

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

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

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65 ABSTRACT

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

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

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

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

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

158

159 METHOD

160 Study regions

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

166

167 Trawl intensity

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

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180 Benthos distributions

181 Benthos data

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

Eight taxonomic classes of benthos were examined: Anthozoa (i.e. sea anemones and corals), 189 Ascidiacea (sea squirts), Asteroidea (seastars), Bivalvia (bivalved shelled molluscs), 190 Gastropoda (sea snails and slugs (alt: coiled, conical or shell-less molluscs)", Malacostraca 191 (crabs and shrimps), Ophiuroidea (brittle stars) and Polychaeta (segmented worms). These 192 classes were the subject of meta-analyses in which depletion and recovery information have 193 194 recently been estimated (Hiddink et al., 2017; Sciberras et al., 2018; Hiddink et al., 2020; Figure 1). Following Mazor et al. (2017), we further divided taxonomic classes into benthos-195 groups; that is, groups of species/taxa within a class that have similar spatial distributions and 196 197 relationships with environmental variables. The clustering approach uses Multivariate Regression Trees (MRT) to group sites based on the sampled abundances of taxa and their 198 relation with environmental variables, and assigns taxa to these site-groups using the Dufrêne 199 and Legendre (1997) indicator-species metric (DLI) (Mazor et al. 2017). Benthos-groups 200 were used because of inconsistencies in the level of reported taxonomic hierarchy among 201 202 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 a range of benthic invertebrates (Mazor et al., 2017) were used to model the distributions of 206 benthos in each region (Table 2). All variables were available at a global extent at various 207 208 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 Ocean Biology Processing Group) were processed using R (R Core Team 2018; package 210 211 "ncdf4"; Pierce 2017, and package "raster" Hijmans 2019) to convert netCDF files into rasters. Annual averages for environmental variables were calculated from the monthly 212 213 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 (using raster format) were transformed into the relevant projection and coordinate system (to 215 match the gridded trawl intensity data) with resampling by cubic convolution to the desired 216 217 cell size (either 1km², 0.01° or 1x1 min grids of longitude and latitude). Rasters were then clipped to the boundaries of each study region. Other environmental layers required three-218 219 dimensional interpolation to extract properties at the seafloor using a bathymetry layer (e.g. CSIRO Atlas of Regional Seas; Ridgway et al., 2002). Predictors that did not vary among 220

- surveyed sites (SD = 0) or contained missing data for considerable parts of a region were
- excluded from individual analysis. Where predictors were largely complete (>90% of grid),
- 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 "randomForest" (Liaw & Wiener, 2002). For each region we applied one of three methods to 227 228 obtain a site-by-taxon matrix following Mazor et al. (2017): i) a single gear approach benthos were sampled by one device; abundance data were arranged into a conventional site-229 230 by-taxon matrix, ii) multiple gear approach – benthos were sampled by two different devices that sampled an overlapping composition of benthos at the same sites; a multiplicative scaling 231 factor was estimated for each taxon sampled by different gears (note gear that targeted and 232 predominantly sampled epifauna (e.g. trawls) and infauna (e.g. grabs) were not combined), 233 and iii) disparate datasets approach – benthos were sampled by multiple surveys disparate in 234 one or more of spatial extent, time, taxonomic resolution and identification, sampling device 235 236 and abundance metrics; in this case Random Forest models predict taxa to un-sampled sites combined with a scaling approach that normalises taxa data to represent the proportion of 237 abundance it contributes within its datasets. 238

Model performance was measured by the R² of overall fit of predicted against observed 239 values and by the cross-validated out-of-bag (OOB) R^2 values (estimated internally using 240 bootstrapped samples that leave out about one-third of the data; Breiman, 2001). Predictor 241 importance was extracted from the models as per Mazor et al., (2017) by obtaining the 242 random forest predictor importance measure (%IncMSE). Predictor importance across 243 models was calculated by scaling importance by its proportionate contribution to model 244 performance (OOB R^2) for each benthos-group. These proportions were then averaged across 245 all models, per region and per taxonomic class to estimate overall predictor importance. 246 Models with poor prediction performance (cross-validated OOB $R^2 < 5\%$) were excluded 247 248 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

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

benthos-group abundance in trawled grid cells multiplied by the trawl SAR of each cell, then

divided by total group abundance in all cells, as per Mazor et al., (2017). We note that SAR

exposure >100% may occur for benthos abundance in cells with SAR>1 which are repeatedly

exposed and thus the repeated exposure can be greater than the total abundance in all cells.

258

259 Benthos status assessment model

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

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

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

282

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

287

288 **RESULTS**

289 Benthos distributions

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

303

304 Trawl SAR exposure

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

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
- Australia (1.13%), Gulf of Alaska (2.32%) and Aleutian Islands (2.41%).

313

- Among taxonomic classes, the range of trawl exposures (Figure 2a) was less than that among
- regions (Figure 1a). Taxonomic classes that had the highest mean percentage of their
- distributions overlapping with trawling across all regions were Bivalvia (55.70%),
- Gastropoda (53.58%) and Polychaeta (46.44%) (Figure 2). The classes with the least trawl
- 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 (lower CI) (Figure 1; Figure 2). However, for individual benthos-groups, status ranged from 322 323 0.9110 to 1 (mean), and 0.8592 to 1 (lower CI). The North Sea region had the lowest average status of 0.9538 (mean) and 0.9097 (lower CI), followed by the Kattegat/Western Baltic Sea 324 325 (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 (both mean and lower CI values; Figure 3). Whereas, for taxonomic classes, only half of the 327 benthos-groups had an average status >0.98 (both mean and lower CI values; Figure 2d). The 328 class Bivalvia had the lowest average status (0.9738 mean; 0.9587 lower CI), followed by 329 Malacostraca (0.9841 mean; 0.9742 lower CI) and Gastropoda (0.9895 mean; 0.9718 lower 330 CI). Similarly to regions, taxonomic classes with the lowest average status also had the 331 largest range of values. Benthos status when calculated for only trawled areas (grid cells with 332 SAR>0) of our study regions (Figure S18; Tables S3) were slightly lower (range from 0.8754) 333 to 0.9999, and lower CIs from 0.8020 to 0.9999; average status 0.9807 and 0.961 (lower CI)) 334 compared to benthos status for our entire study regions (Figure 1) (means ranging from 335 336 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
- trawling impacts and their ability to recover. Sensitivity ranged from 0.0076 0.0697, and

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

349

350 **DISCUSSION**

This study presents a large-scale assessment of the status of seabed invertebrate communities, 351 and provides insight into the sustainability of bottom trawling in regions across the globe. 352 Unlike other large-scale assessments that have examined trawl footprints (Amoroso et al., 353 2018), or status of sedimentary habitats in relation to trawling (Pitcher et al., in review), this 354 work incorporates sampling data from surveys of benthos enabling a more direct 355 quantification of trawl impacts on different types of benthos. Our results indicate that 356 357 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 had a status >0.95, and only a guarter (23%) of benthos-groups had a status >0.95 (i.e. 360 361 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; lower confidence interval in trawled areas = 0.96). Hence, regional-scale impacts of trawling 363 364 on the seabed communities assessed in this study seemed less than might be expected from results of previous studies (Hiddink et al. 2017; Amoroso et al., 2018; Sciberras et al., 2018) 365

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

benthos groups due to their sensitivity to trawling (Figure 1; Figure 4). For example, average

benthos status for the North Sea region was 0.95, but one Bivalvia group had a lower status

of 0.92 due to higher trawl exposure (174.64%) and sensitivity (0.04) (Figure 5a).

377

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

395

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

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

Overall, our study presents the most comprehensive and extensive quantitative synthesis of 431 432 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 demonstrate that, while there is a broad relationship between trawl SAR exposures and 435 436 benthos status, exposure alone is not sufficient to account for benthos status or for implementing risk assessments and management decisions at regional or local scales, where 437 adequate benthos distribution and sensitivity data (trawl impact and recovery) are available. 438

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

453

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

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479

480 Data Availability Statement

481 The underlying data used in this paper are available at

482 <u>https://trawlingpractices.wordpress.com/datasets/</u>. All other data needed to repeat the

analyses in the paper are presented in the paper or the supporting information, or published in

484 cited articles and reports.

485

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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 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.

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	1/2°
	Seasonal Range		2009	1/2
Salinity at seafloor (psu)	Annual Average	CSIRO Atlas Of Regional Seas (CARS 2009)	up to	1/2°
	Seasonal Range		2009	1/2
Oxygen at seafloor (ml/l)	Annual Average	CSIRO Atlas Of Regional Seas (CARS 2009)	up to	1/20
	Seasonal Range		2009	1/2°
Silicate at seafloor (µmol/l)	Annual Average	CSIRO Atlas Of Regional Seas (CARS 2009)	up to	1/00
•	Seasonal Range		2009	1/2°
Phosphate at seafloor (µmol/l)	Annual Average	CSIRO Atlas Of Regional Seas (CARS 2009)	up to	1/20
1	Seasonal Range		2009	1/2°
Nitrate at seafloor (µmol/l)	Annual Average	CSIRO Atlas Of Regional Seas (CARS 2009)	up to	1 /20
	Seasonal Range		2009	1/2°
Depth 1 arc-minute	Mean	ETOPO Amante, C. and B.W. Eakins (2009)	1940 to	1 arc-
	1.iouii	$\underline{\text{Divise}}$ (matrix), (2.4 matrix) (2007)	2008	minute
Chlorophyll <i>a</i> concentration	Annual Average	NASA Ocean Biology Processing Group (OBPG)	2000	
(mg/m^3)	Seasonal Range	Aqua-Modis Level 3 Browser, Standard Mapped	2002 -	0.041°
(Seusonai Runge	Image (SMI), Chlorophyll calculated with OC3	2016	(4 km)
		algorithm.		(
Attenuation coefficient (K490)	Annual Average	NASA Ocean Biology Processing Group (OBPG)		
Attendation coefficient (1X+90)	Seasonal Range	Aqua-Modis Level 3 Browser, Standard Mapped	2002 -	0.041°
	Seasonal Kange	Image (SMI), Diffuse attenuation coefficient at 490	2002 - 2016	(4 km)
		nm, KD2 algorithm.	2010	(+ KIII)
Particulate Organic Carbon		NASA Ocean Biology Processing Group (OBPG)		
	Annual Average		2002	0.0410
mg/m ³ (POC)	Seasonal Range	Aqua-Modis Level 3 Browser,	2002 -	0.041°
		Standard Mapped Image (SMI), Particulate Organic	2016	(4 km)
		Carbon, D. Stramski, 2007 (443/555 version)		
Photosynthetically Active	Annual Average	NASA Ocean Biology Processing Group (OBPG)	2002 - 2016	0.041° (4 km)
Radiation (PAR)	Seasonal Range	Aqua-Modis Level 3 Browser,		
		Standard Mapped Image (SMI), Photosynthetically		
		Available Radiation, R. Frouin		
Sea Surface Temperature Night-	Annual Average	NASA Ocean Biology Processing Group (OBPG)	2002 -	0.041° (4 km)
time (SST_Night)	Seasonal Range	Aqua-Modis Level 3 Browser,		
-		Standard Mapped Image (SMI), SST 11 µ night-time.	2016	(4 KIII)
Sea Surface Temperature	Annual Average	NASA Ocean Biology Processing Group (OBPG)	2002	0.0410
Daytime (SST_Day)	Seasonal Range	Aqua-Modis Level 3 Browser,	2002 -	0.041°
· · · · · ·		Standard Mapped Image (SMI), SST 11 µ daytime.	2016	(4 km)
Net Primary Production (NPP)	Annual Average	Ocean Productivity – Oregon State University		
- · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Seasonal Range	Behrenfeld MJ, Falkowski PG (1997) Photosynthetic	2002 -	1/6°
	Seusonai Runge	rates derived from satellite-based Chlorophyll	2016	
		concentration. Limnol Oceanogr 42:1–20.	2010	
Benthic Irradiance (BIR)	Annual Average	*Calculated in R	2002 -	0.041°
Denance Intuctunce (DIR)	Seasonal Range	$BIR = PAR \times exp(-K490 \times depth)$	2002 - 2016	(4 km)
Export Particulate Organic	Annual Average	Calculated in R using the exponential decay model		
Carbon flux (EPOC)	U	U 1	2002 -	0.041°
Carbon nux (EPOC)	Seasonal Range	Pace et al. 1987 EPOC = $2.523 \times \text{NPD} \times \text{dowth}^{-0.734}$	2016	(4 km)
Crowal	Maan	$EPOC = 3.523 \times NPP \times depth^{-0.734}.$		0.010
Gravel	Mean	Sediment from <u>dbSEABED</u>	up to	0.01°
			2015	where
<u> </u>				present
Sand	Mean	Sediment from <u>dbSEABED</u>	up to	0.01°
			2015	where
			2013	present
Mud	Mean	Sediment from <u>dbSEABED</u>	up to	0.01°
			up to	where
	1		2015	present

Region	Fauna	Anthozoa	Ascidiacea	Asteroidea	Bivalvia	Gastropoda	Malacostraca	Ophiuroidea	Polychaeta
	Groups								
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	7				2	2		1	2
Baltic Sea									
North Sea	40	2	2	5	6	6	9	5	5
Benguela/Agulhas	18	2	1	4		2	4		
South Africa									
Namibia	3						3	3	2
Chatham/Challenger	22	3		4	2	3	3	3	4
New Zealand									
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

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

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Box plots by region (Table S1 for more details) of: a) the percentage of benthosgroup 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.

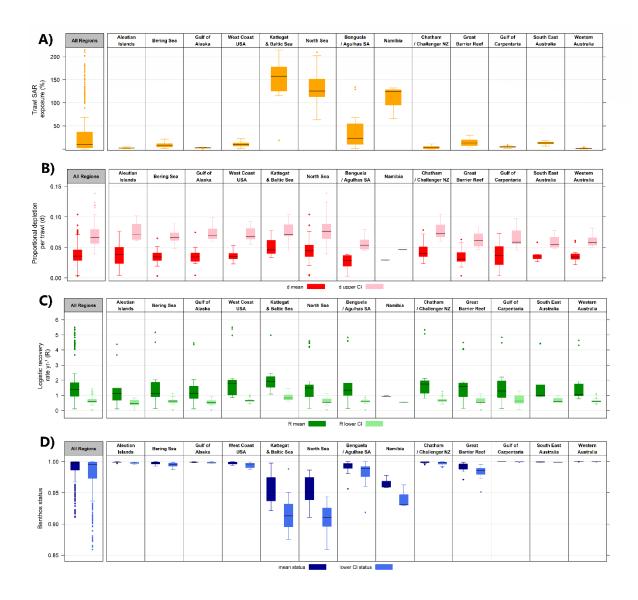


Figure 1.

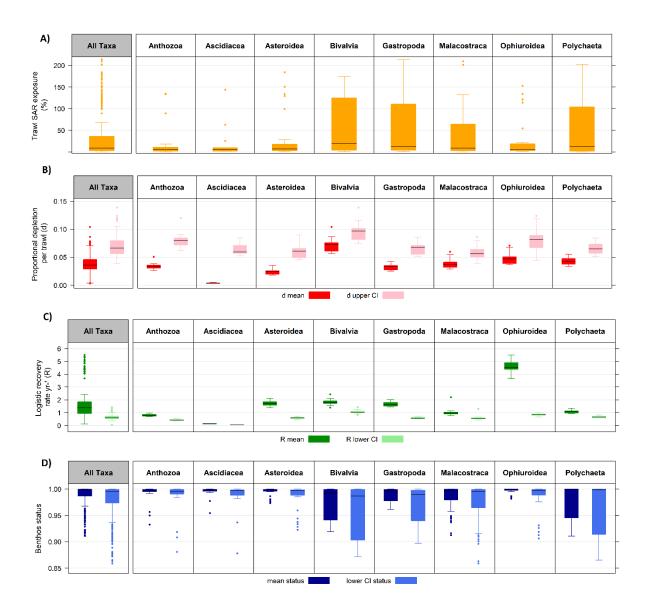


Figure 2.

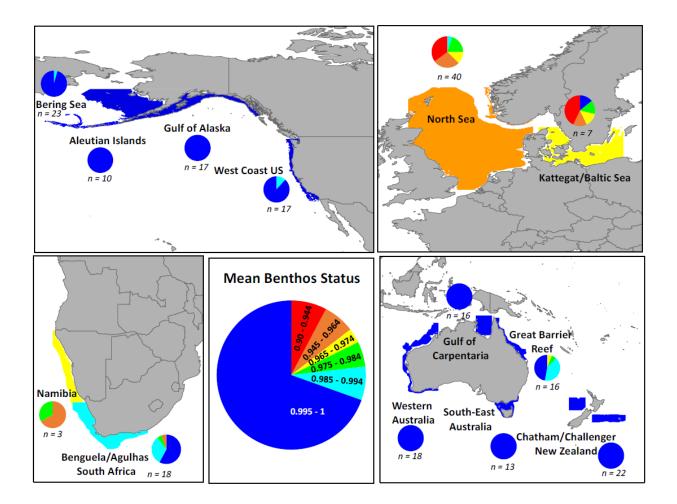


Figure 3.

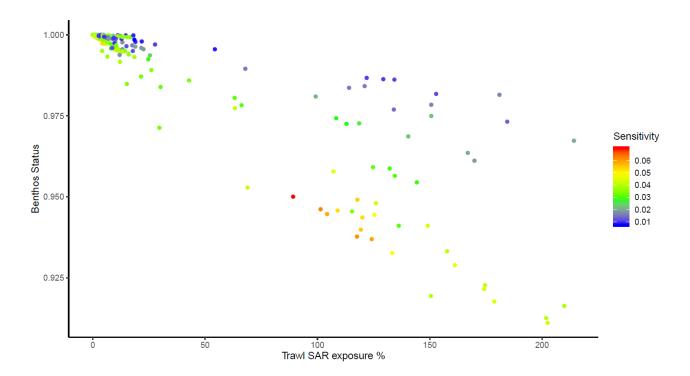


Figure 4.

