

IOTC Regional Observer Scheme

Scientific Field Observer Training

Scientific Field Observer

Training Manual:

Scientific Field Observer Training Course

[IOTC ROS SFO]



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List of Abbreviations

BCM Bait Casting Machine

CMM IOTC Conservation and Management Measure

COPEC Fisheries Controllers (Contrôleurs des Pêches)

CPCs Contracting Parties and Cooperating Non-Contracting Parties

CPUE Catch per Unit Effort

CSW Chilled Sea Water

DWFN Distant Water Fishing Nations

EPIRB Emergency Position Indicating Radio Beacon

EEZ Exclusive Economic Zone

FAD Fish Aggregating Device

FAO Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations

GMDSS Global Maritime Distress and Safety System

GRT Gross Registered Tonnage

GT Gross Tonnage

HF High Frequency (radio)

IOTC Indian Ocean Tuna Commission

IOC Indian Ocean Commission

IMO International Maritime Organisation

IUU Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated (fishing activity)

LME Large Marine Ecosystem

LOA Length Overall (of the ship)

LSTLVs Large Scale Tuna Longline Vessels

MF Medium Frequency (radio)

MoU Memorandum of Understanding

OBSPEC Observateurs des Pêches

RFMO Regional Fisheries Management Organisation

ROP Regional Observer Programme (transhipment observers)

ROS Regional Observer Scheme (scientific observers)

SART Search and Rescue Transponder

SOLAS International Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea, 1974

SIOFA South Indian Ocean Fisheries Agreement

SWIOFC South West Indian Ocean Fishery Commission

TAAF Terres Australes et Antarctiques Françaises

UNCLOS United Nations Convention on Law of the Sea 1982

VHF Very High Frequency (radio)

VMS Vessel Monitoring System

INTRODUCTION

This manual has been prepared for the Indian Ocean Tuna Commission (IOTC) Regional Observer Scheme (ROS), as outlined in Resolution 11/04¹ and the report of the expert review workshop on standards for the IOTC Regional Observer Scheme (IOTC–2018–WPDCS-35 Rev_2). The manual will constitute an integral part of the training documentation issued to observers during preparation, and will also be a tool used for reference purposes when they are in the field. Notwithstanding this, observers should be familiar with IOTC Resolution 11/04 *On a Regional Observer Scheme* and all the Conservation and Management Measures (CMMs) linked to this Resolution.

The ROS manual provides reference material along with instructions detailing observer tasks, including observational requirements; sampling protocols; data entry protocols; and reporting procedures for observers deployed in the longline, purse seine, pole-and-line, and gillnet fisheries operating in the IOTC area of competence². This manual should be considered a 'living' document that will change as the Scheme evolves through the incorporation of new recommendations from the Scientific Committee, based on the advice of the Working Parties and observers returning from the field.

¹ http://iotc.org/cmm/resolution-1104-regional-observer-scheme

² http://iotc.org/about-iotc/competence

THE DEVELOPMENT OF REGIONAL OBSERVER SCHEMES

Worldwide, scientific observer schemes are used in fisheries management to provide 'independent' baseline information on fisheries. This is particularly important in the case of Regional Fisheries Management Organisations (RFMOs), like the Indian Ocean Tuna Commission (IOTC), which manage highly migratory species and where member states comprise distant water fleets as well as domestic fleets, which include artisanal fisheries (exploiting coastal waters, within 200 nm of the shore).

Regional observer schemes perform a valuable role in verifying catch and effort data collected through vessels logbooks. However, the observers training and experience also facilitates them providing more detailed scientific information that is not captured in logbooks that can contribute towards the assessment of stocks for management and conservation.

The development of modern-day observer schemes was identified in the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea of 10 December 1982, Part 5, and Articles 61 to 65, as contributing to the conservation and management of marine living resources. The 1982 Convention laid the foundation for a new era in international fisheries law that was followed by several major agreements that were drawn up to enhance the legal status of the management and conservation of marine living recourses, the most important of these were (Figure 1):

- 1993 FAO Compliance Agreement;
- 1995 FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries; and
- 1995 UN Fish Stocks Agreement (UNFSA).

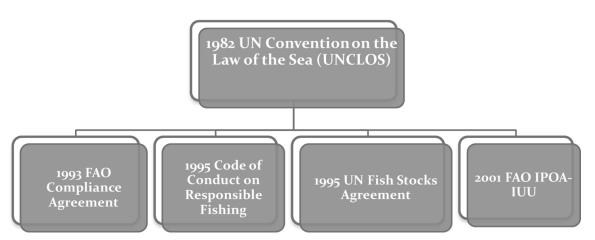


Figure 1 - Primary international instruments under UNCLOS that play a role in RFMOs

"These three instruments complement and mutually reinforce each other, highlighting the pivotal role of Regional Fisheries Management Organisations (RFMOs) in establishing a responsible international fisheries regime to promote and enhance data-collection and the exchange of data for assessing high seas resource potentials and developing profiles of all

target and non-target stocks. Within these agreements, the framework was set for meaningful advances in fisheries management and establishing RFMO's and observer schemes for monitoring, control and surveillance and scientific data collection."

UNITED NATIONS
CONVENTION ON THE
LAW OF THE SEA
(UNCLOS)³

The Law of the Sea Convention defines the rights and responsibilities of nations with respect to their use of the world's oceans, establishing guidelines for businesses, the environment, and the

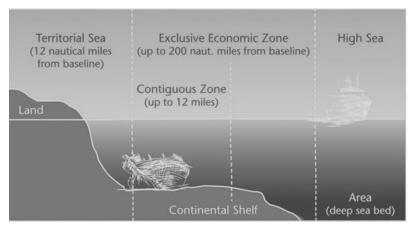


Figure 2 – UNCOLOS definition of world's oceans areas.

management of marine natural resources.

Key to managing the world's oceans was defining specific areas and the regulation and responsibility of these areas, these include:

TERRITORIAL SEA AND CONTIGUOUS ZONE

It is set at 12 nautical miles (22 224 meters), counted from the baseline (low-water line) or from the archipelagic baseline for archipelagic States. In the territorial sea, the coastal State has sovereign rights, as in its own territory and inland waters, to exercise all its laws, regulate all uses and exploit all resources; the State must however authorize the passage of warships and merchants in transit, provided that they do not harm the State, do not threaten its safety and do not infringe its laws: this is known as the right of innocent passage.

EXCLUSIVE ECONOMIC ZONE (EEZ)

Each coastal State may decide whether or not to establish an EEZ; it may then arbitrarily set its width, but the EEZ may not extend beyond 200 nm counted from the baseline. In the exclusive economic zone, the coastal State has:

<u>Article 56:</u> Rights, jurisdiction and duties of the coastal State in the exclusive economic zone

³ The *United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS)* is the international agreement that resulted from the third United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS III), which took place between 1973 and 1982.

Sovereign rights for the exploration and exploitation, the conservation and management of biological or non-biological natural resources, waters overlying the seabed, seabed and subsoil, as well as other activities aimed at the exploration and exploitation of the area for economic purposes, such as the production of energy from water, currents and winds;

Jurisdiction with respect to the establishment and use of artificial islands, facilities and structures, marine scientific research, protection and preservation of the marine environment.

<u>Article 61:</u> Conservation of the living resources;

Article 62: Utilization of the living resources;

<u>Article 63:</u> Stocks occurring within the exclusive economic zones of two or more coastal States or both within the exclusive economic zone and in an area beyond and adjacent to it;

Article 64: Highly migratory species.

Articles 61 to 64 specify that UNCLOS signatories have an obligation to utilise and conserve living resources, to monitor fisheries, to collect relevant data for their management, to prevent and deter illegal fishing (IUU), as well as provide Observers and specify fisheries research programmes and guidelines. In particular this relates to the UN Fish Stocks Agreement on highly migratory species and also on stocks of a transboundary nature (see below).

CONTINENTAL SHELF

The continental shelf of a coastal State includes the seabed and subsoil thereof to the outer edge of the continental margin or up to 200 nautical miles from the baselines when that outer edge is at a shorter distance. In this area coastal States have sovereign rights over the exploitation of the soil and subsoil resources (notably of hydrocarbon resources).

1993 FAO COMPLIANCE AGREEMENT

The 1993 FAO Compliance Agreement ⁴ applies to all fishing vessels that are used, or intended, for fishing on the high seas. A contracting Party is required to take such measures as may be necessary to ensure that fishing vessels entitled to fly its flag <u>do not engage</u> in any activity that undermines the effectiveness of international conservation and management measures. In particular, no Party shall allow any fishing vessel entitled to fly its flag to be used for fishing on the high seas unless it has been authorized to be so used by the

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⁴ Is a binding agreement.

appropriate authority or authorities of that Party. A fishing vessel so authorized shall fish in accordance with the conditions of the authorization.

FAO CODE OF CONDUCT FOR RESPONSIBLE FISHERIES⁵

The United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) adopted the FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries on 31 October 19956 "with a view to ensuring the effective conservation, management and development of bio-aquatic resources with respect for ecosystems and biodiversity". The code of conduct serves as the basis for ecosystembased fisheries management. Within the framework of this agreement, International Action Plans (IAPs) have been developed for the protection of seabirds and sharks, as well as for the fight against IUU fishing.

UN FISH STOCKS AGREEMENT (UNFSA)⁷

The Agreement for the Implementation of the Provisions of the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea of 10 December 1982 relating to the Conservation and Management of Straddling Fish Stocks⁸ and Highly Migratory Fish Stocks⁹ is a multilateral treaty created by the United Nations to enhance the cooperative management of fisheries resources that span wide areas, and are of economic and environmental concern to a number of nations. The Agreement adopted in 1995, came into force in 2001 and has been ratified, of December 2016, by 84 parties, which includes 83 states and the European Union.

The Agreement under Article 18: Duties of the flag State, includes the basis for the establishment of observer programs.

Articles under the UNFSA relevant to Scientific Observer Programmes include:

• Article 5: Agreement General Principles;

The duties and responsibilities of States in relation to the conservation and management of straddling and highly migratory fish stocks, Sub-paragraphs;

(f) minimize pollution, waste, discards, catch by lost or abandoned gear, catch of nontarget species, both fish and non-fish species, (hereinafter referred to as non-target species) and impacts on associated or dependent species, in particular endangered species, through measures including, to the extent practicable, the development and use of selective, environmentally safe and cost-effective fishing gear and techniques;

http://www.fao.org/fi/agreem/codecond/codecon.asp

⁶ Is a voluntary agreement

⁷ https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Straddling Fish Stocks Agreement

⁸ Straddling stocks are fish stocks that migrate through, or occur in, more than one exclusive economic zone. Straddling fish stocks are especially vulnerable to overexploitation because of ineffective management regimes and noncompliance by fishing interests.

⁹ Highly migratory fish refers to fish species which undertake ocean migrations and also have wide geographic distributions, and usually denotes tuna and tuna-like species, shark, marlin and swordfish.

- (g) protect biodiversity in the marine environment;
- (j) collect and share, in a timely manner, complete and accurate data concerning fishing activities on, inter alia, vessel position, catch of target and non-target species and fishing effort, as set out in Annex I, as well as information from national and international research programmes; and
- (I) implement and enforce conservation and management measures through effective monitoring, control and surveillance.
- Article 18: Duties of the flag State;

Paragraph 1. A State whose vessels fish on the high seas shall take such measures as may be necessary to ensure that vessels flying its flag comply with sub-regional and regional conservation and management measures and that such vessel do not engage in any activity which undermines the effectiveness of such measures;

Paragraph 2. A State shall authorize the use of vessels flying its flag for fishing on the high seas only where it is able to exercise effectively its responsibilities in respect of such vessels under the Convention and this Agreement;

Paragraph 3. Measures to be taken by a State in respect of vessels flying its flag shall include:

- (i) to apply terms and conditions to the licence, authorization or permit sufficient to fulfil any sub-regional, regional or global obligations of the flag State;
- (g) monitoring, control and surveillance of such vessels, their fishing operations and related activities by, inter alia:
 - (ii) the implementation of national observer programmes and sub-regional and regional observer programmes in which the flag State is a participant, including requirements for such vessels to permit access by observers from other States to carry out the functions agreed under the programmes.

RATIONALE FOR THE IOTC-REGIONAL OBSERVER SCHEME

Taking into account the objectives of the agreements above and in terms of its mission as an intergovernmental organisation under Article XIV of the FAO constitution, the mandate of the IOTC is to manage tuna and tuna-like species in the Indian Ocean and adjacent seas. In order to achieve these objectives, the Commission has identified the following functions and responsibilities, in accordance with the principles expressed in the relevant provisions of the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea:

1. to keep under review the conditions and trends of the stocks;

- 2. to gather, analyse and disseminate scientific information, catch and effort statistics and other data relevant to the conservation and management of the stocks and fisheries based on the stocks covered by the IOTC Agreement;
- 3. to encourage, recommend, and coordinate research and development activities in respect of the stocks and fisheries covered by this Agreement, and such other activities as the Commission may decide appropriate, including activities connected with transfer of technology, training and enhancement, having due regard to the need to ensure the equitable participation of Members of the Commission in the fisheries and the special interests and needs of members in the region that are developing countries;
- 4. to adopt, on the basis of scientific evidence, conservation and management measures (CMMs) to ensure the conservation of the stocks covered by this Agreement and to promote the objective of their optimum utilisation throughout the Area; and
- 5. to keep under review the economic and social aspects of the fisheries based on the stocks covered by this Agreement bearing in mind, in particular, the interests of developing coastal states.

The aim of the IOTC ROS is to "collect verified catch data and other scientific data related to the fisheries for tuna and tuna-like species in the IOTC area of competence¹⁰". This will provide independent, reliable, verified and accurate information on catch, effort, fishing practices and the fate of non-target species for a sample of all types of vessel operating within the IOTC area of competence. This information is essential to fisheries managers, research organisations and environmental agencies for stock assessments and the responsible management and conservation of living marine resources. The IOTC Regional Observer Scheme was adopted in Resolution 11/04 to support the Commission in meeting these obligations and functions.

The framework of the IOTC ROS, is centred around five key components that aim to tackle each of the key issues that currently undermine the collection and analysis of high-quality data to contribute to stock assessment and management advice. The five components seek to resolve these issues through the development of new technologies, tools, standards and processes and their operationalisation in selected voluntary CPCs.

• Component 1: addresses the problem of establishing observer programmes where there are few resources, expertise and experiences to draw on through the development of a full observer training programme package.

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¹⁰ Paragraph 1 of IOTC Resolution 11/04 On a regional observer scheme.

- Component 2: aims to tackle the issues with poor data reporting through the
 development of an electronic reporting tool which will facilitate the submission of
 data at both the national and regional level, improving the quality of data through
 error-checking procedures and creating time-saving efficiencies for CPCs and the
 IOTC Secretariat.
- Component 3: consists on the development of a regional database to host observer data and the population of this database with historic data that has been submitted in non-standard formats or has not yet been submitted at all due to various reasons.
- Component 4: entails the development of Electronic Monitoring Systems (EMS) for small-scale fisheries, specifically gillnet fleets, in the Indian Ocean.
- Component 5: involves the development of data collection protocols for port sampling to complement data collected by EMS and onboard observers.

Components 1 and 2 of the IOTC ROS will be met through the development of a full observer training programme package (Co-ordinators and Field Observers), establishment of observer programmes and training, and the piloting of IOTC ROS Electronic tools and methods in voluntary CPCs. Components 3, 4 and 5 will be met through complementary programmes managed by the IOTC and implemented by participating CPCs.

PART A: ENSURING FISHERIES SUSTAINABLE MANAGEMENT

BACKGROUND TO TROPICAL TUNA FISHING IN THE INDIAN OCEAN

The Indian Ocean is the world's third largest ocean, covering over 70 million square kilometres, from east Africa to the southern tip of Asia, and along the western Australian coast. It is one of the world's most economically important fishing areas accounting for up to 20 percent of the world's production of tuna, making it the second largest region for tuna fishing

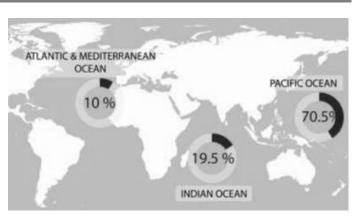


Figure 3- World map of large pelagic fishing (© OVPOI)

after the western and Central Pacific Ocean 11.

Tuna and tuna-like species represent the most widely shared marine resource in the Indian Ocean basin and are among the most important marine species for the global economy. As a result, the Indian Ocean region harbours abundant and highly prized fishery resources intensively harvested by Asian and European fleets as well as artisanal fisheries from coastal countries. In general, the production of coastal species is much higher than that of oceanic species, such as tunas, yet the southwestern Indian Ocean has the peculiarity that oceanic and coastal fisheries contribute to production roughly to the same extent.

Neritic or coastal species generally predominate in coastal country catches (with some notable exceptions of the Maldives, Sri Lanka and Indonesia), while the distant water fishing nations target tropical and temperate oceanic tunas and, to a lesser extent, billfish (mainly swordfish). Two industrial fleets share the catches of these large pelagic fish: the tropical tuna purse-seine fleet (mainly European) and the industrial tuna longline fleet (mainly Asian).

Despite lower coastal catches, fisheries and related economic activities are often important to local economies where tuna is of major importance for food security and constitutes a major socio-economic pillar. It is estimated that 60% of the industrial tuna fishery in the Indian Ocean is carried out on the high seas outside the control (EEZ) of a given country. For this reason, several international and regional agreements exist to promote the sustainable management of the resources of the Indian Ocean:

- The 1982 United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS);
- The FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries in 1995;

¹¹ ISSF. 2019. Status of the world fisheries for tuna. Mar. 2019. ISSF Technical Report 2019-07. International Seafood Sustainability Foundation, Washington, D.C., USA.

- The 1994 Convention for the establishment of a Regional Fisheries Body to manage Southern Bluefin Tuna (SBT), the Commission for the Conservation of Southern Bluefin Tuna (CCSBT);
- The 1996 Agreement for the establishment of a Regional Fisheries Organisation to manage Tuna and Tuna-like Resources in the Indian Ocean, the Indian Ocean Tuna Commission (IOTC);

BASIC CONCEPTS OF FISHERIES MANAGEMENT

To understand the objectives of the IOTC in the management of the tuna fishery in the Indian Ocean it is necessary to understand the basic principles of fisheries management.

General Concepts

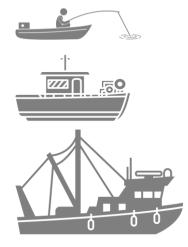
What is a "Fishery" 12?

A fishery is an organized effort by humans to catch fish or other aquatic species, an activity known as fishing.

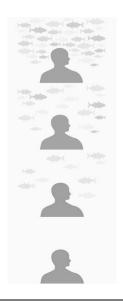
Depending on the scale, degree of sophistication of gears, and on the method of fishing used, fisheries can be subdivided into:

- artisanal;
- semi-industrial; and
- industrial fisheries.

Fisheries are a huge global business and provide income for millions of people and continue to be culturally important



for many communities.



How many fish are there?

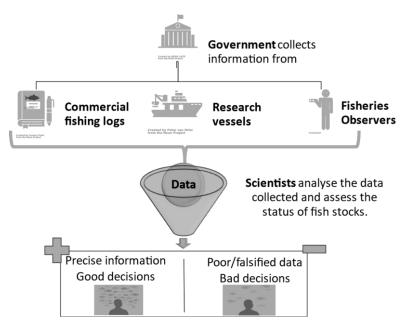
Unlike trees, which can be counted, fish are effectively invisible. Initially it was thought that the resources of the sea were unlimited and fishing was done without control. Over time, the reduction in catches and in the average size of the fish made it possible to highlight problems of:

- overfishing;
- the impacts of fishing on the ecosystem; and

 $^{^{\}rm 12}$ Groeneveld, J. and Heinecken, C. SWIOFP Observer Manual. SWIOFP, 2010

economic and social impacts.

In order to improve knowledge on the catches, size and distribution of fish populations, governments (Ministries of Fisheries), universities, public research, and private and international research companies collect information through the use of commercial fishing logs, research vessels, or the deployment of Fisheries Observers. Scientists use these data to conduct *Fishery Research*.



What is "Fishery Research"?

Fisheries studies allow us to understand the factors that influence the biomass (*total biological weight of a certain species in in a managed stock*) of fish populations (recruitment, growth, natural mortality / fishing, etc.), to try to give an integrated picture of the fishery and how it affects fish populations.

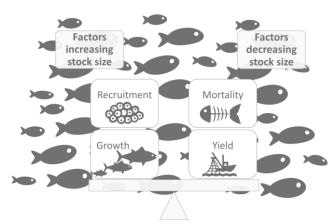


Figure 4 - Factors that influence the biomass of fish populations.

Scientists use statistical methods and models to analyse the data collected and assess the status of fish stocks. These assessments require precise information since poor or falsified data can have an extremely serious impact on the management of a certain fishery and may lead to erroneous decisions in the implementation of the rules of "Fishery Management".

What is "Fisheries Science"?

Fisheries science is the academic discipline of understanding and managing fisheries. It draws on the disciplines of *biology, ecology, oceanography, economics* and *management* to provide an integrated picture of fisheries, and how it affects fish populations.

It focuses on the different modes of exploitation and management (fishing, aquaculture) of living species (plant or animal) in all aquatic environments (sea and fresh water). It tends gradually to integrate new dimensions such as:

- the availability of fish to catch (overfishing);
- development of *sustainable fisheries*;
- the *management of the resource* or even its restoration;
- fisheries management (economic impact) and
- the *impact of fishing on the environment*, such as by-catch.

What is "Fisheries Management"?



Fisheries Management is often referred to as a governmental system of management rules based on defined objectives and a mix of management means to implement these rules. Fisheries management involves regulating when, where, how, and how much fishermen are allowed to catch to ensure that there will be fish in the future.

The objectives of fisheries management may include the following:

- secure and increase employment in certain regions;
- secure protein production and food supply;
- maximise sustainable biomass yield and /or economic yield;
- increase income from export;
- prevent overfishing while achieving optimum yield;
- be based upon the best scientific information available;
- manage individual stocks as a unit throughout their range;
- minimize bycatch or mortality from bycatch;
- promote ecosystem-based management (EAF); and
- promote safety of human life at sea.

In most countries, fisheries departments are responsible for fisheries management within their "Exclusive Economic Zone" (EEZ) and use *POLICIES* and *REGULATIONS* as tools for managing their fisheries. These are often based on the internationally agreed codes such as the United Nations "Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries" and the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS).

International agreements are also required to regulate fisheries taking place in areas outside national control known as *high seas areas*. These are undertaken by Regional Fisheries Management Organisations (RFMOs).

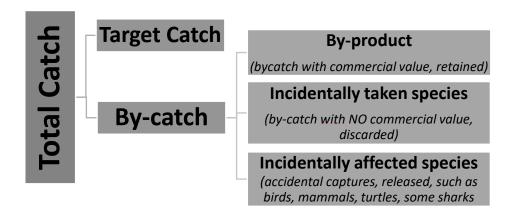
International protocols and the basis from which RFMOs and other maritime issues are managed are described in the Law of the Sea, in the treaty known as the UNCLOS, 1995, New York Treaty.

In turn, RFMOs give rise to a range of conventions establishing conditions for fisheries management, incidental catches of seabirds, cetaceans, turtles and sharks, and combating IUU (Illegal, Unregulated and Unreported) fishing.

IOTC Fisheries Concepts Relevant to Scientific Observer Work 13

Certain fisheries concepts vary from country to country and sometimes even in country, from one organisation to another. Here we list fisheries concepts relevant to Scientific Observer work as defined by the IOTC. These include the concept of:

- catch;
- target catch (and species);
- bycatch (and species); and
- by-product (or retained catch)



Target species

A species that is, or has been, specifically targeted and is, or has been, a significant component of a fishery. The target species will be listed in the permit provided by its flag State (vessels authorisation to fish).



Bycatch species

All species, other than the 16 species listed in Annex B of the IOTC Agreement, caught or interacted with by fisheries for tuna and tuna-like species in the IOTC area of competence. A bycatch species includes those non-IOTC species which are (a) retained (by-product), (b) incidentally taken in a fishery and returned to the sea (discarded); or (c) incidentally affected by interacting with fishing equipment in the fishery, but not taken.



By-product

Bycatch with commercial value are non-target species which are retained. These can be sent to the kitchen, prepared by crew members, given to



 $^{^{13}}$ IOTC glossary of scientific terms, acronyms and abbreviations, 2015

dockers, discarded, sold to specialized companies. They can include marlins, dorado dolphinfish, juvenile tunas, etc. and can represent an important part of the global catch.

Incidentally taken species

Bycatch species of no commercial value such as fish species, crustaceans or other non-target organisms without commercial interest, not marketable for reasons of size (immature, juvenile), prohibited from fishing, or from being hauled on-board.



Incidentally affected species

Bycatch species that accidentally interact with fishing equipment in the fishery, that are not taken but released to the sea (cetaceans, seals, turtles, birds, etc.). Some of these species may be considered protected, endangered or threatened (PET).



IOTC Species of Special Interest (SSI)

Species of Special Interest include all marine turtles, all marine mammals, all seabirds, shark species with a retention ban: whale sharks (Res 13/05), oceanic white tip sharks (Res 13/06) and thresher sharks (Res 12/09.); and billfish species included in Res 18/05: striped, black and blue marlin and Indo-Pacific sailfish (IOTC–2018–SC21–R[E]).



Discards

Any part of the catch that is returned to the sea, whether dead or alive.

Retained catch

Any part of the catch that is retained on-board. It can be sent to the kitchen, prepared by crew members, given to dockers or sold to specialized companies.



Fish aggregating device (FAD)

Anchored, drifting, floating, swimming or submerged object or group of objects, of any size, that has or has not been deployed, that is living or non-living, including but not limited to buoys, floats, netting, webbing, plastics, bamboo, logs, whales and whale sharks that fish may associate with.















FADs can be:

- natural floating objects (logs), or.
- artificial [man made]
 - o anchored (aFAD)

- coastal aFAD (A);
- archipelagic aFAD (B)
- o drifting (dFAD) (C)

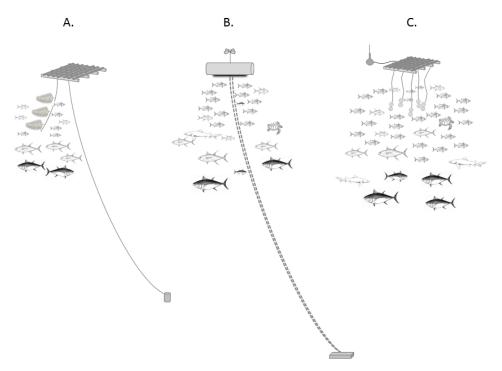


Figure 5 - Schematic drawing of three FADs. (A) Coastal anchored FAD; (B) Archipelagic anchored FAD; (C) Drifting oceanic FAD (© Bush, S. R., & Mol, A. P. (2014). Governing in a placeless environment: Sustainability and fish aggregating devices).

Anchored Fish Aggregating Device (AFAD)

Any 'FAD' which is anchored to the substratum.

Drifting fish aggregating device (DFAD)

Any 'FAD' which is not anchored to the substratum, but left to drift freely in ocean currents.

Free-school

A school of fish which are not associated with any object (FAD).

Associated school

A school of fish which is associated with an object (FAD).

Unfit for human consumption

"Unfit for human consumption" are fish that:

- is meshed or crushed in the purse seine; or
- is damaged due to depredation; or
- has died and spoiled in the net where a gear failure has prevented both the normal retrieval of the net and catch, and efforts to release the fish alive.









"Unfit for human consumption" does not include fish that:

- is considered undesirable in terms of size, marketability, or species composition; or
- is spoiled or contaminated as the result of an act or omission of the crew of the fishing vessel.

THE INDIAN OCEAN TUNA COMMISSION (IOTC)

Geography and Political
Dimension of the Indian Ocean
Region

The Indian Ocean Tuna Commission (IOTC) is the main body responsible for the management of tuna and tuna-like species in the Indian Ocean and shares these objectives with four other tuna RFMOs covering the ocean regions of the world (Figure 6).

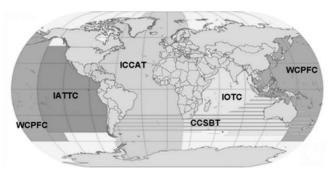


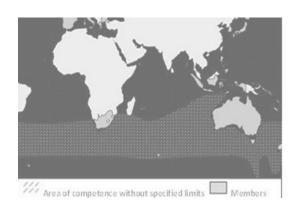
Figure 6 - The six RFMOs that manage tuna and tuna like species.

Its main objective is to promote the sustainable use of all tuna and tuna like fishery resources in the Indian Ocean.

Another tuna regional fisheries management body that co-exists with the IOTC in the Indian Ocean is the Commission for the Conservation of Southern Bluefin Tuna (CCSBT) with its main objective is to ensure, through appropriate management the conservation and optimum utilisation of southern bluefin tuna.

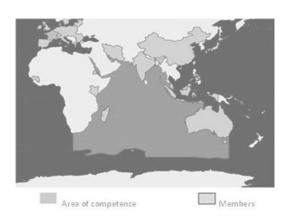
CCSBT AREA OF COMPETENCE

The CCSBT area of competence extends over all national waters and the high seas, where southern Bluefin tuna are found. Members of the Extended Commission comprise: Australia, the European Union, the Fishing Entity of Taiwan, Indonesia, Japan, Republic of Korea, New Zealand and South Africa. Cooperating Non-Members comprise: the Philippines.



IOTC AREA OF COMPETENCE

The area of competence of the Commission extends over national waters and the high seas of the Indian Ocean, defined for the purpose of the Agreement as being FAO Statistical Areas 51 and 57, and adjacent seas, north of the Antarctic Convergence, insofar as it is necessary to cover such seas for the purpose of conserving and



managing stocks that migrate into or out of the Indian Ocean.

In 1999, the Commission extended the western boundary of the IOTC statistical area from 30°E to 20°E, thus eliminating the gap in between the areas covered by the IOTC and ICCAT.

Background to IOTC, Structure, Members and Dynamics

ESTABLISHMENT

The IOTC is an intergovernmental organisation that was established by the FAO Council in Rome in 1993 and came into force in 1996. The objective of the Commission is to promote cooperation among its members with a view to ensuring, through appropriate management, the conservation and optimum utilisation of tuna and tuna-like stocks covered by the IOTC Agreement and encouraging sustainable development of fisheries based on such stocks (IOTC ROS OM v1.21, 2015).

IOTC MEMBERSHIP

The Commission is open to any Indian Ocean coastal countries and to countries or regional economic integration organisations which are members of the United Nations (UN) or one of its specialised agencies, and are fishing for tunas or tuna-like species in the Indian Ocean. Currently (December 2022), there are 30 Contracting Parties and one Cooperating Non-Contracting Parties, collectively termed CPCs.

Table 1: Current membership of the IOTC Commission IOTC Cooperating Contracting Parties (CCP)

Australia	Japan	Philippines
Bangladesh	Kenya	Seychelles
China	Korea, Republic of	Sierra Leone
Comoros	Madagascar	Somalia
Eritrea	Malaysia	South Africa
European Union	Maldives	Sri Lanka
France	Mauritius	Sudan
India	Mozambique	Tanzania
Indonesia	Oman, Sultanate of	Thailand
Iran, Islamic Rep. of	Pakistan	United Kingdom
		Yemen

IOTC Cooperating Non-Contracting Parties (CNCP)
Liberia

ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE IOTC

The IOTC Commission is supported by three committees that include representatives of each Member State and a permanent Secretariat (Figure 7). The Commission is the primary decision-making body and supporting committees include the:

- Scientific Committee (supported by a number of specialised working parties);
- Compliance Committee; and
- Standing Committee on Administration and Finance.

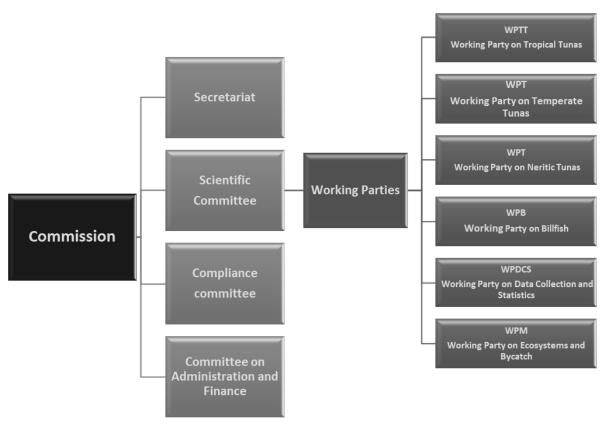


Figure 7: Schematic diagram of the IOTC organisation.

THE COMMISSION

Representatives of the Contracting Parties make up the Commission at its annual meetings and this is the main decision-making body. Subsidiary bodies set up by the Commission (Figure 7) analyse different types of data and information. These associated bodies have specific functions and are responsible to the Commission and refer their conclusions and recommendations back to the Commission for final decision-making.

At each Session of the Commission, Members may adopt Conservation and Management Measures (CMMs) concerning the management of tuna and tuna-like species under the IOTC mandate as well as the fisheries which target them. These decisions are passed in the form of either Resolutions or Recommendations.

The Commission is the only body authorised to take decisions that are published as IOTC Resolutions, which are binding on Members. It is the responsibility of Members to ensure that action is taken under their national legislation to implement CMMs, which become binding on it.

Recommendations adopted by the Commission concerning conservation and management of the stocks for furthering the objectives of the IOTC Agreement, are not binding and are acceded to on a voluntary basis by Members. The Members of the Commission are also expected to cooperate in the exchange of information regarding any fishing for stocks covered by the Agreement by nationals of any State or entity, which is not a Member of the Commission.

A permanent Secretariat provides the administrative support for the Commission and its subsidiary bodies. The IOTC Secretariat consists of the Executive Secretary, appointed by the Director-General of the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) with the approval of the Commission, and staff appointed by him/her to support the Commission in the implementation of policies through administration activities, data management, capacity building, scientific and other support activities as requested by the Commission, the Scientific Committee and the Working Parties.

Function and Responsibilities¹⁴

The Commission has four key functions and responsibilities which enable it to achieve its objectives. They are drawn from the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS), and are:

- to keep under review the conditions and trends of the stocks and to gather, analyse
 and disseminate scientific information, catch and effort statistics and other data
 relevant to the conservation and management of the stocks and to fisheries based on
 the stocks;
- to encourage, recommend, and coordinate research and development activities in respect of the stocks and fisheries covered by the IOTC, and such other activities as the Commission may decide appropriate, such as transfer of technology, training and enhancement, having due regard to the need to ensure the equitable participation of Members of the Commission in the fisheries and the special interests and needs of Members in the region that are developing countries

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¹⁴ http://www.iotc.org

- to adopt on the basis of scientific evidence Conservation and Management
 Measures (CMM) to ensure the conservation of the stocks covered by the Agreement
 and to promote the objective of their optimum utilisation throughout the Area;
- to keep under review the economic and social aspects of the fisheries based on the stocks covered by the Agreement bearing in mind, in particular, the interests of developing coastal States.

THE SCIENTIFIC COMMITTEE

The Scientific Committee (SC) advises the Commission on research and data collection and, on management issues and the status of stocks. The meetings of the Scientific Committee are held some months prior to the meetings of the Commission. In addition, the Commission has established a number of Working Parties for specific purposes (Figure 7).

The most common objective of the Working Parties is to provide the Scientific Committee with analyses of the status of the stocks and possible management actions, while some Working Parties (such as the Working Party on Data Collection and Statistics) were established to analyse and provide recommendations on specific technical problems.

THE SECRETARIAT

The Secretariat is a fully staffed office that is run throughout the year. The Executive Secretary, who is appointed by the Commission manages the Secretariat on a day-to-day basis. The offices of the IOTC Secretariat are located in Victoria, Seychelles.

The mission of the Secretariat is to facilitate the processes required to implement the policies and activities of the Commission whose goal is to achieve the objectives stated in the IOTC Agreement. In essence, these processes include the acquisition, processing and dissemination of information that constitutes the basis for the Commission's decisions, as well as supporting the actions taken by the Members and Cooperating Parties to implement those decisions effectively.

In order to provide support to the scientific activities of the Commission and its subsidiary bodies there is close cooperation between the data section and the science section in the production of datasets and analyses that will assist the Scientific Committee and its Working Parties to formulate its advices to the Commission.

Similarly, the data section and the compliance section cooperate in the maintenance of the databases needed to monitor the effectiveness in the implementation of the measures adopted by the Members.

The Secretariat is also involved in the implementation of projects that further the objectives of the Commission. With respect to providing public information, the Secretariat has developed a website in which comprehensive information resources converge.

The website, which is found under www.iotc.org pools resources such as reports, and databases (complete with web-based query interfaces), in order to provide CPCs with all the information they may use in order to honour their duties under the agreement.

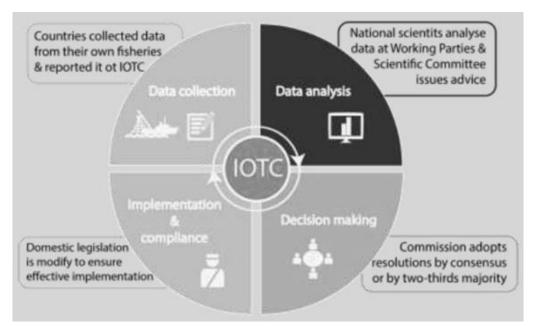


Figure 8 - Process for the establishment and implementation of IOTC Conservation and Management Measures

MAIN SPECIES UNDER IOTC MANAGEMENT

Sixteen (16) species are under the management mandate of the IOTC. In addition, the Commission has instructed the IOTC Secretariat to collate data on non-target, associated and dependent species affected by fisheries targeting tuna and tuna-like species in the IOTC area of competence. Note that one of the 16 species (Southern Bluefin tuna) was signed over to the Commission for the Conservation of Southern Bluefin Tuna (CCSBT) for management purposes.

Conservation and Management Measures Relevant to Scientific Observers

The full compendium of IOTC CMMs can be downloaded from the website at: http://www.iotc.org/cmms and may be subject to change by the IOTC at future meetings of the Commission. Observers need to have access to these and review the most recent CMM's as they become available.

Below are a number of resolutions, the content thereof that observers should be aware of.

GENERAL RESOLUTIONS

IOTC Resolution 11/04: On a Regional Observer Scheme

IOTC Resolution 11/04 *On a Regional Observer Scheme* is the mandate that provides the foundations of the development IOTC Regional Observer Scheme and covers the requirements which are binding on all CPCs. It is important for observers to be fully

conversant with this Resolution as it provides the mandate for them to be onboard a vessel and specifies their role and tasks that have to be accomplished in meeting the objective of the Resolution.

At the 13th Session of the Commission (S13), the IOTC Commission adopted Resolution 09/04 on a Regional Observer Scheme, which was superseded in 2010 by Resolution 10/04, and again in 2011 by Resolution 11/04. In the adoption of Resolution 11/04 on a Regional Observer Scheme, the IOTC Commission recognised that observer programs are used successfully at both the national and Regional Fisheries Management Organization (RFMO) level for the purposes of collecting scientific information.

It further acknowledged the United Nations General Assembly Sustainable Fisheries Resolution 63/112, which encourages the development of observer programs by regional fisheries management organizations and arrangements to improve data collection in their area of management.

The Commission also emphasised that in terms of Articles IX and XI of the IOTC Agreement, Contracting Parties and Cooperating Non-Contracting Parties (hereinafter CPCs) have the obligation to fully comply with the IOTC Conservation and Management Measures and are required to furnish, on the request of the Commission, any available statistical, biological and other scientific information needed for the purposes of the Agreement in maintaining the resources of tuna and tuna-like fishes of the Indian Ocean.

Further acknowledging, that the adoption of this measure is intended to assist in the increase of information to help support IOTC scientific research for tuna and tuna-like species and the implementation of Conservation and Management Measures in order to improve the management of the tuna and tuna-like species fished in the Indian Ocean.

Paragraph 2 of the Resolution requires specifically "that each CPC is to implement a <u>national observer program</u> in order to improve the collection of scientific data, on at least 5-% of the number of operations/sets for each gear type by their fleet while fishing in the IOTC area of competence, on vessels of 24 meters overall length and over (within both their Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) and on the high seas), and for vessels under 24 meters if they fish outside their EEZ."

Paragraph 5 of the resolution requires that "CPCs shall:

- a) Have the primary responsibility to obtain qualified observers. Each CPC may choose to use either deployed national or non-national of the flag State of the vessel on which they are deployed;
- b) Endeavour that the minimum level of coverage is met and that the observed vessels are a representative sample of the gear types active in their fleet;
- c) Take all necessary measures to ensure that observers are able to carry out their duties in a competent and safe manner;

- d) Endeavour to ensure that the observers' alternate vessels between their assignments.

 Observers are not to perform duties, other than those described in paragraphs 10 and 11 below;
- e) Ensure that the vessel on which an observer is placed shall provide suitable food and lodging during the observer's deployment at the same level as the officers, where possible. Vessel masters shall ensure that all necessary cooperation is extended to observers in order for them to carry out their duties safely including providing access, as required, to the retained catch, and catch which is intended to be discarded."

Paragraph 9 requires that "CPCs shall provide to the IOTC Executive Secretary and the IOTC Scientific Committee annually a report of the number of vessels monitored and the coverage achieved by gear type in accordance with the provisions of this Resolution."

Paragraph 10 outlines the tasks of the observer while onboard and include specifically:

"Observers shall:

- a) Record and report fishing activities, verify positions of the vessel;
- b) Observe and estimate catches as far as possible with a view to identifying catch composition and monitoring discards, by-catches and size frequency;
- c) Record the gear type, mesh size and attachments employed by the master;
- d) Collect information to enable the cross-checking of entries made to the logbooks (species composition and quantities, live and processed weight and location, where available); and
- e) Carry out such scientific work (for example, collecting samples), as requested by the IOTC Scientific Committee."

It is important that the training provides comprehensively the observer with the skills to achieve these objectives.

Paragraph 11 requires "The observer shall, within 30 days of completion of each trip, provide a report to the CPCs of the vessel."

Observers must be fully aware of the need to prepare and write these reports at the completion of each trip and requires them to maintain a continuous record of events that occur throughout a trip to meet this requirement.

In order for the observer to fully achieve the objectives of Resolution 11/04 it is highly recommended that observers are also aware and conversant with the Resolutions outlined below and are at any time confident in consulting most up to date IOTC - Compendium of ACTIVE CMMs and where relevant can accurately cross reference these in their reports. Although observers are not deployed as compliance officers in terms of this scheme, awareness of these Resolutions will assist in their reporting on vessels compliance or non-compliance and the effectiveness of vessels conforming to the Resolutions.

IOTC Resolution 15/03: On the vessel monitoring system (VMS) programme

Paragraph 4: Each Contracting Party and Cooperating Non-Contracting Party (CPC) shall adopt a satellite-based vessel monitoring system (VMS) for all vessels flying its flag 24 metres in length overall or above or in case of vessels less than 24 meters, those operating in waters outside the Economic Exclusive Zone of the Flag State fishing for species covered by the IOTC Agreement within the IOTC area of competence.

IOTC Resolution 16/07: On the use of artificial lights to attract fish to drifting fish aggregating devices

Paragraph 1: Fishing Vessels including support and supply vessels flying the flag of an IOTC Contracting Parties or Cooperating Non-Contracting Party (collectively CPCs) are prohibited from installing or operating surface or submerged artificial lights for the purpose of aggregating tuna and tuna-like species or non-target, associated or dependent species on drifting Fish Aggregating Devices (DFADs).

Paragraph 2: CPCs shall prohibit their flagged vessels from intentionally setting a purse seine net around a DFAD equipped with artificial light for the purpose of attracting fish under the mandate of IOTC and in the IOTC area of competence.

Paragraph 3: DFADs equipped with artificial lights, which are encountered by fishing vessels operating in the IOTC area of competence, should as far as possible be removed and brought back to port.

IOTC Resolution 17/07: To prohibit the use of large-scale driftnets on the high seas in the IOTC area

Paragraph 2: The use of large-scale driftnets¹⁵ on the high seas within the IOTC area of competence shall be prohibited. The use of large-scale driftnets in the entire IOTC area of competence shall be prohibited by 1 January 2022.

IOTC Resolution 18/03: On establishing a list of vessels presumed to have carried out illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing (IUU) in the IOTC area of competence.

Observers should be on the lookout for any vessel suspected of IUU fishing activity or any vessel currently listed on the IUU vessel list. Any information regarding those activities or those vessels can be reported to the IOTC Secretariat through the national observer program coordinator.

IOTC Resolution 19/02: Procedures on a fish aggregating devices (FADs) management plan

Paragraph 1: Definitions

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¹⁵ "Large-scale driftnets" are defined as gillnets or other nets or a combination of nets that are more than 2.5 kilometres in length whose purpose is to enmesh, entrap, or entangle fish by drifting on the surface of, or in, the water column.

For the purpose of this Resolution:

- a) Fish Aggregating Device (FAD) means a permanent, semi-permanent or temporary object, structure or device of any material, man-made or natural, which is deployed and/or tracked, for the purpose of aggregating target tuna species for consequent capture.
- b) Drifting Fish Aggregating Devices (DFADs) means a FAD not tethered to the bottom of the ocean. A DFAD typically has a floating structure (such as a bamboo or metal raft with buoyancy provided by buoys, corks, etc.) and a submerged structure (made of old netting, canvass, ropes, etc.).
- c) Anchored Fish Aggregating Devices (AFADs) means a FAD tethered to the bottom of the ocean. It usually consists of a very large buoy and anchored to the bottom of the ocean with a chain.
- d) Instrumented buoy means a buoy with a clearly marked with a unique reference number allowing identification of its owner and equipped with a satellite tracking system to monitor its position.
- e) Operational buoy means any instrumented buoy, previously activated, switched on and deployed at sea on a drifting FAD or log, which transmit position and any other available information such as eco-sounder estimates.
- f) Activation of a buoy means the act of initializing satellite communication service, which is done by the buoy supplier company at the request of the vessel owner or manager.
- g) Deactivation of a buoy means the act of cancelling satellite communications service, which is done by the buoy supplier company at the request of the vessel owner or manager.
- h) Buoy owner means any legal or natural person, entity or branch, who is paying for the communication service for the buoy associated with a FAD, and/or who is authorized to receive information from the satellite buoy, as well as to request its activation and/or deactivation.
- i) Reactivation: the act of re-enabling satellite communications services by the buoy supplier company at the request of the buoy owner or manager.
- j) Buoy in stock means an instrumented buoy acquired by the owner which has not been made operational.

Paragraph 2: This Resolution shall apply to CPCs having purse seine vessels and fishing on Drifting Fish Aggregating Devices (DFADs), equipped with instrumented buoys for the purpose of aggregating target tuna species, in the IOTC area of competence. Only purse

seiners and associated supply or support vessels are allowed to deploy DFADs in the IOTC Area of Competence.

Paragraph 3: This resolution requires the use of instrumented buoy, as per the above definition, on all DFADs and prohibits the use of any other buoys, such as radio buoys, not meeting this definition.

Non-entangling and biodegradable FADs

Paragraph 17: To reduce the entanglement of sharks, marine turtles or any other species, CPCs shall require their flagged vessels to use non-entangling designs and materials in the construction of FADs as outlined in <u>Annex V</u>.

Paragraph 18: To reduce the amount of synthetic marine debris, the use of natural or biodegradable materials in FAD construction should be promoted. CPCs shall encourage their flag vessels to use biodegradable FADs in accordance with the guidelines at Annex V with a view to transitioning to the use of biodegradable FADs, with the exception of materials used for the instrumented buoys, by their flag vessel from 1 January 2022. CPCs shall, from 1 January 2022, encourage their flag vessels to remove from the water, retain onboard and only dispose of in port, all traditional FADs encountered (e.g., those made of entangling materials or designs). The reference year prescribed above shall be reviewed in light of the Scientific Committee's recommendation pursuant to Resolution 18/04 On BioFAD experimental project.

FAD Marking

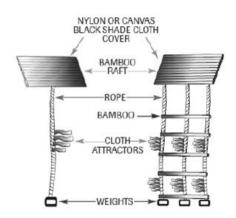
Paragraph 20: A new marking scheme shall be developed by the ad-hoc FAD working group and shall be considered by the Commission at its regular annual session in 2020.

Paragraph 21: Until the marking scheme referred to in paragraph 20 is adopted, CPCs shall ensure that the instrumented buoy attached to the DFAD contain a physical, unique reference number marking (ID provided by the manufacturer of the instrumented buoy) and the vessel unique IOTC registration number clearly visible.

ANNEX V PRINCIPLES FOR DESIGN AND DEPLOYMENT OF FADS

EXAMPLE OF NON-ENTANGLING FAD

- The surface structure of the FAD shall not be covered, or only covered with non-meshed material
- 2. If a sub-surface component is used, it shall not be made from netting but from non-meshed



materials such as ropes or canvas sheets.

IOTC Resolution 19/06: On establishing a programme for transhipment by large-scale fishing vessels

Paragraph 1: Except under the programme to monitor transhipments at sea outlined below in Section 2, all transhipment operations of tuna and tuna-like species and sharks caught in association with tuna and tuna-like fisheries in the IOTC area of competence (hereinafter referred to as "tuna and tuna like species and sharks") must take place in port.

Paragraph 2: The flag Contracting Parties and Cooperating Non-Contracting Parties (collectively termed CPCs) shall take the necessary measures to ensure that large scale tuna vessels¹⁶ (hereafter referred as the "LSTVs") flying their flag comply with the obligations set out in Annex I when transhipping in port.

Paragraph 3: <u>Transhipment operations within the Maldives between pole and line fishing vessels, and collector vessels flagged in the Maldives</u> and registered on the IOTC Record of Authorized Vessels shall be exempted from the data reporting requirements specified in Annex I and Annex III. Such transhipment operations <u>shall conform to the criteria set forth in Annex II</u> of this resolution.

SECTION 2. PROGRAMME TO MONITOR TRANSHIPMENTS AT SEA

Paragraph 4: The Commission hereby establishes a programme to monitor transhipment at sea which applies only to largescale tuna longline fishing vessels (hereafter referred to as the "LSTLVs") and to carrier vessels authorised to receive transhipments from these vessels at sea. No at-sea transhipment of tuna and tuna-like species and sharks by fishing vessels other than LSTLVs shall be allowed. The Commission shall review and, as appropriate, revise this Resolution.

SECTION 4. AT-SEA TRANSHIPMENT

Paragraph 11: Transhipments by LSTLVs in waters under the jurisdiction of the CPCs are subject to prior authorisation from the Coastal State concerned. (...).

Regional Observer Programme:

Paragraph 19: Vessels shall be prohibited from commencing or continuing at-sea transhipping in the IOTC area of competence without an IOTC regional observer on board, except in cases of "force majeure" duly notified to the IOTC Secretariat.

¹⁶ Large Scale Tuna Vessel (LSTV) – fishing vessels targeting tuna and tuna like species that are over 24m LoA and are on the IOTC Record of Authorized Vessels.

Paragraph 19: In the case of the eight Indonesian wooden carrier vessels listed on the IOTC Record of Authorised Vessel prior to 2015 and listed in Annex V, a national observer programme may be used in place of an observer from the regional observer programme. (...).

RAYS

IOTC Resolution 19/03: On the conservation of *mobulid* rays caught in association with fisheries in the IOTC area of competence



Paragraph 1: This Resolution shall apply to all fishing vessels flying the flag of a Contracting Party or Cooperating Non-Contracting Party (hereinafter referred to collectively as CPCs), and on the IOTC record of fishing vessels or authorized to fish for tuna and tuna like species managed by the IOTC.

Paragraph 2: CPCs shall prohibit all vessels from intentionally setting any gear type for targeted fishing of mobulid rays in the IOTC Area of Competence, if the animal is sighted prior to commencement of the set.

Paragraph 3: CPCs shall prohibit all vessels retaining onboard, transhipping, landing, storing, any part or whole carcass of mobulid rays caught in the IOTC Area of Competence.

Paragraph 5: CPCs shall require all their fishing vessels, other than those carrying out subsistence fishery, to promptly release alive and unharmed, to the extent practicable, mobulid rays as soon as they are seen in the net, on the hook, or on the deck, and do it in a manner that will result in the least possible harm to the individuals captured. The handling procedures detailed in <u>Annex I</u>, while taking into consideration the safety of the crew shall be implemented and followed.

Paragraph 6: Notwithstanding paragraph 3, in the case of mobulid rays that are unintentionally caught by and frozen as part of a purse seine vessel's operation, the vessel must surrender the whole mobulid ray to the responsible governmental authorities, or other competent authority, or discard them at the point of landing. Mobulid rays surrendered in this manner may not be sold or bartered but may be donated for purposes of domestic human consumption.

Paragraph 8: CPCs shall report the information and data collected on interactions (i.e., number of discards and releases) with mobulid rays by vessels through logbooks and/or through observer programs. The data shall be provided to the IOTC Secretariat by 30 June of the following year, and according to the timelines specified in Resolution 15/02 (or any subsequent revision).

Paragraph 9: CPCs shall ensure that fishermen are aware of and use proper mitigation, identification, handling and releasing techniques and keep on board all necessary equipment for the release of mobulid rays in accordance with the handling guidelines of Annex 1.

Paragraph 14: Scientific observers shall be allowed to collect biological samples of mobulid rays caught in the IOTC Area of Competence that are dead at haul-back, provided that the samples are a part of a research project approved by the IOTC Scientific Committee. (...).

ANNEX 1

- 1. Prohibit the gaffing of rays.
- 2. Prohibit the lifting of rays by the gill slits or spiracles.
- 3. Prohibit the punching of holes through the bodies of rays (e.g., to pass a cable through for lifting the ray).
- 4. Rays too large to be lifted safely by hand shall be, to the extent possible, brailed out of the net using best available method such as those recommended in document IOTC-2012-WPEB08-INF07.
- 5. Large rays that cannot be released safely before being landed on deck, shall be returned to the water as soon as possible, preferably utilizing a ramp from the deck connecting to an opening on the side of the boat, or if no such ramp is available, lowered with a sling or net.

SHARKS

IOTC Resolution 12/09: On the conservation of thresher sharks (family *Alopiidea*) caught in association with fisheries in the IOTC area of competence.



Paragraph 2: Fishing Vessels flying the flag of an IOTC Member or Cooperating Non-Contracting Party (CPCs) are prohibited from retaining on board, transhipping, landing, storing, selling or offering for sale any part or whole carcass of thresher sharks of all the species of the family Alopiidae, with the exception of paragraph 7.

Paragraph 7: Scientific observers shall be allowed to collect biological samples (vertebrae, tissues, reproductive tracts, stomachs, skin samples, spiral valves, jaws, whole and skeletonised specimens for taxonomic works and museum collections) from thresher sharks that are dead at haul-back, provided that the samples are part of the research project approved by the IOTC Scientific Committee (or IOTC Working Party on Ecosystems and Bycatch (WPEB)). In order to obtain the approval, a detailed document outlining the purpose of the work, number and type of samples intended to be collected and the spatiotemporal distribution of the sampling work must be included in the proposal. Annual progress of the work and a final report on completion of the project shall be presented to the IOTC WPEB and the IOTC Scientific Committee.

IOTC Resolution 13/05: On the conservation of whale sharks (*Rhinocodon typus*)



Paragraph 3: CPCs shall require that, in the event that a whale shark is unintentionally encircled in the purse seine net, the master of the vessel shall:

- a) take all reasonable steps to ensure its safe release, while taking into consideration the safety of the crew. These steps shall follow the <u>best practice quidelines for the safe</u> release and handling of whale sharks developed by the IOTC Scientific Committee;
- b) report the incident to the relevant authority of the flag State, with the following information:
 - i) the number of individuals;
 - ii) a short description of the interaction, including details of how and why the interaction occurred, if possible;
 - iii) the location of the encirclement;
 - iv) the steps taken to ensure safe release;
 - v) an assessment of the life status of the animal on release, including whether the whale shark was released alive but subsequently died.

Paragraph 7: CPCs shall report the information and data collected under paragraph 3(b) and paragraph 4 through logbooks, or when an observer is on-board through observer programs, and provide to the IOTC Secretariat by 30 June of the following year and according to the timelines specified in Resolution 10/02 [superseded by Resolution 15/02] (or any subsequent revision).

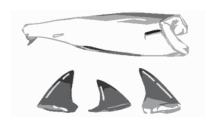


IOTC Resolution 13/06: On a scientific and management framework on the conservation of shark species caught in association with IOTC managed fisheries.

Paragraph 4: CPCs shall require fishing vessels flying their flag and on the IOTC Record of Authorised Vessels or authorised to fish for tuna and tuna-like species managed by the IOTC on the high seas to promptly release unharmed, to the extent practicable, of oceanic whitetip sharks when brought alongside for taking on-board the vessel. However, CPCs should encourage their fishers to release this species if recognised on the line before bringing them on-board the vessels.

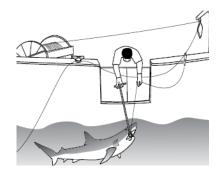
Paragraph 5. CPCs shall encourage their fishers to record incidental catches as well as live releases of oceanic whitetip sharks. These data shall be kept at the IOTC Secretariat.

Paragraph 7: Scientific observers shall be allowed to collect biological samples (vertebrae, tissues, reproductive tracts, stomachs, skin samples, spiral valves, jaws, whole and skeletonised specimens for taxonomic works and museum collections) from oceanic whitetip sharks taken in the IOTC area of competence that are dead at haul back, provided that the samples are a part of a research project approved by the IOTC Scientific Committee (SC)/the IOTC Working Party on Ecosystems and Bycatch (WPEB). In order to obtain the approval, a detailed document outlining the purpose of the work, number of samples intended to be collected and the spatial-temporal distribution of the sampling effect must be included in the proposal. Annual progress of the work and a final report on completion shall be presented to the SC/WPEB.



IOTC Resolution 17/05: On the conservation of sharks caught in association with fisheries managed by IOTC:

Paragraph 2: CPCs shall take the necessary measures to require that their fishermen fully utilise their entire catches of sharks, with the exception of species prohibited by the IOTC. Full utilisation is defined as retention by the fishing vessel of all parts of the shark excepting head, guts and skins, to the point of first landing.



Paragraph 3b: Sharks landed frozen: (...). CPCs that currently do not require fins and carcasses to be offloaded together at the point of first landing shall take the necessary measures to ensure compliance with the 5 % ratio through certification, monitoring by an observer or other appropriate measures.



Images adapted from the SPC Horizontal Longline
Fishing Methods and Techniques a Manual for
Fishermen and from F. Poisson manual of Good
Practices to Reduce the Mortality of Sharks and
Rays Caught Incidentally by Tropical Tuna Purse
Seiners

Paragraph 4: In fisheries in which sharks are unwanted species, CPCs shall, to the extent possible, encourage the release of live sharks, especially juveniles and pregnant sharks that are caught incidentally and are not used for food and/or subsistence. CPCs shall require that fishers are aware of and use identification guides (e.g., IOTC Shark and Ray Identification in Indian Ocean Fisheries) and

handling practices.



IOTC Resolution 18/02: On management measures for the conservation of blue shark caught in association with IOTC fisheries

"CPCs shall implement data collection programmes that ensure improved reporting of accurate blue shark catch, effort, size and discard data to IOTC in full accordance with the Resolution 15/02 on the Mandatory statistical reporting requirements for IOTC Contracting Parties and Cooperating Non-Contracting Parties (CPCs), or any Resolution superseding it."

SEABIRDS

IOTC Resolution 12/06: On reducing the incidental bycatch of seabirds in longline fisheries.



Paragraph 1: CPCs shall record data on seabird incidental bycatch by species, notably through scientific observers in accordance with Resolution 11/04 and report these annually. Observers shall to the extent possible take photographs of seabirds caught by fishing vessels and transmit them to national seabird experts or to the IOTC Secretariat, for confirmation of identification.

TURTLES

IOTC Resolution 12/04: On the conservation of marine turtles



Paragraph 3: CPCs shall collect (including through logbooks and observer programs) and provide to the IOTC Secretariat no later than 30 June of the following year in accordance with Resolution 10/02 (or any subsequent revision), all data on their vessels' interactions with marine turtles. The data shall include the level of logbook or observer coverage and an estimation of total mortality of marine turtles incidentally caught in their fisheries.

Paragraph 6: CPCs shall require fishermen on vessels targeting species covered by the IOTC Agreement to bring aboard, if practicable, any captured marine turtle that is comatose or inactive as soon as possible and foster its recovery, including aiding in its resuscitation, before safely returning it to the water. CPCs shall ensure that fishermen are aware of and use proper mitigation, identification, <u>handling and de-hooking techniques</u> and keep on board all necessary equipment for the release of marine turtles, in accordance with <u>handling</u> <u>quidelines in the IOTC Marine Turtle Identification Cards</u>.

Paragraph 7: CPCs with gillnet vessels that fish for species covered by the IOTC Agreement shall:

a) Require that operators of such vessels record all incidents involving marine turtles during fishing operations in their logbooks1 and report such incidents to the appropriate authorities of the CPC.

Paragraph 8: CPCs with longline vessels that fish for species covered by the IOTC Agreement shall:

a) Ensure that the operators of all longline vessels carry line cutters and de-hookers in order to facilitate the appropriate handling and prompt release of marine turtles caught or entangled, and that they do so in accordance with IOTC Guidelines. CPCs shall also ensure that operators of such vessels follow the handling guidelines in the IOTC Marine Turtle Identification Cards;

Paragraph 9: CPCs with purse seine vessels that fish for species covered by the IOTC Agreement shall:

- a) Ensure that operators of such vessels, while fishing in the IOTC area:
 - To the extent practicable, avoid encirclement of marine turtles, and if a marine turtle is encircled or entangled, take practicable measures to safely release the turtle in accordance with the handling guidelines in the IOTC Marine Turtle Identification Cards;
 - ii. To the extent practicable, release all marine turtles observed entangled in fish aggregating devices (FADs) or other fishing gear;
 - iii. If a marine turtle is entangled in the net, stop net roll as soon as the turtle comes out of the water; disentangle the turtle without injuring it before resuming the net roll; and to the extent practicable, assist the recovery of the turtle before returning it to the water;
 - iv. Carry and employ dip nets, when appropriate, to handle marine turtles.

CETACEANS

IOTC Resolution 13/04: On the conservation of cetaceans



Paragraph 2: Contracting Parties and Cooperating Non-Contracting Parties (collectively, CPCs) shall prohibit their flagged vessels from intentionally setting a purse seine net around a cetacean in the IOTC area of competence, if the animal is sighted prior to the commencement of the set.

Paragraph 3: CPCs shall require that, in the event that a cetacean is unintentionally encircled in a purse seine net, the master of the vessels shall:

a) take all reasonable steps to ensure the safe release of the cetacean, while taking into consideration the safety of the crew. These steps shall include following the <u>best</u> <u>practice quidelines for the safe release and handling of cetaceans</u> developed by the IOTC Scientific Committee;

- b) report the incident to the relevant authority of the flag State, with the following information:
 - i) the species (if known);
 - ii) the number of individuals;
 - iii) a short description of the interaction, including details of how and why the interaction occurred, if possible;
 - iv) the location of the encirclement;
 - v) the steps taken to ensure safe release;
 - vi) an assessment of the life status of the animal on release, including whether the cetacean was released alive but subsequently died.

Paragraph 4: CPCs using other gear types fishing for tuna and tuna-like species associated with cetaceans shall report all interactions with cetaceans to the relevant authority of the flag State and include all the information outlined in paragraph 3b(i–vi).

Paragraph 7: CPCs shall report the information and data collected under paragraph 3(b) and paragraph 4, through logbooks, or when an observer is on-board through observer programs, and provide to the IOTC Secretariat by 30 June of the following year and according to the timelines specified in Resolution 10/02 (or any subsequent revision).

MARLINS

IOTC Resolution 18/05: On conservation measures for striped marlin, black marlin and blue marlin



Paragraph 1: To ensure the conservation of the striped marlin (Tetrapturus audax), black marlin (Makaira indica), blue marlin (Makaira nigricans) and Indo-Pacific sailfish (Istiophorus platypterus) stocks in the Indian Ocean, Contracting Parties and Cooperating non-Contracting Parties, (CPCs) whose vessels catch those species in the IOTC Area of Competence undertake at least the following national management measures as described below are in place to support the sustainable exploitation of these stocks in line with the IOTC Agreement objectives of ensuring the conservation and optimum utilization of stocks by undertaking the following:

Other Management Measures

Paragraph 5: Pending advice from the Scientific Committee on a joint and/or a species-specific minimum conservation size, notwithstanding Resolution 17/04, CPCs shall not retain on board, trans-ship, land, any specimen smaller than 60 cm Lower Jaw Fork Length (LJFL) of any of the species referred to in paragraph 2, but shall return them immediately to the sea in

a manner that maximizes post-release survival potential without compromising the safety of $crew^{17}$.

Paragraph 6: In addition, CPCs may consider the adoption of additional fisheries management measures to limit fishing mortality such as: releasing any specimen brought alive on-board or alongside for taking on board the vessel; modify fishing practices and/or fishing gears to reduce juveniles catches; adopting spatial/temporal management measures to reduce fishing in nursery grounds; limiting days at sea and/or fishing vessels exploiting billfishes.

Recording, Reporting, and Use of the Catch Information

Paragraph 7: CPCs shall ensure that their vessels catching Striped Marlin, Black Marlin, Blue Marlin and Indo-pacific Sailfish in the IOTC Area of Competence record their catch in accordance with the requirements set out in Resolution 15/01 on the recording of catch and effort data by fishing vessels in the IOTC area of competence or any Resolution superseding it

Paragraph 8: CPCs shall implement data collection programmes to ensure accurate reporting of Striped Marlin, Black Marlin, Blue Marlin and Indo-pacific Sailfish catches, released alive and/or discarded, together with effort, size and discard data to IOTC in full accordance with the Resolution 15/02 on the Mandatory statistical reporting requirements for IOTC Contracting Parties and Cooperating Non-Contracting Parties (CPCs), or any Resolution superseding it.

Tuna Discards



IOTC Resolution 19/05: On a ban on discards of bigeye tuna, skipjack tuna, yellowfin tuna, and a recommendation for non-targeted species caught by purse seine vessels in the IOTC area of competence.

RETENTION OF TARGETED TUNA SPECIES

Paragraph 1: Contracting Parties and Cooperating Non-Contracting Parties shall require all purse seine vessels to retain on board and then land all bigeye tuna, skipjack tuna, and yellowfin tuna caught, except fish considered unfit for human consumption as defined in paragraph 4b (i).

RETENTION OF NON-TARGETED SPECIES

¹⁷ Notwithstanding paragraph 5, in the case of billfish, when purse seiners unintentionally catch such small fish and freeze them as a part of a purse seine fishing operation, this does not constitute non-compliance as long as such fish are not sold.

Paragraph 2: Contracting Parties and Cooperating Non-Contracting Parties shall require all purse seine vessels to retain on board and then land, to the extent practicable, the following nontargeted species or species group; other tunas, rainbow runner, dolphinfish, triggerfish, billfish, wahoo, and barracuda, except fish considered unfit for human consumption as defined in paragraph 4b (i), and/or species which are prohibited from retention, consumption, or trade through domestic legislations and international obligations.

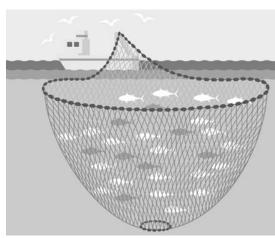
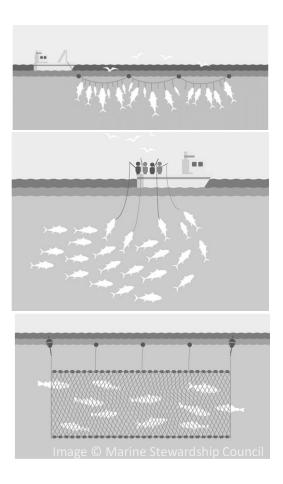


Image © Marine Stewardship Council

Paragraph 3: Contracting Parties and
Cooperating Non-Contracting Parties using
other gear types not provided for in paragraph 1
and 2 of this resolution, which are targeting
tuna and tuna like species in the IOTC area of
competence should encourage their vessel to:

- a) take all reasonable steps to ensure the safe release of non-targeted species taken alive, to the extent possible, while taking into consideration the safety of the crew;
- b) retain on board and then land all dead non-targeted species except those considered unfit for human consumption as defined in paragraph 4b(i) and/or are prohibited from retention through domestic legislations and international obligations.



Paragraph 4: Procedures for the implementation of full retention requirements include:

a) No bigeye tuna, skipjack tuna, and/or yellowfin tuna caught by purse seine vessels may be discarded after the point in the set when the net is fully pursed and more than one half of the net has been retrieved. If equipment malfunctions affect the process of pursing and retrieving the net in such a way that this rule cannot be complied with, the crew must make efforts to release the tuna as soon as possible.

- b) The following two exceptions to the above rule shall apply:
 - i) Where it is determined by the captain of the vessel that tuna (bigeye tuna, skipjack tuna or yellowfin tuna) and the non-targeted species as listed in Para 2 caught are unfit for human consumption, the following definitions shall be applied:
 - "Unfit for human consumption" are fish that:
 - is meshed or crushed in the purse seine; or
 - is damaged due to depredation; or
 - has died and spoiled in the net where a gear failure has prevented both the normal retrieval of the net and catch, and efforts to release the fish alive;
 - "Unfit for human consumption" does not include fish that:
 - is considered undesirable in terms of size, marketability, or species composition; or
 - is spoiled or contaminated as the result of an act or omission of the crew of the fishing vessel.
 - ii) Where the captain of a vessel determines that tuna (bigeye tuna, skipjack tuna or yellowfin tuna) and the non-targeted species as listed in Para 2 were caught during the final set of a trip and there is insufficient storage capacity to accommodate all tuna (bigeye tuna, skipjack tuna or yellowfin tuna) and the non-targeted species caught in that set. This fish may only be discarded if:
 - the captain and crew attempt to release the tuna (bigeye tuna, skipjack tuna or yellowfin tuna) alive as soon as possible; and
 - no further fishing is undertaken after the discard until the tuna (bigeye tuna, skipjack tuna, and/or yellowfin tuna) and the non-targeted species on board the vessel has been landed or transhipped.

NON-RETENTION

Paragraph 5: Where the captain of the vessel determines that fish should not be retained on board in accordance with Clause 4.b (i) and (ii), the captain shall record the event in the relevant logbook including estimated tonnage.

OBSERVER PROGRAMS IN FISHERIES MANAGEMENT

Observer Programmes include:

- 1) Monitoring Control and Surveillance (MCS) that include sea Inspection and control programmes;
- 2) Fisheries programmes (science and compliance); and
- 3) Scientific programmes.

There are some fundamental differences in the objective and legislative mandate of each of these programmes that include differences in the role, appointment, training, responsibilities and tasks on-board between compliance officers/inspectors, controllers, fisheries Observers (science and surveillance) and scientific Observers (Figure 9).

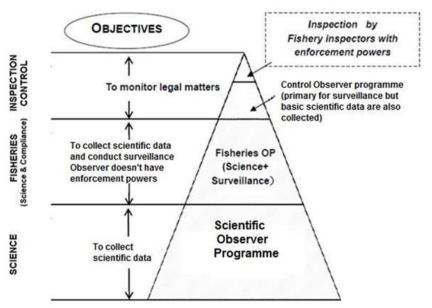


Figure 9 Comparative description of different objectives between scientific and compliance observers.

Sea Based Inspection and Control Programmes (MCS)

Sea based inspection and control programmes have a primary objective to enforce fishery governance and to monitor fisheries from a legal aspect. Inspection programmes are restricted to the reporting on adherence to compliance measures stipulated in licence conditions (e.g.: quotas/species limitation, fishing areas, gear size and usage), while Control programmes collect control data and fisheries data (mainly catch and effort information).

Fisheries Inspectors (also called compliance officers) and controllers are appointed by the countries fisheries authorities and have a legal mandate to enforce the fisheries laws of the country. Inspectors are also referred to as Fishery Control Officers (FCO) and are not therefore defined as Observers herein. Inspectors have the authority to collect evidence and take legal action against a vessel acting in contravention to fishing methods; gear used or landed catches, in terms of its fishing permit conditions issued to it by its flag state. When justified, inspectors may have the power to arrest a vessel at sea and have it return to port. FCOs may be deployed onto vessels for the duration of the trip to monitor fishing activities directly and report on adherence to compliance measures stipulated in licence conditions issued by the State. Alternatively, Inspectors may operate independently from a patrol

vessel and board and inspect fishing vessels at sea or on land. At-sea inspection includes monitoring gear and catch on-board.

Fisheries Controllers are also appointed by the countries fisheries authorities and are generally "sworn in" ¹⁸. They are deployed onto vessels for the duration of the trip to report on adherence to compliance measures stipulated in licence conditions, and also collect fisheries data. Controllers generally do not have the power to arrest a vessel at sea and have it return to port.

Fisheries Observer Programmes (Science & Compliance)

Fisheries Observer programmes have the primary objective to collect fisheries information at sea (mainly catch and effort). Additional tasks often include monitoring and reporting on the environmental impacts of the fishery on other marine fauna such as bycatch, seabird, marine mammals and, Endangered, Threatened and Protected (ETP) species.

Fisheries Observers are generally appointed by the countries' fisheries authorities, but can also be supplied by private Observer Service Providers (OSP). Fisheries Observers do not have any powers to enforce or arrest. While they may report on compliance issues, they have <u>no legal mandate to enforce these</u>.

Scientific Observer Programmes

Scientific Observer programmes are restricted to the collection of scientific data required for fisheries management. *Scientific Observers* are generally appointed by research and fisheries management institutes or supplied by independent Observer Service Providers (OSP). A scientific Observer also records catch, bycatch, discards and effort information but in addition, conducts biometric sampling. For example, catch, bycatch, discards composition of species, length-frequency, weight, sex, maturity stage, stomach content and the collection of otoliths and biological samples.



The accuracy of data collected by Scientific Observers is of paramount importance to the success of good fisheries management.

Inadequate or falsified data are at the root of poor fisheries management measures and can have a very serious impact on decisions made by scientists on fisheries management.

Thus, falsifying data is much more serious than not recording it.

PART B: GENERIC OBSERVER TRAINING

DEFINING THE "OBSERVER"

¹⁸ When someone is sworn in, they make a formal promise to be honest or loyal, in a court of law.

Scientific (fisheries) observers are independent specialist, deployed on-board commercial fishing vessels in accordance with a mandated regional fisheries observer programme. Within this mandate observers can be used to record unbiased data and report on technical, regulatory, scientific and economic aspects relating to the operational side of the fishing industry¹⁹.

Scientific observers working on fishing vessels during normal operations are in a position to verify and record accurate, in situ data on the location, catch composition and gear configuration of fishing operations, and are usually the only independent source of this information.

Scientific observers are not employed in an enforcement role, as their main purpose is to collect accurate data to support effective management of the marine resources, which is to the long-term advantage of the fishing industry. However, as this takes place alongside the standard data collection protocols, the presence of the observer on-board inherently allows recording the level of compliance within the fishery.

An individual is only considered an IOTC recognised observer when employed by a service provider approved by the CPC to provide observer services. CPCs will provide a list of observers to the IOTC Secretariat and each observer will be allocated an IOTC registration number that must be included on reported data. This will lead to the development of a regional pool of observers trained according to IOTC standards.

Qualifications and Prerequisites

Scientific observers working at sea are in a unique position, as they are not affiliated with the vessels personal and are required to work alone often for long periods, without direct supervision or assistance from their controlling organisation. To be successful in this environment, they required a high level of integrity and personal self-motivation and will need the academic qualifications and training to optimally accomplish the detailed tasks and responsibilities assigned to them.

IOTC minimum pre-requisites for the registration of Observes standards should apply as prerequisites prior to employment and training of observers. These include:

- 1. Minimum age of 21 years
- 2. Physically capable of carrying out observer duties attested by a valid Certificate of Medical Fitness (STCW or equivalent) issued by an authorised medical practitioner.
- 3. Clear police record. History of strong socially acceptable ethical standards in the areas of honesty and public behaviour.

¹⁹ As per IOTC ROS Observer Manual (Version 1.2 2015)

- 4. Evidence of proficiency in literacy and numeric competency in the languages of the national project (holder of a Secondary School Certificate or equivalent)
- 5. Valid passport
- 6. Valid STCW Basic Safety Training Certificate (or equivalent)
- 7. Certificate of successful completion of a Basic Observer Training Course based on IOTC training guidelines and curriculum.
- 8. Acceptance of the code of conduct.

CPCs must ensure that their observers are trained and their certificates of fitness and safety & survival training meet the requirements of foreign vessels on which they may be deployed.

Observer Duties and Required Competencies

Scientific Observers are able to accurately verify and record in situ data on the location, composition of catches and configuration of gear during fishing operations. Their role is to collect accurate data for the effective management of marine resources, the aim of which is to ensure the sustainability of the fishing industry. The duties of the Scientific Observer are to:

- ensure their own safety at sea;
- collect information and data needed to complete the observation forms;
 - nature of the fishing operations;
 - o catch composition of fish brought onboard;
 - size composition, sex ratio and reproductive status of target species (if requested);
 - by-catch mortality and discard component;
 - general trip details describing the target species, permit holder and areas fished;
 - vessel specifications, fishing and electronic equipment;
 - additional data on oceanography, weather and interactions with seabirds and marine mammals;
 - o information on vessel transhipments; and
 - o record adherence to MarPol regulations;
- enter observation data into database (if required) to be provided to their responsible authorities, who will forward it to the IOTC Secretariat; and
- writing deployment, weekly, preliminary and final trip reports to be sent to the responsible authorities.

To achieve the broad range of tasks assigned to an observer, Scientific Observers will need to acquired / maintain a standard level of basic competency.

As Scientific Observer competency should be standard throughout the IOTC ROS, independently of the organisation(s) in charge of training and manage CPCs observers.

The following list of basic observer competency standards has been approved:

- 1. Understand the importance of personal physical and mental well-being to safety and morale and of maintaining effective communication and good working relationships on the vessel.
- 2. Able to comply with emergency procedures and to correctly use different types of life-saving appliances. Demonstrate knowledge of abandon ship procedures and sea survival techniques. Able to operate an EPIRB or equivalent.
- 3. Capable to identify common health issues experienced onboard and fishing operation risks. Understand the importance of following safe working practices and wearing appropriate protective clothing and equipment as well as of following safety protocols and of being aware of emergency communication procedures.
- 4. Able to use vessel electronic equipment to fix a vessel position, to calculate vessel estimated position and time of arrival at a given point; and to collect parameters of meteorology and oceanography. Practical knowledge of the Beaufort scale.
- 5. Capable of using VHF/HF radios and send distress messages.
- 6. Understand the concept of target species; bycatch species; non-target species, retained catch, discarded catch, overfishing, FAD, associated and free school, improper for human consumption as defined by the IOTC.
- 7. Have satisfactory knowledge of the IOTC CMMs relevant to scientific observers;
- 8. Understand observer duties, code of conduct, status and procedures to follow onboard. Aware of the role & importance of the fisheries observer for the monitoring and management of tuna fisheries in the Indian Ocean.
- 9. Understands common nautical terminology. Recognises industrial tuna fishing vessels basic layout. Familiar with working and observation areas and common fishing operational scenarios for the fisheries in question.
- 10. Familiar with the species of special interest that interact with industrial tuna fisheries, most common inter-actions and strategies to avoid and mitigate such interactions.
- 11. Capable of identifying and distinguishing between the main tuna species, in their adult and juvenile forms and to use standard identification guides to identify species of billfish, sharks and other bycatch including marine turtles, seabirds and sea mammals.

- 12. Able to accurately measure and weight fish and to collect biological samples accordingly to IOTC ROS standard procedures.
- 13. Aware of IOTC ROS data gathering processes and priorities.
- 14. Capable of collecting and estimating catch weight, volumes, ratios according to ROS standard procedures. Conscious of the need to check consistency with entries made in the logbook and assist with logbook fulfilment.
- 15. Capable of collecting, formatting and accurately recording mandatory and recommended information as prescribed under the scheme.
- 16. Familiar with IOTC trip report data requirements and timelines for submission.

Observer Code of Conduct

Observers are required to conform to a Code of Conduct approved by the Commission to become certified and should sign an affidavit with their service provider that they understand and will conform to the Code.

Code of conduct

- 1) Observers may not participate in any activity which would cause a reasonable person to question the impartiality or objectivity with which the Regional Observer Scheme is administered;
 - observers may not have direct financial interest in the observed fishery, other than the provision of observer services including, but not limited to, vessels or shore-side facilities involved in the catching or processing of the products of the fishery, companies selling supplies or services to those vessels or shore-side facilities, or companies purchasing raw or processed products from these vessels or shore-side facilities. the interests of a spouse or minor child are considered those of the observer;
 - observers may not solicit or accept, directly or indirectly, any gratuity, gift, favour, entertainment, loan or anything of monetary value from anyone who conducts activities that are regulated by IOTC, or who has interests that may be substantially affected by the performance or non-performance of the observers' official duties;
 - observers may not solicit or accept employment as a crew member or an employee of the vessel or shore-side processor in any fishery while employed as an observer;
 - observers may not serve as observers on any vessel or at any shore-side facility owned or operated by a person who previously employed the observer in any capacity; and

- a person may not serve as an observer in a fishery during the 3 consecutive months following the last day of his/her employment as a paid crew member or employee in that fishery.
- 2) Observers may not participate in any activity which could impair the observer's ability to perform his/her duties. This includes, but is not limited to:
 - engaging in drinking of alcoholic beverages while on duty;
 - engaging in the use or distribution of illegal substances; and
 - o becoming physically or emotionally involved with vessel personnel.
- 3) Observers may not participate in any activity which could adversely affect the efficient accomplishment of the Scheme's mission:
 - observers must refrain from engaging in any illegal actions according to the laws and regulations of the flag State that exercises jurisdiction over the vessel to which the observer is assigned;
 - observers must avoid any behaviour that could adversely affect the confidence of the public in the integrity of observers, the IOTC Regional Observer Scheme or the IOTC;
 - o observers must record all scientific data accurately and honestly;
 - if the observer chooses to report any suspected violations of regulations relevant to conservation of marine resources or their environment that they observe, it must be done honestly; and
 - observers must preserve the confidentiality of the collected data and observations made on board the fishing vessels, in accordance with Resolution 12/02, and shall treat as confidential all information with respect to the fishing operations of the vessel on which they are deployed.
- 4) Observer protocol while onboard a vessel include:
 - observers shall respect the hierarchy and general rules of behaviour which apply to all vessel personnel, provided such rules do not interfere with the duties of the observer under this scheme;
 - in all aspects involving vessel operations and safety at sea the observer will fall under the authority of the captain;
 - scientific observers will have no authority to advice or direct any of the vessel operational activities or have any authority over any of the vessel personnel;
 - scientific observers should have access to all operational areas of the vessel necessary to complete their work including the bridge, navigation and communication equipment, however, the observer should attempt to secure cooperation with officers to ensure that their work does not interfere with normal fishing and operational activities.

Observer Status and Conventions

OBSERVER STATUS

The status of the Observer on board the fishing vessels should be the same as that of the officers on-board. Observers should be allowed on the bridge and on the work-bridges so they can conduct the missions they've been allocated. Observer actions should not, however, interrupt or interfere with normal fishing operations and the observer should abide by the rules and pace of work of the vessel.

The attitude and conduct of the observer will have a major influence on both its reception on board the fishing vessel, and the results and value of its work. The master of the fishing vessel and crew will quickly asses you by your actions and conduct. If they see they are dealing with a professional they will both respect you and be more willing to voluntary provide assistance.

Observer must always conduct itself in a courteous, polite and professional manner with all members of the crew. Naturally, the crew and the captain must respect the functions and culture of the Observer, who must inform his superior of any difficulty he may encounter or any unpleasant behaviour to which he might be subjected. Observer must be able to behave correctly in all situations, in particular concerning questions of hierarchy, work and confidentiality, presentation and culture. The Observer must be aware of and sensitive to the cultural practices of crew members.

OBSERVER CONVENTIONS

The Observer shall respect the following conventions while on-board.

- Unless specified, Scientific Observers are not employed in an enforcement role and their overall function is to collect information to assist in the efficient management of fisheries resources. However, the nature of the work and the information collected will inherently include compliance related data. At no stage the Observer should confront the vessel master or any of the crew about any compliance issues or advise them or provide consent to any operation that may have compliance implications.
- 2. The Observer will have no authority to advise or direct any of the vessels operational activities or have any authority over vessels personnel.
- 3. The Observer should have access to all operational areas of the vessel necessary to complete their work including the bridge, navigation and communication equipment, however, the observer should attempt to secure co-operation with the officers to ensure that their work does not interfere with the normal fishing and operational activities.
- 4. The Observer shall treat as confidential all information with respect to the fishing operations of the vessel on which they are deployed. All information collected on-board

a vessel must be treated in the strictest confidence. In no case shall he make copies of it or report it to any person other than the master of the boat on which he is embarked and the persons in charge of the data collection program. In particular, the Observer shall not share any information [especially catch information from other vessels] and never discuss particulars of other vessels with any of the personal on-board or communicate any information on the position of the vessel or its catches to another vessel or to an observer on board another ship.

- 5. The Observer shall keep himself, its accommodation and work-place clean and neat at all times:
 - a. never wear foul weather or protective clothing on the bridge or in the accommodation. [boots, oil-skins or dirty overalls];
 - b. change into clean or appropriate clothing for meals and if you sit at the officers table ask permission before sitting down, [every time] and excuse yourself when leaving;
 - c. always be on time for meals and it you cannot make a formal meal time due to your sampling work then advice the galley of this;
 - d. keep your accommodation clean and neat at all times and do not leave clothing or any of your personal items lying around as besides this being a safety issue it is not expected of a professional;
 - e. keep your work space clean and pack away your computer and papers when you are not working with them;
 - f. when sampling, keep your space tidy and if using any bins or gear then wash and stow these securely when you finished; and
 - g. never leave any equipment unsecured as lose equipment is quickly damaged and can be a safety hazard to crew and the vessel.
- 6. The observer should never forget that:
 - a. the accuracy of data collected by fishery observers is of paramount importance to the success of good fisheries management;
 - inadequate or falsified data are at the root of poor fisheries management measures and can have a very serious impact on decisions made by scientists on fisheries management; and
 - c. thus, falsifying data is much more serious than not recording it.

SAFETY, HEALTH, ACCIDENT AND INJURY

Internationally the sea fishing sector is recognised worldwide as the most hazardous industry to work in, accounting for significantly higher rates of fatal and/or serious accidents when compared to other sectors such as agriculture or construction.²⁰

As such Observers are also exposed to these risks onboard fishing vessels and need to be constantly aware of the dangers around them while working onboard.

Compulsory outsourced STCW training Safety training includes:

- SURVIVAL AT SEA;
- FIRST AID; and
- FIRE FIGHTING

These all emphasise the <u>reactionary</u> procedures to be followed when there is an accident or imminent danger to the crew and vessel. The objective of this section in observer training is to emphasise <u>pre-emptive</u> measures to prevent accidents from occurring in the first place. More importantly is the need to develop a positive and responsible attitude to health and safety when it comes to wearing safety apparel such as a hard hat and personal floatation device (PFD) when working on the upper deck.

It is also important for observers to maintain a high standard of health at all times. Observers must have in-date inoculations for tetanus, typhoid and, in some areas, yellow fever. Carry malaria prophylactics on board in case the vessel docks in a port in the tropics. Observers must be able assist themselves if they get ill or sustain a minor injury while onboard. Each observer should be issued a personal first aid kit to meet these incidents. The observers should initially attempt some self-diagnosis and utilise the remedies available to them.

Survival and firefighting training provide instruction on how to deal with an emergency. Equally important is <u>awareness</u> and <u>attitude</u> towards safe working practices.

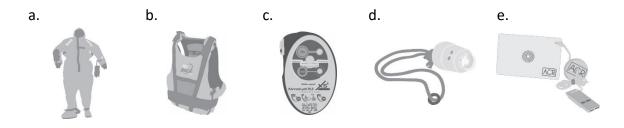
PREVENTATIVE ACTIONS = TO PREVENT ACCIDENTS FROM HAPPENING IN
THE FIRST PLACE

Observers are issued with equipment to maximize their chances of survival in an emergency situation. In most instances these should be provided by the vessel operators. However, due to variable safety standards maintained in different countries, unless it can be positively ascertained that the vessel is fully equipped with all the compulsory survival equipment, it is always advisable for observer controlling authorities to issue observers with the following survival equipment:

-

²⁰ Extract from the Irish Sea Fisheries Board Health and Safety Authority.

- Immersion Suit (a);
- Personal Floatation device (b);
- Personal Emergency Position Indicating Radio Beacon (406 MHz EPIRB with integral GPS navigation receiver) (c);
- Strobe Light (d);
- Signal Mirror (e);
- Personal First Aid Kit; and
- A satellite phone that will allow the observer to make emergency calls is also highly recommended.



Health and Safety When Working Onboard

The tasks and duties assigned to observers will require them to be either monitoring fishing activities or undertaking biometric sampling from various vantage points both on the upper deck and between decks. These are likely to expose them to a wide range of dangers that include *inter alia*:

- falling overboard
- injury from moving equipment, line haulers, overhead derricks, or winch cables;
- fish or sharks on the deck; and
- other crew working with knives, gaffs or harpoons.

When sampling in a processing area below decks, risks include:

- machinery and moving conveyor belts;
- crew manoeuvring heave crates; and
- open hatches

All these risks are further accentuated from the continuous vessel movement, which can become severe in adverse weather conditions.

RISK ASSESSMENT

The first responsibility of the observer would be to do a risk assessment of the areas they will be standing or working. Initially this will be a conscious process, especially when moving to a new vessel, but with time will become almost an unconscious process. However, it is always important to then avoid the risk of complacency and not following a dedicated risk assessment process.

A risk Assessment is a careful examination of what, in the workplace, could cause harm to people so that preventive measures can be taken. The aim is to reduce the risk of injury and illness associated with work. There are three steps to carrying out a Risk Assessment:

Step 1: Identify the Hazards

The observer must consider all the possible hazards in and around the areas they may have to work

A hazard is anything with the potential to cause harm in terms of human injury or ill health, such as moving machinery, work methods/practices, overhead objects, cables or ropes under tension, or exposure to harm such as live sharks or fish just landed and slippery decks.

Step 2: Assess the Risk – how or what is the likelihood on an injury

The observer must assess what is the likelihood of an injury occurring, the possible severity, and how it may occur.

A risk is the likelihood that somebody will be harmed by a hazard.

Step 3: Put Control Measures in Place

Taking into consideration the observers' tasks, they must consider measures to prevent or reduce a risk to prevent an accident. This process may entail setting up protective barriers against moving fish or machinery or selecting a safer working area. Note wearing safety clothing or a PFD does not necessarily reduce the risk, it may only reduce the danger of injury.

Control measures are the precautions taken to ensure a hazard will not injure someone

PROTECTIVE CLOTHING

Observer should be issued with adequate protective clothing and must wear the appropriate gear for working on the upper deck or in the factory deck when the vessel is steaming or engaged in fishing operations. These include:

- Hard Hat ("Industrial Safety Helmet" to European Standard EN397) (a);
- Safety Boots with protective steel toe and ankle guard(b);
- Reflective Jacket (d)
- Protective eyewear (e)
- Working Gloves (f)
- Safety Harness and Safety line (c)

a. b. c. d. e. f.



Don't become a statistic

Drowning and hypothermia are the most common causes of work-related death to fishermen

Always wear a Personal Flotation Device or lifejacket and be safe

Health and Injury

Observers must report any accident, no matter how minor or sickness to their controlling authorities immediately. The progress of recovery or continuation of any symptoms must be reported to the captain and the observers' controlling authority with any deterioration of condition or at least every 24 hours.

Common illnesses and injuries are:

- sea sickness;
- diarrhoea and food poisoning;
- flues and colds; and
- cuts, bleeding and aberrations.

SEA SICKNESS



Observers with prior experience of working at sea will know if they are prone to motion sickness and need to take a supply of motion sickness medication with them.

Sea Sickness occurs when the body, inner ear and eyes all send different signals to the brain. Agitated by this perceptual incongruity the brain responds by releasing stress-related hormones that can lead to a cold perspiration, headaches, dizziness, nausea and vomiting. Seasickness usually occurs in the first 12 to 24 hours after sailing and can also be weather dependant. Should symptoms persist for longer than 24 hours together with vomiting be aware of dehydration and drink sufficient water to replenish lost fluids.

Methods to prevent or alleviate sea sickness include:

- avoiding alcohol and fatty and spicy foods and try eating dry crackers or plain toast or cereals;
- drink plain bottled water or natural low acid juices with a low sugar content and avoid citrus juices, milk and coffee;
- avoid confined spaces and stay in fresh air and breathe deeply;
- focus on the horizon as it helps to stabilize the visual conflict in your

brain;

stay busy and keep your mind occupied.

COLDS AND FLUES



Colds and flues often occur within a week or so after sailing. New crew joining the vessel after being flown in from other parts of the world and although not showing symptoms can carry infectious bacteria or viruses against which other persons on-board have no resistance. Although uncomfortable the symptoms of a cold or flu can be overcome within a few days without having to resort to antibiotics.

Observers are encouraged to take extra flu remedies, pain pills and vitamin supplements.

Should flu symptoms persist there is always the danger of developing pneumonia and observers are cautioned to report immediately if they are not showing any signs of recovering from flu symptoms and continue coughing.

DIARRHOEA AND FOOD POISONING



Diarrhoea is an abnormal increase in the frequency and liquidity of the stools and can be caused by a virus or bacteria or from food poisoning.

Symptoms can be acute lasting for only one or two days or chronic lasting for a week or more.

These symptoms are not uncommon, but if they persist for more than 24 hours specific diagnosis and treatment may be required. In this event it is important to report your condition to both the captain of the vessel and your controlling agency.

Warning signs where medical assistance will be necessary are:

- if symptoms persist for longer than a week;
- blood, pus or yellow mucus appears in the stools;
- inability to dink or hold down water due to vomiting; and
- advent of dehydration which symptoms include excreting small amounts of dark urine, dry mucus membranes and drowsiness and the skin also starts to lose its elasticity.

Diarrhoea can be treated by:

• medications are available and a supply of "Imodium" tablets should be

added to your first aid kit;

- drinking extra fluids with small amounts of salt and sugar added to replace lost salts;
- maintain a high standard of hygiene; and
- try to eat normally as soon as you feel better and your appetite returns.

ACCIDENTS



Always get medical attention, no matter how small the injury. Observers should be able to assist themselves for small injuries using their own first aid kit however, be aware of the possibility of infection.

All wounds should be thoroughly and regularly cleaned with an antiseptic solution (or with soap and water) and dressed with clean plasters or bandages to prevent infection.

All accidents and or injuries must immediately be reported to the captain and the observer-controlling agency. In the event of a serious injury or when injuries fail to respond to early treatment it is important to communicate all the details to the captain and your controlling agency.

In extreme situations of illness or injury it may be necessary to arrange for the evacuation of the observer to the nearest port or onto a suitable vessel returning to Port. In these situations, the necessary logistics will be taken over by the controlling agency ashore.

FATIGUE



Lack of sleep can be extremely dangerous and cause serious problems for an observer. Fatigue can result in poor decisions and slow reactions <u>that greatly increase the risk of accidents and or injury</u>. The only solution is to attempt to sleep uninterrupted for between six to twelve hours.

To prevent fatigue, it is suggested that observers plan their work schedules to be able to sleep uninterrupted for at least one four to six-hour period out of every 24 hours.

Other health risks that observers should be aware of are: prolonged exposure to sunlight (sunburn); hypothermia (working in refrigerated holds); and noise

How can I Tell if I'm Suffering with Fatigue? Here are a few questions to ask yourself:

Alertness/Sleepiness

- Do I feel tired and/or yawn all the time?
- Do I fall asleep for small amounts of time?
- Do I work on automatic and without thinking?
- Am I having difficulty concentrating?
- Am I forgetting to do things more and more?
- Am I finding it increasingly difficult to perform more than one task at once?

Mood

- Do I feel stressed?
- Am I more irritable than usual?
- Am I easily frustrated by tasks?
- Do I feel that I just can't be bothered?
- Do I feel that I just don't want to cooperate with others?

Remember though that people are poor judges of their own level of fatigue.

Personal Hygiene (Customs onboard vessels)



Observers are expected to be aware of their own personal hygiene on-board vessels. Adequate washing and shower facilities are expected to be available on all vessels.

In tropical conditions it may be necessary to change your clothes daily. Enquire as to the washing and drying facilities on-board and make use of these.

Washing clothes and hanging them out to dry in your cabin is not hygienic. Washing and hanging clothes up in the showers or bathrooms may also be offensive to others.

Safety At-Sea

By working onboard fishing vessels Observers are exposed to the same risks as professionals from the sea fishing sector. Unfortunately, Observers sometimes face additional safety issues during the fishing trip. These may take several forms but can include intimidation, harassment, interference, bribery, and violence. On occasion this safety issues have been serious enough to endanger Observers lives and have even led to Observer casualties.

The need to protect observers whilst at sea has been recently recognized by multiple RFMOs, including the IOTC. To ensure the safety and security of Observers a safety-at-sea²¹ standard has been approved by the IOTC.

²¹ Safety-at-sea being are the procedures established to guarantee that Observers are deployed on safe/seaworthy vessels, and that at-sea observer emergencies and reports on issues of safety (including instances of harassment, intimidation, or assault) are immediately and effectively handled.

This standard requires that CPCs and their Observer Programmes ensure that:

- 1. Observers conduct regular vessel safety checks using a standard form containing a list of minimum safety requirements in line with those of the Commission.
- 2. An "Emergency Action Plan" (EAP) is in place to accommodate any reported Observer emergency.

VESSEL SAFETY CHECK

A Vessel Safety Check (VSC) it's a procedure outlining vessel minimum safety requirements and safety equipment, established to guarantee that Observers are deployed on safe/seaworthy vessels. The VSC procedure applies to all vessels onto which an Observer is embarked; including any vessels used to transfer Observers.

VSC Standard Operating Procedures

- 1. Before each boarding, as soon as possible, and prior to the vessel leaving port or getting underway, the Observer, Observer Coordinator, or a NOP designated officer shall conduct a pre-sea VSC inspection and familiarisation tour of the vessel, against the IOTC list of minimum safety requirements, using IOTC VSC form (Annex 2).
- In the case of an at-sea transfer of an Observer to a vessel embarking an Observer for the
 first time, the Observer Programme is to endeavour to obtain copies of the relevant
 safety documents from the transfer vessel operators in advance of the transfer taking
 place.
- 3. Should there be any major deficiency recorded in the safety standards onboard and if the vessel does not comply with the IOTC list of minimum safety requirements, the Observer will not be permitted to embark on the vessel.
- 4. The details of the pre-sea VSC inspection are be reported to the Observer Coordinator immediately by the most direct means of communication available. In the case that the Observer does not board the vessel due to safety reasons a full report is be submitted by the Observer to the Observer Coordinator, who will transfer it to the Vessel Operator and other relevant entities.
- 5. The selection of items designated as "Minimum safety requirements before an observer will be permitted to embark" in the pre-sea VSC inspection form (Annex 2) is the "minimum requirements" for an observer to be permitted to sign onto the designated vessel.
- 6. Observers are not authorized to board if the VSC highlights that the vessel does not comply with expected standards or if they consider a vessel to be un-safe.

EMERGENCY ACTION PLAN

An Emergency Action Plan (EAP) is a written procedure detailing the appropriate response to Observer emergency situations at sea, and outlining required responses for Observers, Observer Coordinators, vessel Master/Captain, vessel Operators/Owners, and Coastal States and Flag States.

Observer Emergency Situations At-Sea

The EAP shall provide for all observer emergencies and include different scenarios on fishing vessels. Observers, Observer Coordinators, vessel Master/Captain, vessel Operators/Owners and relevant entities are to be provided with a checklist covering each emergency and the steps necessary to prepare for and control the emergencies when it arises.

Observer Emergency Situation, means any critical incident or situation where the safety of the observer is compromised, including but not limited to:

- Attempted Suicide
- Death of observer at sea
- Depression/ Anxiety (Suspected Mental Disorder)
- Kidnap/ Intimidation/ Assault/ Harassment/ Attempt to bribe
- Observer missing out at sea
- Observer overboard
- Serious illness and injury

Observer Restriction Situation, means an incident or situation - where an observer's life is NOT in danger- driven by restrictions/impediments imposed by the vessel to observer work, safety and and/or wellbeing. Including but not limited to:

- Work safety
- Obstruction
- Wellbeing

Responsible Bodies for the Application of the EAP and their Roles

The EAP shall contain standard operating procedures (SOP) for key personnel or entities to deal with at sea emergency situations, and describe the general responsibilities of the key personnel.

The responsible bodies for the application of the EAP include, *interalia*:

- At the central command centre:
 - The Observer Coordinator, through the Observer Management Authority, whom assumes the role as the central command centre to ensure that the safety of the Observer is guaranteed.

- The vessel operator/owner, whom assumes the role as the last communication mean to establish contact with the Observer/Vessel.
- The Regional Maritime Rescue Coordination Centre (RMRCC), whom assumes the role to:
 - receive, acknowledge and relay notification of distress from vessels on a 24hour basis;
 - establish and implement the National Maritime Search and Rescue (SAR)
 Plan;
 - coordinate the activities of organisations engaged in SAR operations both at the coast and inland waters;
 - enforce the SAR plan for the national and regional area of responsibility;
 - request assistance from other Maritime Rescue Coordination Centres (MRCC's) as appropriate.
- The Coast Guard, whom assumes the role of undertaking maritime SAR actions on the country territorial waters;
- The Navy, whom assumes the role of undertaking maritime SAR actions on the country EEZ and international waters.

• At the scene of the incident:

- The Master/Captain of the fishing vessel, whom assumes the role as the person in charge, who gives immediate strategic directions or best course of action to mitigate the risk and is responsible for notifying the Observer Coordinator and relevant authorities. However, this is subject to the incident that is occurring as the Master/Captain/Crew might be responsible for the incident itself.
- The **Observer** deployed on the fishing vessel, whom assumes the role of the person at risk and is responsible for notifying the Observer Coordinator of risks and incidents due to Master, Captain or crew actions or refusing or failing to act.

Following the incident:

- The Observer Management Authority, whom assumes the role of complainant and it's responsible for notifying the Flag State, relevant parties, and authorities of the incident and of requesting for the conducting of investigations and follow up actions on the incident in question.
- The vessel Operator/Owner, Flag States, Coastal States, Port States, whom assumes the role of investigation and reporting actions taken to the Observer

Management Authority and relevant parties and authorities, including the IOTC Secretariat.

Observer Programme staff including Observers, vessels Captain/Master, vessels Owner/Agent and Search and Rescue Institutions are to be informed of the role they play on the EAP and of their responsibilities.

Procedures

To guarantee that at-sea Observer emergencies and reports on issues of safety (including instances of harassment, intimidation, or assault) are immediately and effectively handled, the Programme EAP is to include, as a minimum, agreed safety-at-sea procedures detailed under the IOTC ROS Standards and Guidelines.

Procedures shall include:

- Communications protocol
- Appropriate contact information
- Standard Operating Procedures to deal with reported observer emergencies including:
 - o Follow up responses
 - o Remedial action
 - Completing of the EAP protocols
 - o Reporting to national authorities and RFMOs

Communications Protocol and Appropriate Contact Information

A communications protocol is to be established and shall include routine reports (<u>deployment report</u> and <u>five-day status report</u>), and a 24-hr emergency service ensured by the Observer Management Authority via, *interalia*, the maintaining of a device capable of receiving a signal from an independent two-way satellite communication device to be allocated to deployed Observers. Templates are provided under <u>Annex 3</u> and <u>Annex 4</u>.

Standard Operating Procedures to Deal with Reported Observer Emergencies

Standard Operation Procedures (SOP) are to be developed by the, and for the, Observer Programme to ensure that Observers are able to work in an environment that is free from, obstruction, harassment, intimidation, assaults and other threats, and that provides them with adapted work and living conditions. These are to include instructions on follow up responses²², remedial action²³, the completing of the EAP protocols²⁴ and reporting²⁵ in case of an Observer emergency/restriction situation at-sea. An example of SOPs to deal with

²² Procedure to initiate contact with the Observer, the vessel, and, if necessary, the appropriate enforcement authority of Flag CPC and relevant Coastal CPCs.

²³ Procedures for addressing issues related to the safety of Observers. These include clear actions to be taken in the event of various emergencies.

²⁴ Appropriate measures for addressing violations made against observers.

²⁵ Procedure to report incidents involving observers to the national authorities and RFMOs.

reported Observer emergencies is provided under <u>Annex 5</u>.

PART C: NAVIGATION, WEATHER AND ELECTRONICS

BASIC NOTIONS ON NAVIGATION, NAVIGATION EQUIPMENT AND ELECTRONIC FISHING AIDS

Most of the information collected by observers requires the geographical position where it was recorded. Observers, therefore, need to know where to get this information and have a clear understanding of how positions are determined, the format in which they are recorded and be sure that recorded positions are correct (verified). In addition, observers record the use of electronic aids used in finding fish that can affect the effort used to locate and catch fish.

This section provides a brief description of the range of electronic navigation systems that are all or partly found on a vessel. It is important for the observer to recognise the electronic navigation equipment and understand their function. However, it is advised that at no stage should an Observer ever attempt to personally operate any of the vessels equipments and always solicit one of the vessels officers to assist if they require information from any of the equipment.

Navigation and Positioning

Recording accurate positions are an essential component to support sampling data collected at sea. To understand what a position is and how to record it an observer requires some basic understanding of the practical elements of navigation. The requirements to achieve this standard include:

- a knowledge of the standard units of measurements for length and speed for both the metric and imperial units;
- be able to understand and view the division of the earth's sphere into coordinates of latitude and longitude measured in degrees; and
- the basic mathematical theory relating to working with circles and angles and measurements in degrees and minutes.

STANDARD UNITS OF MEASUREMENT

Determining and recording geographic positions and catch, effort and sampling requires an understanding of units of measurement and their abbreviated symbols.

Symbols

- Millimetres = mm
- Centimetres = cm
- Meter = m

- Fathom = fm
- Nautical miles = Nm
- Nautical miles per hour = knot

- Kilometres = km
- Kilometres per hour = km / h
- Inches = in
- Feet = ft

Length Units and Conversion Factors

- 1 centimetre = 10 millimetres1cm = 10mm
- 1 meter = 100 centimetres1m = 100cm

Weight Units

Thousand grams = One (1) kilogram
 1000g = 1 Kg

Speed Units

- Knot = Nautical mile per hour
 Nm/h
- Circles & Angles
- and its size is measured in degrees from 0 ° to 360 ° Note:

A circle is a line equidistant from a fixed central point. The centre point is the centre of the circle. When two straight lines are drawn from the centre to the outside, they form an angle

- a circle is divided into 360 degrees (°);
- one degree is divided into 60 minutes ('); and
- one minute is divided into 60 seconds (").

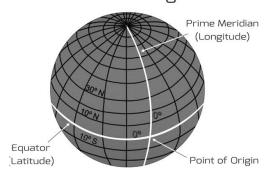
POSITION LATITUDE AND LONGITUDE

The earth has the shape of a sphere (ball) which revolves around a central axis through the *North* and *South Poles*. The earth rotates around its axis once every 24 hours in relation to the sun.

Any position, anywhere on the earth's surface, can be referenced in degrees of Latitude and Longitude.

- Grams = g
- Kilograms = kg
- Tonnes = t
- Hours = h
- 1 kilometre = 1000 metres
 1km = 1000m
- 1 nautical mile = 1852m = 1,852km
 1mn = 1852m = 1.852km
- Thousand kilograms = One (1) tonne (metric)
 1000 Kg = 1 t
- Kilometre per hour km/h

Latitude & Longitude



Principals that must be understood are:

- the axis of rotation of the earth passing through the North and South Poles;
- the *equator* is a line around the earth exactly half way between the North and South poles, which divide the earth into a northern and southern hemisphere;
- parallels are circles parallel to the equator and perpendicular to the line of the Poles;
- *meridians* are half circles passing through the poles and perpendicular to the equator; and
- the prime meridian, also called *Greenwich meridian or meridian zero*: serves as a reference to locate the other meridians. It passes through Greenwich (London Observatory).

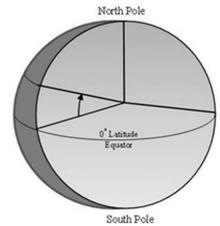
Latitude

The Equator (0° Latitude) is exactly halfway between the North and South poles, dividing the earth into two equal halves, the Northern Hemisphere and the Southern Hemisphere.

The lines of latitude on the earth's surface are circles parallel to the equator and are used to record a position north or south of the equator. On a chart the lines of latitude are the imaginary horizontal lines shown running east-to-west.

The measurement of latitude is an angle measured in degrees ranging from 0° at the equator (low latitude) to 90° (high latitude) at the north and south poles.

The poles are 90° from the plane of the equator and maximum latitude that can be recorded

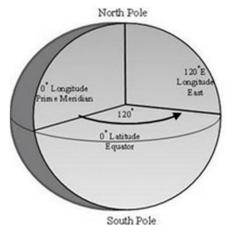


Longitude

Longitude-meridians, are lines that run north to south from pole to pole. All lines of longitude cross at the poles. In navigation lines of longitude record a position east or west from the prime meridian. On a chart the lines of longitude are the imaginary vertical lines shown running north to south.

The prime meridian (Greenwich Meridian), is the line of longitude that passes through the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, in England, has been internationally chosen as the 0o Longitude.

Longitude can be measured East (E) or West (W) of the prime meridian (0° Longitude) to a maximum of



180° longitude. The 180° longitude is also called the international date line. The Greenwich Meridian and 180° line of longitude divides the earth into an Eastern and Western half.

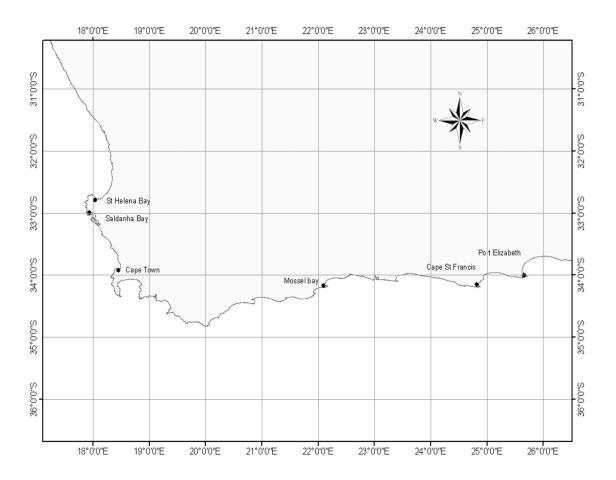
(0° to 180° East and 0° to 180° West = 360° covering the full circumference of the earth's surface.)

Remember latitude and longitude are measured in degrees and minutes (and points of minutes). For example: 40° 21.52′ N (latitude) / 050° 30.37′ W (Longitude)

Navigation Charts

A navigation chart shows a small part of the earth's surface. All charts are orientated so that the top of the chart points towards the North. Lines of latitude and longitude are straight lines, with lines of latitude running horizontal across the chart and lines of longitude running vertical up and down. Lines of latitude and longitude are therefore perpendicular (90°) to each other.

The units of Latitude (degrees) are shown on the sides of the chart with the Latitude <u>increasing</u> towards the poles.



Units of Longitude (degrees) are shown along the top and bottom of a chart with the angle <u>increasing</u> from the East to West (towards the right) in the Indian Ocean region.

The scale of a chart is indicated under the chart heading. It is given in the form of a fraction whose numerator is 1. In the example opposite the scale of the map is 1: 375 000, that is to say that 1 cm on the map represents 375 000 cm or 3750 m on the earth.

To record a position on a chart (e.g.: 19°00'S; 035°00'E)

- For latitude; draw a line across horizontally from the 19° S latitude graduation on the side of the chart.
- For longitude draw a vertical line from the <u>035°00′E</u> graduation on the top of the chart.

The position (19°00'S; 035°00'E) is at the intersection of the two lines.

Some Navigation Terms

Course

A line drawn between two positions plotted on a chart will be the <u>course</u> from the start position to the end position. The course of a vessel is the direction towards which it is steering on the compass. A course is referenced in the three-figure notation from 000 to 360 and is read off the compass rose that is marked on the chart.

Distance

In nautical terms distance is measured in "nautical miles" (nm) and speed in "nautical miles per hour" (knots). One nautical mile equals 1.852 kilometres.

By definition one (1) nautical mile is equal to one (1) minute of latitude and can be measured using the latitude scale on the side of the chart. However, it is important to note that due to the projection (Mercator projection) of a standard chart, distance <u>cannot</u> be measured from the longitude scale.

Speed

A vessels speed is measured in **knot**s: Nautical Miles per Hour.

One Knot = One Nautical Miles per Hour (One nautical Mile equals 1.852 Kilometres)

Speed times Distance

The distance covered by a vessel, its speed or the time that it will take to travel from one position to another, can be calculated from **(speed time distance)** equations.

If		Then	
Speed Time	S	Speed S = D / T nautical miles per hour (knots)	D
Time	•	Time	/ 3 X 1

Distance	D	T = D / S Time in hours and /or/ minutes (hr:min)
		Distance
		D = S x T Nautical miles (nm)

If you have information of any two of these factors you can calculate the third factor.

For example: if you have the distance travelled and the time it took to cover that distance you can calculate your speed.

It takes you 5 hours to travel 100 nm. What was your speed?

Speed = Distance/Time

= 100 km / 5 hours = 20 nm/hr (knots)

It is unlikely that for observers to be involved in <u>exact</u> navigation calculations. However, in their verification of vessel recorded information, if the difference in coordinates of two positions compared to the times recorded indicates that the vessel had to travel at impossible speeds then it would need to be questioned.

For example; a purse-seiner shoots its net in a position $\underline{14^{\circ}\ 20'\ S}$ and $\underline{080^{\circ}\ 40E}$ at $\underline{1800}$ and 6-hours later makes a second set in a position $\underline{18^{\circ}\ 00\ S}$ and $\underline{081^{\circ}\ 00'E}$ at $\underline{2400}$.

The difference in latitude between the two positions is 3° 40′ which is approximately 220 nautical miles. To cover this distance in six hours the vessel would have travelled at over 36 knots. Is this possible?

Time and Time Zones



UTC / GMT

Greenwich Mean Time (GMT) is the mean solar time at the Royal Observatory in Greenwich, London. GMT was formerly used as the international civil time standard, now superseded in that function by Coordinated Universal Time (UTC), defined by a whole number of hours (UTC–12 to UTC+14). The IOTC now requires that all times recorded on data forms or in the electronic database must be UTC time. The best method to make sure you using the correct UTC time is to always wear, while on-board, a watch synchronized with the UTC time.

Standard time

Standard time is the synchronization of clocks within a geographical area or region to a single time standard. The world is divided up into 24 time zones. A time zone is a specific

number of whole hours from UTC. These time zones are either 0 to 12 hours ahead of Greenwich or 0 to 12 hours behind Greenwich.

A time zone is basically 15° of longitude that is equal to 1 hour of the suns passage around the earth. The rotation of the earth relative to the sun determines time zones. This comes down to the earth rotating 1° in 4-min and 15°- in one hour. However, to accommodate the varying East West dimensions of different countries the "standard time" of a country can exceed 150 of longitude.

Ships time

On some vessels all the times recorded of fishing events relate to the zone time of their flag State or company headquarters. When inspecting logbooks and fishing event times, check or query the time zone that the vessel is working in and if the vessel changed time zones. This would have to be taken into account when comparing fishing times at different positions.

Local time

Local time is also determined by the rotation of the earth and is based on the sun passing your meridian exactly at 1200 (midday) also called "Sundial Noon". Local time and the difference between local and ships time can have implications on some of the seabird mitigation measures with respect to line setting operations

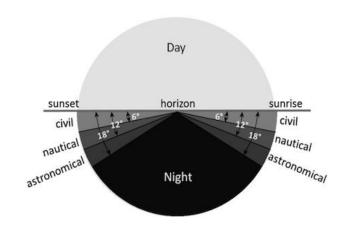
Time and Mitigation

In some fisheries there are seabird mitigation requirements that require the vessel to only set lines at night. Normally stipulated between "Nautical Dusk and Nautical Dawn" There are therefore three more terms to learn:

- sunset and sunrise
- civil twilight;
- nautical twilight; and
- astronomical twilight.

Sunrise is the time in the morning when the first part of the sun appears above the horizon. *Sunset* is the time in the evening when last part of the sun disappears below the horizon.

Civil Twilight at dawn (in the morning) starts when the sun's disk is 6 degrees below the horizon and ends at sunrise. At dusk (In evening) civil twilight starts when the sun sets and ends when the sun is 6 degrees below the horizon



Nautical Twilight at dawn starts when the sun is 12 degrees below the horizon and ends when the sun is 6 degrees below the horizon. In the evening nautical twilight starts when the sun is 6 degrees below the horizon and ends when the sun is 12 degrees below the horizon.

Astronomical Twilight at dawn starts when the sun is 18 degrees below the horizon, and ends when the sun is 12 degrees below the horizon. In the evening it starts when the sun is 12 degrees below the horizon and ends when the sun is 18 degrees below the horizon.

To comply with a measure that stipulates line setting may only take place between nautical dusk and nautical dawn would therefore mean that the sun must be more than 12 degrees below the horizon before start of setting in the evening or that the setting operation must be completed before the sun is 12 degrees below the horizon be completed before nautical dawn in the morning.

However, as this is determined by the suns position it is based on *local time* (i.e., with reference to the suns position to the longitude of the vessel), which may differ significantly from the time the vessel is working on.

There are various means to determine the actual ship time for nautical dawn and dusk. A simple calculation using the vessels exact longitude position can be used to determining the time difference from the ships time or zone time.

To determine ship time for Nautical Dawn and Dusk

The time for nautical dawn and dusk together with sunrise and sun set times are displayed in the nautical almanac, in *local time* units for a specific date and latitude, anywhere in the world. Unless a vessel is working on local time, *which is highly unlikely*, these times need to be converted to the zone time used by the vessel. [*All vessels should have onboard a nautical almanac*].

Basic theory: The earth rotates 360 degrees (of Longitude) in 24 hours, 15 degrees in 1 hour or 1 degree in 4 minutes.

If you take your <u>longitude</u> for any position on the earths it can be converted to time ahead or behind Greenwich in minutes for up to a maximum of 180 degrees or 720 minutes (12 hours). By either adding or subtracting this time from the local time extracted from the nautical almanac you would, in theory, have converted the local time to GMT. To convert from GMT to the standard time used by the vessel you must add or subtract the whole number of hours to get back to the ships time used by the vessel.

For example: Position: On 1 October 2019 you are fishing in position 35° South and 40° East.

➤ Local Time Nautical Dusk The local time for Nautical dusk from the almanac is 18:32

- > Convert your Longitude to Time 40° x 4min of time = 160 minutes (2 hours 40 minutes (02:40)
- Convert local time to Greenwich time: Your position is East: so, you are ahead of Greenwich so you must subtract to get to GMT

The vessel is working on South African Standard time that is GMT +2: therefore, the time of Nautical Dusk on the ships clock will be:

Note this is 40 minutes earlier than the time given in the nautical almanac, which for an impatient shipper is a long time.

BRIDGE AND ELECTRONIC NAVIGATION SYSTEMS

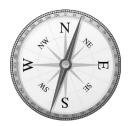
Essentially all information collected by observers requires the geographical position where it was recorded. Observers, therefore, need to know where to get this information and have a clear understanding of the format in which they are recorded and be sure they are correct. In addition, observers record the use of electronic aids used in finding fish that can affect the effort used to locate and catch fish.

This section provides a brief description of the range of electronic navigation systems that are all or partly found on a vessel. It is important for the observer to recognise the electronic navigation equipment and understand their function. However, it is advised that at no stage should an observer <u>ever</u> attempt to personally operate any of the vessels equipment and always solicit one of the vessels officers to assist if they require information from any of the equipment.

Compass and Direction

The compass gives a basic value for the direction of the magnetic or the real north. The compass is graduated in degrees from 0 to 360, (0 ° and 360 ° constitute the same point), and is also divided into cardinal points, North, South, East, West, SE SW NW NE.

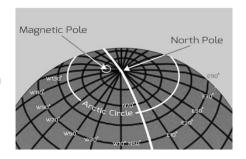
- North (N) = 000°
- East (E) = 090°
- South (S) = 180°
- West (W) = 270°
- Northeast (NE) = 045°
- Northwest (NW) = 315°
- Southeast (SE) = 135°
- Southwest (SW) = 225°



Observers must cross-reference the information of these two systems according to the data to be described. For greater clarity, when referring to a vessels' heading, the three-digit degree notation is used. However, wind direction of the sea is often referred using

the cardinal system except when entering the direction into an electronic data base.

Remember, there are two main types of compasses, electronic compass and magnetic compass. An electronic compass relies on a powers supply and is set to always indicate True North which is the point through which the earths axes passes. Most vessels electronic navigation equipment, are integrated to an electronic compass and reference true north.



A magnetic compass is dependent on the earth's magnetic field, and will point to the Magnetic North. To some extent the magnetic fields of the vessel and equipment surrounding a magnetic compass also affect the direction shown by a magnetic compass.

Global Positioning System (GPS)

Satellites in orbit around the earth are used to determine exact positions on the surface of the earth using the Global Positioning System (GPS).



Note: GPS units record the positions in degrees, minutes and tenths of minutes. The tenths of a minute can be converted to seconds by multiplying by 60. Otherwise, the seconds can be converted into tenths of a minute by dividing them by 60.

For example

- 30 " = 30/60 = 0.500 of one minute
- 20 "= 20/60 = 0.333 of one minute
- 50 "= 50/60 = 0.833 of one minute

GPS Plotter

A GPS chart plotter is an electronic chart. The position of the ship is shown on the map and moves as the ship navigates from one point to another. In addition, a (+) cursor on the map can be moved on the map to display the Latitude and Longitude of a selected point or a plotted position.



Note that it is then the position of the cursor that is displayed on the screen, and NOT THE POSITION OF THE VESSEL.

A common source of errors recorded in positions occur when an observer records a position from a plotter and has not verified if it is the vessels position or a plotted position.

Note: If the decimals do not change and the ship is moving, you are probably looking at the cursor position.

Echosounder

Transducer located beneath the hull transmits a sound wave downwards which is reflected on the bottom (echo) to return to the hull and indicate the depth of water. The sound waves are reflected also from fish and can help the captain to spot the schools of fish. The depth on an echo sounder can be measured either in meters (m) or fathoms (fm) and it is very important to note in which units the depth is recorded. *Remember: 1 fathoms = 1.83 m*



Sonar

Sonar [similar to an echo-sounder] uses sound waves that are directed horizontally from the boat to detect shoals of fish around the vessel. The sonar direction can be controlled to detect shoals of fish relative to the vessel and by angling the sonar beam up and down the depth of the shoal can be determined.



Auto Pilot

The auto pilot is used to steer the vessel on a specified course. The auto pilot electronically reads the compass or direction from a GPS and controls the steering mechanism that controls the rudder.



Radar

Radar sends out and receives radio waves horizontally from the vessel. When the radio waves reflect off objects the reflection is shown on the radar screen. These can show the real-time position of objects around a vessel in darkness of in fog when they cannot normally be seen visually



BASICS OF RADIO AND SATELLITE COMMUNICATIONS

For observers to be able to communication is an essential tool required in modern day observer programs having several vital functions:

- health and safety;
- observer well-being;
- · operational requirements; and
- emergency situations.

Observers work alone at sea without direct supervision or support from their controlling agencies. Reliable communication allows the controlling agency to monitor the wellbeing of the observer and at the same time keep up to date on their work. Similarly, the observer can

report back to their controlling agency if they have any personal or safety issues onboard and request guidance in achieving their tasks.

Clearly the prime function of communication is to be able to send out a distress signal in the event of an emergency that threatens the vessel and lives of personal onboard.

The Global Maritime Distress and Safety System (GMDSS)

The Global Maritime Distress and Safety System (GMDSS) is the technical, operational and administrative structure for maritime distress and safety communications worldwide. It was established in 1988 by the International Maritime Organization (IMO) which adopted a revised text of Chapter IV of the International Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea, 1974, (SOLAS) - dealing with Radiocommunications - and was implemented globally between 1992 and 1997.

The GMDSS establishes the radiocommunications equipment that all vessels from counties aligned to the United Nations and IMO are required to carry, how this equipment shall be maintained and how it is used, and provides the context within which governments should establish the appropriate shore-based facilities to support GMDSS communications.

GMDSS is therefore an international system which uses improved terrestrial and satellite technology and ship-board radio systems. It ensures rapid alerting of shore-based rescue and communications authorities in the event of an emergency.

From 1st February 1999 all commercial vessels over 300 tonnes and fishing vessels operating on the High Seas are required to comply with international GMDSS standards.

The main components for GMDSS are:

- EPIRBs Emergency Position-Indicating Radio Beacon 406 MHz;
- NAVTEX an international, automated system for instantly distributing maritime navigational warnings, weather forecasts and warnings, search and rescue notices and similar information to ships;
- Inmarsat Inmarsat Satellite systems operated by the Inmarsat, overseen by IMSO, International Mobile Satellite Organization are important elements of the GMDSS. The types of Inmarsat ship earth station terminals recognized by the GMDSS are: Inmarsat B, C and F77;
- HF Radio The GMDSS includes High Frequency (HF) radiotelephone and radio telex (narrow-band direct printing) equipment, with calls initiated by digital selective calling (DSC). Worldwide broadcasts of maritime safety information are also made on HF narrow-band direct printing channels;

- SART These devices may be either a radar-SART (Search and Rescue Transponder), or an AIS-SART (AIS Search and Rescue Transmitter) are used to locate survival craft or distressed vessels by creating a series of dots on a rescuing ship's 3 cm radar display; and
- DSC The IMO also introduced Digital Selective Calling (DSC) on MF, HF and VHF maritime radios as part of the GMDSS system. Each DSC-equipped ship, shore station and group is assigned a unique 9-digit Maritime Mobile Service Identity.

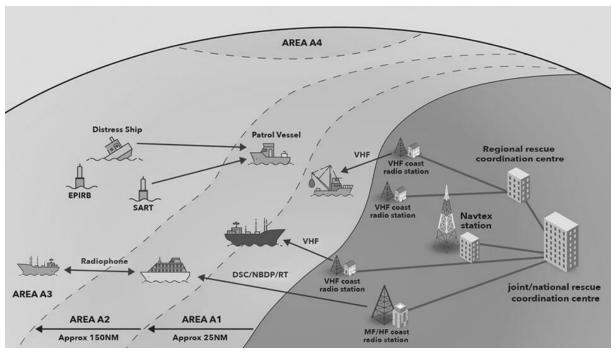


Figure 10 - Global Maritime Distress and Safety System (GMDSS) Sea Areas.

GMDSS sea areas have been defined to describe areas where GMDSS services are available, and to define what GMDSS ships must carry. Prior to the GMDSS, the number and type of radio safety equipment ships had to carry depended upon its tonnage. With GMDSS, the number and type of radio safety equipment ships have to carry depend upon the areas in which they operate. The maritime authorities of a vessel's Flag State define the GMDSS sea areas applicable to their vessels.

<u>Sea Area A1</u>: An area within the radiotelephone coverage of at least one VHF coast station in which continuous digital selective calling (ch70) alerting and radiotelephony services are available. Such an area could extend typically 30 to 50 Nautical miles from the Coast Station.

<u>Sea Area A2</u>: An area, excluding Sea Area A1, within the radiotelephone coverage of at least one MF coast station in which continuous DSC (2187.5 kHz) alerting and radiotelephony services are available. For planning purpose this area typically extends to up to 150 nautical miles offshore, but would exclude any A1 designated areas. In practice, satisfactory coverage may often be achieved out to around 400 Nautical miles offshore.

<u>Sea Area A3</u>: An area, excluding sea areas A1 and A2, within the coverage of an INMARSAT geostationary satellite in which continuous alerting is available. This area lies between about latitude 76 Degree NORTH and SOUTH, but excludes A1 and/or A2 designated areas.

<u>Sea Area A4</u>: An area outside sea area A1, A2 and A3 is called Sea Area A4. This is essentially the POLAR Region, NORTH and SOUTH of about 76 Degree of Latitude, but excludes any other areas.

GMDSS Communication Equipment and Use

Radio VHF



As part of their GMDSS requirements the vessel will be fitted with several types of radios that transmit at different frequencies. Two main types of radios are used:

- 1. Radio VHF (Very High Frequency) has limited range used for local communications up to approximately 25 miles; and
- 2. Radio MF & HF (Medium & High Frequency) for communication over longer distances over 1000 miles.

Fleet 77 Satellite telephone



NAVTEX



Marine safety
information receipt,
including
meteorological
bulletins

MF / HF transmitter



for radio communications from 2 to 25 MHz

VHF DSC transmitter-receiver metric wave



for radio communications range: about 20 miles

Emergency Position Indicating Radio Beacon

The EPIRB are managed by the COSPAS-SARSAT satellite system. This system operates offshore and over the entire surface of the globe. They transmit, via satellite, a distress alert to ground stations connected to control and mission centres that validate and distribute alert data to competent rescue centres. They exist in two versions:

- A handheld Personal Locator Beacon (PLB): portable, with manual start.



- Emergency position-indicating radio beacon stations (EPIRS): housed in a container with a hydrostatic width, which can be switched on manually or automatically.



Inmarsat B: Satellite communication telephone, telex, Email



Inmarsat C: Telex satellite communication,
Email and fax transmission



Emergency Communication

On-board foreign flagged vessels the chances are that in an emergency situation your knowledge of English or local conditions may put you in the situation where you will be the most qualified to send off a distress message or communicate with rescue vessels. It is therefore important that you familiarize yourself with the Global Maritime Distress Safety Systems (GMDSS) equipment. Take specific note of where the radios are situated and how to operate them. The emergency frequencies that must be remembered are:

VHF Channel 16;

SSB High Frequency 2182.0 kHz; and

SSB Medium Frequency 4125.0 kHz

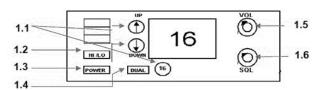
Inmarsat Terminals have a "single press" distress button that must be held down for <u>7</u> seconds to send out an automatic distress signal.

Note listening times or silent periods on distress frequencies specifically to allow for the maximum opportunity of a MAYDAY being picked up by a listening vessel.

Also keep in mind that as a listening vessel a distress call received on VHF or HF may mean that due to the limited range of these frequencies you are the closest vessel to the vessel in distress and as such are obliged to respond.

PRACTICAL USE

The Observer shall not use radiotelephony or make adjustments without the permission of an officer of the ship, but the Observer should understand the practical use of the equipment, follow the communication procedures and if necessary, ensure the transmission and reception of messages relating to the safeguarding of human life at sea (in the event that no other person can do so).





- Selection and control of channels. This can be a rotary knob, "Up" and "Down" keys or keys
- Output power control. A button, 1.2 usually called "Hi / Lo" (High / Low).



- 16 A button or key with marker 16 for direct access to channel 16.
- 1.4 Dual standby devices and controls. A button called "DUAL" or "DW" (DualWatch) makes it possible to watch over the distress channel while being positioned on another chosen channel.
- **1.6** Squelch control. Device for adjusting the sensitivity of reception of the VHF. It forces the receiver to be silent when it receives no signal.

- 1.3 Connection. A "ON / OFF" button (POWER) is used to activate and deactivate the device.
- 1.5 **Volume control.** A generally rotary knob adjusts the BF reception level (volume).
- 1.7 **Alternating control.** The handset connected to the fixed telephone has a PTT (Push To Talk) key that allows you to alternate send and receive. While holding down this key, the machine is in the transmit mode and it is possible to talk; By releasing this button, the unit is in the receiving mode and it is possible to listen.

How to adjust:

- move to the channel 16
- set the squelch to a minimum: high blast noise
- gently resume the adjustment in reverse order until complete silence
- turn back slightly
- when the loudspeaker emits only a "cloc" from time to time, the setting is perfect
- keep watch on channel 16
- respond to communications (no distress) on other paths
- To facilitate the reception of messages relating to the safeguarding of human life at sea (SVH), emissions on the international call and distress frequency (channel 16) shall be reduced to a minimum.

Communication Procedures

Use of the International Phonetic Alphabet

The International Phonetic Alphabet makes it possible to reinforce the understanding of words (name of ship, indicative, abbreviation) transmitted by radiotelephony. One spells out words or numbers by matching each letter to an agreed word whose first letter is the same as that of the word to be spelled.

Example: the word "MARTIN" will be spelled "MIKE, ALFA, ROMEO, TANGO, INDIA, NOVEMBER".

Table 1 - Table of spelling of the International Phonetic Alphabet

<u>A</u>	alpha	[ˈælfɑ]	alfâ	
<u>B</u>	bravo	[braˈvo]	brâvô	
<u>C</u>	charie	[ˈ ^t ʃali]	chârli	
D	delta	[ˈdɛltɑ]	dèltâ	
<u>E</u>	echo	[ˈɛko]	èkô	
<u>F</u>	foxtrot	[ˈfɔkstrɔt]	foxtrot	
<u>G</u>	golf	[flcg]	golf	
<u>H</u>	hotel	[hoˈtɛl]	hôtèl	
Ī	india	[ˈɪndi.a]	inndïâ	
Ī	juliett	[dʒuliˈɛt]	djulïèt	
<u>K</u>	kilo	[ˈkilo]	kilô	
Ī	lima	[ˈlima]	limâ	
<u>M</u>	mike	[majk]	maïk	
<u>N</u>	november	[noˈvɛmbə]	nôvemmb	
0	oscar	[ˈɔsk]	oscâ	
<u>P</u>	рара	[pəˈpɑ]	pepâ	
Q	quebec	[kɛˈbɛk]	kèbèk	
<u>R</u>	romeo	[ˈromi.o]	rômïô	
<u>s</u>	sierra	[siˈɛrɑ]	sïèrâ	
Ţ	tango	[ˈtaŋgo]	tanngô	

ionetic <i>F</i>	Alphabet		
<u>U</u>	uniform	[ˈjunɪfɔm]	younifom
<u>v</u>	victor	[ˈvɪkta]	vitâ
<u>w</u>	whiskey	[ˈwɪski]	ouiski
X	x-ray	[ɛksˈre]	èksré
<u>Y</u>	yakee	[ˈjaŋki]	yannki
<u>Z</u>	zulu	[ˈzulu]	Zoulou
<u>0</u>	zero	[ziro]	zirô
1	one	[wʌn]	ouann
<u>2</u>	two	[tu]	tou
<u>3</u>	three	[tri]	tri
<u>4</u>	four	[foə]	fôë
<u>5</u>	five	[fajf]	faïf
<u>6</u>	six	[sɪks]	siks
<u>7</u>	seve	[ˈsɛvɛn]	sèvenn
<u>8</u>	eight	[et]	eït
<u>9</u>	nine	[ˈnajə]	naïneu
virgule	comma	[coma]	komeu
100	hundred	[ˈhʌndrɛd]	hanndrèd
1000	thousand	[taʊˈsand]	Taoussanno

Distress Call Procedure

(Remain calm and speak slowly and clearly)

MAYDAY – MAYDAY – MAYDAY (repeated three times)

Vessel Name (repeated three times)

Position (check the GPS if possible)

Nature of Emergency

Number of Crew

Vessel Description

Transmitting frequency

Repeat as often as possible allowing a reasonable time interval for a reply.

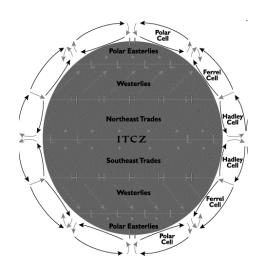
PARAMETERS OF METEOROLOGY AND OCEANOGRAPHY RELEVANT TO OBSERVERS

Wind Direction and Speed

Wind has a large effect on conditions at sea that that affect fishing operations and large number of oceanic conditions such as currents and water temperature. Essentially wind is the horizontal movement of air from a high-pressure system to a low-pressure system.

The atmospheric pressure (barometric pressure) at any location on the Earth, caused by the weight of the column of air above it. Pressure is and is measured in millibars (mbar). *The average pressure at sea level is (1013.25 mbar)* Air pressure is measured





using a barometer.

A higher pressure occurs when air heavier due to lower temperatures is sinking downwards (descending). A lower pressure occurs when air is warmed up by the sun or high-water temperatures and the warm air rises. The horizontal movement of air from the high pressure to low pressure creates the wind. Globally the main wind systems are the trade winds that move cool air from the high-pressure religions of the higher latitudes to the low-

pressure region near the equator where the more direct sunlight causes the air to warm up and rise.

The rotation of the earth causes the wind to be deflected to the west. This deflection (Coriolis force) result in south east trade winds in the southern hemisphere and north east winds in the northern hemisphere.

The strength of the wind is determined by the pressure gradient. A steep gradient caused by a rapid change in pressure over a short distance will result in a stronger wind.

The wind direction is always recorded as the direction that it is coming from. *Therefore, if* you are looking into the wind and facing east it will be an east-wind.

The Wind Direction can be expressed in either cardinal units or in degrees.

For example:

- South Easterly Wind SE or 125 degrees
- Westerly Wind W or 270 degrees

The Wind Speed can be expressed in a number of units:

- Beaufort wind scale (see <u>Annex 1</u>) (force number using the Beaufort wind scale 1 –
 12);
- knots (nautical miles per hour);
- kilometres per hour (Km/h);
- meters per second (m/s); or
- described in words.

The standard measurement at sea is either *Knots* or *Beaufort Wind Scale* (force number). By observing the sea state an estimation of the wind speed can be determined.

Sea state and Swell (Height and Direction)

<u>Sea waves</u> are waves generated locally by the prevailing wind and move in the same direction as the surface wind. Larger wind waves often break and have foaming crests.

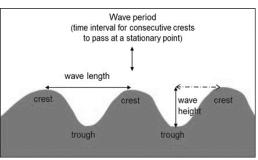
<u>Swell</u> are waves that have been generated elsewhere and have travelled out of the area where they were generated and have no relation to the prevailing wind direction. A swell never breaks or has a foaming crest.

Waves of both types appear to travel in groups consisting of a number of waves of varying height with the higher wave occurring in the centre of the group. A relatively flat area consisting of a number of distinctly smaller waves separates groups or sets of waves.

Wind waves have an irregular form while swell waves will have a more regular form. Note a large swell can often be present with little or no wind blowing and no sea waves present.

<u>Sea direction</u> is expressed as the direction from which the sea is coming. Cardinal points or degrees are also used to record the direction of the sea, similar to wind direction.

<u>Sea height</u> is expressed in meters and is the height from the trough to the crest of the



wave. This height can be estimated by looking at an object on the sea surface (for example a bird or white patch from a recently broken wave) and watch it move as a number of waves pass and attempt to estimate the height of its vertical movement. As the heights vary from wave to wave an average is estimated. With time and experience you will become more accurate with your estimations. The wave height and sea condition also form a cross-reference to estimating wind strength.

Swell direction and height

Swell direction and height are estimated in the same way as determining sea height and direction. However, a swell will never break or have a "white cap" and has no relation to the prevailing wind. In many cases the swell direction will be different from that of the prevailing sea. If two wave forms are observed and their movement is in the direction of the surface wind, the system, which has the longer distance between crests and a more regular form, is considered to be the swell.

Current Systems of the Indian Ocean

A current is a displacement of sea water characterized by its direction, speed and flow. The force of wind on the sea surface causes the surface water to move in the same direction as the wind. *Note: A current direction is recorded in the direction it is flowing towards.*

Similar to wind, currents are influenced by the rotation of the earth (Coriolis force), which results in ocean currents turning in an anti-clockwise direction in the southern hemisphere and a clockwise direction in the northern hemisphere. These are called ocean gyres. Current directions and temperature have a major influence on the tuna fishery in the Indian ocean.

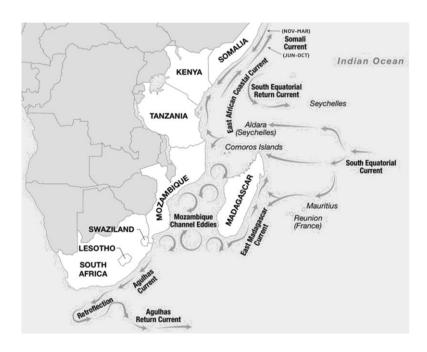
The Indian Ocean is the third largest ocean and covers about 14% of the Earth's surface area. Because much of the Indian Ocean lies within the tropics, this basin has the warmest surface ocean temperatures (20 - 30°C). However, the extent of the Indian ocean basin north of the equator is limited by the Asian landmass and currents in this region do not follow the same pattern as other ocean basins such as the Atlantic and Pacific.

A major characteristic of all ocean currents (gyres) is that water flowing away from the equator (southwards in the southern hemisphere and northwards in the northern hemisphere) are warm

currents. Currents flowing towards the equator are cold currents.

The major currents at the equator are the south equatorial currents, flow towards the west parallel to the equator.

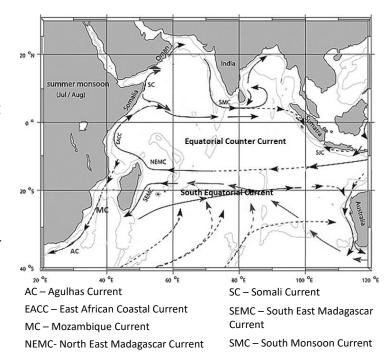
The South Equatorial Current splits into a south-flowing arm, becoming the South East Madagascar Current and the Mozambique Current. A portion of the south equatorial current also



turns north forming the North East Madagascar Current and the East African Coastal Current. The latter flows as far as the Somali Current, after which its direction depends on the season.

MONSOON SEASON AND AFFECT

Monsoon season and winds are caused by the projection of the Indian landmass into the in the Indian ocean. A monsoon is a seasonal reversal in the prevailing wind direction and weather. A warm air mass with low pressure at the surface forms over the continent as it is warmed by the sun. Air from the relatively cooler and higher-pressure air mass over the ocean then flows toward the low pressure over land. In winter this process is reversed as the air over the land becomes cooler, developing into a high pressure



and winds blow off-shore towards the low pressure caused by the relatively warmer ocean. These conditions also influence the strength and direction of coastal currents.

During the South-West monsoon (June to September, northern hemisphere summer) the flow of the East African Coastal Current and is increased by 4 knots and its range extends further north becoming the Somali Current and later joins the Indian Monsoon Current. During the North-East monsoon the northerly flow of the East African Coastal Current is reduced to less than 1 knot in places and its course is a diverted eastward flowing back into the Indian Ocean and becoming the Equatorial Counter Current.

Upwelling occurs along the Somali and Arabian Peninsula where nutrient-rich water provides a source of nourishment for phytoplankton which feeds the zooplankton. The massive concentration of sardine and other small pelagic fish, which feed on the zooplankton form the basis of the seasonal and highly productive fishery in this area. Most of the other parts experience down-welling and the surface water is generally nutrient poor.

Sea surface Temperature and Colour

Sea surface temperature (SST) in an important parameter measured in the tuna fishery. Vessels target thermal fronts where there is a sudden change in SST.

Also associated with water temperature is the water colour. When cold, nutrient-rich, oxygen-rich water is upwelled there is an increase in primary activity (phytoplankton blooms) and an increase in concentrations of "green water" (water with high concentrations of chlorophyll). This is often clearly discernible from the warm clear blue oceanic water.

PART D: VESSEL OPERATIONS

SHIP LAYOUT AND TERMINOLOGY

Key Personnel

Captain The captain is a certified officer that is in overall command of the vessel

and is responsible for operation and safety of the vessel and all its crew.

All official documents that involve the vessel, must be signed by the

captain.

The Observer also has to prepare a preliminary report at the end of the

cruise and this should be given to the captain who should sign a copy to

acknowledge receiving the report.

Fishing On some vessels a Fishing Master is responsible for all fishing operations.

Master The Fishing Master may have no formal certificates and is a company

appointee to take charge of fishing operations.

Note: the captain is sometimes called the Master if he carries out both

tasks.

Mate The mate is also a ticketed officer second in command to the captain and

is often in charge of the fishing operations on the deck.

Factory The factory manager is responsible for the factory and all the handling and

Manager processing of the catch.

Bosun The bosun is below the mate and is often in charge of the fishing gear.

Chief The chief engineer is responsible for all mechanical equipment on-board.

Engineer

Cook The cook feeds you. Don't upset him.

Nautical Terms

Galley The galley is the compartment of a vessel where food is prepared and

cooked.

Mess hall The "mess hall" is a term sometimes used for the dining room on board

where the crew eats and can relax.

Accommodatio Accommodation is the area or deck where the crew sleep and ablutions

n are situated.

Bunks A bunk is term for a bed on-board a vessel.

Fairleads Fairleads are guides for ropes or cable passing over the side of the

vessel.

Anchor The anchor is used to "anchor the vessel" in one position and shut

down the engines.

Scupper A scupper is the "gutter" on the side of the deck that allows the water

from the deck to run-off directly over the side back into the sea.

Bollards Strong points onto which ropes can be tied.

Propeller Propels the vessel through the water.

Rudder Used to steer the vessel.

Bow thrusters Propeller situated in the bow that is used to manoeuvre the vessel

when it is stopped or moving too slow to be effectively steered by the

rudder.

Vessel Structure

Lower-decks

Hull The hull is the outer layer of the vessel and determines its size and

overall buoyancy.

Hull material can be steel, wood or glass-fibre reinforced plastic (GRP)

Main Deck A deck on a vessel is the horizontal partitioning of the vessel. The main

Upper-decks deck is the most continuous deck above the water line running from

the bows to the stern. All decks below the main deck are termed

"lower decks" and all decks above the main deck are called "upper

Superstructure decks" or form part of the "super structure".

Bridge The Bridge or "wheelhouse" is the position from where the vessel is

/ Wheelhouse controlled and is normally situated on the highest point of the

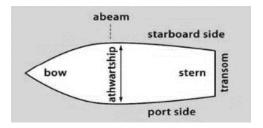
superstructure and provides an unobstructed view ahead of the vessel.

Bows/Stern The front of the vessel is the "bow" also termed "forward" or "front"

and the back is called the "stern", or "aft"

Port / Starboard

If you stand in the centre of the vessel and face the bows the side on your right hand is the "starboard" side and the side on your left is the "port" side.



Engine room

The engine room is located near the bottom, and at the rear, or aft, end of the vessel. It usually comprises a few compartments that contain the main engine that drives the vessel and auxiliary engines and generators to provide power for the machinery and refrigeration onboard.

Chart Room

The chart room on the bridge is used for plotting on navigation charts and is often where the skipper will keep and fill in his logbooks.

Hatches &

Hatch covers

A "hatch" is an opening between two decks that allows for vertical movement in a vessel. For example, a hatch would be found from the factory deck down to the hold where the fish are stored. Cargo and product are loaded or unloaded through hatches.

A "hatch cover" closes off the hatch. It is important to note that hatches below the main deck or hatches exposed on the main deck will need to be "water tight" in case of flooding.

Bulkhead & Bulkhead doors

Bulkheads are vertical partitions between decks. Bulkheads in a vessel serve several purposes:

- increase the structural rigidity of the vessel;
- divide functional areas into compartments;
- creates watertight compartments that can contain water in the event the hull is breached or any other leak occurs; and
- can contain a fire or gas leak.

Bulkheads and bulkhead doors, especially in lower decks are often watertight. In these instances, the bulkhead doors will have several clips around the doors edge that seal the door into its frame.

Bilges

The bilges are found at the bottom of the vessel. Wastewater from the engine room and the holds normally drains into the bilges. An observer may be required to monitor the discharge of bilge water to see if it contains oil or any other possible pollutants.

Hauling station

On a vessel operating longlines or traps the position from where the line is hauled on-board is called the "hauling station". The hauling

station on most vessels is situated forward on the starboard side so that the skipper from the bridge can view the line coming on-board. On large tuna Purse-seiners the net is hauled back on the port side.

Hold / freezer / ice/ Wells [brine freezing]

The "hold" on a vessel is where the fish or product are stored. A hold can be refrigerated to keep fish on ice at 0o C or frozen products at "below" 0° C, (- 30° C).

On Purse Seiners fish are stored in "wells". These are tanks that contain brine and the water is cooled to sub-zero temperatures [as low as (-20°C)].

Vessel identification and Markings

The "FAO Standard Specifications for the Marking and Identification of Fishing Vessels" provides minimum requirements to which vessels must comply

Vessel name The vessels name is usually written up on the bows and across the

stern.

Port of The port of registration is normally written across the stern below the

Registration vessels name.

number

Registration The registration number is written below the name on the bows.

Call sign On fishing vessels, the call sign is often required to be shown in large

letters alongside or above the bridge.

FISH AGREGATTING DEVICES (FAD)

While FADs are used in a range of industrial, artisanal and recreational fisheries, this fishing practice is most widespread – and most developed – in industrial purse seine and pole and line fisheries.

Observer's will be required to report on all aspects of FAD fishing

In 2019, the IOTC Commission adopted IOTC Regional Observer Scheme Minimum Reporting Standard Data Fields that request for observers to collect information on the types and configuration of FADs used (e.g., FAD markings, construction materials, design, entanglement incidents). This information is important for scientists to assess the efficiency of different designs in reducing FAD entanglements.

Natural Floating Objects

Natural floating objects include natural logs of plant (branches, trunk, palm leaf, etc.) and animal origin (carcasses, live whale sharks); and logs resulting from human activity related or not to fishing activities (nets, wreck, ropes, washing machine, oil tank, etc.). These can be equipped or not with a satellite or instrumented buoy.

Artificial Fish Aggregating Device

ANCHORED FISH AGGREGATING DEVICES (AFADS)

Anchored FADs are used by a wide range of industrial, artisanal and recreational fisheries, mostly in coastal and archipelagic regions and within a relatively short distance from shore. Note that aFADs are called 'payaos' in in the Philippines and 'rumpons' in Indonesia. Anchored FADs can float at the surface or lie below the surface to avoid detection and hazards such as weather and ship traffic.

Anchored FADs can be split into coastal and off-shore or archipelagic aFADs depending on where they are used.

Coastal aFADs are primarily intended to improve the catch rates of subsistence and small-scale fishers, but may also be utilised by recreational fishers in some areas to enhance their catches. These smaller, less robust aFADs tend to be anchored close to shore, typically within the range of small motor boats and canoes, and attract neritic tunas and other medium-sized pelagic species.

Off-shore aFADs are used most extensively by industrial pole and line fisheries to target skipjack and other tuna species, these aFADs tend to be large robust structures, designed to last at sea for several years, and may be anchored reasonably far offshore at depths of over 2,000 m. However, the use of off-shore and archipelagic aFADs, may overlap with semi-industrial and artisanal operations.

Key Features

- Used by a wide range of industrial pole and line fleets, artisanal fisheries and recreational fishers.
- Anchored inshore (A) or offshore at depths of up to 2,500 m (B)
- Coastal anchored FADs can be constructed with high or low technology materials:
 - the raft can be made from steel, aluminium or fiberglass, and equipped with radar reflectors and solar powered lights; or
 - the raft can be made of bamboo, and large metal buoys or large Styrofoam blocks.

- Off-shore and archipelagic anchored FADs can also be constructed from different materials using different levels of technology. They can consist of:
 - very large buoy, anchored to the bottom of the ocean with a chain attached (such as aFADS installed in Reunion Island); or
 - a raft made of bamboo and large metal buoys or large Styrofoam blocks and sometimes have houses on them for watchmen;
- Industrial and recreational aFADs are usually state-funded and owned, with private use agreements in place in some regions.

Structure

Coastal anchored FAD Off-shore or Archipelagic anchored FAD • typically varied lighter, lower cost heavy and semi-heavy designs ranging (<US\$300) designs; between relatively low (<US\$1000) and very high cost (>US\$1 million); small surface floats built from recovered buoys or cheap materials large steel or PVC surface buoy, or (e.g., bamboo, cork, vegetation); multiple smaller buoys; anchored using rope usually at depths anchored using heavy duty chain or of less than <1000 m. cable wire at depths up to 3000 m; deployed permanently or seasonally, deployed permanently or seasonally but may break up after several months and usually robust enough to last many if not maintained. years.

Drifting Fish Aggregating Devices (DFADS)

Fish aggregating devices not tethered to the bottom of the ocean (C). Most drifting artificial FADs have three main components: a floating structure (such as a bamboo or metal raft with buoyancy provided by buoys, corks, etc.), a submerged structure (made of old netting, canvass, ropes, etc.) and a satellite buoy. The most sophisticated dFADs include sonar so that the fish population under the FAD can be estimated.

It has been estimated that 81,000-121,000 dFADs were deployed globally in 2013 and that in the Indian Ocean, where dFAD use has increased by 70% since the early 2000s, the number of annual dFAD deployments may now be between 10,500 and 14,500 (MRAG, 2017).

Key Features

- Used almost exclusively by industrial tuna purse seine fleets.
- Deployed in offshore oceanic waters throughout most of the tropical Atlantic, Indian and Pacific Oceans.

- Low-cost construction, made from floating rafts of bamboo or plastic fitted with instrumented buoys containing satellite tracking devices and echosounders' for fish finding.
- Owned by the vessel that deploys them, although in practice a fisher will fish on any dFAD that is encountered.

Structure

Raft

(FAD surface structure)

The floating structure is usually made with bamboo canes laced together and/or other floating materials (e.g., cork floats or hermetically sealed PVC pipes).

Often called "rafts", floating structures are usually wrapped in a net to hold the components together, as well as to camouflage the FAD. The floating structure is often rectangular (from 4 to 6 square meters) but other forms are also used (e.g., cylindrical).

The form of FADs, construction techniques and materials used vary considerably.

Tail

(FAD submerged structure also called underwater extension Attached to the floating raft, the underwater extension (also called "tail") generally consists of a section of purseseine net weighted at the base to remain almost vertical while the FAD drifts.

The "tail" seems to have two uses:

- attract fish; and
- Slow FAD drift.

These sections of net can hang at depths ranging from a few meters below the surface to more than one hundred meters.

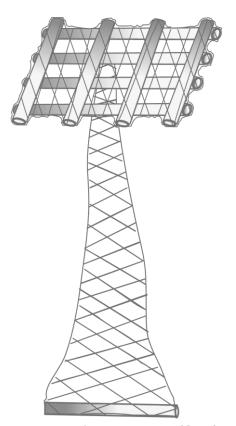


Figure 11 – Drifting FAD structure (©ISSF)

Radio and satellite buoys

Today, all tuna purse-seiners operating in the Indian Ocean are equipped with instrumented buoys²⁶ and a reception system (INMARSAT or IRIDIUM). This receiver system displays the position and drift of the FADs, the temperature of the water under the FADs and buoys batteries condition. Some instrumented buoys are equipped with an echo sounder capable of transmitting data, which allows captains to check the quantities of fish near the FAD.



Figure 12 – Instrumented buoy equipped with a sonar (adapted from a CPS image).

Ecological Structures

In 2013, the IOTC adopted resolution 13/08, that contained regulations and recommendations regarding the use of nonentangling FADs by purse seine fleets, superseded by Res. 15/08 in 2015 and in 2017, by Res.17/08: "Procedures on a FADs management plan including limitation on number of fads, more detailed specifications of catch reporting from FAD sets, & development of improved designs to reduce incidence of entanglement of non-target species".

Annex III of IOTC Res. 17/08 provides the principles for the design and deployment of ecological man-made drifting FADs.
Furthermore, this resolution requires that all artificial FADs deployed or modified by their flagged fishing vessels in the IOTC area of competence to be marked in accordance with a detailed marking scheme, e.g., including FAD marking or beacon ID.

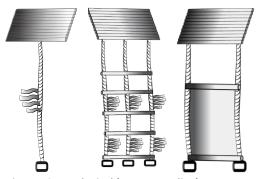


Figure 13 – Ecological (non-entangling) FAD structure (©ISSF)



Figure 14 – Marked satellite buoy. White codes painted on the buoy are the identification codes added by buoy owner.

Raft (surface structure)

The surface structure of the FAD should not be covered, or only covered with non-meshed material (burlap, canvas of sisal, thick

²⁶ IOTC Res. 17/08 defines an instrumented buoy as a buoy with a clearly marked reference number allowing its identification and equipped with a satellite tracking system to monitor its position.

fabric, tarpaulin, raffia, canvas claustra, horticultural felt, etc.).

Tail (submerged structure)

If used, it should not be made from netting but from nonmeshed materials such as ropes or canvas sheets.

Biodegradable materials

To reduce the amount of synthetic marine debris, the use of natural or biodegradable materials (such as hessian canvas, hemp ropes, etc.) for drifting FADs should be promoted.

Biodegradable non-entangling FADS are constructed exactly like other non-entangling FADS, but using only natural and/or biodegradable materials, further reducing the environmental impact of DFADs on the oceans.

Markings

All artificial FADs deployed or modified by fishing vessels in the IOTC area of competence are to be marked with a unique identification number, easy to read and applied in such a manner that it will not become unreadable or disassociated with the artificial FAD.

IOTC FISHERIES

IOTC fisheries are categorised on the basis of geographical, scientific, technical and economic characteristics. These are defined by using the following criteria:

- Type of fishing craft involved and type of fishing gear/s used: fishing crafts are usually classified according to their shape and size; the type of gear used is related, in most cases, to the type of vessel and its size.
- Gear configuration, fishing mode and target species: fishing gears are usually configured in different ways depending on the type of species targeted.
- Type of operation: these are related to the scale of the fishing operations and can be broadly classified as:
 - o Industrial/ semi-industrial (vessel ≥24m overall length or fishing beyond EEZ)
 - Artisanal (vessels <24m fishing within EEZ).

Four main fisheries (defined by gear type), targeting tuna and tuna-like species, are described in the IOTC Regional Observer Scheme Observer Manual (Version 1.2 2015), these are:

- purse seine
- longline
- gillnet; and

pole and line

Tuna Purse-Seine Fishery

BACKGROUND AND VESSELS (IOTC, 2015)

Purse seining for tuna is a technique used by industrial and semi-industrial fleets throughout the Atlantic, Pacific and Indian Oceans that enables fishers to catch and freeze large quantities of tuna. Purse seine vessels fish either by spotting free-swimming schools of tuna or by utilizing floating objects that attract fish, either with natural or manmade objects.

Tuna purse-seining is an active fishing technique that targets tuna and tuna-like fishes above the thermocline, in the surface and sub-surface zone down to 300 m depth. The industrial fleets of super seiners which can be up to 110 m long, are highly mobile and can change oceans regions rapidly in response to fishing conditions and market demands. Most of the modern tropical tuna purse seiners fishing in the waters of the Indian Ocean have nets of around 1,500-1,850 m long and with a depth of 250-280 m.

Tuna purse seine vessels commonly target fish at depths of 60–70 m, sometimes reaching up to 300 m depth, although setting below 150 m is rare. As the purse seine catches fish above the thermocline, tuna and tuna-like fish inhabiting the surface and sub-surface zone (mixing area) are the target of this technique, whose fishing grounds range from the high seas to areas near the coast.

These vessels can catch large volumes of fish, in average 20 to 30 tonnes per fishing set, that they freeze in refrigerated brine (water and salt solution) and store in fish wells at -20°C. A tuna purse-seiner can catch and freeze up to 800 / 1200 Mt of fish before returning to port to unload or tranship its catch.

BASIC LAYOUT

Layout of large oceanic Tuna Purse-seiners are all very similar. These vessels usually have the bridge and accommodation placed forward of the workspace. At the centre of the deck, a crows nest is placed at the top of the mast. A very heavy boom is fitted at the mast to carry the hydraulic power block. A three-drum purse winch returns the main seine line by the stern after the fish are inside the net and a hydraulic power block to haul back the net on the port side. Fish are also brailed from the net on the port side. The power block is also used to stack the net on the stern of the vessel, with the float line stacked on the starboard side and the chain weights on the port side. Vessels are normally equipped with a skiff located on top of the net or at the stern ramp of the vessel.

Below the upper deck is the well deck that runs down the full length of the vessel. The brine storage wells are situated on either side of the deck. On most vessels a conveyor belt runs down the centre of the deck and leads fish from the chute where the brail is emptied to

designated wells for brine freezing (at -20 °C), each with a capacity of 20 to 40 metric tonnes (total 800 to 2000 metric tonnes). Some vessels also possess dry storage that allows to preserve fish at -40 °C.

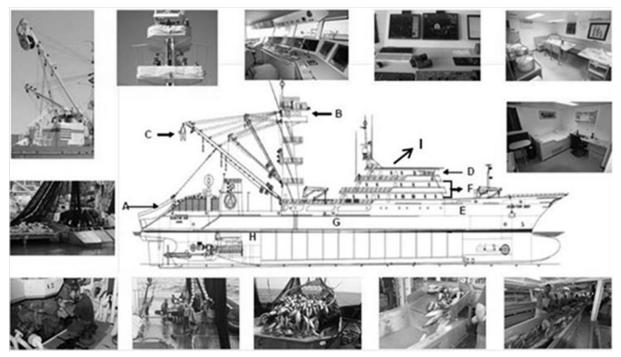


Figure 15- Layout of a Tuna Purse-seiner.

On the upper bridge also called summer bridge (I) we'll find:

- All antennas (radio, radar, satellite, GPS, Gonio),
- The mast supporting the navigation lights (known as the Christmas tree)

At the upper decks (E, F, D) we'll find:

- The bridge (D)
- The kitchen, cabins and crew space (E)
- The cabins and the officers' quarters, as well as the infirmary (F)
- The console for controlling the operation of the winches.

At the main deck (G) we'll find:

- The back deck (A) used to store the seine and the skiff;
- The main mast which ends with a crow's nest (B), a lookout for tuna.
- The power-block (C), fixed on a long horn, used to raise the seine;

At the level of the lower deck (H):

- The engine room and the navigation bar on the back,
- The fish holds and the well to the chains of the mooring anchors, in the centre and on the front.

FISHING GEAR AND RELATED EQUIPMENT, DESIGN AND SPECIFICATIONS²⁷

Purse-seine (the net)

Purse seine tackle is made up of a trapezoid shaped net consisting of a series of horizontal and vertical panels with different sized mesh nets making up different parts of the gear. The middle area of the net is called the central body or bag. This is flanked by panels of thicker mesh that form the "cutter" (or wing) to the stern and the pre-chafer and "chafer" [also termed "bunt" of the net] to the fore that will house the fish once the final bag of the purse seine is formed.

At either end, the gear has the necessary struts to steer the net to the stern and to close the net to the fore with the help of "purse line". The material used to make the panels of netting is usually dyed nylon or other kinds of synthetic fibres (Kevlar) and nets are made both with and without knots [knotless net]. The size of the mesh usually varies between 110-150 mm stretched length (Doc. Int. IEO-COC 2007).

Bunt or Chafer

The region in the purse seine net where the catch is accumulated before brailing is called the bunt because of the excess strain it has to withstand. It is made up of heavier netting. The bunt is placed in the centre or at the end of the wall of the netting depending on the type of operation. The bunt should be at least as long and deep as the length of the boat.

Main body

The main body of the net extends from one end to the other end of the net, except the bunt region. It is the largest part of the net and facilitates surrounding of the fish shoal during operations. It is made by joining together large sections of netting of appropriate mesh sizes to catch the target fish. The material used should have high specific gravity to increase the sinking speed during setting. Twisted knotless netting and "Raschel" braided netting are lighter and are widely used for purse seines. Knotted net is more recently preferred over knotless net, because of the difficulty to repair knotless net when damaged.

Selvedges or guarding

Selvedges are strips of strong netting and are used for strengthening the main netting and to protect it from damage during operations. It is provided in the upper, lower and side edges of the main body of the net. It consists of few rows of large meshes of thicker twine. The upper

²⁷ P. Pravin - Purse Seine and its operation Central Institute of Fisheries Technology, P.O. Matsyapuri, Cochin-682 029.

selvedge is attached to the float line also called the head rope and the lower selvedge to the lead line or chain foot rope as chain reinforcement. It is also attached to the side ropes or gavel lines. Lead line is usually longer than float line by 10 %.

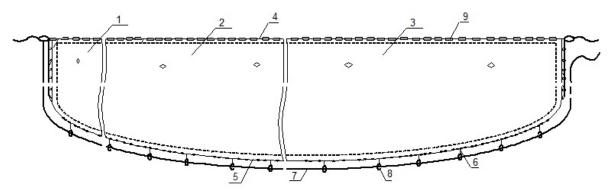


Figure 16- Tuna purse-seine net components

- 1. Bunt (chafer or sack)
- 4. Float line
- 7. Pursing wire (purse line)
- 2. Mid-net (main body or shoulder)
- 5. Lead line (chain foot rope)
- 8. Pursing ring (seine ring)
- 3. Wing
- 6. Gavel lines (bridle)
- 9. Floaters

Purse Line

A purse line is steel wire rope that is housed on the "purse winches" Most seiners have purse lines at least 10 - 20 % longer than the total length of their seines. The purse line is passed through the metal rings [purse rings or ringbolts], which, when drawn on, cinches (purses) the lower portion of the net closed to trap the fish from below.

To close the net, at the bottom, there is a series of or ringbolts held by a chain running from strut to strut, through which a steel cable runs, known as the lacing.

Lead Line

A weighted bottom rope [lead line or footrope], is crucial to take the net down as fast as possible to encircle the school of fish.

Spindle shaped lead sinkers may be threaded onto the lead line to attain 1-3 kg. per metre for small purse seines and for large tuna purse seines. Larger tuna purse seiners often use a heavy chain up to 8 kg per meter to weigh down the foot rope.

The lead line is usually longer than float line by 10 %.

Float line

The buoyant head rope or float line is important to keep the head rope on the surface at all times and prevent fish escaping over the top of the net. The float line consists of cylindrical or spindle shaped plastic or high-density plastic foam floats stung onto a rope to form a float line to which the netting is hung directly.

Usually, double float lines are used [one rope with right hand twist and the other with a left-hand twist], which prevents it from twisting and distorting the top section of the net.

Braided rope is very good for float line because once stretched it does not kink twist (turn around itself) or twist.

The total buoyancy of the float line should be maintained at 1.5 to 3.5 times the total under water weight of the purse seine net and its appurtenances. Higher buoyancy is provided in the bunt or chafer area in order to counteract the sinking force due to weight of heavier netting in this area and the weight of fish while concentrating the catch.

Usual extra buoyancy of floats is 2 to 4 times the weight of foot rope with sinkers.

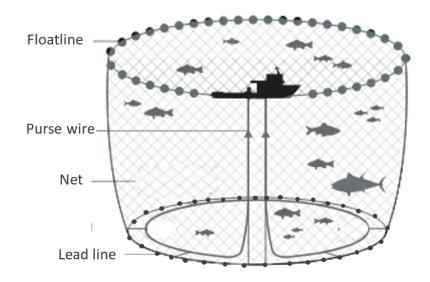
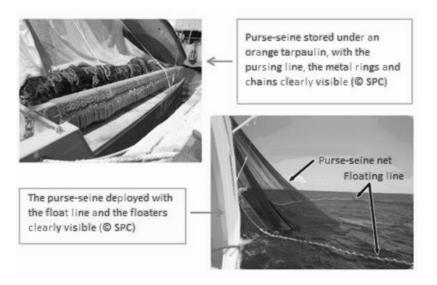


Figure 17- Tuna purse-seine gear components



Power block

A hydraulic power block attached to the end of an extended boom is used to haul the net back and restack it in at the stern of the vessel ready for the next set.



Figure 18 – The Power block hauls the net

The winch and the seine arrow

The purse seine winch is used to return the main seine line. The cable enters the blocks on the seine arrow which leads them to the winch while pursing and hauling the net.



Figure 19–The seine arrow (left) and the winch (right) (adapted from FAO image)



Figure 20—The winch (adapted from FAO image)

Skif

Powerful boat of 8m with an engine of 600CV, used to assist in setting the net around a school of fish.



Figure 21 – The skif

Large scoop-net with a capacity of up to 10 tonnes.



Figure 22 – A full brailer

Brailer

The brailer is used to scoop the fish out of the net and empty it into a chute leading down to the lower deck, where the fish is channelled into the brine tanks for freezing.



Figure 23 – Different types of brailers

TARGET SPECIES (IOTC, 2015)

Tuna purse-seiners target species include adult and juvenile Yellowfin and Bigeye tuna, Skipjack tuna and small tuna-like fish such as Frigate tuna and Kawakawa in tropical waters. In temperate waters juvenile and adult Bluefin tuna are targeted while feeding on baitfish or spawning (adults). Purse seine vessels are also occasionally used to harvest albacore in temperate waters, generally at night when they are feeding higher in the water column.

Purse-seine fisheries non-targeted catch or bycatch can include a range of oceanic species such as marlins, pelagic sharks, other pelagic fish and PET species such as turtles, whale sharks and even whales or dolphins (more common in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans).

FISHING OPERATIONS

Tuna purse seine operations are divided into two phases:

- 1. the search and detection of the fish schools, and
- 2. the fishing event itself.

Search and Detection

The search for tuna schools by the industrial tuna purse seiners can be either direct or indirect.

Indirect Search and Detection Methods

The indirect search for tuna schools involves evaluating a range of environmental parameters and factors that influence the spatial and temporal distribution of tuna and abundance. These include:

- water temperature
- depth of the thermocline
- water oxygen content
- water colour and transparency
- amount of total suspended matter
- presence of chlorophyll and macrophytes and
- currents

The combination of these parameter values is used by skippers to decide on the fishing location in order to maximise the chance of finding schools of tuna.

Direct Search and Detection Methods

Methods used to directly search for and detect of tuna schools include the use of high-performance binoculars, bird radar, echo sounder, sonars and instrumented buoys attached to artificial and natural FADs.

High performance binoculars

The search phase is an activity that can occupy the crew for more than 12 hours a day, from sunrise to sunset. Spotters equipped with powerful binoculars (20X) are positioned in the crow's nest near to 15 meters above the sea to search for indicators of fish in the immediate vicinity of the vessel.



Bird radar

Purse seine vessel also are equipped with high frequency and long-range radars that can detect concentrations of feeding seabirds and, in certain conditions, can detect the agitation on the sea surface from feeding fish.



Acoustic sonar and depth sounders

The use of acoustic sonar and depth sounders are reserved for fishing. The fine use of these vertical sensing devices allows detecting shoals of fish in the immediate vicinity of the vessel. These are also used to assess the school before setting the net, informing the captain of the composition and distribution of the tuna school.

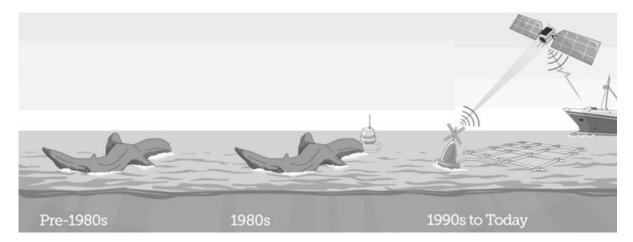


Instrumented satellite buoy system

GPS satellite buoy system allows for the position, speed, course and drift of each buoy to be received by the vessel. Other optional features include the reception of meteorological, oceanographic and sounder data (chlorophyll levels, water temperature up to 150 meters, shear flow in the water column up to 150 meters, and surface wind speed).



FAD Usage



Fishers have long known that fish, such as tuna, congregate around naturally occurring floating objects such as logs or a dead whale and that by mimicking this effect fish aggregation could be exploited. This aggregating behaviour is used in industrial tuna fisheries so as to concentrate fish around Fish Aggregating Devices (FADs) a highly effective way to improve catch rates and reduce operating costs, especially when compared to the practice of targeting free swimming tuna schools.

As a consequence, since the early 1990's, purse seine drifting FAD fishing for tropical tunas has rapidly expanded and experienced a large number of innovations that have made fishing more effective over time. Today, drifting FADs used in the open ocean play an important role in industrial tuna purse seine fishery, with purse-seiners deploying thousands of dFADs in all tropical oceans to catch tropical tunas. The association of tunas with dFADs is highly advantageous to industrial tuna purse-seine fishing as:

- allow fishing opportunities to be focused into a small number of predictable locations;
 - dFADs equipped with instrumented buoys can be tracked, which minimises search time and vessel operating costs;
 - dFADs equipped with most recent generation of buoys equipped with echosounders allow to confirm tuna school presence and size. And by considering information from many active buoys allows to select productive areas to visit.
 - supply vessels allied with one or more purse seine vessels, used to deploy and monitor dFADs further optimising searching efficiency.
- aggregate sparsely distributed schools, which makes them easier to spot than schools swimming freely beneath the surface;
- stabilise tuna schools and reduce the speed at which they travel, making them comparatively easy to catch (Dagorn et al., 2012);

Consequently, fishing around floating objects is associated with a higher successful haul, or 'set', rate than targeting free swimming schools (Chassot et al., 2015).

Fishing Event - Deployment and Retrieval of the Purse Seine Net ["Set" or "Event"]

Tuna purse-seining involves surrounding a tuna school with a net, impounding the fish by pursing the net, and drawing up the catch by hauling the net so that the fish are crowded into the bunt of the net and can then be brailed out of the water using a brailer and emptied into a chute on the deck leading down to the well-deck where they are channelled into the brine tanks for freezing. A "set" or "event" starts when the net is deployed and ends when the net is hauled back onto the deck. This is an intensive activity taking no more than a few hours depending on the quantity of fish caught. There are a few distinct passes in a single fishing event:

- setting the net
- circling the school of fish

- pursing the net
- haul back or hauling the net and
- brailling out the fish

Shooting

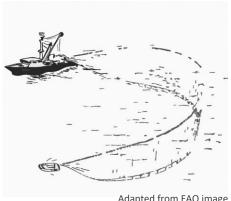
- 1. Once the presence of a tuna school is confirmed by the sonar, the fishing vessel circles until its port side is facing the school (most of the tuna purse seiners have deck arrangement for operating from the port side).
- 2. At the release signal ordered by the skipper, the skiff is deployed with the end of the seine attached to its rear.



Adapted from FAO image

Circling

- 3. The skiff is used to hold the net during the encircling of the school. He serves as a fixed point while the purse-seiner encircles the school at maximum speed. This action lasts between 4 to 8 minutes.
- 4. Once the fish encircled, the skiff finishes the loop, then passes each of the cables to the purse seiner, which starts to close the net.



Adapted from FAO image

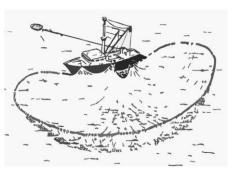
When FAD fishing and during the execution of this operation, it is frequent to place a speed vessel inside the circle formed by the net, next to the FAD to keep the tuna school on an optimum position so that it does not escape before the circling is completed.

When fishing for a free school, the speed vessel keeps the school of fish grouped by circumventing.

Pursing

5. Once the encirclement is completed, the end of the net attached to the skiff is transferred to the purse seiner and the two ends of the purse line cable are hauled in with the winch as rapidly as possible to close the bottom of the net - this is called "pursing".

Pursing may take up to 15 or 20 minutes for large purse seines.



Adapted from FAO image

Hauling

6. The net is then pulled aboard the purse seiner with a hydraulic power block attached to the end of a boom above the deck.

The net is hauled until the fish are concentrated into the bunt or chaffer of the net.

Barring incidents, the operation should take about an hour.

7. Then comes the delicate moment of "making the pocket". As the pocket is reduced, the captured fish concentrate in an increasingly restricted volume.

It is from this moment that a correct estimate of the catch can be made and that the brailing begins.

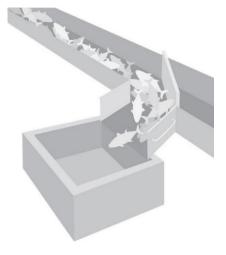
Adapted from FAO image



Brailing

- 8. When most of the purse seine has been retrieved, and the tuna are concentrated within the bunt on the portside of the vessel. The fish are scooped out using a large scoop-net called the "brailer".
- 9. The duration of brailing depends on the quantity of fish in the net (1 to 2 hours).
- 10. The tunas are then emptied into a specialised chute on the main deck and channelled from the upper deck to fish-wells below.
- 11. The crew conducts a first on-site. Rejections are returned to the sea using the rejection conveyer belt or are grouped in bins or nets and discharged at the end of sorting.
- 12. Sorted tuna are preserved on brine (refrigerated sea water) tanks at -2 $^{\circ}$ before being frozen at -15 $^{\circ}$.





Shifting

- 13. Some ships make "sashimi quality" tuna. This practice requires additional manipulation called "shifting".
- 14. Shifting corresponds to the passage from a brine tank (-17 ° C) to a dry dock (-40 ° C). Shifting can take place during the day or night, during which a second sorting takes place.



Figure 24 - Shifting large tuna from brine tanks to a deep-freeze tank.

Unloading

15. Tuna-purse seiners land at port. Upon arrival at the port, the fish is landed by flotation, that is to say that the stevedores do not go down in the tanks. By maintaining the level of the brine at the top of the tank, the fish rises to the surface as it's lighter than the brine, so stevedores just have to transfer it from the tank to the unloading nets, using a conveyer belt.

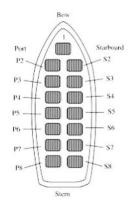


Figure 25 – Unloading tuna at port using nets.

Preservation of the Catch

Once fished, the tuna is loaded on board as soon as possible as the quality of fish caught in tropical waters (23° to 30°C) deteriorates very quickly.

There can be 20 to 30 tanks on an industrial purse seiner ranging in size from 20 to 40 metric tons. The total capacity of a purse seiner varies between 700 and 2500 tonnes.



Tuna purse-seiners are equipped to preserve fish in two ways:

Chilled Brine

Practical and economic cooling method, in which the fish is immersed whole (non-processed) in tanks containing sea water cooled to a temperature of 0° C. Once the temperature of the tank, falls to 0° C the tank is emptied and the chilled water is replaced by brine (seawater preparation in which the salt content has been increased so that the temperature can be lowered to -18 ° C). The number of tanks varies from 12 to 27 depending on the vessel, and their volume varies according to their location in the hull. The use of this

refrigeration method eliminates the need of purchasing ice, prevents bruising and crushing the fish and allows to fish a large quantity of tuna in a short time. Brine tuna is mainly used for canning.

Frozen at -40 ° C

In order to avoid any type of cold burn, tunas are first immersed in an ice-cold brine bath (-15°C). Once frozen, they are sorted and the big ones are shifted (transferred) into deep freezer hold and frozen at -40° C. Frozen whole fish is processed into loins, steaks, cubes without being thawed adding value to the vessel catch.

FISHERY IMPACTS ON THE ECOSYSTEMS AND INTERACTIONS

Despite the clear benefits of dFADs to the industrial tuna purse-seine fishing industry, their use is associated with several potential negative impacts, including the catch of small tunas, bycatch of vulnerable non-target species, modification of tuna habitat, potential damage to coastal habitats.

IOTC has recognised the increasing use of FADs in IOTC fisheries, notably for tropical tunas, and Resolution 15/09 has established an ad hoc working group on FADs to assess the impact they may have on the species composition and on the rates of by-catch associated with fishing on FADs. Concern has also been raised about the impact of FADs on the incidental mortality of sea turtles and sharks through entanglement, and emphasis is now being placed on the use of environmentally friendly materials in FAD construction (MRAG, 2017).

Ecological Impacts

- 1) Impacts on tuna stocks
 - a) catching too many fish that prejudices reproduction (recruitment overfishing);
 - b) catching too many small fish and reducing the number that reach maturity;
- 2) The capture/entanglement of non-target species (bycatch);
 - a) retained bycatch (by-product);
 - b) incidentally taken in a fishery and returned to the sea (discarded);
 - c) incidentally affected by interacting with fishing equipment in the fishery, but not taken (released);
- 3) Damage to marine and coastal habitats and marine litter, when FAD structures are lost or abandoned, in fragile marine habitats like coral reefs;
- 4) Ghost fishing, the accidental capture of marine life by fishing gear lost or discarded at sea that continues to entangle animals;

For conservation and management measures put in place by the IOTC to limit the capture of juvenile tunas, to avoid the capture/entanglement of Species of special interest (SSI), to investigate, limit and avoid ecological impacts of FADs and of purse-seine fishing, please

consult the most recent version of the Compendium of Active Conservation and Management Measures for the Indian Ocean Tuna Commission.

Interactions

SPECIES	IMPACT	MITIGATION
Marine turtles	 entanglement in FADs; encircled by the purseseine net. 	 use of ecological FADs; turtle should be encouraged to swim out of the net; or a brail or a large dip-net can be used to pick up the turtle from the net; usage of the proper techniques to handle and release bycatch species such as turtles.
Cetaceans (various species)	encircled by the purse- seine net.	 small speed-boats can be used to chase the cetacean(s) out of the net before it is fully closed. a side of the net can be lowered to allow the cetacean(s) to escape small explosive devices can be used to chase the animals out of the net before it's fully closed.
Sharks, rays, marlins and other large fish	 entanglement in FAD; encircled by the purseseine net; 	 use of ecological FADs; a brail can be used to pick large individuals from the net and to attempt to release them directly, by tipping one edge of the brailer, into the ocean; usage of the proper techniques to handle and release bycatch species, such as Sharks, rays, marlins and other large fish
Whale sharks and whales	encircled by the purse- seine net;	 interdiction of setting a purse seine net around the animal if sighted prior to the commencement of the set (IOTC Res. 13/04 & 13/05); usage of the proper techniques to handle and release bycatch species,

such as Whale sharks and whales.

Pelagic Longline Fishery

BACKGROUND AND VESSELS (IOTC, 2015)

Longlining is a passive fishing technique using baited hooks to attract and catch fish. Pelagic longlines (surface or drifting longline) are not anchored and typically drifts with the ocean currents while fishing. It consists of a mainline, kept near the surface by buoys or float and branch lines with baited hooks suspended from the main line at regular intervals along its length.

The method is typical of high seas fisheries, and is also widely used in the national waters within coastal states exclusive economic zones, EEZ. Large Scale Tuna Longline Vessels (LSTLV) or "industrial tuna long-liners" range in size from 30m to over 70m length, with up to 25 crew (and smaller vessels less than 15m sometimes having only four to six crew.

Pelagic longlines target fish at or near the surface and can target fish much deeper than surface fishing method, (purse seine and pole and line). The depth that hooks are set at will often influence the catch.

Some of the larger industrial LSLTVs can set their hooks down to 300 m depth, to target larger yellowfin, bigeye and southern bluefin tuna (also termed deep-water or mid-water longlining).

The primary characteristics of these vessels are:

- capacity (fuel, water, accommodation, crew, etc.) to reach distant fishing grounds and operate on high seas in extreme conditions, for months at a time without return to port; and
- facility to freeze and store high quality fish at low temperatures for the entire time that they are at sea.

BASIC LAYOUT

Longline fishing entails two main operations setting of the line and hauling the line back, which predominantly influence the layout of the vessel.

A wide-open hatch generally present across the stern from which the line is set.

The working deck is generally closed on the port side and open on the starboard side from where the line is hauled, and the fish are landed. The line is hauled back by a line hauler positioned forward on the working deck on the starboard side and landing door is present on the same side just aft of the line hauler. A blast freezer is situated either aft or forward of the work deck and the fish are stored in the main hold below the workspace.

Most longline vessels have the bridge set aft of the workspace so that the fishing master can view the line being hauled and the fish being landed.

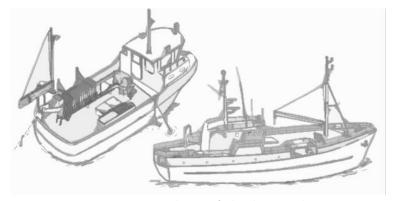


Figure 26 - Basic layout of a longline vessel





Figure 27 - Large Scale Tuna Longliner

Figure 28 - Tuna Longliner less than 20m

CONFIGURATION AND GEAR (IOTC, 2015)

A pelagic longline (drifting longline) consists of a mainline that is held near the surface or at a certain depth by regularly spaced buoys or float (Figure 29). Branch lines (also known as droppers, snoods or ganglions) with baited hooks are suspended from the main line at regular intervals along its length. The entire line can extend from 20 to over 120km.

The attachments of branch lines, hooks and buoys onto the main line and measurements required for data collection are shown in the figure below.

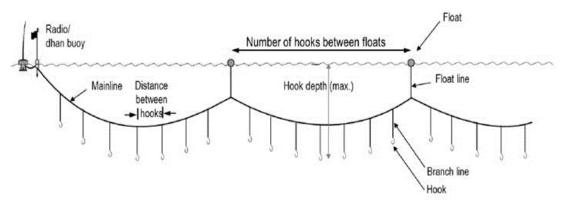
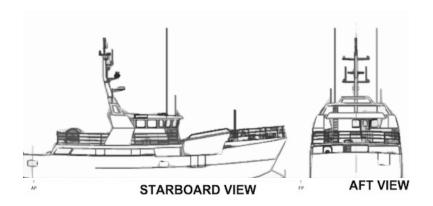


Figure 29 Longline gear configuration (IOTC ROS Observer Manual, 2015)

The longline is set from the stern where the branch lines and buoylines are attached during the setting operations

The line is then hauled back on the starboard side from the hauling deck, where fish are landed and processed.



Throughout the hauling process the gear is made up and stored ready for the next set.

Longline Gear Description (IOTC, 2015)

Mainline

The main line forms the backbone of the longline from which the branch lines are suspended and the buoylines are attached to keep the line close to the sea surface. The mainline materials can vary from country to country and on vessels of difference size, construction and layout.

However, three main categories of can be distinguished:

- 1. tarred 4-strand twisted cord (6 to 8 mm diameter);
- 2. nylon monofilament (6 mm); and
- 3. braided nylon mono-filament (8mm)



Longline systems can also be distinguished into two categories, separated by the specifications and storage method of the mainline:

 The first system uses multi-strand or braided nylon monofilament that is stored in large coils or is layered down in a large bin or storage well).

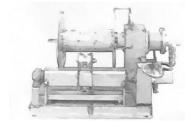


Figure 30 - Braded mainline storage on a LSTLV

 The second system (sometimes termed "Mono" system) uses a monofilament nylon mainline approximately 6mm in diameter that is stored on a large drum or reel.



Figure 31 – Drum or reel on deck

Branch Lines

The branch lines are clipped onto the main line when setting and the hooks are baited at the same time.

A typical branch line can vary between 30 m to 50 m in length and are attached to the mainline with a stainless-steel tuna clip. A large range of branch line configurations exist, varying from vessel to vessel and country to country. Observers are required to record the length and material that make up the different sections of the branch lines used on the vessels they observer.

Simple branch lines can made out of one type of line material (normally mono-filament nylon), between the tuna clip and the hook. Vessels using a single monofilament mainline generally use these type of branch lines.

The branch lines are layered into large rectangular "tubs or bin" for storage, one on top of the other with the hooks and clips arranged around the edge of the bin (Figure 31). On vessels using shorter longlines the branch lines and buoy lines may be wound up into large baskets (Figure 32), or on to reels one on top of the other.







Figure 32: branch lines layered into large rectangular "tubs or bins". Figure 33: buoy lines wound up into large baskets

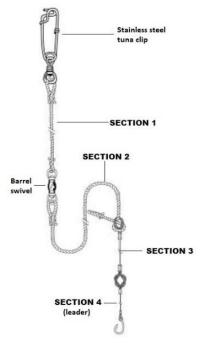


Figure 34 – Multiple section and material branch line

Larger longline vessels (LSTLV's) mostly use more complex branch lines with multiple types of line and swivels attached.

Multiple materials usually include an initial section of nylon / polyester braid combinations which is then attached to a length of monofilament leading to a hook.

Barrel swivels are used to connect sections, some of which may be weighed with lead.

The construction of the branch line often determines the species being targeted and the depth to which the bait is set.

On LSTLV's branch lines are generally prepared into separate coils and packed into baskets.

Bullet-buoy / Hard-floats / Radio-buoy / Light-buoy

Buoy lines are used to keep the main line close to the surface. Two main buoy types exist:

- Hard floats: made from a rigid plastic that can withstand a high pressure should a large fish pull them under;
- Bullet-buoys are made of a soft polyurethane foam material.

The buoys and floats are attached to the mainline with buoylines of various length. The spacing of the buoys are dependent on the number branch lines attached between them and the buoyance required to keep the line close to the surface.

Marker-buoys, GPS beacons, radio buoys, light buoys and radar reflectors (highflyers) are attached to the longline at intervals dividing the longline up into sections.

A predetermined number of buoys are attached to the line between marker or radio buoys. Their prime function is to determine the location of the fishing gear and assist in locating the ends of the line if it is accidentally broken.

Buoys are generally stored on top of the superstructure near the stern where they can be easily accessed when setting the line. Radio buoys are stored in fixed holders on the main deck to prevent them getting damaged and to recharge or replace the batteries between sets.



Hard float



Bullet-buoys



Marker-buoy

Other Gear and Equipment

Hook types

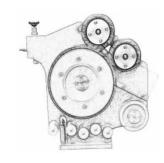
Different shapes and sizes of hooks are used depending on target species. Hooks can be made out of stainless steel or hardened steel that is galvanised. The observer will



be required to record hook type during their observations.

Line setter

A line setter / shooter is situated on the stern and is used to pull mainline from the storage drum or its storage bin. It deploys the mainline at a consistent speed during setting, recorded in meters per second (m/s). By varying the line setter speed to the vessels setting speed the depth of the hooks can be controlled.



Bait Casting Machine (BCM)

The bait casting machine is used to cast the bait away from the vessel outside of wake zone. It is generally situated on the stern rail on the port side of the line setter.



Line Hauler

Mainline hauler – uses hydraulic motor to assist with retrieving the main line. The line hauler is used predominantly on vessels that use a multi-strand rope or braided monofilament nylon mainline, which is stored in layers in a large bin or storage well. The line hauler is generally positioned on the starboard side.



Vessels that use a monofilament nylon mainline use the storage drum to retrieve the line.

Branch line hauler/coiler

A branch line hauler/coiler – winds branch lines into tight, consistent coils and assist in quickly recovering and packing branch lines for the next set.



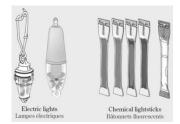
Electric Shocking

An electric cable attched to a steel ring is used the slide down the branch line to shock and subdue large fish and sharks to facilite hauling them in.



Light Sticks

Two types of light sticks can be used, chemical (disposable) light sticks and battrey operated lightsticks that are reusable.



Lightsticks are used mostly to selectivly target swoardfish or sharks.

Target Species (IOTC, 2015)

Longline fisheries target fish in relatively deep water compared with surface fishing methods such as purse seine and pole and line operations.

Primary target species in the IOTC Convention area are:

bigeye and yellowfin Tuna; and

swordfish.

Oil fish and some shark species as well as a range of other oceanic species that are retained can be classified as commercial by-catch.

The depth at which hooks are set influences the species and size composition of the catch. Some of the larger industrial longliners can set their hooks down to 300 m depth to target larger, mature individuals of Yellowfin, Bigeye and southern Bluefin tuna (termed deepwater or mid-water longlining). Shark mortality, through bycatch or direct targeting, often for fins, can be a contentious issue in this fishery.

FISHING OPERATIONS (IOTC, 2015)

Fishing Strategy

Various methods are available to Fishing Masters to determine the position of thermoclines and "fronts" between warm and cool water, where lines should be set. Fisheries information systems can provide vessels with satellite information on sea-surface temperature (SST), phytoplankton densities or sea height. In addition, on-board echo sounders and temperature recorders are used to detect fish and determine the positions to set lines. Longliners from some companies may also work together and share information to follow schools of fish.

Setting

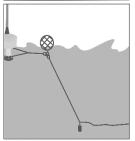
A longline is typically deployed from the stern of the vessel and the operation is termed "setting or shooting". At least five crew members are required for the operation.

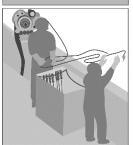
The line is paid out from the aft storage wells on the upper deck through a series of PVC pipes and a hydraulic line feeder, situated on the lower deck amidships, at a rate of about 6 to 8 meters per second, (approximately 450 m per minute, 27 km per hour).

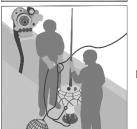
On larger industrial longliners a typical set will consist of 200 or more units or "baskets" 4 to 15 branch-lines in a basket, setting a total of about 3 000 hooks on a line. The vessel steams at between 9.5 knots and 11.5 knots and the whole operation can take about five to six hours.

Branch lines are stored separately in baskets or tubs and attached to the main line while setting the line. A buoy is then attached at intervals between baskets or following a fixed number of branch lines. The make-up of the branch lines in each basket can vary with respect to their position from the buoy.









A radio buoy is attached after every (approximately) 20 baskets, dividing the line up into sections that correspond to the number of radio buoys set. The rate at which branch lines and buoy lines are attached to the mainline, and therefore the space, is controlled from the wheelhouse by a synchronous time series of "beeps" that is measured in seconds.

The depth where the hooks are set in the water column is a crucial element, and this can be regulated mainly by modifying the length of the main line set

Adapted from a SPC image between buoys, through varying the vessel speed and line setter speed as well as by adjusting the length of float-line and to a lesser extent, by modifying the length of the branch-lines.

Each hook is baited just before being set. Common bait species used are horse mackerel, milkfish or squid. The baited hooks are cast out either by hand or using a bait casting machine.

After the last radio buoy is set, the line is left to "soak" for a predetermine time of 3 to 4 hours "soak time" before the start of the hauling operation.

Hauling

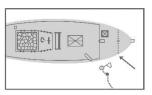
Hauling longlines usually takes at least a full day (11 hours and more) depending on the number of hooks set and the catch rate. The last radio buoy set is usually the first to be hauled on board.

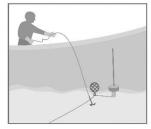
The radio buoy is located with the help of the radio direction finder or by radar, and is hauled on board and detached from the mainline.

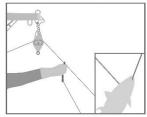
On vessels where the mainline is stored in a bin on the upper deck, the mainline is threaded over roller guides and through the hydraulic mainline hauler. A crew member controls the speed of recovery.

Line-hauling is conducted at a slower speed than setting, being influenced by the sea state and the rate of fish capture. The vessel steams along the mainline at an average speed of about 6 knots, with the line retrieved over the starboard side, at a rate of between 150 and 250 m per minute.

The mainline coils under its own tension from the hauler onto a conveyor belt which carries it across the deck from starboard to port side. Tangles in the mainline are removed as it moves along on the conveyor belt. On vessels using the monoline system the main









Adapted from a SPC image

line hauled and wound up on the dram at the same time.

Branch lines are unclipped off the mainline as they come over the side of the vessel or after they go through the line hauler. The snoods are coiled, either by hand or with an automatic coiler, and are tied off around the hook with a loop of the line near the clip, then packed back into baskets ready for setting. These bundles or baskets and the buoys are placed at intervals onto a conveyor belt on the port side of the vessel. This takes them to the crew member who is packing the mainline into the aft wells and they are then stacked at the stern ready for the next set.

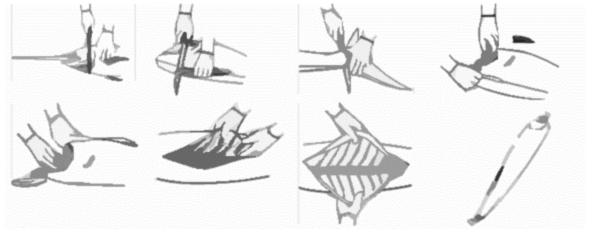
Hooked fish are brought alongside, gaffed and hauled aboard by the crew. All large tuna, billfish and sharks are landed using gaffs and harpoons attached to bamboo poles, targeting the mouth or head of the fish to minimise damage to the trunk.



Processing

Target species are handled with great care, processed and preserved accordingly to their final market destination. Fish can be *eviscerated* and *gilled*, *headed* and *gilled*, *headed*, *gilled* and *finned*. Fish can also be cut into pieces or cut into filets or loins, with or without bones, with or without the skin. Fish destined to the high-quality Japanese are meticulously cleaned to remove any traces of blood or viscera and then weighed prior to freezing.

Hold capacity is determined by vessel size. An average sized industrial LSTLV has an average storage capacity of 200 MT of catch. Longliners will unload their catch in port or at sea to refrigerated carrier vessels.



Adapted from a SPC image

Preservation of the Catch

Fresh fish storage

Longliners targeting and landing fresh fish keep the product on ice. The fish are often first chilled by putting them into an ice slurry before packing them in the hold with ice. A



Adapted from a SPC image

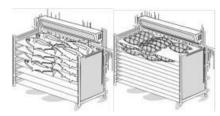
Il freshly chilled fish must be stored at temperatures below 4.4 °C, but must not be

frozen. The ideal temperature for refrigerated fish is 0 °C. Fish can be kept fresh on ice for several weeks before landing ashore.

Fresh fish production is mostly done on smaller longliners 15 to 30 meters.

Freezing

Frozen whole fish or loins must be stored on board at minus 18°C, or at a lower temperature. Freezing at -18°C is mostly done on board smaller longline vessels (15 to 30



Adapted from a SPC image

meters).

Deep freezing

To preserve the quality of the fish, deep frozen tunas are rapidly frozen in blast freezers (-55°C to -65°C) immediately after processing. After blast freezing, they are transferred to the hold storage at (-400 C to -50°C). Deep-freezing mainly occurs on larger industrial LSTLVs fishing on the high seas (vessels over 40-meter).



Adapted from a SPC image

FISHERY IMPACTS ON THE ECOSYSTEMS AND INTERACTIONS

Ecological Impacts

- 1) The capture/entanglement of non-target species (bycatch)
 - a) retained bycatch (byproduct)
 - b) incidentally taken in a fishery and returned to the sea (discarded)
 - c) incidentally affected by interacting with fishing equipment in the fishery, but not taken (released)
 - i) seabirds
 - ii) turtles and
 - iii) endangered sharks and marlins

For conservation and management measures put in place by the IOTC to avoid the capture/entanglement of Species of special interest (SSI), please consult the most recent

version of the Compendium of Active Conservation and Management Measures for the Indian Ocean Tuna Commission (https://www.iotc.org/cmms).

Interactions

SPECIES	IMPACT	MITIGATION
Marine turtles	 entanglement in the line; hooked. 	 use circle- instead of J or the Japanese hooks; use fish baits; set gear below turtle-abundant depths; reduce gear soak time; retrieve in daytime; avoid hot-spots near breeding colonies; and use efficient handling & release methods to increase survival rates.
Sea birds	• hooked.	 night setting with minimal bridge lighting; bird scaring devices ("tori lines"); and weighted traces. have onboard line cutters and dehookers in order to facilitate the appropriate handling and prompt release of marine turtles caught or entangled. use efficient handling & release methods to increase survival rates.
Cetaceans (various species)	 predation; and as a result hooked; entangled in the line. 	 have onboard line cutters and de- hookers in order to facilitate the prompt release of marine mammals caught or entangled.
Sharks, rays, and marlins	entangled;hooked.	 have onboard line cutters and de- hookers in order to facilitate the prompt release of sharks' species that are prohibited from retaining on board (white-tip sharks, thresher sharks);



- have onboard line cutters and dehookers in order to facilitate the prompt release of striped marlin, black marlin and blue marlin;
- use efficient handling & release methods to increase survival rates.

Pole-and-line fishery

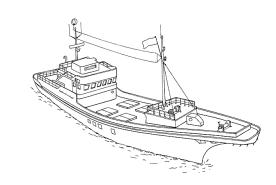
BACKGROUND AND VESSELS

Pole-and-line is an active fishing method where tunas are caught one-by-one using a hook attached to a line and pole (IPNLF). This fishery requires live baitfish (i.e., small pelagic, coastal and coral reef varieties), which are cast into the sea to attract tuna schools. Pole-and-line vessels fish either by spotting free-swimming schools of tuna, tuna schools associated to natural floating objects or by utilising man-made floating objects that attract fish (drifting FADs or anchored FADs). Pole-and-line fishing grounds range from near the coast (bait and tuna fishing) to the high seas (tuna fishing).

BASIC LAYOUT

Pole-and-line vessels range from 20 to 40 m in length and may be artisanal, semi-industrial, or industrial. Vessel layout varies with vessel type: in some vessels (as the Maldives vessels), the bridge and accommodation are located in the front third of the vessel, while in other (as the Indonesian vessels), are located in the back third of the vessel.

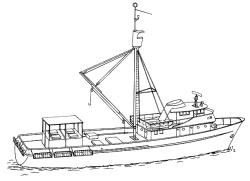
According to vessel layout, fishing will be conducted from the rail fore of the vessel (as in Indonesian vessels) or from the side abaft amidships and around the stern of the vessel (as in Maldivian vessels), either directly from deck or from steel racks mounted on the vessel just above the surface of the water. The fish holds are located under the deck where the catch is stored using various refrigeration methods. The storage method often determines or is dependent on the range of the vessel. Live bait is stored in tanks filled with seawater. Powerful pumps are used to circulate the water, and each tank has a light (above or underwater.



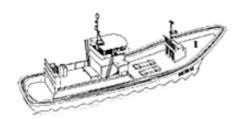
Japanese pole-and-line vessel (©FAO)



Maldives pole-and-liner (©J. Lowe)



American pole-and-line vessel (© FAO)

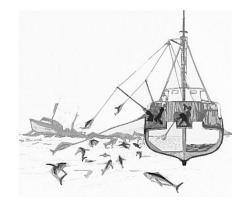


Indonesia pole-and-line vessel

FISHING GEAR AND RELATED EQUIPMENT, DESIGN AND SPECIFICATIONS

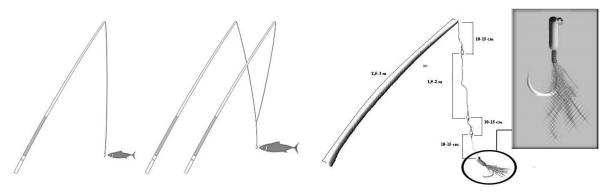
Pole-and-line Fishing Gear

A pole-and-line consists of a line attached to a pole at the extremity of which may hang a feathered jig mounted on a barbless hook. Poles can be made of wood (including bamboo), of fiberglass and increasingly of carbon fibre.



Manual poles

Manual poles are usually held and operated by one fisher. In order to bring on board large to very large fishes, a unique line can be attached to 2 poles held by 2 fishermen (exceptionally 3) or, even, the extremity of the pole can be attached to a rope hauled by another fisherman when additional strength is needed.



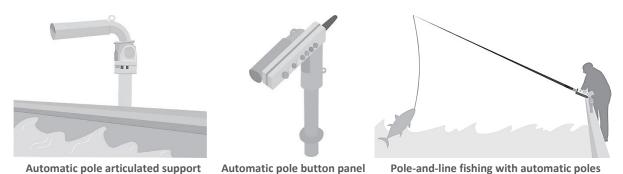
One pole attached to one line, or a unique line can be attached to 2 poles held by 2 fishermen.

A line attached to a pole at the extremity of which hangs a feathered jig mounted on a barbless hook.

Automatic poles

In the last decade, new pole-and-line systems that improve the mechanisation of the fishing operation have been developed.

Automatic poles are held by an articulated support that is fixed onto the gunwale. The pole is connected to a pulley that is in turn connected to a spool run by a motor that reels and unreels the line, which is controlled via a program-logic controller.



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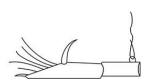
The ship's captain can control the entire automatic system from a screen installed in the bridge. The system is complemented by a button panel that the fisher can use to reproduce pre-set variables including: pole size, fishing and reeling position, reeling and unreeling speed and position correction (AZTI, 2019).

Hooks and jigs

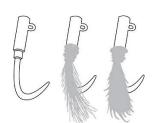
A wide variety of hooks and jigs are used in the pole-and-line fisheries as both hook size and type of jig depend on the species being targeted. The only thing that is common across all pole-and-line fisheries is the use of barbless hooks for quick catch and release.

Fisheries targeting skipjack tend to make their one hooks and jiggers (as in Indonesia, in Maldives and possibly in India). Hooks used to target larger tuna species (as albacore and yellowfin) are commercially produced, but the large majority of the associated jiggers are made by the fishers on-board the vessels.

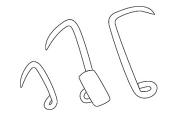
Observers will be expected to collect information on hook type and size as well as on jiggers used.



Barbless lure



Artisanal barbless jigs (Indonesia and South Africa) (adapted from CapMarine photos)



Artisanal barbless hooks (Indonesia) (adapted from G. Moreno photos)

Bait Fishing Gear²⁸

A wide variety of net types are used to collect tuna baitfish, both by the tuna fishing vessels themselves and by other fisheries that supply live baitfish to pole-and-line operations. The most common baitfish nets used by pole-and-line vessels include beach seines, boatoperated seines (lampara nets, purse seines, ring nets), drive-in type nets, and many styles of lift net. The most critical factor relates to mesh size, which must be small enough to avoid gilling a large proportion of the haul while remaining efficient for pursing and hauling.

The type of net used and whether it is hauled in the day or at night depends on several factors:

- depth of the fishing ground
- bottom type (smooth or rough)

²⁸ International Seafood Sustainability Foundation and International Pole & Line Foundation, 2019. Skippers' guidebook to pole-and-line fishing best practices. Version 1.0 – April 2019. ISSF & IPNLF. FAO fishing gear types (http://www.fao.org/fishery/geartype).

behaviour of targeted baitfish species

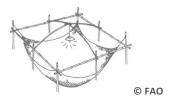
Drive-in type nets

Fish can be caught by driving them into a fishing gear of any type. Most of them are caught also without driving, but in small quantities. There are some stationary gears which catch only when the fish are driven into them by swimming or diving fishers or by frightening lines, among other methods. This gear is used to capture the fish, usually in shallow waters, by driving them into the netting by noise and other means. These gears can be used from the shore or from a boat.

Lift nets

Lift nets consist of a horizontal netting panel framed by wood or metal bars or a bag shaped like a parallelepiped, pyramid or cone with the opening facing upwards. Often, depending on target species the catching process is supported by lights (in cases, a series of powerful ones) or simply some bait.

Stationary Lift Nets



These lift nets, which can be relatively large, are usually operated from stationary installations situated along the shore. After being submerged at the required depth, the nets are lifted or hauled out of the water by hand or mechanically sometimes with the use of lights.

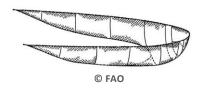
Boat-operated Lift Nets



These lift nets are hauled out by hand or mechanically from one or more boats. To operate a large lift net and maintain it open, several long poles on one or the of two sides of the boat are, in general, necessary. A number of pulleys and/or small winches are used to dip and haul the lift net.

Boat-operated seines (lampara nets, purse seines, ring nets)

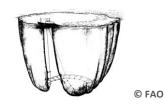
Lampara nets

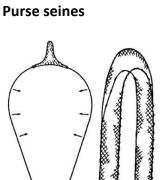


The lampara net is a surrounding net (without purse lines), shaped like a dustpan or a spoon (the lead line is much shorter than the float line) with two lateral wings and a central bunt with small mesh to retain the catch. The net is mostly used like a boat seine and operated by a single vessel. Once the shoal of fish has been surrounded, the two wings are hauled up at the same time, in general, by hand by several crew members.

Ring nets

A ring-net is a purse seine net made of a long wall of netting framed with float line and lead line (usually, of equal or longer length than the former) and having purse rings hanging from the lower edge of the gear, through which runs a purse line made from steel wire or rope which allow the pursing of the





© FAO

net. The ring net can be operated by one or two boats and it is set around a detected school of baitfish. After that, the net is closed underneath the school by hauling the purse line running through the rings (pursing).

A seine net is a very long net, with or without a bag in the centre, which set either from the shore or from a boat for surrounding a certain area and is operated with two (long) ropes fixed to its ends (for hauling and herding the fish). Two types of gear can be distinguished in this category: beach seines and boat seines. While, no specific gear handling equipment is required for beach seine operations, the problem for manoeuvring seine nets in general consists, first, in hauling the long ropes attached to the ends of the net: this is done either by hand (Beach seines) or with a winch (Boat seines). When seine nets are used from boats, rope drums can be used for storing the long ropes, a power block can also help for bringing the net on board. Seines are usually set from a boat to surround a certain area and are hauled either from the shore (beach seines) or from the boat itself (boat seines).

TARGET SPECIES

Tuna Fishing

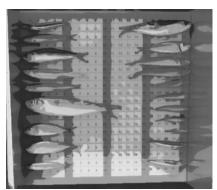
Pole-and-line fisheries operating in the Indian Ocean, typically target skipjack and small yellowfin tuna, as well as tuna-like species occupying the upper surface waters, while small bigeye tuna are also targeted at dawn and dusk. In temperate waters small albacore tuna is also targeted. Nonetheless, poling vessels also have the ability to catch larger tuna >40kg.

Pole-and-line fishing for tuna is a very selective technique, with very low levels of bycatch compared to other major tuna fishing methods (Miller et al. 2017b). Yet, as bait-fishing is an integral part of pole-and-line fishing, ecosystem impacts of bait-fishing must be considered, including the bycatch of non-target species and ETPs, mainly turtles species (ISSF/IPNLF, 2019).

Bait Fishing (IPNLF/ISSF, 2019)

The composition of baitfish species that pole-and-line fisheries use depends on the target tuna species and the location of the fishery:

Higher latitude pole-and-line fisheries that target the temperate tuna species (albacore and bluefin tunas) generally harvest a small number of hardy baitfish



Adapted from a G. Moreno photo.

species.

- Temperate water fisheries often rely on one or two dominant species.
- Tropical fisheries targeting skipjack and yellowfin tuna rely on a large assortment of nearshore and reef-associated species that are often delicate and difficult to maintain in captivity. Tropical bait fisheries may encounter over 15 useable species per haul, although the catch is normally dominated by fewer than five species.

TUNA FISHING OPERATIONS

Pole-and-line fishing operations include:

- 1. Tuna fishing operations; and
- 2. Bait fishing operations.

Pole-and-line tuna fishing operations are divided into two phases:

- 1. the search and detection of the fish schools;
 - a. free-swimming schools;
 - b. associated schools.
 - i. Logs;
 - ii. anchored FADs; and
 - iii. drifting FADs
- 2. the fishing event itself, including:
 - a. the chumming of baitfish/water spraying; and
 - b. the poling of the fish.

Search and Detection

Direct Search and Detection Methods

Methods by pole-and-line vessels to search for and detect of tuna schools may include:

- 1. the use of high-performance binoculars to search for:
 - a. free swimming tuna schools or changes in sea-surface that indicate their presence;
 - b. seabirds, schools of dolphins or other marine mammals associated with tuna;
 - c. natural floating objects (LOGs); and occasionally
 - d. drifting FADs;
- 2. the use of long-range radars that can detect concentrations of feeding seabirds;
- 3. the use of acoustic sonar and depth sounders to detect shoals of fish in the immediate vicinity of the vessel;

4. visiting anchored FADs.

High performance binoculars

The search phase is an activity that can occupy the crew for more than 12 hours a day, from sunrise to sunset. Spotters equipped with binoculars (of various range), search for indicators of fish in the vicinity of the vessel.



Acoustic sonar and depth sounders

The use of acoustic sonar and depth sounders are reserved for fishing.

The fine use of these vertical sensing devices allows detecting shoals of fish in the immediate vicinity of the vessel. These are also used to assess the school before start chumming, informing the captain of the composition and distribution of the tuna school.



Bird radar

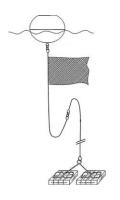
Pole-and-line vessel can be equipped with high frequency and long-range radars that can detect concentrations of feeding seabirds and, in certain conditions, can detect the agitation on the sea surface from feeding fish.



Anchored FAD

Anchored FADs are used most extensively by semi-industrial and industrial pole and line fisheries to target skipjack and other tuna species (e.g., Indonesia and the Maldives).

Fishing can become crowded and contentious when vessels compete for the best area close to an anchored FAD (ISSF/IPNLF, 2019)



FAD Usage

Tunas are naturally attracted to any floating object in the open ocean - whether natural (such as a log or dead floating whale), from human origin (like a wooden palette or a pile of discarded rope) or man-made (artificial dFADs and aFADs).

Some pole-and-line vessels utilize floating objects to achieve more productive fishing and some fisheries depend almost entirely on anchored FADs (aFADs).

With large numbers of drifting FADs (dFADs) set by purse seine fleets in most tropical regions, they can drift into EEZs and thus provide fishing opportunities to coastal pole-and-line fishers.

The association of tunas with aFADs is highly advantageous to industrial pole and line fisheries as it:

- 1. allows fishing opportunities to be focused into a small number of predictable locations;
 - o The known position of anchored FADs reduces the time required for searching;
 - the construction of an array of anchored FADs, aids the identification of promising fishing areas;
- 2. aggregates sparsely distributed schools, which makes them easier to spot than schools swimming freely beneath the surface;
- 3. stabilises tuna schools and reduce the speed at which they travel, making them comparatively easy to catch (Dagorn et al., 2012);
- 4. reduces the risk of another vessel 'hijacking' a tuna school when multiple vessels are fishing competitively in close proximity.

Consequently, fishing around floating objects is associated with a higher successful haul, or 'set', rate than targeting free swimming schools (Chassot et al., 2015).



Figure 35 - Anchored FADs used by the pole-and-line fisheries

Fishing Event

The "set" or "event" starts when the first line enters the water and ends when the last line comes out of the water. If the vessel stops fishing for a period of at least 10 minutes then it should be considered that the fishing event ended, even if fishing is to restart shortly afterwards on the same school.

Although pole-and-line fisheries in the world can present different vessel configurations and fishing techniques, there are some common features pole-and-line fishing, these include:

- Chumming
- Spraying, and
- Poling

Chumming

The scattering of live baitfish onto the surface of the water (chumming), to create a feeding frenzy, when a school of tuna is located.



Adapted from a POPA image





Adapted from a IPNLF image

Spraying²⁹

The fishing area is sprayed with water to obscure the fishing line and the hook and further excite tuna, creating the illusion and sound of a large school of small fish near the surface.

Poling

The action of catching fish with poles (that can be of different materials, dimensions, operated manually or mechanically by one or more fishers).

Fishing Strategy When Fishing on a Free-swimming³⁰ School

- 1. When a free-swimming school is sighted, the vessel will attempt to intercept the lead portion of the school at full speed;
- 2. The sonar indicates whether tunas are present as well as the size of the fish and the density of the school, while the echo sounder indicates the depth of the school. Both devices are monitored closely throughout the operation.
- 3. As soon as the vessel is positioned above the school, the sprayers are turned on and chumming commences (or vice-versa). The combination of the spray agitating the surface and chum are used to get the fish into a feeding frenzy.
- 4. Fishing commences when the tunas are observed near or on the surface, starting with live bait. Feathered jigs can sometimes replace live bait when a feeding frenzy is induced.
- 5. Hooked fish are pulled from the water rapidly and landed on the vessel.

Fishing Strategies When Fishing on an Associated³¹ School

A. <u>Fishing on an anchored FAD</u> is very different from fishing on a free-swimming school. In this type of fishing, consideration also needs to be given to other vessels due to limited manoeuvring and fishing area around the floating object (IPNLF/ISSF, 2019).

²⁹ Modern pole-and-line vessels are equipped with high-pressure seawater lines that lead to spray nozzles mounted along the gunwale or hull.

³⁰ Schools of tuna found in the open ocean and not associated with any structure or floating object are called "free" or "un-associated" schools.

³¹ Schools of tuna associated to a floating object (FAD), being this floating object of natural origin (log), of human origin, an artificial anchored FAD or an artificial drifting FAD.

- 1. At the arrival to the aFAD, the sonar or echo sounder is/are used to assist with school location and chumming strategy. Additionally, the activity of birds, visual cues, or trial and error can help locate the fish;
- 2. As a general rule, vessels approaching a FAD give way to a vessel already fishing the object, and thereafter take turns making drifts or approaches. Fishing can become crowded and contentious when vessels compete for the best area close to a FAD;
- 3. As soon as the vessel is positioned above the school, the sprayers are turned on and chumming commences (or vice-versa).
- 4. Fishing commences when the tunas are observed near or on the surface.
- 5. When fishing on a FAD, the initial catch normally consists of rainbow runner and dorado. These fish occupy the top layer and have to be landed before the yellowfin and skipjack are caught.
- 6. At times fishing may be halted before the school is exhausted.
- B. Fishing on logs (floating objects of natural or man-made origin)
 - 1. At the arrival to the log, the sonar or echo sounder is/are used to assist with school location;
 - Live bait is casted ahead or to the side of the log as it tends to produce a strong biting response from associated tuna schools and the sprayers are turned on (or vice-versa);
 - 3. Fishing commences when the tunas are observed near or on the surface.
 - 4. When fishing on a log, the initial catch normally consists of rainbow runner and dorado.
 - 5. At times fishing may be halted before the school is exhausted.
 - 6. The boat will then drift with the school while various methods might be used to encourage more tuna to aggregate under the boat until fishing recommences.

 Aggregation methods can include:
 - Fishing for short intensive periods.
 - Turning on water sprayers and chumming between fishing sessions.
 - o Drifting day and night.
 - Turning on powerful deck lights at night.

Preservation of the Catch (IPNLF/ISSF, 2019)

Vessels that operate single day trips may simply rinse their catch prior to landing to fresh fish markets. If the fish are for international markets, they will generally be kept on ice until

offloading. For multiple day trips, an array of storage techniques can be implemented to maintain high quality fish until unloading at port:

Ice

Storage in ice reduces the core temperature of tuna quickly to maintain a high-quality product.

Ice Brine

A mixture of seawater and crushed ice (slurry) cools tuna far quicker than ice alone and also acts as a cushion to crushing and abrasion. Ice brine is commonly stored in emptied bait holds or purpose-built insulated holds. The ice brine system can keep tuna in decent condition for about four days, after which quality reduces rapidly.



Figure 36 - Storage hold where the fish are kept in a solution of seawater and ice, 2013 (adapted from a IPNLF photo).

Refrigerated Coils (Refrigerated Seawater)

Refrigeration

Fish holds can be lined with metal coils cooled with a compressed refrigerant such as ammonia or Freon. Vessels equipped with this type of system can refrigerate and freeze fish. The coils can maintain seawater in refrigerated seawater (RSW) systems for fresh sashimi markets, as well as for canned products.

Freezing

Freezer coils can also chill a hyper-saline solution of seawater and salt that remains in a liquid state but is cold enough to freeze the whole tuna solid.



Figure 37 - Japanese distant-water pole-and-line boat unloading sashimi-quality blast-frozen skipjack in Yaizu, Japan (adapted from a D. Itano photo published by the IPNLF).

Whole tuna is transferred to the brine freezing wells that circulate the high-density brine at -18° C to -20° C. When the brine hold is filled with frozen tuna, the brine is pumped out and the fish kept in a dry, frozen state usually at a lower temperature — either in the same hold or sorted and transferred to other refrigerated holds.

Spray Brine Systems

Fish can be also frozen in storage wells using a simple spray brine system: refrigerated brine solution is recirculated from the bottom of the well and sprayed over the top of the fish. The catch is loaded whole from the capture deck, and chilled brine runs by gravity over the fish, which freeze solid at the temperature of the brine (-18° C to -20° C). This system is adequate for canning-grade tuna.

Air Blast Dry Freezers

Large Japanese pole-and-line vessels use dry-blast freezing technology to preserve high-quality frozen tuna at an ultra-low temperature (ULT) of -45° C to -60° C. ULT frozen tuna can be held for extended periods while maintaining suitable quality for sashimi, seared tuna and high-grade markets.

Use of Nano-Multi-Ice (NMI)

New technology that is currently being trialled in the Maldivian pole-and-line fishery. NMI is a very fine silky ice solution that is proving to be effective in bringing core temperatures of pole-and-line caught tuna down quite rapidly. It has several refrigerating benefits with substantial time savings (up to 20 x faster cooling of fish), much improved fish quality, small size, light weight, extremely low refrigerant charge and relatively low power consumption.

BAIT FISHING OPERATIONS

Pole-and-line fishing requires live baitfish (i.e., small pelagic, coastal and coral reef varieties), which are cast into the sea to attract tuna schools. Pole and line vessels spend a significant amount of time catching live bait. The high-seas tuna fishing grounds are often far from the sheltered bait fishing ground, presenting some unique challenges to this fishing technique.

Pole-and-line vessels either capture their own baitfish, purchase baitfish from other fisheries, use cultured baitfish, or get a baitfish supply through a combination of these activities.

For example:

- Maldivian tuna boats capture their own wild baitfish similarly to how the pole-andline boats of the Azores, Canary Islands, Lakshadweep, Brazil, Indonesia in some areas, and others.
- In Japan, baitfish are purchased from separate bait fishing operations, which can be a component of larger fisheries harvesting the baitfish species for various purposes, including human consumption.
- Some pole-and-line fisheries, including the Indonesia pole-and-line fishery, may obtain bait through a combination of the two methods.

Baiting operations can be generally divided into:

- <u>Daytime methods</u>, which are the most common. Beach seine or surround nets and drive-in nets are usually operated during daylight hours.
- <u>Night-time activities</u>, where the use of artificial bait-attraction lights is needed.
 Lift nets are an example of nets often used at night.

The type of net and whether it is hauled in the day or at night depends on several factors, such as:

- depth of the fishing ground
- bottom type (smooth or rough)
- behaviour of targeted baitfish species

Once caught, the fish are carefully handled to reduce mortality. Some species, particularly those harvested in cool waters at higher latitudes with strongly adherent scales, can be "dry scooped" with dipnets and quickly transferred to the bait wells. Yet, delicate species, such as the ones harvested in tropical waters, need to be loaded within buckets of seawater, taking care not to overcrowd each bucket.

Survival and condition of night caught baitfish that are allowed to settle, or calm down in the net, and are loaded during daylight hours are higher than for night-loaded bait.



Figure 38 – Bait fishing during the day with a surround net in the Azores pole and line fisheries (adapted from a photo by Franklin-Tavares).



Figure 39 - Anchovy livebait circling in a bait well (adapted from a photo by D. Itano).



Figure 40 – Live bait being "dry scooped" with dipnets for transfer to the bait wells (adapted from a photo by Franklin Tavares).

Using cultured fish for pole-and-line chum may be an option as an environmentally responsible alternative to harvesting wild coastal species or when wild baitfish are not seasonally available. Projects and studies on the effectiveness of cultured chum peaked in the 1970s but were discontinued when pole-and-line fisheries declined as purse seining became the predominant surface tuna fishing method worldwide. There is renewed interest in culturing baitfish species in some regions to support pole-and-line fisheries as an environmentally responsible alternative to wild baitfish harvest. This can relieve pressure on wild stocks and nearshore resources.

FISHERY IMPACTS ON THE ECOSYSTEMS AND INTERACTIONS

Tuna Fishing

Ecological Impacts

Despite the clear benefits of FADs to the pole-and-line fisheries, their use is associated with several potential negative impacts, including the catch of small tunas, bycatch of vulnerable non-target species, modification of tuna habitat, potential damage to coastal habitats and interference with other maritime activities.

IOTC has recognised the increasing use of FADs in IOTC fisheries, notably for tropical tunas, and Resolution 15/09 has established an *ad hoc* working group on FADs to assess the impact they may have on the species composition and on the rates of by-catch associated with fishing on FADS.

Concern has also been raised about the impact of FADs on the incidental mortality of sea turtles and sharks through entanglement, and emphasis is now being placed on the use of environmentally friendly materials in FAD construction (MRAG, 2017).

- 1) Impacts on tuna stocks
 - a) catching too many fish that prejudices reproduction (recruitment overfishing);
 - catching too many small fish and reducing the number that reach maturity (growth overfishing);
- 2) The capture/entanglement of non-target species (bycatch);
 - a) retained bycatch (by-product);
 - b) incidentally taken in a fishery and returned to the sea (discarded);
 - c) incidentally affected by interacting with fishing equipment in the fishery, but not taken (released);
- 3) Damage to marine and coastal habitats and marine litter, when FAD structures are lost or abandoned in fragile marine habitats like coral reefs;
- 4) Ghost fishing, the accidental capture of marine life by fishing gear lost or discarded at sea that continues to entangle animals.

For conservation and management measures put in place by the IOTC to limit the capture of juvenile tunas, to avoid the capture/entanglement of Species of Special Interest (SSI), to investigate, limit and avoid ecological impacts of FADs and of purse-seine fishing, please consult the most recent version of the Compendium of Active Conservation and Management Measures for the Indian Ocean Tuna Commission (https://www.iotc.org/cmms).

Interactions

SPECIES	IMPACT	MITIGATION
Marine	entanglement in FADs	use of ecological FADs.
turtles, Sharks, Birds		 usage of the proper techniques to handle and release bycatch species such as turtles, sharks, and birds.

Bait Fishing

Ecological Impacts

Many baitfish species used by pole-and-line fisheries display relatively high productivity and resilience to fishing due to their high fecundity, high turnover due to rapid growth, and relatively short life spans. However, bait fishing can still have significant environmental impacts (IPNLF 2012; Gillett 2012), such as:

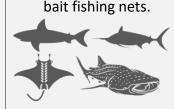
- 1) Reduction in the amount of forage available for larger fish
- 2) overexploitation of some baitfish species, and
- 3) bycatch of non-target species
 - a) retained bycatch (by-product);
 - b) incidentally taken in a fishery and returned to the sea (discarded);
 - c) incidentally affected by interacting with fishing equipment in the fishery, but not taken (released).

Management of bait fisheries as well as the ongoing collection of data on bait fishing activities (species composition, total catch, catch-per-unit-effort) are key components for ensuring this aspect of pole-and-line fisheries is sustainably managed.

Interactions

SPECIES	IMPACT	MITIGATION
Marine turtles	encircled/ caught on bait fishing nets.	 turtle should be encouraged to swim out of the net; or a large dip-net can be used to pick up the turtle from the net; usage of the proper techniques to handle and release bycatch species such as turtles.
Cetaceans	 encircled/ caught on bait fishing nets. 	 a side of the net can be lowered to allow the cetacean(s) to escape
Sharks, rays,	 encircled / caught on 	 usage of the proper techniques to

marlins, whale sharks and other large fish



handle and release bycatch species such as sharks and others.

Gillnet Fishery

BACKGROUND AND VESSELS

Gillnets or driftnets consist of a series of net panels that are suspended in the water column. It is a passive method of fishing that does not use bait to actively trap fish. The fish swim into the net and become entangled. Gillnets can be broadly classified into several categories: set nets (anchored); and drift nets (un-anchored).

A trammel net is a combination of gillnets of different mesh sizes consisting of three layers of net. A slack, small mesh, inner panel of netting sandwiched between two outer layers of netting, which are taught and have a larger mesh size. The inner panel may be made of multifilament or monofilament nylon, whilst the outer panels are generally made of multi filament material.

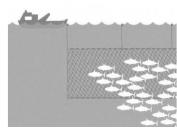


Figure 41 - Gillnet or driftnet.

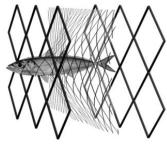


Figure 42 - Trammel net.

Gillnets and trammel nets are widely used all over the world, both in inland and in the marine environment, especially with artisanal fisheries. Driftnets were used extensively on the high seas by a number of countries in the 1980's to target tuna. However, they were also associated with high numbers of incidental capture of marine mammals and turtles.

The use of drift nets longer than 2.5 kilometres on the high seas was banned by the United Nations in 1991. In 1993, the United Nations banned gillnets in international waters, but their use is still permitted at the discretion of the coastal states within their exclusive economic zone.

On the current (2019) IOTC list of vessels 1306 gillnet vessels are registered in 3 countries (1295 from Iran; 10 from Pakistan; and 1 from France). However, taking the artisanal component of gillnet vessels, 21 countries are reportedly carrying out gillnet fishing in the IOTC area³².

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³² IOTC report; (IOTC-2017-WPEB13-18)

The length over all (LOA) of vessels and area of operation are main factors depicting the classification between artisanal and industrial gillnet and compliance with IOTC resolutions:

- vessels with LOA greater than 24m are classified as industrial both within their EEZ and on the high seas.
- vessels with LOA greater than 15m that operating on the high seas outside their counties EEZ are classified as industrial vessels;
- vessels less than 15m operating within their countries EEZ are classified as artisanal.

The main IOTC Resolution governing gillnets is Resolution 17/07 to prohibit the use of large-scale driftnets in the IOTC Convention area based on the United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) resolution 46/215 which calls for a global moratorium on large scale driftnet fishing on the high seas. Gillnet fishing is also subject to IOTC Resolutions governing statistical reporting and marine turtle conservation, (IOTC Resolution 12/04). Fishing operations involving gillnets contribute around 35% to the IOTC nominal catches These catches amount 630 thousand tons of fish. It arises as the most important single fishing gear in terms of volume of catches.



Figure 43: Gillnet vessels operating in the Indian Ocean.

BASIC LAYOUT OF A GILLNET VESSEL

Gillnet vessels layout can vary depending on the size and construction of the vessel. Larger purpose-built gillnet vessels (15m plus) have hydraulic powered drums positioned on the bow from where the nets are hauled and the net is then stored either on the deck forward or in forward holds. The fish are processed on the deck aft of the net haulers. The bridge and accommodation are positioned aft of the vessel.





Figure 44: Large purpose-built gillnet vessel with hydraulic powered drums positioned on the bow.

Alternative layouts can be found on multipurpose vessels that may operate either longlines or gillnets. On these vessels the nets are often set and hauled from the starboard side. A long roller is mounted on the starboard rail to facilitate setting and hauling the net.





Figure 45: Multipurpose vessel hauling a gillnet from the starboard side using a long roller mounted on the starboard.

Larger industrial size vessels (LIV), often converted from previous industrial longline vessels, set the net from the stern and haul it from the starboard side, forward of the bridge.







Fig 47: Drum mounted on a winch.

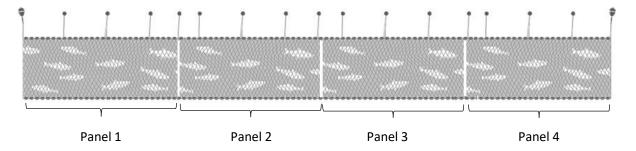


Figure 48: Net hauling drum

They use an elongated drum mounted on a winch and open on one side. A roller is extended over the side to assist in guiding the net to the hauling drum. A shute or channel is used to guide the net from the hauling point back to the stern where it is ready to set again.

FISHING GEAR AND RELATED EQUIPMENT, DESIGN AND SPECIFICATIONS

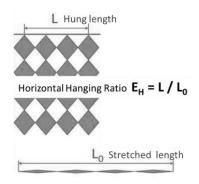
Gillnets are generally made up out of a series of panels with a weighted "footrope" attached along the bottom, and a "headline", to which floats are attached. The net material can consist of either monofilament nylon or multifilament twine materials.



The size of the mesh is determined by stretching the mesh and measuring the distance from knot to knot



in either centimetres or millimetres.

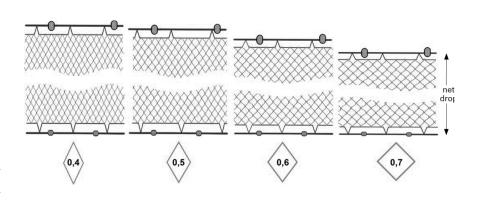


The spacing between two points where the net is attached to the headline is called the hung length or bridge length. The hanging ratio determines the depth and mesh tension on a panel of net. The horizontal hanging ratio ($E_{\rm H}$) is effectively the relation between the length of the net attached to the headline or footrope divided by the maximum length of the net. This can be calculated by dividing the hung length (L) of a single mesh

by its stretched length (L_0), (measured from knot to knot). $E_H = L / L_0$

When nets are constructed with a hanging ratio of 0.5 or slightly higher, they have more tension on the net panel and tend to be more selective in the size of fish caught.

However, if the ratio is less than 0.5 then the nets is "slack" with less tension on the net panel and have a reduced selectivity and greater tendency to catch smaller fish or easily entangle larger fish.



The size and spacing of floats on the headline and weights of on the footrope will also vary depending on where the net is to be positioned in the water column. Buoys used on the headline, (float line) are usually solid foam, oval or cylindrical buoys. The footrope is weighed using lead weights attached to the rope or integrated lead core rope.

Observers should be familiar with both these aspects and be able to measure and record these specifications if requested.

Panels of net are commercially available in "skeins" or net panels and a vessel can easily store a large number these on on-board to make up nets while at sea to replace lost or damaged nets.

A number of gillnet panels can be made up into a single net and several nets can be connected into a continuous net. Driftnets used on the high seas can extend up to 60 km.

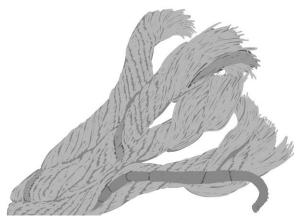


Figure 49: Footrope with integrated lead core rope



Figure 50: Net, footrope, and float line with solid foam floats

Alternative terms when describing gillnets

Bottom-Set Nets, Gillnets, Entangling Nets, Trammel Nets.

Net panel (skein) of net: Variable length,

depths, mesh sizes and materials obtainable from net manufacturers;

Fleet: Number of net panels connected together. Single working unit that is set and hauled.

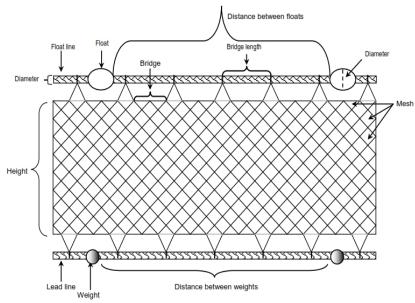


Figure 51 - Configuration of a gill net.

Float line (top rope):

Attached to the top row of meshes and connects net panels into a continuous net (fleet).

<u>Weight line (groundline)</u>: Weighted rope attached to the bottom row of meshes connecting fixed number of net panels of a fleet in conjunction with the float line.

<u>Terminal anchor and buoys:</u> Weights and anchor and marker buoys attached to the end of each fleet, (similar or the same as those used to mark the ends of a longline).

<u>Droplines:</u> Lines that connect the gill-net float line to the floats that stay at the water surface.

TARGET SPECIES

The main target species of commercial gillnet vessels is yellowfin tuna and skipjack tuna. However large numbers of bigeye tuna are caught as well as larger billfish species. The indiscriminate nature of gillnet fishing can result in a large range of other neritic species that inhabit the near surface area being caught. These are often the main target species of artisanal fishermen, including smaller tuna like species such as: Kawakawa, Frigate tuna and Longtail tuna.

FISHING OPERATIONS

Both trammel and gill nets entangle fish in three different ways. The fish may become wedged, held by the mesh around the body; gilled, caught by the gills; and tangled, held by teeth, spines or other protrusions without necessarily penetrating the mesh.

The mesh size of gillnets can be highly effective at selecting or regulating the size of fish caught. Fish that are smaller than the mesh of the net are able to pass through the net unhindered, while those, which are too large to push their heads through the meshes as far as their gills, are also less likely to be caught.

Trammel nets also entangle fish in bags or pockets of netting. This occurs when fishes swim through one of the outer panels, hit the inner panel, and are carried through to the other outer panel, which creates a bag or pocket, thereby trapping the fish. Trammel nets are therefore less selective in the size of fish caught.

On small boats, gillnets are handled by hand while hydraulic net haulers and/or net drums are used on larger vessels to handle and store nets.

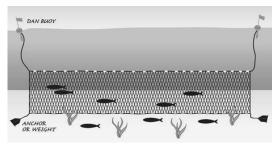
Search and Detection

Similar to longline fishing, the fishermen look for temperature fronts to set their nets. These may be also be areas of local upwelling where there are concentrations of fish. Larger motorised vessel operating on the high seas also have modern-day satellite equipment to assist them in detecting areas to set nets.

Artisanal fishermen target area traditional fished on shelf edges.

Fishing Event

In shallow water, gillnets and trammel nets are anchored to the seabed and the anchor lines determine the vertical orientation, artisanal fishermen using nets



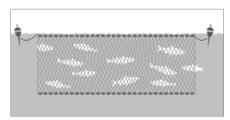
Gillnet anchored to the seabed.

up to 20m deep can fish the whole water column in this way.

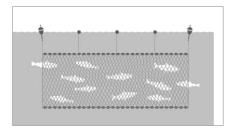
In deeper waters drifting nets are set and reported length of up to 12km of net can be set in a single event (note this is contrary to the IOTC Resolution 12/04). These drifting nets can be set on or just below the surface and are not anchored and are allowed to drift with the currents.

During 'surface sets', the gill-net is maintained on the surface of the sea with the help of floats placed closely together along the float line (e.g., around every 4.5 meters), while weights are loosely spaced along the footrope (e.g., around every 60 m). This arrangement enables the net to remain at surface.

During 'sub-surface sets', droplines of 1.5 to 2 meters long are attached to the gill-net headline at regular intervals (e.g., around every 8 meters), while weights are more tightly spaced along the footrope (e.g., around every 35 m). This arrangement enables the gill-net to remain 2 meters below the surface during the fishing operation.



Gillnet set at the surface



Gillnet set at the sub-surface

Nets are generally set from the starboard side of the vessel, a raise section like and inverted "V" can assist in keeping the weighted and floating lines apart. The vessels forward speed determines the rate at which the net is set. Danbuoys with lights attached are used to buoy off the ends of the net. On longer sets the additional marker buoys can be attached.

Once the net is set it is left for a predetermined soak time. Soak times are likely to vary depending on likely hood of fish being caught. As the fish quickly die in the net that can quickly deteriorate and longer soak times can affect the fish quality. There is also the risk of secondary predation is soak times are too long.

An alternative fishing strategy is to ride along the net so that it is hauled and reset at the same time and fish are removed as the net is hauled. This has the advantage of keeping the net in the water and removing catch before they deteriorate.

Preservation of the Catch

Factors that influence the processing and preservation of the fish are the size of the vessel and its range. Processing takes time and needs space, and this can be limiting on smaller vessels. Larger powered vessels have ability for refrigeration for keeping either fresh or frozen fish for several weeks or month if freezing. Whereas artisanal vessels may undertake trips of only a 1 to 5 day and fish can be kept on ice.

On larger vessels with refrigeration the fish may be processed according to the species, gill and gutted or head off. Smaller tuna species are often frozen in the round similar to that on purse seine vessels. Smaller vessels are more likely to land fresh fish, unprocessed.

FISHERY IMPACTS ON THE ECOSYSTEMS AND INTERACTIONS

Ecological Impacts

Entanglements with gillnets set close to the surface is not discriminant and poses a high risk to a number Endangered, Threatened and Protected (ETP) species, especially:

- turtles
- · small and large cetaceans; and
- sharks.

The high risk of cetacean mortality was one of the main reasons for international communities adopting the moratorium on large scale driftnets. Small cetaceans attempting to feed on fish in the net are at high risk of also getting caught.

Interactions

SPECIES	IMPACT	MITIGATION				
Marine	 entanglement 	No mitigation measures are specifically				
turtles,		covered in the IOTC Resolutions. Possible				
Cetaceans,		measures that could be employed would				
Sharks		be seasonal and area restrictions to setting				
		nets when high populations of turtles are				
		likely to be present. In addition, a				
		restriction in soak time could make it				
		possible to release some of the PET species				
		before they drown or die in the nets.				

Amongst the species of cetaceans which may interact with gillnet fisheries in the Indian Ocean are Indo-pacific bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops aduncus*), common bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops truncates*), risso dolphin (*G. griseus*), spinner dolphin (*S. longirostris*), and diverse whales such as Bryde's whale, and Eden's whale³³.

Olive Ridley turtle (*L. olivacea*) seems to be most abundant, whereas green turtle (*C. mydas*) is the second more frequent turtle tuna gillnets. On a few occasions' hawksbill turtle (*E. imbricata*), loggerhead (*C. caretta*) and leatherback (*D. coriacea*) have also been observed to be entangled³⁴.

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³³ IOTC report; (IOTC-2017-WPEB13-18)

³⁴ IOTC-2017-WPEB13-18

Sharks by-catch is also a commercial by-catch for gillnet fishermen and are likely to be marketed with the target species when the vessel lands.

PART E: SAMPLING PROCEDURES

SAMPLING PROGRAMS EMPLOYED IN REGIONAL INDIAN OCEAN TUNA FISHERIES

IOTC Regional Observer Scheme

The IOTC Regional Observer Scheme (ROS) has as its core objective: to collect verified catch data and other scientific data related to the fisheries for tuna and tuna-like species in the IOTC area. In addition, the observers will be required to carry out scientific work as requested by the IOTC Scientific Committee.

- A. Specific sampling requirements referenced in the IOTC Resolution 11/04 require observers to:
 - for all fishing gears, observe and estimate catches as far as possible with a view to identifying catch composition, monitoring discards, by-catches and size frequency;
 - 2. observers on purse seiners to monitor the catches at unloading to identify the composition of bigeye tuna catches.
 - 3. record catch and effort data that include;
 - a. fishing gear specifications;
 - b. use of electronic aids to fishing;
 - c. total catch determination by species;
 - d. fishing strategies;
 - e. time start fishing and end fishing; and
 - f. search times.
 - 4. biometric sampling of the catch;
 - a. taking and recording specific biological samples of the catch that includes;
 - i. measuring fish length and weight according to species type and anatomical features
 - ii. length and weight ratios;
 - iii. sex and maturity
 - iv. collect, preserve, store and label samples for DNA analysis.
 - 5. record interactions of the fishing activities with the environment;
 - a. assess negative interactions; and
 - b. monitor the effectiveness of mitigation measures.

- 6. be familiar with protocols for the photographing and preservation of an individual species for accurate identification; and
- 7. how to the use, maintenance and calibration of sampling equipment.
- B. Data collection protocols can be separated into several categories and these can be adapted to the vessel and specific fishery being monitored that include:
 - generic data;
 - specific fisheries vessel & gear;
 - biological data collection; and
 - environmental monitoring.
- C. Generic data encompasses all vessel types and fisheries. These data are generally trip specific and headings in this category will include:
 - observer and deployment details;
 - vessel owners and compliment;
 - vessel details;
 - vessel electronics;
 - trip information; and
 - catch information.
- D. Fisheries specific data will cover vessel and gear parameters pertaining to the fishery and include catch and effort information that is collected continuously during the trip specific to each fishing event. Data headings in this category will include:
 - operational vessel and gear details;
 - catch per unit fishing effort;
 - catch processing and storage;
 - by-catch and environmental mitigation measures; and
 - tagging and tag returns.

Other Sampling Programmes

Scientific Observers are to be informed of other sampling programs that might be in place nationally or regionally in the Indian Ocean Tuna fisheries and of the roles of the observers in relation to these sampling programs.

SAMPLING METHODOLOGIES

Trip Selection

Resolution 11/04 states that at least 5% of the number of operations/sets for each gear type and fleet must be sampled. When selecting which fishing trips to place observers on, these should be stratified wherever possible based on vessel size/type, spatial location of fishing operations, temporal variation in fishing operations and any other distinguishing factors between fishing trips of a fleet so that the sample is representative of the fleet.

Sample Selection Strategies

Sampling strategies and methods, of selecting samples on-board a vessel, are determined by the operational nature of the fishery and specific data collection requirements. These will differ between surface fisheries (purse-seine and poling) where large quantities of fish are caught and processed in a relatively short time, [within a few hours] and gillnet and longline fishery where catches from a single set can be spread out over a day.

To achieve these objectives, the observers require the knowledge and training on how to undertake various strategies to obtain the samples they can analyse. Most sampling strategies have a statistical component that is important to ensuring that samples are representative of the total catch. However, it is more important for the observer to fully understand the practical procedure used to collect samples.

Sampling can be conducted for:

- total catch estimation;
- catch composition;
- size and weight composition; and
- biological sub-sample (sex, maturity stage and collection of samples).

Sampling includes, but is not restrained to, the following methods:

Exhaustive Sampling

Exhaustive sampling is a method of sampling that involves the sampling of the totality of the population (catch, species).

Example:

- 1. The totality of the hooks or net panels hauled during a longline or gillnet set are observed;
- 2. The observer weighs/counts every individual caught during purse-seine set (only feasible if the catch is small);
- 3. The observer counts all fish that land on the vessels during the pole-and-line fishing

event; and

4. All individuals caught for a particular species are subsampled (exhaustive subsampling).

Proportional Sampling

Proportional sampling is a method of sampling that involves the sampling of a proportion (%) of the population and the raising to the totality of the population.

Example:

- 1. A proportion (%) of the longline is observed /sampled by selecting batches of 10 hooks at every 100 hooks along the line;
- 2. A proportion (%) of the gillnet is observed by sampling all panels hauled for a period of 1 hour every two hours; and
- 3. The observer selects two pole fishers and counts fish caught for a period of 5 min every 15 min.

Random Sampling

Random sampling is a method of sampling that involves the sampling of a part of the population via the collection of multiple samples randomly selected, i.e., selected haphazardly and raised to the totality of the population.

Example:

- 1. Hooks are sampled randomly by selecting at random batches of 10 hooks along the longline being hauled;
- 2. Gillnet panels are sampled randomly by sampling all panels hauled during 1-hour periods selected at random during the hauling time;
- 3. The observer selects two pole fishers and counts fish caught for 5 min periods selected at random during the fishing event time; and
- 4. The observer samples all individuals of a particular species present on a purse-seine brail randomly selected.

Stratified Sampling

Stratified sampling is a method of sampling that involves the division of a population into smaller sub-groups known as strata, that are mutually exclusive. In stratified sampling or stratification, the strata are formed based on members' shared attributes or characteristics such as size.

Stratified random sampling is also called proportional random sampling or quota random sampling.

[Important: Stratified sampling is used to highlight differences between groups in a population, as opposed to simple random sampling, which treats all members of a population as equal, with an equal likelihood of being sampled.]

Example:

- 1. The observer tips the fish from a brail/pile/receptacle/conveyer belt into a bin to avoid hand selection of individual fish, divides fish into homogeneous subgroups before subsampling e.g., 50 yellowfin tuna.
- 2. The observer pulls by hand a selected number of fish from a brail/pile/receptacle/conveyer belt and divides fish into homogeneous subgroups before subsampling e.g., 50 fish of more than 15 kg.

Systematic Sampling

Systematic sampling is a sub-sampling method that involves the organised, regular sampling of a sub-sample of the population. This sub-sample can be collected randomly or proportionally.

Example:

- 1. Of the random sample taken, the fish are identified to species level. Once the main species have been determined, a pre-determined number of fish of each species is sub-sampled.
- 2. Of the random sample taken, a small random subsample is taken and biological information extracted.
- 3. A proportion (%) of the catch or of the individuals caught and brought on-board for a certain species is subsampled in a systematic way (e.g., every 10th fish caught is sub-sampled for length frequency).

Which type of within-set sampling takes place must be well documented!

SAMPLING FOR TOTAL CATCH ESTIMATION

To be successful as an observer, the estimation of sizeable quantities of fish is an important skill to learn. There are three ways to estimate a set / fishing event total catch:

- 1) Weigh/count the entire catch (feasible if the catch is small)
- 2) Use the vessel estimate
- 3) Record the catch weight /number of samples and raise these, or take numbers and length measurement for conversion.

The first option is generally unavailable, and the second option introduces the possibility of bias, given the source of the data. The third option is independent, but is an approximation and requires careful observation to achieve better accuracy which will increase with the

experience of the observer. Potential methods to calculate total catch include exhaustive, random and proportional sampling, yet, these will differ between fisheries. Whatever type of within-set sampling takes place must be well documented.

SAMPLING FOR CATCH SPECIES COMPOSITION

Sampling for catch composition is where the observer collects information on the species composition of the catch. This will include target species and bycatch species. Bycatch can comprise species with commercial value (retained), species with NO commercial value (discarded) and incidentally affected species such as sea birds, marine mammals and turtles, and some sharks' species (released).

Observer is expected to provide an estimation on the weigh or number of each of the species that compose the catch per fate (i.e., if they were, retained, discarded or released).

Potential methods to calculate total catch include exhaustive, random and proportional sampling, yet, these will differ between fisheries.

SAMPLING FOR SIZE COMPOSITION

Sampling for species and size composition is where the observer collects information on individual species size composition -length frequency (and sometimes weight frequency, on a smaller proportion of the catch (sub-sample).

Potential methods to use for this might be exhaustive sampling; systematic proportional sampling; stratified sampling; systematic random sampling of a fixed number of species or of a mixed species sample; or other sampling methods that are specifically required from the observer by its managing authority and that are to be detailed in a sampling protocol to be provided to the IOT Secretariat together with the set of data for the observed trip.

BIOLOGICAL SUB-SAMPLING

Biological sub-sampling is where the observer collects detailed biological information on a smaller proportion of the catch, such as sex, maturity stage, takes otolith and/or genetic samples. Potential methods to use for this might be systematic random sampling, such as selecting every nth fish from the original sample taken.

Fixed Number of Each Species

Of the random sample taken, the fish are identified to species level. Once the main species have been determined, a fixed number of fish of each species are measured to obtain a size frequency distribution for each species.

An advantage of using this method is that all species should be evenly sampled, however, the main species may be under-sampled so priority species, such as bycatch may be selected prior to the trip.

Mixed Species Sampling

Of the random sample, a small random subsample is taken and biological information extracted. The advantage with this strategy is that the main species will be well sampled while a disadvantage is that the minor species component of the catch may be under sampled.

Priority Species

Particular species may be selected by the observer scheme managers prior to the trip taking place based on specific research projects, or species targeted for stock assessment or review at a regional level. These may be selected purposefully from the random sample. This may also include certain bycatch species.

Sampling Strategies as a Function of the Fisheries

SAMPLING ON INDUSTRIAL TUNA PURSE-SEINERS

Surface fisheries like purse-seiners tend to target and catch schooling fish in greater numbers in a short time period and within a fixed location at a time. The catch is often more uniform in size and in species composition.

Practically, in these situations, only smaller sub-samples of the catch can be measured and a stratified sampling protocol is followed. On the contrary, the catches associated to FADs present a great variability in size and species composition. In this situation, the choice of the sampling protocol to follow will be done in function of sampling objectives.

Sampling on industrial tuna purse-seiners needs to be repeated several times during a same set as fish have the tendency to assemble per size and species inside the net, therefore catch species and size composition can vary during brailing.

PURSE-SEINE

- 1) Free school (catch uniform in size and in species composition)
 - Stratified sampling
- 2) Associated school (catch with high variability in size and species composition)

Catch species composition

Proportional sampling

Size frequency

- Stratified sampling
- Proportional sampling
- 3) Pre-sorted catch
 - Stratified sampling

SAMPLING ON INDUSTRIAL TUNA LONGLINERS

The gear and nature of the longline fishing operations results in *individual* fish being targeted. The gear is spread out over a large area (up to 200 km). Larger adult fish from small shoals are targeted and catches can show a greater variance in size and possible species composition. However, the catch rate in time is generally low as a line can be hauled over a whole day, which makes it possible to sample a high percentage of the catch.

Therefore, observers on longliners can record most of the species and measure the length of each as they are landed. In addition, the observer can generally sample each line set.

When the catch rate is higher, the species composition is usually more uniform so a smaller proportion of the fish can be measured following systematic sampling approach such as every measuring every " n^{th} " fish. Also, the observer needs to spend a proportion of their time on deck monitoring the line being hauled. At this time, they may not be able to take biometrics, but can still accurately record catch composition. On average an observer should be able to monitor at least 80% of a line being hauls and collect biometrics from more than 50% of the species caught.

LONGLINE

- 1) Low catch rate
 - Exhaustive sampling
- 2) High catch rate
 - Proportional sampling

Species composition

At least 80%

Size frequency

At least 50%

SAMPLING ON GILLNET VESSELS

The gear and nature of the gillnet fishing operations results in fish being individually remove from the net. The gear is spread out over a large area (up to 10 nm). Catches can show a greater variance in size and species composition. However, the catch rate in time is generally low as a gillnet can be hauled over a whole day, which makes it possible to sample a high percentage of the catch.

Therefore, observers on gillnet vessels can record most of the species as they are landed. When the catch rate is low, the observer can also measure the length of each specimen.

When the catch rate is higher, a smaller proportion of the fish can be measured following systematic sampling approach such as every measuring every " $n^{th''}$ fish. Also, the observer

needs to spend a proportion of their time monitoring the net being hauled. At this time, they may not be able to take biometrics, but can still accurately record catch composition. On average an observer should be able to monitor at least 80% of the gillnet being hauls and collect biometrics from more than 50% of the species caught.

GILLNET

- 1) Low catch rate
 - Exhaustive sampling
- 2) High catch rate
 - Proportional sampling

Species composition

At least 80%

Size frequency

At least 50%

SAMPLING ON POLE AND LINE VESSELS

Surface fisheries like pole-and-line tend to catch large number of fish in a short time period, within a fixed location at a time, even if it catches one-by-one.

When fishing in free-schools the catch is often more uniform in size and in species composition. On the contrary, the catches associated to FADs present a great variability in size and species composition.

Observers on pole-and-line vessels will record catch size composition while fishing is occurring following a systematic proportional sampling approach such as every measuring every " n^{th} " fish.

Total catch and catch species composition are to be recorded at the end of the fishing event when the fishers bring them to the cold-storage hold. For small catches are to be exhaustively sampled for species composition and total catch (in numbers). For large catches the observer is to follow a proportional sampling protocol by counting the total number of baskets taken to the cold-storage and sampling one or more of these baskets, for species composition and weight.

POLE AND LINE

- 1) Size frequency
 - Systematic proportional sampling
- 2) Total catch and catch species compositions

Small catch

Exhaustive sampling

Large catch

Proportional sampling

IOTC ROS Sampling Requirements

TARGET SPECIES

According to IOTC Res. 15/02³⁵ para. 5: Size data:

"Size data shall be provided for all gears and for all species (...). Size sampling shall be run under strict and well described random sampling schemes which are necessary to provide unbiased figures of the sizes taken. Sampling coverage shall be set to at least one fish measured by ton caught, by species and type of fishery, with samples being representative of all the periods and areas fished. (...)."

NON-TARGET SPECIES

As providing information on bycatch is a key requirement of observers, information on bycatch species, should be recorded as far as possible, whether retained or discarded and of non-target species state at capture and at release.

SPECIES OF SPECIAL INTEREST

As providing information on the bycatch of species of special interest is a key requirement of observers, these species are to selected for biological sub-sampling, as far as possible, whether retained or discarded and their state at capture and at release recorded.

TAGGED FISH

Catches are also monitored for the recapture of tagged fish and so these fish may be selected for biological sub-sampling.

For sampling strategies to be followed when sampling on-board industrial tuna purseseiners, pelagic longliners, gillnetters and pole-and-line vessels, operating in the IOTC Convention Area please report to IOTC ROS Scientific Observer Workbooks.

BIOMETRICAL SAMPLING

³⁵ Resolution 15/02: Mandatory statistical reporting requirements for IOTC contracting parties and cooperating non-contracting parties (CPCS).

Measures

LENGTH MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

Length measuring instruments include:

- callipers
- · measuring board
- rigid tape/ruler
- flexible tape
- electronic measuring boards

Callipers

Callipers provide the most accurate measurements and are good for measuring small and medium size tuna and by-catch species. Their main advantage is their accuracy and they can accurately record straight measurements on tuna that have a solid round trunk that cannot be flattened out. However, their maximum measurement is limited to approximately 1.5m.

Callipers are generally made out of hard wood, brass, aluminium or plastic. A constraint is they can take up space when transporting and are delicate instruments that can get easily damaged in the working environment onboard a vessel.

Usage

- 1. Place one of its ends at the point of origin of the measurement to be taken.
- 2. Slide the other tip of the calliper to the end point of the measurement.
- 3. Read the length indicated by the calliper.

Note: If the fish is too long for the calliper, then measure it in two times.

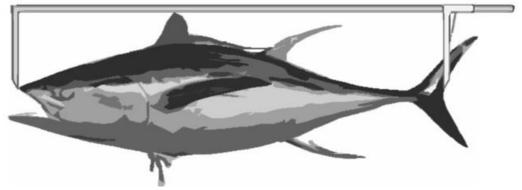


Figure 52: A Yellowfin tuna being measured using a calliper.

Deck Tape, Measuring Board and Electronic Measuring Board

A measuring board consists of a ridged board with a ruler graduated in mm, cm or ½ cm. One end has a stop so that fishes head can easily be positioned at the zero mark.

Electronic measuring boards use mechanical electronic touch sensors to record measurements on a digital display and directly onto electronic data systems.

A measuring board is ideal for taking flat measurements and can be used to rapidly measure smaller fish.

A deck tape is a semi-rigid ruler graduated in mm, cm or ½ cm. When using a deck tape always place it up against a straight (90 degrees) vertical object (the stop). If this is not done, the fish can easily slip down the deck tape when it is being measured, giving an incorrect measurement. A deck tape is a versatile means of measuring large tuna and the larger billfish.

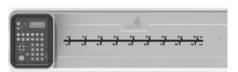


Figure 53 - Electronic measuring board



Figure 54 – Classic measuring board (Ichthyometer)



Figure 55 - A semi-rigid graduated deck tape

Usage





Adapted from SPC image

Both measuring tools must be used correctly to record straight measurements.

- 1. Place the fish on the ruler, the anterior end (mouth or nose) in contact with the stop.
- 2. Place your eye just above the tail of the fish to read the measurement correctly (if the observer moves the head to one side or the other, the angle of observation will cause a measurement error).
- 3. Take the most appropriate measure according to the species measured.

Flexible Tape

Observers should avoid to use flexible tapes to collect straight measurements as the probability of obtaining incorrect results is too hight. Also, tape measures made of fabric may stretch in a wet environment. This can also add extra centimetres to the collected length.

<u>Usage</u> (only in the measuring of curved-length for large tuna, billfish and turtles)



Figure 56 – Tuna curved Fork Length (FL) measured with a flexible tape.

- 1. To collect large tuna and billfish curved lengths, measure the desired length as a curved-line (ex.: Fork Length is measured as a curved-line from the tip of the snout to the fork of the tail, Fig. 49).
- 2. To collect curved Carapace Length (CL), measure turtles' carapace length as a curved-line from notch to notch.

MEASUREMENTS TO BE TAKEN

Observers must be clear on exactly what measurements they are recording. The following points must be noted:

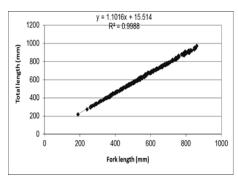
- All measurements must be **rounded down** to the nearest whole centimetre.
 - If the length of the fish is 43.1 cm, note 43 cm.
 - If the length of the fish is 43.8 cm, note also 43 cm.
- All measurements must be associated with a measurement type
 - Fork Length
 - Total Length, etc.
- All measurements must be associated with a measurement tool
 - Tape measure
 - Measuring Board
 - Calliper, etc.
- Always reference if the length was measured in a:
 - Straight-line, or
 - Curved line
- All measurements must be recorded using IOTC ROS approved codes. Ex.:
 - Fork Length (FT) collected with a calliper (CL) measured in a straight-line (SL)
- Always measure a fish on a flat surface.
- Never measure a crushed, broken, deformed or curved fish.

REFERENCE MEASUREMENTS

There are standard measurements taken for different species group these are referred to as the reference length. In some cases (*if the fish is already trimmed or in case of depredation*) the reference length cannot be measured. For these cases, there are other lengths that can be measured. The observers sampling instruction may require them to take several

measurements from a single fish.

These measurements can later be used to draw up regression tables to calculate alternative measurements when these could not be measured for any reason, (i.e., the fish were all processed head off and scientists require the total lengths for statistical purposes).



Tuna length measurements

The primary reference measurement for tuna is:

Fork Length (FL)

Measured from the tip of the snout to the fork of the tail.

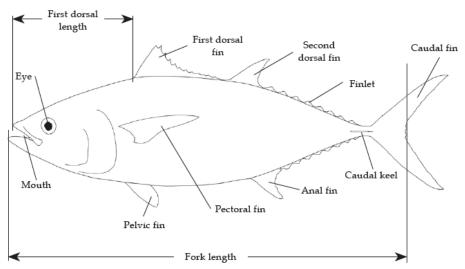


Figure 57 - Tuna Length Measurements (Illustration © R. Swainston/anima.net.au)

In situations where the fish are too large for the available equipment or the heads or the tails have been cut off for production purposes then the following alternative measurements can be taken:

First dorsal length (FD1) Also called pre-dorsal length, measured from the tip of the upper jaw to the insertion of the first dorsal spine.

Pectoral fork length (PL) Measured from the anterior insertion of the pectoral fin to the fork of the tail.

Billfish Length Measurements

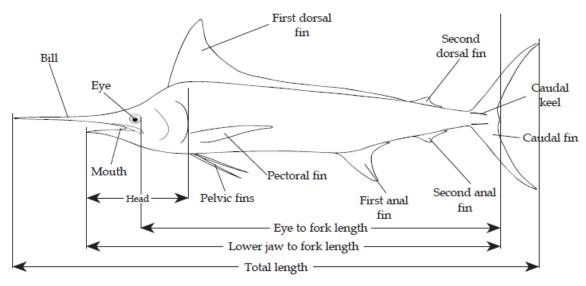


Figure 58 - Billfish Length Measurements (Illustration © R. Swainston/ anima.net.au)

Billfish are preferably measured for:

Lower Jaw Fork Length (LJFL) Measured from the tip of the lower jaw to the fork of the tail.

Eye to Fork Length" (EF). Measured from posterior edge of the eye socket to the fork of the tail.

On some commercial vessels it may not be possible to take the LJFL length as the fish are first dressed by the crew, alternative measurements that can be taken are:

Eye-fork length (EF) Measured from the posterior edge of the eye socket to the fork

of the tail.

Pectoral-fork length (PF) Measured from the most anterior insertion of the pectoral fin to the fork of the tail.

Pectoral-dorsal length (PDL) Measured from the most anterior insertion of the pectoral fin to the most anterior insertion of the second dorsal fin.

Pectoral-anal length (PAL) Measured from the anterior insertion of the pectoral fin to the posterior rim of the anal sphincter.

The length of most billfish makes it impractical to use callipers or a measuring board and the preferred measurements can also be taken on a straight line with a semi-rigid or on a curved-line using a flexible tape pulled over the contours of the body.

Sharks are preferably measured for:

Total length (TL)

Measured from the tip of snout to extreme end of the tail.

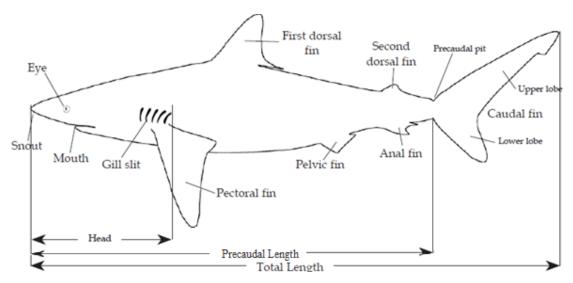


Figure 59 – Sharks Length Measurements (Illustration © R. Swainston/ anima.net.au)

Alternative measurements are:

Measured from the tip of the snout to the fork in the tail.

Pre-caudal Length (PCL)

Fork Length (FL)

Measured from the tip of the snout to the pre-caudal notch.

Ray length measurements

Pelagic stingrays are normally only measured for total disc-width (TW).

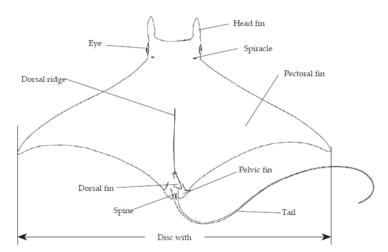


Figure 60 - Rays length measurements (Illustration © R. Swainston/anima.net.au)

Total disc with (TW): Measured from the tip of one wing to the tip of the other.

Marine turtles' length measurements

Overall size for marine turtles is usually given as carapace length (CL), either straight, measured using callipers, or curved, measured with a length of tape.

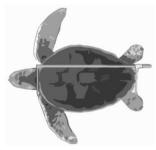
Because the precentral scute may be concave and because there is a distinct notch between the postcentral scutes in the Cheloniidae, measurements may be taken from the furthest point on the front margin of the carapace to the furthest part on the hind margin (tip to tip), or from the nearest point on the front margin to the notch in the rear margin (notch to notch).

A curvilinear notch length should preferably be taken and the type of measurement taken should be recorded using the relevant code category.

Bird length measurements

Length measurements for birds are generally made by laying the bird on its back and flattening out the head and neck and measuring its total length (TL) between the tip of the bill and the tip of the tail.

Another length measurement that can be collected is bird wing length (WL) measured from the bend of the wing to the tip of the longest primary feathers.



Straight carapace length (CL)



Curve carapace length (CT)

Figure 61 - Common length measurements used for turtles.

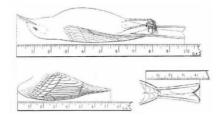


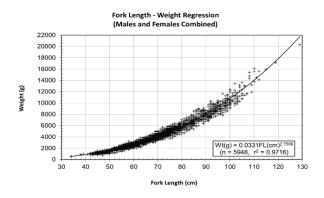
Figure 62 - Common length measurements used for birds: total and wing lengths (© Rasmussen PC and Anderton JC).

Weights

Normally fish are weighed "round" i.e., whole or total weight. These weights are used in fisheries management growth equations to express growth in terms of mass, and in yield-per recruit and spawning biomass per recruit assessments. However, on longline vessels the crew often only weigh the fish after it is processed, before freezing.

Due to the size of some species collecting weight data from unprocessed fish may be difficult. *Length/weight relationships* are used to estimate total weights in fisheries where only processed lengths are measured.

When weights are collected the main units



are likely to be in kilograms.

When observers are required to collect specific sample weights (i.e., gonad or stomach weights) these are generally recorded in grams. It is important to ensure you record the data using the correct metric specified in the field title (e.g., fish weighs are in "kg" and gonad weight are in "g").

WEIGHING MECHANISMS

Fish must be weighed correctly on an as accurate scale as possible or practical. Even so, weighing of fish at sea on small vessels may be difficult due to the movement of the vessel. When weighing at sea the dial on a spring scale or readings on an electronic scale may constantly change up and down with the vessel movement. By watching these changes for a while an average between the maximum and minimum readings should be recorded.

Whilst it is not a specified requirement, the Scientific Committee strongly recommends the use of electronic motion compensating scales for all measurements. However, the high cost of these and conditions where they can be used is a limiting factor.

There are sections in the logbooks and in the cruise report for you to indicate the weighing equipment used during your deployment.



Hanging scale



Mechanical scales The most multipurpose scale used at sea are hanging spring (dial) scale. They can be used when there is no access to electronic scales or when the surrounding conditions are unfavourable (i.e., excessive motion because of rough seas; wet measuring area).

Spring scales come in a large range of weigh capacities (500g to 500kg), that can be used different levels of precision (from 5g, 250g to kg plus).

To get the most accurate results the weight of the object being weighed should not be less than 20% of the scale capacity and not exceed 80% of the capacity. For example, if using a 50kg scale then it would not be ideal to weigh fish less than 10kg or more than 40kg.

A scale should be regularly calibrated before use and always check it is "zeroed" before weighing a fish.

Electronic and motion compensated scales

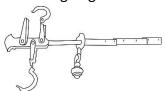


Electronic and motion compensated scales are Used in good working conditions, such as a dry lab. These are not usually used on the average fishing vessel.

Beam scales



<u>Beam scales</u> often used by tuna longline vessels to record the weight of dressed carcasses before weighing.



ADDITIONAL BIOLOGICAL SAMPLING PROCEDURES (IOTC, 2015)

Sex and Maturity

TUNA AND BILLFISH

When specified in the sampling program the sex or gender of the fish may also be required. On the large purse-seiners the tuna caught are often juveniles and the fish are frozen whole and it is unlikely that sexing of the tuna will be required. However, on tuna longliners where adult fish are mostly caught, these can be determined by first taking the length measurements and then checking the gonads for sex when the crew is dressing the fish. The gonads for both tuna and billfish are found in the ventral part of the body cavity.

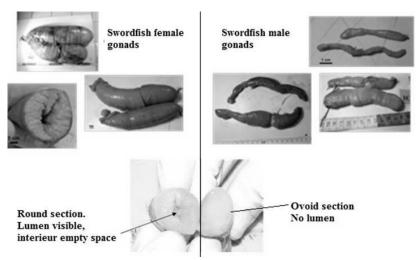


Figure 63 - Difference between female and male swordfish gonads (© IFREMER)

Billfish are normally measured for both length and sex. It is well known that male and female billfish have significantly different growth rates with the larger fish mostly being female. Male billfish on average do not weigh much over 100kg. The gonads for billfish may not easy to distinguish, however there is a clear difference in the shape between male and female gonads. The male gonads are relatively irregular in shape and some have many nodules present on the external surface. Cross sections have a characteristic rectangular shape and when sexually active milt can be seen. The lumen will be visible at the base or to one-side of the gonad. The female gonads have a smooth external appearance and the cross section has a characteristic oval shape with a lumen visible in the middle.

MATURITY STAGE OF LARGE PELAGIC FISH

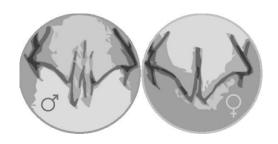
Maturity can be assessed through visual examination of the gonads of large pelagic fish and assigned a maturity stage from 1 to 5 (Table 2), however, the visual assessment of ovaries to determine maturity stage is felt to be an imprecise indicator of reproductive condition (West, 1990) so the use of histological and/or chemical methods is recommended. Whichever method is used should be fully documented.

Stage	Criteria							
	Males	Females						
I	Gonads small ribbon-like, not possible to determine sex by gross examination	Gonads small ribbon-like, not possible to determine sex by gross examination						
I	Immature; testes extremely thin, flattened and ribbon-like, but sex determinable by gross examination	Immature; gonads elongated, slender, but sex determinable by gross examination						
2	Enlarged testes, triangular in cross section, no milt in central canal	Early maturing; gonads enlarged but individual ova not visible to the naked eye						
3	Maturing; milt flows freely if testes pinched or pressed	Late maturing; gonads enlarged, individual ova visible to the naked eye						
4	Ripe; testes large, milt flows freely from testes	Ripe; ovary greatly enlarged, ova translucent, easily dislodged from follicles or loose in lumen of ovary						
5	Spent; testes flabby, bloodshot, surface dull red, little or no milt in central canal	Spawned ; includes recently spawned and post- spawning fish, mature ova remnants in various stages of resorption, and mature ova remnants about 1.0mm in diameter						

Table 2 Maturity stages used for visual examination of large pelagic gonads

SHARKS AND RAYS

The sex of sharks and rays can be determined externally by the presence or absence of a pair of claspers on the pelvic fins. Claspers are very prominent in mature males, more subtle in juvenile males and completely absent in females.



TURTLES

Turtle gender is not apparent, and it is according to their secondary sexual characteristics that we can determine it. The most obvious is the size of the tail, much larger in males. The size of the claws in the *Chelonidae* (e.g., green turtle) is another.

The female's tail is shorter and thinner.
The cloaca is located at the base of the tail & almost disappears into the shell.

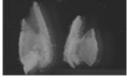


The male's tail is longer and thicker than a female is and the cloaca is located in the last third of the tail, towards the tip.



Age and growth

Observers may be expected to collect otoliths for age and growth studies. Otoliths are hard milky white structures composed of calcium carbonate that form part of the inner ear of fish and are used in maintaining balance.



Swordfish otoliths

They grow throughout the life of fish by and form layers each year or season. The layers are used by scientists to estimate fish age (same principle as that of the cross section of a tree trunk that reveals its age).



Tuna otoliths

EXTRACTING OTOLITHS

Open the skull of the fish (use knife or saw) to access cavities containing otoliths. This can be done in several ways:

- Dorsal cross-section most commonly used, on all types of fish (any species, individual size or cranial morphology).
- Transversal cross-section performed by separating the body of the fish's head, may be more practical on certain species (i.e., swordfish, tuna).
- Ventral cross-section through the gills; does not damage the appearance of a fish.

After cutting, remove the brain and tissue to access the semi-circular canals and extract the otoliths using tweezers. Clean the otoliths and store in clearly labelled paper envelopes.

Feeding Biology

Fish may be generalists (feed on a wide range of prey items) or specialists (feed on specific types of organisms). Where requested, the stomach (or other parts of the digestive tract) maybe collected and frozen in well-labelled plastic bags.

Specific instructions on sampling method and storage to be given by the scientist requesting the samples.

Genetics

Genetic samples to be collected on request. Detailed instructions on which part of the body to sample (fin clip, muscle, or walking leg in lobster), how many samples required per site, and storage methods (90% alcohol or frozen) to be given by the scientist requesting the samples.

The general procedures for collecting genetic samples are:

• photograph sampled fish

- record biometrics of fish [length / weight / sex & maturity]
- use scalpel or scissors [disinfected] with alcohol]
- take small tissue or fin sample of approx. 1 cubic cm
- place tissue in a vial containing 90 ° alcohol completely covering tissue with alcohol and
- clearly label sample

Tagged Animals (IOTC, 2015)

If a tagged or banded animal is encountered, every effort should be made to recover the tag (if the individual is dead), or to record the information on it (e.g., for a turtle or seabird that will be released).

The tag number, length, weight, sex, time and place of capture should all be recorded in the relevant data field sections of the observer forms where possible. In many cases, instructions on where to report recaptures appear on the tag and with these types of tags, there is often a reward associated with the returning the tag to the researchers who deployed it.

There are a variety of tag types in use, from simple numbered plastic tags to complex electronic tags:

- Plastic spaghetti or dart tags are attached on the back of the fish.
- Rototags are a two-piece, plastic cattle ear tag, which is inserted through the first dorsal fin.
- Sonic tags are miniature radio transmitting devices that are surgically implanted inside the tuna (since these are not visible externally, a conventional tag of a certain colour will be visible on the outside).
- Internal archival tags are implanted in the body cavity and record internal body temperature and the environment's temperature, pressure, and light.
- Smart Position or Temperature Transmitting (SPOT) tags are attached to the dorsal fin and send a signal to a satellite every time the animal surfaces.
- Pop-up Satellite Archival Tags (PSAT) are inserted with an anchor and a tether into the dorsal musculature, recording temperature, pressure, and light, and they detach from the animal on a pre-programmed date.



Bird leg band

SPECIES IDENTIFICATION

Plastic spaghetti or dart tags

Resources Available

It is the observer's responsibility to record all species that interact with the fishing gear, whether they are target species or bycatch, retained or discarded.

Identifying fresh species is relatively easy compared to distinguishing frozen or iced fish. Even at small sizes, freshly caught species have distinct coloration, body markings and body morphologies that provide rapid visual keys to positive identification. Frozen species are far more difficult to distinguish due to fin damage, discoloration, skin abrasion and distortion or crushing during the storage process. Even though tuna species are easiest to distinguish in fresh condition, misidentifications and lumping of yellowfin, bigeye and longfin commonly occurs in surface fisheries.

There are a number of recommended resources available to assist with species identification.

For all species groups

1) IOTC species identification guides. E-copies are available at: www.iotc.org/science/species-identification-cards or hard copies can be obtained on request from the IOTC Secretariat³⁶.

For tuna

- 2) McAuliffe J.A., Itano D. G., Arceneaux S. Photographic identification guide for billfish, sharks, rays, tuna-like and non-tuna finfish taken in WCPO pelagic longline fisheries (v1). E-copies are available at: ftp://ftp.soest.hawaii.edu/PFRP/itano or can be obtained on request to David Itano dgi@hawaii.edu.
- 3) Fukofuka S., Itano D. G. Photographic identification guide for non-target fish species taken in WCPO purse seine fisheries. E-copies are available at: ftp://ftp.soest.hawaii.edu/PFRP/itano or can be obtained on request to David Itano dgi@hawaii.edu.
- 4) Chapman L. and all. Marine species identification manual for horizontal longline fishermen. SPC. 2006³⁷.

Sharks and rays

http://www.spc.int/coastfish/en/publications/341-marine-species-identification-manual-for-horizontallongline-fishermen.html

- 5) On-board guide for the identification of pelagic sharks and rays of the western Indian Ocean (Smart Fish, FAO, COI).
 - www.iotc.org/sites/default/files/documents/2014/11/FAO Onboard Identification
 Pelagic Guide Part 1.pdf.
 - www.iotc.org/sites/default/files/documents/2014/11/FAO Onboard Identification
 Pelagic Guide Part 2.pdf.
 - www.iotc.org/sites/default/files/documents/2014/11/FAO Onboard Identification
 Pelagic Guide Part 3.pdf.
 - www.iotc.org/sites/default/files/documents/2014/11/FAO Onboard Identification
 Pelagic Guide Part 4.pdf.
 - www.iotc.org/sites/default/files/documents/2014/11/FAO Onboard Identification
 Pelagic Guide Part 5.pdf.

Marine Turtles

6) NOAA Identification, Handling, and Release of Protected Species. -copies are available at: http://www.fpir.noaa.gov/SFD/pdfs/PSW_Placards_English_2014.pdf.

Seabirds

- 7) http://bmis.wcpfc.int/docs/links/AFMA 2013 Seabird-ID-Guide-2013.pdf.
- 8) www.acap.aq/en/resources/acap-species2.
- 9) Video on bird scaring line deployment http://youtu.be/9WG6drHNcrk.

Marine mammals

10) www.fao.org/docrep/009/t0725e/t0725e00.htm.

Electronic species identification methods

- 11) iSpot, the online community of species identification experts to assist with identification based on uploaded photos www.ispotnature.org/communities/global.
- 12) The FAO iSharkFin electronic species identification guide based on photos of shark fins www.fao.org/fishery/ipoa-sharks/iSharkFin/en.

BEST PRACTICE GUIDELINES FOR THE SAFE RELEASE AND HANDLING OF CETACEANS, RAYS, SHARKS, SEABIRDS AND SEA-TURTLES

Resources Available

It is the observer's responsibility to follow best practice guidelines for the safe release and handling of birds, cetaceans, rays, sharks and turtles and to record if fishing vessels crew follow best practices guidelines as requested in IOTC CMMs. This information is to be recorded in Observer final trip report and presented to the Observer Coordinator for transmission to the IOTC. There are a number of recommended resources available to assist with the following of best practices guidelines in the safe release and handling of cetaceans, rays, sharks, seabirds and sea-turtles.

- Poisson F., Vernet A. L., Séret B., Dagorn L. Good practices to reduce the mortality of sharks and rays caught incidentally by the tropical tuna purse seiners. EU FP7 project #210496 MADE, Deliverable 7.2., 30p. file:///D:/Training%20materials/SSI/Sharks%20and%20rays/IOTC-2012-WPEB08-INF07.pdf.
- 2) SPC, 2012. Methods for longline fishers to safely handle and release unwanted sharks and rays. https://www.bmis-bycatch.org/system/files/zotero attachments/library 1/SCXKM5I8%20-%20Anon.%20-%202012%20-%20Methods%20for%20longline%20fishers%20to%20safely%20handle%20and%20.pdf.
- 3) King M. Protected marine species and the tuna longline fishery in the Pacific Islands / Secretariat of the Pacific Community. Coastal Fisheries Programme. SPC. 2004. https://www.bmis-bycatch.org/system/files/zotero attachments/library 1/ZKX6QR7E%20-%20581a42dfea1ad696f2f58622db308ef9.pdf.
- 4) IOTC sea-turtle species identification guides. https://www.iotc.org/sites/default/files/documents/2018/11/IOTC turtles for web.pdf.
- 5) Agreement on the Conservation of Albatrosses and Petrels. https://www.acap.aq/en/bycatch-mitigation/hook-removal-from-seabirds-guide.

PART F: OBSERVER REPORT FORMATS

The observer will be required to submit a series of reports to the controlling organisation at predetermined times throughout each trip. These include:

- Deployment Report (within 24-hours of the vessel sailing)
- Five-day status report
- Preliminary trip summary report, daily journal, and full set of data forms
- Final electronic trip report

DEPLOYMENT REPORT

Within 24 hours of the vessel sailing the Observer must send a deployment report to their controlling organisation. The content will include confirmation of the contact details of the vessel and serves to set up and confirm the line of communication between the observer and their controlling organisation. This report includes the outcome of the pre-sea inspection as details of flights and logistics prior to boarding.

If a report is not received within 24 hours of the due date, the observer coordinator will contact the vessel operator to send a message to the vessel to remind the observer of his/her obligation in this respect. If a report is not received within a further 24 hours it will be assumed that there is no means of formal communication with the vessel and the vessel operators will be contacted to make arrangements either to establish these or request the immediate return of the observer.

Taking into consideration that a breakdown in communication may also indicate an emergency situation with the vessel, emergency search and rescue operations may be initiated.

FIVE-DAY STATUS REPORTS

Throughout deployment observers will be required to send status reports to their controlling agency on specific dates, to report on the preceding five days. The report will provide a summary of fishing operations, catch and sampling undertaken during the period covered.

Following a similar procedure to the deployment report, should a report not be received by the time the next report is due the observer coordinator will start the process to establish contact via vessels operators.

In situations where reports have previously been regularly received it may be deemed that there is a problem with the observer's well-being and appropriate action may be necessary.

JOURNAL

All observers are expected to keep a journal with a detailed daily record of activities, events and information during their trip out at sea.

The purpose of the journal is to provide both general information, and information about specific events that are not captured on the forms, or a better description than can be included on the forms. Photographs and diagrams are important and Observers are encouraged to include these where relevant with detailed labelling so that the photos can be linked to the appropriate data fields.

The journal is a freestyle document, giving observers freedom to describe the operation of the vessel and other oceanographic or social features of the trip. The journal should include personal observations and information relevant to the daily operation of the vessel, as well as more sensitive information.

The journal is different from the trip report because it is a chronological record – that is, it is used to record events in a time sequence of hours and days. The trip report, on the other hand, is a summary of events under various subject headings.

Daily journals should have fixed format (see example under <u>Annex 6</u>), and are to be delivered to the coordinator upon disembarkation to be used in Observer debriefing. As such, the journal is a very important document and record of the trip.

PRELIMINARY TRIP SUMMARY REPORT

At the conclusion of the trip, prior to disembarking, the Observer must prepare a brief summary report of the trip.

The report should include details of sampling, summaries of catches and processing, interactions with protected and threatened species and any notable incidences with respect to the vessel operations or weather.

The report should also include information on health and safety incidents and issues. Reports on any accidents during the trip; comments on emergency drills; and on the crew's compliance to safety standards.

The preliminary trip summary report should have fixed headlines and format (see example under <u>Annex 7</u>), and is to be delivered to the coordinator upon disembarkation. This report will also form the basis for the observer debriefing.

OBSERVER TRIP REPORT

Following the debriefing Observers will be requested to complete and correct (where and if needed) the preliminary trip summary report and to submit their final trip report to the Programme Coordination, the latest 30 days following the completion of the trip.

The main purpose of a scientific report is to synthesise and communicate on the information that was collected. Good report writing skills are part of effective communication. Such report, unlike verbal communication, is a lasting document, which can be referred to in the future.

When writing a report, it can be assumed that your intended reader has a general understanding of the topic but no specific knowledge of the details. General instructions on how to write the trip report are provided under Annex 8.

OBSERVER TRIP DATA SUBMISSION

Resolution 11/04 outlines post-trip reporting requirements of interest to Observers: <u>The observer shall, within 30 days of completion of each trip, provide a report to the CPCs of the vessel</u>. The CPCs shall send within 150 days the report, which is recommended to be provided with 1°x1° format to the Executive Secretary, who shall make the report available to the Scientific Committee upon request.

In 2013 the IOTC Scientific Commission requested the Trip Report was changed to an electronic format/excel to facilitate data submission.

In 2019 the IOTC Secretariat developed an e-reporting tool to be used for the submission of observer data.

Also, in 2019, the IOTC Commission approved IOTC ROS standard minimum data collection fields, these are to be submitted to the IOTC Secretariat using agreed data reporting formats, or the IOTC ROS e-reporting tool.

ANNEXES

ANNEX 1 – BEAUFORT WIND SCALE

number	Description	Wind speed	Wave height	Sea conditions	Sea state photo
		< 1 km/h	0 <u>m</u>		
0	Calm	< 1 mph	V III	Sea like a mirror	
		< 1 <u>knot</u>	0 <u>ft</u>		
	< 0.3 <u>m/s</u>			7	
1 Lig		1–5 km/h 1–3 mph	0–0.2 m	Ripples with appearance of scales are formed,	
	Light air	1–3 knots		without foam crests	
		0.3-1.5 m/s	0–1 ft		- 47
		6-11 km/h	0.2-0.5		
2	Light breeze	4–7 mph	m	Small wavelets still short but more pronounced;	
2		4–6 knots	1–2 ft	crests have a glassy appearance but do not break	
		1.6-3.3 m/s	1-211		Tracks
		12–19 km/h	0.5–1 m		1/3
3	Gentle breeze	8–12 mph	0.5-1111	Large wavelets; crests begin to break; foam of glassy	
3		7–10 knots	2-3.5 ft	appearance; perhaps scattered white horses	
		3.4-5.5 m/s	2-3.311		\
		20–28 km/h	1–2 m		
4	Moderate breeze	13–18 mph	1 2 111	Small waves becoming longer; fairly frequent white	
•		11–16 knots	3.5–6 ft	horses	
		5.5-7.9 m/s	3.5 010		
		29–38 km/h	2–3 m – 6–9 ft	Madarata wayaa taking a mara pranayaad lang	The state of the s
5	Fresh breeze	19–24 mph		Moderate waves taking a more pronounced long form; many white horses are formed; chance of	
		17–21 knots		some spray	4
		8–10.7 m/s	0 310		
		39–49 km/h	3–4 m	Large wayes begin to form, the white form creeks	
6	Strong breeze	25–31 mph	9–13 ft	Large waves begin to form; the white foam crests are more extensive everywhere; probably some	
· ·		22–27 knots		spray	and the second
		10.8–13.8 m/s	3 13 10		
	High wind, moderate gale,	50–61 km/h	4–5.5 m	Soo boons up and white from from breaking waves	
7		32–38 mph	. 5.5	Sea heaps up and white foam from breaking waves begins to be blown in streaks along the direction of	
-		28–33 knots	13–19 ft	the wind; spindrift begins to be seen	
near gale		13.9–17.1 m/s			Jane Comment
	Gale, fresh gale	62–74 km/h	5.5–7.5	Moderately high waves of greater length; edges of	
8		39–46 mph	m	crests break into spindrift; foam is blown in well-	
		34–40 knots	18–25 ft	marked streaks along the direction of the wind	
		17.2–20.7 m/s	20 20 %		The state of the s
	Strong / severe gale	75–88 km/h	7–10 m	High waves; dense streaks of foam along the	ADDE TO A SECOND
9		47–54 mph		direction of the wind; sea begins to roll; spray affects	
		41–47 knots	23–32 ft	visibility	15/ 11
		20.8–24.4 m/s			
	Storm,[7] whole gale	89–102 km/h	9–12.5 m	Very high waves with long overhanging crests;	1
10		55–63 mph	3 12.3	resulting foam in great patches is blown in dense white streaks along the direction of the wind; the	
10		48–55 knots		surface of the sea takes on a white appearance;	
		24.5-28.4 m/s	29–41 ft	rolling of the sea becomes heavy; visibility affected	
11	Violent storm	103–117 km/h	11.5–16	Exceptionally high waves; small- and medium-sized	01
		64–72 mph	m m	ships might be for a long time lost to view behind	0
		•		the waves; sea is covered with long white patches of	
		56–63 knots	37–52 ft	foam; everywhere the edges of the wave crests are	· Dans
		28.5–32.6 m/s		blown into foam; visibility affected	
	Hurricane force [7]	≥ 118 km/h		The air is filled with foam and spray; sea is	1
12			≥ 14 m	completely white with driving spray; visibility very	
				seriously affected	

VESSEL PRE-SEA SAFETY CHECK AND

MINIMUM SAFETY REQUIREMENTS

Observer / Ob Coordinator /					Date			Signa	ature	
Vessel Agent					Date			Signa	ature	
Port / Position					•	<u>'</u>				
Vessel Details										
Vessel Name										
Captain/Fishin	g Maste	r Name								
Call Sign										
Flag										
Size GRT										
Length Over A	II (LOA)									
Vessels Compl	iment									
			Tele	phone						
Vessel contact	Numbe	r	Fax							
			Inmarsat (A/C/M) & No.							
			Name							
Vessel Owners	· / Chart	or's	Tele	phone						
vessei Owners	s / Chart	er s	Fax							
			Mobile							
Safety Equipm	ent		•							
Safety Certificate In-date (Y/N)					Issuing Authority					
Flares: Location				If checked			No. / E	xp Date		
First Aid Materials: Location		cation			Name of Medical Officer		Officer			
Life Rafts										
Type Number			Capaci	ty	· ·		rostatic release (Y/ N)		lext Service Due	
							(./	,		_ 0.0
Life Jackets										
Type Number on-bo			ard	d Location				SO	LAS App	roved
. , , , ,			2. 5				332/3/1010404			

Inflatable/Pac	ole/Pac			Cabin /Muster Station/				(Y/N)			
ked						Both					
Fire Extinguish	ers										
Positioned in main corridor's (Y/N)					Charge seals intact (Y/N)						
Positioned on I	oridge	(Y/N)			Charg	e seals intact (Y	/N)				
Life Buoys								<u>'</u>			
	Numb	per on-bo	ard	Free Release (Y/N)				Light/SART Attached (Y/N)			
Immersion Sui	ts (only	required	by ve	ssel	s oper	ation south of 3	0° S)				
Туре		Number	on-ho	Location				SOLAS Approved			
Турс		Number	lumber on-board			n /Muster Stati	on/ Both	1	(Y/N)		
Flares: Location	n				If che	cked No. / Exp [
First Aid Mate Location					ied Medical Offi	<i>'</i>)					
GMDSS Requir	ement	S		,				-			
Radio	HF			MF		VHF	/HF INMA		NAVTEX		
Equipment	Operational yes or no		Ope	Operation		onal Operational Opera		tional	ional Operational		
			yes or		no	yes or no	yes o	r no	yes or no		
EPIRB											
Type / Manuf	acturer	. Numb	Number of uni			its on Location			Release method		
			board					manual / float free			
C + D=1											
SART's		Niversia						Dala			
Type / Manuf	acturer	- Numb	Number of units on board			Location			Release method manual / float free		
boar			DUait	J.				manuar / noat nee			
Accommodation	าท										
		acuation a	nd Mi	uste	r Stat	ions Lists – Disp	laved (V	/NI)			
Cabin - Single o	-		illa ivii	usic	Ji Stat	10113 21313 10130	iayca (1	, 14)			
General Comm		ω, ρ									
- Cinciai Conilli											

Minimum safety requirements before an observer will be permitted to embark

Safety Certificate (Safety Management Certificate)

The vessel must have on-board a current and valid Safety Certificate that does not expire for a period of at least four months from the date of embarkation of the observer. The total crew compliment on board the vessel INCLUDING THE OBSERVER must not exceed the maximum specified number of crew listed in the safety certificate.

Life Rafts

The Life rafts capacity must have the capacity to accommodate the full crew compliment, including the observer. (In other words, the total life raft capacity must be equal to or exceed 100% of the vessels compliment).

Life Rafts must be within their serviceable date, which must cover the expected maximum duration of observer deployment.

All Life Rafts must be fitted with a serviceable Hydrostatic Release mechanism.

Life Jackets

There must be a total number of life jackets onboard, readily available at the emergency muster stations to accommodate each of the compliment onboard the vessel.

All Life Jackets must comply with IMO – SOLAS LSA standards.

GMDSS Requirements

The vessel must be GMDSS compliant in accordance to its tonnage and its area of operation.

Any component of the GMDSS requirement that is out of date or unserviceable will render the vessel as NOT being GMDSS compliant.

These items shall include inter alia EPIRP's, SART's and distress flares and rockets.

ANNEX 3- OBSERVER DEPLOYMENT REPORT TEMPLATE

Date			
Observer			
Vessel Name / Call sign			
Company			
Captain / Fishing Master			
Vessel Contact Details	Number		
	Email		
Deployment Details			
Briefing Date			
Contract "Start Date"			
Flight No's			
(Observers must retain their flight			
boarding passes)			
Departure date from			
Departure time from			
Landing date at destination			
Landing time at destination			
Safety Inspection completed (yes /no)			
Boarding date			
Sailing Date			
Sailing Time			
Port of departure			
Comment		,	

ANNEX 4- OBSERVER five-day STATUS REPORT TEMPLATE

Vessel Name / Call sign		
Observer		
Date / Report Period		
Location at time of report		
No. sets sampled in period		
Number and / or weight per species retained or discarded		
(Increase number rows as required)		
Species	Retained	
	Released	
Number and / or weight per species sampled		
(Increase number rows as required)		
Species	Retained	
SP35 (6)	Released	
Seabird Marine mammal interactions		
(Give brief details)		
IUU vessels sighted or detected		
(Give details, date / time / position)		
Lost gear recovered		
(Give details)		
General Comments (comment of	on any items considere	rd important for immediate attention)

ANNEX 5— EAP SOPS FOR OBSERVERS TO PREPARE FOR AND CONTROL AT-SEA EMERGENCIES

Restriction Situations

A restriction situation shall refer to incidents where an Observer's life is NOT in danger. This is incidents related to restrictions/impediments imposed by the vessel to observer work, safety, and/or wellbeing. SOP shall account for the process to resolve such situations on board.

WORK SAFETY, OBSTRUCTION, WELLBEING

In the event of an incident related to work safety, the obstruction of an Observer, or restrictions to the wellbeing of an Observer conducting its duties, the Observer shall:

 Notify the Observer Coordinator by including to its 5-day status report the agreed communication code.

Upon being notified by the Observer the Coordinator or designated officer shall establish direct contact with the Observer, via any reliable communication system, to confirm the situation and shall take action to mitigate and resolve the situation on board.

If there are reasonable grounds to believe that the health or safety of the Observer is endangered the Observer Coordinator or Designated Officer shall immediately remove the Observer from the fishing vessel.

If there are no reasonable grounds to believe that the health or safety of the Observer is endangered the coordinator or designated officer shall immediately take action to preserve Observer safety and to mitigate and resolve the situation on board.

The National Observer Programme, shall investigate any such event, and take appropriate action in response to the results of the investigation.

The National Observer Programme, shall notify all relevant parties, including but not restricted to the Observers and the IOTC Secretariat, of the results of investigation and any actions taken.

Emergency Situations

An Observer emergency shall refer to any critical incident (i.e., where an observer's life is in danger).

Note that we only list here, SOPs directly involving Observers in preparing for and controlling emergency situations on board. These include kidnapping, intimidation, assault, harassment, attempt to bribe, serious illness and injury. Situations involving observer depression/ anxiety

(suspected mental disorder), attempt to suicide, observer overboard, missing out at-sea and/or death aren't described here. These SOPs are to be discussed with the Programme Coordinator.

KIDNAP/INTIMIDATION/ASSAULT/HARASSMENT/ATTEMPT TO BRIBE

In the event of a kidnap/ intimidation/ assault/ harassment/ attempt to bribe, the Observer shall, if and where possible:

 notify the coordinator or designated officer by including to its weekly report the agreed communication code;

Upon being notified by the Observer the Coordinator or designated officer shall establish direct contact with the Observer, via any reliable communication system, to confirm Observer health and safety.

If there are reasonable grounds to believe that the health or safety of the Observer is endangered the coordinator or designated officer shall immediately remove the Observer from the fishing vessel, by:

- establishing direct contact with the vessel Agent/Owner and vessel Master/Captain to inform them of the immediate removal of the Observer;
- notifying the flag CPC of the situation (for non-flagged flag vessels);
- directing the vessel Master/Captain to facilitate the safe disembarkation of the Observer in a manner and place as agreed by the vessel Owner/Agent and the Coordinator or designated officer as soon as practicable;
- maintaining constant communication with the vessel Master/Captain and the
 Observer until the vessel arrives in port and disembarks the Observer;
- initiating official investigations.

If there are no reasonable grounds to believe that the health or safety of the Observer is endangered the coordinator or designated officer shall immediately take action to mitigate and resolve the situation on board, by:

- establishing direct contact with the vessel Agent/Owner and with vessel
 Master/Captain, to mitigate and resolve the situation on board;
- notifying the flag CPC of the situation (for non-flagged vessels);
- maintaining regular communication with the vessel Master/Captain and the Observer throughout the trip until the vessel arrives in port and disembarks the Observer;
- initiating official investigations.

Upon being notified by the coordinator or designated officer, by vessel Agent/Owner and/or by its flag CPC (for non-flagged vessels), the fishing vessel Master/Captain shall:

mitigate and resolve the situation on board;

- allow the Observer to maintain regular communications with the coordinator or designated officer;
- maintain regular communication with the coordinator or designated officer and relevant parties;
- if requested, immediately make a port call to disembark the Observer in a manner and place as agreed by the vessel Owner/Agent and/or by the flag CPC (for nonflagged vessels) and the coordinator or designated officer;
- cooperate fully in all official investigations into the cause of the incident.

The Observer Management Authority in association with the flag state authority of the vessel concerned (for non-flagged vessels), shall investigate any such event and take appropriate action in response to the results of the investigation.

The Observer Management Authority in association with the flag state authority of the vessel concerned (for non-flagged vessels), shall notify all relevant parties, including but not restricted to the observers and the IOTC Secretariat, of the results of investigation and any actions taken.

If after an observer has disembarked from a fishing vessel, the Observer Management Authority identifies—such as during the course of debriefing—a possible violation involving kidnap, intimidation, assault, harassment, or attempt to bribe the Observer while on board the fishing vessel. The Observer Management Authority shall notify, in writing, the flag state authority of the vessel concerned (for non-flagged vessels), shall investigate any such events and take appropriate action in response to the results of the investigation and notify all relevant parties, including but not restricted to the flag state authority of the vessel concerned, the IOTC Secretariat, the vessel Owner/Agent and the Observer of any actions taken.

SERIOUS ILLNESS OR INJURY

In the event of serious illness or injury, the Observer or the Master/Captain shall

 immediately notify the coordinator or designated officer via any reliable communication system from the vessel;

Upon receiving the alert, the coordinator or designated officer will immediately advise, the Vessel Owner, Flag State (for non-flagged vessels), Coastal State and Port State of the situation including, but not limited to the following information:

- observer's name and programme to which observer belongs;
- details of the serious illness or injury to the observer;
- details of vessel of which the observer is onboard;
- details of company, and owner of the vessel of which the observer is onboard; and
- exact position of vessel of which the observer is onboard when alert sent.

The coordinator or designated officer shall determine whether or not to remove the observer immediately.

Where an observer suffers illness or injury that threaten their health or safety. The Master of the fishing vessel shall immediately:

- take all necessary actions to care for the observer and provide any suitable medical treatment available onboard the vessel;
- notify the Flag State, the Coordinator or designated officer, via any reliable communication means of the situation immediately;
- facilitate the transfer of observer to an appropriate facility or nearest appropriate port for medical care, as designated by the Observer Coordinator; and
- cooperate fully in all official investigations into the cause of the illness or injury and remain in port until further notice.

The Observer Management Authority in association with the flag state authority of the vessel concerned (for non-flagged vessels), shall investigate any such event and take appropriate action in response to the results of the investigation. The Observer Management Authority in association with the flag state shall notify all relevant parties, including but not restricted to the observers and the IOTC Secretariat, of the results of investigation and any actions taken.

ANNEX 6 - JOURNAL GUIDELINES

Observer Journal Standards

While the journal is meant to be freestyle, there are some standards to follow:

CONSISTENCY

You should make an entry in it at least once every day, from the day you board. You may also include your days travelling to the vessel if relevant. It is important to get into the habit of writing in your journal from the start, even if very little happens during the day. A daily weather report is one way of developing this habit.

NEATNESS

Try to keep your handwriting clear and tidy – remember you are writing for someone else to read. When writing, keep your sentences clear and short to focus your descriptions on what is important. Your thought process should be logical and easy to follow for the readers of your journal. Separate your writing into subject paragraphs. Each event should be separated by line spaces into a paragraph. This makes it easier to read and find events. Use headings to identify important events. A heading is just a couple of words that describe the subject. Underline each heading and place it immediately above the start of the first paragraph about an event. Headings make it easier to find an event when reading the journal.

STANDARD FORMAT

To make sure that your journal is clear, you must include the following information:

- Date: The date and the day of the week;
- Time
- Page numbers

EXTRA DETAIL, RELEVANT DIAGRAMS AND ILLUSTRATIONS

If you can explain something better by drawing it – then do so, with a brief explanation of what it is, or what it is used for. When you are describing something, do not include too many unimportant details. These can make it difficult to find the important information and can be boring to read.

SPECIAL SECTIONS

Keep a few pages towards the back of the journal, so they don't get in the way of the normal daily notes, for writing about particular subjects. To create a 'special section', make a bold

heading at the top of the first page of the part of your journal you plan to use for the special section. The heading should clearly state what the section is about.

Examples:

- 'Photos' for the list of photos you have taken while onboard;
- 'Quality of life onboard' for notes about how good or bad life is onboard, including notes about food, accommodation, how the crew treat you, etc;
- "Biological sampling' for notes about any sampling issues onboard and anything else that you might think about.

Fill In the Observer Journal

All observers are expected to keep a journal and to make an entry in it at least once every day.

A journal entry is required even if very little happens during the day, or if the observer is tired at the end of the day. The entry should give a general idea of what happened on the vessel during the day.

The journal can be used to note down any pieces of information that are picked up. This will help observers fill in their trip report later.

The observer journal is used to:

- 1. clarify any mistakes that were made on the form and changed after the day they were recorded;
- 2. provide details of unusual events or incidents that occurred during the day;
- 3. provide comments on certain sections of the forms;
- 4. cover detailed information on any activity when there is no space on the form;
- 5. provide details on photos taken (data, time, number and short description of the film / photo);
- 6. etc.

All journal entries should be made on the day they happen, and not on a later date. If more information is discovered later on, fill it in under the date that it was first discovered. Observers can also use their journal to keep a list of photos taken during the trip. Label each photo so it can be located easily.

ANNEX 7 - OBSERVER TRIP SUMMARY REPORT HEADLINES

- 1. TRIP SUMMARY
- 2. SCIENTIFIC OBSERVER AND VESSEL DETAILS
 - 2.1. Scientific Observer Details
 - 2.2. Vessel Details
 - 2.3. Electronic Equipment
- 3. CRUISE ITINERARY
- 4. FISHING OPERATIONS
 - 4.1. Summary
 - 4.2. Gear Description
 - 4.3. Catch Details (all species)
 - 4.4. Processing Details
- 5. SUMMARY OF BIOLOGICAL DATA COLLECTED
 - 5.1. Biological Data Collection Summary
 - 5.2. Biological Sample Storage Location
 - 5.3. Biological Sub-sampling Methodologies
 - 5.4. Tagging information
- 6. SUMMARY OF METEOROLOGICAL DETAILS
- 7. SUMMARY OF FISHING STRATEGY
- 8. SUMMARY OF SEABIRD INCIDENTAL MORTALITY
 - 8.1. Streamer Line Details
 - 8.2. Longline hauling point bird scaring device
 - 8.3. Offal Discharge
 - 8.4. Seabird Entanglements
 - 8.5. Seabird Samples Retained
 - 8.6. Bird Bands
 - 8.7. Bird Observations
- 9. SUMMARY OF MARINE MAMMAL OBSERVATIONS
 - 9.1. Marine Mammal Entanglements
 - 9.2. Mitigation Measures
 - 9.3. Fish Loss Due to Marine Mammals
- 10. WASTE DISPOSAL
 - 10.1. Waste categories
 - 10.2. Lost Fishing Gear
- 11. VESSEL SIGHTINGS
- 12. DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED
 - 12.1. Operational Issues
 - 12.2. Observer Tasks
 - 12.3. Observers Logbooks / forms
 - 12.4. General Comments

ANNEX 8 - OBSERVER TRIP REPORT WRINTING INSTRUCTIONS

General style

- Strive for logic and precision and avoid ambiguity, especially with pronouns and sequences
- ONLY use the International Metric System of measurement and abbreviate measurements without periods (i.e., cm and kg)

	International Metric System
Length	millimetre (mm) centimetre (cm) metre (m)
Area	square metre (m2)
Volume	litre (I) cubic metre (m3)
Weight	gramme (g) kilogramme (kg) ton (t)

- Spell out all numbers beginning sentences or less than 10 (i.e., "two explanations of six factors").
- Write numbers as numerals when greater than ten (i.e., 156) or associated with measurements (i.e., 6 mm or 2 g)

Within the report, the exact format of particular items is less important than consistency of application.

For example, if you indent paragraphs, be sure to indent them all; use a consistent style of headings throughout (e.g., major headings in bold with initial capitals, minor headings in italics, etc.); write "%" or "percent" but do not mix them, and so on. In other words, establish a template and stick to it.

Have a neutral person review and critique your report before submission

Trip Summary

The trip summary should give a concise and clear summary of the report.

Write this section of the report last, once the other sections have been completed.

It should not be longer than a single page and should provide the reader with the most important information for a particular cruise. Follow the headings of the report when writing the trip summary and use the following guidelines:

- The 1st paragraph should give details on the vessel, the flag state, the name of the observer(s), his/her nationality, the target species, the areas fished and the period(s) when fishing occurred.
- The 2nd paragraph should give a short summary of the cruise itinerary (dates and ports of departure and return etc.)
- The 3rd paragraph should give a short summary of fishing operations the number of days fished & days lost, the number of sets/trawls, the number of hooks/pots set, the fishing depth, bait types used and the number of hooks/hauls observed.
- The 4th paragraph should give details on catches (weights and products). Mention the catch by weight and number of the target species and some details on by-catches. Mention the conversion factors (observer and vessel).
- The 5th paragraph should give a short summary of biological sampling done by the observer (e.g., length, weight, maturity, otoliths, tagging etc.)
- The 6th paragraph should give details on bird mortalities, entanglements, mitigation measures, marine mammal entanglements and interactions etc.
- The 7th paragraph should mention any vessel sightings (important for IUU vessels) and difficulties encountered (with operational issues and observer tasks
- Keep your writing impersonal, in the third person and avoid the use of the first person (i.e., I or we).
- Use the past tense and be consistent within the report do not change between past and present tense.

Guide to some specific formats in Observer Reports

DATE FORMAT

Only use the following format: dd/mm/yyyy (eg. 25/12/2010 for the 25th December 2010)

SPECIES NAMES:

The Latin names for individual species are written using a system termed "binomial nomenclature". Each species is identified by a combination of "two names": its genus name and its specific epithet. A familiar example is that of human beings, *Homo sapiens*.

SIMPLE RULES FOR WRITING LATIN NAMES

• The first time a species is mentioned in the title and in the text, it should be written out in full, e.g., *Thunnus albacares*

- The genus name (1st of the two names) should always start with a capital letter
- The specific epithet (2nd of the two names) should always be with a small letter
- The species names should always be in *italics*
- Avoid using species codes in the text of the report instead of species names or common names
- After the species name has been written out in full the first time, it must be abbreviated as follow: *T. albacares*, i.e., the genus has been abbreviated to the first capital letter and a full stop.
- Always write the species name after the common name when mentioning a fish, bird or mammal for the 1st time; e.g., five wandering albatross, *Diomedea exulans*, were observed.
- If you need to mention the species name many times in your report you may find it better to use the common name, but the species name should always be included when mentioning an organism for the first time.
- Common names should be written in small letters; e.g., giant petrels and not Giant Petrels

FORMATTING OF TEXT

Body text should use the following font: <u>Times New Roman, regular, size 12.</u> Paragraphs should be aligned to the left and line spacing should be single

IOTC trip report is to serve as guide to observers providing suggested headings (Annex 7). This does not preclude the observer adding any other information that they think is relevant. Trip report format can be downloaded from http://www.iotc.org/science.