



Trawl fishing impacts on the status of seabed fauna in diverse regions of the globe

Mazor, Tessa; Pitcher, C. Roland; Rochester, Wayne; Kaiser, Michel; Hiddink, Jan Geert; Jennings, Simon; Amoroso, Ricardo; McConnaughey, Robert A.; Rijnsdorp, Adriaan; Parma, Ana; Suuronen, Petri; Collie, Jeremy; Sciberras, Marija; Atkinson, Lara; Durholtz, Deon; Ellis, Jim; Bolam, Stefan G.; Schratzberger, Michaela; Couce, Elena; Eggleton, Jacqueline; Garcia, Clement; Kainge, Paulus; Paulus, Sarah; Kathena, Johannes N.; Gogina, Mayya; van Denderen, P. Daniel; Keller, Aimee; Horness, Beth; Hilborn, Ray

Fish and Fisheries

DOI:

<https://doi.org/10.1111/faf.12506>

Published: 01/01/2021

Peer reviewed version

[Cyswllt i'r cyhoeddiad / Link to publication](#)

Dyfyniad o'r fersiwn a gyhoeddwyd / Citation for published version (APA):

Mazor, T., Pitcher, C. R., Rochester, W., Kaiser, M., Hiddink, J. G., Jennings, S., Amoroso, R., McConnaughey, R. A., Rijnsdorp, A., Parma, A., Suuronen, P., Collie, J., Sciberras, M., Atkinson, L., Durholtz, D., Ellis, J., Bolam, S. G., Schratzberger, M., Couce, E., ... Hilborn, R. (2021). Trawl fishing impacts on the status of seabed fauna in diverse regions of the globe. *Fish and Fisheries*, 22(1), 72-86. <https://doi.org/10.1111/faf.12506>

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1 **Trawl fishing impacts on the status of seabed fauna in diverse regions of the globe**

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41

42 **Key words:** benthic invertebrates, ecosystem-based fisheries management, risk assessment,
43 species distribution modelling, sustainable fisheries,

44 **Running title:** *Trawl impacts on seabed fauna*

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65 **ABSTRACT**

66 Bottom trawl fishing is a controversial activity. It yields about a quarter of the world's wild
67 seafood, but also has impacts on the marine environment. Recent advances have quantified
68 and improved understanding of large-scale impacts of trawling on the seabed. However, such
69 information needs to be coupled with distributions of benthic invertebrates (benthos) to assess
70 whether these populations are being sustained under current trawling regimes. This study
71 collated data from 13 diverse regions of the globe spanning four continents. Within each
72 region, we combined trawl intensity distributions and predicted abundance distributions of
73 benthos-groups with impact and recovery parameters for taxonomic classes in a risk
74 assessment model to estimate benthos status. The exposure of 220 predicted benthos-group
75 distributions to trawling intensity (as swept-area-ratio) ranged between 0 and 210% (mean =
76 37%) of abundance. However, benthos status, an indicator of the depleted abundance under
77 chronic trawling pressure as a proportion of untrawled state, ranged between 0.86 and 1
78 (mean = 0.99), with 78% of benthos-groups >0.95. Mean benthos status was lowest in
79 regions of Europe and Africa, and for taxonomic classes Bivalvia and Gastropoda. Our
80 results demonstrate that while spatial overlap studies can help infer general patterns of
81 potential risk, actual risks cannot be evaluated without using an assessment model that
82 incorporates trawl impact and recovery metrics. These quantitative outputs are essential for
83 sustainability assessments, and together with reference points and thresholds, can help
84 managers ensure use of the marine environment is sustainable under the ecosystem approach
85 to management.

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95 **INTRODUCTION**

96 Bottom trawling (such as beam, otter trawls and dredge; hereafter “trawling”) is important for
97 global food security, providing about 20 million tonnes of global catch (Amoroso et al.
98 2018). However, the ecological impacts of trawling on the marine environment have been a
99 concern across the globe (Jennings & Kaiser, 1998; Thrush & Dayton, 2002; Puig et al.,
100 2012; Pusceddu et al., 2014). Overall, there is limited large-scale quantitative evidence of the
101 risks trawling pose to the environment and to benthic organisms that encounter physical
102 contact with trawl gear (Mazor et al., 2017; Pitcher et al., 2017).

103

104 Ecosystem-based management (EBM) is an approach that is being adopted around the globe
105 for managing fisheries (Pikitch et al., 2004; Astles et al., 2006). This management approach
106 considers the suite of interactions within a given ecosystem rather than addressing issues in
107 isolation (Holsman et al., 2017). Risk assessment is an essential component of EBM, and
108 provides critical information for prioritising management interventions (Stelzenmüller et al.,
109 2015; Holsman et al., 2017). In the absence of a quantitative approach, there has typically
110 been a reliance on qualitative risk assessments of seabed trawl impacts, using expert opinion
111 and stakeholder knowledge, or rank scoring approaches to guide management decisions
112 (Fletcher, 2005; Astles et al., 2006; Lorange et al., 2011). However, transparent evidence-
113 based quantitative assessments are possible with access to technologies that provide
114 information on fishing activity (e.g. Vessel Monitoring Systems (VMS) and satellite
115 Automatic Identification Systems (AIS) for fishery effort information) and advances in
116 statistical modelling methods (Pitcher et al., 2017).

117

118 Recent efforts have synthesised our current understanding of trawling extent and impacts
119 around the world (Hiddink et al., 2017; Amoroso et al., 2018; Sciberras et al., 2018). For
120 example, regional trawl footprint data were collated by Amoroso et al., (2018), providing a
121 broad-scale spatial coverage of current trawl effort. The study found that 14.5% of the total
122 studied area (7.7 million km²) was trawled, but varied considerably among 24 regions of the
123 world. Systematic review methodologies and meta-analyses have been used to compile
124 depletion and recovery information of trawl fishing disturbances on seabed invertebrates
125 (Hiddink et al., 2017; Sciberras et al., 2018), highlighting those species groups that are more
126 sensitive to trawl impacts (e.g. long-lived biota; Hiddink et al., 2019). Given these advances,

127 they now need to be applied to knowledge of spatial distributions of seabed fauna to assess
128 the impact and sustainability of benthos in trawled regions.

129

130 Understanding the sensitivity of benthic invertebrates (benthos) to trawling disturbance is of
131 fundamental ecological importance because they perform essential ecosystem processes such
132 as reworking sediments, forming habitat structures and oxygenating the seafloor (Solan et al.,
133 2004). Furthermore, their status is commonly used as an indicator for measuring ecosystem
134 health or disturbance (Hiddink et al., 2006; Przeslawski et al., 2008). Despite their
135 importance, knowledge of benthos distributions across broad spatial scales (>1000 km²) is
136 limited (Reiss et al., 2015); most likely attributable to high costs of surveys, limits in
137 taxonomic expertise, and lengthy sample processing time (Fisher et al., 2011). New methods
138 have been proposed to predict and expand knowledge of spatial distributions of benthos at
139 regional scales of 1000's of km² (e.g. Baltic Sea: Gogina & Zettler (2010); North Sea: Reiss
140 et al. (2011); Australian waters; Mazor et al. (2017)); these methods can be coupled with
141 known distributions of trawl intensity to compute benthos status (relative to an untrawled
142 state - calculated from impact rates, recovery rates and exposure to trawling) and help inform
143 the extent to which trawling is sustainable in different areas of the seabed (Mazor et al.,
144 2017). Combined, the information can be used assist managers in the choice of best practices
145 to minimize impacts and ensure sustainability in the local context (McConnaughey et al.,
146 2020).

147

148 Here, we quantify the status of benthos in 13 case-study regions from four continents
149 (Australia, Europe, Africa and North America). Each region was chosen based on the
150 availability of trawl intensity data and benthos survey data. To assess the status of benthos
151 under current trawling practises, we modelled their current-day abundance distributions
152 (based on recent survey samplings) and combined these spatially with maps of trawling
153 intensity (Amoroso et al., 2018) and published recovery and depletion estimates derived from
154 global meta-analyses (Hiddink et al., 2017; Sciberras et al., 2018; Hiddink et al., 2020), using
155 a quantitative risk assessment method (Pitcher et al., 2017). Our findings aim to advance
156 understanding of the current impacts and risks (to benthos) of trawling on the seafloor for
157 regions across the globe.

158

159 **METHOD**

160 **Study regions**

161 Thirteen large-scale study regions across the globe were selected for analysis based on data
162 availability (Table 1; Table S1). The geographical extent of each region was bounded by the
163 latitude, longitude and depth range of the sites for which benthos data from systematic
164 surveys were available to avoid excessive extrapolation of benthos predictions. For maps of
165 study regions see Figures S1 – S13.

166

167 **Trawl intensity**

168 Trawl intensity data were acquired from Amoroso et al., (2018). These data were calculated
169 using VMS or fishing log-book data, to produce a swept area ratio (SAR: the annual
170 cumulative area swept by trawl gear within a given grid-cell of seabed, divided by the area of
171 that grid-cell) of trawling within a grid-cell (either 1km², 0.01° or 1x1 min grids of longitude
172 and latitude), over a 3-5 year period (typically 2008-2010). To ensure trawling activity is
173 representative, we only included regions where >70% of trawling activity was accounted for
174 (Amoroso et al., 2018). To enable comparisons across regions where <100% of trawling
175 activity was reported, we scaled-up trawling effort (F by 100/coverage%) for each region and
176 by gear type to represent total trawl intensity (i.e. 100% trawl activity for each region), and
177 re-calculated regional SARs and footprints. This scaling and re-calculation assumes that
178 collated data are representative of the spatial distribution of the total.

179

180 **Benthos distributions**

181 ***Benthos data***

182 Benthos data from seabed surveys were sought for regions where trawl intensity data were
183 available from Amoroso et al., (2018). Ultimately, data were collated from 13 of 24 regions.
184 Benthos abundances in surveys were recorded as counts or weight, and were standardized by
185 sampled area. We included surveys of both infauna and epifauna where possible, and
186 attempted to match survey years to the trawl data. Survey sampling gear varied among
187 regions, but sampling was predominantly conducted using an otter trawl, benthic sled and/or
188 grab (Table 1).

189 Eight taxonomic classes of benthos were examined: Anthozoa (i.e. sea anemones and corals),
190 Ascidiacea (sea squirts), Asteroidea (seastars), Bivalvia (bivalved shelled molluscs),
191 Gastropoda (sea snails and slugs (alt: coiled, conical or shell-less molluscs)”, Malacostraca
192 (crabs and shrimps), Ophiuroidea (brittle stars) and Polychaeta (segmented worms). These
193 classes were the subject of meta-analyses in which depletion and recovery information have
194 recently been estimated (Hiddink et al., 2017; Sciberras et al., 2018; Hiddink et al., 2020;
195 Figure 1). Following Mazor et al. (2017), we further divided taxonomic classes into benthos-
196 groups; that is, groups of species/taxa within a class that have similar spatial distributions and
197 relationships with environmental variables. The clustering approach uses Multivariate
198 Regression Trees (MRT) to group sites based on the sampled abundances of taxa and their
199 relation with environmental variables, and assigns taxa to these site-groups using the Dufrêne
200 and Legendre (1997) indicator-species metric (DLI) (Mazor et al. 2017). Benthos-groups
201 were used because of inconsistencies in the level of reported taxonomic hierarchy among
202 surveys, and therefore serve as the lowest resolution of benthic data considered for this study.

203

204 *Environmental predictors for modelling benthos*

205 Thirty-four environmental variables previously reported to be associated with distributions of
206 a range of benthic invertebrates (Mazor et al., 2017) were used to model the distributions of
207 benthos in each region (Table 2). All variables were available at a global extent at various
208 spatial scales and were processed into consistent grids to match the resolution of the trawl
209 intensity data provided for each region. Environmental layers (e.g. data from the NASA
210 Ocean Biology Processing Group) were processed using R (R Core Team 2018; package
211 “ncdf4”; Pierce 2017, and package “raster” Hijmans 2019) to convert netCDF files into
212 rasters. Annual averages for environmental variables were calculated from the monthly
213 means of all available years. Seasonal range composites were calculated from the range of
214 January to December monthly means, averaged across all years. All environmental variables
215 (using raster format) were transformed into the relevant projection and coordinate system (to
216 match the gridded trawl intensity data) with resampling by cubic convolution to the desired
217 cell size (either 1km², 0.01° or 1x1 min grids of longitude and latitude). Rasters were then
218 clipped to the boundaries of each study region. Other environmental layers required three-
219 dimensional interpolation to extract properties at the seafloor using a bathymetry layer (e.g.
220 CSIRO Atlas of Regional Seas; Ridgway et al., 2002). Predictors that did not vary among

221 surveyed sites ($SD = 0$) or contained missing data for considerable parts of a region were
222 excluded from individual analysis. Where predictors were largely complete ($>90\%$ of grid),
223 na.spline (package “zoo”; Zeileis 2019) was used to interpolate missing predictor data.

224

225 *Predicting benthos distributions*

226 Benthos-group abundance distributions were predicted for each region using R package
227 “randomForest” (Liaw & Wiener, 2002). For each region we applied one of three methods to
228 obtain a site-by-taxon matrix following Mazor et al. (2017): i) a single gear approach –
229 benthos were sampled by one device; abundance data were arranged into a conventional site-
230 by-taxon matrix, ii) multiple gear approach – benthos were sampled by two different devices
231 that sampled an overlapping composition of benthos at the same sites; a multiplicative scaling
232 factor was estimated for each taxon sampled by different gears (note gear that targeted and
233 predominantly sampled epifauna (e.g. trawls) and infauna (e.g. grabs) were not combined),
234 and iii) disparate datasets approach – benthos were sampled by multiple surveys disparate in
235 one or more of spatial extent, time, taxonomic resolution and identification, sampling device
236 and abundance metrics; in this case Random Forest models predict taxa to un-sampled sites
237 combined with a scaling approach that normalises taxa data to represent the proportion of
238 abundance it contributes within its datasets.

239 Model performance was measured by the R^2 of overall fit of predicted against observed
240 values and by the cross-validated out-of-bag (OOB) R^2 values (estimated internally using
241 bootstrapped samples that leave out about one-third of the data; Breiman, 2001). Predictor
242 importance was extracted from the models as per Mazor et al., (2017) by obtaining the
243 random forest predictor importance measure (%IncMSE). Predictor importance across
244 models was calculated by scaling importance by its proportionate contribution to model
245 performance (OOB R^2) for each benthos-group. These proportions were then averaged across
246 all models, per region and per taxonomic class to estimate overall predictor importance.
247 Models with poor prediction performance (cross-validated OOB $R^2 < 5\%$) were excluded
248 from the status assessment.

249

250 **Trawl SAR exposure of predicted benthos distributions**

251 We quantified trawl SAR exposure (i.e. proportion of benthos abundance currently
252 distributed in areas that are trawled) as a percentage, by spatially overlaying benthos-group
253 distributions and trawl intensity (SAR). Specifically, we summed the product of the predicted
254 benthos-group abundance in trawled grid cells multiplied by the trawl SAR of each cell, then
255 divided by total group abundance in all cells, as per Mazor et al., (2017). We note that SAR
256 exposure >100% may occur for benthos abundance in cells with SAR>1 which are repeatedly
257 exposed and thus the repeated exposure can be greater than the total abundance in all cells.

258

259 **Benthos status assessment model**

260 Here we applied a quantitative risk assessment method derived from the logistic population-
261 growth equation (Pitcher et al. 2017) to estimate ‘relative benthos status’ (RBS):

$$262 \quad \text{RBS} = 1 - F \frac{d}{r}$$

263 Where F is the trawling SAR, d is trawl depletion rate per trawl pass and r is population
264 growth/recovery rate. Depletion rate parameters, specific to taxonomic classes, were obtained
265 from Sciberras et al. (2018, for trawl gears only) and recovery rates were derived from
266 Hiddink et al., (2020) respectively (Table S2; see Supporting Information methods for details
267 of derivation). Depletion rates also differ by trawl gear types and by habitats, and recovery
268 rates also vary with habitat types. To account for this, taxonomic class-level average
269 depletion and recovery rates were scaled according to gear types and habitat types (see
270 Supporting Information methods). Absolute status, expressed as a proportion, was estimated
271 from the product of RBS multiplied by the predicted abundance distribution (grid-cell
272 abundances), divided by the total benthos-group predicted abundance. A status of 1 indicates
273 a state where the benthos population is not depleted by trawling, and 0 being entire depletion.
274 We characterised the uncertainty range in the status estimate by using the mean values for
275 depletion and recovery, and by using the lower 95% confidence interval (CI) for recovery.
276 We used the lower 95% CI as it was considered more consistent with the concept of a
277 precautionary approach. It was sufficient to use just the CI for recovery without uncertainty
278 in depletion because the uncertainties in these parameters are inversely related. Benthos
279 status was also calculated to consider only trawled areas (grid cells with $F > 0$) of our study
280 regions to examine how status may change by spatial extent and specifically within trawled
281 only areas.

282

283 To investigate the relationship between trawl SAR exposure and benthos status we plotted the
284 trawl SAR exposure, benthos status and sensitivity (d/R) of each benthos-group. Sensitivity d
285 (trawl depletion rate per trawl pass) and R (population growth/recovery rate) was calculated
286 as described in SI methods.

287

288 **RESULTS**

289 **Benthos distributions**

290 A total of 220 benthos-group distributions were modelled from our 13 study regions and 8
291 taxonomic classes (Table 3; Table S3). Average explanatory model performance across all
292 benthos-group models, measured by the R^2 of the overall fitted against observed values, was
293 0.75 (median= 0.82), and the cross-validated R^2 of predicted against OOB values, was 0.37
294 (median=0.34). Model performance varied greatly by region (Figure S14), but not by
295 taxonomic class (Figure S15). The most important predictors across all models were the
296 seasonal range of photosynthetically active radiation (PAR), the average temperature at the
297 seafloor ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), the average salinity at the seafloor (psu) and oxygen at the seafloor (ml/l)
298 (Figure S16; S17). The pattern of predictor importance was highly variable across regions
299 (Figure S16); however, some regions are particularly influenced by sediments, such as the
300 Gulf of Carpentaria and the Great Barrier Reef. Predictor importance was less variable among
301 taxonomic classes (Figure S17). Different benthos-groups had different orders of predictor
302 importance, but appeared more consistent across taxonomic classes compared to regions.

303

304 **Trawl SAR exposure**

305 Across all regions, the mean percentage of the predicted abundance of benthos-groups
306 exposed to trawling was 36.63% (median = 8.90%), with a range between 0 – 209.19%
307 (Figure 1). The European regions, Kattegat/Western Baltic Sea and North Sea had the highest
308 overlap of trawl activity with distributions of benthos, with an average exposure of 142.53%
309 and 134.48% respectively. The regions with moderate overlap were the African regions,
310 Namibia (107.70%) and Southern Benguela and Agulhas ecoregions of South Africa

311 (37.57%). Regions with the least overlap of trawling with benthos-groups were Western
312 Australia (1.13%), Gulf of Alaska (2.32%) and Aleutian Islands (2.41%).

313

314 Among taxonomic classes, the range of trawl exposures (Figure 2a) was less than that among
315 regions (Figure 1a). Taxonomic classes that had the highest mean percentage of their
316 distributions overlapping with trawling across all regions were Bivalvia (55.70%),
317 Gastropoda (53.58%) and Polychaeta (46.44%) (Figure 2). The classes with the least trawl
318 exposure were Anthozoa (20.52%) and Ascidiacea (21.31)

319

320 **Benthos status**

321 Across all benthos-groups in all regions, the average status was 0.9878 (mean) and 0.9759
322 (lower CI) (Figure 1; Figure 2). However, for individual benthos-groups, status ranged from
323 0.9110 to 1 (mean), and 0.8592 to 1 (lower CI). The North Sea region had the lowest average
324 status of 0.9538 (mean) and 0.9097 (lower CI), followed by the Kattegat/Western Baltic Sea
325 (0.9554 mean; 0.9189 lower CI) (Figure 1d; Figure 3). These regions also had the largest
326 range of status (max–min). The majority of regions (8 of 13), had an average status >0.99
327 (both mean and lower CI values; Figure 3). Whereas, for taxonomic classes, only half of the
328 benthos-groups had an average status >0.98 (both mean and lower CI values; Figure 2d). The
329 class Bivalvia had the lowest average status (0.9738 mean; 0.9587 lower CI), followed by
330 Malacostraca (0.9841 mean; 0.9742 lower CI) and Gastropoda (0.9895 mean; 0.9718 lower
331 CI). Similarly to regions, taxonomic classes with the lowest average status also had the
332 largest range of values. Benthos status when calculated for only trawled areas (grid cells with
333 SAR>0) of our study regions (Figure S18; Tables S3) were slightly lower (range from 0.8754
334 to 0.9999, and lower CIs from 0.8020 to 0.9999; average status 0.9807 and 0.961 (lower CI))
335 compared to benthos status for our entire study regions (Figure 1) (means ranging from
336 0.9110 to 1, and lower CIs from 0.8592 to 1).

337

338 We found that higher trawl SAR exposure was related to a lower benthos-group status
339 (“lower” in relation to our results – where status 0.98 was the lower confidence interval)
340 (Figure 4). Benthos status also depended on the sensitivity (d/R) of the benthos-group to
341 trawling impacts and their ability to recover. Sensitivity ranged from 0.0076 - 0.0697, and

342 higher sensitivity to trawling (red-orange points on Figure 4) was related to a lower benthos
343 status. However, this relationship did vary and some groups in Europe with higher sensitivity
344 have greater exposure to beam trawls and dredges; the spatial footprint of these gear types are
345 narrower than those of otter trawls and thus contribute less to cell SAR but lead to higher
346 depletion rates (*d*). Other factors that prevent a strict relationship with sensitivity are that
347 distributions of benthos groups and of trawling (and different gear types) are complex and
348 differ with sediment distributions.

349

350 **DISCUSSION**

351 This study presents a large-scale assessment of the status of seabed invertebrate communities,
352 and provides insight into the sustainability of bottom trawling in regions across the globe.
353 Unlike other large-scale assessments that have examined trawl footprints (Amoroso et al.,
354 2018), or status of sedimentary habitats in relation to trawling (Pitcher et al., in review), this
355 work incorporates sampling data from surveys of benthos enabling a more direct
356 quantification of trawl impacts on different types of benthos. Our results indicate that
357 benthos-groups may have up to 210% of their distribution exposed to trawl activity (as SAR
358 intensity), yet the lowest benthos status at a regional scale was 0.86, decreasing to 0.80 within
359 trawled footprint areas (Figure S18). In 11 of our 13 case-study regions, all benthos-groups
360 had a status >0.95, and only a quarter (23%) of benthos-groups had a status >0.95 (i.e.
361 reduced by 0.05–0.14 owing to trawling activity). Overall benthos status was relatively high
362 (mean status = 0.99; lower confidence interval = 0.98; mean status in trawled areas = 0.98;
363 lower confidence interval in trawled areas = 0.96). Hence, regional-scale impacts of trawling
364 on the seabed communities assessed in this study seemed less than might be expected from
365 results of previous studies (Hiddink et al. 2017; Amoroso et al., 2018; Sciberras et al., 2018)

366

367 European regions (the North Sea and Skagerrak/Kattegat) have trawl footprints covering
368 >50% of their continental shelf (Amoroso et al., 2018) and had the lowest average benthos
369 status between 0.95–0.96 (Figure 3). Regions of Africa with trawl footprints of ~10–30% of
370 their continental shelves (Amoroso et al., 2018) displayed an average benthos status between
371 0.97–0.99 (Figure 3). Regions such as North America and Australasia, with lower trawl
372 footprints (<10%) displayed higher benthos status (i.e. >0.99). Although average benthos
373 status per region relates to the overall trawl SAR exposure, there are differences for particular

374 benthos groups due to their sensitivity to trawling (Figure 1; Figure 4). For example, average
375 benthos status for the North Sea region was 0.95, but one Bivalvia group had a lower status
376 of 0.92 due to higher trawl exposure (174.64%) and sensitivity (0.04) (Figure 5a).

377

378 Spatial overlays of human activities on habitats or species distribution maps are often used to
379 infer threats and risks (Trebilco et al. 2011; Evans et al. 2011) and can be informative for
380 prioritising areas where there is greater potential risk of impact, and for indicating where
381 more information is needed (Ban et al., 2010). However, our results show that while there is a
382 general trend that greater overlaps of benthos distributions with trawling result in lower
383 benthos status (Figure 4; Table S4), the rates of impact and the recovery rates (sensitivity) of
384 organisms are also important (Pitcher 2014). Simple spatial overlap analyses that do not
385 consider these dynamics are problematic for determining specific management actions
386 (Tulloch et al., 2015). For example, Benguela/Agulhas South Africa's Asteroidean group has
387 considerably higher trawl exposure (129.32%) than the Great Barrier Reef Malacostraca
388 group (15.19%), yet their status is relatively similar (0.9864 and 0.9849 respectively; Figure
389 5). This similarity is due to the higher recovery ($R = 1.81$) and thus lower sensitivity (0.01) to
390 trawl impacts for Benguela/Agulhas South Africa's Asteroidea in comparison to the higher
391 sensitivity (0.03) for Malacostraca in the Great Barrier Reef. Thus, when quantifying risks,
392 the dynamics of biological processes (e.g. the depletion and recovery component in our
393 assessment model) need to be incorporated, as presented in this study, to avoid misdirecting
394 management actions and to ensure effective outcomes.

395

396 Comparisons across regions and taxa are complex when different quantities and sources of
397 data are used. For instance, our study indicates that the taxonomic class Bivalvia has a
398 slightly lower benthos status than other classes. However, this may be related to the higher
399 number of bivalve groups located in heavily trawled regions of Europe. Likewise, for
400 Namibia, our results are based only on three Malacostraca groups, as these were the only taxa
401 for which data were available for the region. It is likely that the average benthos status
402 calculated for this region is not representative of other benthos taxa. Species distribution
403 model performance also ranged widely among regions, with poorer performance in some
404 regions such as the Aleutian Islands and Kattegat/Western Baltic Sea (Figure S14).
405 Differences in performance are possibly related to the range of taxa or environmental

406 variables in each region, where model performance has been found to be higher for taxa with
407 narrower environmental gradients compared to those with larger areas of occupancy
408 (Grenouillet et al. 2011). Other caveats of this study include the spatial scale of benthic
409 surveys, where some countries sampled the same or similar spatial extents to that of their
410 trawl fishery grounds while others have used a broader regional approach (Figures S1 – S13).
411 This may lead to indications of greater relative trawl exposure and lower status in the former
412 and the opposite in the latter, simply due to study extent. To address this issue we also
413 provided benthos status for trawled-only areas (only for grid cells with SAR>0) and found
414 comparable results with only a slight decrease of benthos status within trawled-only areas in
415 comparison to our full study area extents (Figure S18). Lower benthos status may also occur
416 if this study attempted to predict relative to a pristine pre-trawled baseline as many regions
417 have had long histories of trawling which is likely to have modified benthic community
418 composition and distribution. It is important to note that we have only considered eight
419 common taxonomic classes, and have not included biogenic habitats or most types of colonial
420 organisms (e.g. bryozoans, porifera and hydrozoans). These organisms are expected to be
421 more sensitive to trawling (Collie et al., 2000; Althaus et al., 2009) and, depending on how
422 they are distributed in relation to where trawling occurs, would likely have a lower benthos
423 status than the classes of biota assessed in this study. For example, Anthozoa and Ascidiacea
424 had lower trawl exposure as such species are commonly found on hard substrata that are less
425 exposed to trawling (Lambert et al., 2011; Pitcher et al., 2016). Benthos data in this study
426 were predominantly sampled in unconsolidated habitat types that are conducive to survey by
427 trawl gears, thus our outcomes will not reflect benthos in hard ground habitats which may be
428 more sensitive (Lambert et al., 2011). Nevertheless, some limitations are inherent when
429 conducting broad-scale, multi-regional studies, that are dependent on existing available data.

430

431 Overall, our study presents the most comprehensive and extensive quantitative synthesis of
432 information regarding the status of benthos invertebrate communities in multiple regions
433 worldwide. We highlight the importance of quantifying benthos status for environmental risk
434 assessments in comparison to simpler spatial overlap only approaches. Our results
435 demonstrate that, while there is a broad relationship between trawl SAR exposures and
436 benthos status, exposure alone is not sufficient to account for benthos status or for
437 implementing risk assessments and management decisions at regional or local scales, where
438 adequate benthos distribution and sensitivity data (trawl impact and recovery) are available.

439 Our study encompasses multiple regions across the globe where trawling occurs at a range of
440 intensities and extents. However, other regions where trawl intensity is known to be higher,
441 such as the Mediterranean Sea and South East Asia (FAO 2014; Amoroso et al., 2018;
442 Suuronen et al. 2020), could not be included due to lack of available benthos survey data. For
443 such regions where data (benthic or otherwise) are limited, are of poor quality (e.g. low
444 resolution) or their acquisition is difficult, we may need to rely on coarser methods of
445 estimating trawl risks. For example, using the broader patterns observed by spatial overlap
446 studies, trawl exposure measures, maximum sustainable yield reference points (Fmsy),
447 habitat status assessments (Pitcher et al., in review) or regional SARs (ratio of total swept
448 area trawled annually to total area of region; Amoroso et al., 2018). Ideally, more benthos
449 surveys in heavily trawled regions are needed and integrated approaches where multiple
450 stakeholders (e.g., governmental, academic, industrial) contribute to marine benthic
451 monitoring (Barrio-Froján et al., 2016) may offer a possible solution for better quantifying
452 the state of the seabed in trawled areas of the world's oceans.

453

454 Findings from this study, and broader application of the approaches used in this study, will
455 enable environmental managers to identify which regions and taxa are at greatest risk of
456 unsustainable trawling regimes. Ideally, these assessments will need to be coupled with
457 reference points and thresholds that indicate risk (e.g. Lambert et al. 2017). For example, is a
458 regional benthos status of 0.95 acceptable to stakeholders and the wider community? What
459 are the cascading effects of such a status on the wider marine ecosystem? Reference points
460 for benthic invertebrates are undeveloped and will require further research to determine them,
461 which will likely be specific to a given region (Lambert et al. 2017; Couce et al. 2019).
462 However, the specificity of the status information provides useful quantitative guidance for
463 implementing management measures to mitigate the impacts (McConnaughey et al., 2020).
464 We suggest that such topics need to be the focus of future research to support the growing
465 commitment for countries around the globe to implement Ecosystem Based Management
466 (EBM) principles and practices, and to manage fisheries in a manner that is sustainable for
467 marine ecosystems.

468

469

470

471 **Acknowledgements**

472 T. Mazor was supported during her research by a CSIRO Postdoctoral Fellowship and
473 CSIRO Ruby Payne-Scott Award. All authors acknowledge their organizations for salary
474 support; the Walton Family Foundation and the David and Lucile Packard Foundation, Food
475 and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, and fishing industry organizations for
476 funding of workshops and travel; C. Jenkins for dbSEABED sediment data; D. Bowden for
477 New Zealand benthic survey data; regional fishery management agencies for trawl effort and
478 benthic faunal survey data (Table S1).

479

480 **Data Availability Statement**

481 The underlying data used in this paper are available at
482 <https://trawlingpractices.wordpress.com/datasets/>. All other data needed to repeat the
483 analyses in the paper are presented in the paper or the supporting information, or published in
484 cited articles and reports.

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Table 1. Study regions and characteristics of areas where benthos groups are predicted. Note that more sites may have been surveyed but were left out due to missing environmental data. See supplementary material Table S1, and Figures S1-S13 for further information on each survey.

| Continent | Region | Survey Area km ² | Trawl SAR exposure % of survey area (km ²) | Depth Range | Benthic Surveys | No. of Survey Sites* | Survey Years | Gear Types for Benthic Invertebrate Survey |
|-------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|--|-------------|-----------------|----------------------------------|---|---|
| North America | Bering Sea | 632,677 | 9.00% (56912) | 12 - 1809 | 6 | 1333 | 2008, 2009, 2010 | Otter trawl shelf, and otter trawl slope |
| | Aleutian Islands | 104,340 | 2.19% (2285) | 47 - 1185 | 3 | 366 | 2010 | Otter trawl |
| | Gulf of Alaska | 348,490 | 3.24% (11292) | 0 - 1130 | 3 | 817 | 2009 | Otter trawl |
| | West Coast | 152,480 | 9.51% (14497) | 30 - 1349 | 3 | 1887 | 2008, 2009, 2010 | Otter trawl |
| Europe | North Sea | 571,694 | 78.92% (451183) | 13 - 244 | 1 | 267 (epifauna) 1187 (infauna) | 1999/2000 - 2002 | Beam trawl and grab |
| | Kattegat / Western Baltic Sea | 99,465 | 69.10% (68729) | 0 - 94 | 1 | 706 | 2000 - 2013 | grab |
| Australia/Oceania | Gulf of Carpentaria | 381,919 | 4.07% (15530) | 10 - 102 | 2 | 104 | 1990 | Dredge and grab |
| | Great Barrier Reef | 179,944 | 10.35% (18633) | 5 - 103 | 6 | 1940 | 2003 - 2005 | Prawn trawl and sled |
| | South East | 165,783 | 13.64% (22612) | 7 - 1015 | 4 | 408 | 1 survey = 1993 - 1996 3 surveys = 1979 - 1983 | Sled and grab |
| | Western Australia | 529,665 | 0.9% (4714) | 50 - 1311 | 3 | 238 | 2005 | Beam Trawl, sled and grab |
| | Chatham/Challenger New Zealand | 443,421 | 3.68% (16310) | 60 - 2000 | 3 | 142 (DTIS) 146 | 2007 | Deep towed imaging system (DTIS), epibenthic seamount sled and beam trawl |
| Africa | Benguela/Agulhas South Africa | 219,831 | 41.66% (91575) | 29 - 889 | 1 | 223 | 2011 | Otter trawl |
| | Namibia | 171,927 | 112.42% (193275) | 90 - 812 | 1 | 222 | 2008, 2009, 2010 | Gisund super two-panel bottom trawl |

Table 2. Thirty-four environmental variables used to predict benthos abundance distributions (NA = not applicable).

| Variable | Values | Source | Years | Scale |
|---|----------------|--|--------------|---------------------|
| Temperature at seafloor (°C) | Annual Average | CSIRO Atlas Of Regional Seas (CARS 2009) | up to 2009 | 1/2° |
| | Seasonal Range | | | |
| Salinity at seafloor (psu) | Annual Average | CSIRO Atlas Of Regional Seas (CARS 2009) | up to 2009 | 1/2° |
| | Seasonal Range | | | |
| Oxygen at seafloor (ml/l) | Annual Average | CSIRO Atlas Of Regional Seas (CARS 2009) | up to 2009 | 1/2° |
| | Seasonal Range | | | |
| Silicate at seafloor (µmol/l) | Annual Average | CSIRO Atlas Of Regional Seas (CARS 2009) | up to 2009 | 1/2° |
| | Seasonal Range | | | |
| Phosphate at seafloor (µmol/l) | Annual Average | CSIRO Atlas Of Regional Seas (CARS 2009) | up to 2009 | 1/2° |
| | Seasonal Range | | | |
| Nitrate at seafloor (µmol/l) | Annual Average | CSIRO Atlas Of Regional Seas (CARS 2009) | up to 2009 | 1/2° |
| | Seasonal Range | | | |
| Depth 1 arc-minute | Mean | ETOPO Amante, C. and B.W. Eakins (2009) | 1940 to 2008 | 1 arc-minute |
| Chlorophyll <i>a</i> concentration (mg/m ³) | Annual Average | NASA Ocean Biology Processing Group (OBPG) Aqua-Modis Level 3 Browser, Standard Mapped Image (SMI), Chlorophyll calculated with OC3 algorithm. | 2002 - 2016 | 0.041° (4 km) |
| | Seasonal Range | | | |
| Attenuation coefficient (K490) | Annual Average | NASA Ocean Biology Processing Group (OBPG) Aqua-Modis Level 3 Browser, Standard Mapped Image (SMI), Diffuse attenuation coefficient at 490 nm, KD2 algorithm. | 2002 - 2016 | 0.041° (4 km) |
| | Seasonal Range | | | |
| Particulate Organic Carbon mg/m ³ (POC) | Annual Average | NASA Ocean Biology Processing Group (OBPG) Aqua-Modis Level 3 Browser, Standard Mapped Image (SMI), Particulate Organic Carbon, D. Stramski, 2007 (443/555 version) | 2002 - 2016 | 0.041° (4 km) |
| | Seasonal Range | | | |
| Photosynthetically Active Radiation (PAR) | Annual Average | NASA Ocean Biology Processing Group (OBPG) Aqua-Modis Level 3 Browser, Standard Mapped Image (SMI), Photosynthetically Available Radiation, R. Frouin | 2002 - 2016 | 0.041° (4 km) |
| | Seasonal Range | | | |
| Sea Surface Temperature Night-time (SST_Night) | Annual Average | NASA Ocean Biology Processing Group (OBPG) Aqua-Modis Level 3 Browser, Standard Mapped Image (SMI), SST 11 µ night-time. | 2002 - 2016 | 0.041° (4 km) |
| | Seasonal Range | | | |
| Sea Surface Temperature Daytime (SST_Day) | Annual Average | NASA Ocean Biology Processing Group (OBPG) Aqua-Modis Level 3 Browser, Standard Mapped Image (SMI), SST 11 µ daytime. | 2002 - 2016 | 0.041° (4 km) |
| | Seasonal Range | | | |
| Net Primary Production (NPP) | Annual Average | Ocean Productivity – Oregon State University Behrenfeld MJ, Falkowski PG (1997) Photosynthetic rates derived from satellite-based Chlorophyll concentration. <i>Limnol Oceanogr</i> 42:1–20. | 2002 - 2016 | 1/6° |
| | Seasonal Range | | | |
| Benthic Irradiance (BIR) | Annual Average | *Calculated in R BIR = PAR × exp(-K490 × depth) | 2002 - 2016 | 0.041° (4 km) |
| | Seasonal Range | | | |
| Export Particulate Organic Carbon flux (EPOC) | Annual Average | Calculated in R using the exponential decay model Pace et al. 1987 EPOC = 3.523 × NPP × depth ^{-0.734} . | 2002 - 2016 | 0.041° (4 km) |
| | Seasonal Range | | | |
| Gravel | Mean | Sediment from dbSEABED | up to 2015 | 0.01° where present |
| Sand | Mean | Sediment from dbSEABED | up to 2015 | 0.01° where present |
| Mud | Mean | Sediment from dbSEABED | up to 2015 | 0.01° where present |

Table 3. Number of derived benthos-groups (method following Mazor et al., 2017) across region and per taxonomic class.

| Region | Fauna Groups | Anthozoa | Ascidacea | Asteroidea | Bivalvia | Gastropoda | Malacostraca | Ophiuroidea | Polychaeta |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|------------------|-------------------|-----------------|-------------------|---------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| Aleutian Islands | 10 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | | 2 | 2 | |
| Bering Sea | 23 | 4 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 2 |
| Gulf of Alaska | 17 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 2 | |
| West Coast USA | 17 | 3 | | 4 | | 3 | 4 | 3 | |
| Kattegat/Western Baltic Sea | 7 | | | | 2 | 2 | | 1 | 2 |
| North Sea | 40 | 2 | 2 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 9 | 5 | 5 |
| Benguela/Agulhas South Africa | 18 | 2 | 1 | 4 | | 2 | 4 | | |
| Namibia | 3 | | | | | | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| Chatham/Challenger New Zealand | 22 | 3 | | 4 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 4 |
| Great Barrier Reef | 16 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | |
| Gulf of Carpentaria | 16 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 2 |
| South East Australia | 13 | | | | 1 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 4 |
| Western Australia | 18 | 2 | | 1 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 5 |
| Total Number | 220 | 23 | 13 | 30 | 22 | 27 | 48 | 31 | 26 |

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Box plots by region (Table S1 for more details) of: a) the percentage of benthos-group abundance exposed to trawling (SAR exposure), b) depletion values d , c) recovery parameters R , d) the relative status of benthos-groups using mean values and lower confidence interval for recovery. The black lines represent the median value.

Figure 2. Box plots by taxonomic class (Table 3 for more details) of a) the percentage of benthos-group abundance exposed to trawling (SAR exposure) b) depletion values d , c) recovery parameters R , d) the relative benthos status using mean values and lower confidence interval for recovery. The black lines represent the median value.

Figure 3. Map of mean benthos group status across 13 case study regions (for study region maps see Figure S1-S13). For each region, n is the total number of benthos-groups assessed, pie charts represent the proportion of benthos-groups with a particular benthos status – coloured according to the overall mean benthos status pie chart.

Figure 4. Relationship between benthos status (mean values) and trawl SAR exposure (Table S4). Each point represents a predicted benthos-group ($n=220$), and sensitivity (d/R), where d (trawl depletion rate per trawl pass) and R (population growth/recovery rate) is calculated as described in SI methods.

Figure 5. Three case study examples of benthos-groups in a) a North Sea bivalve group (infauna) (trawl SAR exposure 174.64%, benthos status 0.92), b) a Benguela/Agulhas South African asteroidean group (trawl SAR exposure 129.32%, benthos status 0.98), c) a Great Barrier Reef malacostraca group (trawl SAR exposure 15.19%, benthos status 0.99), with each region showing (left to right) the predicted abundance distribution of the benthos group, distribution of impacted abundance, and predicted benthos status distribution.



Figure 1.

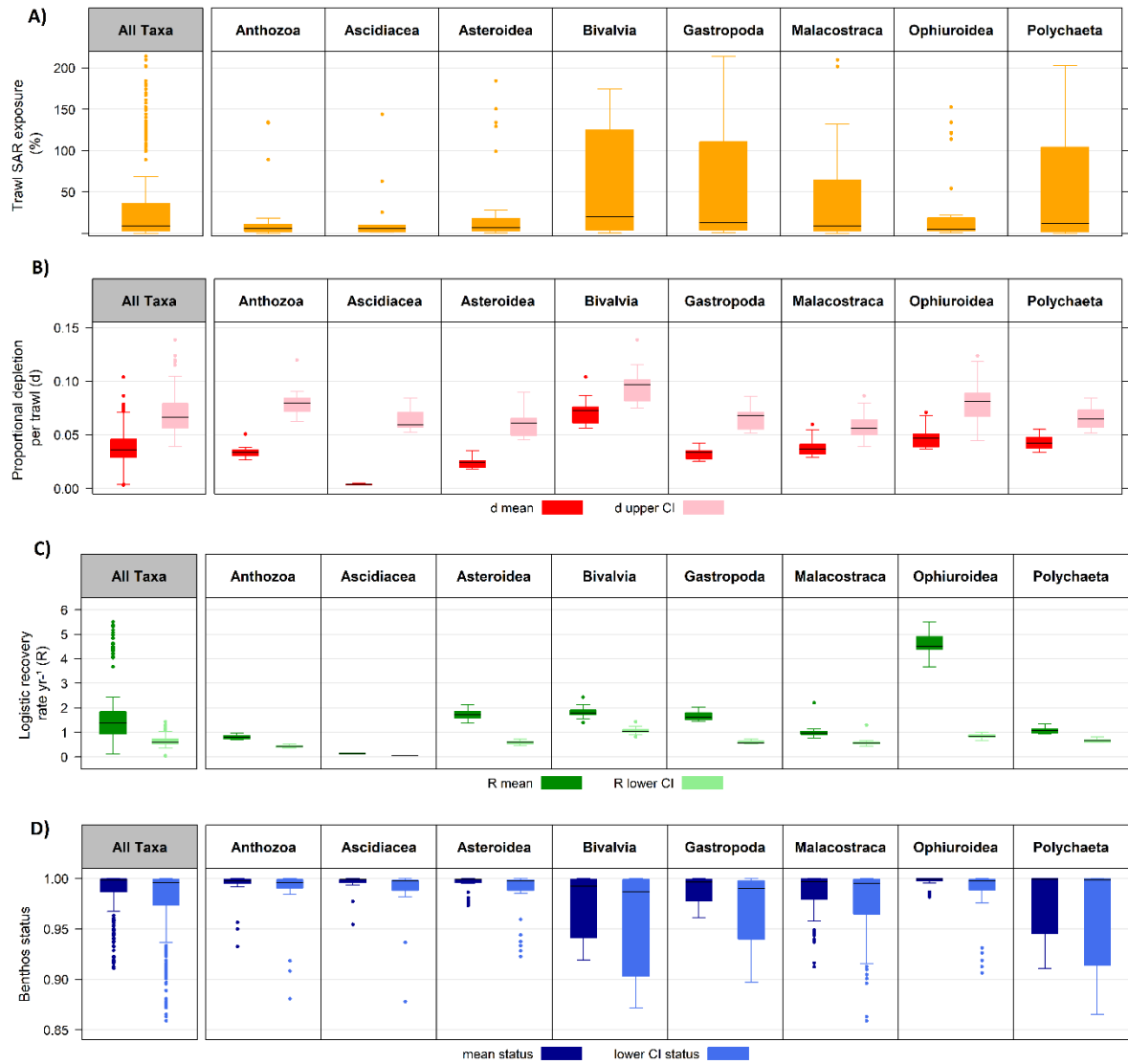


Figure 2.

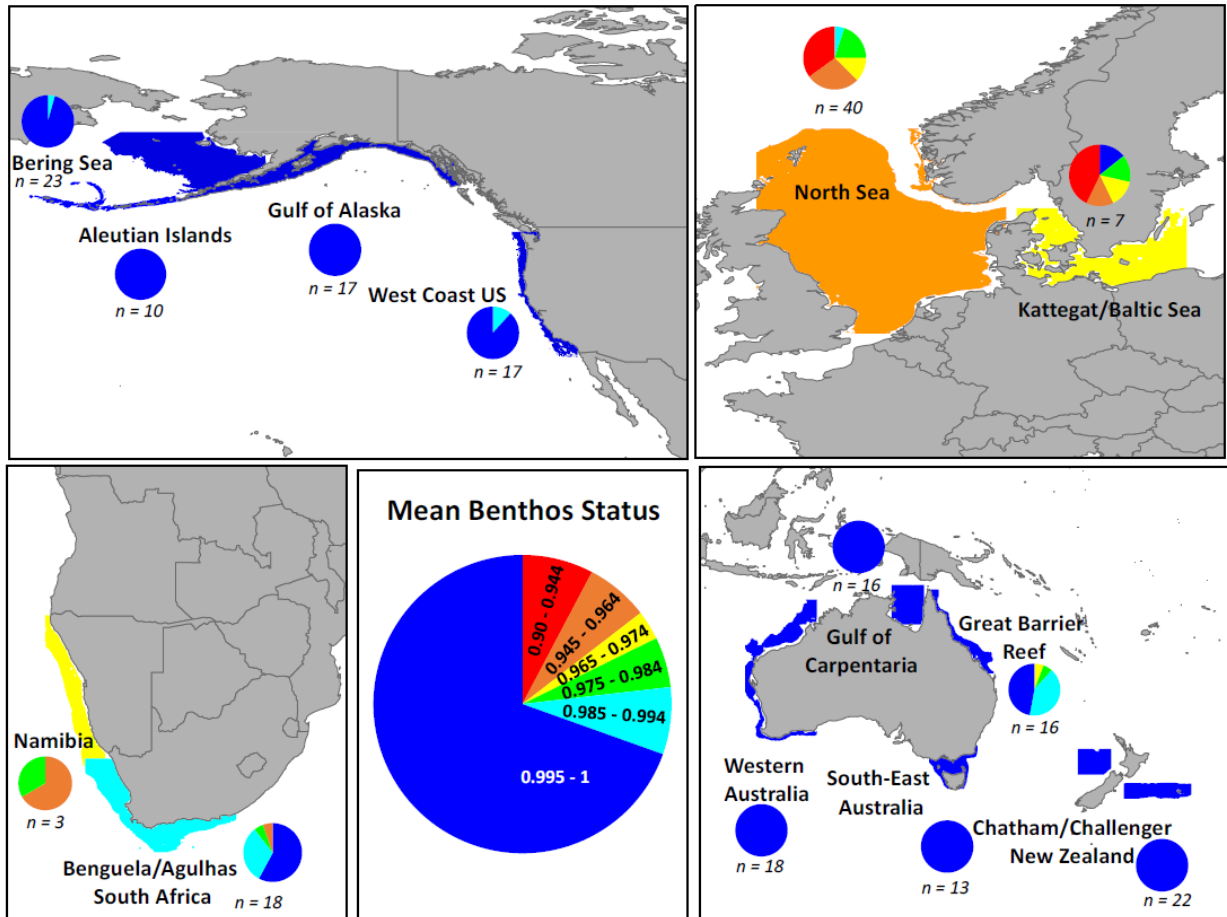


Figure 3.

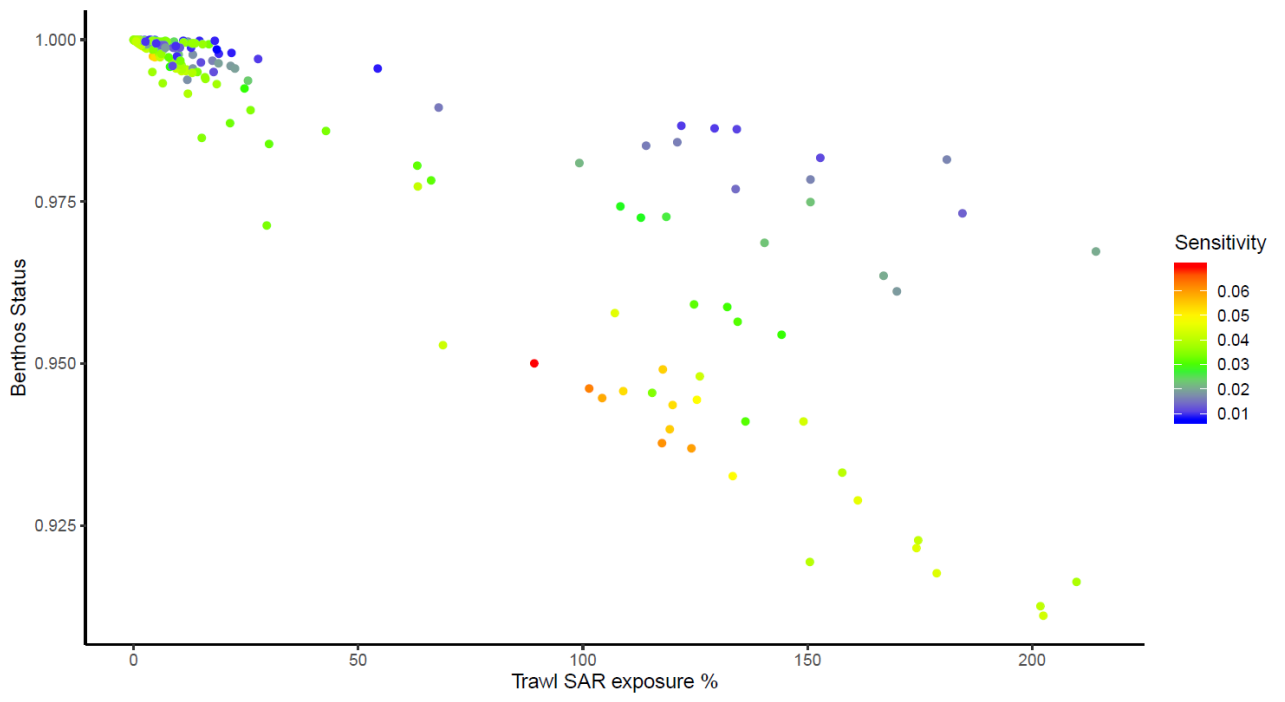


Figure 4.

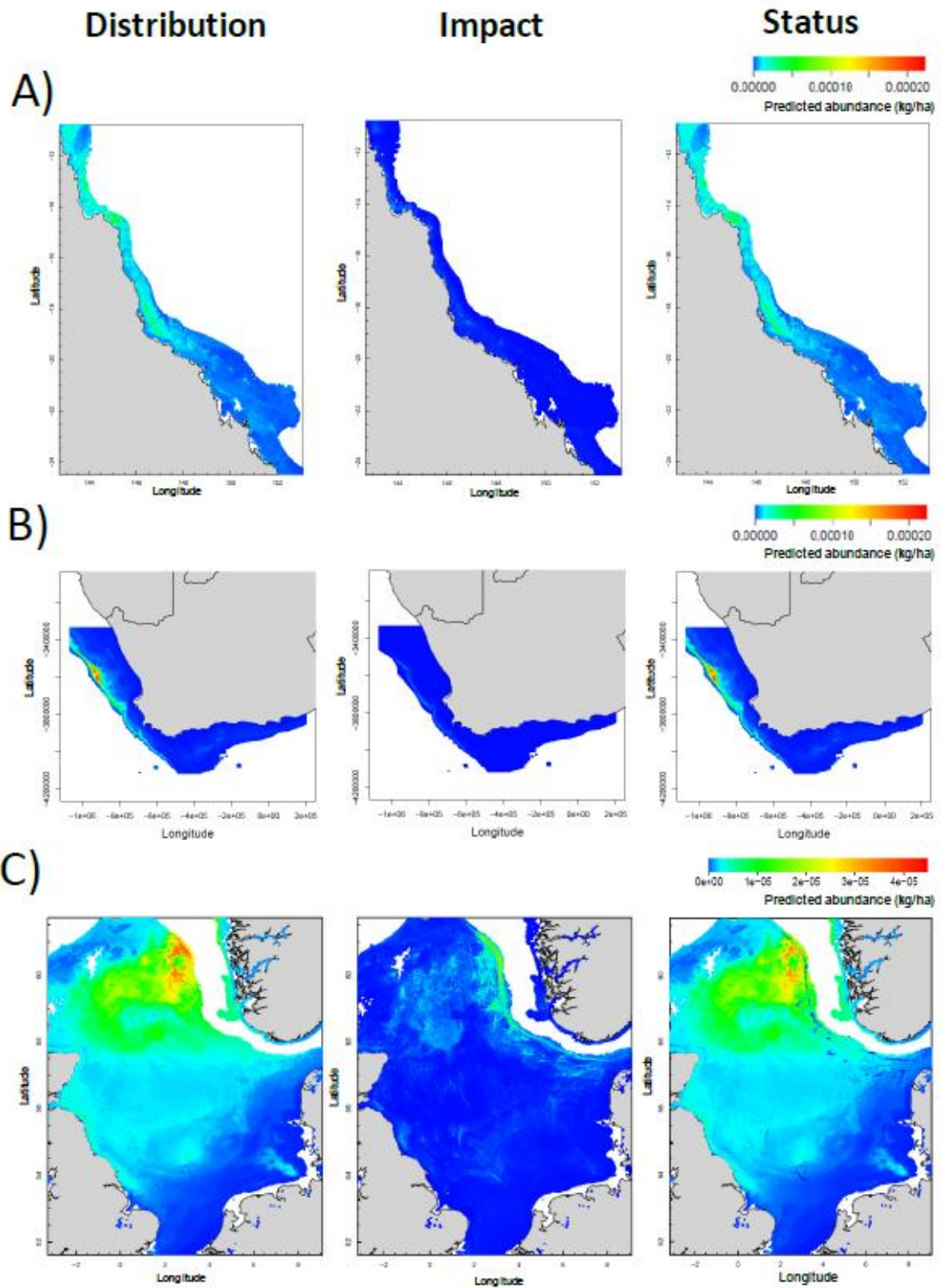


Figure 5.