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Title: Ecologically Sustainable Exploitation Rates – A multispecies approach for fisheries management

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ABSTRACT

Fisheries management is slowly evolving from its traditional single species focus to a more holistic ecosystem based approach. Yet, limits for exploitation are almost always set based on single species models, treating species as isolated entities. This is problematic since the sustainability of a fishery hinges on its effects on the exploited community as a whole. Here, we develop a novel analytical approach of estimating exploitation rates that are sustainable with respect to the state of whole fish communities. Our approach simultaneously addresses species interactions, environmental covariates and natural variability of population sizes, yet it is framed around a simple and accessible objective. We derive Ecologically Sustainable Exploitation Rates, i.e. exploitation rates associated with a maximum acceptable probability (determined by management) that any interacting species decreases to an unacceptably low population size. Using models fitted to an exploited fish community we show how accounting for species interactions constrains the possibilities for ecologically sustainable exploitation. The conventional omission of species interactions may thus result in overestimated exploitation limits. Moreover, our application rendered a counterintuitive result: it suggests that the exploitation of one species should increase, as compared to mean historical levels, for the purpose of conservation of the community as a whole. Such insights could impossibly be gained using single species approaches, illustrating the need to adopt multispecies models in fisheries management. Analytical derivation of Ecologically Sustainable Exploitation Rates offers a mean to do so.

Keywords: Multispecies exploitation; Multispecies objective; Reference points; Stock assessment; Viability modeling; Statistical modeling.

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1 INTRODUCTION

2 Reference points for fisheries management have traditionally been set based on a single
3 species perspective, and are most often still derived using such an approach (Collie et al.,
4 2014; Holsman, Ianelli, Aydin, Punt, & Moffitt, 2016; Skern-Mauritzen et al., 2016;
5 Möllmann et al., 2014). However, selective fishing also indirectly affects non-target,
6 ecologically interlinked species (Baum & Worm, 2009; Cury et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2011).
7 In the worst case this might even lead to extinctions of other dependent species (Matsuda &
8 Abrams, 2006; Säterberg, Sellman, & Ebenman, 2013), thus questioning the viability of a
9 single species approach in fisheries management. Moreover, limits for exploitation rates based
10 on single- and multispecies approaches can differ substantially (EC, 2012; Gislason, 1999;
11 Gårdmark et al., 2013; Holsmann, Ianelli, Aydin, Punt, & Moffitt, 2016; May, Beddington,
12 Clark, Holt, & Laws, 1979; Tyrell, Link, & Moustahfid, 2011), because species interactions
13 govern how populations respond to fishing (Gårdmark et al., 2013). Increased fishing of
14 forage fish might, for example, decrease the sustainable fishing limit of their predators due to
15 food-shortage. Fishing on predators may instead lead to increased sustainable fishing limits of
16 their prey fish when they are released from predation (Gislason, 1999; May, Beddington,
17 Clark, Holt, & Laws, 1979; but see Huss, de Roos, Van Leeuwen, & Gårdmark, 2014). A
18 successful management of exploitation of interacting species therefore requires a multispecies
19 approach.

20

21 However, population dynamics and thus exploitation limits of fish populations are also
22 affected by other factors besides species interactions and exploitation. Population dynamics of
23 fish species result from stochastic processes, and environmental conditions affect fish
24 productivity (Lindegren, Möllmann, Nielsen, & Stenseth, 2009). Moreover, uncertainty about
25 any biotic or abiotic process propagates to uncertain fishing limits (Thorpe, Le Quesne,

26 Luxford, Collie, & Jennings, 2015). Therefore, to set sustainable and precautionary limits for
27 exploitation, approaches should not only be multispecies, but also account for exogenous
28 environmental variables (Gårdmark et al., 2013; Lindegren, Möllmann, Nielsen, & Stenseth,
29 2009), uncertainty in parameter estimates (Link et al., 2012; Thorpe, Le Quesne, Luxford,
30 Collie, & Jennings, 2015) and natural variability of population sizes (Lindegren, Möllmann,
31 Nielsen, & Stenseth, 2009; Link et al., 2012).

32

33 Although it is desirable to address biotic, abiotic as well as statistical factors when estimating
34 exploitation limits in a multispecies context, accounting for such factors may lead to complex
35 modeling outcomes (Collie et al., 2014). Conventional reference points derived from
36 statistical multispecies models are, for example, highly uncertain (Holsman, Ianelli, Aydin,
37 Punt, & Moffitt, 2016) and contingent on exploitation exerted on all species in a community
38 (Gislason, 1999; May, Beddington, Clark, Holt, & Laws, 1979). Basing management actions
39 on such reference points may thus be a difficult task (but see Norrström, Casini, & Holmgren,
40 2017). However, viability modeling offers an alternative procedure (Cury, Mullon, Garcia, &
41 Shannon, 2005; Doyen et al., 2012). This modeling framework infers that all trajectories of a
42 dynamical system under uncertainty remain within predefined boundaries of its state
43 variables. Thus, rather than estimating uncertain reference points that depend on exploitation
44 exerted on all species in a community, viability modelling can be used to estimate ranges of
45 exploitation rates leading to a viable status of the community as a whole.

46

47 Multispecies models are needed when estimating sustainable exploitation rates in
48 communities of interacting species. Yet, designing such models is difficult, since knowing
49 which specific ecological processes are at work in a large ecosystem is intricate (Planque,

2016). Most modern statistical multispecies models are therefore to some extent dependent on assumptions of ecological processes and preset parameter values (Plagányi et al., 2014). However, an alternative is to statistically fit all parameters of a stochastic multispecies model with no prerequisite assumptions about parameter values (Ives, Dennis, Cottingham, & Carpenter, 2003). This has been argued as the preferable approach for tactical fisheries management advice (Plagányi et al., 2014), because species interactions can completely determine both qualitative and quantitative effects of fishing (Gårdmark et al., 2013). Fully statistically fitted stochastic multispecies models may further be preferable for assessing communities' long-term responses to exploitation, since the net effects of species on each other are then based solely on observation data. Thus, it is somewhat surprising that fully statistically fitted stochastic multispecies models have not, at least to our knowledge, been used for estimating long-term exploitation rates associated with a viable status of fish communities (cf. Lindegren, Möllmann, Nielsen, & Stenseth, 2009).

Here we introduce a novel analytical time series approach of estimating exploitation levels associated with a viable status of communities of interacting fish species (see Methods). The approach relies entirely on statistically fitted model parameters and it can handle both environmental covariates and natural variability of fish populations. We derive Ecologically Sustainable Exploitation Rates, i.e. exploitation rates associated with a low probability (lower than a predefined maximum acceptable probability) that any interacting species in a community goes below its predefined critical biomass limit. We show how such Ecologically Sustainable Exploitation Rates can be analytically derived from purely statistically fitted models, and demonstrate the approach using models fitted to long-term observation data for the fish populations dominating the fisheries in the Baltic Sea.

75 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

76 **Estimating Ecologically Sustainable Exploitation Rates**

77 An ecologically sustainable exploitation rate (hereafter ESER) can quantitatively be defined
78 as a mean exploitation rate associated with a low probability (lower than a predefined
79 maximum acceptable probability) that any fish population goes below its critical biomass
80 limit (here we use Blim; a biomass limit below which a fish population's productivity risks
81 being impaired [ICES, 2015]). ESERs are thus related to a quantitative and probabilistically
82 well-defined objective at the community level. They require three inputs before application:
83 (i) a statistical multivariate model fitted to time series of interacting fish populations,
84 exploitation rates and potentially important environmental covariates; (ii) biological
85 information on critical biomass limits for the interacting fish populations; and (iii) a
86 maximum probability a manager is willing to accept. Further, in contrast to how conventional
87 reference points previously have been derived using statistical multispecies models, i.e.
88 through extensive computer simulations, ESERs can be derived analytically (see Methods;
89 Figs. 1 & S1).

90

91 **Example of Ecologically Sustainable Exploitation Rates**

92 To exemplify the ESER approach we use multivariate autoregressive (MAR-) models fitted to
93 survey data for the three commercially most important fish populations in the Baltic Sea: cod,
94 sprat and herring (see "Baltic Sea application" & "MAR-model assumptions" in SI for details;
95 Table S2). Limits for ESERs based on the final model, following model selection (Table S1 &
96 S3; Figs. 1-2 & S2-S4), suggest that it may be beneficial for the viability of the fish
97 community to increase sprat exploitation rate somewhat compared to mean historical levels
98 (1988-2014). This is because a small increase in sprat exploitation rate would decrease the
99 probability that any species declines below its critical biomass limit (Fig. 1d), and because the

100 upper limit to sprat ESER (0.62 [0.39 1.16]; Fig. 1c) is more disconnected from mean
101 historical exploitation levels (i.e. zero anomaly) than sprat's lower limit (-0.53 [-1.75 -0.25];
102 Fig. 1a). Exploitation rate of sprat would thus be at maximum distance from its two ESER
103 limits if increased slightly above mean historical levels. The reason for this seemingly
104 counterintuitive result is the negative effect of sprat on both cod and herring found in the final
105 model (Table S1). As a result, increased exploitation of sprat decreases the likelihood that cod
106 and herring populations decline below their critical biomass limits (Table S4). For cod and
107 herring, however, ESER limits suggest that lowering exploitation below mean historical levels
108 is always a beneficial management strategy (cod upper limit: 0.84 [0.61 1.49]; herring upper
109 limit: 0.39 [0.24 0.79]; herring lower limit: -1.64 [-6.65 -0.79]), across all models investigated
110 (Table S3; see also Table S5). Overall, the ESER limits illustrate the importance of a
111 multispecies approach to fisheries management since an increased exploitation of a given
112 species may in fact - due to species interactions - be beneficial for conservation of a
113 community as a whole; a result that impossibly can be rendered using a single species model
114 (Fig. S5).

115
116 When exploitation is concurrently varied for all populations in the final model, species
117 interactions constrain the ranges of ESERs (Fig. 3) compared to the single species case (Fig.
118 S5). Further, the more interactions that are included in the model, the smaller the range of
119 ESERs (Fig. 3 vs. Fig. S6). Thus, due to interdependence among fish populations and
120 uncertainties in these, narrow ranges of exploitation rate combinations are needed to attain the
121 multispecies objective in multispecies models (Figs. 3 & S6). In contrast, ESERs derived
122 from the corresponding single species models have much wider ranges (Fig. S5) and they
123 show that decreased exploitation is always beneficial for the community. Thus, if species

124 interactions and accompanying interdependencies of different fisheries are not accounted for
125 when estimating ESERs, the range of ESERs will be overestimated and misleadingly large.

126

127 The multispecies objective may be differently sensitive to exploitation of different fish
128 populations. In our example, the multispecies objective is more sensitive to changes in
129 exploitation of sprat than of the other species (Fig. 3a-c & g-i). This specific result stems, in
130 our example, from three factors: (i) compared to mean historical exploitation rate for each
131 species during 1988-2014, a change in the exploitation rate of sprat causes an almost twice as
132 large effect on the $\ln(\text{biomass})$ of sprat than what a change in the exploitation rate of cod or
133 herring causes on their respective $\ln(\text{biomasses})$ (diagonal in Table S4); (ii) the variability of
134 mean biomass responses of all species to changes in sprat exploitation rate is larger than that
135 of the responses to changes in exploitation of the other species (CI ranges in Table S4); (iii)
136 the initial probability that a population declines below its Blim is initially higher for both cod
137 and herring than for sprat (Fig. 1b), such that a relatively small decrease in sprat exploitation
138 rate indirectly causes cod and herring to decrease below their Blims. Overall, sensitivity of the
139 multispecies objective to changes in exploitation of a given fish population thus depends on
140 the sensitivity of the targeted population, inter- and intra-specific interactions among
141 exploited species, natural variability of fish populations, parameter uncertainty, and how close
142 populations initially are to their critical biomass limits.

143

144 **Implications of the ESER approach**

145 The analytical approach of estimating reference levels for exploitation in fish communities we
146 present can simultaneously addresses natural variability among fish populations,
147 environmental covariates, species interactions as well as resulting interdependencies of

148 different fisheries. Although similar multispecies models have been developed (Collie et al.,
149 2014, Plagányi et al., 2014), very few have been applied when setting reference points for
150 management (Collie et al., 2014; Möllmann et al., 2014; Plagányi et al., 2014; Skern-
151 Mauritzen et al., 2016). One potential reason is that multispecies models often give less
152 conservative estimates of exploitation targets associated with maximum sustainable yield, i.e.
153 higher estimates of fishing mortality, than single species models (e.g. EC, 2012; Gislason,
154 1999; Holsman, Ianelli, Aydin, Punt, & Moffitt, 2016; Norrström, Casini, & Holmgren,
155 2017). Such permissive multispecies targets lead to unsustainably low population biomasses
156 that are particularly sensitive to stochastic perturbations (EC, 2012; Holsman, Ianelli, Aydin,
157 Punt, & Moffitt, 2016; Norrström, Casini, & Holmgren, 2017). It has therefore been suggested
158 that critical biomass limits of fish populations should be introduced when setting target levels
159 for exploitation using multispecies models, resulting in lower recommended target catches
160 (Holsman, Ianelli, Aydin, Punt, & Moffitt, 2016). Thus, if conservation of fish populations is
161 of concern, target reference setting based solely on maximizing yield will not suffice in a
162 multispecies context. Here, as opposed to target reference point setting, we have derived an
163 approach with a single conservation objective: ESERs are associated with a low probability
164 (lower than a predefined maximum acceptable probability) that any fish population goes
165 below its critical biomass limit. The boundaries for the ranges of ESERs (Fig. 3) should
166 therefore be seen as exploitation limits, and if exploitation targets based on other objectives
167 (e.g. maximum sustainable yield) are not within these limits they could be defined as
168 ecologically unsustainable. In a broad sense, the ESER approach could thus potentially act as
169 a complement to traditional single species stock assessment, and exploitation rates derived
170 from single species stock assessments could readily be evaluated for ecological sustainability,
171 using the ESER approach.

172

173 The ranges of ESERs depend on four factors: (i) sensitivity of fish populations to exploitation
174 and environmental covariates; (ii) species interactions; (iii) different types of uncertainty (i.e.
175 process error, parameter uncertainty and uncertainty in covariate projections); and (iv) the
176 multispecies objective. The first two combined determine mean biomass responses of fish
177 populations to changes in mean values of extrinsic variables (i.e. exploitation rates and
178 environmental covariates); the third factor determines the variability of these fish stock
179 projections; and the last determines how ESERs are probabilistically bounded by species'
180 critical biomass limits. Thus, an increase in any type of uncertainty will increase the
181 variability of fish population projections. This increases the probability that any fish
182 population declines below its critical biomass limit, leading to a smaller range of ESERs.
183 Correspondingly, reduced uncertainty will instead increase the range of ESERs. Thus, if
184 uncertainty of any type increases, the statistical support for exploiting a given multispecies
185 community in an ecologically sustainable way decreases. Exploitation rate combinations
186 suggested by the ESER approach are therefore strongly contingent on the quality of input data
187 (e.g. precision and time series length).

188

189 The range of ESERs inevitably depends on the multispecies objective, i.e. on the predefined
190 maximum acceptable probability, the critical biomass limits, as well as the number of species
191 it accounts for. If a manager is willing to accept a large risk (i.e. a high probability that any
192 population declines to the extent that its productivity is impaired) or low critical biomass
193 limits, a wide range of exploitation rates would be accepted (Figs. S7 & S8 vs. Fig. 3,
194 respectively). Further, similar to viability models, where the viability kernel shrinks with an
195 increasing number of boundaries of its state variables (Cury, Mullon, Garcia, & Shannon,
196 2005; see Doyen et al., 2012 for an example), the range of ESERs decreases with the number
197 of species' critical biomass limits incorporated in the multispecies objective. This result is an

198 inherent property of the multispecies objective, and for a fixed maximum acceptable
199 probability, an increasing number of species included in the analysis will eventually lead to no
200 support for ecologically sustainable exploitation. Yet, for diverse ecosystems, it may be just
201 as important to consider conservation of the ecological functions inherent in a system as it is
202 to consider conservation of the populations of all species (e.g. Bozec, O’Farrell, Bruggemann,
203 Luckhurst, & Mumby, 2016; Cury et al., 2011). To this end, the ESER approach could be
204 extended by redefining the multispecies objective as a probability lower than a maximum
205 acceptable probability that either (i) the total biomass of any functional group goes below a
206 predefined group specific critical biomass limit, or (ii) that any species within each functional
207 group goes below its critical biomass limit (see “ESERs in specious systems” in SI). The
208 former means that limits for exploitation are associated with conservation of the total biomass
209 of each functional group, whereas in the latter case they are associated with a maximum
210 acceptable probability that any species, in the most sensitive functional group, decreases
211 below its critical biomass limit. Thus, if the mere conservation of ecosystem functions is of
212 concern the former approach could be used, whereas if conservation of individual species is
213 also of concern the latter should be used. Importantly, any of these modifications makes it
214 possible to derive ESERs also in specious ecosystems.

215

216 The ESER approach is not only useful for deriving quantitative exploitation limits; it also has
217 an important qualitative application in management. It can be used to single out species of
218 specific management concern for the conservation of the community as a whole. A species
219 may be pinpointed because it induces strong indirect effects in a community of interacting
220 fish species, or due to uncertainty in how these effects are induced, given data at hand. For
221 such species it may be especially important to keep exploitation rate within ecologically safe
222 limits, since changes in exploitation may have a strong effect on the rest of the community, or,

223 because the magnitude of these effects are statistically uncertain. Both of these aspects are
224 probabilistically captured and quantifiable when estimating ESERs.

225

226 As with any modelling approach, the ESER approach is strongly dependent on the underlying
227 mathematical model. This relates both to the variables included in the model and to the model
228 structure itself. Although any multivariate model can be used to estimate ESERs, we have
229 here used a MAR-model to allow for analytically derivation of ESERs. This model assumes
230 that time series are stationary and interactions are linear on a ln-scale, and this is indeed a
231 simplifying assumption since interactions (e.g. feeding relationships) among species are often
232 non-linear (Jeschke, Kopp, & Tollrian, 2004). However, the model can be seen as a first order
233 linear approximation to other non-linear stochastic processes around an equilibrium (Ives,
234 Dennis, Cottingham, & Carpenter, 2003), and could thus provide a good starting point even
235 for somewhat non-linear dynamics.

236

237 **Final remarks**

238 The ESER approach demonstrates how species interactions, and a multispecies objective, set
239 narrow bounds for sustainable exploitation in communities of naturally fluctuating fish
240 populations. This novel analytical approach for deriving sustainable exploitation limits can
241 simultaneously address important statistical properties as well as abiotic and biotic factors
242 affecting community dynamics. Yet, it is framed around a simple and applicable multispecies
243 objective, which can easily be extended in various ways (see “future directions” in SI). Our
244 example application to the Baltic Sea further demonstrated a seemingly counterintuitive
245 result: the exploitation rate of one population is suggested to increase, as compared to mean
246 historical levels, for the purpose of conservation of the community of interacting fish
247 populations as a whole. Due to the ubiquity of interactions among exploited species, such

248 management strategies are likely applicable also in other systems. Yet, using conventional
249 single species assessment models, it is inherently impossible to obtain this type of insights.
250 Our results thus illustrate the need to adopt multispecies approaches in fisheries management,
251 and that for precautionary applications, natural variability of fish populations, parameter
252 uncertainty and influential environmental drivers should also explicitly be addressed. The
253 ESER approach probabilistically addresses all of these, and may therefore be a useful tool for
254 setting exploitation limits at the community level - an important part of ecosystem based
255 fisheries management.

256

257 **METHODS**

258 **MAR-models**

259 We use mean-adjusted multivariate autoregressive models (MAR-models) with exogenous
260 variables (Ives, Dennis, Cottingham, & Carpenter, 2003) in order to analytically derive
261 ESERs:

$$262 \mathbf{X}_t = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}_{t-1} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{U}_t + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{F}_t + \mathbf{E}_t \quad (1)$$

263 Here \mathbf{X}_t is a $m \times 1$ vector with $\ln(\text{biomasses})$ of species at time t , \mathbf{B} is a $m \times m$ interaction
264 matrix with elements (i, j) giving the per $\ln(\text{biomass})$ effect of species j on the per unit
265 $\ln(\text{biomass})$ rate of change of species i , \mathbf{C} is a $S \times m$ matrix with elements (i, j) giving the per
266 unit effect of environmental covariate j on the per unit $\ln(\text{biomass})$ rate of change of species i ,
267 \mathbf{U}_t is a $m \times 1$ vector with environmental covariates at time t , \mathbf{D} is a $S \times S$ diagonal matrix with
268 the per unit effect of exploitation rate on species' rates of change in $\ln(\text{biomass})$, \mathbf{F}_t is a $S \times 1$
269 vector with yearly exploitation rates at time t , and \mathbf{E}_t is a $m \times 1$ vector of process errors that
270 has a multivariate normal distribution with mean $\mathbf{0}$ covariance matrix Σ_E .

271

272 Conditional on \mathbf{U}_t and \mathbf{F}_t , the endogenous part, \mathbf{X}_t , is a stationary process provided that all
 273 eigenvalues of the interaction matrix \mathbf{B} lie within the unit circle (Ives, Dennis, Cottingham, &
 274 Carpenter, 2003; Tsay, 2014). The mean and covariance of the stationary distribution, \mathbf{X}_∞ ,
 275 with environmental covariates and exploitation rates held at their mean values, is given by:

$$276 \quad \boldsymbol{\mu}_x = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{B})^{-1}(\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\mu}_U + \mathbf{D}\boldsymbol{\mu}_F) \quad (2)$$

$$277 \quad \text{Vec}(\mathbf{V}_x) = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{B} \otimes \mathbf{B})^{-1} \text{Vec}(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_E + \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_U\mathbf{C}^T),$$

278 where $\boldsymbol{\mu}_x$ is the mean vector of the stationary distribution, \mathbf{V}_x is the covariance matrix of the
 279 stationary distribution, \mathbf{I} , is the identity matrix, \otimes refers to the tensor product and “Vec” is
 280 the vector form of a matrix in which columns of the matrix are packed on top of each other,
 281 with the first column of the matrix on top. $\boldsymbol{\mu}_U$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_F$ refers to the mean of environmental
 282 covariates and exploitation rates, respectively. If environmental covariates are included in an
 283 analysis they can be assumed to affect the stationary covariance by the term $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_U\mathbf{C}^T$, in which
 284 $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_U$ is the covariance of the environmental covariates. Exploitation rate is something that is
 285 under control and is therefore assumed not to affect the covariance of the stationary
 286 distribution.

287

288

289 **Estimating Ecologically Sustainable Exploitation Rates**

290 Eq. 2 can be used to predict changes in mean $\ln(\text{biomasses})$, $\boldsymbol{\mu}_x$, from changes in exploitation
 291 rates, $\boldsymbol{\mu}_F$. Further, if it is assumed that: (i) the variance-covariance, \mathbf{V}_x , is an estimate of the
 292 variance-covariance that would occur if exogenous variables, i.e. $\boldsymbol{\mu}_F$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_U$, were held
 293 constant (Ives, Dennis, Cottingham, & Carpenter, 2003; Tsay, 2014); and (ii) the process
 294 errors and environmental covariates are normally distributed and temporarily uncorrelated, the

295 stationary distribution (eq. 2) can be used to analytically estimate the probability that any
 296 population declines below its Blim, $P(\boldsymbol{\mu}_F)$, for a given set of mean exploitation rates, $\boldsymbol{\mu}_F$ (see
 297 Fig. 1). This probability thus changes depending on the mean exploitation rate subjected to
 298 each species in a community. To derive ESERs we then define a multispecies objective
 299 function:

$$300 \quad \varphi(\boldsymbol{\mu}_F) = \alpha - P(\boldsymbol{\mu}_F), \quad (3)$$

301 where α is a constant giving a predefined maximum acceptable probability (set by
 302 management) that any population declines below its Blim, and $P(\boldsymbol{\mu}_F)$ is the probability that
 303 any species does so, given a vector of mean exploitation rates, $\boldsymbol{\mu}_F$. Mean exploitation rates
 304 associated with positive values of the multispecies objective function (eq. 3) are referred to as
 305 ESERs, since the predefined maximum acceptable probability, α , is then larger than the
 306 probability $P(\boldsymbol{\mu}_F)$ that any species is below Blim. Negative values of the multispecies
 307 objective function (eq. 3), in contrast, infer that a given exploitation rate is not ecologically
 308 sustainable. Limits for ESER are given by zero of the multispecies objective function; that is,
 309 when α equals $P(\boldsymbol{\mu}_F)$.

310 The probability that any population declines below its Blim for a given mean exploitation
 311 rate, $P(\boldsymbol{\mu}_F)$, can mathematically be defined as:

$$312 \quad P(\boldsymbol{\mu}_F) = P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n (x_{\infty,i}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_F) \leq Blim_i)\right), \quad (4)$$

313 where $x_{\infty,i}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_F)$ is the marginal stationary distribution of species i , given by the stationary
 314 distribution (eq. 2). The probability $P(\boldsymbol{\mu}_F)$ is found using the inclusion-exclusion principle

315 (Toufik, 2013), i.e. $P(\boldsymbol{\mu}_F) = \sum_{k=1}^n \left((-1)^{k-1} \sum_{\substack{I \subset \{1, \dots, n\} \\ |I|=k}} P(A_I) \right)$, where the last sum is for all

316 the subsets I of the set, $\{1, \dots, n\}$, which contain k elements, and $A_I := \bigcap_{i \in I} (x_{\infty,i}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_F) \leq$

317 $Blim_i)$ represents the intersection where all species in subset I cross their associated

318 thresholds. $P(A_I)$ are found numerically (Genz et al., 2013) using the marginal distribution
319 for the species in set I . It follows from the properties of the multivariate normal distribution
320 that these marginal distributions are found by dropping rows and columns in the variance-
321 covariance matrix and elements in the mean vector (eq. 2) for the species that are not included
322 in subset I .

323 It should be noted that the variance of mean prediction errors of a MAR-model converges to
324 the stationary covariance over infinite time (Lütkepohl, 2007). ESERs estimated using this
325 method should therefore be seen as conservative reference levels for exploitation rates.

326

327 **Analyses**

328 In the example, limits for ESERs were first estimated by changing the exploitation rate of
329 single focal species in the community, in the final model found after model selection (see
330 “Model fitting and model selection” in SI & final model Table S1) while maintaining the
331 other non-focal species at their mean historical exploitation rates (for 1988-2014). A root
332 finding algorithm (“uniroot” implemented in R [R Core Team, 2017]) was used to find these
333 ESER limits, i.e. the zero root of the multispecies objective function (eq. 3), one for each
334 species in the community. Innovation bootstrapping (Ives, Dennis, Cottingham, & Carpenter,
335 2003) was used to account for uncertainties in parameter estimates and thus to create
336 confidence intervals for ESERs. The mean of the stationary distribution (eq. 2) plus the direct
337 effect of exploitation rates at the initial time step were used as initial point when creating the
338 bootstrapped parameter sets. This is a preferred initial point when creating bootstrapped
339 parameter sets for relatively unstable MAR-models ($0.5 < \max(\lambda_B) < 1$) (Ives, Dennis,
340 Cottingham, & Carpenter, 2003).

341

342 We investigated how much the mean exploitation rates of all species in the community could
343 simultaneously be changed while still fulfilling the multispecies objective function. This was
344 done by creating a (2 x 2) grid of mean exploitation rates for two species, with the third
345 species held at a constant exploitation rate, representing a half standard deviation above the
346 historical levels (original scale: cod=827 tons/kg*h⁻¹, sprat=0.28 kg*kg⁻¹, herring=0.16 kg*kg⁻¹,
347 see “Data description” in SI), at mean historical level (original scale: cod=622 tons/kg*h⁻¹,
348 sprat=0.23 kg*kg⁻¹, herring=0.13 kg*kg⁻¹) or at a half standard deviation below the observed
349 historical level (original scale: cod=417 tons/kg*h⁻¹, sprat=0.18 kg*kg⁻¹, herring=0.10 kg*kg⁻¹).
350 The procedure was repeated for all subsets of the three species. The objective function (eq.
351 3) was thereafter evaluated for all of these exploitation rate combinations. A positive value of
352 the objective function infers that the objective was met (coded as 1), and a negative value
353 infers that the objective was not met (coded as 0). The same grids were numerically
354 investigated for 500 bootstrap parameter sets, thus creating a probability landscape with
355 ranges of simultaneous ESERs for all the fish species.

356 For all analyses we assumed a maximum acceptable probability that any species goes below
357 its Blim, α , of 10%.

358 All analyses were conducted in the R programming language version 3.4.3 (R Core Team,
359 2017). Computer code and data will be made publically available at github if this paper gets
360 published.

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FIGURES

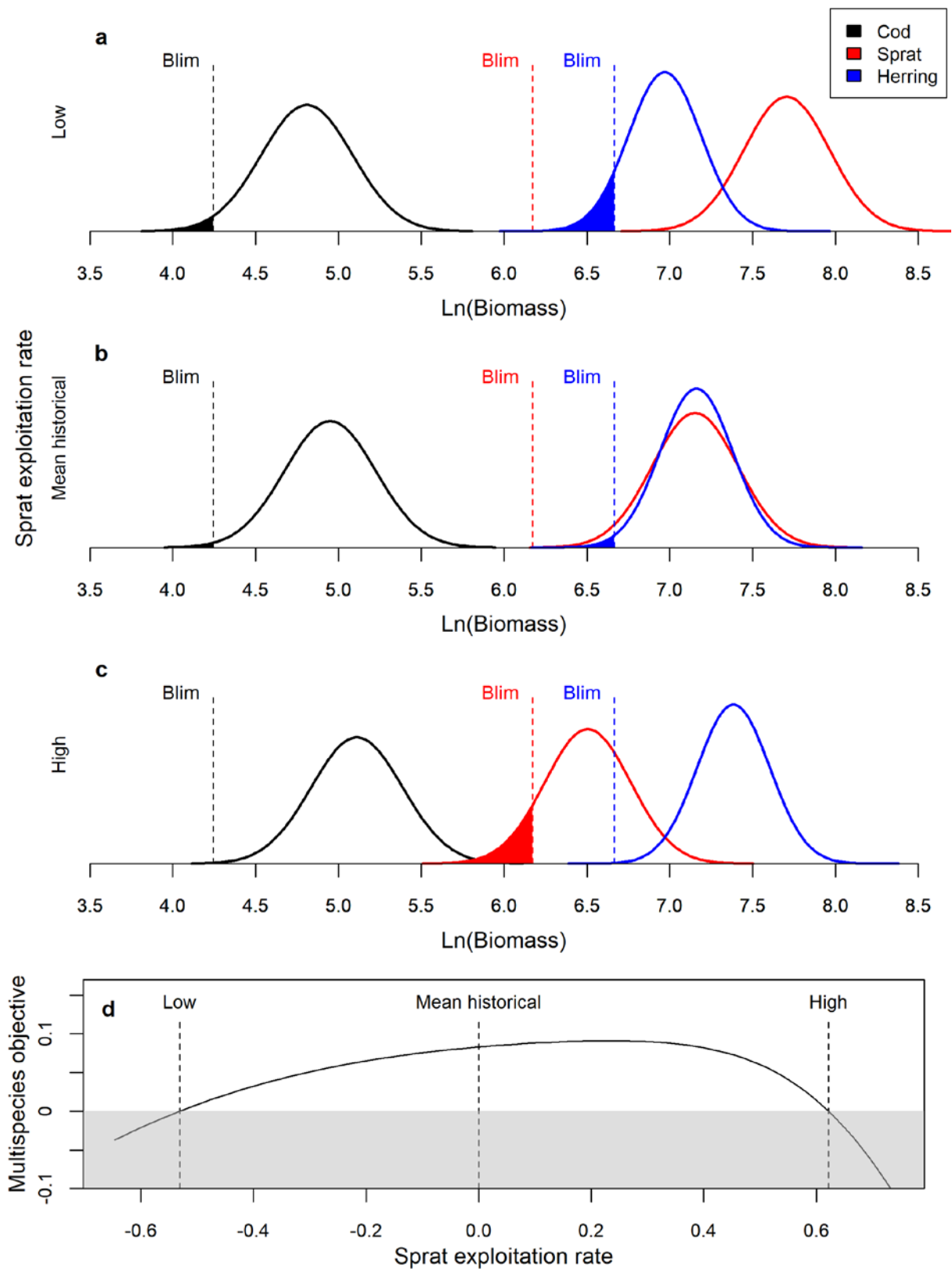


Figure 1. An illustration of the methodological approach of estimating Ecologically Sustainable Exploitation Rates (ESERs). Panels (a), (b) and (c) illustrate marginal stationary

distributions of a multivariate autoregressive model of biomasses of the interacting fish species cod (*Gadus morhua*, Gadidae), sprat (*Sprattus sprattus*, Clupeidae) and herring (*Clupea harengus*, Clupeidae) (see Final model in Table S2 for model parameters), subjected to (a) low, (b) mean historical or (c) high mean exploitation rates on sprat, and mean historical exploitation on cod and herring. The filled areas in (a)-(c) represent the marginal probability that a species biomass goes below its critical biomass limit (Blim). These marginal probabilities make up the core of the multispecies objective function shown in (d). The y-axis in (d) represents the difference between a predefined maximum acceptable probability that any species goes below its Blim, and the probability for this to occur given a set of mean exploitation rates. Exploitation rates associated with positive values of the objective function represents Ecologically Sustainable Exploitation Rates; that is, exploitation rates associated with a low probability (lower than the maximum acceptable probability) that any species goes below its Blim, whereas exploitation rates associated with negative values of the objective function can be categorized as ecologically unsustainable. The lower (a) and upper (c) limits for ESER, i.e. where the multispecies objective function is zero, are indicated by (Low) and (High) sprat exploitation rate in panel (d), respectively. Exploitation rates are represented as anomalies, i.e. as the number of standard deviations above or below mean historical levels (here 1988-2014).

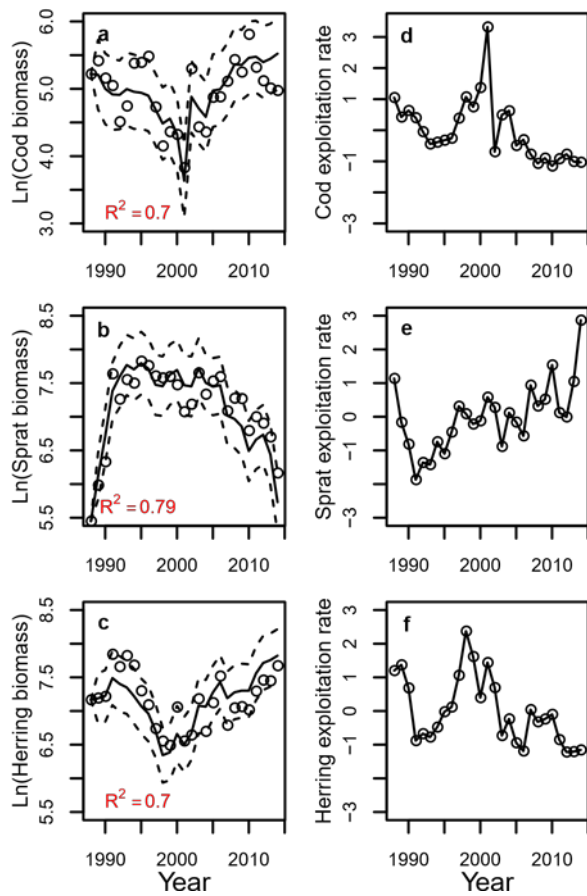


Figure 2. Observations of biomasses of the fish populations dominating the fisheries in the Baltic Sea (circles) are well explained by the final model (predictions as black lines, 95% bootstrapped prediction bounds as dashed lines) used as a basis for deriving Ecologically Sustainable Exploitation Rates (ESERs) in the example application of the method. **(a)** Cod, **(b)** sprat and **(c)** herring. The model accounts for pairwise net relationships ('interactions') among species and exploitation rates (see Final model in Table S2 for estimated parameter values). The standardized time series of exploitation rate have a direct impact on cod **(d)**, sprat **(e)** and herring **(f)**.

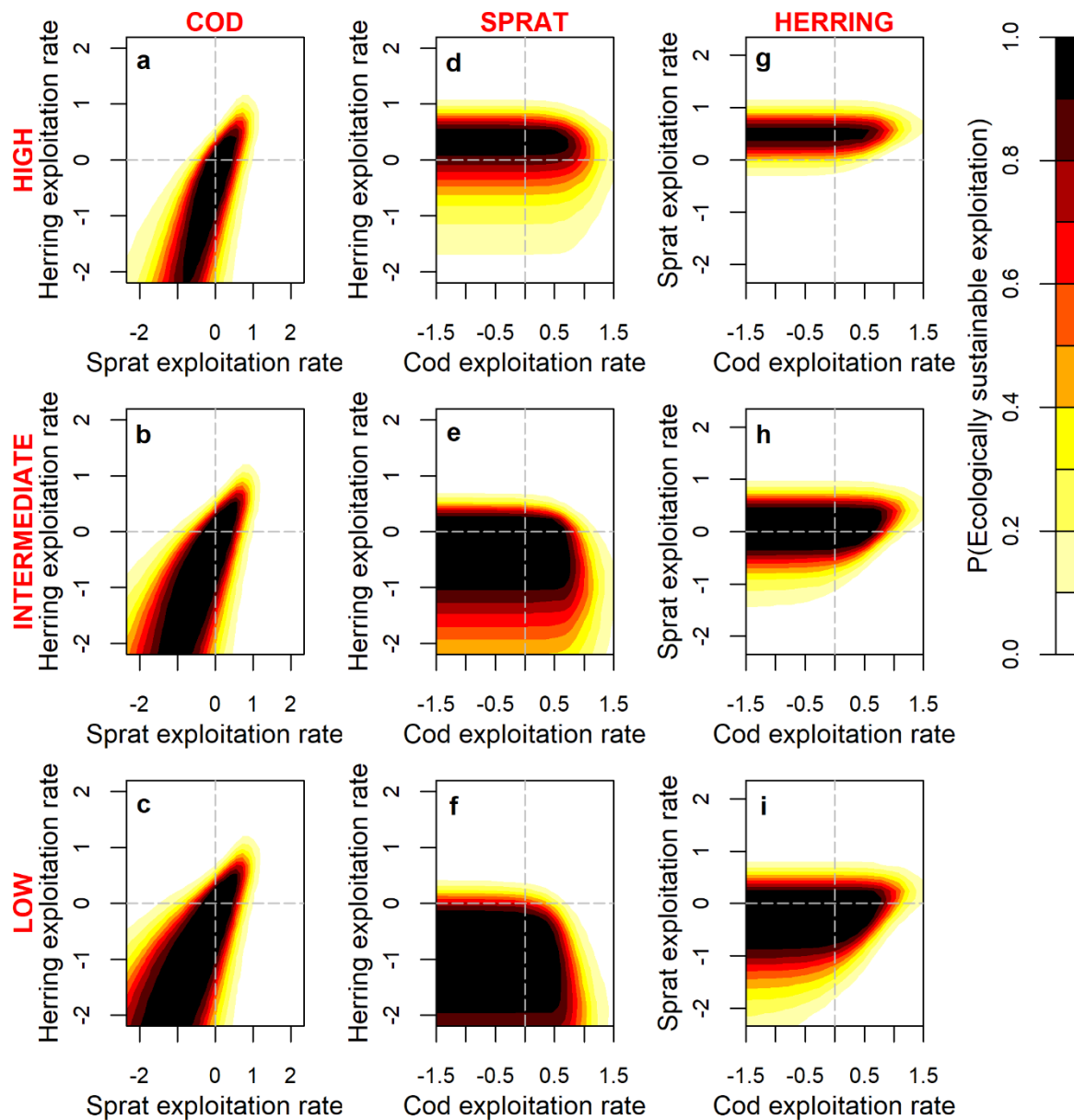


Figure 3. Ranges of Ecologically Sustainable Exploitation Rates. This figure shows the probability of ecologically sustainable exploitation as a function of exploitation rates, in a community of three interacting fish species. The probabilities are numerically found by evaluating if a specific exploitation rate combination is associated with a low probability (lower than a predefined maximum acceptable probability) that any interacting species in the community goes below its critical biomass limit (B_{lim}), across 500 bootstrapped parameter sets. Top panels: (a), (d) and (g); middle panels: (b), (e) and (h); and bottom panels: (c), (f) and (i) show cases where exploitation rate of the species represented in each column (left:

cod, middle: sprat, right: herring) is held at a fixed high (0.5), intermediate (0) or low (-0.5) level, respectively. Exploitation rates are represented as anomalies, i.e. as the number of standard deviations above or below mean historical levels (for 1988-2014). Dashed grey lines represent mean historical exploitation rates.