declined  
819 markedly right across European waters, then the validity of such targets as representing the good  
820 environmental status of ecosystems must surely be called into question.

821 Finally, the consistency of diagnoses that we established in the various European Seas has to be  
822 underlined. Trends and global status appeared quite similar and only small contrasts have been  
823 identified between ecosystems, with for instance more favourable trends in the recent period in the  
824 Bay of Biscay compared to the West of Scotland and Ireland. The Baltic Sea is an exception, with  
825 several indicators exhibiting contrasting trends compared to other ecosystems. In this ecosystem,  
826 total landings only slightly decreased over the last decade, and the mean recruitment index  
827 fluctuated with no clear trend over the whole period. The specifics of the Baltic Sea can at least  
828 partly be explained by the synergic effect of a low number of main fish species in the ecosystem  
829 (only 3), and low predation rate due to unfavourable reproduction conditions of cod, effectively  
830 contributing to the high numbers of sprat stock since 1990s. Increased eutrophication can also have  
831 a role in elevated numbers at lower trophic levels.

832

## 833 **Conclusion**

834 The working group on the Ecosystem Approach to Fisheries Management (STECF 2012) noted  
835 three key element that constitute the work that has to be performed on a regular basis to evaluate  
836 and implement a scientific-based ecosystem approach to fisheries management in European Seas  
837 (and probably everywhere):

- 838 (i) Diagnoses of ecosystem health such as the one we present in this study have to be defined and  
839 regularly updated for each ecosystem, in close cooperation with MSFD implementation;
- 840 (ii) Both environmental impacts and socio-economic performance of the various fleets operating  
841 within each ecosystem have to be assessed and monitored. Results of such analyses could and  
842 probably should be considered by stakeholders (including the European Commission) in the  
843 definition of management options and especially in the frame of long term management plans  
844 (which should evolve from a stock-based to an ecosystem-based approach);
- 845 (iii) One or a limited set of ecosystem and bio-economic models should be set up and used on a  
846 regular basis for advice-oriented purposes. In a manner similar to the way assessment and forecast



847 models are used for stock-based advice and management (and quotas or fishing effort regulation),  
848 ecosystem and bio-economic models should be regularly updated. This would constitute a key step  
849 in assessing the ecosystem impacts of fisheries, to simulate various management options and to  
850 analyse their potential effects on fisheries social-economic performance as well as ecosystem  
851 impacts.

852 Overall, it can be concluded that building ecosystem state diagnoses is a key first step on the path to  
853 evaluating and implementing an EAFM. We presented here the first diagnosis for seven of fourteen  
854 European marine ecosystems that have to be considered in the context of EAFM implementation in  
855 European seas. The present work should be considered as a starting point for more complete  
856 approaches, covering more ecosystems and the implementation of subsequent monitoring programs.

857

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866

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## Figure captions

Figure 1 – Study area and boundaries of the seven marine ecosystems considered as case studies,  
according to STECF, 2012.

Figure 2 – Trends in annual landings (thousand tonnes) in 1950-2010 from European (in light grey)  
vs. non-European (dark grey) countries and catch time series (black line) derived from stock  
assessments in the seven marine ecosystems and for all ecosystems considered together.

1071 Figure 3 – Trends in the indices of landings diversity. A and B: number of exploited species (for  
1072 which landings are higher than 0.5% of the mean 2001-2010 yearly total landing). C and D:  
1073 Shannon's diversity index (H).

1074 Figure 4 - Trends in stock-based indicators: mean fishing mortality  $F$  (column A, in  $\text{year}^{-1}$ ), total  
1075 spawning stock biomass SSB (column B, in thousand tonnes), and the mean recruitment index  $R$   
1076 (column C, relative value to the 1990-2000 average), for all the 57 stocks assessed by ICES in  
1077 European seas (first line) and by ecosystem. (The red line refers to all stocks assessed in 2012,  
1078 while the blue line is the longest available time series including at least 60% of assessed stocks)

1079 Figure 5 - Current status of all assessed stocks, in relation to fisheries advice and management  
1080 targets  $B_{pa}$ ,  $F_{pa}$  and  $F_{MSY}$ . Note that only 21 stocks having associated target limits were considered  
1081 here. On these graphs, the horizontal line labelled ' $B_{pa}$ ' refers to  $B^*$  equal to 1 ( $B^*=B_{current}/B_{pa}$ ),  
1082 while the vertical lines labelled ' $F_{MSY}$ ' and ' $F_{pa}$ ' refer to  $F^*$  equal to 0 and 1, respectively  
1083 ( $F^*=(F_{current}-F_{MSY})/(F_{pa}-F_{MSY})$ ). The white sector relates to situations where the 'new'  $F_{MSY}$   
1084 management targets are met, the dark grey indicates stocks that do not follow the former  
1085 'precautionary approach', and light grey indicates stocks falling between the 'old'  $F_{pa}$  and the 'new'  
1086  $F_{MSY}$  targets.

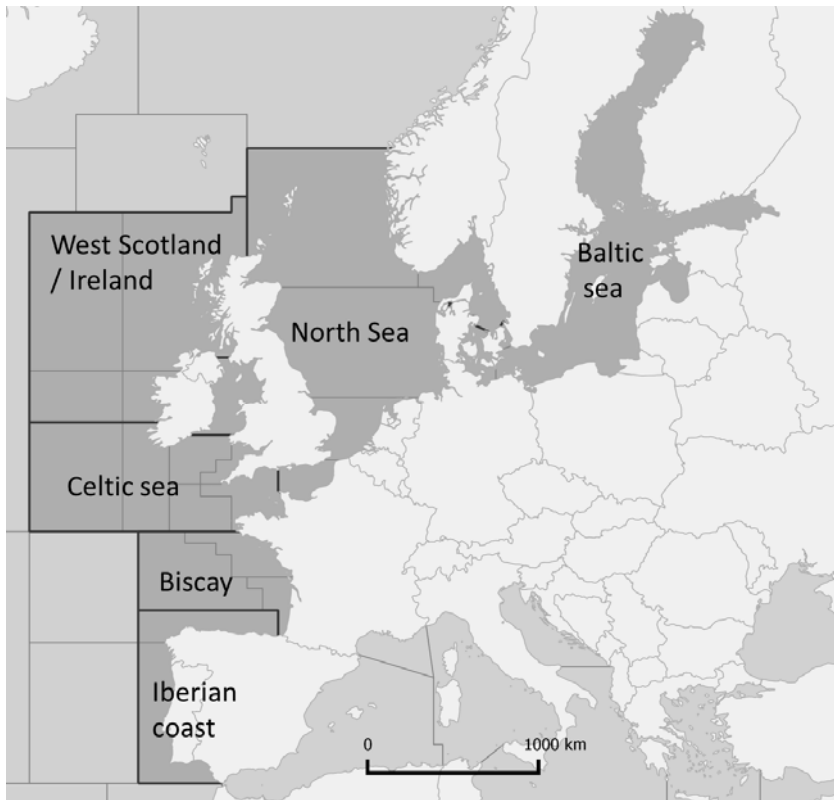
1087 Figure 6 – Mean temporal trajectories of assessed stocks within each of the studied ecosystems and  
1088 for all European seas. The white sector relates to situations where the  $F_{MSY}$  management targets are  
1089 met, the dark grey indicates stocks that do not follow the former 'precautionary approach', and light  
1090 grey indicates stocks falling between  $F_{MSY}$  and  $F_{pa}$  targets. Only stocks for which target limits are  
1091 known are considered (the Bay of Biscay and Iberian coast are not displayed because targets were  
1092 only known for one stock); the percentage indicated for each ecosystem refers to the part of the  
1093 ecosystem landings due to stocks considered on the graph.

1094 Figure 7 – Trends in ecosystem indicators in the seven marine ecosystems. Column A: length-based  
1095 indicators from surveys; column B: trophic level-based indicators from surveys; column C:  
1096 indicators from landings. LFI = large fish indicator (proportion); MML = mean maximum length  
1097 (cm, axis on the right); MTL = mean trophic level; MTI = marine trophic index.

1098 Figure 8 – Mean trends in ecosystem indicators: a. length-based indicators from surveys, b. trophic  
1099 level-based indicators from surveys, c. indicators from commercial fishery landings. LFI = large  
1100 fish indicator (proportion); MML = mean maximum length (cm); MTL = mean trophic level, MTI =  
1101 marine trophic index (Dot lines in graph c relate to the sensitivity analysis, using trophic levels from  
1102 local Ecopath models in place of standard values from Fisbase; see Supplementary Material)

1103 Figure 9 – Summary of trends over the last 10 years in the main indicators of ecosystem health in  
1104 the seven ecosystems considered: total landings Y, fishing effort E, mean fishing mortality rate F,  
1105 total stock spawning biomass SSB, mean recruitment index R, index of mean sustainable fishing  
1106 mortality F\*, survey large fish indicator LFI, mean maximum length MML from surveys or from  
1107 landings, mean trophic level MTL from surveys or from landings, % of landings due to assessed  
1108 stocks. Green and red symbols refer to positive and negative trends respectively (i.e. improving or  
1109 deteriorating stocks status), while black arrows refer to uninterpretable changes in trend (landings  
1110 might for instance decrease either because F or B decreases)

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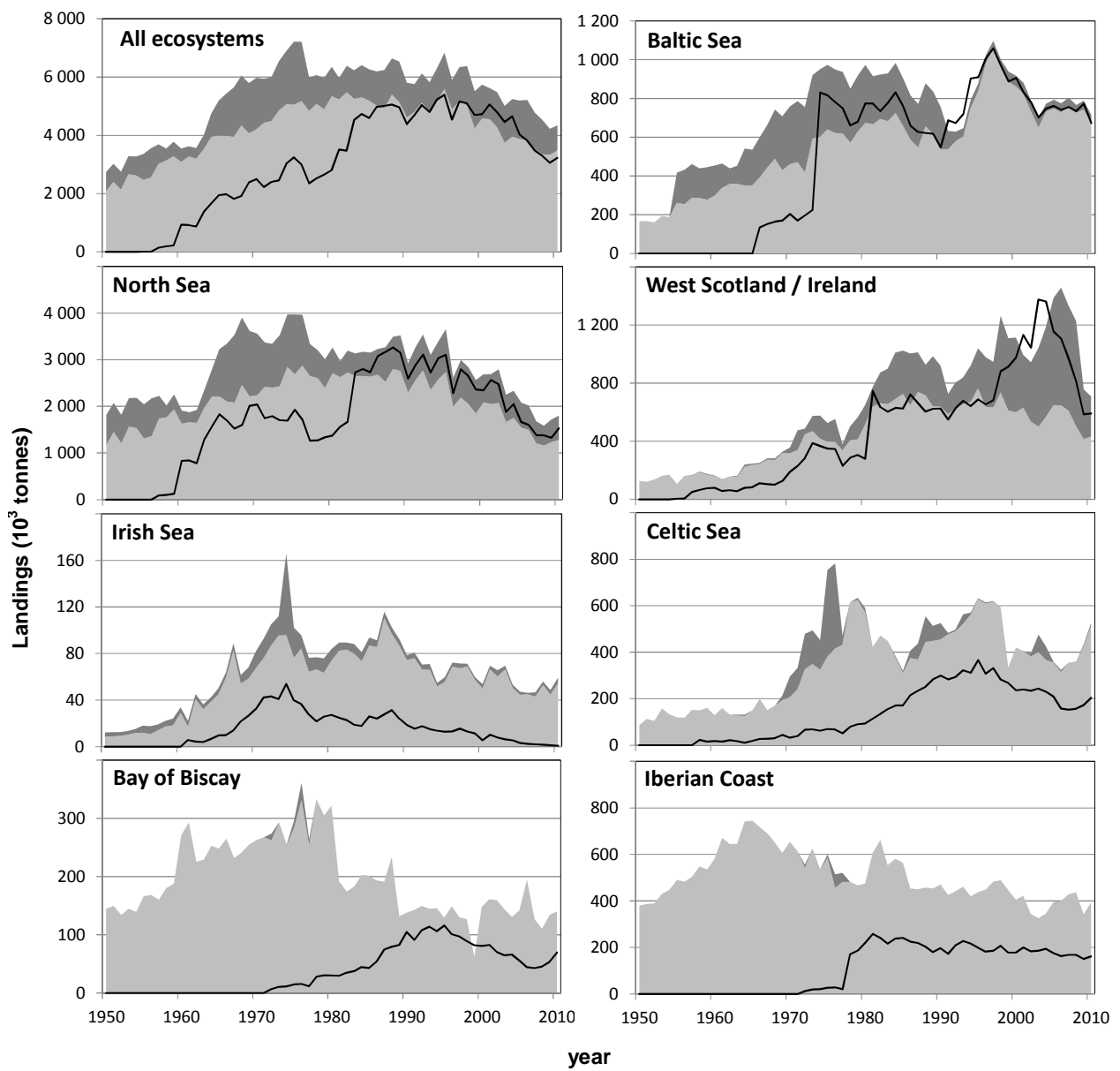


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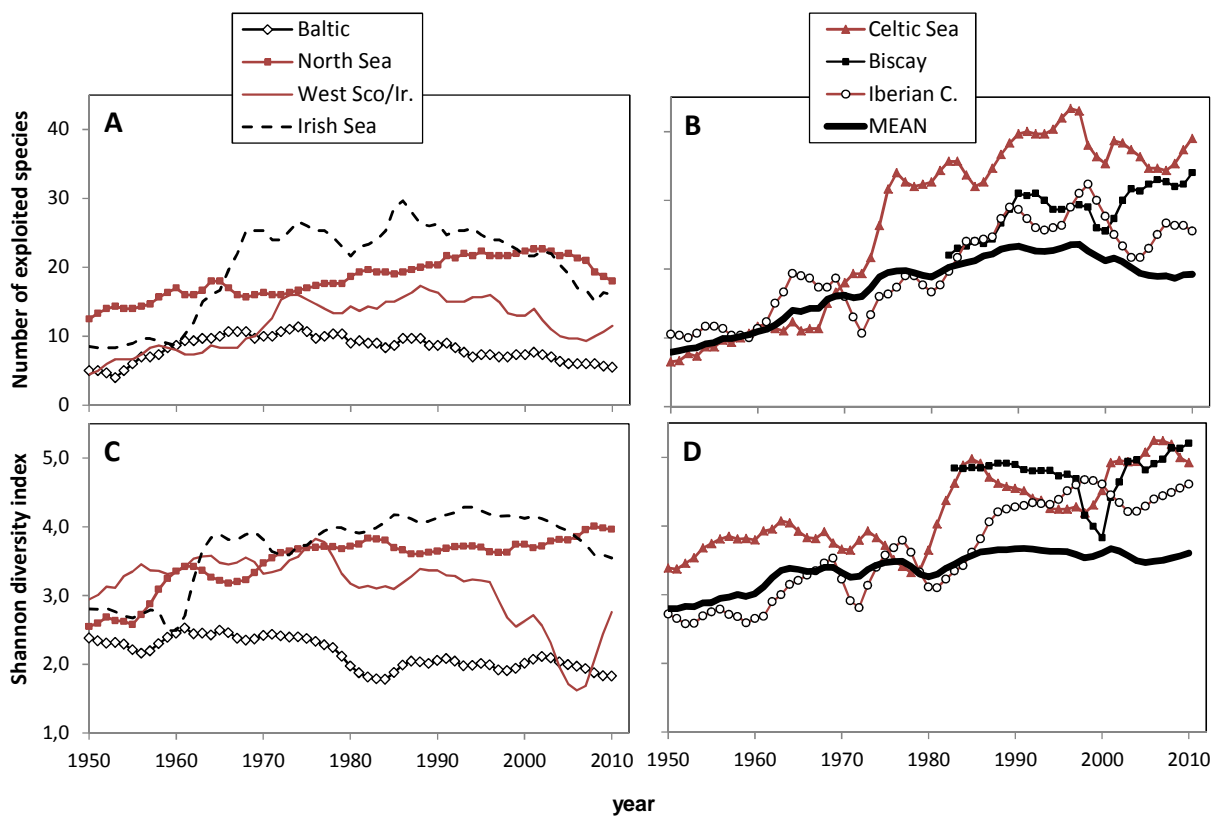
1114 Figure 1

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1117 Figure 2

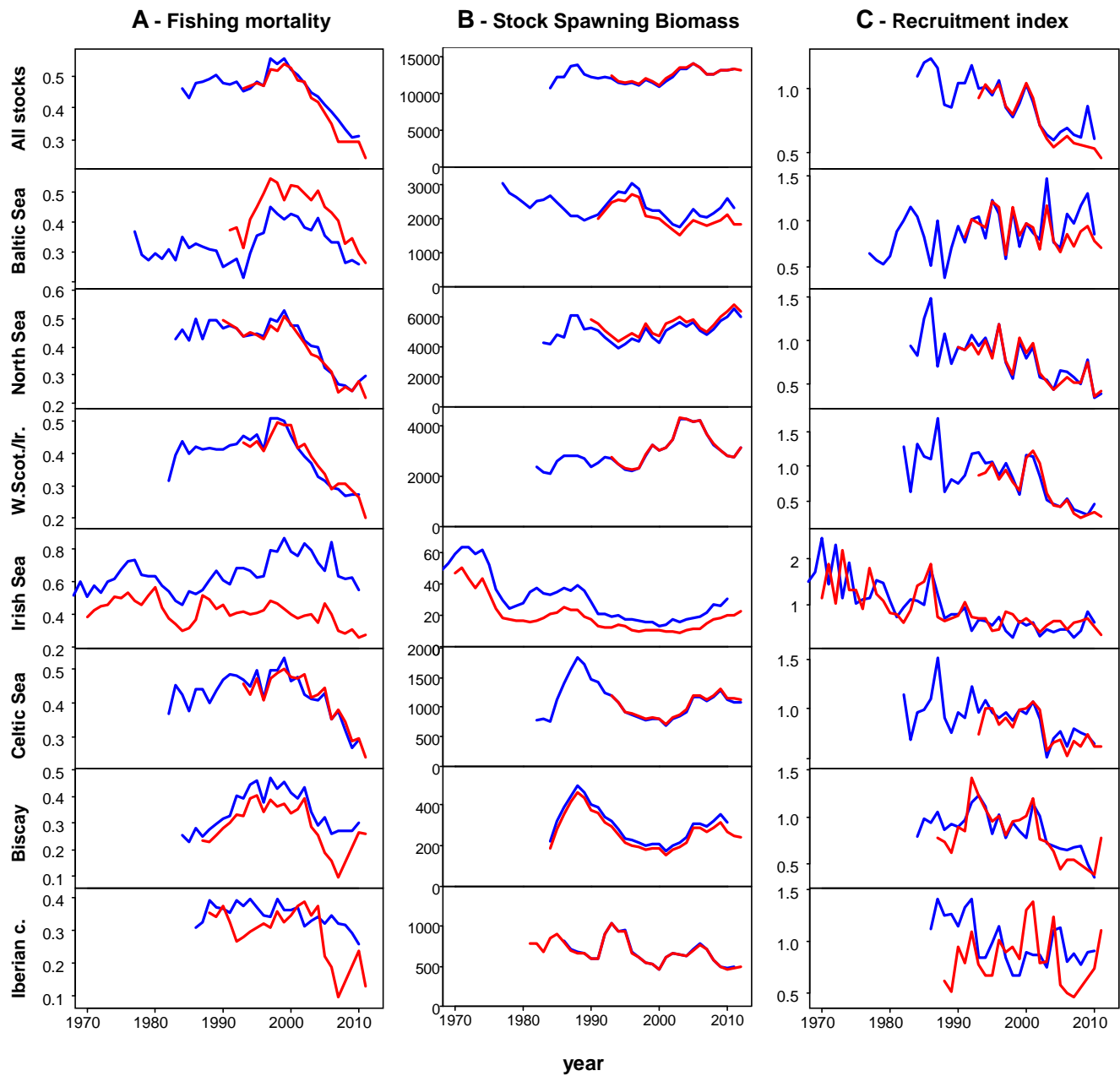


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1119 Figure 3

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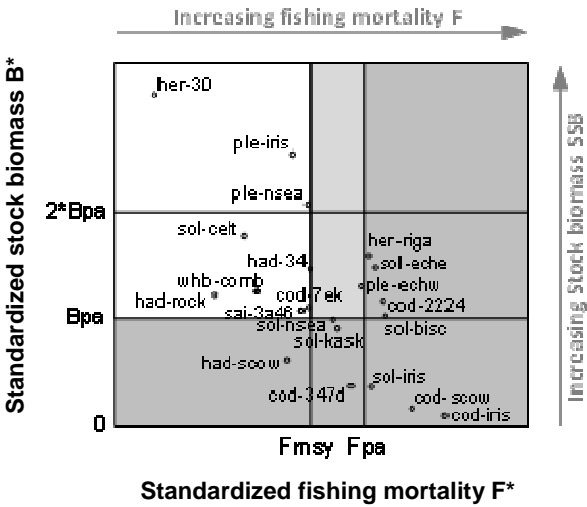


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1123 Figure 4

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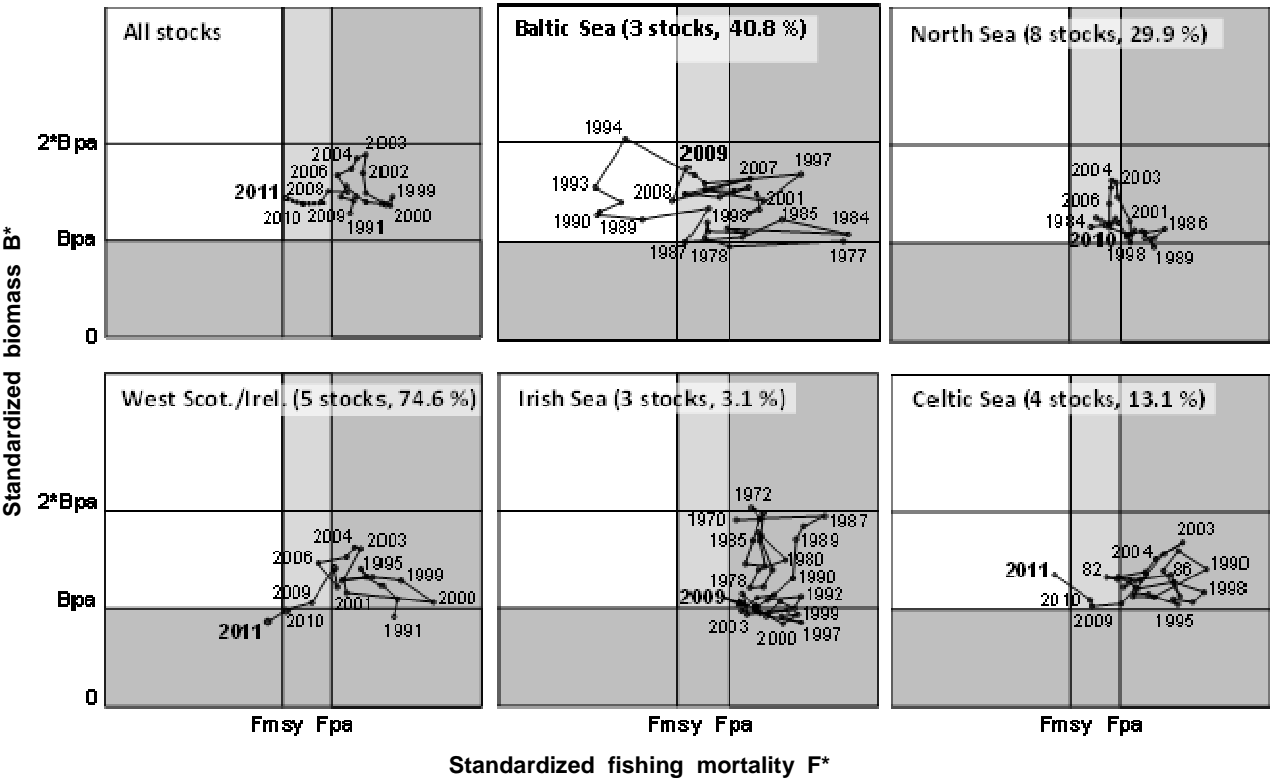


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1127 Figure 5

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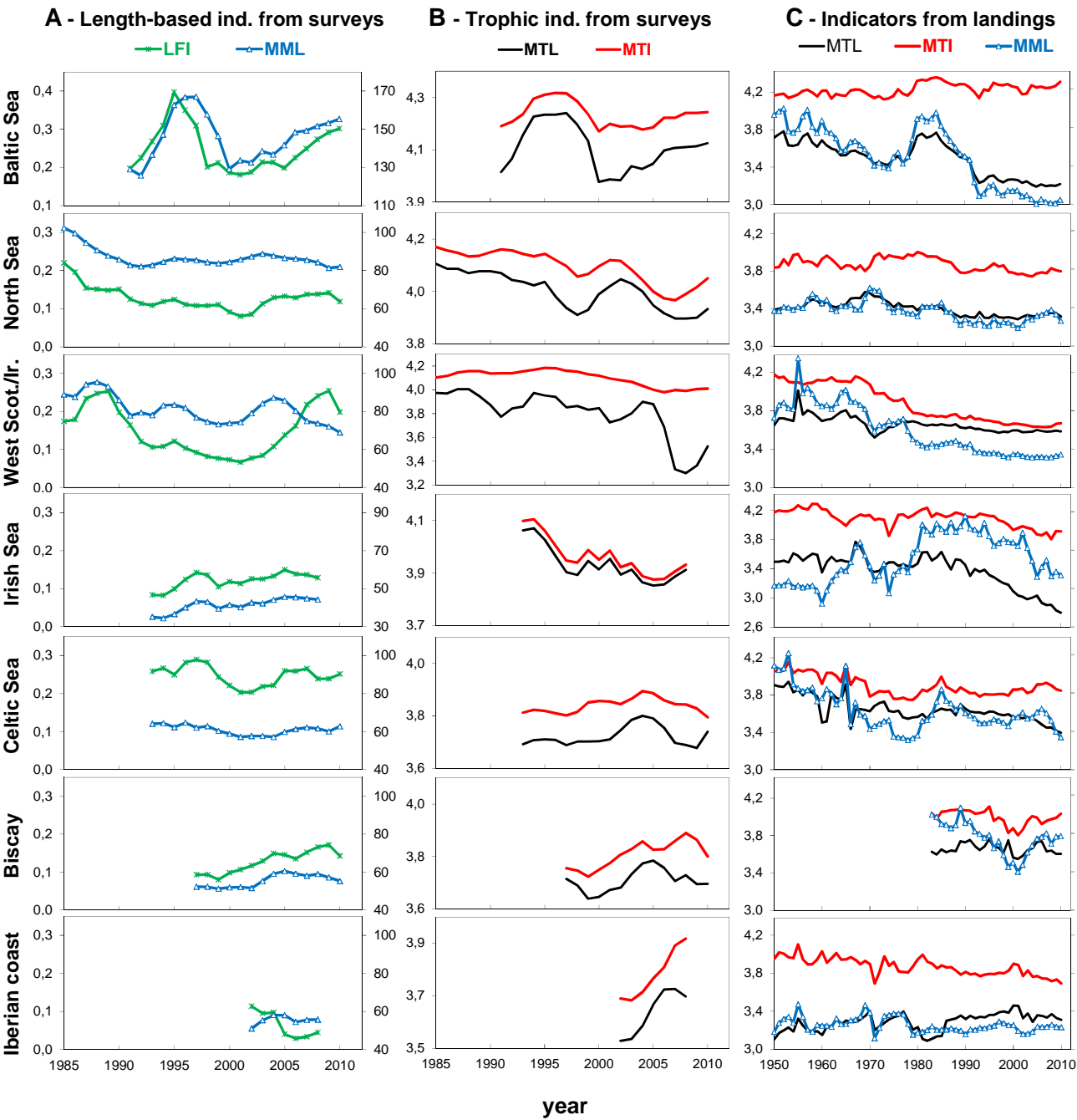


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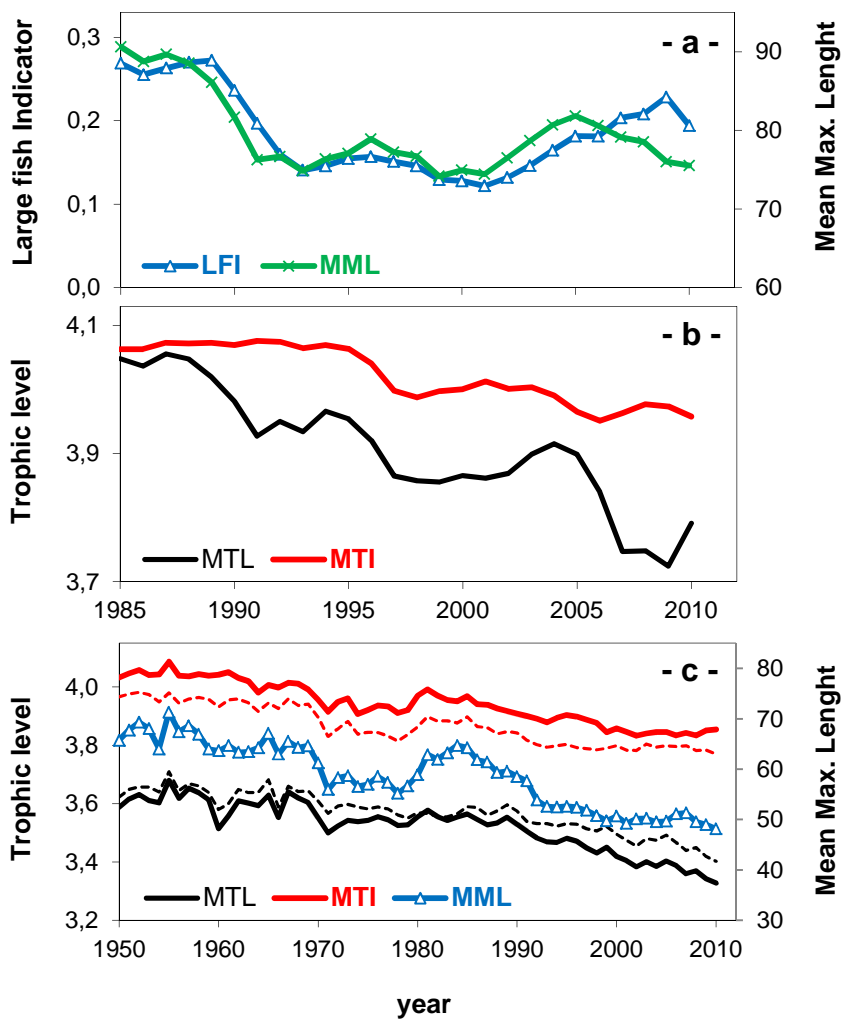
1131 Figure 6

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1134 Figure 7 –



1137 Figure 8

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		Land. Y	Effort E	Mortal. F	Biom. SSB	Recr. R	Sust. F* B*	Survey LFI	Survey MML	Survey MTL	Land. MML	Land. MTL	% asses.
Baltic Sea		↘		↘	?	→	☹	↗	↗	↗	↘	↘	≈ 95
North Sea		↘	↘	↘	↗	↘	☹	low	↘	↘	↗	↗	≈ 85
North western Atlantic waters	West Scot./Irl.	↘	↘	↘	?	↘	☹	↗	↘	↘	low	low	≈ 90
	Irish Sea	↘	↘	↘	↗	↘	☹	low	↗	?	↘	↘	≈ 35
	Celtic Sea	↘	↘	↘	↗	↘	☺	→	↗	↘	↘	↘	≈ 40
South western Atlantic waters	Bay of Biscay	↘		↘	↗	↘	?	↗	→	?	↗	→	≈ 45
	Iberian Coast	→		↘	↘	↘	?	↘	→	↗	↗	↘	≈ 40

1139

1140 Figure 9