

1 Comment to Hansson, S. *et al.* (2017): “Competition for the fish – fish extraction from the
2 Baltic Sea by humans, aquatic mammals, and birds”, with special reference to cormorants,
3 perch and pikeperch

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11 Abstract

12 Hansson *et al.* (2017) concluded that competition between fisheries and piscivorous
13 mammals and birds exists in the Baltic Sea, based on the estimation of biomass of the fish
14 species consumed in the ICES subdivisions. We compared their results to the data and
15 scientific knowledge from the coastal waters of Finland and show that local differences in
16 fisheries, fish assemblages and abundance of predators should be taken into account to
17 reliably assess potential competition. Hansson *et al.* (2017) did not include the piscivorous
18 fish in their analysis, but these may be the most important predators. In the Archipelago Sea,
19 for instance, the consumption by fish predators is considerably larger than that of cormorants.

20

21 Introduction

22 Hansson *et al.* (2017) compared the estimated fish consumption by birds and mammals to
23 fisheries catches and concluded that competition for some important species, e.g. perch
24 (*Perca fluviatilis*) and whitefish (*Coregonus lavaretus*), is likely.

25 However, it is questionable whether this kind of analysis can tell us anything about
26 competition between predators and fisheries. Our main concerns are the following:

27 1) Hansson *et al.* (2017) compared the catches of fishing and predation in the scale of ICES
28 subdivisions, but locally the situation largely differs in different areas and habitats.

29 2) Hansson *et al.* (2017) ignored the natural year-class fluctuations which are common in the
30 coastal fish stocks and largely determine the ups and downs in the abundance.

31 3) Fishing and natural predation were paralleled even if the predation and fishing are directed
32 to different size classes, and the predation rate depends on the abundance of each prey species
33 (functional response).

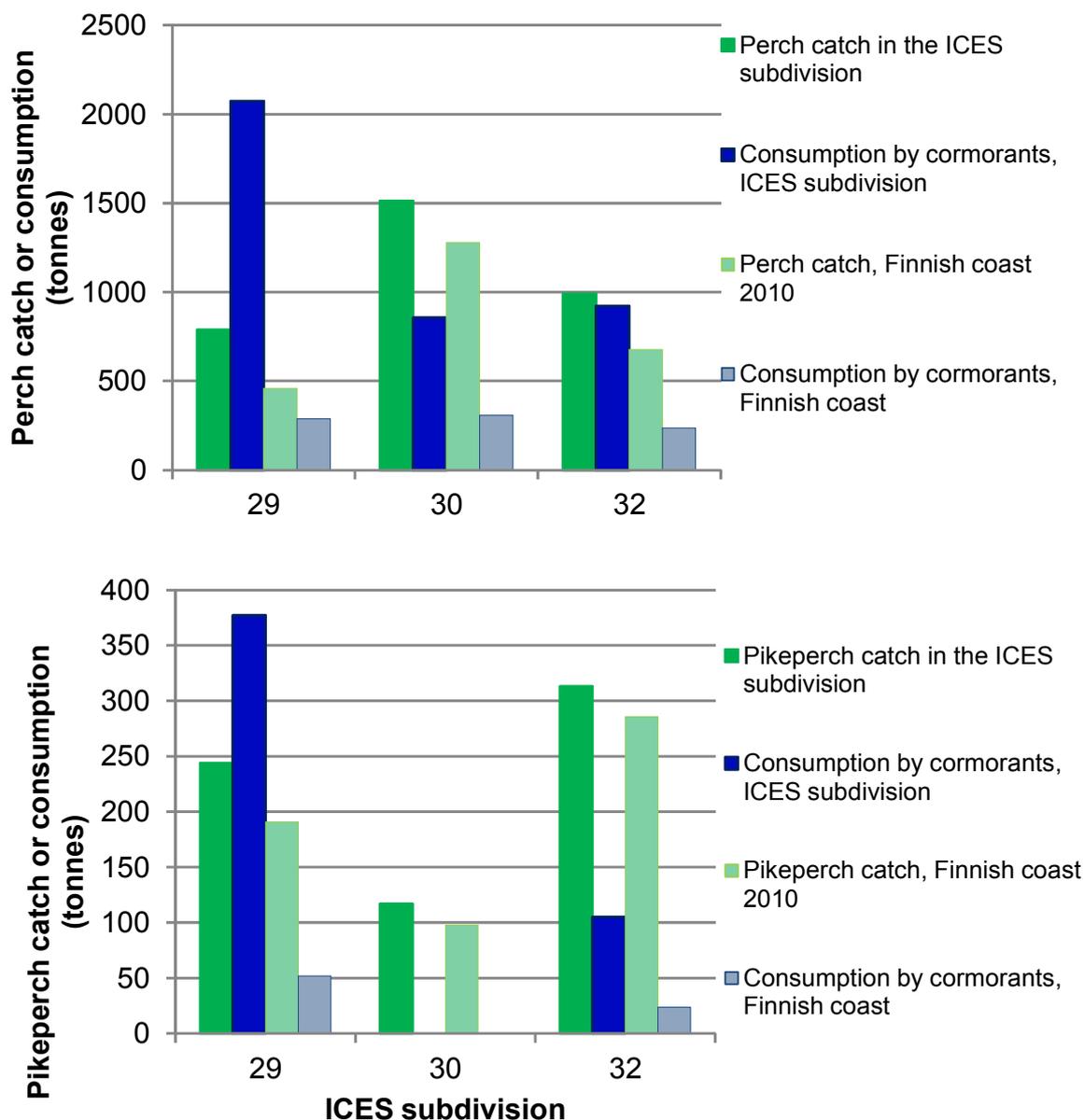
34 4) Predation by piscivorous fish was not taken into account although the diet largely overlaps
35 with that of fish-eating birds.

36 1. Comparison of fisheries catches and predation

37 Hansson *et al.* (2017) stated that the cormorants and seals in some subdivisions consumed
38 twice as much perch as caught in fisheries, and this indicated competition. We compared the
39 perch and pikeperch (*Sander lucioperca*) catches on the Finnish coast and the amount
40 consumed by the local great cormorant (*Phalacrocorax carbo sinensis*) population (P.
41 Rusanen, Finnish Environment Institute) to the results of Hansson *et al.* (2017) (Fig. 1). Most
42 of the perch and pikeperch catches came from the Finnish coastal areas, even though the

43 catches in the particular year 2010 were exceptionally low (Commercial fisheries statistics,
44 Natural Resources Institute Finland, Fig. 2). On the contrary, on the basis of the estimates of
45 Hansson *et al.* (2017), most of the consumption by cormorants took place in other parts of the
46 subdivisions. This is partly due to higher estimated food consumption rate by Hansson *et al.*
47 (2017) (500 g daily consumption was assumed even for small chicks), but also to the fact that
48 there were more cormorants in other parts of the subdivisions than in the Finnish coast. The
49 low fisheries catches in other areas, compared to those in the Finnish coast, are most probably
50 an indication of low fishing effort, poorly reported recreational catches or weak fish stocks.
51 We cannot see there any evidence of competition.

52 Hansson *et al.* (2017) calculated the consumption of prey fish species by predators based on
53 local diet studies and used the results to estimate the consumption in the whole ICES
54 subdivision. However, cormorants utilize the prey species that are abundant, most easily
55 available and of suitable size, and thus the diet varies between years, areas and colonies, or
56 even between weeks in the same breeding season (Salmi *et al.* 2015). For instance, Hansson
57 *et al.* (2017) used the average diet of cormorants in the Finnish Archipelago Sea (share of
58 perch 33%, pikeperch 6%, Salmi *et al.*, 2015) to estimate the amount of perch and pikeperch
59 consumed by cormorants in the ICES Subdivision 29, which extends to the coast of Sweden
60 and Estonia. Certainly not all coastal waters of the Subdivision 29 are such suitable habitats
61 for perch and pikeperch as the Archipelago Sea.



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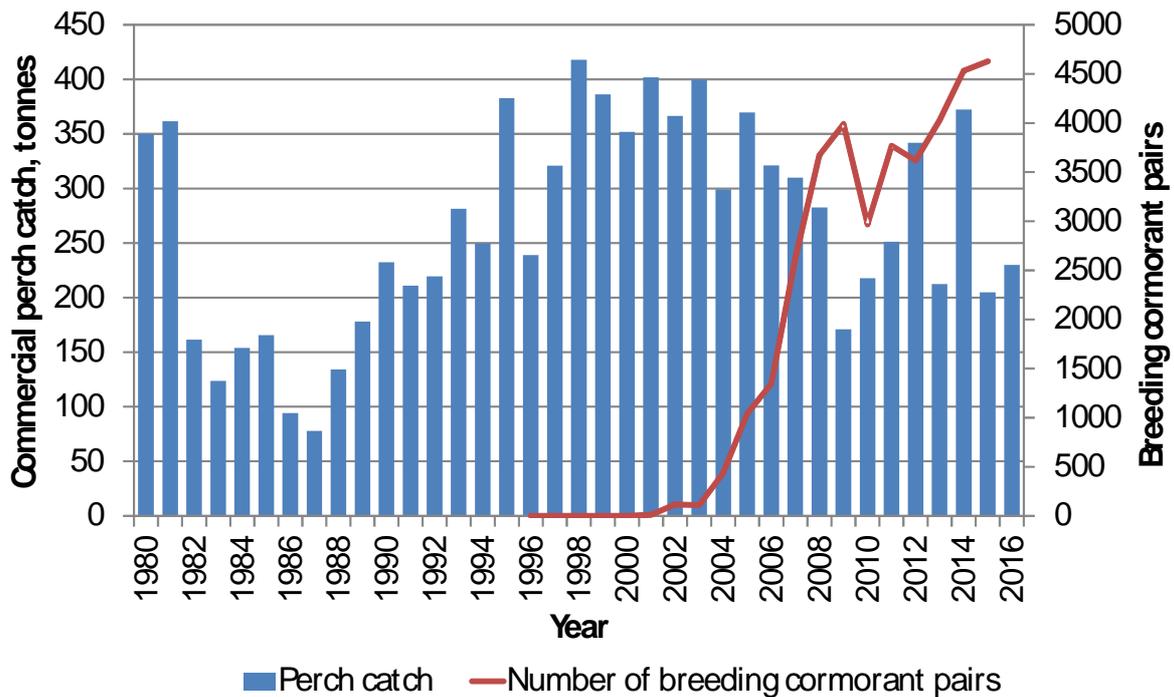
64 Fig. 1. Comparison of perch (upper panel) and pikeperch (lower panel) fisheries catches and
 65 consumption by cormorants in the ICES subdivisions 29, 30 and 32 according to Hansson *et*
 66 *al.* (2017), and corresponding values in the Finnish coast within each area. The proportions of
 67 perch and pikeperch in the diet of cormorants by Hansson *et al.* (2017) were also used for the
 68 Finnish coast.

69

70 2. Year-class fluctuations of perch and pikeperch

71 Hansson *et al.* (2017) stated: “Exploitative competition between fisheries and wildlife occurs
72 if the catch/consumption of a fish species by one group has adverse effects on another
73 consumer group. Field observations of decreased abundance of a fish species in response to
74 fisheries and/or predation by wildlife imply exploitative competition.” In fact, decreased fish
75 catches in coastal waters are frequently observed as a consequence of natural year class
76 fluctuations, due to temperatures affecting the reproduction success of e.g. perch and
77 pikeperch (Böhling *et al.*, 1991; Lappalainen *et al.*, 1996; Heikinheimo *et al.*, 2014). It is
78 obvious that sometimes weak year classes may affect the catches simultaneously with an
79 increase of a predator population, but such a correlation (e.g. Vetemaa *et al.*, 2010) is not a
80 sufficient evidence of a negative impact of the predator (Heikinheimo *et al.*, 2016). To study
81 such an impact, the effect of temperature and other potential factors on annual variation in
82 fish stocks should be disclosed.

83 Hansson *et al.* (2017) stated that the commercial perch catch in the Finnish Archipelago Sea
84 decreased by about 50% from 1998 to 2011, and Salmi *et al.* (2015) proposed that this was
85 caused by predation by cormorants. In fact, the decrease occurred from the end of 1990s to
86 2009, caused by strong year classes in the beginning of 1990s, and the weak year classes
87 from 2003 onwards (Auvinen and Heikinheimo, 2017), but the catches then rose and almost
88 reached the 1998 level in 2012 and 2014 (Fig. 2). The catches per unit of effort in gillnet
89 fishing show the same development (Commercial Fisheries Statistics, Natural Resources
90 Institute Finland). The predation by cormorants is directed to smaller perch size classes than
91 fisheries (Salmi *et al.*, 2015), about half of which are males that never grow to the sizes
92 mainly taken by fisheries (Heikinheimo and Lehtonen, 2016). Moreover, there was no change
93 in the mortality of perch compared to earlier periods without cormorants (Heikinheimo and
94 Lehtonen, 2016).



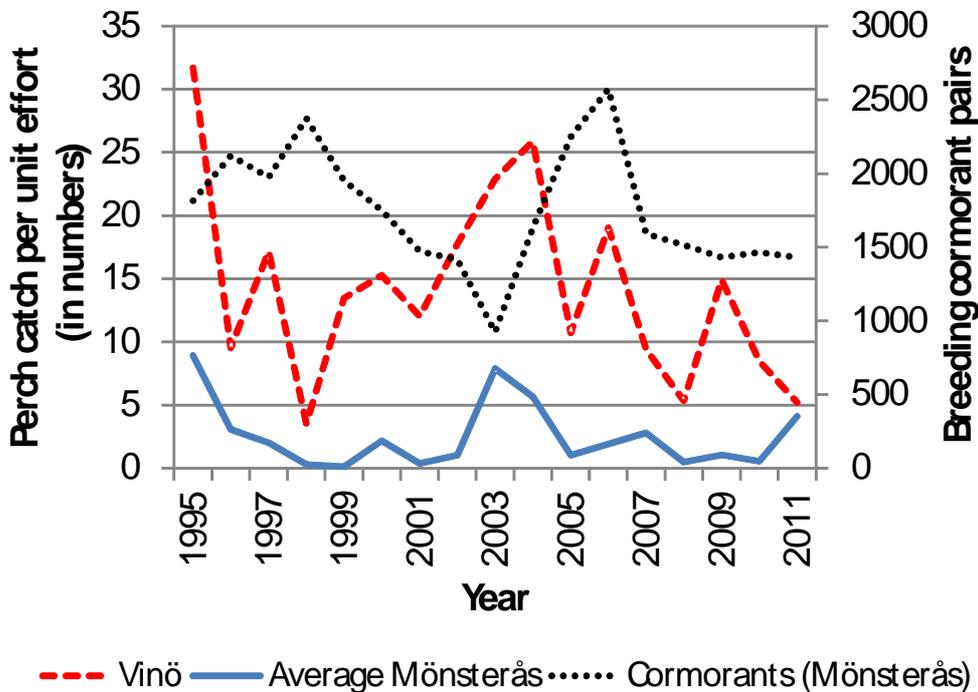
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96 Fig. 2. Commercial perch catches in the Archipelago Sea, Finland (ICES rectangles 49H1,
 97 49H2, 50H1) and the number of breeding cormorant pairs in 1980–2016 (Finnish
 98 Environment Institute, P. Rusanen).

99

100 According to Hansson *et al.* (2017), Östman *et al.* (2012) reported about 80% lower catch of
 101 perch in an area with cormorant colonies (Mönsterås) compared to a reference area that had
 102 no colonies within 50 km (Vinö). In time series analyses they found negative association
 103 between perch abundance and cormorant numbers in 1995–2009. A longer time series of the
 104 gillnet monitoring catches, 1995–2011 (Andersson, 2012), shows that the perch catches per
 105 unit of effort (CPUEs) were higher in the reference area during the whole period and the
 106 fluctuations were wide but rather synchronous in both areas (significant positive correlation
 107 between ln-transformed values, $R^2 = 0.25$, $p = 0.039$). There seems to be negative correlation
 108 between the number of breeding cormorants and perch CPUEs both in Mönsterås and in the
 109 reference area Vinö, but both are not significant (Mönsterås $R^2 = 0.07$, $p = 0.31$, Vinö $R^2 =$

110 0.03, $p = 0.52$, ln-transformed values) (Fig. 3). Thus there is no evidence of cormorant effect
 111 but rather of synchronous year class fluctuation of perch.



112

113 Fig. 3. Perch catches per gillnet day in Mönsterås (average of three fishing sites) and Vinö
 114 (reference area) based on the data by Andersson (2012), and the number of breeding
 115 cormorant pairs in the Mönsterås area (data by T. Larsson, T. M. Johansson, Länsstyrelsen
 116 Kalmar län).

117

118 3. Are fishing and natural predation comparable?

119 Comparing fisheries catches and fish consumption by predators does not tell us about
 120 competition. The predation rate on a prey species depends on its density in the environment
 121 as well as on the densities of other potential prey. The estimates of potential fisheries catch
 122 loss caused by predation on young fish (Östman *et al.*, 2013; Salmi *et al.*, 2015) largely
 123 depend on the assumed rate of other natural mortality. In the case of the pikeperch in the

124 Archipelago Sea, the other mortality exceeded the mortality caused by cormorants at all
125 alternative assumptions (Heikinheimo *et al.*, 2016).

126 The natural predation mostly targets individuals that are easiest to catch, i.e. fish in bad
127 condition, sick or unable to avoid predation for some other causes (Huckstorf *et al.*, 2009).

128 Also slow-growing individuals have a higher probability to be caught because of being a
129 longer time in the suitable size for predators (Craig *et al.*, 2006). Therefore the mortality
130 caused by predators may not be additive, i.e. the predators take individuals that have a higher
131 probability of mortality in the first place (Hilborn and Walters, 1992). Fishing, on the
132 contrary, mainly takes actively moving individuals and is size-selective, taking the fast-
133 growing individuals as soon as they reach the catchable size (Conover and Munch, 2002).

134

135 4. Food consumption of piscivorous fish

136 Hansson *et al.* (2017) ignore an important group of predators: the piscivorous fish. We
137 calculated the fish consumption of the pike (*Esox lucius*) population in the Archipelago Sea
138 (ICES rectangles 49H1, 49H2, 50H1), based on annual catches in 2007–2015 and food
139 consumption (Heikinheimo and Korhonen, 1996) (Supplementary Table S1).

140 The total range of the estimated food consumption, calculated from minimum and maximum
141 catches, was 700–3800 tonnes annually, including only the size classes recruited to fisheries
142 (Supplementary Table S1). Salmi *et al.* (2015) estimated the fish consumption of cormorants
143 in the same area at 679–835 tonnes in 2010 and Heikinheimo *et al.* (2016) at 576–704 tonnes
144 in 2009–2010. Thus, the consumption of the pike population is at a minimum on the same
145 level, or manifold compared to that of cormorants, and the prey species and sizes are largely
146 the same as those of cormorants (Eklöv and Hamrin, 1989). The food consumption of the

147 pikeperch population (ages ≥ 5) is on the same level as that of pike, 1000–4300 tonnes, based
148 on the stock assessment by Heikinheimo *et al.* (2014) and food consumption (Vehanen *et al.*,
149 1998) (Supplementary Fig. S1). We can conclude that in the Archipelago Sea the piscivorous
150 fish are far more important as predators than the cormorants.

151 Cormorants utilize mostly smaller fish than do the fisheries, and thus the effect in the fish
152 community can be expected to be very similar to that of fish predation. Predator fish are
153 generally considered an important part of the ecosystem, for instance counteracting extreme
154 fluctuations in the prey fish stocks (Pauly *et al.*, 1998).

155 Hansson *et al.* (2017) with their article aim at “supporting a more informed debate on
156 resource competition between wildlife and fisheries”. In our opinion, this kind of coarse
157 analysis, ignoring local differences in fish abundance, fisheries and predation, tends to rather
158 aggravate the conflicts.

159 Supplementary data

160 The following supplementary material is available at ICESJMS online: Estimation of the food
161 consumption of pike and pikeperch populations in the Archipelago Sea.

162

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232 Supplement: Estimation of the food consumption of pike and pikeperch populations in the
233 Archipelago Sea

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235 It is relatively straightforward to calculate the biomass of the piscivorous fish species targeted
236 by fisheries, based on the fisheries catches and estimated fishing and natural mortality, using
237 the equation

$$238 \quad C = F / (F + M) * (1 - \exp(-Zt)) * B,$$

239 where C = annual fisheries catch, F = the instantaneous rate of fishing mortality per year; M
240 = the instantaneous rate of natural mortality per year, $Z = F + M$; t = time in years; B = the
241 biomass of the catchable stock.

242 On the basis of the biomass and food consumption estimates of the given species the total
243 consumption of the population can be estimated.

244 The average fisheries catch of pike in the Archipelago Sea was 354 tonnes (range 203–485
245 tonnes) in the years 2007–2015, and the instantaneous annual fishing mortality was assumed
246 at between 0.5 and 0.8, and natural mortality at 0.1. The annual food consumption was
247 estimated at three- to fourfold the biomass (Heikinheimo and Korhonen, 1996), which gives
248 about 1300–2800 tonnes on the average (Table S1).

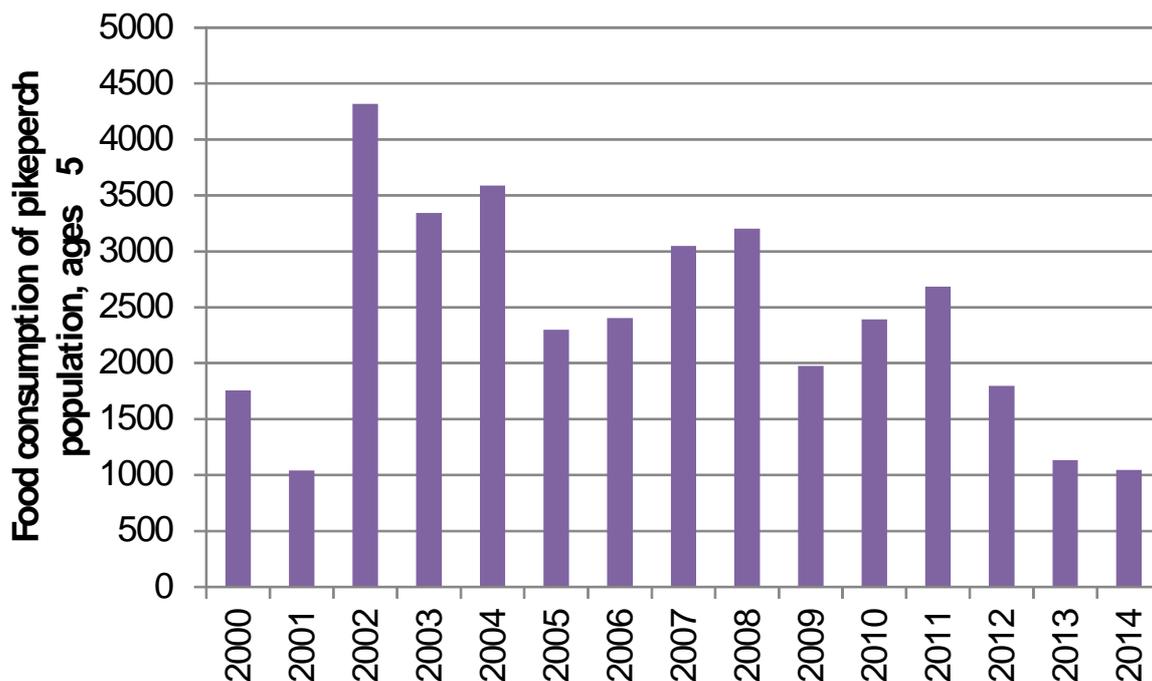
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250 Table S1. Food consumption of northern pike (*Esox lucius*) in the Archipelago Sea (ICES rectangles
251 49H1, 49H2 and 50H1), based on mean, minimum and maximum catches in 2007–2015 (Finnish
252 fisheries statistics, Natural Resources Institute Finland). The rate of natural mortality was assumed at
253 0.1. Biomass in the middle of the year ($t = 0.5$).

| | Catch (tonnes) | Fishing mortality | Biomass (tonnes) | Food consumption (tonnes) | |
|------|----------------|-------------------|------------------|---------------------------|-----------|
| | | | | 3*biomass | 4*biomass |
| Mean | 354 | 0.5 | 697 | 2092 | 2790 |
| Min. | 203 | 0.5 | 400 | 1200 | 1600 |
| Max | 485 | 0.5 | 956 | 2867 | 3822 |
| Mean | 354 | 0.8 | 428 | 1284 | 1712 |
| Min. | 203 | 0.8 | 245 | 736 | 982 |
| Max. | 485 | 0.8 | 586 | 1759 | 2345 |

254

255 To estimate the food consumption of pikeperch, the number of fish in each age group, based
256 on the stock assessment (see Heikinheimo *et al.* 2014) and the individual food consumption
257 of the pikeperch in Lake Oulujärvi (Vehanen *et al.* 1998) by age were used. For ages >6 we
258 used the food consumption at age 6 because the growth of pikeperch is slower in the
259 Archipelago Sea than in Lake Oulujärvi (Fig. S1).



260

261 Fig. S1. Food consumption (tonnes) of the pikeperch (*Sander lucioperca*) population (ages
 262 ≥ 5) in the Archipelago Sea (ICES rectangles 49H1, 49H2 and 50H1) in 2000–2014, based on the
 263 updated stock assessment (Heikinheimo et al. 2014) and food consumption of pikeperch by age
 264 (Vehanen *et al.* 1998). Food consumption at age 6 was used for all older age groups due to slower
 265 growth in the Archipelago Sea.

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