Fighting against Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated fishing (IUU): Achievements of ACP countries

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Fighting against Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (IUU): Successes from ACP countries

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1. Context

Combatting illegal, unregulated and unreported fishing (IUU) has emerged as a regional and national priority in the European Union and the ACP, and is increasingly the subject of collaboration in the context of both EU and ACP relations, and intra-regional or bilateral relations between countries. ACP and EU Member States are subject to various regulations, agreements, instruments and other governance tools that have been developed to tackle IUU. Despite nearly a decade of concerted international efforts to deal with IUU fishing, it continues to be elusive and a priority on the global fisheries agenda. IUU fishing is a grave concern because it undermines national and regional efforts to manage fisheries responsibly and in a long-term sustainable manner. It also prejudices fishing opportunities and livelihoods for authorized fishers, prevents the rehabilitation and restoration of overfished stocks, has negative impacts on biodiversity and the environment, and contributes to poverty and food insecurity in many developing countries.

In much the same way that finding concrete and detailed figures on IUU globally remains a challenge, obstacles also exist to the definition and documentation of successful measures and achievements against IUU. This is in part because the global dialogue on IUU has classically focused on the technical obligations of States with regards fisheries management should be, rather than what practical, effective and realistic responses to IUU look like, especially in the context of those countries most vulnerable to IUU. These trends tend to bedeveloping countries with capacity constraints and governance challenges, subject to a multitude of regional and national developmental or environmental issues which all put pressure on limited State resources. Transparency is a big hurdle in this regard, as not all of the developing countries that experience high incidence of IUU have a legislative register, or allow public access to the decisions of their Government and Ministries, even if these laws or decisions show progress against IUU.

IUU fishing is a serious global threat and one of the main impediments to the achievement of sustainable world fisheries. It represents a major loss of revenue, particularly for some of the poorest countries in the world, where dependency on fisheries for food, livelihoods and revenues is high.

It includes a wide range of activities such as unauthorised fishing in Exclusive Economic Zones (EEZs) and in Regional Fisheries Management Organisations (RFMOs) convention areas, taking juvenile and protected species, using prohibited gear, failing to report catches, etc. It is motivated by economic gain and is sometimes, in industrial fisheries, associated with organized crime.

It exploits weak management regimes, preys on developing countries and takes advantage of corrupt administrations with respect to vessel registration, “authorizations to fish” and shore-side operations. It involves complex webs of actions and entities and is not limited to the illegal harvesting of
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Fish but also includes the shipment, processing, landing, sale and distribution of fish and fishery products. Support and provisioning of vessels and providing financing are also part of the IUU continuum.

In a nutshell, illegal unreported and unregulated (IUU), fishing:

- undermines national and regional efforts to manage fisheries;
- inhibits stock rebuilding efforts;
- hastens the downward slide in many fisheries, and
- potentially affects food and livelihood security for poor communities in developing countries.

Moreover it:

- generates harmful effects on the economic and social welfare of those involved in legal fishing;
- distorts competition for legal fishermen and reduces incentives to play by the rules;
- threatens the survival of coastal communities in developing countries and jeopardizes the viability of resources;
- contributes to the depletion of fish stocks worldwide and undermines efforts to secure and rebuild those stocks for the future;
- destroys marine habitats.

This blight of modern times continues to plague the world’s fisheries while jeopardizing the conservation of the marine environment and threatening sustainability. IUU fishing and related activities are driven by high profits, growing global markets for fish and overcapacity in the fishing industry. Weak governance systems enable IUU activities. Estimates place the annual global value of IUU fishing at US$ 10-23 billion although accurate quantification remains difficult due to the covert nature of the activities.

Developing countries are most at risk from illegal fishing, with total estimated catches in West Africa being 40% higher than reported catches. There is a significant link between the high levels of illegal fishing and poor governance.

IUU fishing is pervasive, occurring in all regions of the world; it is found on the high seas, in exclusive economic zones and in near-shore fisheries. If not adequately controlled, these activities pose serious problems for all types of fisheries: industrial, small-scale and artisanal, having potentially serious environmental, economic and social impacts.

All states are affected by IUU fishing regardless of whether they are coastal States concerned about the management of their fisheries, welfare of their fisheries-dependent communities and preservation of biodiversity; flag States dealing with their responsibilities and the socio-economic concerns of fishers who abide by management and conservation measures; port States wanting to verify catches coming to their facilities; or market States trying to ensure the importation of legally caught, safe products for their consumers. There is widespread recognition that IUU is a shared problem and that it demands collaborative solutions.

The international community has been trying to eradicate IUU fishing through various measures since it became a prominent issue on the global agenda, more than ten years ago, but its complex nature defies simple or uniform solutions. The first decade of fighting IUU fishing has produced the beginnings of some effective responses and raised awareness among governments and civil society about the negative impacts of IUU fishing. For example, during the past decade, the emphasis has shifted from targeting IUU fishing vessels to targeting their catch.
Fisheries and fishing activities, including production, trade, and governance have become progressively globalized. The key factors behind the creation of what is now a global fisheries economy are high-speed communication, transportation, refrigeration, and information technology. Other factors include the combined operation of fishing activities which permit previously internationally dispersed activities to be linked through direct enterprise co-ordination or through less direct mechanisms such as markets and prices.

The whole supply chain in fisheries – from the catching as well as rearing of fish, to the processing of product on land or at sea, the transportation of product, to the final points of consumption – has become globalized. Industrial processing of fish, for example, is increasingly taking place at locations other than the country of origin. Aquaculture and mariculture sectors have also become closely integrated with the marine capture sector.

Governance of the global fisheries economy is also globalized, operating through a decentralized but still relatively coherently coordinated system of treaties, non-binding international fisheries instruments as well as an emerging layer of private arrangements sponsored by internationally influential non-governmental organisations (NGOs) with significant international public legitimacy. The actors currently involved in this global regulatory framework include: coastal States, flag States, fishing States, port States, inspecting States, market States, RFMOs, fishing fleets and companies, inter-governmental organisations, and NGOs.

- **International fish trade: key data and trends**

The FAO (2012) estimates total global production of fishery and aquaculture products (FAPs) of 154 million mt for 2011, of which 131 million mt was destined as food. World fish food supply has grown dramatically, with an average growth rate of 3.2% per year in the period 1961–2009, much faster than the 1.7% per year in the world’s population. Thus, world per capita food fish supply increased from an average of 9.9kg (live weight equivalent) in the 1960s to 18.4kg in 2009, and preliminary estimates for 2010 point to a further increase in fish consumption to 18.6kg. Europe’s is above average, at 22.0kg per person per year in 2009.

In 2010, global production of farmed FAP was 59.9 million mt up from 32.4 million mt in 2000. The total farmgate value of food fish production from aquaculture is estimated at USD119.4 billion (EUR99.5 billion) for 2010.

Asia accounted for 89% of world aquaculture production by volume in 2010, up from 87.7% in 2000. The contribution of freshwater aquaculture has gradually increased, up to 65.6% in 2010 from around 60% during 1990s. In terms of volume, Asian aquaculture is dominated by finfishes (64.6%), followed by molluscs (24.2%), crustaceans (9.7%) and miscellaneous species (1.5%). The share of non-fed species farmed in Asia was 35% (18.6 million mt) in 2010 (compared with 50% in 1980). The contribution of China to world aquaculture production volume in 2010 declined to 61.4% from its highest level of about 66% in the period 1996–2000. Other major producers in Asia (India, Vietnam, Indonesia, Bangladesh, Thailand, Myanmar, the Philippines and Japan) are among the world’s top producers.
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The share of total fishery production exported in the form of various food and feed items increased from 25% in 1976 to about 38% (57 million mt) in 2010. In the same period, world trade in fish and fishery products grew significantly in value terms, rising from USD8 billion (EUR6.4 billion) to USD102 billion (EUR81.6 billion). This underlines not only the growing importance and scale of the fisheries industry, with ecological and management implications, but also the growing trade in fishery products and in international interconnectivity.\textsuperscript{13}

Cumulative net exports of fisheries products from developing States far exceed export earnings from major commodities such as coffee, bananas, and rubber.

The rising trade values and volumes for all fish commodities reflect the increasing globalisation of fisheries value chains, in which processing is being outsourced to Asia, as well as Central and Eastern Europe and North Africa. Outsourcing of processing takes place both at the regional and global levels, depending on the product form, labour costs and transportation time. Many species, such as salmon, tuna, catfish and tilapia, are increasingly traded in their processed form. In addition, there has been a growth in the internationalisation or globalisation of distribution channels through the demands of large retailers\textsuperscript{14}.  

3. What is IUU?

3.1 Definitions of IUU Fishing

A number of international instruments contain provisions that are relevant to controlling IUU fishing. These include the 1982 United Nations Law of the Sea Convention, the 1993 FAO Compliance Agreement, the 1995 United Nations Straddling Stocks Agreement (the 1995 Agreement), and the 1995 FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries. None of these was set up to deal directly with IUU fishing. Concern over the growth of IUU fishing worldwide increased rapidly during the late 1990s. An initiative taken by the FAO Committee on Fisheries in 1999 culminated in the adoption of an International Plan of Action (IPOA) on IUU fishing in March 2001. The IPOA is a voluntary agreement, elaborated within the overall framework of the FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fishing. Paragraph 3 of the FAO IPOA provides for a definition of IUU:

3.1 Illegal fishing refers to activities:
- conducted by national or foreign vessels in waters under the jurisdiction of a State, without the permission of that State, or in contravention of its laws and regulations;
- conducted by vessels flying the flag of States that are parties to a relevant regional fisheries management organization but operate in contravention of the conservation and management measures adopted by that organization and by which the States are bound, or relevant provisions of the applicable international law; or
- in violation of national laws or international obligations, including those undertaken by cooperating States to a relevant regional fisheries management organization (RFMO).

3.1 Unreported fishing refers to fishing activities:
- which have not been reported, or have been misreported, to the relevant national authority, in contravention of national laws and regulations; or
- undertaken in the area of competence of a relevant regional fisheries management organization which have not been reported or have been misreported, in contravention of the reporting procedures of that organization.

3.1 Unregulated fishing refers to fishing activities:
- in the area of application of a relevant regional fisheries management organization that are conducted by vessels without nationality, or by those flying the flag of a State not party to that organization, or by a fishing entity, in a manner that is not consistent with or contravenes the conservation and management measures of that organization; or
- in areas or for fish stocks in relation to which there are no applicable conservation or management measures and where such fishing activities are conducted in a manner inconsistent with State responsibilities for the conservation of living marine resources under international law.
- Notwithstanding paragraph 3.3, certain unregulated fishing may take place in a manner which is not in violation of applicable international law, and may not require the application of measures envisaged under the IPOA.

3.2 Types of IUU fishing

These formal definitions do not necessarily help to understand the widely differing types of activities that might be considered to be IUU. Below, several common types of IUU fishing are listed:

1) Illegal/poaching activity is the easiest to define. It is usually expressed as fishing without a licence in an EEZ. This can apply to national vessels, to vessels licensed to fish in an adjacent area that have crossed the boundary to fish in an area where they are not licensed; and to vessels fishing on the high seas that cross the boundary for the same purpose.

2) Other types of illegal fishing which may be undertaken by otherwise legally licensed vessels. Licensed vessels may still fish illegally by contravening the terms and conditions of their licence, for example using illegal gear, catching fish over the allocated quota, fishing in closed areas and/ or seasons, exceeding by catch limits, non- or partial reporting of data, or submission of erroneous data.
3) Misreporting, or failing to report, catch and other data may constitute both illegal and unreported fishing. The FAO definition suggests that unreported fishing may not necessarily be illegal, although it is evident that it should also be considered illegal where reporting obligations form part of national laws and regulations or licence conditions.

4) Unregulated fishing is well described by the FAO IPOA definition. It includes fishing on the high seas by ‘free riders’, i.e. those who fail to sign up to regional management arrangements and refuse to comply with the conservation and management measures established by those arrangements. It also includes fishing on the high seas where there are no regional management arrangements in place.

Therefore, as illustrated on this page, within an EEZ there may be unlicensed fishing (poaching), under- or non-reporting, or unauthorised fishing by area, seasonal, gear, quota or species. Outside EEZs there may be noncompliance with an RFMO, or there may be unregulated fishing outside the area of an RFMO.

### 3.3 Governance of capture fisheries: MCS activities

At the national level, countries can address IUU fishing by implementing measures to deny access to known IUU fishing vessels to ports.

To this end, fisheries monitoring, control and surveillance (MCS) activities are a key component of the fisheries management process. The rapid depletion of key fish stocks in the 1980s and 1990s has caused governments to seek more effective control over fishing activities and the movement of fish products. Contemporary definitions of MCS go beyond the traditional idea of MCS as simply policing. A comprehensive suite of MCS activities includes:

- **Monitoring** - the collection, measurement and analysis of fishing activity including, but not limited to: catch, species composition, fishing effort, by-catch, discards and area of operations. This information is primary data that fisheries managers use to arrive at management decisions. If this information is unavailable, inaccurate or incomplete, managers will be handicapped in developing and implementing management measures.

- **Control** - involves the specification of the terms and conditions under which resources can be harvested. These specifications are normally contained in national fisheries legislation and other arrangements that might be nationally, sub regionally, or regionally agreed. The legislation provides the basis for which fisheries management arrangements, via MCS, are implemented.

- **Surveillance** - involves the regulation and supervision of fishing activity to ensure that national legislation and terms, conditions of access and management measures are observed. This activity is critical to ensure that resources are not overexploited, poaching is minimised.

Illustration of types of IUU fishing.
and management arrangements are implemented\textsuperscript{19}.

Agnew \textsuperscript{20} demonstrated a significant relationship on a global scale between the level of illegal and unreported fishing (IU) and indices of governance. Developing countries with poor governance are not to blame for illegal fishing, but they are more vulnerable to illegal activities — conducted by both their own fishers and by foreign vessels. In Africa, for instance, many coastal states license foreign vessels and there is a significant reported illegal fishing problem from many of these. This represents a failure of control on behalf of the flag state as well as the coastal state.
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4. Estimating the Global Scale of IUU Fishing and its Economic Impact

4.1. The global problem of IUU

IUU fishing is a worldwide phenomenon with significant environmental, economic and social consequences. Because of the global nature of fisheries and fishing activities any decrease in fish catch in one part of the world, regardless of cause, also threatens the food security of fish importing States and consequently the global food supply. The lack of accurate data further makes it difficult to determine how much of the fish traded internationally are derived from IUU fishing.

Many of the relatively positive features of globalised fish production, trade and market arrangements, especially the flexibility of such arrangements as well as the speed with which they can be re-positioned globally, are also structurally facilitative (as well as supportive) of IUU fishing. This makes enforcement against IUU fishers particularly difficult.

The following drivers of the global fisheries economy may be identified as inadvertently giving support to IUU fishing:

- A high level of demand for fish exists in key market centres, meaning that high prices are fetched for a range of seafood products, including abalone, shark fin, live Napoleon wrasse, and fresh and chilled tuna. While the illicit market for these products is global in scope, the supply comes from specific geographic areas such as Australia and Southeast Asia, resulting in negative impact on such fisheries.

- Another factor is the international nature of the fishing business, including vessel chartering, crewing and flagging. The lack of sufficient legal requirements to link beneficial owners to their vessel registry allows such owners to be protected under a corporate veil, and thus more freely conduct and benefit from IUU activities.

- The global character of fisheries production operations and product markets facilitates the product laundering that is central to IUU fishing. In particular, the ease of transhipment as well as the anonymity of the cold-chain for transportation of fish products supports non traceability of IUU products;

- The anonymity, vitality and transactional speed that exists within global markets for vessel flags, crews and vessels underpins the flexibility with which IUU fleets move from production area to production area.

In some parts of the world, particularly in unregulated sea areas, IUU fishing also overlaps with other forms of maritime crime such as piracy, drug and human trafficking as well as increasing cases of human exploitation and sometimes even incidents of slavery. IUU fishing has also recently been linked to organised crime, requiring a cooperative response among affected States.

4.2. Scale of IUU Fishing

Estimating the level of illegal fishing is, by its very nature, extremely difficult and has not previously been attempted on a global scale. Fishing vessels, especially those fishing in high seas waters and under third party access agreements to EEZ waters (Exclusive Economic Zones, which can extend up to 200 nm from the coast), are highly mobile. Although there are a number of studies of the level of IUU (Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated) fishing in individual fisheries (both EEZs and high seas), only a few studies have attempted to estimate the impacts of IUU over a whole region. In a 2008 Report, MRAG set out, for the first time, a detailed study which arrives at global estimates of current and historical illegal and unreported catches.

The level of IUU catches has been calculated on a regional and species group basis. The results demonstrate that there are significant differences in the level of IUU catch and the trends in those catches between regions, being highest in the Eastern Central Atlantic and lowest in the Southwest Pacific. Over the last 10 years IUU has declined in 7 areas, increased in one and stayed the same in the remaining 7.

It has been estimated that the overall loss from the studied fisheries is 11-19% of the reported catch in those fisheries, worth some US$ 5 - 11 billion in 2003.
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Trends in regional estimates of illegal fishing, averaged over 5 year periods 1980–2003:

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<td>9%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Western Central Atlantic</td>
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<td>Southeast Atlantic</td>
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</table>

The figure given is the midpoint between the lower and upper estimates of illegal and unreported catch in the case study species, expressed as a percentage of reported catch of case study species.

Taking the total estimated value of illegal catch losses within the analysed fisheries and areas and raising by the proportion of the total world catch, the lower and upper estimates of the total value of current IUU losses worldwide were between US$10 billion and US$23 billion annually, representing between 11.06 and 25.91 million tonnes.

The EC has estimated that illegal products entering the EU may amount to 500,000mt valued at EUR1 billion per year, but the incidence of IUU FAP entering the EU is unknown, and the consignments rejected since the introduction of the EU IUU Regulation have either not been recorded or have not been divulged by the EC.

Moreover, regional trends reveal issues related to the quality of fisheries management.

In the Western Central Atlantic there has been a steady improvement in control by both South American coastal states and ICCAT.

In the Eastern Central Atlantic, by contrast, there appears to have been a steady increase in illegal fishing, which is at a much higher level than in the western central Atlantic. This is a large area, covering many states with a wide variety of fisheries and governance conditions (Morocco to Angola). There is a period in the 1990s when coastal states in North West Africa, particularly, were exerting greater control on their resources and in which period it has been estimated the illegal catch decreased. By contrast, according to the Report in the late 1990s countries such as Guinea, Sierra Leone and Liberia suffered increasing illegal catches as a result of internal strife.

Increasing uncertainty about the level of illegal catch in the South West Atlantic from the mid-1990s has been pointed out, but overall levels of IUU appear to have increased at this time, once again in response to declining resource status. In contrast, the exclusion of foreign vessels, and imposition of national control in Southeast Atlantic coastal states from the late 1980s led to a marked reduction in illegal catch at that time followed, is estimated, by a continued decline.

The decline in the Western Indian Ocean reflects gradually increasing control over time by coastal states, particularly those in the extreme north and the SADC region, and a reduction in the unreported catch estimated by the IOTC.

In the Eastern Indian Ocean there has been a gradual increase in illegal catch but this masks a complex set of dynamics in which some coastal states appear to have been able to reduce the level of IUU over the period, but in some with high volumes of catches the amount of IUU appears to have increased. This may reflect increasing pressure from small scale fisheries.
The increase in estimated illegal in the Northwest Pacific is almost entirely due to the influence of China and Russia, since estimates of illegal catch in other states in the area is relatively small. However, the knowledge-base for this estimate is not as good as for other estimates in this analysis, which is reflected in the increase in uncertainty in this region.

- **IUU at the ACP level**

Most ACP countries, specifically in Africa, have declared a large Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) (200NM) and are entitled to claim or to declare jurisdiction over their continental shelf. For countries that have no assets to chase IUU fishers, this situation makes their waters vulnerable with ecological, social, economic and legal consequences. In most ACP countries figures for legal fish landings are unclear and it is difficult to estimate how much these countries lose from illegal fishing. The data uncertainty can be caused by: (I) Poaching, especially when we are talking about fish stocks, such as highly migratory species located in EEZ (e.g. Indian Ocean), (II) misreporting or simple nor reporting of catches, nothing that catch reports can be manipulated in order to not exceed set quota limits for target or by-catch species; (III) transhipment at sea, to avoid traceability.

### 4.3. Economic and social impacts of IUU fishing

The biological and ecological impacts of IUU fishing are well known, and fairly self-evident. Large-scale IUU fishing undermines conservation measures directed at conserving stocks and ensuring the long-term sustainability of fisheries. It is doubly insidious as, because it is extremely difficult to monitor, its effects are also very difficult to predict because reliable estimates of total extractions cannot be used in stock assessment models. Thus, a management authority may not even know that the stock is in danger until it is in a poor state. IUU fishing is, effectively, over-fishing and will ultimately lead to stock collapses, the result being that the resource is of no value to either legitimate or IUU fishermen.

IUU fishing also damages the ecosystem and associated species: IUU fishers do not respect the various control measures put in place to ensure responsible fishing by

<p>| Steps taken to ensure fishing operations within the EEZ comply with licence provisions (figures in %) |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region (number of specified responses in brackets)</th>
<th>Countries reporting to have taken steps (92.5%)</th>
<th>Strengthening MCS system (77%)</th>
<th>Deterrent penalties and sanctions (56.8%)</th>
<th>Existence of a vessel register (33.8%)</th>
<th>Link between registration and licensing authorities (32.4%)</th>
<th>Mandatory national landing of catch and/or prohibition to tranship at sea (29.7%)</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note: except for the first data column, percentage values in the headers render global figures only for the pool of countries that reported to ensure fishing operations within the EEZ comply with licence provisions. Legend to table headers: the percentage value indicated below each measure represents the overall percentage of countries that reported to apply the same measure. The tabulated measures embody a cumulative 79.8% of all reported measures. Other reported measures include (by descending order of importance) [Mandatory logbook and reporting system], [Strengthening Port State Measures], [NPOA-IUU development and implementation].

Source: FAO 2014
legitimate fishers, with the result that they may kill large numbers of other fish as by-catch, with birds, seals and whales as incidental mortality. These deaths also go unreported\textsuperscript{27}.

The effects of IUU on developing countries include financial, economic, social and environmental/ecological impacts\textsuperscript{28}.

- **Direct economic losses**

The most obvious impact is direct loss of the value of the catches that could be taken by the coastal state if the IUU fishing was not taking place. Aside from the loss to GNP, actual revenue can accrue to the coastal state in the form of landings fees, licence fees, taxes and other levies which are payable by legal fishing operators.

In a 2005 Report MRAG estimated that at a minimum US$0.9 billion of IUU catch is taken from EEZs of various countries in the sub-Saharan Africa region, the majority of which are developing countries. Guinea, for example, loses USD 110 million due to the non-payment of licence fees, and up to 60\% of vessels sighted during patrols in 2001 were fishing illegally and by 2008, over half of 100 vessels inspected were engaged in IUU\textsuperscript{29}. This, coupled with unreported catches in the shrimp fishery and illegal transhipments occurring within the EEZ, represents a significant loss of opportunity to generate national revenue. In addition to vessels operating without licences, licensed operators are also known to misreport catches. Under reporting can be as high as 50\% in Kenya and even 75\% within the shrimp fishery in Mozambique. Illegal transhipment of catches is also thought to occur within the EEZ of a number of developing countries, with further loss of opportunity to generate national revenue.

There are other secondary macroeconomic effects caused by the loss of fish and marine resources to IUU vessels. These include implications for government budgets (fish and other marine product exports and other taxes), and employment within the fishing and fish processing sector\textsuperscript{30}.

- **Secondary economic losses**

In addition to direct macro-economic impacts, there are indirect and induced impacts. These include the impacts resulting from loss of income and employment in other industries and activities in the supply chain upstream and downstream from the fishing operation itself. On the upstream side, IUU fishing depresses the demand for fishing gear, boats and equipment, and other inputs that otherwise might be present. Downstream from fishing there is fish processing and packaging, marketing and transport that may be negatively impacted. Any associated reduction in fishing incomes will also have impacts on the demand for consumption goods by fishing families.

According to the 2005 MRAG Report, most IUU catches attributed to the case studies do not appear to be landed within the country from whose national waters they were taken. Instead they are often transhipped or landed elsewhere. Illegal shrimp and tuna catches from Liberia, for example, are thought to be landed within Cote d’Ivoire, where many foreign vessels already land part of their legal shrimp and tuna catch from the region, thus making misreporting relatively easy to undertake. At present, countries such as Kenya do not have any requirement for licensed vessels to enter their ports or land part of their catch, thus making inspections particularly difficult to undertake and the threat of misreporting very high.

If port activity is effectively reduced due to IUU fishing, this leads to a loss of secondary income – income from processing and re-export, port revenues, service revenues, transport and employment – which is both loss of value added income to the population, affecting their standard of living, and loss of tax revenues for the country. Secondary economic effects also include multiplier effects, such as the potential loss of activity in shipbuilding and re-supply, which may have much wider effects on the country’s economy through loss of (or, rather, the lack of opportunity to gain) technological know-how\textsuperscript{31}.

- **Social impacts**

IUU fishing usually contributes to unsustainable impacts on both target species and the ecosystem. This is likely to reduce productivity, biodiversity and ecosystem resilience, which in turn is likely to lead to a reduction in food security for artisanal fishers. This is particularly important in those communities which are heavily dependent on fish as a source on animal protein, notably the coastal communities in countries such as Mauritania, Guinea Bissau, Guinea Conakry, Senegal, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Angola and other countries of West Africa and Somalia, Kenya, Tanzania and Mozambique in North Eastern, Eastern and Southern Africa.
For example in Liberia, it has been reported that around 70% of pre-conflict licensed catches were landed in Liberian ports. Recent landings are reduced, which has important implications for the protein availability of this state.

Direct conflict between IUU and other fishery users can often occur. Conflicts between IUU industrial and artisanal or semi-artisanal fishers are particularly prevalent in shrimp fisheries around Africa (Guinea, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Angola, Mozambique, Somalia) as well as in the inshore fisheries of Mauritania and Senegal. Conflicts may be direct (vessels running others down) or indirect (removing all available fish or shrimp), the former often leading to accidents, death and injury amongst artisanal and other local inshore fishers which in itself will have economic and social consequences (lower catches through injury, loss of earnings) for fishers and their families32.

**Environmental impacts**

Damage to fish stocks caused by overfishing induced by IUU activity tends to reduce future catching opportunities and therefore leads to a consequent loss of potential economic rent. The majority of our case studies indicate that excessive unregulated fishing effort means that overall catch levels rise above sustainable levels, leading to over-exploitation and depletion33.

Fishing in general has the capacity to damage fragile marine ecosystems and vulnerable species such as coral reefs, turtles and seabirds. Regulation of legitimate fisheries aims to mitigate such impacts, but IUU fishers seldom comply with such requirements34.

Damage to the marine environment, including marine ecology, can arise through the use of inappropriate gear and equipment in sensitive areas (coral reefs, fish breeding and spawning grounds). Similarly, IUU fishers may use explosives of poisons or other destructive fishing practices which are not used by legitimate fishers35.
Fighting against Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (IUU): Successes from ACP countries

5. Existing initiatives to fight IUU Fishing

5.1 United Nations

The freedom of the high seas is subject to the basic rights and obligations set out in the 1982 United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) and the 1995 UN Fish Stock Agreement. High seas fisheries include a number of discrete stocks located outside EEZs, as well as highly migratory resources and straddling stocks. International law requires that such resources are to be managed through regional fisheries management organisations.

In addition to the UNCLOS, the current international instruments related to high seas fisheries are:

- 1993 FAO Compliance Agreement (Compliance Agreement);
- 1995 UN Fish Stock Agreement (Fish Stock Agreement);
- 1995 FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries (the Code);
- 2001 FAO International Plan of Action on IUU fishing (IPOA);
- 2005 FAO Model Scheme on Port State Measures to combat IUU Fishing.
- 2009 Agreement on Port State Measures to Prevent, Deter and Eliminated Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (PMSA)\(^36\)

Among existing instruments, the Compliance Agreement and the UN Fish Stock Agreement are legally binding international instruments which contain a range of requirements relating to flag State responsibilities, compliance and enforcement. The Code and the IPOA, on the other hand, are voluntary and management-oriented instruments, formulated to be interpreted and applied in conformity with the relevant rules of international law. These instruments are also essentially complementary in nature to achieve their objective toward sustainable and responsible fisheries.

More recently at the UN Conference on Sustainable Development, Rio+20 (June 2012), the parties reiterated their commitment to eliminate IUU fishing, recognising

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region (number of specified responses in brackets)</th>
<th>Countries where IUU fishing is perceived as a problem* (93.8%)</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Legal framework improvement (2.7%)</th>
<th>Improved coastal State controls and MCS (68%)</th>
<th>Improved port State control measures (26.7%)</th>
<th>Bilateral and regional collaboration (25.3%)</th>
<th>Improved flag State controls (18.7%)</th>
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<td>33.3</td>
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</table>

Note: * this question was asked to all FAO Members, independently of answers listed in the previous table. Percentage values in the following columns only apply to countries where IUU fishing has been recognized as a problem. Legend to table headers: the percentage value indicated below each measure represents the overall percentage of responding countries that reported to use it as a mitigation mechanism. The tabulated measures embody a cumulative 84.4% of all mechanisms reported. Other reported measures include (by descending order of importance) [Developing and implementing NPOA-IUU], [Market-related measures], [Control over nationals], [Research].

Source: FAO 2014
Fighting against Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (IUU): Successes from ACP countries


170. We acknowledge that illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing deprive many countries of a crucial natural resource and remain a persistent threat to their sustainable development. We recommit to eliminate illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing as advanced in the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation, and to prevent and combat these practices, including by the following: developing and implementing national and regional action plans in accordance with the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations International Plan of Action to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing; implementing, in accordance with international law, effective and coordinated measures by coastal States, flag States, port States, chartering nations and the States of nationality of the beneficial owners and others who support or engage in illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing by identifying vessels engaged in such fishing and by depriving offenders of the benefits accruing from it; as well as cooperating with developing countries to systematically identify needs and build capacity, including support for monitoring, control, surveillance, compliance and enforcement systems.

171. We call upon States that have signed the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations Agreement on Port State Measures to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing to expedite procedures for its ratification with a view to its early entry into force.

172. We recognize the need for transparency and accountability in fisheries management by regional fisheries management organizations. We recognize the efforts already made by those regional fisheries management organizations that have undertaken independent performance reviews, and call upon all regional fisheries management organizations to regularly undertake such reviews and make the results publicly available. We encourage implementation of the recommendations of such reviews and recommend that the comprehensiveness of those reviews be strengthened over time, as necessary.

173. We reaffirm our commitment in the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation to eliminate subsidies that contribute to illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing and overcapacity, taking into account the importance of this sector to developing countries, and we reiterate our commitment to conclude multilateral disciplines on fisheries subsidies that will give effect to the mandates of the World Trade Organization Doha Development Agenda and the Hong Kong Ministerial Declaration to strengthen disciplines on subsidies in the fisheries sector, including through the prohibition of certain forms of fisheries subsidies that contribute to overcapacity and overfishing, recognizing that appropriate and effective special and differential treatment for developing and least developed countries should be an integral part of World Trade Organization fisheries subsidies negotiation, taking into account the importance of the sector to development priorities, poverty reduction and livelihood and food security concerns. We encourage States to further improve the transparency and reporting of existing fisheries subsidies programmes through the World Trade Organization. Given the state of fisheries resources, and without prejudicing the Doha and Hong Kong ministerial mandates on fisheries subsidies or the need to conclude these negotiations, we encourage States to eliminate subsidies that contribute to overcapacity and overfishing, and to refrain from introducing new such subsidies or from extending or enhancing existing ones.

that it harmed the environment, threatened biodiversity and also directly affected human rights by “undermining labour standards, harming markets for legally harvested fish, destabilising the economy in developing coastal nations and encouraging corruption”37.

The FAO International Plan of Action on IUU fishing (IPOA)
Albeit a voluntary instrument, the IPOA sources many of its provisions from binding international fisheries instruments and provides international support for various types of action against fishing. Under the Plan, in addition to detailed requirements for the flag State, there are provisions for port States to collect specified information on fishing activities and possibly to deny the landing or transhipment of catches to IUU fishing vessels. States can impose trade-related measures such as import bans, consistent with WTO obligations, as well as adopting legislation.
making it an offence to trade in fish caught by IUU fishing vessels. The IPOA also urges countries to adopt multilateral catch documentation and certification requirements as a means of eliminating trade in fish derived from IUU fishing. By the same token, coastal States are to implement effective control and surveillance in their waters. With the full and effective implementation of flag State control, the development of complementary port State control would possibly also contribute to a reduction in IUU fishing on the high seas. In this sense, and when properly implemented into national legislation, the IPOA has the potential to play an important role in addressing IUU fishing activities.

In order to adopt IPOA measures in a consistent way, countries were encouraged to develop their own National Plan of Action to prevent, deter and eliminate Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (NPOA), sourcing measures from the ‘tool box’ represented by the IPOA, and adapting them to their particular situation.

**The FAO Model Scheme on Port State Measures to combat IUU Fishing**

Without prejudice to the emphasis put on the role of the flag State in controlling IUU fishing, attention has become increasingly focused on the contribution that may be made by port States. The 26th session of the FAO Committee on Fisheries (COFI) endorsed in March 2005 the FAO Model Scheme and acknowledged a need to strengthen port State measures in a more substantive manner, given that the lack of agreed binding measures provided a loophole. The Model Scheme, a voluntary instrument, sets out minimum standards; port States and RFMOs are free to adopt stricter standards. With the aim of facilitating the implementation of effective action by port States, the Scheme addresses general considerations, issues relating to the inspection of vessels while they are in port, actions to be taken when an inspector finds there is reasonable evidence for believing that a foreign fishing vessel has engaged in, or supported, IUU fishing activities, and information that the port State should provide to the flag State. A Technical Consultation to draft a legally-binding instrument on port State measures to prevent, deter and eliminate illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing is actually ongoing within the FAO. The negotiations began following a March 2007 decision by 131 countries attending FAO’s biennial Committee on Fisheries and Aquaculture. FAO convened an Expert Consultation to consider the matter ahead of a first set of talks in June 2008. The second meeting was held on January 2009 and the general outlines for an international agreement or treaty on “port State measures” that would deny vessels engaged in IUU fishing access to fishing ports are now largely in place. After the agreement becomes active, fishing vessels that wish to land will be required to request permission from specially designated ports ahead of time, transmitting information on their activities and the fish they have on board - this will give authorities an opportunity to assess and detect possible problems prior to docking.

Information-sharing networks will enable countries to deny port access to any vessel previously reported as involved in IUU fishing by other agreement participants or by regional fisheries management organizations. The designated landing ports will be equipped to undertake inspections of boats in order to monitor for evidence of IUU fishing activities.

**The FAO Agreement on Port State Measures to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing**

The Agreement was adopted by the FAO Conference in 2009. The objective of this agreement is to prevent, deter and eliminate IUU fishing through the implementation of effective port State measures, in order to ensure the long-term conservation and sustainable use of living marine resources and marine ecosystems. It seeks to be applied according to international law and other international instruments. Emphasis is put on cooperation, exchange of information and monitoring of ports. Furthermore, specific roles are given to developing states and guidelines are given for the settlement of disputes.

The Agreement envisages that parties, in their capacities as port States, will apply the Agreement in an effective manner to foreign vessels when seeking entry to ports or while they are in port. The application of the measures set out in the Agreement seeks to contribute to harmonized port State measures, enhanced regional and international cooperation and block the flow of IUU-caught fish into national and international markets. The Agreement is binding and stipulates minimum port States measures, but, at the same time,
Countries are free to adopt more stringent measures than those outlined in the Agreement.

FAO has continued to contribute to capacity development by initiating a global series of regional workshops, which aim, for instance, to provide essential information about the Agreement, heighten awareness about the benefits of implementing the Agreement, facilitate knowledge building and skills development, facilitate the exchange of national experiences in combating IUU fishing. The first workshop was held in Bangkok, Thailand from 23 - 27 April 2012 in collaboration with the Asia-Pacific Fishery Commission (APFIC).

Status and Achievements

In the 31st Session of the FAO Committee on Fisheries (COFI; June 2014), as at 26 March 2014, 23 countries and the EU had signed the instrument, and at the 30th Session of the COFI, 26 Members had indicated that they had their domestic processes in train to become party to the Agreement. Seychelles, in 2013, was the first African country to accede to (ratify) the Agreement, with Gabon having accepted the Agreement in 2013 and Mozambique in 2014. The status of the Agreement in globally as of 22 August 2014 indicated in the table:

Support has been provided by the European Union through the ACP Fish II programme for ACP members states to familiarise themselves with the Agreement, and in 2013 the FAO co-organized a capacity development workshop on port State measures for 13 South Pacific States. Furthermore, the FAO also contributed to a workshop for 19 African States on IUU fisheries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Signature</th>
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<th>Acceptance</th>
<th>Approval</th>
<th>Accession</th>
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which focused in particular on the development of port State controls, organised by the Commission for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (CCAMLR). Further regional workshops are being planned by the FAO with the financial support of the Government of Norway, in the Caribbean, South America and West Africa throughout 2014 and 2015.
5.2 European Union

IUU fishing is one of the most serious threats to the sustainable exploitation of living aquatic resources, jeopardizing the very foundation of the Common Fisheries Policy (CFP) and the Community’s international efforts to promote better ocean governance. The European Community has one of the largest fishing fleets in the world and is the third largest catching power. In addition, it is also the largest importer of fishery products in the world.

The high demand for fish products within the EU makes it a profitable market for the offloading of IUU catch. In 2007, the EU imported approximately 15 billion Euros of fisheries products (European Commission, 2007a). However, conservative estimates of EU imports of IUU catches have been valued at approximately 11 billion Euros in 2005 (European Commission, 2007a). The relatively large scale of the EU market means that if the Regulation is successful, it could have a considerable influence on global IUU fishing.

Processed products account for roughly half of total Community imports of fishery products. The high demand for processed products exposes the Community to be a potentially attractive market for IUU operators as, due to the lack of control mechanisms based on traceability, IUU catches can be easily laundered.

The European Commission has been involved in the fight against IUU fishing for over a decade and in 2002 an Action plan against IUU fishing was adopted, inspired by the FAO’s IPOA of 2001, implementation of the Community action plan for the eradication of illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing is one of the top priorities of the Community Fisheries Control Agency, established in 2005 to organise operational coordination of fisheries control and inspection activities by the Member States and to assist them to cooperate.

The EU IUU Regulation (1005/2008) action plan and the EU Regulation Implementing the IUU Regulation (Regulation 1010/2009) are very significant because the EU is the largest market for fisheries products in the world – in 2006 the EU accounted for approximately 40% of the global market (including both imports and exports of fisheries products) (FAO, 2007). Projections show that by 2020, global fisheries production will expand reaching approximately one hundred and sixty-four million tonnes, an increase of 15% from 2010 (OECD/FAO, 2011). During this time, the EU is still expected to be the largest importer of fisheries products with approximately 22% of the global import market and exporting 9% in 2020. The next largest importer of fishery products is expected to be the US at 15% according to 2020 projections (OECD/FAO, 2011).

- The Council Regulation (EC) N. 1005/2008 of 29 September 2008 establishing a Community system to prevent, deter and eliminate illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing (IUU Regulation)

The Commission intensified its action addressing IUU fishing by launching a consultation process in 2007, at the end of which a proposal to prevent, deter and eliminate IUU fishing was adopted. The process was finalized in September 2008, with the adoption of a new Regulation, which entered into force on 1 January 2010. The Commission is actively working to inform all parties on how to apply the new rules.

One of the main objectives of the EU IUU Regulation is to control the movement of fisheries products entering the EU Market (European Commission, 2009a). This is a key instrument contributing to the EU’s overall goals to improve global fisheries sustainability, combat IUU fishing, and strengthen regional fisheries enforcement frameworks within RFMOs (Tsamenyi et al, 2009). The Regulation intends to regulate access of illegal fisheries products from ‘third countries’ into the EU market. Based on this Regulation, the ability for a non-Member State to export fisheries products into the EU is dependent on how the State addresses IUU fishing in its area, or the region where the fisheries product originated (Tsamenyi et al, 2009; European Commission, 2009a). This restriction of imports is accomplished through the implementation of: port state control of third country vessels, the establishment of a Community IUU vessel list, the establishment of a non-cooperating third countries list and the implementation of catch certification requirements for all fisheries products (European Commission, 2009a).

Under the new regulations: only marine fisheries products validated as legal by the relevant flag state or exporting state can be imported to or exported from the EU - A European black list has been drawn up covering both IUU vessels and states that turn a blind eye to illegal fishing activities - EU operators who fish illegally anywhere in the world, under any flag, face substantial penalties proportionate to the economic value of their catch, which deprive them of any profit
The Regulation is designed to limit access to the EU market dependent on ‘the extent [to which] the country, area, or region of origin of the exported fish product is completely free or increasingly free of IUU fishing’ (Tsamenyi et al, 2009). In simplest terms, the Regulation limits the accessibility of any country or fishing vessel wishing to export fish products into EU based on their individual record for addressing and reducing IUU fishing. It specifies sanctions and trade measures that may be used against fishing vessels and foreign States, which either support IUU fishing or fail to meet the requirements in the Regulation. The core elements of the Regulation are measures to address (1) Port State Control of Third Countries; (2) Community Alert System; (3) Catch Certification; (4) Community IUU Vessel List; (5) Non-Cooperating Third Country List and (6) Enforcement Measures and Sanctions.55.

In order to achieve this goal, a European Community catch certification scheme has been introduced with the aim of improving traceability of all fishery products traded with the Community and facilitating the control of their compliance with conservation and management rules, in cooperation with third countries56.

This strategy to block the trade in IUU-caught fish represents a forward looking approach blocking revenue flows to IUU fishers. The strategy will focus on the transhipments of catches, processing of product, landings, imports and marketing. It will build on and further develop other measures adopted at international and regional levels while also advocating unilateral EU action wherever multilateral initiatives have not yet achieved satisfactory outcomes.

A market based approach to dealing with IUU is a considerable development, particularly in light of the fact that, according to Martini and Lindberg (2013), “inadequate penalties for IUU fishing can undermine control and monitoring efforts. Even if a vessel that fishes illegally is intercepted and sentenced, if penalty fines are minor compared to the value of stolen fish, IUU fishing can still pay (High Sea Task Force, 2006). Penalties paid within the European Community averaged between 1.0 and 2.5 percent of the value of IUU landings, effectively a cost of doing business rather than a deterrent. Underreporting by individual vessels of up to 36 percent is accepted in the European Union with no penalty, suggesting that some amount of poaching is the norm rather than the exception (Tinch & al 2008). A review of cases of IUU fishing by Sumaila & al. (2006) showed that fines must be increased by a factor of 24 to deter illegal fishing.”57 Given that the European Union is the world’s largest market for fisheries products, the thrust of the strategy should have considerable impact. It is estimated that the European Union imports IUU-caught product valued at €1.1 billion annually58.

In addition to the certification scheme, the Regulation also comprises provisions on port state control, mutual assistance and the establishment of a Community alert system, a Community IUU vessels list and a list of non-cooperating third countries. In order to ensure effective enforcement, the Regulation also includes a harmonised system of proportionate and dissuasive sanctions for serious infringements. It also contains provisions for support and cooperation with third countries. Cooperation under the Regulation has a three-pronged approach and will:

- provide a legal framework to prevent, deter and eliminate IUU fishing on a case by case basis;
- establish, with the third countries concerned, commonly agreed administrative rules to facilitate the implementation of the catch certification scheme, taking into account the interests of legitimate trade and specific situations, such as the type of fisheries, control systems in place and/or trade profiles;
- provide support to developing countries59.

An overview of the EU IUU Regulation

The IUU Regulation establishes a system of access conditionality in which access to its markets will be partly conditioned by the extent to which the country, area or region of origin of the exported fish product is completely free or increasingly free of IUU fishing. Specifically, the Regulation seeks to address the EC’s objective of combating IUU fishing by imposing stringent trade-related measures against fishing vessels and foreign states that support such fishing or fail to provide adequate documentation regarding fisheries products.
The Regulation applies to IUU fishing and associated activities carried out within the jurisdiction of EC member states, in addition to activities carried out by Community and non-Community vessels on the high seas or in the waters under the jurisdiction of a third state (Article 1). It applies to fishing vessels broadly defined to include “any vessel of any size used for or intended for use for the purposes of commercial exploitation of fishery resources, including support ships, fish processing vessels, and vessels engaged in transhipment and carrier vessels equipped for the transportation of fishery products, except container vessels”.

The control, sanctioning and conditionality elements at the heart of the Regulation include: port state controls over third country fishing vessels, catch certification requirements, establishment of a Community IUU vessel list, and establishment of a list of non-co-operating third countries.

**Port control of third country fishing vessels**

The Regulation requires that landings or transhipments by third country fishing vessels only take place in designated ports of EC member states and subject to specific conditions (Articles 4 and 5). These conditions include the submission by masters of third country fishing vessels of a prior notice of entry and specific information required by competent authorities of the relevant EC member state (Article 6). The notice of intention to enter into port is to be accompanied by a validated catch certificate if the third country fishing vessel in question carries fishery products on board (Article 6). Only after the catch certificate and other information have been verified can a third country fishing vessel be granted authorisation to access the port of an EC member state (Article 7).

EC member states are required to carry out inspections in their ports of at least 5% of landings and transhipment operations by third country fishing vessels each year (Article 9). The Regulation also requires the mandatory inspection of all fishing vessels that have been sighted or presumed to have conducted IUU fishing and have been reported in the Community alert system, or have been listed under the Regional Fisheries Management Organisation (RFMO) IUU List (Article 9). If the results of inspection disclose evidence that a third country fishing vessel has engaged in IUU fishing, the EC port member state is required to follow various notification procedures and prohibit the landing or transhipment of catch in port (Article 11).

Catch certification requirements under the IUU Regulation the importation of fishery products into the EC will be allowed only when the import is accompanied by a catch certificate, completed by the master of the fishing vessel and validated by the flag state of the vessel. Exportation and indirect importation of fishery products are also subject to the validation of a catch certificate by the competent authorities (Articles 14 and 15).

Catch documents and any related documents that are validated in conformity with catch documentation schemes adopted by an RFMO and are recognized by the EC as complying with the requirements of the IUU Regulation, will be accepted as catch certificates in respect of the products from species to which such catch documentation schemes apply (Article 13). In this respect, the IUU Regulation gives wide powers to the competent authorities of EC member states to carry out all of the controls they deem necessary for the validation of the catch certificate and other information provided (Article 17). A range of actions may also be taken by EC member states against third country fishing vessels that have not complied with the catch certification requirements, including the refusal to import fishery products from that fishing vessel (Article 18).

**EC IUU vessel list**

A central feature of the new EC Regulation is the creation of a Community IUU vessel list, which will contain information on vessels identified by the EC as well as the member states as having engaged in IUU fishing (Article 25). The vessel list will also include IUU vessels listed by RFMOs on their respective lists (Article 30). The actions that may be taken by EC member states against vessels on the Community IUU vessel list are varied, and include: prohibitions on the grant of fishing authorisations; withdrawal of fishing permits; refusal of access to EC ports and port services; confiscation of catches and gear; and prohibitions regarding the exportation and re-exportation of fisheries products (Article 37). Furthermore, fishing vessels flying the flag of EC member states are prohibited from assisting or engaging in fish processing operations, joint fishing operations or transhipment activities with fishing vessels on the Community IUU vessel list (Article 37).
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EC list of non-co-operating third countries
A state may be identified as a non-co-operating third country if it fails to discharge the duties imposed upon it under international law as flag, port, coastal or market states and to take action to prevent, deter and eliminate IUU fishing activities (Article 31). The listing of such states is based on a number of considerations and factors, including: the examination of measures taken by the state to combat IUU fishing; whether the state concerned is co-operative with the EC in respect of investigations and responses to IUU fishing; the capacity of competent authorities in developing countries; ratification or accession to international fisheries instruments; and the nature of the state’s participation in RFMOs (Article 31). The IUU Regulation requires the prohibition on the importation into the EC of fishery products caught by fishing vessels flying the flag of non-co-operating third countries, and non-acceptance of catch certificates accompanying such products (Article 38). In cases where the identification of a non-co-operating state is justified by the lack of appropriate measures adopted by the state in relation to IUU fishing activities affecting a given stock or species, the prohibition of importation may only apply in respect of this stock or species (Article 38). The IUU Regulation also provides for the denunciation by the EC of any standing bilateral fisheries agreement or fisheries partnership agreements with such states, as well as refusal to enter into negotiations to conclude a bilateral fisheries agreement or fisheries partnership agreements with such states (Article 38).

The role of the European Parliament
Under the consultation procedure, the European Parliament adopted a non-binding report on the EC proposal for a regulation establishing a Community system to prevent, deter and eliminate IUU fishing. MEPs in the committee proposed several amendments concerning the Community list of IUU fishing vessels, the inspections to be carried out and the sanctions and other measures to be imposed by Member States. According to the rapporteur, Marie-Hélène Aubert, the proposal deserved the full support of Parliament, for it is to a significant extent based upon the demands that Parliament itself had made on its report on the implementation of the EU action plan against IUU fishing.

5.3 African Union
In line with other regional bodies, the African Union has also acted to address IUU at the continental level through an integrated approach in the context of a continental maritime strategy. On 31 January 2014, the 22nd Summit of the African Union (AU) in Addis Ababa adopted the 2050 African Integrated Maritime Strategy (2050 AIMS), accompanied by a Plan of Action. IUU is addressed in the section on Fisheries and Aquaculture, and plainly establishes some very ambitious goals for African states to combat IUU:

2050 African Integrated Maritime Strategy
36. In order to further deter IUU fishing activities, sanctions “of sufficient gravity as to deprive the offenders of the benefits accruing from their illegal activities” shall be put in place as per the 2005 Rome Declaration on IUU Fishing, which might include seizure of assets and prosecution, with the toughest stand for compensation. All Member States are encouraged to report any IUU fishing activity to the AU for supplementary stringent dissuasive actions through all available channels deemed appropriate.

37. The effective implementation of the universal duty to cooperate in the conservation of marine living resources is required. This necessitates coordinated action by AU Member States, RECs/RMs and Regional Fisheries Management Organizations (RFMOs) to ensure that the provisions of Articles 62, 63, 64, 117 and 118 of the UNCLOS are promoted and essentially met.

38. AU Member States are urged to endeavour to deter IUU fishing activities. Recommended measures include: (i) Effective licensing and control of vessels allowed to fish by Flag States; (ii) Real-time positional reporting by licensed vessels via Vessel Monitoring Systems (VMS); (iii) Surveillance and interception of irresponsible fishing by on-water patrols; (iv) Implementation of technical regulations for the safety of non-convention fishing vessels; and (v) Promotion of effective Flag State implementation in a broader context through the enforcement of RFMO measures, such as ‘white’ or ‘black lists’ to identify ‘bad actors’.

43. The AU shall work towards seeking the appropriate level of compensation for the five-decades of losses due to IUU and over fishing in AMD. A compensation fund shall be established and its proceeds invested in the development of sustainable fishing industries across Africa.
5.4 Regional Fisheries Management Organisations (RFMOs)

Regional Fisheries Management Organisations (RFMOs) are affiliations of nations which co-ordinate efforts to manage fisheries in a particular region. RFMOs may focus on certain species of fish or have a wider remit related to living marine resources in general within a region. This wide diversity of mandates and areas of application, and also effective implementation of regulations, opens up opportunities for IUU vessels.

Who monitors the High Seas?
Under present governance of the high seas, Regional Fisheries Management Organisations (RFMOs) regulate some areas that are outside national jurisdictions. However, their role could be greatly enhanced to combat IUU fishing. Current non-members should be encouraged to join the relevant RFMO in order to ensure that sound practices are adopted for fishing in these areas, or, at the very least, that vessels follow the rules of the RFMO. RFMOs themselves may also require legislative strengthening in order to respond to ongoing concerns. A major issue is that international legal frameworks apply only to states that have acceded to various conventions, making it difficult to enforce RFMO rules that must be implemented through national authorities. In some cases, a lack of enforcement capabilities has diminished the potential impact of RFMO rules. Furthermore, gaps or “hot spots”, where boundaries of adjacent RFMOs or exclusive economic zones (EEZs) do not meet, must be closed^26.

The regional dimension in the fight against IUU
The RFMOs have an essential role to play in the quest to stop illegal fishing. While many provisions inherent to the IPOA, directed at RFMOs, are in fact provided for through resolutions and recommendations passed during RFMO general assembly meetings, such recommendations are generally phrased in very loose terms.

Implementation is generally where the real challenges arise. There is a clear need for RFMOs to monitor the implementation of resolutions and achieved results at Contracting and Cooperating Parties level, and to record the lack of implementation, or implementation failures.

This implies and includes the following:
- Providing an exhaustive vessel list;
- Developing harmonised legal frameworks to set highly deterrent penalties;
- Exchanging information about illegal operators and their companies;
- Closing regional ports to identified IUU operators;
- Exchanging on a regional scale nationally generated information on fisheries operations and their operators; and
- Refusing to issue licenses to major fraudsters identified and denounced by neighboring countries^27.

Perhaps one of the boldest responses of an RFMO against IUU has been the decision by the SRFC to seek an advisory opinion before the International Tribunal for the Law of the Sea (ITLOS) concerning the obligations of flag and coastal states^28.

In total, 36 written statements have been received over two rounds, from various States Parties to the Convention of the Law of the Seas, as well as other RFMOs such as the CRFM and the FFA, in addition to an amicus curiae has also been submitted from the WWF. Paragraphs 65 to 92 of the European Union’s Written Statements explain the EU’s framework to combat IUU, and also provide a valuable insight into the EU’s approach towards the evaluation of compliance with the EU IUU regulation^29.

5.5. The ACP Group of States

Several African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries rely heavily on fish trade for food security and economic development. In addition to their value in trade, fisheries provide an important source of protein, employment, and foreign income for most ACP countries. With their endowment of inland fisheries, significant tuna fisheries, and major pelagic fisheries, together with a large import market for the re-export of fish, ACP countries have been increasingly involved in the growing trade in fish and fish commodities. The ACP countries have long been dependent on access agreements with major fishing nations, and fisheries aid from developed countries. Increasingly, the ACP countries are being confronted with competition from Asian countries for major export fish markets. Sixty-eight per cent of ACP members’ fish exports are currently to the European Union, which is embracing broad-based liberalisation measures that will inevitably lead to erosion of preference margins ACP countries have enjoyed for many years.

Intra-ACP trade is another potential opportunity for the ACP group of states. In the past decade, the significance of the intra-ACP export trade in fish and fish products (in value terms) has grown from 1 per cent to 8 per cent. ACP member countries annually import about
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### Management Bodies
**Bodies with a management mandate**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CCAMLR</td>
<td>Commission for the conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCBSP</td>
<td>Convention on the Conservation and Management of the Pollock Resources in the Central Bering Sea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCSBT</td>
<td>Convention on the Conservation of Southern Bluefin Tuna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFCM</td>
<td>General Fisheries Commission for the Mediterranean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IATTC</td>
<td>Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICCAT</td>
<td>International Commission for the Conservation of Atlantic Tunas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IOTC</td>
<td>Indian Ocean Tuna Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPHC</td>
<td>International Pacific Halibut Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IWC</td>
<td>International Whaling Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAFO</td>
<td>Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NASCO</td>
<td>North Atlantic Salmon Conservation Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEAFC</td>
<td>North-East Atlantic Fisheries Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPAFC</td>
<td>North Pacific Anadromous Fish Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSC</td>
<td>Pacific Salmon Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEAFO</td>
<td>Southeast Atlantic Fisheries Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIOFA</td>
<td>South Indian Ocean Fisheries Agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPRFMO</td>
<td>South Pacific Regional Fisheries Management Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WCPFC</td>
<td>Western Central Pacific Fisheries Commission</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Advisory Bodies
**Bodies with an advisory mandate (scientific and/or management)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>APFIC</td>
<td>Asia Pacific Fishery Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BOBP-IGO</td>
<td>Bay of Bengal Programmennter-Governmental Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CARPAS</td>
<td>Regional Fisheries Advisory Commission for Southwest Atlantic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CECAF</td>
<td>Fishery Commission for the Eastern Central Atlantic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIFAFA</td>
<td>Committee for Inland Fisheries of Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMHAFAF</td>
<td>Ministerial Conference on Fisheries Cooperation among African States bordering the Atlantic Ocean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COPESCAL</td>
<td>Commission for Inland Fisheries of Latin America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTMFM</td>
<td>Technical Commission of the Maritime Front</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAREP</td>
<td>Regional Fisheries Committee for the Gulf of Guinea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPPS</td>
<td>South Pacific Permanent Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EIFAC</td>
<td>European inland Fisheries Advisory Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCWC</td>
<td>Convention for the Establishment of the Fishery Committee for the West Central Gulf of Guinea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFA</td>
<td>South Pacific Forum Fisheries Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICES</td>
<td>International Council for the Exploration of the Sea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LVFO</td>
<td>Lake Victoria Fisheries Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MRC</td>
<td>Mekong River Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAMMCO</td>
<td>North Atlantic Marine Mammal Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OLDEPESCA</td>
<td>Latin America Organization for Fisheries Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PICES</td>
<td>North Pacific Marine Science Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RECOFI</td>
<td>Regional Commission for Fisheries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEAFDEC</td>
<td>Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPC</td>
<td>Secretariat of the Pacific Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRFC</td>
<td>Sub-Regional Fisheries Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SWIOFC</td>
<td>Southwest Indian Ocean Fisheries Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WECAFC</td>
<td>Western Central Atlantic Fishery Commission</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
RFMOs sorted by Region

SRFC – ITLOS advisory opinion

Located in Dakar, Senegal, the SRFC comprises seven member States: Cabo Verde, the Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mauritania, Senegal and Sierra Leone. In a resolution adopted during its fourteenth session in March 2013, the Conference of Ministers of the SRFC authorized the Permanent Secretary of the SRFC “to seize the International Tribunal for the Law of the Sea ... in order to obtain its advisory opinion on the following matters:

1. What are the obligations of the flag State in cases where illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing activities are conducted within the Exclusive Economic Zone of third party States?
2. To what extent shall the flag State be held liable for IUU fishing activities conducted by vessels sailing under its flag?
3. Where a fishing license is issued to a vessel within the framework of an international agreement with the flag State or with an international agency, shall the State or international agency be held liable for the violation of the fisheries legislation of the coastal State by the vessel in question?
4. What are the rights and obligations of the coastal State in ensuring the sustainable management of shared stocks and stocks of common interest, especially the small pelagic species and tuna?”

The Request for an Advisory Opinion was transmitted by letter dated 27 March 2013 from the Permanent Secretary of the SRFC, Mr Kane Ciré Amadou, to the President of the Tribunal. The SRFC submitted a dossier of supporting documents to the Tribunal, which is available on the Tribunal’s website.

In accordance with article 133 of the Rules of the Tribunal, the Registrar gave notice of the Request for an advisory opinion to all States Parties to the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (the “Convention) and to various relevant intergovernmental organizations (for the list of organizations see the annex to the Tribunal’s Order 2013/2 of 24 May 2013). The Order of 24 May 2013 invited the States Parties to the Convention, the SRFC and the intergovernmental organizations to present written statements on the questions submitted to the Tribunal and fixed 29 November 2013 as the time-limit for the presentation of written statements. The time-limit was subsequently extended to 19 December 2013 by Order of 3 December 2013.
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US$2 billion worth of fish and fish products from the rest of the world and thus this indicates a significant market opportunity.\(^7\)

In the framework of the ACP-EU Joint Parliamentary Assembly assessment of the importance of the fisheries sector for ACP countries, a fact-finding mission took place in Seychelles in April 2008. Among the conclusions, the need for coordination between the different ACP regions in the domain of fisheries lacks, and the need for ACP information, monitoring and coordination mechanism on fisheries issues were highlighted. Given the current and future challenges for the ACP fisheries sector, it was therefore proposed to establish an ACP Working Group on Fisheries. The aim of the ACP Working Group on Fisheries would be to improve ACP access to information and facilitate exchanges amongst the ACP Group. The Working Group on Fisheries will be reporting to the ACP Committee of Ambassadors.

The ACP 87th Council of Ministers adopted a resolution on the 11th June 2008, which calls for responsible fishing, and implementation of effective management, conversation and control practices in ACP States as well as the establishment of a Ministerial Mechanism for fisheries, no later than the first quarter of 2009. The resolution, which was tabled by Seychelles, had the backing of the ACP Group, especially those who have stake in fisheries.\(^8\) Considering the persistence of Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated (IUU) fishing, the second meeting of the ACP Ministers in charge of Fisheries was held in Mahé (Seychelles) from 22nd to 25th November 2010 urged the international community to provide financial and technical support - through specific programmes - for the efforts made at the national and regional levels to prevent, counteract and eradicate IUU fishing. Ministers considered that international cooperation needs to be strengthened to combat piracy and improve maritime security; appropriate resources must therefore be given to the worst affected ACP States and regions as a matter of priority. The Third meeting of the ACP Ministers responsible for fisheries was held in Nadi (Fiji) on 18 June 2012, addressing the theme of Partnerships for sustainable development of the fisheries sector in ACP countries reiterated the concern about continuing threats to fisheries, in particular, Illegal, Unregulated and Unreported (IUU) fishing, and piracy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures taken by Government to eliminate processing and trading in illegally harvested fisheries resources (figures in %)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Region (number of specified responses in brackets)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa (24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia (10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean (17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Near East (11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern America (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South West Pacific (9)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: with the exception of the first data column, percentage values in the headers render global figures only for the pool of countries that reported processing and trading of illegally harvested resources as a problem area. Legend to table headers: the percentage value indicated below each measure represents the overall percentage of responding countries that reported to have implemented it. The tabulated measures embody a cumulative 80% of all mechanisms reported. Other reported measures include (by descending order of importance): [Awareness raising and training], [Trade restrictions for certain products], [Import restrictions for non-certified products], [Limiting the selling of fish], [Limiting sourcing to licensed operators], [Other].

Source: FAO 2014
Fighting against Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (IUU): Successes from ACP countries

6. IUU in ACP countries: a regional review

Fisheries and aquaculture provided livelihoods and income for an estimated 54.8 million people engaged in the primary sector of fish production in 2010, of whom an estimated 7 million were occasional fishers and fish farmers. Asia accounts for more than 87 percent of the world total with China alone having almost 14 million people (26 percent of the world total) engaged as fishers and fish farmers. Asia is followed by Africa (more than 7 percent), and Latin America and the Caribbean (3.6 percent). About 16.6 million people (about 30 percent of the world total) were engaged in fish farming, and they were even more concentrated in Asia (97 percent), followed by Latin America and the Caribbean (1.5 percent), and Africa (about 1 percent). Employment in the fisheries and aquaculture primary sector has continued to grow faster than employment in agriculture, so that by 2010 it represented 4.2 percent of the 1.3 billion people economically active in the broad agriculture sector worldwide, compared with 2.7 percent in 1990. Europe experienced the largest decrease in the number of people engaged in capture fishing, with a 2 percent average annual decline between 2000 and 2010, and almost no increase in people employed in fish farming. In contrast, Africa showed the highest annual increase (5.9 percent) in the number of people engaged in fish farming in the same period, followed by Asia (4.8 percent), and Latin America and the Caribbean (2.6 percent).

Overall, production per person is lower in capture fisheries than in aquaculture, with global outputs of 2.3 and 3.6 tonnes per person per year respectively, reflecting the huge numbers of fishers engaged in small-scale fisheries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region (number of specified responses in brackets)</th>
<th>Countries reporting to have taken steps (64.6%)</th>
<th>Mandatory authorization to operate beyond EEZ (66.7%)</th>
<th>Mandatory logbooks and reporting system (37.3%)</th>
<th>Enhanced MCS measures (35.3%)</th>
<th>Ratification of relevant international instruments (33.3%)</th>
<th>Cooperation with third countries and/or with RFMOs (33.3%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Africa (24)</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>46.7</td>
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<td>Asia (10)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>83.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
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<tr>
<td>Europe (7)</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
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<tr>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean (16)</td>
<td>68.8</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Near East (11)</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>83.3</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>33.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Northern America (2)</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South West Pacific (9)</td>
<td>77.8</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: except for the first data column, percentage values in the headers render global figures only for the pool of countries that reported to ensure fishing operations outside national jurisdiction are monitored and responsible. Legend to table headers: the percentage value indicated below each measure represents the overall percentage of countries that reported to use the same as an enforcement measure. The tabulated measures embody a cumulative 70.9 percent of all mechanisms reported. Other reported measures include (by descending order of importance) [Enforcing compliance with laws of other States, and RFMO decisions], [Onboard observer programme], [Deterrent penalties and sanctions], [NPOA and RPOA-IUU development and implementation], [Pre-licensing inspection and brief].
Source: FAO 2014
Africa possesses, specific losses to valuable fisheries endowments that the order of US$ 2 trillion. Given the potential economic benefits is on decades, this cumulative global loss annually. Over the past three decades, this cumulative global loss of potential economic benefits is on the order of US$ 2 trillion. Given the valuable fisheries endowments that Africa possesses, specific losses to African economies could be around US$6-7 billion per year - evidently a significant lost opportunity to stimulate economic growth and provide pathways out of poverty.

Challenges
The main IUU fishing issues that need to be tackled in Africa are:
- Conflict between artisanal and industrial fleets
- Disagreement with management measures
- Misreporting of catches
- Fishing in restricted areas and during closed seasons
- Use of harmful fishing practices
- Transhipment in the high sea
- Fishing carried out by non-licensed vessels in EEZs - Poaching
- Fishing by non-party vessels: lack of effective flag State control by some States: so called “flags of convenience” or “flags of non compliance”
- Landing of IUU catches
- Ports of convenience

As the pressure on fish stocks increases, so do the challenges of achieving sustainable fisheries.

Among the critical difficulties/constraints to be faced are:
- Inconsistency between policy and operational practices: weak management regime and/or unwillingness to control effectively the activities
- Lack of political will: It has long been recognized that no single state on its own can manage and protect its fisheries resources. IUU fishing requires strong “political will” and concerted and consistent action, often at a Sub-Regional or regional level, to curb it;
- Institutional/Human capacity requirements to support the implementation of international instruments and regulations;
- Funding problems: high cost of surveillance activities;
- Geopolitical situation / Institutional instability.

In West Africa
Fish and fishery products are an important source income, employment and food in the region. In the case of the Sub-Regional Fisheries Commission’s (SRFC) member states, Cabo Verde, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mauritania, Senegal, Sierra Leone, these countries share a coastline of over 3500km, and up to 70 percent of the regional population of 32million live along the coastal areas. Fishing is responsible, directly or indirectly, for the employment of over 1 million people and the estimated value of the annual catch in the SRFC is USD 1.5billion with up to USD 350million worth of exports annually. The annual fish consumption per capita in coastal West African countries is significantly higher than the African average of 7 kg per year, except for Guinea-Bissau. Some countries like Senegal far exceed the global average of 16 kg per year. In terms of fish as a percentage of animal protein supply, coastal countries in West Africa consume a much higher percentage of fish. In countries such as Gambia and Sierra Leone, fish provide more than 50 percent of animal protein intake. Marine fish are vital in many areas throughout the region where other protein sources are limited. According to FAO, both marine and inland small-scale fisheries in the region supply up to 80 percent of the fish products for domestic consumption in the region (FAO 2004a). In many African countries, various types of salted, fermented, sun-dried and smoked fishery products are used to prepare traditional food. In Senegal, a dried fish product locally called Kethiakh is consumed either as food fish or added to stews and soups. The fishery sector provides significant direct and
indirect employment in the region, with an estimated 450,000 people employed in the sector. The post-harvest subsector provides women and youth with many jobs, playing an essential role in gender equality and empowerment of women.

Throughout the region there is concern about three fundamental types of illegal fishing: unlicensed foreign industrial vessels; illegal fishing in prohibited areas, particularly close to shore, and with illegal nets; and illegal fishing by artisanal vessels, many of which are unlicensed and fishing with illegal nets. The estimated total value of illegal catch from the industrial case studies was US $22 million. The estimated illegal catch value from the artisanal case studies was US$ 85 million, although this was about the same proportion (35%) of the total catch value as in the industrial case studies, which were much more restricted in total catch volume than the artisanal case studies (20,000 t compared to 560,000 t).

The combined value added lost to countries (removed through illegal fishing and not landed in-country) was US$ 8 million for the industrial case studies and US$ 74 million for the artisanal case studies. Estimated illegal losses from artisanal fishery are very high for Guinea (US$ 173 million), and very small for The Gambia. The industrial case studies of Agnew et al (2010) covered a relatively small, but highly valuable, set of fisheries. If other industrial fisheries are included, the total value added lost for industrial and artisanal fisheries combined could be close to US$ 300 million. 81

The SADC Region

Context
The main feature of the SADC maritime region, in terms of overall fisheries layout, is that it is spread out across two large and distinct ocean basins, of which the first one is the central and south eastern Atlantic Ocean, and the other the South West Indian Ocean. Fisheries of the south east Atlantic are characterized by trawl fisheries targeting pelagic, demersal finfish and crustacean resources, while fisheries of the south west Indian Ocean are by and large defined by industrial scale, longline and purse seine fisheries of highly migratory and trans-boundary large pelagic.

Challenges
As a region, SADC continues to have a number of national fisheries administrations that face severe limitations in technical and budgetary assets to respond to the challenges of IUU fishing. Many monitoring, control and surveillance (MCS) set-ups throughout the region remain poorly developed, under-funded, and lack human capacity. Large differences in human development terms exist between countries. Some of the SADC members have emerging economies; others are middle-income economies, while some continue to figure at the bottom of UNDP’s human development index. The sharing of information, cross-border collaboration and nationally integrated approaches to tackle IUU fishing are also often weak or lacking. In recent years, encouraging initiatives have been taken, e.g. the operational VMS data-sharing

Piracy in the Horn of Africa – Caused by Illegal Fishing?
Somali pirates in the Horn of Africa are a significant maritime security issue. Their motivation is not particularly mysterious: money is obviously the impetus. The history of how it began is, at least partly, connected with the illegal fishing and dumping of toxic waste, including radioactive material, in Somali waters. Many of the Somali pirates claim to have previously been local fishermen who only resorted to hijacking after illegal fishing operations intimidated them with the destruction of gear, attacks by high pressures hoses and the ramming of their vessels. Due to the absence in Somalia of a functioning government with maritime surveillance and enforcement agencies and capabilities, the country’s waters are essentially unpolic ed. The Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO) estimates that around 700 foreign fishing vessels are engaged in unlicensed fishing in Somali waters. IUU fishing vessels come from both within the region (Kenya, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, Sri Lanka and Yemen) and outside it (Belize, France, Honduras, Japan, South Korea, Spain and Taiwan). The culture of piracy is now so entrenched in Somali society that many younger men have only ever aspired to piracy and probably have never considered fishing as a potential trade. The narrative of Somali pirates being protectors of their territorial waters also does not fit with the reality of an operation that is moving both farther south and east, with the area between the Seychelles and Tanzania becoming a prime hunting ground and attacks now taking place even further south in the Mozambique Channel. It does seem likely that illegal fishing was one part of the root cause of Somali piracy but, just as importantly, so too was the lack of governance and economic opportunities on land amid the chaos of post-1991. 83
protocol between South Africa and Mozambique.

High level corruption and non-transparency concerns affect certain SADC countries more than others. IUU fishing incidence, as defined in the IPOA-IUU, is largely a function of governance in general, and the MCS systems in place. The better governments score on the quality of governance, and the more developed and effective MCS systems are, the lower the incidence of IUU fishing. This gives rise to large discrepancies in IUU incidence across the SADC maritime region.

6.1.a The NEPAD Approach

A programme called Partnership for African Fisheries (PAF) has been developed within NEPAD (New Partnership for Africa’s Development). It aims to support an emerging political cadre in defining processes that will strengthen Africa’s capacity to consider, determine and implement responsive reforms in fisheries governance and trade. Reforms are needed not only to ensure these benefits are sustained, but also to generate and sustain wealth from fisheries.

To be effective, PAF will require strong and effective political leadership. The programme will harness the political capital gained

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**Successful Strategies against IUU: FISH-i Africa**

The original FISH-i Africa countries included individuals representing fisheries agencies from five countries in the Western Indian Ocean: Comoros, Kenya, Mozambique, Seychelles and the United Republic of Tanzania. In mid-2013, following requests from Madagascar and Mauritius, they also joined FISH-i.

All of these FISH-i Africa countries are developing coastal or small island States, some of them among the poorest in the world, and all of them facing challenges such as weak governance, limited resources and vast areas of ocean to manage. In recent years the countries have all made national and regional commitments to overcome the environmental destruction and social and economic losses that illegal fishing is causing and all were ready to turn words into action.

The purpose of the one-year pilot project was to test if cooperation and the sharing of intelligence and information between fisheries enforcement officers, technical experts, regional organisations and other regional and global players could spur enforcement actions against illegal fishing operators, and if this, in turn, would help to overcome illegal fishing in the Indian Ocean. The Task Force although new, was not starting from scratch. Many individuals had worked together previously, all FISH-i countries had basic but varied MCS capacity and all had participated in regional or bilateral projects to improve capacity and cooperation.

The FISH-i Africa Task Force is facilitated and supported by a Technical Team of operational, legal and analytical experts and institutional partners that provide the information, skills, networks, experiences and insights required to assist the national enforcement officers of the Task Force. The FISH-i countries share information they have never shared before: such as on their registered and licensed fishing vessels and those active in their waters and ports. Through the Technical Team, the FISH-i Africa countries can access intelligence and information which can help provide key evidence to track down illegal operators.

This information includes identification of fishing vessels and reefers, their flags and owners, their movements, catch and landing information from flag and port States and trade data. Such information is shared during face-to-face Task Force meetings and through an on-line communications platform. On this platform FISH-i Africa members can also ask questions, store data and discuss ongoing activities, cases and issues of risk-assessment or strategy. Operational, legal or strategic advice can also be provided bilaterally to individual Task Force members.

FISH-i Africa uses high-tech input to provide necessary information but the network itself and the effective communication between its members is based on a simple and low-cost model. Critical factors for the success of the pilot have been the trust and sharing of information among the members of the network, the openness to learn through the cases and to continuously share these lessons and to always carefully assess the risks involved.
Fighting against Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (IUU): Successes from ACP countries

during the Stop Illegal Fishing Programme⁸⁴ that culminated in a Ministerial Statement of Commitment by SADC Ministers of Fisheries in July 2008. This has already encouraged African Union/NEPAD to convene a broader, African Ministerial Task Force which will represent the political pathway for change. A key objective will be the development and eventual implementation of a Comprehensive African Fisheries Reform Strategy.

Capacity building of partners will be a core aspect of the PAF and activities, together with the development of an “African voice”. An example of this were the efforts to promote cooperation and communication between all African delegations to the COFI meeting of 2009, in partnership with the African Union, as part of the work of the PAF. A briefing paper was prepared before the meeting to stimulate discussion and debate and daily meetings were facilitated to engage African delegations. This process was considered to be successful with a request from many States to continue this work on various levels and to also undertake similar efforts for the next COFI. A joint AU / NEPAD meeting of ministers – also called the Task Force for African Fisheries (TF) was planned for 2009⁸⁵, with the outcome of the FISH-i Africa Task Force in December 2012. This began as a pilot on coordinated sharing, analysis and use of intelligence and information to generate enforcement actions against illegal fishing operators.

6.2 IUU in the Caribbean

Context
Illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing poses significant problems for managing fisheries resources globally. A system for monitoring, controlling and surveillance (MCS) is a vital and effective tool in managing these resources. In CARICOM countries, the ability to effectively manage living resources is determined in large measure by their ability to conduct appropriate MCS activities.

In reviewing the IUU situation and the status of MCS in the region, consideration must be given to the ocean environment, the nature of the fisheries in the region and its socio-economic importance, as well as the extent of the maritime zones available to the states. It must be recognized that the region is made up of Small Island Developing States (SIDs) and this situation presents certain problems for MCS as it encourages IUU fishing.

The nature of the fisheries of the region, which stretches from Suriname to Belize and The Bahamas, is varied. It ranges from the shrimp and ground fish stocks off Guyana and Suriname to the pelagic stocks off Trinidad and Tobago. The region also contains reef species of the Eastern Caribbean, and the conch and lobster of Jamaica, Bahamas and Belize. Meanwhile migratory pelagic such as wahoo, tuna, flying fish and dolphin fish roam through the area.

The magnitude and extent of the fish stocks in the Caribbean Sea are not well known. However, scientific assessments of stocks in the CARICOM region have revealed high levels of exploitation resulting in a number of fully fished species, such as shrimp, spiny lobsters, conch, reef species and some small pelagics such as flying fish.

The fishing industry makes an important contribution to development and the attainment of food security in the region. It is a source of animal protein for the population providing 18.8% of total food production.

Annual domestic production of fish in the Caribbean States has been growing steadily since the 1950s with an estimated 164,000 MT valued at about US$5-600 million in 2009. The catch plays an important role in nutrition and food security, as fish and other marine species provide a vital source of protein and minerals in the diets of Caribbean people, particularly the poor and vulnerable members of society. Per capita consumption of fish is high in most States, ranging from 57 Kg in Guyana and 55 kg in Antigua and Barbuda at the higher end, to 15 Kg in Belize and Trinidad and Tobago and only 3 Kg in Haiti. Average per capita consumption in the CARICOM countries overall is approximately 31 Kg per annum which is nearly double the world average per capita consumption of about 15 Kg per annum.⁸⁷

The extent of IUU fishing in the region is not quantified. At the national level, there is not sufficient capacity to assess the extent, but in all states, the fisheries authorities report that IUU fishing is considered significant as for example, the poaching of conch and lobster stocks in Jamaica and The Bahamas⁸⁸.

Some specific examples of the progress towards tackling IUU fishing in the CARICOM/CARIFORUM are:

i. At the sub-regional level, the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS) has made some progress towards integrating MCS into management. In the early 1980s, Member States through the enactment of harmonized fisheries legislation developed a
harmonized sub-regional fisheries management regime. This legislation included enforcement provisions, regulatory conditions and penalties. In 1991, Member States signed an “Agreement Establishing Common Fisheries Surveillance Zones of Participating Member States of the Organization of Eastern Caribbean States”. This placed the waters of the OECs under a single regime whereby any Authorized Officer, for the purposes of surveillance of the Common Fisheries Zones can enforce fisheries laws of Participating Member States. The Agreement removed the requirement for Coast Guard vessels to embark an Authorized Officer from the local Member State to give legality to fisheries enforcement activities undertaken in its waters.

ii. At the regional level, in 2002, the Heads of Government of CARICOM approved the establishment of the Caribbean Regional Fisheries Mechanism (CRFM) with the following objectives: the promotion of efficient management and sustainable development of the marine and other aquatic resources in the Caribbean Region in conformity with the economic objectives of its Member States; promotion and establishment of cooperative regional arrangements for the management of shared and highly migratory marine and other aquatic resources; and the provision of technical, advisory and consultative services to national fisheries divisions in the development, management and conservation of their marine and other aquatic resources. Based on a mandate from the Heads of Government in 2003, the CRFM Member States are developing a Common Fisheries Policy, with the vision of participating states cooperating and collaborating in the conservation, management and sustainable utilization of the fisheries resources and related ecosystems for the welfare and wellbeing of the people of the Caribbean.

iii. In 2005, the CRFM, with assistance provide under an EU Project, undertook a review of the current situation on IUU fishing and MCS in the fisheries sector of the CARICOM/CARIFORUM region and developed a strategy and project proposal to enhance the effectiveness of MCS in the region. The CRFM is seeking to mobilize resources to implement the project. Also, in order to show their determination and commitment to protect the economic interests of the countries and prevent, deter and eliminate IUU fishing within the region, the Member States are finalizing a Draft Declaration on IUU Fishing.

iv. At the national level, generally fisheries legislation needs updating, however some countries such as Belize, Guyana and St. Vincent and the Grenadines have updated legislation, while others like Antigua and Barbuda, Jamaica and St. Lucia are in the process of revising theirs. With very limited resources, all CARICOM/ CARIFORUM countries seek to enforce fisheries regulations and carry out limited surveillance. Some countries have more comprehensive surveillance systems than others as a result of favorable budget allocations and political will e.g. Belize and Trinidad and Tobago.

v. The Castries (St. Lucia) Declaration on Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated (IUU) Fishing marked a point of substantial progress at the regional level in the Caribbean in the fight against IUU. The Declaration was adopted at the 2nd Special Meeting of the CRFM Council, held in Castries, St. Lucia on 28 July 2010. It specifies a number of methods which

![National assessment of the impact of IUU fishing](source: CRFM, 2013)
the Caribbean could adopt to combat IUU, such as establishing a comprehensive and integrated approach to prevent, deter and eliminate IUU fishing, developing a comprehensive database of fishing vessels in good standing and vessels involved in IUU fishing, and to also identify, reduce and ultimate the incentives from IUU fishing. It also calls on flag, port and coastal states, and where appropriate, CRFM, to effectively monitor and regulate the transhipment of fish and fish products. Both state, non-state, fishing communities and other stakeholders are all called upon as participants in the fight against IUU, and the Declaration makes a specific point of calling on countries to implement MCS schemes. A Regional Strategy on Monitoring, Control and Surveillance to Combat IUU Fishing in CARICOM/CARIFORUM Region was published by CRFM in 2013 (CRFM Technical and Advisory Document – Number 2013/11). It involved an in-depth study into the current situation of fisheries, IUU and MCS in the Caribbean, and also developed an MCS Strategy, including a Strategic Action Plan which covers regional level initiatives, national level support, and implementing measures.

Challenges
IUU fishing is particularly threatening for fisheries management in developing states. Efforts to deal with the problem are hampered by a number of factors including the large area of ocean space relative to land area, the migratory nature of fleets and fisheries resources, the lack of financial and technical resources and the lack of skilled manpower.

The strategy for effective MCS at the national and regional levels should be comprised of a two-pronged approach, with these being: (i) a preventive approach to encourage voluntary compliance through a process of education and awareness to obtain support for the fisheries management strategies, and (ii) a deterrent/enforcement approach to ensure compliance by fishers and other stakeholders who resist the regulatory regime.

Due to the geographical spread of CARICOM and the number of sovereign independent states involved, a regional / sub-regional strategy must also be adopted. At this level, the strategy should focus on coordinating and networking the national MCS systems; building cooperation between Member States for harmonizing fisheries legislation; sharing information through a regional information system; and supporting the development of electronic monitoring systems at the national level.

6.3 IUU in the Pacific

Context
The shared tuna fishery of the Western Pacific is managed under the umbrellas of the Forum Fishery Agency (FFA) and the Western Central Pacific Fisheries Commission (WCPFC). The FFA provides guidance on management of the fishery within the national waters of the 17 FFA island State members, while the WCPFC provides the management framework for the high seas waters.

The catches of tuna within this overall Western Pacific area are estimated at around 2.2 million tons per year. These are caught by vessels from a registered vessel list of over 1 000 licensed vessels that are flagged by nearly 30 countries. This magnitude of fishing over such a large area provides a challenge for national MCS systems and opens the door for regional cooperation through the platform of the FFA.

In response to this, the FFA countries have chosen some innovative ways to ensure that fisheries in the Western Pacific operate by the rules, and that the tuna fishery within their Exclusive Economic Zones (EEZs) and the adjacent high seas waters are legal. The members of the FFA are currently in the process of developing a coordinated regional monitoring, control and surveillance strategy to combat IUU fishing. Support has been provided by various NGOs, such as the WWF Smart Fishing Initiative MCS Emerging Technologies Workshop “Seeking MCS Solutions for the Big Ocean Sovereignty States of the Western and Central Pacific Ocean” which took place in March 2014, and sought to assist the member states of the FFA to better understand the relationship of the new and developing available technologies to the existing MCS infrastructure and how those technologies might play a role in its future development.

Legal and technical elements of the FFA MCS system are applied nationally or regionally and include a harmonized approach to minimum terms and conditions for foreign vessels such as: a vessel register for these vessels; a Treaty on
cooperation in fisheries surveillance and law enforcement (the Niue Treaty); and a Lacey Act-style arrangement allowing regional cooperation relating to penalties for fish caught illegally in the EEZ of another FFA member.

Regional collaboration on port State enforcement, harmonization of national laws, observer programmes, aerial surveillance, maritime surveillance and a vessel monitoring system are also essential elements of the system. The Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission have also developed a series of measure to combat IUU fishing. These include high seas boarding and inspection procedures and conservation and management measures to place IUU vessels on the Commission’s IUU list. Southeast Asian countries have also developed a Regional Plan of Action to promote responsible fishing practices and to combat IUU fishing. Under the Plan, the member countries have agreed to cooperate to combat IUU fishing.

Beside the regional approach, in the South Pacific, most of the members of the FFA have developed draft National Plans of Action to combat IUU fishing. What is left is for these Plans to be fully implemented. The FFA, like some member States of SADC, are looking into a regional MCS support centre as a future move to facilitate the sharing and management of MCS information and to support regional MCS strategies. The SADC region, although different in its fishery make-up, may benefit from following closely the progress and lessons learned by the FFA that cover the core areas of information management, coordination, capability, capacity, legislation and governance.

Challenges
The FFA is continually striving to improve their MCS capacity and capability. Their most recent efforts are towards a regional fishery MCS strategy and a review of the national VMS that make up the FFA VMS. The future approach of the FFA is to base enhanced regional compliance collaboration on the findings of analytical studies into compliance and the associated risks to noncompliance. This approach is becoming more common in fisheries MCS, with the realization that targeting high risk areas (such as specific fleets or fish stocks) increases the chances of successful fishery management.

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Fighting against Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (IUU): Successes from ACP countries

7. Implications of the EU IUU Regulation for ACP countries

7.1. ACP -EU Fisheries trade

The EU as a whole is the largest single market in the world for fishery products, amounting to EUR36.0 billion in 2011, followed by the USA and Japan. While imports have been increasing, self-sufficiency has been in decline: The EU is dependent on imports for 65% of its fishery product consumption, and for higher proportions for the most important products: tuna (98%); cod (86%); shrimp (98%). Though consumption per head and the composition of imports in the EU varies widely between EU Member States, demand is expected to continue to increase.

Overall, while imports have been increasing, self-sufficiency has been in decline. The EU is dependent on imports for 65% of its fishery product consumption, the USA for 60% and Japan 54%. The dependence of the European Union on imports is growing because of increases in consumption, while supplies from Community waters remain constant or are declining.

The FAO and EC estimates indicate that consumption per inhabitant in the EU will go up from 22kg per person per year to 25kg per person in 2030, implying increased demand of 1.5 million mt live weight equivalent (LWE) and additional import requirements of 1.4 million mt LWE. Recent fears regarding meat products have led to increases in demand for fish products.

The most important species, in terms of live weight equivalent, is tuna, which depends on 98% sourcing from outside the EU. Sixty per cent of the supply from third countries comes from Ecuador, Thailand, Mauritius, Seychelles and Philippines. Of the 1.7 million mt, 1.1 million mt (63%) is prepared, 304,998mt (18%) is in tuna loins and 265,686mt (15%) is whole frozen. Only 0.4% is whole fresh, the remainder being fresh or frozen fillets. This underlines the importance of preparation and processing for this species. The implications of this for traceability, the hygiene17 and IUU fishing controls will be discussed in sections 3 and 4 of the Study. There are also significant concerns regarding multiple sourcing of products for processing and onward export to the EU.93

7.2. Impacts and challenges of the EU regulation for ACP countries

With the adoption of the IUU Regulation, there is a possibility for the ACP share of the EC fisheries market to be negatively impacted. While there is some scope for alternative markets for ACP fisheries exports to the USA and Japan, a point needs to be made that these markets are also moving towards establishing IUU control restrictions similar to the EC’s IUU Regulation. In addition to trends in ACP-EC fisheries exports, the trade and development impacts of the IUU Regulation need to be assessed in light of the current framework for ACP-EC fisheries trade relations.

Through the Cotonou Agreement, Economic Partnership Agreements (EPAs), as well as Interim Economic Partnership Agreements (IEPAs), ACP exports of fisheries products to the EC are given preferential tariff treatment, including duty-free and quota-free (DFQF) market access. The IUU Regulation has indirect impacts on DFQF access, Generalised Systems of Preference schemes (GSP) and Rules of Origin (ROO) applied under these arrangements94.

- Trade and development impacts: DFQF access under EPAs, IEPAs and GSP schemes

The IUU Regulation does not purport to modify the DFQF access granted pursuant to these trade frameworks, or amend any specific EC trade regulation as a result of its future implementation (Article 56). Similarly, the Regulation does not directly curtail access to the EC market by the current beneficiaries of the GSP, GSP-EBA and GSP+. However, the IUU Regulation may have indirect impacts for the ability of ACP member countries to take advantage of DFQF access. Additional administrative requirements to implement the IUU Regulation may also have indirect impacts on the ability of GSP, GSP-EBA and GSP+ beneficiaries to attain the basic objective of these market access arrangements, which is to promote economic development and poverty reduction.
The indirect impediments to DFQF and GSP schemes access are twofold.

First, provisions of the IUU Regulation regarding port state control over third country fishing vessels do not set out clear provisions stipulating the rights of third country fishing vessels during port inspections. The IUU Regulation makes no direct provision for the prevention of unnecessary delays to the fishing vessel being inspected, and does not establish a compensation or complaint framework regarding actions of the port state. Second, as noted above, the new arrangements set out detailed conditions of access of third country fishery products to EC territories, including provisions regarding port state notification and catch certification. These provisions have the effect of making DFQF access for all types of fishery products conditional on the adoption of complex legal, administrative and technical procedures by EC members, and between EC member states and third countries. Many ACP countries have little capacity to enforce complex fisheries regulations and establish catch certification systems.

In the event that such states are listed under the EC list of non-co-operating third countries, the IUU Regulation is clear on the sanctions to be imposed, which include the prohibition of importation of or reconsideration of bilateral fisheries access agreements. If applied without proper consultation, such sanctions, particularly the latter, may prove detrimental to the development of ACP economies. The trade-restrictive effect is anticipated to some extent by the fact that the Regulation requires administrative authorities in EC member states to co-operate with third states in the development of compliance procedures, and further requires the adoption of a system of mutual assistance to that end (Article 51)95.

- **Trade and development impacts: utilisation of Rules of Origin (ROO)**

  Implementation of the Regulation would impose an indirect additional burden on countries of origin to ensure that all value added fish of a particular product coming from other countries has not been obtained through IUU means.

  Existing EC regulations on ROO only determine where goods originate, not where they have been shipped from. In the case of fishery products, the current EC rules do not verify whether or not a product has been derived from IUU fishing. Because different derogations apply in current IEPA arrangements, it would be difficult to trace how particular products falling under the derogation may have been obtained through IUU fishing.

  The IUU Regulation does not clarify how the ROO are to be applied in the context of prohibiting fisheries imports from offending vessels and states listed under the EC IUU vessel list and list of non-co-operating third countries. In fact, the existing ROO are insufficient to implement these provisions of the IUU Regulation. The proof of origin, for example, only traces goods back to the exporter’s business and not the fishing vessel. These certificates are only used to establish preference products and countries and not their compliance with fisheries laws and regulations.

  In the case of the Pacific IEPA, the global sourcing rules of origin for fresh and frozen fish fillets apply in order to provide Pacific Island States exporters with maximum flexibility in buying fish for value-added processing and export. The implementation of the IUU Regulation would impose additional burden on the Pacific Island States to ensure that all value added fish has not been derived from IUU fishing. Although these rules “shall apply without prejudice” to EC Sanitary and Phytosanitary (SPS) measures and combating IUU fishing in the Pacific Island region, as provided in the PACP IEPA, it is uncertain as to how such rules would be applied in practice and in a proportionate manner. The implications of the IUU Regulation on the utilization of the 15% value tolerance rule in current EPAs and IEPA, and application of the global sourcing rules of origin in the Pacific IEPA, have clear parallels with the operation of the EU SPS scheme96.

- **Policy and Governance Implications of the IUU Regulation for the ACP States**

  The actual implications of the IUU Regulation on ACP member states can only be fully assessed when they are implemented. However from the text of the IUU Regulation, one can identify particular areas which will give rise to implementation challenges for ACP member states. For example, the requirements for catch certification and validation of such certificate would require the implementation of appropriate legislative and administrative measures to ensure compliance. ACP flag states will need to have legislative and administrative measures in place to monitor and control their vessels (through, for example, vessel monitoring systems and observer programmes). They will also need to implement effective fisheries management.
measures such as fishing authorizations and data collection systems. These requirements will, undoubtedly, impose additional resource and administrative burden on the already stressed and weak administrations of most ACP member states.

EC member states and ACP member states have equal international obligations to prevent, deter, and eliminate IUU fishing. Measures to combat IUU fishing such as the ones contained in the IUU Regulation will become prevalent and embedded parts of national, regional, sub-regional and international fisheries governance arrangements to ensure sustainable and responsible fishing practices. Hence, the fundamental policy issue for the EC and ACP states is one of developing the required capacity to assist the ACP states in implementing the requirements of the IUU Regulation. Without the necessary technical and financial resources to implement and enforce these new demands, it is likely that several ACP states will suffer economic hardship as a result of the IUU Regulation’s entry into force. Experience with the EC, SPS measures is a key example here and shows a well-known double standard as these rules seem to be less strictly enforced within certain EC member states.

While the IUU Regulation is a welcome development, it will need to be implemented in a fair and transparent manner. The EC must acknowledge the vulnerability of developing countries and the difficulties that they will face in implementing the requirements of the IUU Regulation. It is essential that developing countries do not, either directly or indirectly, bear a disproportionate burden of global efforts to combat IUU fishing.

7.3. The EU IUU Regulation at ACP regional level – concerns and implications

Implications of the EU IUU Regulation on ACP Countries

It came as little surprise that a number of ACP countries were the first to be directly affected by the application of the EU IUU Regulation, and according to the Commission itself, it has investigated more than 200 cases involving vessels from 27 countries, focusing its enforcement action on geographic areas, such as West Africa or the Pacific region, where IUU fishing activities are most widespread and have the heaviest toll on marine resource and local communities.

Since the entry into force of the IUU Regulation in 2010, at least seven ACP countries have received penalties which have directly affected their export of fisheries products to the EU. In 2012 the European Commission gave warnings (yellow cards) to Togo and Vanuatu, followed by Ghana in 2013 and Papua New Guinea in 2014. Trade measures, through designation as a non-cooperating country, were applied to Belize in 2014 by the Council of Minister of the EU.

In October 2014, the European Commission announced that following engagement with a number of affected countries, a decision had been made to change their status of compliance with the IUU Regulation. In the case of Belize, the Commission found that Belize “demonstrated that it had addressed its structural problems and showed its real commitment to tackling illegal fishing. It has reformed its legal framework and adopted a new set of rules for inspection, control and monitoring of vessels.” As such, the Commission was recommending to the Council that Belize be removed from the list of non-cooperating countries. In the case of Fiji, Togo and Vanuatu, they “have all been partners in a constructive cooperation with the Commission and have made significant improvements to their systems by adopting new legislation, by improving their monitoring, control and inspection of fishing activities.”

Demonstrating the challenges with are faced in the documentation of the fight against IUU, the communications by the European Commission concerning the decisions on these abovementioned countries fail to list the specific commitments, legislation, acts or other instruments which were passed and which subsequently led to the decision by the Commission to find that these countries had responded in a manner that demonstrated compliance with the IUU Regulation. Insofar as it understandable that making such documentation publicly accessible may not in every case be feasible (i.e. in the even that some countries do not allow the publication of the relevant legislative acts or government decisions), and arguable there is also the consideration of the administrative burden of publishing all relevant documents, it would nevertheless go a long way towards promoting transparency, trust, accountability and also provide lessons learnt for other concerned countries if those documents were published at the same time as the decision of the Commission.

Future challenges

If the full implementation of the EU regulation serves to block IUU-caught fish from entering the EU market and should therefore be
applauded and supported. However developing countries are concerned that it might place a heavy additional burden on their administrations. They are also concerned that the new regulation could interfere with the legitimate trade in fisheries products. If implemented, other countries with major markets for fisheries products will be encouraged to adopt a similar approach.

It is clear that there is much to be done in most developing countries and at sub-regional and regional levels to promote meaningful understanding of the provisions of the EU regulation, and how to implement them. This could include actions focusing on the training of officials in charge of customs and fisheries control as well as representatives from the export-oriented fishing sector in the countries concerned.
8. Key actions to combat IUU fishing

**Illegal fishing:**
- Increase surveillance in order to increase the risk of being caught;
- Increase penalty levels to reduce expected returns for illegal operators;
- Apply trade measures to countries whose vessels are fishing illegally;
- Deprive of benefits RFMO members whose vessels have been involved in IUU fishing;
- Use Trade and Catch Documentation Schemes, combined with chain-of-custody programmes.

**Unreported fishing:**
- Trace the origins of catch;
- Increase co-operation between private operators;
- Increase use of on-board observers.

**Unregulated fishing:**
- Undertake diplomatic efforts;
- Increase RFMO scope and participation;
- Increase cooperation between RFMOs;
- Wage “Name and Shame” campaigns;
- Introduce an International Regime for the High Seas.

**General measures:**
- De-link tax havens and flags of convenience;
- Improve transparency in re-flagging and de-flagging procedures;
- Apply extra-territorial sanctions;
- Introduce minimum guidelines for port controls;
- Harmonise controls such as prior notice and inspection requirements;
- Increase technical and financial resources for capacity-building for RFMOs and developing countries;
- Improve monitoring of foreign direct investment;
- Ensure transparency surrounding company dealings;
- Use initiatives such as corporate governance involvement and education.

If economics is a key driving force behind IUU fishing, it makes sense to use economic principles to make the practice less attractive. This can be achieved by making it more costly to mount and conduct IUU operations and by reducing the revenue from fish piracy.

**Governments** can also help make illegal fishing less financially attractive by reducing fisheries subsidies and removing excess capacity. This is because subsidies have generated overcapacity in fleets, which means there is a large pool of excess idle vessels. These vessels are easily mobile, offering plentiful supply of vessels for illegal operators at relatively low cost. Combined with lower repair, maintenance and safety equipment costs, this significantly reduces the operating costs associated with IUU operations.

A summary of the major IUU problems for ACP countries, how it can impact them and possible solutions/challenges can be found in the table below. For all these problems a strong national capacity and capability in MCS forms an important tool to combat IUU and improving MCS routines, procedures and work practices are needed.

To monitor and control IUU activities, emphasis must not be limited to tracking the harvesting vessel but also must be put on tracking the fish, in recognition of the reality of product movement in today’s supply chains. Usually it is not the harvesting vessel which arrives in port with its cargo holds filled with IUU fish. Rather, transactions are carried out at sea, which transfer the fish from harvesting vessel to reefer, mother ships, factory trawlers or other vessels. Catch can be divided among both co-operating and reinforcing monitoring and enforcement schemes. However, such cooperation is likely to be more forthcoming if the legal operators are consulted on the design and implementation of enforcement approaches.

The private sector can also play an important role as closer co-operation between private operators such as processing plants, wholesalers and supermarkets could help facilitate an accurate and verifiable chain of information. This would reduce the available market for illegally caught fish, leading to lower sales and reduced revenues for illegal operators. The legal fishing industry can also lend support through...
# Fighting against Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (IUU): Successes from ACP countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What do we know about IUU</th>
<th>Impact on ACP countries</th>
<th>Solutions/Challenges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Fishing in restricted area and closed seasons | - Unfair competition in the market between legal and illegal products  
- Legal fishers pay taxes and other obligations  
- Low revenue to the countries | - Patrol boat, air surveillance and VMS, industry cooperation, satellite imagery |
| Use of Illegal or unauthorized nets (mosquito nets, dynamite etc) | - Unfair competition in the market between legal and illegal products  
- Legal fishers pay taxes and other obligations  
- Low revenue to the countries | - Patrol boat, air surveillance and coastal communities involvement in compliance matters  
- Pre-Fishing briefing inspections,  
- Legal framework to limit multi-nets  
- Increasing awareness and participation to improve compliance, to include the industry, civil society, public and media as monitors to increase transparency and good governance. |
| Misreporting of catches | - Difficulties to estimate the catches and consequently inaccurate data for management purposes | - Implement port state control measures and monitor all landings  
- Training personnel to form a strong MCS organisation with a common regional standards;  
- Develop or improving MCS routines, procedures and work practices in a regionally consistent manner |
| Weak capacity to trace fishing products | - It can impact on trade relationship and trade and it can be seen and used as trade barrier in near future. | - Market measures need to be assessed – these are a new concept in the region and people are not comfortable with them, so training is needed.  
- Log books, reporting by catch, landing by catch, no discharges.  
- Awareness programmes to alert fishers men, traders and transporters what constitutes illegal activity, are needed, otherwise it can impact on the economy of the country in near future.  
- Identifying critical risks and solutions to mitigate these on both a national and regional basis.  
- Improving information systems and regional information exchange to facilitate timely operations against IUU fishing. |
Fighting against Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (IUU): Successes from ACP countries

<table>
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</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Discards of fishing products at sea and transshipment at sea | - Negative impact on stock assessment capacity  
- Unfair competition in the market between legal and illegal products  
- Legal fishers pay taxes and other obligations  
- Does not enable potential assessment of new fisheries  
- Threatens food security  
- Low revenue to the countries | Patrol boat, air surveillance and VMS, satellite imagery, log books, catch landings |
| Fishing without license in national jurisdictional waters | - Unfair competition in the market between legal and illegal products  
- Legal fishers pay taxes and other obligations  
- Low revenue to the countries  
- Difficulties to estimate the catches and consequently inaccurate data for management purposes | - Pat rol boat and air surveillance  
- Pre-fishing briefing, legal entry and exit zone, inter agency guidelines. |
| Weak capacity to monitor and record all landings | - Difficulties to estimate the catches and consequently inaccurate data for management purposes | - Training to enforce Ports State Control measures and NPOA-IUU  
- Improving information systems |

numerous processors, brokers or importers and multiple marketers can be involved, with transport by air, sea or overland. Hence, a broad range of actors and stakeholders can play a role in eliminating IUU activities, including flag states, coastal states, port states, and market states, international and intergovernmental organizations, fishing industry, non-governmental organizations, financial institutions, insurers and consumers\textsuperscript{104}.

- **Can fisheries certification be used in the fight against illegal fishing?**

  Mandatory product certification and catch documentation are increasingly used as a natural extension of normal monitoring and enforcement in fisheries, and as a means of excluding IUU products from consumer markets and therefore rewarding responsible fishing with protected markets. The concept is increasingly common in other markets, including those for timber and for diamonds.

  Certification initiatives, ranging from Fairtrade to eco-labels, have become common place in today’s European and American markets. The greatest driver for fisheries certification has been environmental sustainability, as processors and retailers respond to demands from customers and NGOs to avoid overexploited fisheries. Many certifications provide an eco-label that through preferential consumer choice creates market incentives.

  There is increasing interest from consumers for sustainable fisheries products. In a survey undertaken by the Seafood Choices Alliance in the UK market in 2007, 74% of respondents reported that environmental considerations were quite or very important. Other studies have suggested that consumers are more likely to be driven by value-for-money, quality and convenience, rather than sustainability concerns\textsuperscript{105}.

  **Documentation Schemes** - To date, documentation schemes have been implemented for three species: tuna, swordfish and toothfish. These address the supply side of the trade in these products. There are two types of documentation schemes. Trade documentation schemes require documentation to accompany particular fish and fish products when traded. Documentation is issued when the fish is landed and applies only to those fish which will be internationally traded. Catch certification schemes, on the other hand, use certificates at the point of ‘harvesting’ and apply to all fish which are caught, landed and/or transshipped\textsuperscript{106}.

  Trade-related documentation schemes are most effective when they are species focused and are driven by Regional Fisheries Management Organisations acting cooperatively. Moreover, it certainly helps when the fish species being targeted can be relatively easily traced. In the case of bluefin tuna, for instance, this has been relatively straightforward because the fish are generally sold individually. Toothfish, on the other hand,
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Retail and Consumer impact of eco-labelling

The UK's Co-operative Bank Ethical Consumerism 2010 Report shows that overall and throughout the recession, there has been growing support by British consumers for green goods and services — an 18 percent increase in total spending between 2007 and 2009 — with sustainable seafood one of the key drivers of overall growth.

In a separate survey conducted by Platform Verduurzaming Voedsel and LEI in the Netherlands, researchers found that spending on eco-labeled wild seafood increased by 50 percent in the first six months of 2010, compared to the same period in 2009. In the first half of the year, overall food spending increased just 1.4 percent, while spending on eco-labeled food increased 25.5 percent. The leap in revenue, from EUR 39 million to EUR 59 million, makes the sustainable-seafood market one of the fastest growing sectors in the Netherlands. The Netherlands imports EUR 3.1 billion and exports EUR 2.6 billion worth of seafood annually, and the Marine Stewardship Council eco-label is highly recognized among Dutch consumers, with 40 percent recognizing the label and 22 percent knowing that the label represents sustainable fisheries.

The country has pledged that by the end of 2011, 100 percent of its retail products will be MSC-certified and all of its North Sea fisheries aim to be certified by the end of 2012.

Dolphin-friendly tuna is now widely available and clearly labelled in supermarkets and Marine Stewardship Council (MSC) certified fish in McDonald’s stores (MSC, 2011).

Marks & Spencer and other major retailers have committed to sourcing wild fish species from fisheries that have been certified as sustainable by the Marine Stewardship Council (MSC) or an equivalent third party.

Eco-labels - Over the past decade consumers have become more interested in learning about the way in which their purchasing decisions may affect the environment. One of the responses to this ‘green consumerism’ has been a proliferation of private voluntary eco-labelling schemes.

Private, voluntary eco-labels for fish products are another trade measure, but target the demand side of trade in fish. In the fisheries sector, labelling is dominated by the Marine Stewardship Council (MSC), an independent, global, non-profit organization based in London. This programme, which does not directly address the issue of IUU fishing, was originally established in 1997 by Unilever and the World Wildlife Fund to address over-fishing, and more specifically, “to safeguard the world’s seafood supply by promoting the best environmental choice.”

MSC seeks to achieve this by using a product label to reward environmentally responsible fishery management and practices. Inevitably, the MSC programme is not without problems. Most of the fisheries initially certified under the MSC’s programme have been primarily of interest to European markets. Penetration in the high value markets of Japan and the United States, however, has been limited. Moreover, with its emphasis on specific fishery certification, the MSC programme has had no impact on the incidence of IUU fishing on the high seas. Moreover, the high cost of certification, combined with the complexity of the MSC’s fisheries management requirements, and other infrastructure problems may preclude significant developing country participation in the short term.

Challenges

Despite the considerable growth in fisheries certification in recent years, there are still a number of issues related to such initiatives and consequences for developing countries.

- Low capacity in developing countries and high costs to reach certification;
- Potential non-tariff barriers for developing countries;
- Low involvement of developing countries in standard setting.

If certification becomes a pre-requisite for market access, there is concern of restricting opportunities to develop export markets.

Moreover, certified fish does not guarantee a price premium; and it is not yet clear how costs and benefits of the process are distributed throughout the supply chain.
9. ACP Developments and Achievements Against IUU

Developments and achievements by ACP countries against IUU have been varied, from the adoption of new laws and legal instruments, to the signature and implementation of legally binding international conventions and the installation of new institutions or domestic authorities to address IUU. Developments at the regional level ultimately come down to individual States agreeing to cooperate with each other in order to combat IUU fishing, whether in the context of a RFMO or through other means. The involvement and contributions by NGOs and non-state actors has also been marked, and increasingly, the media has played a role in publicising these achievements.

Whereas some of the responses of ACP countries to IUU have been orthodox, i.e. updating existing fisheries management rules, others have involved innovative and unique approaches to dealing with IUU within the constraints of the relevant institutions and States.

9.1 Vessel Monitoring Systems in Industrial Fisheries in Africa

A number of ACP countries have made community members a central to their fight against IUU, particularly as a means of surveillance and reporting. Benkstein, A. (2014) notes that co-management has become an approach adopted by African states in recognition of the limitations of centralised fisheries governance, such as the ‘beach management units’ (BMUs) of Uganda and Tanzania, and the ‘community fisheries councils’ (Conselho Comunitário de Pesca or CCPs in Mozambique). According to Standing, A. (2011) the effectiveness of this approach is also dependent to a degree on the transparency of States in terms of publicly disclosing relevant rules and legislation on IUU and also on fishing licenses. “Transparency in licensing and contracts could, in theory, be an effective approach to increase the...
capacity of governments to counter illegal fishing by encouraging reporting by the public and other fishing vessels. Collaboration could be further strengthened where outcomes of penalties and fines are actively disclosed. Without this type of information, the public may feel disinclined to co-operate with the authorities, lacking confidence that reporting infractions at sea will lead to any meaningful results.”

9.2 Community Surveillance in the Sherbro River Area, Sierra Leone

Environmental Justice Foundation, 2013

EJF has developed a pioneering community surveillance programme in Sierra Leone, a small West African coastal nation emerging from a long civil war. This work is largely funded by the European Union.

The waters of Sierra Leone are rich in marine resources and routinely attract unscrupulous operators who repeatedly fish in protected areas, often in conflict with local communities who have little opportunity to protect their livelihoods.

EJF has developed partnerships with local communities, the Government of Sierra Leone and local and international organisations working to combat pirate fishing.

The community surveillance process starts with reports from local communities.

EJF’s boat travels to reported locations and documents vessels fishing illegally using photography, film and GPS equipment. Images and position information are then analysed in EJF’s offices in Sierra Leone and London to establish the identity of the vessels, which is usually concealed.

This evidence is then passed to relevant authorities, partner organisations and – where the vessel is certified to export to Europe – the European Commission.

Since January 2011, EJF has documented 8 vessels operating illegally.

As a result, over US $100,000 in fines have been collected by the Government of Sierra Leone, and in March 2011 European authorities seized a consignment of US $6m worth of fish in Las Palmas, Spain. Unfortunately, the consignment was released by Spanish authorities in July 2011, allowing fish that EJF believes to have been stolen from West African waters into European markets.

Community reports show a significant decline in IUU (Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated) fishing activity as a result of this programme.

Between January 2010 and January 2012 EJF received 252 reports of illegal trawler activity in the Sherbro River Area. But since January 2012, no trawlers have been sighted in the area after two vessels documented by EJF were fined over US $300,000 by the Sierra Leone Government.

In addition, the work done by communities on the ground in Sierra Leone is having much wider impacts. For example, following investigations initiated by EJF’s community surveillance project:

• Panama recently imposed a US $200,000 on the Seta No. 73 refrigerated cargo vessel;
• South Korean authorities are implementing new rules for around 40 fishing vessels in West Africa, requiring them to carry Vessel Monitoring Systems (VMS);
• Spanish authorities in Las Palmas has increased controls on the importation of fish from West Africa and have blocked a consignment of 28 tonnes of fish following evidence gathered by EJF that it had been caught by an IUU vessel;
• The EU is considering the possible blacklisting of a number of vessels documented by EJF.112
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9.3 Belize: Legislation on High Seas Fishing Act

Belize High Seas Fishing Unit On November 8th 2013, the Government of Belize adopted a revision of the High Seas Fishing Act which governs the high seas fisheries activities of Belize flagged vessels. This new legislation outlines the legal framework for the effective management and control of the high seas fishing fleet registered by IMMARBE (International Merchant Marine Registry of Belize) and mandates the creation of the Belize High Seas Fisheries Unit (BHSFU) for the enforcement of the law. Mrs. Valarie Lanza who has served as the Fishing Vessels Manager under IMMARBE for the past 13 years was appointed Director of the BHSFU; together with her team, is responsible for this undertaking. The team has been instrumental in guiding the development of the HSFA and its subsidiary regulations in consultation with the European Commission Directorate-General for Maritime Affairs and Fisheries (DG-MARE) and the Legal Department of the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO); and they have undertaken several new initiatives to effectively enforce the SFA including the establishment of a Fisheries Monitoring Center, developing a national observer and inspector program; upgrading the Vessel Monitoring System (VMS) and implementing electronic catch reporting, and recruitment and training of new personnel for the BHSFU.(IMMARBE Newsletter, Issue 1, 2014).

9.4 Belize and Ghana National Plan of Action to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated (IUU) Fishing on the High Seas

In 2014, both Ghana and Belize also adopted National Plans of Action to combat IUU (NPOA). These are comprehensive documents which the FAO has requested all countries to develop and submit in accordance with the International Plan of Action to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate IUU (IPOA-IUU): The IPOA-IUU also calls upon all States to develop and adopt, as soon as possible but not later than 3 years after the adoption of the IPOA-IUU (i.e. by March 2004 at the latest), NPOA(s) to further achieve the objectives of the IPOA-IUU and to give full effect to its provisions as an integral part of their fisheries management programs and budgets.

Both Ghana and Belize address the implementation of measures to prevent, deter and eliminate IUU. In the case of Ghana, twenty actions have been outlined, with a timeframe in which to apply them:


**ALL STATE RESPONSIBILITIES**

**Action 1:** Give legal effect to international fisheries agreements to which Ghana is party:
- Ratification and implementation of UN Fish Stocks Agreement
- Ratification of FAO Port State Measures Agreement

**Action 2:** Strengthen the regulatory framework for operational fisheries management in Ghana:
- Strengthen VMS legislation so all large vessels must use VMS as a licensing condition, including foreign vessels in Ghana’s EEZ and Ghana-flagged vessels outside the EEZ

**Action 3:** Effectively control activities associated with IUU fishing:
- Strengthen the Fisheries Monitoring, Control, Surveillance and Enforcement Unit
- Coordinate fisheries enforcement tasking with the Ghana Navy, the Ghana Airfoce, the Marine Police and Attorney-General’s Department

**Action 4:** Identify and monitor IUU vessels and share information with neighbouring States

**Action 5:** Identify and quantify illegal catches

**Action 6:** Contribute to improved global information on IUU fishing vessels

**Action 7:** Communicate with fishing communities, fisheries officers and others about IUU fishing
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FLAG STATE RESPONSIBILITIES

**Action 8**: Exercise flag state responsibility by implementing the FAO Voluntary Guidelines for Flag State Performance
- Revise legislation to include provisions on licensing, data collection, and control of operations by the Ghana Fisheries Commission
- Require IUU assessment against clearly defined criteria before vessels are accepted for registration, to ensure that vessels with a history of IUU fishing are not reflagged to Ghana
- Require evidence of license to fish in other countries, including any associated conditions, and require registration of this license with the Ghana Fisheries Commission
- Revise legislation to strengthen control of nationals
- Introduce sanctions with severe penalties
- Make provisions for the deregistration of Ghana-flagged vessels that are discovered to have a history of IUU fishing
- Make provisions for cancelation of existing license or acquisition of new license when IUU fishing violation are committed

**Action 9**: Enforce relevant fisheries regulations for Ghana-flagged vessels on the high seas and in the jurisdiction of other States

COASTAL STATE MEASURES

**Action 10**: Improve management of all marine fisheries sectors, consistent with FAO Code of Conduct on Sustainable Fisheries; eliminate overfishing; minimise risk of irreversible damage to ecosystems.

PORT STATE MEASURES

**Action 11**: Incorporate FAO Port State Measures Agreement and ICCAT Recommendation 97-10 into domestic legislation and enforcement action.

MARKET-RELATED MEASURES

**Action 12**: Ensure that IUU fisheries products are not imported into Ghana or exported from Ghana
- Revise legislation to comply with regulations on catch certification, to improve traceability of fisheries products
- Requirements for validation and penalties on vessel masters, operators and officials for not complying with validation requirements
- Administrative strengthening for authorisation of catch certificates; records to be verified
- Implement penalties for public officials who fail to comply with established legal and administrative procedures

RESEARCH

**Action 13**: Enhanced systems for fisheries monitoring, data collection (catch, effort, socio-economic data, ecosystem impacts), digitisation and analysis; collaborate within ICCAT for assessment of shared stocks, and with other agencies, universities and development partners for related research

REGIONAL FISHERIES MANAGEMENT

**Action 14**: Participate fully in ICCAT, including domestic implementation of ICCAT Recommendations and cooperation with other ICCAT Contracting Parties:
- Establish process for integrating ICCAT Recommendations into domestic management
- Review legislation against all ICCAT Recommendations and amend accordingly
- Legislation to implement ICCAT Recommendation on transhipment prohibition at sea
- Develop Management Plans for implementing ICCAT Recommendations
- Review National Observer Programme against ICCAT Requirements to ensure compliance
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**Action 15:** Collaborate within FCWC on regional responses to ongoing and emerging IUU issues

**Action 16:** Further develop the regional framework for cooperation, especially in relation to IUU fishing, by establishing clear lines of communication and coordinating actions with other states

**SPECIAL REQUIREMENTS**

**Action 17:** Collaborate with development partners to improve fisheries management in Ghana and the wider Gulf of Guinea, especially regarding monitoring, control, surveillance and enforcement

**Action 18:** Capacity building for officials in fisheries management, including training in fisheries law, monitoring, control and surveillance, fisheries science, and international trade.

**Action 19:** Collaboration with development partners for infrastructure development and international sourcing of relevant technical expertise

**REPORTING**

**Action 20:** Improve reporting of management performance in terms of effectiveness of regulations, degree of compliance, biological status of fish stocks and bio-/socio-economic status of fisheries.

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### Summary information relating to the status of national IPOA-Capacity implementation (figures in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region (number of specified responses in brackets)</th>
<th>Countries having developed and started to implement an NPOA-Capacity</th>
<th>Countries having launched the preliminary fishing capacity assessment</th>
<th>Status of the assessment*</th>
<th>Countries not yet started, but planning to commence the assessment **</th>
<th>Countries implementing management measures to adjust capacity *</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Africa (25)</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>70 20</td>
<td>20**</td>
<td>16**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia (10)</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>75 25</td>
<td>50**</td>
<td>40**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe (8)</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60 40</td>
<td>0**</td>
<td>12.5**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean (16)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>100 0</td>
<td>75**</td>
<td>12.5**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Near East (11)</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>100 0</td>
<td>25**</td>
<td>27.3**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern America (2)</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0 100</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>50**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South West Pacific (9)</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>75 25</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33.3**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total (81) and averages</strong></td>
<td><strong>49.4</strong></td>
<td><strong>38.3</strong></td>
<td><strong>75 22.5</strong></td>
<td><strong>31.7</strong></td>
<td><strong>22.2</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: figures In the two columns marked (**) only refer to countries having launched the preliminary assessment. Figures in the column marked (**) only refer to the group of countries that has not yet launched the preliminary assessment.

*source: FAO 2014*
Despite ongoing and often successful initiatives by MCS practitioners, IUU fishing continues to have a devastating impact on local communities livelihoods and loss revenue, extending its impact to the trade chain and undermining development efforts. Another common negative aspect of IUU fishing is its lack of consideration for working conditions, safety at sea and labour laws. The solutions most often proposed to eliminate IUU fishing are associated with increased governance and the rule of law - increased cooperation between regional management authorities in management and control activities, increased capacity to undertake surveillance and enforcement of port state control and other means of reducing the economic incentives to engage in IUU fishing, such as increased sanctions and trade measures. In addition to global initiatives and EU enforcement law, States have given increasing importance to the drawing up and implementation of national plans of action to combat IUU fishing and to curtail fishing capacity. Some RFMOs and regional fisheries management arrangements have moved to develop catch certification schemes as a means of discouraging IUU fishing. Their purpose is to track catches in trade.

The effective implementation of port State measures by concerned States, strengthened by regionally agreed standards and requirements, will block or disrupt the trade in illegally caught fishery products, making it extremely difficult for such operations to remain economically viable. Advanced MCS schemes and port State measures are already implemented by several States.

These activities are encouraging, but set in the context of burgeoning demand for food and particularly protein, there will continue to be enormous pressure on fish stocks over the next 50 years and it is essential that the international community address effectively the large illegal and unreported catch of fish.

Developing countries, the most vulnerable to IUU fishing activities, must have support in strengthening their capacity to survey and inspect the entry into their ports of fishing vessels (and cargo vessels linked to fishing operations) not flying their flag. It is vital that implementation strategies for port State measures be supported by sound policy, legal, institutional and operational setups, with adequate resources.

The IUU Regulation is the first EU legislative instrument to tackle IUU fishing through trade. While the limitations in the current paper-based catch certification scheme are recognised, implementation of the regulation requires a good level of governance and competence within third countries. It is currently perceived however, that the regulation has already promoted better governance for the elimination of IUU fishing by boosting international cooperation between importing and exporting countries, in order to tackle illegal fishing globally and prevent the import of IUU products into the EU market. It has also been highlighted that several third countries have modified their policies and laws in order to be in compliance with the IUU Regulation and have access to EU markets. Given that the IUU Regulation has only been in force for four years, this is viewed as an important outcome.

In EU Member States, a range of IT tools have been developed by EU Member States to assist them implement the IUU Regulation that would help lead to greater efficiencies and increased effectiveness, including those to improve inter-agency cooperation and communication, catch certificate management and process and risk based management systems for document controls and physical checking. To date, both Spain and the UK are considered to have developed one of the highest levels of awareness of the IUU Regulation and have developed effective risk based assessment systems to combat IUU. In addition to technical support, the EU can continue to support non-state actors in ACP countries, as they play an indispensable role in the governance process and in promoting the accountability of both the private and public institutions that are responsible for combatting IUU. Non-state actors are already acknowledged in the Cotonou Agreement under various articles, and which states that:

Non-State actors and local decentralised authorities shall, where appropriate:

- be provided with financial resources, under the conditions laid down in this Agreement in
order to support local development processes;

- be involved in the implementation of cooperation project and programmes in areas that concern them or where these actors have a comparative advantage.122

The successes in fighting IUU and applying EU regulation from small island countries, is a very encouraging trend which should inspire other countries which have even more means to take action against IUU fishing.
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GLOSSARY

**Active fishing days**
Time extrapolating factor used in the estimation of total fishing effort. It is boat/gear specific and defined as the number of days in a reference period (e.g. a calendar month) during which fishing activities are “normal”. Usually this variable is defined in reverse manner that is by subtracting from the calendar days those days known for zero or negligible activity. Definition of active days is in itself a sample-based survey involving several sites and boat/gear types, but it is often specified at minor stratum level by means of empirical knowledge and/or information from the enumerators.

**Allowable catch**
The catch allowed to be taken from a stock, by a fishery during a specified time period. Often defined as the Total Allowable Catch (TAC), it is often allocated explicitly amongst those having a right of access to the stock. See: Quota.

**Artisanal fisheries**
Traditional fisheries involving fishing households (as opposed to commercial companies), using relatively small amount of capital and energy, relatively small fishing vessels (if any), making short fishing trips, close to shore, mainly for local consumption. In practice, definition varies between countries, e.g. from gleaning or a one-man canoe in poor developing countries, to more than 20 m trawlers, seiners, or long-liners in developed ones. Artisanal fisheries can be subsistence or commercial fisheries, providing for local consumption or export. Sometimes referred to as small-scale fisheries.

**Bio-economic model**
An analytical tool to facilitate management decisions. Bio-economic models establish functional relationships between specific characteristics of the natural resource base, (e.g. a fishery resource), and the activities of man to make use of such resource. The formalization of such relationships require certain abstractions from reality, as well as assumptions about the biological processes and human behaviour. To the extent that these assumptions may be partially violated in a specific fishery under study, the results of models should be considered as theoretical and potentially biased. While the reliability of models increases with the validity of the assumptions, there are limits to formalizing and to interpreting the results of highly complex systems.

**Biomass**
1) The total weight of the living organisms concerned, whether in a system, a stock, or a fraction of a stock: e.g. plankton biomass in an area, biomass of spawners or of newly recruited fish. 2) Total weight of a resource, a stock, or a component of such stock. Examples: the biomass of all demersal fish on the Georges Bank; the biomass of the cod stock; the spawning biomass (i.e. the weight of mature females) (also standing stock).

**Catch**
1) Any activity that results in killing any fish or bringing any live fish on board a vessel. 2) The component of fish encountering fishing gear which is retained.

**Census**
A fisheries census is a survey in which the value of each variable for the survey area is obtained from the values of the variable in all reporting units that are usually fishing households. The primary objective of fisheries censuses is to provide a detailed classification of the fisheries structure of the country. It provides estimates for each household, and therefore, aggregate data for the smallest...
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administrative, political or statistical subdivisions of the country and for classifications of households by size or other subgroups of interest

**Combined IUU vessel**

A compilation of data on IUU vessels listed by RFMOs.

**Commission for the Conservation of Southern Bluefin Tuna (CCSBT)**

Regional Fisheries Management Organisation (RFMO). Objective is to ensure, through appropriate management, the conservation and optimal utilisation of the global Southern Bluefin Tuna.

**The Committee on Fisheries (COFI)**

The Committee is an inter-governmental forum (U.N. body) of member governments and other organizations where major international fisheries and issues are examined and recommendations developed to address these issues.

**Common Fisheries Policy**

The fisheries policy of the European Union (EU). It sets quotas for which member states are allowed to catch what amounts of each type of fish.

**Compliance Agreement**


**Conservation and Management Measure**

Conservation and Management Measure adopted by an RFMO. Some RFMOs also call them conservation measure (CM) or conservation and enforcement measure (CEM).

**Contracting Party (CP)**

A country that has signed, or otherwise agrees to abide by the terms of, an international agreement.

**Cooperating Non-Member (CNM)**

Cooperating Non-Member – includes Cooperating Non-Parties, Cooperating Non-Contracting Parties and Cooperating Fishing Entities.

**Entry into force**

The point at which an international agreement become binding.

**Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ)**

1) A zone under national jurisdiction (up to 200-nautical miles wide) declared in line with the provisions of 1982 United Nations Convention of the Law of the Sea, within which the coastal State has the right to explore and exploit, and the responsibility to conserve and manage, the living and non-living resources. 2) The area adjacent to a coastal state which encompasses all waters between: (a) the seaward boundary of that state, (b) a line on which each point is 200 nautical miles (370.40 km) from the baseline from which the territorial sea of the coastal state is measured (except when other international boundaries need to be accommodated), and (c) the maritime boundaries agreed between that state and the neighbouring states.

**FAO Model Scheme on Port State Measures**

The Model Scheme on Port State Measures to Combat Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing – endorsed by COFI in 2005.

**Fish stocks**

The living resources in the community or population from which catches are taken in a fishery. Use of the term fish stock usually implies that the particular population is more or less isolated from other stocks of the same species and hence self-sustaining. See: Fishery resource.

**Fisher**

A person (male or female) participating in a fishery (in preference to the previously used term ‘fisherman’). An individual who takes part in fishing conducted from a fishing vessel, platform (whether fixed or floating) or from the shore.

**Fisheries support vessels**

A vessel which support fishing activities, it includes fish carriers, bunker vessels, motherships and net boats.

**Fishery**

1) The sum (or range) of all fishing activities on a given resource (e.g. a hake fishery or shrimp fishery). It may also refer to the activities of a single type or style of fishing (e.g. beach seine fishery or trawl fishery). The fishery can be artisanal, or/and industrial, commercial, subsistence, and recreational, and can be annual or seasonal. 2) Activity of catching fish, from one or more stocks of fish, that can be treated as a unit for purposes of conservation and management and that is identified on the basis of geographic, scientific, technical, recreational, social or
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economic characteristics, and/or method of catch. See: Fishing.

**Fishery-independent**

Characteristic of information (e.g. stock abundance index) or an activity (e.g. research vessels survey) obtained or undertaken independently of the activity of the fishing sector. Intended to avoid the biases inherent to fishery-related data.

**Fishery management**

The integrated process of information gathering, analysis, planning, decision-making, allocation of resources and formulation and enforcement of fishery regulations by which the fishery management authority controls the present and future behaviour of interested parties in the fisheries, in order to ensure the continued productivity of the living resources.

**Fishery resource**

Any stock of aquatic living animals (except those specifically prohibited by law) which can be caught by fishing, and their habitat.

**Fishing**

Any activity, other than scientific research conducted by a scientific research vessel, that involves the catching, taking, or harvesting of fish; or any attempt to do so; or any activity that can reasonably be expected to result in the catching, taking, or harvesting of fish and any operations at sea in support of it (Modified from US Department of Commerce, 1996).

**Fishing industry**

Includes both recreational, subsistence and commercial fishing, and the harvesting, processing, and marketing sectors.

**Foreign fishing vessel**

Any fishing vessel other than a vessel of the coastal State.

**Gear**

Any tools used to catch fish, such as hook and line, trawls, gill nets, traps, spears, etc.

**Geographic Information System (GIS)**

An information system that stores and manipulates data which is referenced to locations on the earth's surface, such as digital maps and sample locations.

**Geo-referenced data**

Data which is connected to a specific location on the earth's surface.

**High seas**

Areas of ocean beyond national jurisdictions, up to 200 miles wide.

**Highly migratory species**

Marine species whose life cycle includes lengthy migrations, usually through the EEZs of two or more countries as well as the high seas. This term usually denotes tuna and tuna-like species, marlins and swordfish.

**Home port**

Refer to base port described above. Boat and gear activities are sampled from homeports or base ports, in contrast to catches and species composition, prices, etc. that are sampled at landing sites.
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Illegal fishing

Fisheries conducted by national or foreign vessels in waters under the jurisdiction of a State but without the permission of that State (or in contravention of its laws and regulations). This also applies to fisheries flying the flag of States operating in contravention to the conservation and management measures adopted by an RFMO.

Incidental Catch

See: By-catch.

Index of abundance

A relative measure of the abundance of a stock; e.g. a time series of catch per unit of effort data.

Indicator

A variable, pointer, or index. Its fluctuation reveals the variations in key elements of a system. The position and trend of the indicator in relation to reference points or values indicate the present state and dynamics of the system. Indicators provide a bridge between objectives and action (FAO, 1999. FAO Technical Guidelines for Responsible Fisheries Development and Use of Indicators for Sustainable Development of Marine Capture Fisheries, in press).

Information system

A structured set of processes, people and equipment for converting data into information.

International Commission for the Conservation of Atlantic Tunas (ICCAT)

Regional Fisheries Management Organisation (RFMO) responsible for the conservation of tuna and tuna-like species in the Atlantic Ocean and its adjacent seas including the Mediterranean.

Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission (IATTC)

Regional Fisheries Management Organisation (RFMO) responsible for the conservation and management of fisheries for tuna and other species taken by tuna-fishing vessels in the eastern Pacific Ocean.

International Radio Call Sign

Issued by the flag State to a vessel.

Illegal fishing, unreported fishing and unregulated fishing-IUU-fishing

Illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing is a group of fisheries activities that respect neither national boundaries nor international attempts to manage high seas resources. These usually thrive where governance is weak and where countries fail to meet their international responsibilities and put unsustainable pressure on fish stocks, marine wildlife and habitats, subverts labour standards and markets.

International Plan of Action to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (IPOA-IUU)

Voluntary instrument developed by the FAO within the framework of the Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries.

Indian Ocean Tuna Commission (IOTC)

Regional Fisheries Management Organisation (RFMO) that manages tuna and tuna-like species in the Indian Ocean and adjacent seas.

International Maritime Organization (IMO)

A specialized agency of the United Nations. Its objective is to develop and maintain a comprehensive regulatory framework for shipping; its remit today includes safety, environmental concerns, legal matters, technical co-operation, maritime security and the efficiency of shipping. It has a limited role with respect to fishing vessels.

Landing price

Price for a product at the landing point, not taking account of any transportation or handling costs. Equivalent to the “farm gate” price for aquaculture.

Landing site

Location at which boats land their catch. A landing site may be the same as the homeport or base port but it can also be different. Boat and gear activities are sampled from homeports or base ports, in contrast to catches and species composition, prices, etc. that are sampled at landing sites.

Landings

Weight of the catch landed at a wharf or beach.

Logbook

A record of the fishing activity registered systematically by the fisher, including catch and its species composition, the corresponding effort, and location. In many fisheries completion of logbooks is a compulsory requirement of a fishing licence.
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**Longliner**
A fishing vessel that uses a single line (sometimes up to 30 kilometers long) with baited branch lines at regular intervals to catch fish – often tuna and other pelagic fish.

**Lloyd's MIU**
An online provider of global maritime information, with detailed and up-to-date data on the movement and ownership of some 120,000 vessels. Also known as Sea-searcher.

**Lloyd's Register – Fairplay (LRF)**
LRF manages the IMO ship identification numbering scheme on behalf of the IMO and maintains details of ships on order and under construction, the current trading fleet and ships that are in casualty, lost or broken up. It also provides online information services for the shipping industry, including Sea-web.

**Management authority**
The legal entity which has been assigned by a State or States with a mandate to perform certain specified management functions in relation to a fishery, or an area (e.g. a coastal zone). Generally used to refer to a state authority, the term may also refer to an international management organisation.

**Management objective**
A formally established, more or less quantitative target that is actively sought and provides a direction for management action. For example, achieving a 40% reduction in fleet capacity, or ensuring a competitive income for individual fishers.

**Merchant vessel**
A commercial vessel used to transport goods.

**Monitoring**
The collection of information for the purpose of assessment of the progress and success of a land use (or fishery management) plan. Monitoring is used for the purpose of enforcement and of revising the original plan, or to gather information for future plans.

**Monitoring, control and surveillance (MCS)**
Defined by the FAO as activities undertaken by the fishery enforcement system to ensure compliance with fishery regulations.

**Movement**
The recorded movement of a vessel on the combined IUU vessel list in visiting a port or passing through a canal or strait.

**Movement file**
A database of the movement of all vessels on the combined IUU vessel list over the period of the study.

**Nationality of catch**
The flag of the vessel performing the essential part of the operation catching the fish, should be considered the paramount indication of the nationality assigned to the catch data and this indication overridden only when one of the following arrangements between a foreign flag vessel and the host country exists: (a) the vessel is chartered by the host country to augment its fishing fleet; or (b) the vessel fishes for the country by joint venture contract or similar agreements (as opposed to the ad hoc practice of a vessel selling catches to a foreign vessel or landing catches at a foreign port) and the operation of such vessel is an integral part of the economy of the host country. When governments negotiate joint ventures or other contracts in which vessels of one country land their catches at ports of another country or unload their catches to vessels of another country and the one of the above-mentioned criteria is applicable, the assignment of nationality to such catches and landings data should be specified in the agreement.

**Nominal catch**
The sum of the catches that are landed (expressed as live weight equivalent). Nominal catches do not include unreported discards and may differ considerably from the actual catch.

**North East Atlantic Fisheries Commission (NEAFC)**
Regional Fisheries Management Organization (RFMO) that manages demersal fisheries (species that live on the seafloor) in the Northeast Atlantic.

**Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organisation (NAFO)**
Regional Fisheries Management Organization (RFMO) that manages fish stocks that are outside Canada’s 200-mile limit, straddle the line or are of mainly foreign interest.

**Observer**
Any certified person serving in the capacity of an observer employed by the Management Authority, either directly or under contract. Usually
embarked on large fishing vessels (principally but not exclusively foreign vessels), observers are responsible for monitoring fishing operations (e.g. areas fished, fishing effort deployed, gear characteristics, catches and species caught, discards, etc.). They may or may not be part of the enforcement system.

Observer data
Fisheries information collected on-board fishing vessels by independent observers.

Performance
Accomplishment; fulfilment; functioning, usually with regard to effectiveness. Indicators of performance will be interpreted in relation to reference points and objectives.

Port State
A State with maritime boundaries and ports that allow access to foreign vessels.

Port State Measures
Requirements established or interventions undertaken by port States which a foreign fishing vessel must comply with. Among these are measures against IUU-listed vessels such as denial of entry into port, denial of transshipment and/or landing, and denial of provision of port services which we have focused on in this study.

Port State Measures Agreement (PSMA)
The Agreement on Port State Measures to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing; being negotiated during 2008 and 2009 under the auspices of the FAO and was adopted by the FAO Conference in November 2009.

Port visit
A visit by a vessel to a port, including a foreign fishing vessel or a merchant vessel flagged to another country.

Precautionary approach
1) Set of measures taken to implement the precautionary principle. 2) A set of agreed cost-effective measures and actions, including future courses of action, which ensures prudent foresight, reduces or avoids risk to the resource, the environment, and the people, to the extent possible, taking explicitly into account existing uncertainties and the potential consequences of being wrong.

Purse seiner
A fishing vessel that uses a purse seine net (a large net that is set around a school of fish, then drawn together at the surface and underneath the fish to trap them). Frequently used to catch high-volume fish, such as skipjack tuna.

Quota
A share of the Total Allowable Catch (TAC) allocated to an operating unit such as a country, a vessel, a company or an individual fisherman (individual quota) depending on the system of allocation. Quotas may or may not be transferable, inheritable, and tradable. While generally used to allocate total allowable catch, quotas could be used also to allocate fishing effort or biomass.

Recreational fishing
Any fishing for which the primary motive is leisure rather than profit, the provision of food or the conduct of scientific research and which may not involve the sale, barter, or trade of part or all of the catch.

Reef
A vessel used to transport perishable commodities that require temperature control, such as fruit, meat, fish, vegetables and dairy products.

Reference point
1) An estimated value derived from an agreed scientific procedure and/or model, which corresponds to a specific state of the resource and of the fishery, and that can be used as a guide for fisheries management. Reference points may be general (applicable to many stocks) or stock-specific. 2) A reference point indicates a particular state of a fishery indicator corresponding to a situation considered as desirable (Target Reference Point) or undesirable and requiring immediate action (Limit Reference Point).

Refrigerated cargo vessel
Similar to a reefer but may also include refrigerated container vessels designed to carry containerized loads in which each container is a refrigerated unit.

Regional Fisheries Management Organisation (RFMO)
Inter-governmental organisation that co-ordinates efforts to manage fisheries in a particular region.

Resources
Biological resources include genetic resources, organisms or parts thereof, populations or any other
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biotic component of ecosystems with actual or potential use of value for humanity. Fishery resources are those resources of value to fisheries.

**Responsible fisheries**

The concept “encompasses the sustainable utilisation of fishery resources in harmony with the environment; the use of capture and aquaculture practices which are not harmful to ecosystems, resources and their quality; the incorporation of added value to such products through transformation processes meeting the required sanitary standards; the conduct of commercial practices so as to provide consumers access to good quality products” (International Conference on Responsible Fishing, Cancun, Mexico, 1992).

**Sea-web**

Online database that provides comprehensive global port visit data, including real-time reports from 165 countries, as well as coverage of ship and ownership details. Part of Lloyd's Register – Fairplay.

**shipspotting.com**

Online database that contains the world’s largest ship photo library, with some 700,000 images submitted by members. Images of vessels include the date and place the image was taken, as well as who submitted the image.

**South East Atlantic Fisheries Organisation**

Regional Fisheries Management Organisation (RFMO) that oversees the management of fisheries in the Southeast Atlantic.

**Stakeholders**

A large group of individuals and groups of individuals (including governmental and non-governmental institutions, traditional communities, universities, research institutions, development agencies and banks, donors, etc.) with an interest or claim (whether stated or implied) which has the potential of being impacted by or having an impact on a given project and its objectives. Stakeholder groups that have a direct or indirect stake can be at the household, community, local, regional, national, or international levels.

**State of the stock**

An appreciation of the situation of a stock, usually expressed as: protected, under-exploited, intensively exploited, fully exploited, over-exploited, depleted, extinct or commercially extinct.

**Stock**

1) In theory, a unit stock comprises all the individuals of fish in an area, which are part of the same reproductive process. It is self-contained, with no emigration or immigration of individuals from or to the stock. On practical grounds, however, a fraction of the unit stock is considered a «stock» for management purposes (or a management unit), as long as the results of the assessments and management remain close enough to what they would be on the unit stock. 2) A group of individuals in a species occupying a well-defined spatial range independent of other stocks of the same species. Random dispersal and directed migrations due to seasonal or reproductive activity can occur. Such a group can be regarded as an entity for management or assessment purposes. Some species form a single stock (e.g. southern bluefin tuna) while others are composed of several stocks (e.g. albacore tuna in the Pacific Ocean comprises separate Northern and Southern stocks). The impact of fishing on a species cannot be determined without knowledge of this stock structure.

**Stock assessment**

The process of collecting and analyzing biological and statistical information to determine the changes in the abundance of fishery stocks in response to fishing, and, to the extent possible, to predict future trends of stock abundance. Stock assessments are based on resource surveys; knowledge of the habitat requirements, life history, and behaviour of the species; the use of environmental indices to determine impacts on stocks; and catch statistics. Stock assessments are used as a basis to assess and specify the present and probable future condition of a fishery.

**Straddling stock**

Stock which occurs both within the EEZ and in an area beyond and adjacent to EEZ (Article 63(2) of UNCLOS).

**Strait passage**

A recorded movement through a strait by a vessel on the combined IUU vessel list.

**Subsistence fishery**

A fishery where the fish caught are consumed directly by the families of the fishers rather than being bought by middle-(wo)men and sold at the next larger market.

**Sustainable use**

The use of components of biological
diversity in a way and at a rate that does not lead to the long-term decline of biological diversity, thereby maintaining its potential to meet the needs and aspirations of present and future generations.

**Sustainable yield**

The number or weight of fish in a stock that can be taken by fishing while maintaining the stock’s biomass at a steady level from year to year, assuming that environmental conditions remain the same. Sustainable yields can take all sorts of values from very low in underexploited or overexploited fisheries to very high in properly exploited ones. Difficult to achieve in practice due to environmental fluctuations.

**Target Reference Point (TRP)**

Corresponds to a state of a fishery and/or a resource which is considered desirable. Management action, whether during a fishery development or a stock rebuilding process should aim at bringing and maintaining the fishery system at this level. In most cases a TRP will be expressed in a desired level of output for the fishery (e.g. in terms of catch) or of fishing effort or capacity and will be reflected as an explicit management objective for the fishery. See: Limit Reference Point, Reference point.

**Target species**

Those species that are primarily sought by the fishermen in a particular fishery. The subject of directed fishing effort in a fishery. There may be primary as well as secondary target species.

**Total Allowable Catch (TAC)**

Total catch allowed to be taken from a resource in a specified period (usually a year), as defined in the management plan. The TAC may be allocated to the stakeholders in the form of quotas as specific quantities or proportions.

**Transshipment**

The transfer from one vessel to another of fish products, whether at sea or in port. A transshipment point is where fishery products are brought together for onward shipment.

**Trash fish**

Fish with little or no commercial value and not sorted by species before landing. Usually part of the trawlers’ by-catch. It can be used for aquaculture, fishmeal production and in many developing countries, for human consumption.

**Trawler**

A fishing vessel that uses a trawl net (a large net, held open by trawl doors, that skims across the seabed herding fish into the net as it passes). This method typically targets demersal fish species but can also be used to target fish in the water column, where it is known as midwater trawling.

**U.N. Fish Stock Agreement (UNFSA)**


**Vessel journey**

Information on the movement of a vessel on the combined IUU vessel list.

**Vessel Monitoring System (VMS)**

VMS provides monitoring agencies with accurate locations of fishing vessels that are participating in the VMS. It tells the monitoring agency see new guidelines.

**Western and Central Pacific Fisheries Commission (WCPFC)**

Regional Fisheries Management Organisation (RFMO) that oversees management of fisheries for tuna and similar species in the Western Pacific.

**Yield**

Catch in weight. Catch and yield are often used interchangeably.
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ACRONYMS

AAFC  Atlantic Africa Fisheries Conference
ACFR  Advisory Commission on Fisheries Research
ACP  African, Caribbean and Pacific
APFIC  Asia Pacific Fishery Commission
AU  African Union
CARPAS  Regional Fisheries Advisory Commission for Southwest Atlantic
CCAMLR  Convention for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources
CCSBT  Convention on the Conservation of Southern Bluefin Tuna
CDS  Catch documentation scheme
CECAF  Fishery Commission for the Eastern Central Atlantic
CEPTFA  Council of the Eastern Pacific Tuna Fishing Agreement
CIFA  Committee for Inland Fisheries of Africa
COFI  FAO Committee on Fisheries
COMHAFAT  Ministerial Conference on Fisheries Co-operation among African States bordering the Atlantic Ocean
COREP  Regional Fisheries Committee for the Gulf of Guinea
CPPS  South Pacific Permanent Commission
DWFS  Distant Water Fishing Fleets
EEZ  Exclusive Economic Zone
EPAs  Economic Partnership Agreements
EU  European Union
FAO  Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations
FCWC  Fishery Committee of the West Central Gulf of Guinea
FFA  South Pacific Forum Fisheries Agency
FFV  Foreign fishing vessel
FOC  Flags of convenience
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FONC Flag of Non Compliance
FPZ Fisheries Protected Zone
GDP Gross Domestic Product
GEF Global Environment Fund
GFCM General Fisheries Commission for the Mediterranean
GRT Gross Registered Tonnage
GSP Generalised System of Preference
GT Gross Tonnage
HSTF High Seas Task Force
HSVAR High Seas Vessel Authorization Record
ICCAT International Commission for the Conservation of Atlantic Tunas
ICES International Council for the Exploration of the Sea
ICSEAF International Commission for the Southeast Atlantic Fisheries
ILO International Labor Organization of the United Nations
IMMARBE International Merchant Marine Registry of Belize
IMO International Maritime Organization of the United Nations
IOC Indian Ocean Commission
IOTC Indian Ocean Tuna Commission
IPHIC International Pacific Halibut Commission
IPOA International Plan of Action to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal, Unregulated and Unreported Fishing
ISEAL International Social and Environmental Accreditation and Labelling Alliance
IUCN International Union for Conservation of Nature
IUU fishing Illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing
LVFO Lake Victoria Fisheries Organization
MCS Monitoring Control and Surveillance
MoU Memorandum of Understanding
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MRAG</td>
<td>Marine Resources Assessment Group</td>
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<td>MSC</td>
<td>Marine Stewardship Council</td>
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<td>n.m.</td>
<td>Nautical Miles</td>
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<td>NAFO</td>
<td>Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization</td>
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<td>NAMMCO</td>
<td>North Atlantic Marine Mammal Commission</td>
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<td>NASCO</td>
<td>North Atlantic Salmon Conservation Organization</td>
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<td>NEAFC</td>
<td>North-East Atlantic Fisheries Commission</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organization</td>
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<td>NPOA</td>
<td>National Plan of Action</td>
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<td>NPOA–IUU</td>
<td>National Plan of Action on Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing</td>
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<td>OPRT</td>
<td>Organization for the Promotion of Responsible Tuna Fisheries</td>
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<td>PONC</td>
<td>Ports of Non Compliance</td>
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<td>PSC</td>
<td>Pacific Salmon Commission</td>
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<td>RECOFI</td>
<td>Regional Commission for Fisheries</td>
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<td>RMB</td>
<td>Regional Management Bodies</td>
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<td>RoO</td>
<td>Rules of Origin</td>
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<td>SADC</td>
<td>Southern African Development Community</td>
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<td>SAG</td>
<td>Stock Assessment Group (CCSBT)</td>
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<td>SBT</td>
<td>Southern Bluefin Tuna</td>
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<td>SCRS</td>
<td>Standing Committee on Research and Statistics (ICCAT)</td>
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<td>SEAFDEC</td>
<td>Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center</td>
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<td>SEAFO</td>
<td>Southeast Atlantic Fisheries Organization</td>
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<td>SIOFA</td>
<td>South Indian Ocean Fisheries Agreement</td>
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<td>SOLAS</td>
<td>The International Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea</td>
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<td>SPC</td>
<td>Secretariat of the Pacific Community</td>
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<tr>
<td>SPRFMO</td>
<td>South Pacific Regional Fisheries Management Organisation</td>
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<td>SRFC</td>
<td>Sub-Regional Fisheries Commission</td>
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<td>SWIOFC</td>
<td>Southwest Indian Ocean Fisheries Commission</td>
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<td>TAC</td>
<td>Total Allowable Catches</td>
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<td>TDS</td>
<td>Trade Documentation Scheme</td>
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<td>TIS</td>
<td>Trade Information Scheme (CCSBT)</td>
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<td>TRAFFIC</td>
<td>Wildlife Trade Monitoring Network</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNCED</td>
<td>United Nations Conference on Environment and Development</td>
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<td>UNCTAD</td>
<td>United Nations Conference on Trade and Development</td>
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<td>United Nations Fish Stocks Agreement</td>
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<td>WCPFC</td>
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<td>WIOTO</td>
<td>Western Indian Ocean Tuna Organization</td>
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<td>WTO</td>
<td>World Trade Organisation</td>
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<td>WWF</td>
<td>World Wildlife Fund</td>
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33  Licensed shrimp trawlers in Guinea, for example, are thought to misreport catches by 20%. If the by-catch from this fishery is also very high (approx. 75%), a high proportion of the vulnerable part of demersal fish stocks (i.e. juveniles) is being exploited. However, due to a lack of information on catch composition, the impact on the demersal stocks is not yet known. 

34  For example, it is known that longliners can experience high levels of bycatch of threatened and endangered species such as seabirds and turtles. IUU longliners not complying with the necessary mitigation techniques will pose a greater threat than legitimate operators who do comply. Within Angola, Mozambique and Papua New Guinea, it has been reported that high numbers of shark have been caught by illegal longliners. Other gears deployed from illegal vessels, such as gillnets, have been reported from Angola and have the potential impact on more vulnerable marine species such as turtles and marine mammals. 

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79 Chimatiro – NEPAD Secretariat, South Africa- Contribution to the e-consultation on IUU Fishing, April 2009
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Stop illegal Fishing started work in 2007, originally to support southern African countries in the fight against illegal fishing, but in 2009 it expanded to become a pan-African Working Group to combat illegal fishing under the auspices of the African Union’s NEPAD. In 2013, in addition to being the NEPADs Working Group it gained status as a non-profit organisation to strengthen its ability to facilitate stronger international partnerships. http://www.africanfisheries.org/sites/default/files/knowledge_outputs/sif_information_flyer_for_ICMNet.pdf


Phillips T - Caribbean Regional Fisheries Mechanism, St. Vincent and the Grenadines - Contribution to the e-consultation on IUU Fishing, April 2009.

Combating Illegal Fishing in the CARICOM Region, cit.


Tsamenyi M. - University of Wollongong (ANCORS), Australia - Contribution to the e-consultation on IUU Fishing, April 2009.


Commonwealth Secretariat (2009), cit.

Ibid.

Ibid.

Ibid.

European Commission Memo “Question and Answers on the EU’s fight against illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing”(14/10/2014) http://europe.eu/rapid/press-release_MEMO-14-584_en.htm


Castiano M., Contribution to the e-consultation on IUU Fishing, April 2009.


ICCAT adopted the first trade documentation scheme as part of a bid to address the problems caused by IUU Fishing for bluefin tuna. Documentation containing information about the vessel which caught the tuna, where the fish was caught and the quantity landed must be certified by the national authorities of the Flag States of the vessel. The certified document must also accompany the fish when it is traded on the international market. A similar approach has been taken by the two other tuna commissions, the Commission for the Conservation of Southern Bluefin Tuna (CCSBT) and the Indian Ocean Tuna Commission (IOTC). Member countries are required to deny the landing in their ports of any tuna caught outside the zones or lacking appropriate documentation. According to the CCSBT and ICCAT Secretariats, IUU tuna fishing has been reduced. In part this has been a result of the full implementation of these measures. Nevertheless, problems remain including the difficulty in ensuring the complete closure of the Japanese market for IUU southern blue fin tuna. Trade documentation schemes, however, are not without their problems. Most significantly perhaps they do not apply to fish at the point of harvesting or to transhipped product. The latter in particular is one of the primary mechanisms for IUU fishers to move their product to market. It was in the context of these perceived drawbacks that the CCAMLR Catch Documentation Scheme (CDS) was introduced in May 2000. The CDS operates in conjunction with a requirement that all vessels licensed to fish for toothfish must operate a satellite-linked vessel monitoring system (VMS). The scheme requires Flag States to certify the origin of toothfish catch before it is landed or transhipped. More generally, it tracks the landings and trade flows of toothfish caught in the CCAMLR area by requiring landings of toothfish at Members’ ports or transhipments to Members’ vessels to be accompanied by a Catch Document. In this way CCAMLR is able to identify the origin of toothfish entering the markets of all members of the scheme and also determine whether the fish were caught legally. CCAMLR provides participating countries with the requisite authority to deny any shipment of toothfish which is not accompanied by a valid Catch Document.


Community Surveillance, Environmental Justice League http://eijfoundation.org/oeceans/community-surveillance


Ibid.

Ibid.

Such schemes are already in use by the Commission for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources, the Commission for the Conservation of Southern Bluefin Tuna, and the International Commission for the Conservation of Atlantic Tunas.

Study on the state of the play regarding application and implementation of Council Regulation (EC) n. 1005/2008 of 29 September 2008, establishing a community system to prevent, deter and eliminate illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (IUU Regulation). April 2014

Ibid.


Article 4 of the Cotonou Agreement, cit.

Sources : Pew Charitable Trusts, FAO, EC

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