Minimizing Bycatch of Sensitive Species Groups in Marine Capture Fisheries: Lessons from Tuna Fisheries

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ABSTRACT

Fishing pressure has reached a level where it is causing ocean basin-scale declines of the highly fecund, widely distributed tunas. Ecosystem effects from bycatch of seabirds, sea turtles, marine mammals and sharks in longline and purse seine tuna fisheries may put some species at risk of extinction. Bycatch of juvenile and undersized tunas is also problematic in purse seine fisheries. There has been progress only in identifying effective bycatch reduction methods for seabirds and sea turtles on longlines and direct mortality of dolphins in purse seines. Despite the availability of effective bycatch reduction methods for seabirds and sea turtles in pelagic longline fisheries that, in some cases, also increase fishing efficiency and provide operational benefits, few fleets likely employ them, no binding measures have been adopted by an intergovernmental organization to address sea turtle bycatch, and while three regional fisheries management organizations have binding measures to reduce seabird bycatch, these require improvements. While direct dolphin mortality has been substantially reduced in Eastern Pacific purse seine fisheries, the possibility that dolphin-associated sets hinder recovery of dolphin populations requires attention. Requiring sets to be made only on free-swimming tuna schools would avoid most purse seine bycatch problems. Regional fisheries management organization effectiveness has been hampered by industry lobbying, interference by politicians, and the inability of member states to reach consensus on needed restrictions to achieve sustainable tuna fisheries. Restructuring regional fisheries management organizations so that their scientific committees are independent from lobbying and political influence, and modifying legal frameworks so that scientific committee recommendations must be adopted could rectify this situation. Providing adequate international observer coverage would allow for accurate assessment of bycatch trends and levels, and improve compliance with conservation and management measures. Establishing and managing a representative system of protected area networks on the high seas could contribute to improved tuna fisheries management. Despite recognition by the tuna fishing industry that their long-term viability relies on the availability of tuna resources at sustainable and optimal levels, voluntary industry actions to reverse and prevent further overexploitation and manage bycatch have been limited. Getting the fishing industry more involved in its own governance could instil a sense of industry responsibility for sustainable practices. Where regulators and the fishing industry have failed, the relatively new demand for sustainable sources of seafood in some marketplaces may improve tuna production practices and management. Confusion and diminished consumer confidence created by the recent proliferation of competing certification and eco-labeling programs could be addressed through adoption of minimum, harmonized sustainability standards and consolidation of programs.
1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Ecological, Economic and Social Issues Related to Fisheries Bycatch

Bycatch in marine capture fisheries is the retained catch of non-targeted but commercially viable species (referred to as ‘incidental catch’) plus all discards (FAO 2005). It is an increasingly prominent international issue, raises ecological concerns, as some bycatch species of cetaceans (whales, dolphins and porpoises), seabirds, sea turtles, elasmobranchs (sharks, skates and rays) and other fish species are particularly vulnerable to overexploitation and slow to recover from large population declines (Lutz and Musick 1997, Gales 1998, Fowler et al. 2005, Gilman et al. 2005, Gilman et al. 2006a, Gilman et al. 2006c, Gilman et al. 2008, FAO 1999a, FAO 1999b, FAO In Press). Bycatch can alter biodiversity and ecosystem functions by removing top predators and prey species at unsustainable levels (Myers et al. 2007). It also alters foraging behavior of species that learn to take advantage of discards. Economic effects on fisheries from bycatch include loss of bait, reduced availability of baited hooks when they are occupied with unwanted bycatch species, and concomitant reduced catch of marketable species; the imposition of a range of restrictions, closed areas, embargos, and possible closures; allocation between fisheries, where bycatch in one fishery reduces target catch in another, and bycatch of juvenile and undersized individuals of a commercial species, can adversely affect future catch levels (Brothers et al. 1999, Hall et al. 2000). Discarded bycatch raises a social issue over waste: From 1992-2001 an average of 7.3 million tonnes of fish were annually discarded, representing 8% of the world catch (FAO 2005).

Prominent bycatch issues include dolphins and porpoises in purse seine fisheries and driftnets; fish discards in shrimp trawl fisheries; and seabird, sea turtle, marine mammal, and shark bycatch in longline, purse seine, gillnet and trawl fisheries (Hall et al. 2000, FAO 1999a, FAO 1999b, FAO In Press). In commercial tuna fisheries, the incidental bycatch of sensitive species groups (seabirds, sea turtles, marine mammals and sharks) and bycatch of juvenile and undersized tunas are allocation and conservation issues. In addition to problematic bycatch, overexploitation and illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing, which complicates bycatch management, are additional conservation issues facing the management of tuna fisheries. This chapter employs examples of bycatch in commercial tuna fisheries to: (i) describe the range of options to reduce bycatch, (ii) principles and approaches to successfully introduce effective bycatch reduction measures, and (iii) initiatives taken by intergovernmental organizations, the fishing industry, and retailers to address bycatch. Changes needed to improve the sustainability of tuna production are recommended.

1.2. Commercial Tuna Fisheries

Purse seine, pelagic longline and pole-and-line fisheries are the primary commercial fishing methods for catching tunas. Large longline vessels generally catch older age classes of bigeye and bluefin tunas for the sashimi market (Fig. 1) and some longline fleets target albacore for canning. Purse seine vessels catch younger age classes of target skipjack and yellowfin and incidental bigeye tunas for canning (a very small volume is used for tuna ranching) (Fig. 2) (Majkowski 2007). Like purse seiners, pole-and-line vessels catch fish close to the surface, catching mostly skipjack and small/juvenile yellowfin, albacore and bluefin, primarily for canning (Fig. 3) (Majkowski 2007).

Tuna products are an important food source and global commodity. They are the third most important seafood commodity traded in value terms (Fig. 4) (FAO 2007). The export value

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1 ‘Target’ catch is the catch of a species or species assemblage primarily sought in a fishery, while ‘non-target’ catch is the catch of a species or species assemblage not primarily sought. ‘Incidental’ catch is the portion of non-target catch that is retained, while ‘discards’ is the portion of non-target catch that is not retained.
of 2004 internationally traded tuna products was US$6.2 billion, 8.7% of total global fish trade (FAO 2007). In 2005, 82% of world tuna was consumed as canned product, and 18% as fresh product (including as sashimi). Japan consumed 78% of the fresh tuna. In 2004, canned tuna consumption was highest in the European Union followed by the U.S., combined accounting for 83% of the total global consumption of canned tuna.

Demand for both canned and fresh tuna has been rapidly and steadily increasing: the reported landings of the principal market species of tunas increased from less than 0.2 million tonnes in the early 1950s to a peak of 4.3 million tonnes in 2003, largely due to increased catch of tropical tunas (yellowfin and skipjack) by purse seiners (Fig. 5) (Majkowski 2007). Japan, Taiwan, Indonesia, the Philippines, and Spain accounted for half of 2004 reported landings (Fig. 6) (Majkowski et al. 2007).

Despite their high fecundity and wide distribution, of the 20 tuna stocks for which the status is known, at least five are ‘overfished’, meaning their biomass levels are below maximum sustainable yield (MSY) or other biological threshold. ‘Overfishing’ is occurring for at least an additional four stocks, meaning the fishing mortality rate is higher than that which produces MSY or other threshold (Bayliff et al. 2005, Majkowski 2007). Increased purse seine catches of skipjack stocks that are only moderately exploited might be sustainable if sets are restricted to being made on free swimming skipjack schools. Increased longline and pole-and-line catches of moderately exploited albacore stocks might also be sustainable.

2. BYCATCH PROBLEMS IN TUNA FISHERIES
Table 1 summarizes problems with bycatch of sea turtles, seabirds, marine mammals, sharks and juvenile and undersized tunas in pelagic longline and purse seine fisheries. There are extremely low bycatch levels in pole-and-line fisheries, where bycatch that does occur consists of juvenile kawakawa tuna, frigate mackerel, mahimahi and rainbow runner. Discards are believed to have high post release survival rates due to the use of barbless hooks and flick-off practices.

3. MEASURES TO REDUCE BYCATCH AND MORTALITY
Table 2 summarizes general categories of strategies to reduce unwanted bycatch and mortality in marine capture fisheries. Table 3 summarizes the state of knowledge for reducing bycatch in pelagic longline and purse seine fisheries employing changes in fishing gear or methods. Where progress is lacking, research and development priorities are identified. Figs. 7-9 provide examples of methods to reduce seabird and sea turtle interactions in longline fisheries and dolphin mortality in purse seine fisheries. Some pelagic longline fisheries have problematic bycatch of seabirds, sea turtles, sharks and toothed whales. Some purse seine fisheries have problematic bycatch of juvenile and undersized tunas, dolphins, sharks, sea turtles and whales. Of these, there has been progress only in identifying effective bycatch reduction methods for seabirds and sea turtles on longlines and direct mortality of dolphins in purse seines.

Several principles and approaches require consideration when developing measures to reduce bycatch through changes in fishing gear and methods.

- **Fishery-specific solutions**: Solutions to bycatch problems may be fishery-specific. For instance, while an underwater setting chute has been shown to be very effective at avoiding seabird captures in the Hawaii pelagic longline fleet (Gilman et al. 2003), trials in Australia have been less promising, likely due to the seabird species complex and behavioral interactions, the weighting design and the use of live bait (Brothers et al. 2000).

- **Industry direct involvement in R&D**: Fishers have a large repository of knowledge, which can be tapped to contribute to finding effective and practical bycatch solutions. Several
bycatch reduction methods were developed by fishermen, including the bird-scaring tori line for longlining, and technical methods to reduce dolphin mortality for eastern Pacific purse seining (Hall et al. 2000). Furthermore, participation of fishers can result in industry developing a sense of ownership for bycatch reduction methods.

- **Commercial viability:** Given the state of fisheries management frameworks, including limited resources for monitoring, control and surveillance, methods shown to be effective in research experiments at reducing bycatch may not be employed as prescribed or at all by fishers if they are not convenient and economically viable, or better yet, provide operational and economic benefits. Identifying commercially viable bycatch solutions can maximize industry employment. For instance, in some studies, use of circle hooks and fish bait to avoid turtles increased catch rates of some target species (Gilman et al. 2006c), and side setting to avoid seabirds resulted in operational benefits (Gilman et al. 2007a).

- **Consideration of effects on multiple species groups:** It is important to identify any conflicts as well as mutual benefits of bycatch reduction strategies amongst species groups. For instance, as discussed previously, efforts to protect Eastern Pacific dolphins resulted in increased FAD setting, which increased bycatch of juvenile and undersized tunas, sharks, dolphin fish, sea turtles and marine mammals (Hall 1998, Molony 2005, Secretariat of the Pacific Community 2006). Setting longlines at night to protect albatrosses and other diurnal foraging seabirds has led to higher bycatch of nocturnal white-chinned petrels (Weimerskirch et al. 1999). Use of wider circle hooks and fish bait to reduce turtle bycatch rates and mortality in pelagic longline fisheries also reduces shark (Gilman et al. 2006c, Gilman et al. 2007c) and seabird bycatch (ICCAT 2007).

4. INITIATIVES BY INTERGOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS, FISHING INDUSTRY, AND RETAILERS AND BUYERS

4.1. **RFMOs**
There has been limited progress in reducing most bycatch problems in longline and purse seine fisheries. The two areas where there has been progress (seabirds on longlines, dolphins in purse seines) may require improvements. Three regional fisheries management organizations (RFMOs) have adopted legally-binding measures requiring the employment of seabird avoidance methods: Commission for the Conservation of Southern Bluefin Tuna (CCSBT), Indian Ocean Tuna Commission (IOTC), and the Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission (WCPFC) (Gilman et al. 2007b). The areas where these measures are required may be insufficient in covering higher latitude areas where seabird interactions have been observed to be problematic (Gilman et al. 2007b). Furthermore, WCPFC does not require vessels < 24 m in length to employ seabird avoidance measures in areas north of 23°N. latitude, however, high seabird bycatch rates have been documented by vessels in this size category in this area (e.g., Gilman and Kobayashi 2008). Inadequate observer coverage prevents determining compliance with these international seabird conservation measures.

In purse seine fisheries, vessels operating in the Eastern Pacific Ocean of nations that are contracting parties to the Agreement on the International Dolphin Conservation Program (AIDCP), a legally-binding multilateral agreement administered by the Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission, receive annual, individual vessel dolphin mortality limits, there is an annual cap of 5,000 total dolphin mortalities in the fishery, as well as annual mortality caps for individual dolphin stocks, established at 0.1 percent of each stock's minimum estimated abundance (IATTC 2007a, IATTC 2007b). When making dolphin-associated sets, participating vessels allocated individual dolphin mortality limits are also required to have an onboard observer (for vessels with a carrying capacity exceeding 363 metric tons), use a Medina dolphin safety panel, conduct backdown after dolphins are captured, deploy at least one rescuer during backdown
As previously discussed, IATTC’s measures have successfully reduced direct dolphin mortality, but dolphin-associated sets may cause miscarriages or separation and loss of calves, and hinder dolphin population recovery (Archer et al. 2004, Edwards 2006). Many pelagic longline fisheries targeting species other than sharks, when not prevented by regulation, will retain the fins of captured sharks, which fetch a high value in the Asian dried seafood trade, and occasionally will retain meat and other parts (cartilage, liver oil, skin) from marketable species of sharks (Gilman et al. 2008). To address the social concern that shark finning is wasteful when a large portion of the shark is discarded, and ecological concerns over the sustainability of shark exploitation in fisheries, legally binding measures have been adopted by some RFMOs (e.g., International Commission for the Conservation of Atlantic Tunas, Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission) and nations to restrict shark finning practices so that carcasses must be landed if fins are retained (Gilman et al. 2008). In the few fisheries with adequate enforcement, these measures have resulted in large reductions in shark fishing mortality through increased discards of live sharks, but the majority of fisheries lack adequate enforcement, where shark finning practices have not been affected by these measures (Gilman et al. 2008).

Despite progress in identifying effective turtle avoidance methods for longlines, which in some fisheries has been shown to be economically viable (Table 3), there are no legally-binding measures in place by an intergovernmental organization, including RFMOs, to address sea turtle-fishery interactions (Gilman et al. 2007b).

IUU vessels are unlikely to employ bycatch reduction measures. IUU fishing also causes damage to fish stocks and economic losses to society. Several regional fishery bodies have taken steps to reduce IUU fishing, including instituting requirements for Vessel Monitoring Systems, managing lists of authorized and illegal vessels, port and at-sea inspection programs, and trade documentation programs (Lack 2007). The RFMO’s catch and trade documentation programs are believed to have failed in preventing IUU fishing. This is due to inadequate laws and weak enforcement, as well as from corruption, including laundering and mislabeling seafood, illegal at-sea transshipment, and non-compliance by some RFMO Members. Recommended solutions involve technological changes (e.g., instituting mandatory electronic catch documentation, to reduce forgery and manipulation) and supply chain practices (e.g., prohibiting transshipment at sea) (Lack 2007).

Input and output controls contribute to managing overall bycatch levels. The five tuna RFMOs have taken steps to attempt to address tuna-fishing overcapacity, including through limited entry (through registers and licensing), catch quotas for member nations or individual participants in a fishery through individual quotas, and temporal closures. Overall, the tuna-RFMOs have not been successful in preventing continued growth of tuna fleets (Bayliff et al. 2005).

Observer coverage is generally insufficient in commercial tuna fisheries. For example, worldwide, 40 nations are engaged in longline fishing of which only 15 have observer programs (Beverly and Chapman 2007). WCPFC has adopted a target of five percent observer coverage. CCSBT adopted a target of 10 percent observer coverage of Member’s longline fisheries and data standards have been established. However, the collection of seabird bycatch data is voluntary and Members are not required to share observer data with CCSBT. IOTC lacks observer coverage requirements. Observer programs are needed that include a goal of monitoring bycatch, and sufficient observer coverage rates are needed to allow for relevant statistical analyses and data recording protocols, in part, to understand bycatch interactions, including documenting interaction rates to provide a basis for fleet-wide extrapolations and identifying when and where interactions occur. The objective determines the appropriate onboard observer coverage rate. For instance, an observer program designed to ensure that sea turtle annual interaction caps are not exceeded, or to institute a compensatory mitigation
program, would require 100% coverage, while determining fleetwide annual bycatch interaction levels and rates might require 20% coverage (FAO In Press).

The RFMO process has largely failed in addressing bycatch problems and preventing overexploitation of tuna stocks, in part, because consensus-based decision-making has often prevented RFMOs from adopting appropriate measures, and because of low compliance by member states with effective RFMO measures (Rosenberg 2003, Safina and Klinger 2008). There is no indication that the wholesale changes needed to correct these problems of political will and compliance will occur in the near future.

The mandate of regional fishery bodies, including RFMOs, is usually to cooperate in maintaining populations of exploited species at sustainable levels. As ecosystem considerations are a relatively new focus, there are few instances where Regional Fishery Bodies’ mandates explicitly reference the conservation of non-target species (FAO In Press). The mandate of these bodies should be broadened to cover issues relating to the sustainability of vulnerable bycatch species. However, ultimately, RFMO conservation and management measures will only be effective if member state compliance substantially improves and political will to allow RFMOs to adopt effective measures develops.

4.2. Fishing Industry
Voluntary initiatives by the fishing industry related to reducing unwanted bycatch have been limited and generally not proactive. Voluntary industry initiatives have primarily resulted from incentives to comply with government measures, as well as market-based and social factors. In longline fisheries, voluntary industry fleet communication programs (Gilman et al. 2006b) and industry self-policing (Fitzgerald et al. 2004), instituted in response to incentives created by regulatory measures, have successfully reduced bycatch. An effective voluntary industry initiative to address bycatch has been identified in only one commercial tuna fishery (U.S. North Atlantic longline swordfish fishery), which ceased to be formally active in 2003 (Gilman et al. 2006b). Recently there have been several voluntary initiatives involving the exchange of circle hooks for traditional J-shaped hooks in order to assess pelagic longline fishery-specific efficacy at reducing sea turtle interactions and economic viability (e.g., Largacha et al. 2005). Hooks are largely a disposable, high turnover item and many vessels select cheap, short-life hooks (Gilman et al. 2006c). It is unclear at this incipient stage if, once the free circle hooks require replacement, vessel operators will replace them with circle or traditional hooks, as circle hooks are currently more expensive and less robust. While unrelated to bycatch, in response to an excess supply of fish to tuna canneries, and concomitant reductions in prices for skipjack from canneries, some owners of tuna purse seiners formed the World Tuna Purse-Seine Organization, which temporarily limited fishing effort by their vessels.

4.3. Retailer and Buyer Tuna Sourcing
Environmental non-governmental organizations, and to a degree, consumers, are increasingly demanding that seafood sold by retailers and restaurants be sustainably produced. Approaches by major grocery retailers to demonstrate that their seafood comes from sustainable fisheries have been diverse. There has been a recent proliferation of programs assessing the sustainability of individual fisheries or seafood species. These include in-house retailer programs, ranging from the assessment of fisheries against retailer-established sustainability criteria; individual retailer partnerships with environmental non-governmental organizations who conduct assessments and make recommendations for sustainable seafood sourcing; and use of a retailer eco-label. There are also numerous third-party programs for marine capture fisheries, including eco-labeling programs and consumer guides, which assess the sustainability of individual fisheries, rank the relative sustainability of individual seafood species, or rank retailers based on the sustainability of their seafood sourcing practices. Sustainability assessment programs provide large market-based incentives for some fishing industries to meet
sustainability criteria (e.g., Johnston et al. 2001). While relatively new and difficult to predict how it will develop, these market-driven incentives for sustainable seafood production may eventually become the strongest ‘voluntary’ incentive for the tuna industry to improve practices.

Retailers, buyers, distributors, processors and tuna fishing industries have identified the need for: (i) improved scientific rigor of some assessment programs; and (ii) a single set of minimum sustainability standards to address confusion and diminished confidence created by the recent proliferation of competing certification and eco-labeling programs (FAO 2007, IUCN and Western Pacific Regional Fishery Management Council 2008). Competing certification programs have produced conflicting determinations of the sustainability of individual fisheries, contributing to the confusion of there being multiple assessment programs employing different standards and assessment methods.

As the sustainable seafood movement matures, retailers and restaurant chains may harmonize their methods for sustainable seafood sourcing, eliminating all but the most scientifically rigorous assessment programs. A welcome development would be the adoption of international guidelines for national competent authorities for fishery sustainability certification and labeling. These competent authorities would be responsible for establishing national standards for certification and labeling seafood products, which state that the product comes from a sustainable source, similar to standards for products certified as being organic or meeting safety and quality standards. These national sustainability standards would apply to assessment methods employed by government, retail and fishing industries, and environmental non-governmental organizations.

5. CONCLUSIONS
There has been mixed progress in addressing unwanted bycatch in longline and purse seine tuna fisheries. It is likely that, given sufficient investment in research and development, economically viable changes in fishing gear and methods are possible to nearly eliminate bycatch in tuna fisheries. However, even in the gear types where substantial progress has been made, despite the availability of effective bycatch reduction methods that, in some cases, also increase fishing efficiency and provide operational benefits, the majority of fleets do not employ these methods (e.g., Brothers et al. 1999, Gilman et al. 2005). Furthermore, despite the fact that the tuna fishing industry recognizes that their long-term viability rely on the availability of tuna resources at sustainable and optimal levels (IUCN and Western Pacific Regional Fishery Management Council 2008), voluntary industry action to reverse and prevent further overexploitation of tuna stocks and to address bycatch issues has been extremely limited. While RFMOs have made recent progress in addressing bycatch, through the adoption of legally binding conservation measures, for some fishing gear types and some bycatch species groups (Gilman et al. 2007b), compliance by many member states is likely low, where observer programs and national management frameworks are weak or nonexistent, preventing definitive assessments. Where intergovernmental organization and fishing industry initiatives have generally been ineffective, we can be cautiously optimistic that eco-labeling and other certification programs for marine capture fisheries, and adoption of suitable sustainable seafood sourcing policies by retailers and seafood buyers, are becoming an effective ‘voluntary’ incentive for the fishing industry to improve practices and national and international authorities to improve management.

Recognizing this context, combined, several approaches may improve the sustainability of commercial tuna fisheries:

- Increase investment to augment progress in addressing bycatch problems involving sea turtles in purse seines, sharks in both longline and purse seines, cetaceans in both longline and purse seine, and juvenile and undersized tunas in purse seines.
• Increase investment to better understand indirect adverse effects from purse seine sets on dolphin schools.
• To maximize industry use of effective bycatch reduction methods, where possible, identify measures that are practical and convenient for use by crew and are economically viable - or better yet, provide operational and economic advantages.
• Where needed, revise the mandate of regional fishery bodies to include consideration of ecosystem-effects of tuna fisheries, with explicit reference to the conservation of non-target species occurring in the same ecosystem.
• Require adequate onboard coverage by international observers for the purpose of monitoring bycatch trends and levels, which would improve compliance with RFMO measures.
• Modify RFMO structure so that scientific committees and their advice are independent from lobbying and political influence, and modify RFMO legal framework so that RFMOs must adopt the Scientific Committee recommendations. This could eliminate the current tendency for scientific advice to be ignored by RFMOs, which results from industry lobbying, interference by politicians, and the inability of member states to reach consensus on specific approaches for the sustainable use of shared fisheries resources.
• Establish and manage a representative system of protected area networks on the high seas to contribute to the management of interactions between marine capture fisheries and highly migratory sensitive species groups, and to contribute to reversing and preventing overexploitation of target stocks.
• Improving measures to eliminate IUU tuna fishing.
• Getting the fishing industry more involved in its own governance. This could instil a sense of industry responsibility for their long-term viability, and improve tuna fishery sustainability.
• Assess the sustainability of individual tuna fisheries under scientifically rigorous certification and eco-labeling programs, and have retailers and buyers adopt sustainable tuna sourcing policies. Market-driven incentives from certification programs and retailer and buyer sourcing policies may become the strongest ‘voluntary’ incentive for the tuna fishing industry to improve sustainability and management effectiveness.

Acknowledgements
We are grateful for the collaboration of the Hawaii longline industry over the past decade in exploring bycatch reduction methods, from which much of the insights included in this document were derived. Comments from an anonymous reviewer greatly improved the chapter.

6. REFERENCES


IATTC. 2007b. Agreement on the International Dolphin Conservation Program (as amended October 2007). Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission, La Jolla, U.S.A.


Table 1. Bycatch problems in pelagic longline and purse seine fisheries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species Group</th>
<th>Pelagic longline</th>
<th>Purse seine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seabirds</td>
<td>Problematic primarily in higher latitudes, represents the largest threat to most albatross and large petrel species (Gales 1998, Brothers et al. 1999, Gilman et al. 2005).</td>
<td>Not problematic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea turtles</td>
<td>Problematic primarily in the tropics and subtropics, one of numerous anthropogenic threats (Gilman et al. 2006c, FAO In Press).</td>
<td>Sea turtles can become entangled in Fish Aggregating Devices (FADs) and can be caught in the pursed net (Hall et al. 2000, Romanov 2002, Molony 2005). Turtles are typically encountered alive in the net and are released (FAO In Press). Sets on FADs and logs result in higher turtle catch rates than dolphin-associated and unassociated (free-swimming tuna school) sets (Hall 1998, Hall et al. 2000, Safina 2001, Molony 2005).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharks</td>
<td>A large proportion of the total catch in some fisheries, sharks can be a target, incidental bycatch or discarded bycatch (Gilman et al. 2008). There has been increasing concern about the status of some shark stocks, the sustainability of their exploitation, and ecosystem-level effects from shark population declines (FAO 1999b, Myers et al. 2007).</td>
<td>There can be high shark bycatch in purse seine fisheries (Hall et al. 2000, Romanov 2002). Sets on FADs and logs result in higher shark catch rates than dolphin-associated and unassociated sets (Hall 1998, Hall et al. 2000, Safina 2001, Molony 2005).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marine Mammals</td>
<td>Cetacean-longline interactions occasionally result in entanglement and hooking, causing injury and mortality (e.g., Forney 2004). Fishers may harass and kill cetaceans to try to prevent depredation (removal of hooked fish and bait) and gear damage. Isolated (e.g., island-associated) cetacean populations may be most at risk.</td>
<td>There has been substantial success in achieving 98 percent reductions in direct dolphin mortality in purse seine fisheries in the eastern Pacific Ocean (Hall 1998, IATTC 2007a). Dolphin populations have not recovered as anticipated, perhaps because the stress from having purse sets made on them causes miscarriages or separation and loss of calves (Archer et al. 2004, Edwards 2006). Purse seining in other areas typically does not involve setting around dolphins. Purse seine vessels occasionally set on whale-associated tuna schools, which can result in injury and mortality of whales (Romanov 2002, Molony 2005).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Juvenile/undersized tunas

Not problematic (might be higher at seamounts).

Restrictions on setting on dolphin schools resulted in a shift to setting on FADs and logs, where the catch rates of juvenile and undersized tunas and unmarketable species of fish (e.g., mahimahi, sharks) are higher than in unassociated sets (Romanov 2002, Secretariat of the Pacific Community 2005).
Table 2. Methods to reduce unwanted bycatch and injury in marine capture fisheries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modifications to fishing gear and methods</th>
<th>Gear technology and altered fishing methods can reduce bycatch (Table 3).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Input and output controls</td>
<td>Input controls include limiting the amount of fishing effort or capacity (limiting vessel numbers of a specified size, prohibiting new entrants, instituting buy-back schemes). Output controls include limiting catch through, for example, total allowable catch or quotas of target, incidental or discarded bycatch species. For instance, purse seine vessels of nations participating in the Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission’s Tuna-Dolphin Programme receive individual vessel dolphin bycatch limits (Hall 1998).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensatory mitigation</td>
<td>Individual vessels or a fisheries association could meet bycatch mitigation requirements through compensation to a public or private organization to conduct conservation projects to address other anthropogenic sources of mortality. Management authorities could create a fee and exemption structure for the bycatch of sensitive species, similar to a “polluter pays” system. For instance, governments could reduce or withhold subsidies, charge a higher permit or license fee, or use a higher tax rate if bycatch thresholds are exceeded. Alternatively, the fee structure can provide a positive incentive, where a higher subsidy, lower permit or license fee, or lower taxes apply when bycatch standards are met. Compensatory mitigation programmes likely require 100% observer coverage, a substantial limitation. Problems with lack of performance of compensatory mitigation activities and off-site and out-of-kind mitigation could occur when this method, a longstanding practice in U.S. wetlands management (Environmental Law Institute 2006), is applied to fisheries bycatch (e.g., conducting conservation activities at a nesting colony not part of the population interacting with the fishery, or conserving different age classes than affected by the fishery). The concept holds promise if used to compliment and not detract from actions to first avoid and minimize bycatch.</td>
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<tr>
<td>MPAs</td>
<td>Spatial and temporal restrictions of fishing, especially in locations and during periods of high concentration of bycatch species groups, can contribute to reducing fisheries bycatch. Establishing protected areas containing seabird or sea turtle nesting colonies and adjacent waters is potentially an expedient strategy. Seasonal closures might also be able to contribute to reversing and preventing the overexploitation of tuna stocks, such as through closures in equatorial waters during the period of peak bigeye and yellowfin tuna spawning. The establishment of a representative system of protected area networks on the high seas also holds promise. However, this will require extensive and dynamic boundaries, defined, in part, by the location of large-scale oceanographic features and short-lived hydrographic features, and would require extensive buffers (e.g., Hyrenbach et al. 2000). Extensive time will be required to resolve legal complications with international treaties, to achieve international consensus and political will, and to acquire requisite extensive resources for enforcement.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fleet communication</td>
<td>Fleet communication programs can report real-time observations of temporally and spatially unpredictable bycatch hotspots to be avoided by vessels in a fleet (Gilman et al. 2006b). Fleet communication may be appropriate in fisheries where there are strong economic incentives to reduce...</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
bycatch, interactions with bycatch species are rare events and adequate onboard observer coverage exists.

**Industry self-policing**  
Self-policing uses peer pressure from within the industry to criticize bad actors and acknowledge good actors (e.g., Fitzgerald et al. 2004). A fishing industry can create a program where information for individual vessel bycatch levels, compliance with relevant regulations, and other relevant information, is made available to the entire industry. This is especially effective where regulations contain industry-wide penalties if bycatch rates or caps are exceeded.

**Handling and release practices**  
There has been substantial progress in identifying best practices for handling and releasing seabirds and sea turtles caught in longline gear. There are guidelines for implementing backing down and hand rescue procedures to release dolphins from purse seines.

**Changing gear**  
It may be commercially viable to introduce alternative fishing methods that result in a lower bycatch to target catch ratio than the previously employed method.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bycatch Species Group</th>
<th>Pelagic longline</th>
<th>Purse seine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seabirds</td>
<td>There are several effective seabird avoidance methods, including: night setting, tori line, underwater setting devices, side setting, branch line weighting, and blue-dyed bait (Brothers et al. 1999, Gilman et al. 2003, Gilman et al. 2005, Gilman et al. 2007a).</td>
<td>Not problematic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea turtles</td>
<td>Wide circle hook with $&lt; 10^\circ$ offset, large fish bait (Gilman et al. 2006c, FAO In Press). Invest in research on deeper setting, alternative hook designs, artificial bait, baiting techniques and deterrents (Gilman et al. 2006c, FAO In Press).</td>
<td>Invest in research on modified FAD designs (e.g., Molina et al. 2005). Avoid encircling turtles, monitor FADs and release any entangled sea turtles, recover FADs when not in use (FAO In Press). Restrict setting on FADs, logs, and other debris.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharks</td>
<td>Fish instead of squid for bait, prohibit wire leaders, avoid hotspots, deeper setting, move when shark interaction rates are high (Ward et al. 2007, Gilman et al. 2008, FAO In Press). Invest in research on shark repellents (Stoner and Kaimmer In Press).</td>
<td>Avoid hotspots. Restrict setting on FADs, logs, other debris, and whales. Invest in research on shark repellents for deployment on FADs (Stoner and Kaimmer In Press).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marine Mammals</td>
<td>Avoid hotspots, fleet communication (Gilman et al. 2006a, Gilman et al. 2006b). Invest in research on deterrents and echolocation disruption (Mooney et al. 2008).</td>
<td>Medina panel, backing down, deploy rescuers (Hall 1998). Restrict setting on marine mammals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure captions

Fig. 1. Basic configuration of a section (two baskets) of pelagic longline gear. Gear is suspended from line drifting freely in the pelagic environment, at depths anywhere from the sea surface to 400 m into the thermocline. Lines can be up to 100 km long and carry up to 3,500 baited hooks. Lengths, materials, design and methods of setting and hauling vary between fisheries and between vessels in a fishery (E. Gilman).

Fig. 2. Deployed purse seine. A purse seine is made of a long wall of netting framed with floatline and leadline, with purse rings hanging from the lower edge of the gear, through which runs a purse line made from steel wire or rope, which allows the pursing of the net. Purse seine nets can be up to 1.5 km long and 150 m deep. (Courtesy of FAO).

Fig. 3. Pole-and-line vessel fishing for tuna (U.S. NOAA Fisheries photo library).

Fig. 4. Longline-caught bigeye and yellowfin tunas for sale at the Honolulu fish auction.

Fig. 5. Trends in weight of world reported landings of principal market species of tunas by fishing gear type (Bayliff et al. 2005).

Fig. 6. Contributions to global tuna reported landings, 2004 (data from Majkowski 2007).

Fig. 7. A seabird avoidance method called ‘side setting’, employed in the Hawaii longline fleet, where gear is set from the side of the vessel rather than the conventional position at the stern (Gilman et al. 2007a) is one of several effective methods to reduce seabird capture in pelagic longline fisheries (illustration by Nigel Brothers).

Fig. 8. Use of wider circle-shaped hooks and fish bait, instead of narrower J and tuna hooks and squid bait, are methods in use to reduce sea turtle catch and injury in pelagic longline fisheries (photo of hooks E. Gilman; bottom two photos courtesy of U.S. National Marine Fisheries Service Southeast Fisheries Science Center).

Fig. 9. Purse seine vessel employing backdown maneuver to allow a school of dolphins to escape. The end of the net farthest from the vessel is lowered beneath the sea surface and passed below the dolphins. A crew member on a raft is assisting with the release of the dolphins. A Medina panel (not visible, a panel of fine mesh netting sewn into the purse seine net to surround the apex of the backdown area where porpoises are most likely to come into contact with and become entangled in the net) is used. (Courtesy of the Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission).
Figures

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3
Fig. 5

Global reported landings of principal market species of tunas by gear type

- Purse seine: 58%
- Longline: 15%
- Pole-and-line: 14%
- Other gear: 13%
- Troll: <1%
Fig. 7

Fig. 8