



## REVIEW OF THE STATISTICAL DATA AVAILABLE FOR IOTC BYCATCH SPECIES

Prepared by [IOTC Secretariat](#)<sup>1</sup>

### Purpose

To provide participants in the Assessment meeting of the 18<sup>th</sup> Session of the IOTC Working Party on Ecosystems and Bycatch (WPEB18) with a review of the status of the information available on non-targeted, associated, and dependent species of IOTC fisheries (“bycatch”) defined by the IOTC Scientific Committee as:

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

The document summarises the current information received for species or species groups other than the 16 IOTC species listed in the IOTC Agreement, in accordance with relevant Resolutions adopted by the Commission. It provides an overview of the data available in the IOTC Secretariat databases as of August 2022 for sharks, rays, seabirds, marine turtles, cetaceans, and other bycatch species. The document describes the progress achieved in relation to the collection and verification of data, identifies problem areas and proposes actions that could be undertaken to improve them.

### Materials

Several fisheries data sets shall be reported to the IOTC Secretariat by the Contracting Parties and Cooperating Non-Contracting Parties (CPCs) as per the [IOTC Conservation and Management Measures](#) (CMMs) and following the standards and formats defined in the [IOTC Reporting guidelines](#). Although not mandatory, the use of the [IOTC forms](#) is recommended to report the data to the Secretariat as they facilitate data curation and management.

### Nominal catch data

Nominal catches correspond to the total retained catches (in live weight) per year, Indian Ocean major area, fleet, and fishing gear ([IOTC Res. 15/02](#)) and can be reported through [IOTC form 1RC](#). In addition, in order to support the monitoring of the catch limits implemented by some industrial fisheries for the CPCs having objected to [IOTC Resolution 21/01](#) as part of the interim plan for rebuilding the yellowfin tuna stock, [IOTC Res. 19/01](#) requests CPCs to submit their catches of yellowfin tuna from 2019 explicitly broken down by vessel length and area of operation (i.e., for vessel of 24 m overall length and over, and for those under 24 m if they fish outside the Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) of the flag state) ([IOTC Form 1RC-YFT](#)).

Two data sets of nominal catches are made available by the Secretariat: (1) the [raw estimates](#) which include both the 16 IOTC species (prior to the breakdown of species and gear aggregates) and all other species considered as bycatch and (2) the [best scientific estimates](#) only available for the 16 IOTC species (e.g., [IOTC 2022](#)).

Changes in the IOTC consolidated data sets of nominal catches (i.e., raw and best scientific estimates) may be required as a result of:

- i. updates received by December 30<sup>th</sup> each year, of the preliminary data for longline fleets submitted by June 30<sup>th</sup> of the same year ([IOTC Res. 15.02](#));

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- ii. revisions of historical data by CPCs following corrections of errors, addition of missing data, changes in data processing, etc.
- iii. changes in the estimation process performed by the Secretariat based on evidence of improved methods and/or assumptions (e.g., selection of proxy fleets, updated morphometric relationships) and upon endorsement by the Scientific Committee.

## Geo-referenced catch and effort data

Catch and effort data refer to finer-scale data, usually from logbooks, reported in aggregated format and stratified per year, month, [grid](#), fleet, gear, type of school, and species ([IOTC Res. 15/02](#)). The [IOTC forms](#) designed for reporting geo-referenced catch and effort data vary according to the nature of the fishing gear (e.g., surface, longline, and coastal gears). In addition, information on the use of fish aggregating devices (FADs) and activity of the support vessels that assist industrial purse seiners also has to be collected and reported to the Secretariat through [IOTC forms 3FA](#) and [3SU](#).

## Discard data

The IOTC follows the definition of discards adopted by FAO in previous reports ([Alverson et al. 1994](#); [Kelleher 2005](#)) which considers all non-retained catch, including individuals released alive or discarded dead. Estimates of total annual discard levels in live weight (or number) by Indian Ocean major area, species and type of fishery shall be reported to the Secretariat as per [IOTC Res. 15/02](#). The [IOTC form 1DI](#) has been designed for the reporting of discards and the data contained shall be extrapolated at the source to represent the total level of discards for the year, gear, fleet, Indian Ocean major area, and species concerned, including turtles, cetaceans, and seabirds.

Nevertheless, discard data reported to the Secretariat with [IOTC Form 1DI](#) are generally scarce, not raised, and not complying with all IOTC reporting standards. For these reasons, the most accurate information available on discards comes from the IOTC Regional Observer Scheme ([IOTC Res. 11/04](#)) that aims to collect detailed information (e.g., exact location in space and time of the sets and interactions, including the fate of observed individuals) on discards of IOTC and bycatch species for industrial fisheries (see below).

## Size frequency data

The size composition of catches may be derived from the data set of individual body lengths or weights collected at sea and during the unloading of fishing vessels. The [IOTC Form 4SF](#) provides all fields requested for a complete reporting of size frequency data to the stratification by fleet, year, gear, type of school, month, grid and species as required by [IOTC Res. 15/02](#). While the great majority of size data reported through IOTC Form 4SF are for retained catches, CPCs can also use the same form to report size data of discarded individuals. Furthermore, additional size data (including those for individuals discarded at sea) may be collected through onboard observer programs and reported to the Secretariat as part of the ROS (see below).

## Regional Observer Scheme

[Resolution 11/04](#) on a *Regional Observer Scheme* (ROS) makes provision for the development and implementation of national observer schemes among the IOTC CPCs starting from July 2010 with the overarching objective of collecting “*verified catch data and other scientific data related to the fisheries for tuna and tuna-like species in the IOTC area of competence*”. The ROS aims to cover “*at least 5% of the number of operations/sets for each gear type by the fleet of each CPC while fishing in the IOTC Area of competence of 24 meters overall length and over, and under 24 meters if they fish outside their EEZs shall be covered by this observer scheme*”. Observer data collected as part of the ROS include: (i) fishing activities and vessel positions, (ii) catch estimates with a view to identifying catch composition and monitoring discards, bycatch and size frequency, (iii) gear type, mesh size and attachments employed by the master, and (iv) information to enable the cross-checking of entries made to the logbooks (i.e., species composition and quantities, live and processed weight and location). A first technical description of the ROS data requirements is available in the document [IOTC-2018-WPDCS-35 Rev 2](#).

The document [IOTC-2021-WPDCS17-10](#) provides a comprehensive description of the current status, coverage and data collected as part of the ROS. Although incomplete and characterized by a large variability in coverage between fisheries

and over space and time, observer data include information on the fate of the catches (i.e. retained or discarded at sea) as well as on the condition of the discards. Observer data are also the main source of spatial information on interactions between IOTC fisheries and seabirds, marine turtles, cetaceans, as well as any other species encountered.

To date, the ROS regional database contains information for a total of 1,582 commercial fishing trips (886 from purse seine vessels and 696 from longline vessels of various types) made during the period 2005-2020 from 7 fleets: Japan, EU, France and Sri Lanka for longline fisheries and EU, Spain, EU, France, Japan, Korea, Mauritius, and Seychelles for purse seine fisheries. In addition, some observer reports have been submitted to the Secretariat by some CPCs (e.g. Taiwan, China) but data sets were not provided in electronic format at the operational level following the [ROS standards](#), *de facto* preventing the entry of the data in the ROS regional database.

The ROS regional database includes a total of 149,154 interactions with bycatch species for the purse seine and longline fisheries having reported data to the Secretariat in electronic format (**Table 1**). Purse seine interactions (n = 83,033) cover the time period 2005-2020 and correspond to 61% of all shark interactions in the ROS regional database against 52,071 for longline. A total of 12,789 interactions with rays have been reported, while seabirds and cetaceans' interactions amount to 323 records, and are exclusively reported by longline fisheries.

Table 1: Number of bycatch interactions with longline and purse seine fisheries as reported in the ROS regional database

Fishery group	Species category	Initial year	Final year	Total interactions
Longline	CETACEANS	2009	2020	143
	RAYS	2009	2020	12,075
	SEABIRDS	2012	2016	180
	SHARKS	2009	2020	52,071
	TURTLES	2009	2020	585
Purse seine	RAYS	2005	2020	714
	SHARKS	2005	2020	83,033
	TURTLES	2006	2020	353

## Morphometric data

The current length-length and length-weight [IOTC reference relationships](#) for pelagic sharks mostly come from historical data collected in the Atlantic Ocean or Western-Central Pacific Ocean ([Skomal and Natanson 2003](#); [Francis and Duffy 2005](#)). However, several morphometric data sets have been collected for sharks through different research and monitoring programs conducted in the Indian Ocean over the last decades, including measurements taken at sea and on land ([Garcia-Cortés and Mejuto 2002](#); [Ariz et al. 2007](#); [Romanov and Romanova 2009](#); [Espino et al. 2010](#); [Filmlalter et al. 2012](#)). Hence, different statistical relationships have been established for several Indian Ocean pelagic sharks based on data that may cover different size ranges as well as different areas and time periods ([Appendix I](#)).

## Methods

### Data available for bycatch species

The data reporting requirements for bycatch species vary according to species categories and fishing gears, and changed over time with the adoption of new resolutions (Fig. 1).

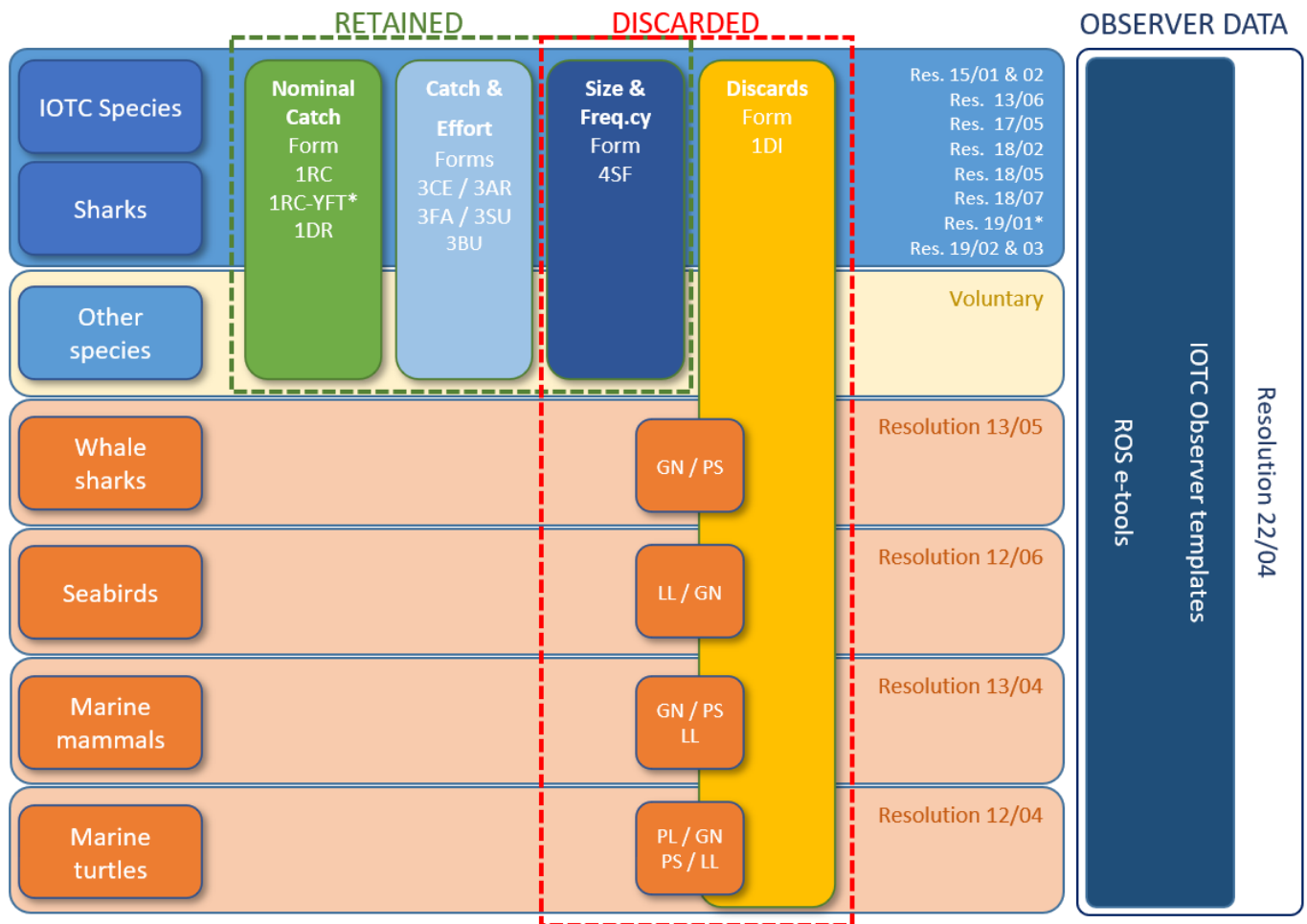


Figure 1: Overview of the data reporting requirements, including IOTC reporting forms and tools, and Resolutions for the 16 IOTC species and bycatch species caught or interacted with by fisheries for tuna and tuna-like species in the IOTC area of competence. BB = Baitboat; GN = Gillnet; LL = Longline; PS = Purse seine. \* applies to CPCs that have objected to Res. 21/01.

**Table 2** lists the most common bycatch species with mandatory reporting requirements, as well as any other species for which reporting is encouraged, and summarises those bycatch species identified by the Commission as relevant for the most common gears ([IOTC Res. 15/01](#)).

Table 2: List of bycatch species of concern to the IOTC and reporting requirements by type of fishery for purse seine (PS), longline (LL), gillnet (GN), baitboat (BB), hand line (HL) and troll line (TR). Red indicates the primary species of concern and orange the optional species for which reporting is encouraged. \* indicates that the Resolution only concerns fishing vessels on the IOTC Record of Authorised Vessels

Common name	Species code(s)	Resolution	PS	LL	GN	BB	HL	TR
Blue shark	BSH	<a href="#">18/02</a>	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red
Mako sharks	MAK; SMA; LMA	<a href="#">15/01</a>	Grey	Red	Red	Grey	Grey	Grey
Porbeagle	POR	<a href="#">15/01</a>	Grey	Red	Red	Grey	Grey	Grey
Hammerhead sharks	SPN; SPL; SPK; SPZ	<a href="#">15/01</a>	Grey	Red	Red	Grey	Grey	Grey
Whale shark	RHN	<a href="#">13/05</a>	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red
Thresher sharks	THR; PTH; ALV; BTH	<a href="#">12/09*</a>	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red
Oceanic whitetip shark	OCS	<a href="#">13/06*</a>	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red
Crocodile shark	PSK	<a href="#">15/01</a>	Grey	Orange	Orange	Grey	Grey	Grey
Silky shark	FAL	<a href="#">15/01</a>	Red	Red	Grey	Grey	Grey	Grey
Tiger shark	TIG	<a href="#">15/01</a>	Grey	Orange	Orange	Grey	Grey	Grey
Great white shark	WSH	<a href="#">15/01</a>	Grey	Orange	Grey	Grey	Grey	Grey
Pelagic stingray	PSL	<a href="#">15/01</a>	Grey	Orange	Orange	Grey	Grey	Grey
Mobula nei	RMV; RMB; RMM	<a href="#">19/03</a>	Red	Red	Red	Red	Grey	Grey
Other sharks	SKH	<a href="#">15/01</a>	Orange	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red
Rays, stingrays, mantas	SRX	<a href="#">15/01</a>	Orange	Red	Orange	Red	Red	Red
Other marine fish nei	MZZ	<a href="#">15/01</a>	Orange	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red
Marine turtles	TTX	<a href="#">12/04</a>	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red	Red
Seabirds	Table 8	<a href="#">12/06</a>	Grey	Red	Red	Grey	Grey	Grey
Cetaceans	Appendix I	<a href="#">13/04</a>	Red	Red	Red	Red	Grey	Grey

The present report is based on the compilation of information derived from the data sets of bycatch species referenced in the Resolutions listed in **Table 2** that were reported to the Secretariat, i.e.:

- Nominal catch data for shark and ray species, including those reported as species aggregates;
- Catch and effort data for shark and ray species, including those reported as species aggregates;
- Size frequency data for shark and ray species;
- Information on discards for shark and ray species available from the ROS;

- Fishery interactions with marine turtles, cetaceans, and seabirds derived from the ROS.

Nominal catch data for bycatch species should be considered with caution, due to several reasons (see Section [Uncertainties in shark and ray catch data](#)) that include the historically low reporting rates and a tendency to report catches for aggregated shark and ray species. Furthermore, catches of some shark and ray species that interact with coastal fisheries targeting other species than tuna and tuna-like species may not be reported to the IOTC. In addition, catches that have been reported are thought to represent only those species that are retained onboard, without taking into account discarded individuals. Finally, in many cases, the reported catches refer to dressed weights while no information is provided on the type of processing undertaken, creating more uncertainty in the estimates of catches in live weight equivalents.

Information available on the estimates of total discards collated through form 1DI was not used in the present report as the data is currently very limited, often provided using heterogeneous formats (not fully compliant with IOTC standards), lacks several metadata fields (e.g., reason for discard, fate) as well as detailed information on sampling coverage and raising procedures adopted (if any).

## Data processing

The preparation of the curated [public-domain data sets](#) for bycatch species follows three main data processing steps which are briefly summarized below.

First, standard controls and checks are performed to ensure that the metadata and data submitted to the Secretariat are consistent and include all mandatory fields (e.g., dimensions of the strata, etc.). The controls depend on each data set and may require the submission of revised data from CPCs if the original ones are found to be incomplete.

Second, when nominal catches are not reported by a CPC, catch data from the previous year may be repeated or derived from a range of sources, e.g., the [FAO FishStat database](#). In addition, for some specific fisheries characterized by well-known, outstanding issues in terms of data quality, a process of re-estimation of species and/or gear composition may be performed based on data available from other years or areas, or by using proxy fleets, i.e., fleets occurring in the same strata which are assumed to have a very similar catch composition (Moreno et al. (2012)).

Finally, filtering and conversions are applied to the size data reported for the most common shark and ray species in order to harmonize their format and structure, and remove data which are non-compliant with IOTC standards, e.g., provided with size bins exceeding the maximum width considered meaningful for the species (IOTC 2020). All samples collected using types of measurement other than fork length (FL; straight distance from the tip of the upper snout to the fork of the tail) are converted into FL by using the [IOTC equations](#) and binned by constant intervals of 5 cm in size. If no IOTC-endorsed equations exist to convert from a given length measurement for a species to the standard FL measurement, the original size-frequency data are not disseminated although they are kept within the IOTC databases for future reference.

## Results

### Overall bycatch levels & trends

Nominal catches of all species caught by Indian Ocean fisheries reported to the Secretariat have been increasing over time, with a particularly dramatic increase in the amount of tuna catches reported between the 1980s and the mid-2000s, followed by a sudden decrease due to piracy threats and by a new sharp increase in more recent years (**Fig. 2**). In 2020, the total nominal catches of all IOTC and non-IOTC (bycatch) species were 1,877,379 t and 213,482 t, respectively.

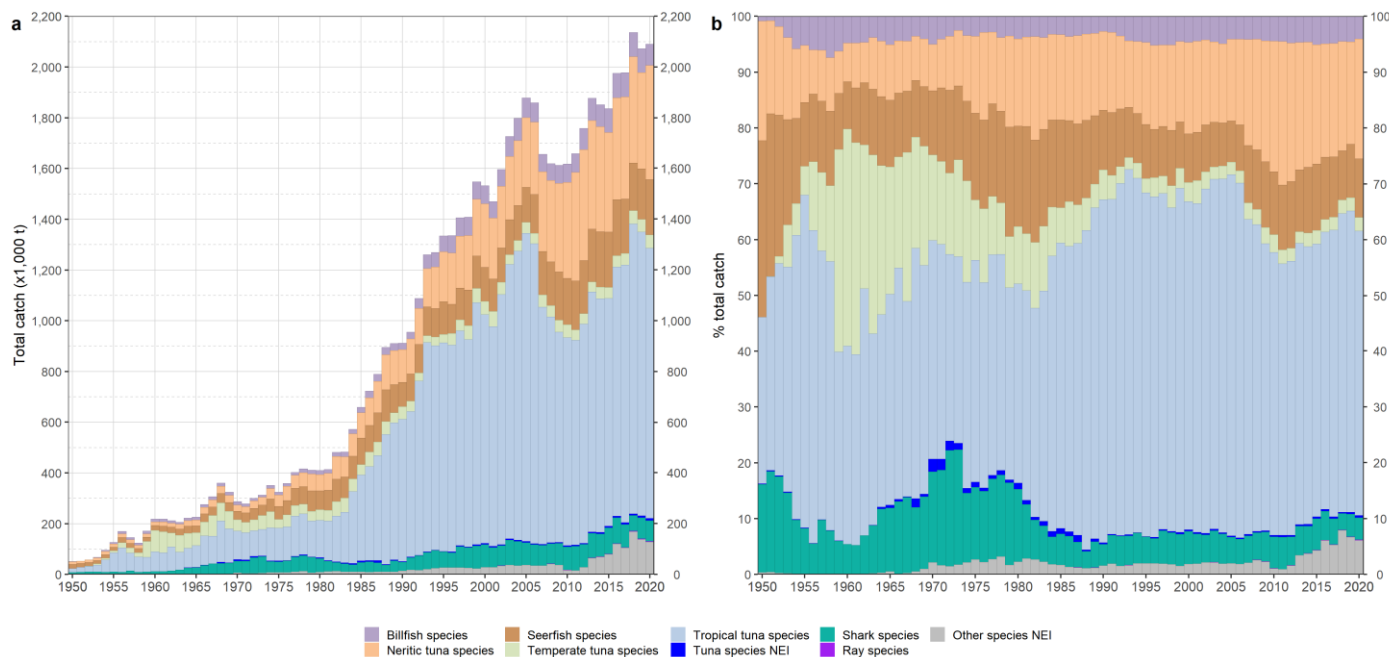


Figure 2: Annual time series of cumulative nominal absolute (a) and relative (b) catches (metric tons; t) of all IOTC tuna and tuna-like species by species category for the period 1950-2020

Reported nominal catches of species of interest to the WPEB are largely dominated by sharks with estimates from some artisanal fisheries dating back to the early 1950s (Fig. 3). Overall levels and quality of reported catches of shark and ray species have increased over time due to the development and expansion of tuna and tuna-like fisheries across the Indian Ocean, the increased reporting requirements for some sensitive species such as thresher and oceanic whitetip sharks, and the implementation of retention bans in some fisheries. In 2020, the total nominal catches of sharks reported to the Secretariat amounted to 82,396 t, with rays representing a very small component of the reported bycatch at 1,860 t, i.e., about 2.2% of total reported shark and ray catches in 2020 (Fig. 3).

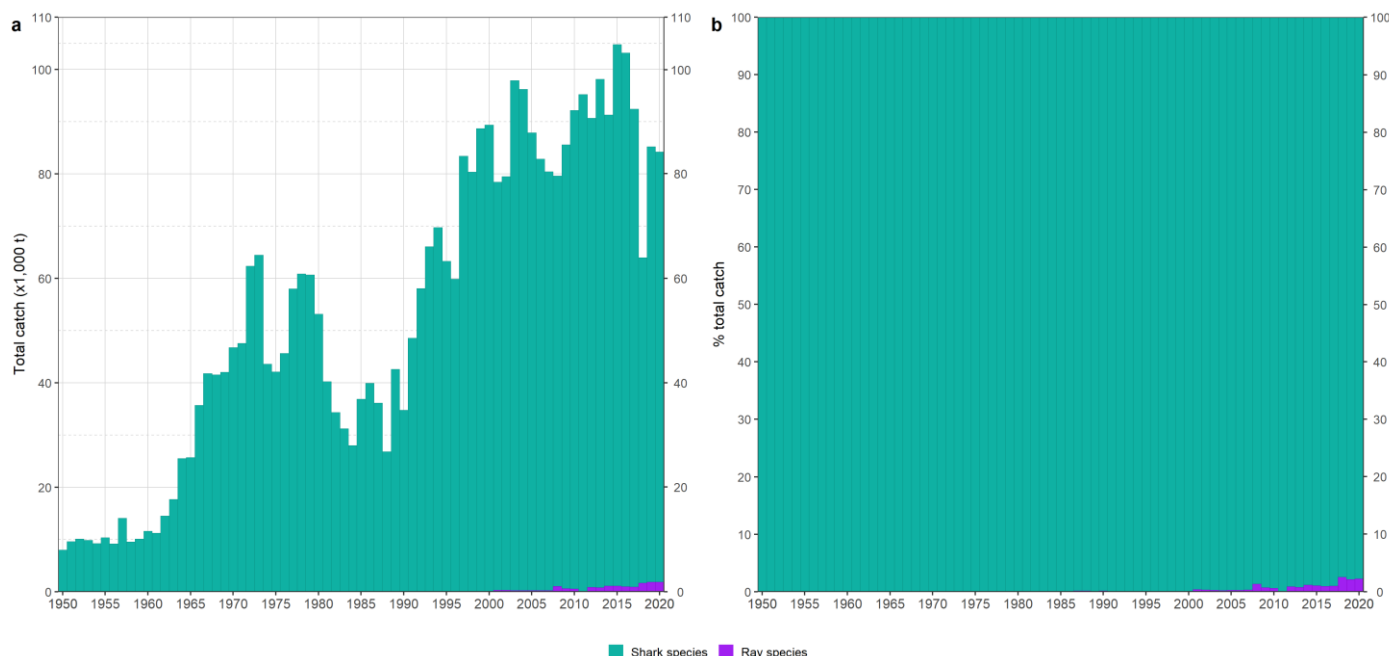


Figure 3: Annual time series of cumulative nominal absolute (a) and relative (b) catches (metric tons; t) of shark and ray species by species category for the period 1950-2020

Very few fleets reported catches of sharks and rays in the 1950s, but the number of reporting fleets has increased over time (Fig. 4). Total reported catches of sharks and rays have also increased over time, reaching a peak of over 100,000 t in 2015-2016. Since then, nominal catches have decreased by 20% to about 80,000 t in 2020.



In 2018, reported catches of sharks and rays declined significantly when compared with 2017 and 2019 levels, mostly due to a complete disappearance of reported catches of aggregated shark species by India (that were not replaced by detailed catches by species) as well as to marked decreases in reported shark catches from other CPCs (Mozambique and Indonesia) which in some cases are thought to indicate reporting issues rather than a real reduction in catch levels. Furthermore, revisions to Pakistani gillnet catches from 1987 onwards (endorsed by the SC in December 2019) introduced a mean annual decrease of around 17,000 t in total catches of shark species during the concerned period when compared to previously available official data reported by the country.

In 2021, Japan provided a detailed species breakdown of retained shark catches from their deep-freezing longline fisheries for the years 1964-1993, which replaces the original re-estimates made by the IOTC Secretariat for the period concerned ([Kai 2021](#)). The revised Japanese catch series is now an integral part of the IOTC databases and is disseminated through the nominal catch data set prepared for the meeting.

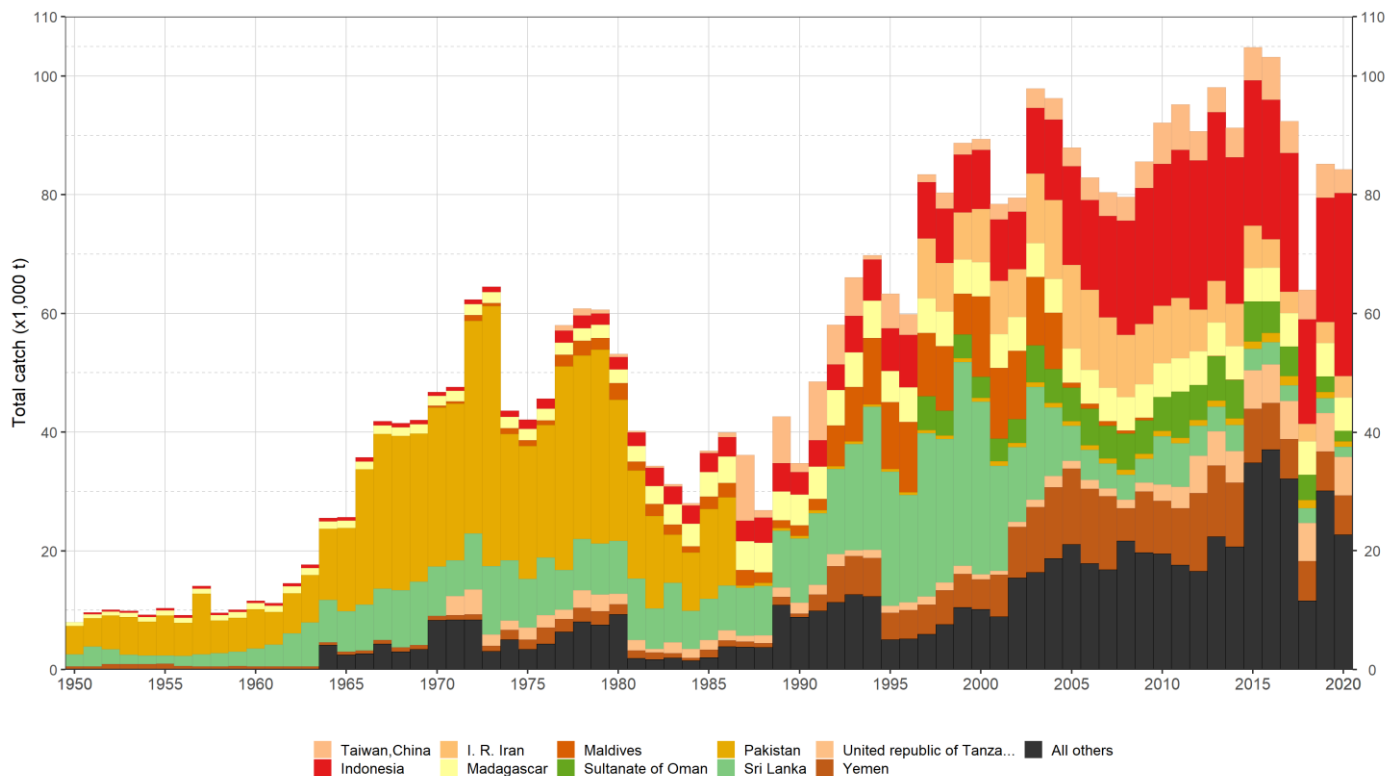


Figure 4: Annual time series of nominal catches (metric tons; t) of sharks and rays by fleet during 1950-2020

## Sharks and rays

### Changes from previous working party

Total annual catch levels of sharks and rays' species remained pretty stable with respect to the data previously available for the [WPEB17](#) assessment meeting of September 2021, with the only notable exceptions recorded for years between 2016 and 2019 (see [Fig. 5](#) and [Table 16](#)).

In particular:

- The total increase of ~4,0000 t recorded for 2019 is mainly caused by updates in catches reported after the WPEB17 by Mozambique and Seychelles
- The total decrease of ~300 t recorded for 2018 is mainly caused by updates in catches reported by Sri Lanka
- The total decrease of ~500 t recorded for 2017 is mainly caused by updates in catches reported by Sri Lanka

More in general:

- Minor changes in catch levels for non-CPCs (e.g., United Arab Emirates, Qatar) are due to revisions in catch estimates published by FAO for the concerned coastal states and reflected in the IOTC database accordingly



- Zero-sum changes in historical catches for Seychelles line and longline fisheries for the years 1998-2009 reflect a recent revision in gear attributions for the concerned fisheries, performed by the Secretariat in collaboration with national stakeholders and affecting also other species than just sharks and rays' ones



Figure 5: Differences in the available nominal catches (t) of sharks and rays' species between this WPEB and its previous session ([WPEB17](#) meeting held in September 2021)

### Vulnerability to fisheries

Levels of reported nominal catches for sharks and rays strongly vary with fishing gear and over time, but are generally increasing. Gillnets (not further classified) have historically been associated with the highest nominal catches and are currently responsible for almost 40% of reported catches of the species, followed by lines (handlines, coastal longlines and troll lines), which doubled the catches in the last two decades and currently represent around 49.5% of the reported catches (**Table 3**). Historically, longline fisheries contributed substantially to shark and ray catches from 1990 onwards and in recent years they rank as the third most relevant group of gears in terms of total catch levels reported for the species (**Fig. 6**).

Table 3: Nominal catches (metric tons; t) of shark and ray species by decade and fishery for the period 1950-2020. The background intensity color of each cell is directly proportional to the catch level

FISHERY	1950s	1960s	1970s	1980s	1990s	2000s	2010s	2020s
Purse seine   Other	0	4	0	0	0	24	360	362
Longline   Other	0	0	0	680	7,341	11,552	8,331	4,080
Longline   Fresh	0	0	48	187	1,697	2,980	3,350	2,499
Longline   Deep-freezing	0	3,333	1,634	1,843	4,251	5,051	6,966	4,369
Line   Coastal longline	0	0	0	3,454	5,702	12,003	21,358	29,853
Line   Trolling	783	1,262	2,379	4,168	6,220	6,239	9,435	9,677
Line   Handline	1,184	4,033	5,348	4,735	3,605	1,910	4,000	2,194
Baitboat	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	1
Gillnet	8,036	19,439	37,966	19,803	22,798	36,084	36,224	29,482
Other	0	0	5,846	4,198	13,684	9,960	1,687	1,740
Total	10,003	28,071	53,220	39,066	65,298	85,802	91,732	84,256

In terms of catch magnitude, gillnet fisheries are followed by longline fisheries (which contributed substantially to shark and ray catches in the 1990s) and by catches from handline and troll line fisheries, which have increased markedly in more recent years (Fig. 6).

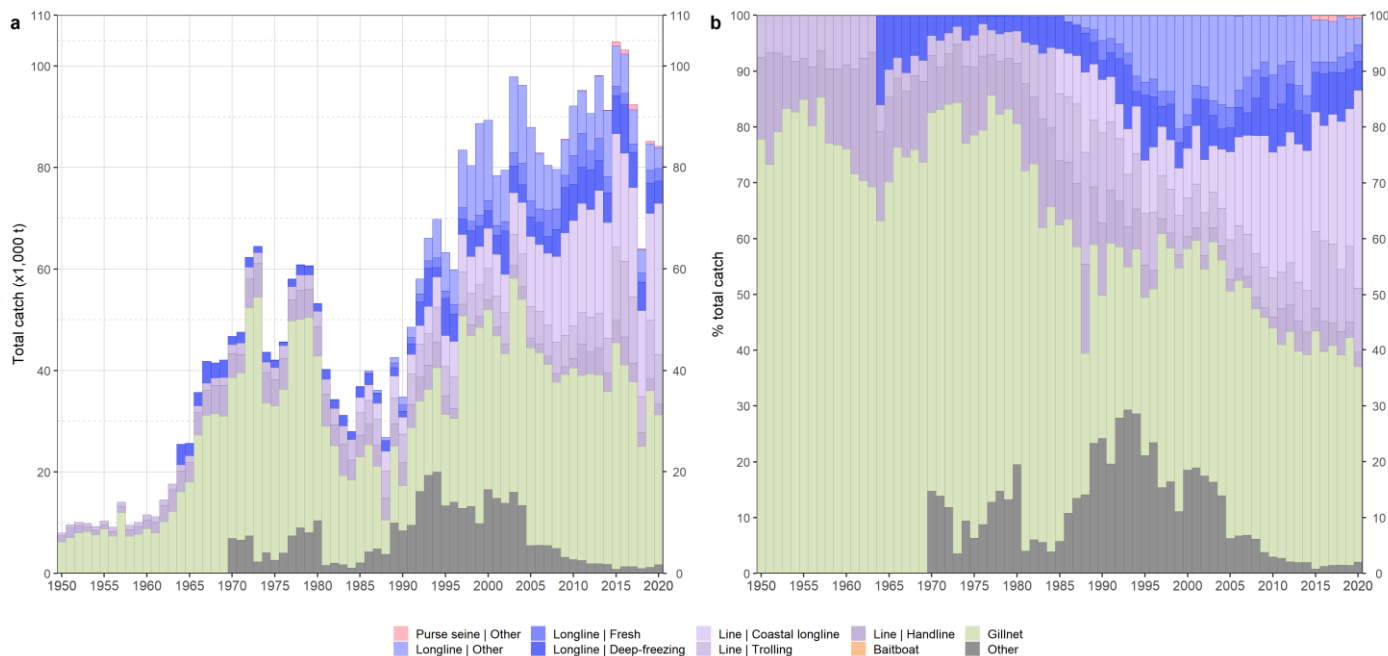


Figure 6: Annual time series of nominal absolute (a) and relative (b) catches (metric tons; t) of sharks and rays by fishery for the period 1950-2020. ‘Other’ corresponds to all other fisheries combined

Overall, while industrial longliners and drifting gillnetters are known for harvesting important amounts of pelagic sharks, the industrial purse seiners, pole-and-liners and vessels operating in coastal waters contribute less to the total retained catches reported for shark and rays species.

- **Baitboat fisheries:** shark catches reported since the beginning of the time series for the pole and line fisheries of Maldives and India are very low: the extent of shark catches taken by these fisheries has been shown to be not significant ([Miller et al. 2017](#)). In the case of Maldives, the negligible level of catches is also explained by national regulations that prevent retention of all shark species caught in their EEZ.
- **Gillnet fisheries:** the species of sharks and rays caught are thought to vary significantly depending on the area of operation of the gillnets ([Moazzam 2012](#)).
- **Gillnets operated in areas with low concentrations of pelagic sharks:** the gillnet fisheries of most coastal countries operate these gears in coastal waters, where the abundance of pelagic sharks is thought to be low.
- **Gillnets operated in areas with high concentrations of pelagic sharks:** gillnets operated in Sri Lanka, Indonesia and Yemen (waters around Socotra), despite being set in coastal areas, are likely to catch significant amounts of pelagic sharks ([Fahmi and Dharmadi 2015](#)).
- **Gillnets operated on the high seas:** vessels from Taiwan, China were using large-scale drifting gillnets (driftnets) from 1982 to 1992, before the use of this gear was banned worldwide, and catches of pelagic sharks from the fishery were very high during this period. Gillnetters from I.R. Iran and Pakistan have also been known for fishing on the high seas, but with lower catch rates: while initially setting in waters of the Arabian Sea, in recent years they expanded their range of operation to include the tropical waters of the western Indian Ocean and Mozambique Channel. The quantity of sharks caught by these fleets is thought to be relatively high, representing between 25–50% of the total combined catches of sharks and other species.
- **Gillnet/longline fishery of Sri Lanka:** between 1,200 and 3,200 vessels (with an average length of 12 m) operating a combination of gillnets and longlines have been harvesting important levels of pelagic sharks since the mid-1980s. Longlines are believed to be responsible for most of the catches of sharks in the period, which comprised ~45% of the total combined catch for all species in 1995, while declining to <2% in the late 2000s. The fleet has been shifting towards predominantly longline gear in recent years, but most catches are still reported as aggregates of the combined gears.
- **Fisheries using handlines:** the majority of fisheries using hand lines in the Indian Ocean operate these gears in coastal waters, so although the total proportion of sharks caught has been historically high, the number of pelagic sharks caught are thought to be low. The proportion of other species of sharks might change depending on the area fished and time of the day, as well as by the implementation of national regulations preventing the species from being retained onboard (e.g., Maldives).
- **Deep-freezing tuna longliners and fresh-tuna longliners:** catches of sharks are thought to represent between 10–40% of the total combined catch for all species in these fleets ([Huang and Liu 2010](#); [Oliver et al. 2015](#)). However, the level of retained catches of sharks (as currently recorded in the IOTC database) only make up a small proportion of the total catches of all species by industrial longline fleets. These catch series for sharks are therefore thought to be very incomplete. Nevertheless, levels of reporting have improved in recent years, following the implementation of catch monitoring schemes in different ports of landing of fresh-tuna longliners, and the recording of catches of main species of sharks in logbooks and observer programmes. The catches estimated, however, are unlikely to represent the total catches of sharks for these fisheries due to the paucity of information on levels of discards of sharks, which are thought to be high in some areas and for some species.
- **Freezing (fresh) swordfish longliners:** catches of sharks are thought to represent between 40–60% of the total combined catch for all species in these fleets ([Ariz et al. 2006](#); [Petersen et al. 2009](#)). The amount of sharks caught by longliners targeting swordfish in the IOTC area of competence has been increasing since the mid-1990s, with catches of sharks recorded for these fleets thought to be more realistic than those recorded for other longline fisheries. The high catch levels are thought to be due to:

- **Gear configuration and time fished:** vessels targeting swordfish use surface longlines and set the lines at dusk or during the night. Many pelagic sharks are thought to be abundant at these depths and most active during dusk or night hours;
  - **Area fished:** fleets targeting swordfish have been deploying most of the fishing effort in the Southwest Indian Ocean, in the vicinity of South Africa, southern Madagascar, Reunion and Mauritius, where high concentrations of sharks are thought to occur;
  - **Changes in the relative amounts of swordfish and sharks in the catches:** some vessels are known to alternate between targeting swordfish and sharks (particularly blue sharks) depending on the season, or when catch rates of swordfish are poor.
- **Industrial tuna purse seiners:** catches of sharks are thought to represent less than 0.5% of the total combined catch for all species and vary according the type of school association ([Amandè et al. 2012](#); [Fonteneau et al. 2013](#); [Clavareau et al. 2020](#)). Limited nominal catch data have been reported for the purse seine fleets but a large amount of information is available from observations of discards at sea ([Ruiz et al. 2018](#); [Grande et al. 2019](#)).
  - **Fisheries using troll line:** the majority of fisheries trolling in the Indian Ocean operate in coastal waters, so the amounts of pelagic sharks caught are thought to be low. The proportion of the total catch of tuna and tuna-like species that other species of shark make up might change depending on the area fished and the time of day.

### Species-specific trends (1950-2020)

Both species and gear resolution of nominal catch data for sharks and rays have improved over time. The proportion of reported catches identified to species or genus level has steadily increased since the 1980s to reach more than 44% in 2020 (**Fig. 7**).

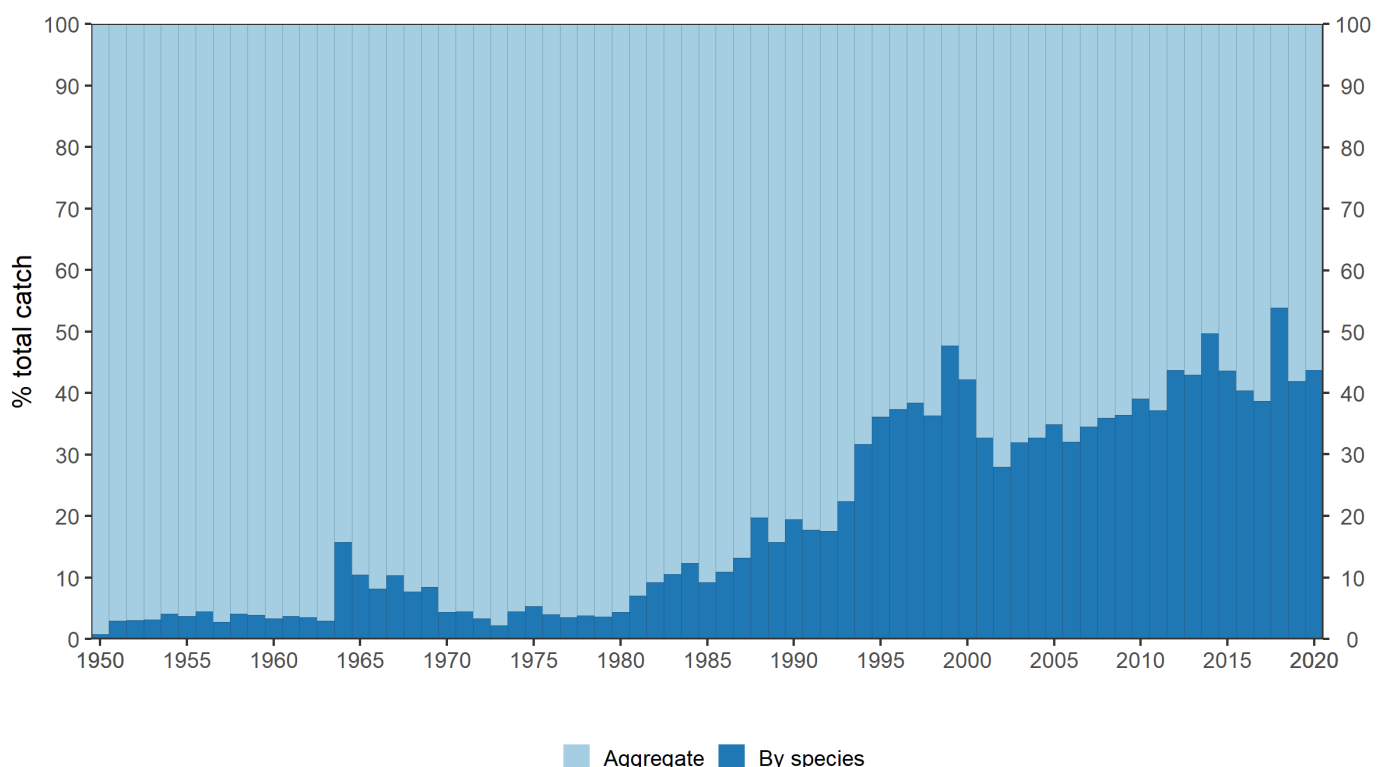


Figure 7: Annual breakdown (percentage; %) between shark and ray catches reported at species level and lower resolution (i.e., aggregate) level

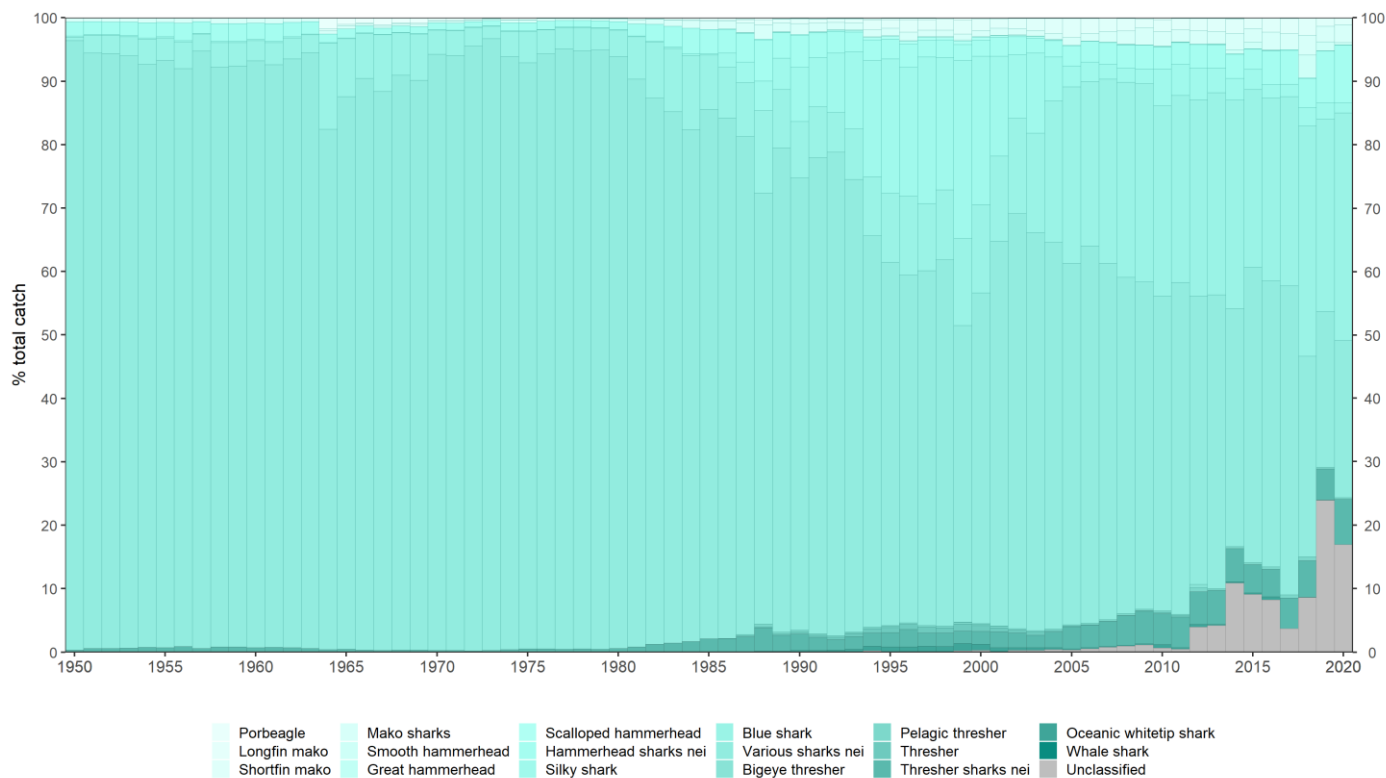


Figure 8: Annual percentage (%) of shark catches reported at species and lower resolution (i.e., aggregate) level. Unclassified = all other shark species' items not displayed in legend

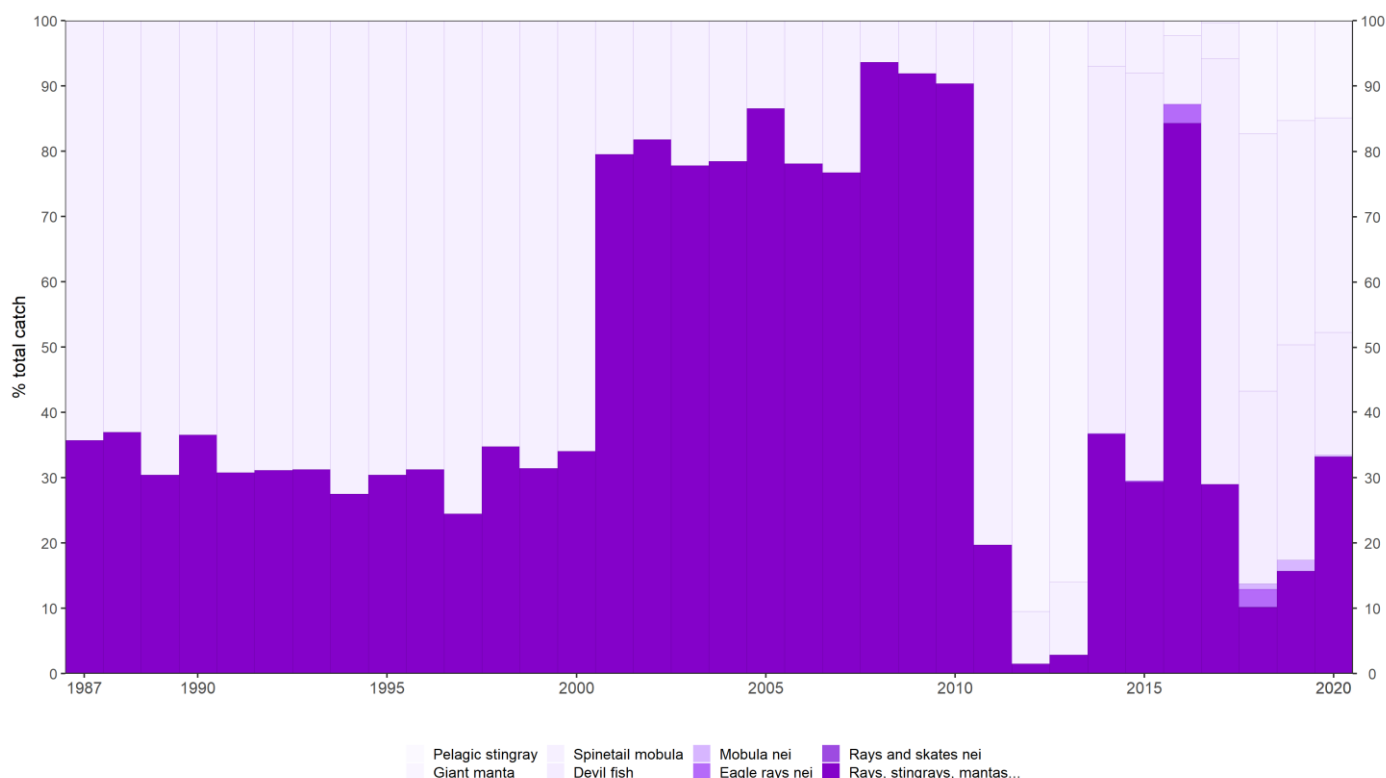


Figure 9: Annual percentage (%) of ray catches reported at species and lower resolution (i.e., aggregate) level

The significant reduction in the percentage of catches of aggregated shark species observed in 2018 was mainly due to India not reporting the usual level of annual catches for this species component. In 2019 and 2020, though, over 15,000 t of unclassified shark species per year were reported again by the gillnet and line fisheries of India.

Of the 56 shark and ray species reported at the species level in either the nominal catch or ROS data ([Appendix II](#)), blue shark (BSH) contributes to the large majority, comprising about 63% of catches during 1950-2020. Over the entire

period covered by the time series, silky shark (FAL) and shortfin mako shark (SMA) represented 23% and 5% of total catches of sharks and rays reported at species level, with all remaining species combined representing a small percentage overall.

When catches for shark species reported at the genus level are considered, i.e. when including catches reported for the [ASFIS](#) codes SPN (hammerhead sharks - *Sphyrna* spp.), THR (thresher sharks - *Alopias* spp.), and MAK (mako sharks - *Isurus* spp), the overall contribution of blue shark decreases to 50% over the period considered. The genera *Sphyrna* (SPK, SPL, SPN, SPZ), *Alopias* (ALV, BTH, PTH, THR), and *Isurus* (MAK, SMA, LMA) contribute to about 10%, 10%, and 8% of the total shark and ray catches reported at species and genus level, respectively (**Fig. 10**).

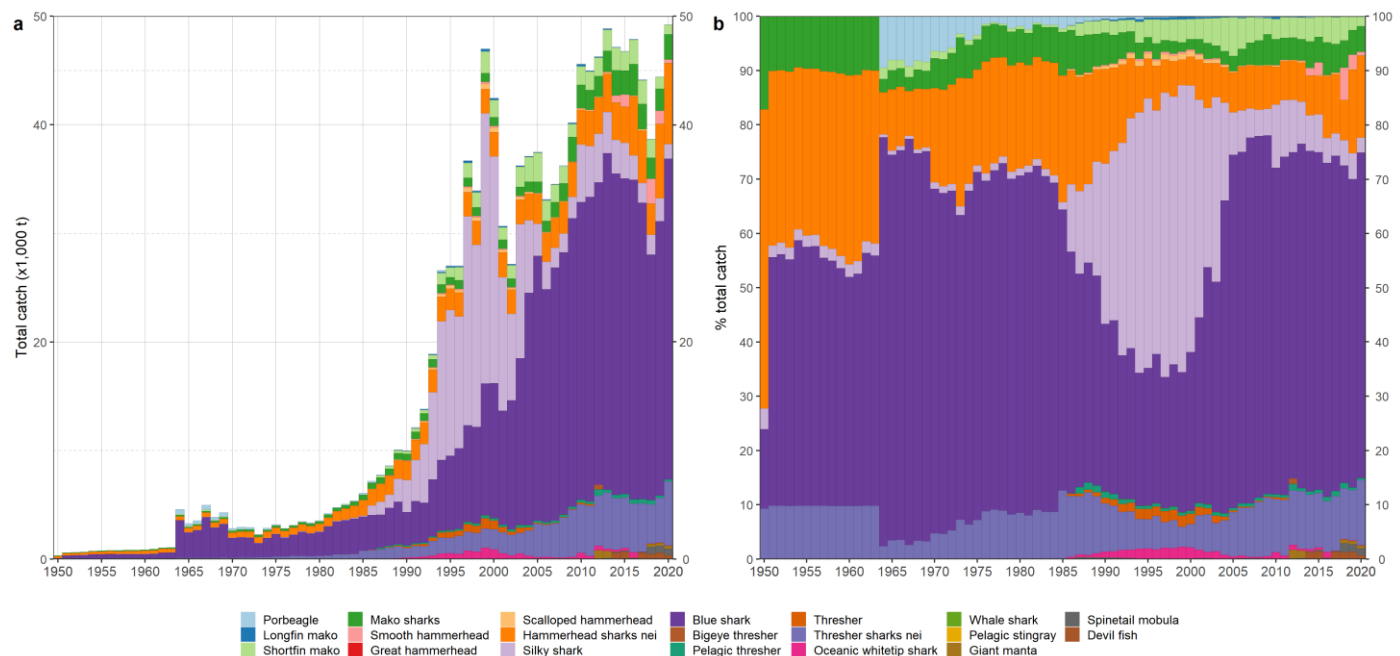


Figure 10: Annual time series of nominal absolute (a) and relative (b) catches (metric tons; t) of sharks and rays by species for the catch component of the main sharks and rays reported at species and genus level for the period 1950-2020

The temporal species-specific trends in annual nominal catches of sharks and rays reported to the Secretariat strongly differ between species (**Fig. 11**). Blue sharks show a steady increase in reported catches from the early 1950s, exceeding 31,000 t in 2013 before showing a drop to about 25,000 t in 2019, to increase again in 2020. It is noteworthy that the catches of blue sharks are predominantly accounted for by the coastal longline fisheries of Indonesia, whose catch levels are re-estimated by the Secretariat from the total reported catches of sharks by applying an average species composition derived from historical literature and catch samples ([White 2007](#); [Moreno et al. 2012](#)). Based on these estimates, Indonesia would contribute to about 61.2% of the total catches of Indian Ocean blue shark in recent years, with a mean annual catch of 16,436 t between 2016 and 2020. Such high catch levels in coastal areas should be considered with caution regarding the fact that blue sharks are oceanic sharks although they can also occasionally occur in shallower waters ([Nakano and Stevens 2008](#); [Carvalho et al. 2011](#); [Coelho et al. 2018](#)).

A similar temporal trend observed in the nominal catch series of silky shark (FAL), oceanic whitetip shark (OCS), common thresher (ALV), scalloped hammerhead (SPL), and longfin mako (LMA) is driven by the Sri Lankan longline-gillnet fisheries. For these species, catches show an increasing trend from the early 1990s, that reaches a peak in 1999 before showing a steady decline in relation to the adoption of management measures imposing the requirement for fins to be landed with the shark carcasses ([Herath 2012](#)).

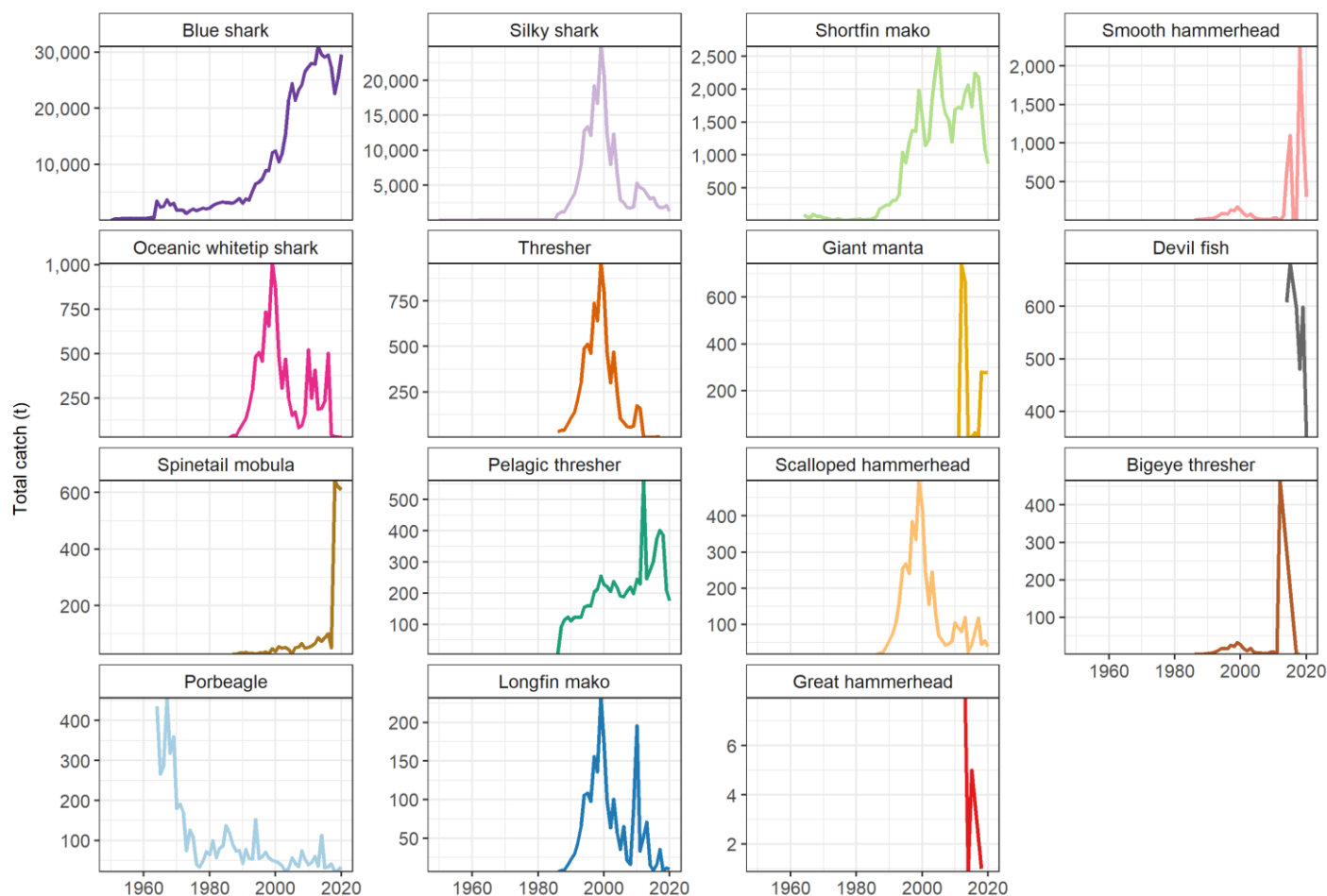


Figure 11: Total nominal catches (metric tons; t) of the main sharks and rays reported at species level for all fleets for the period 1950-2020

Longline fleets predominantly reported catches of blue shark, followed by mako and silky sharks, with catches of handline gears also being dominated by blue shark, followed by thresher sharks. Purse seine catches are dominated by silky shark while troll lines reported relatively high catches of hammerhead sharks.

Reporting by species is very uncommon for gillnet fleets, where the majority of shark catches are reported as aggregates.

### Recent fishery features (2016-2020)

Most tuna and tuna-like fisheries of the Indian Ocean show a decline in reported catches of shark and ray species in recent years, with particularly low catch levels reported by India in 2018 for their gillnet, line, and purse seine fisheries operating in Indian coastal waters. Catches from line fisheries decreased in recent years with the exception of Indonesia, and catches from longline fisheries also showed a decrease between 2016 and 2020 (Fig. 12a,c). The decrease observed in gillnet nominal catches of sharks and rays during 2016-2020 concerns most fleets, with the exception of Yemen and Tanzania gillnet fisheries for which catches have been repeatedly estimated to be at the same constant levels in absence of data officially reported to the Secretariat (Fig. 12b).



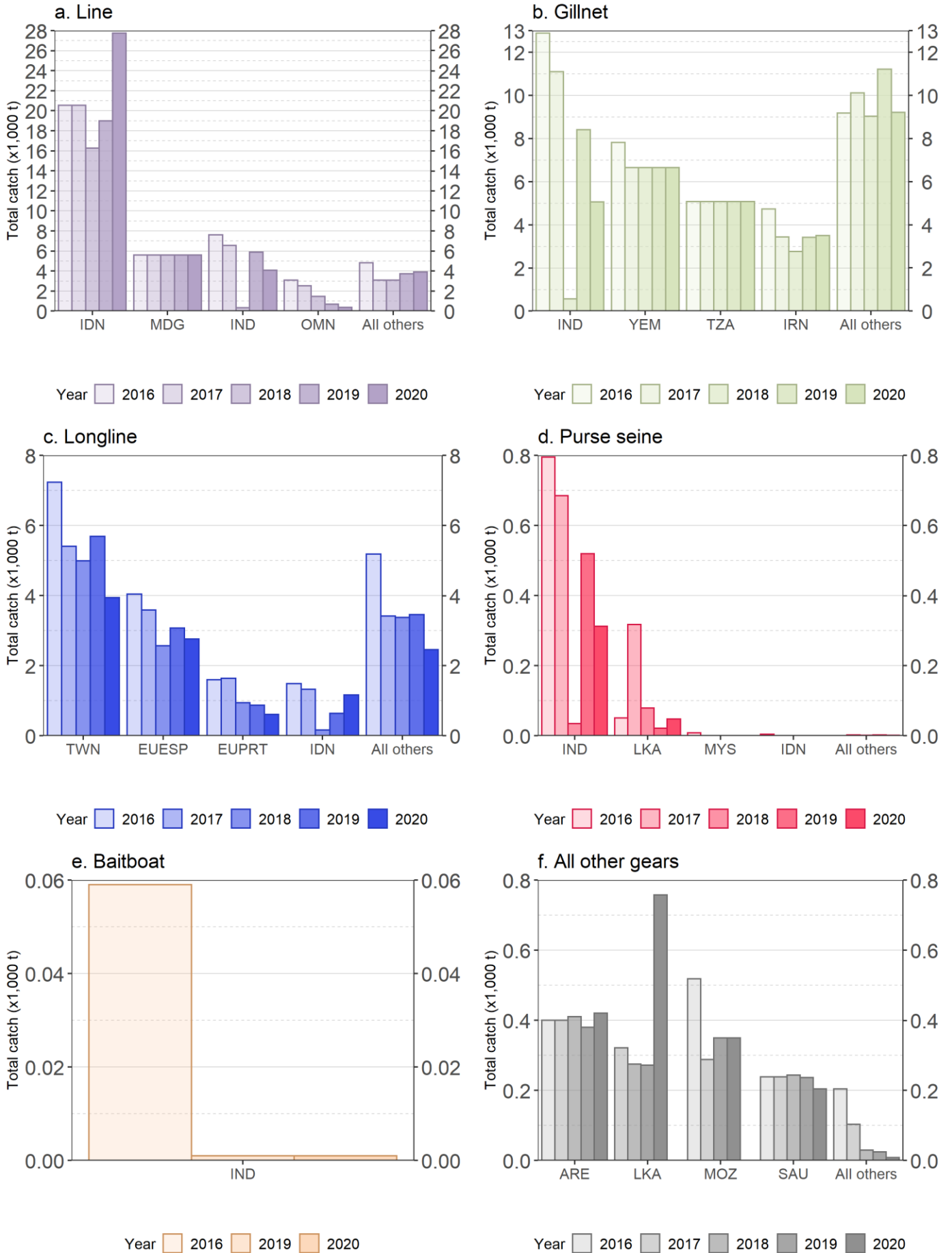


Figure 12: Annual catch trends (metric tons; t) of shark and ray species by fishery group between 2016 and 2020

During 2016-2020, Indonesian fisheries contributed an average of about 27% of total retained catches of sharks and rays, with a mean annual catch estimated to about 23,000 t and mainly accounted for by coastal longliners (**Fig. 13**). India also accounts for relatively high levels of catches of sharks (10,000-23,000 t per year, excluding 2018) which were mainly caught with gillnets and trolling lines. Both fleets account for 43% of the total catch in recent years with nominal catches of sharks from the coastal fisheries of Yemen and Tanzania (i.e., gillnets, hand lines and trolling lines) also thought to be important although highly uncertain.

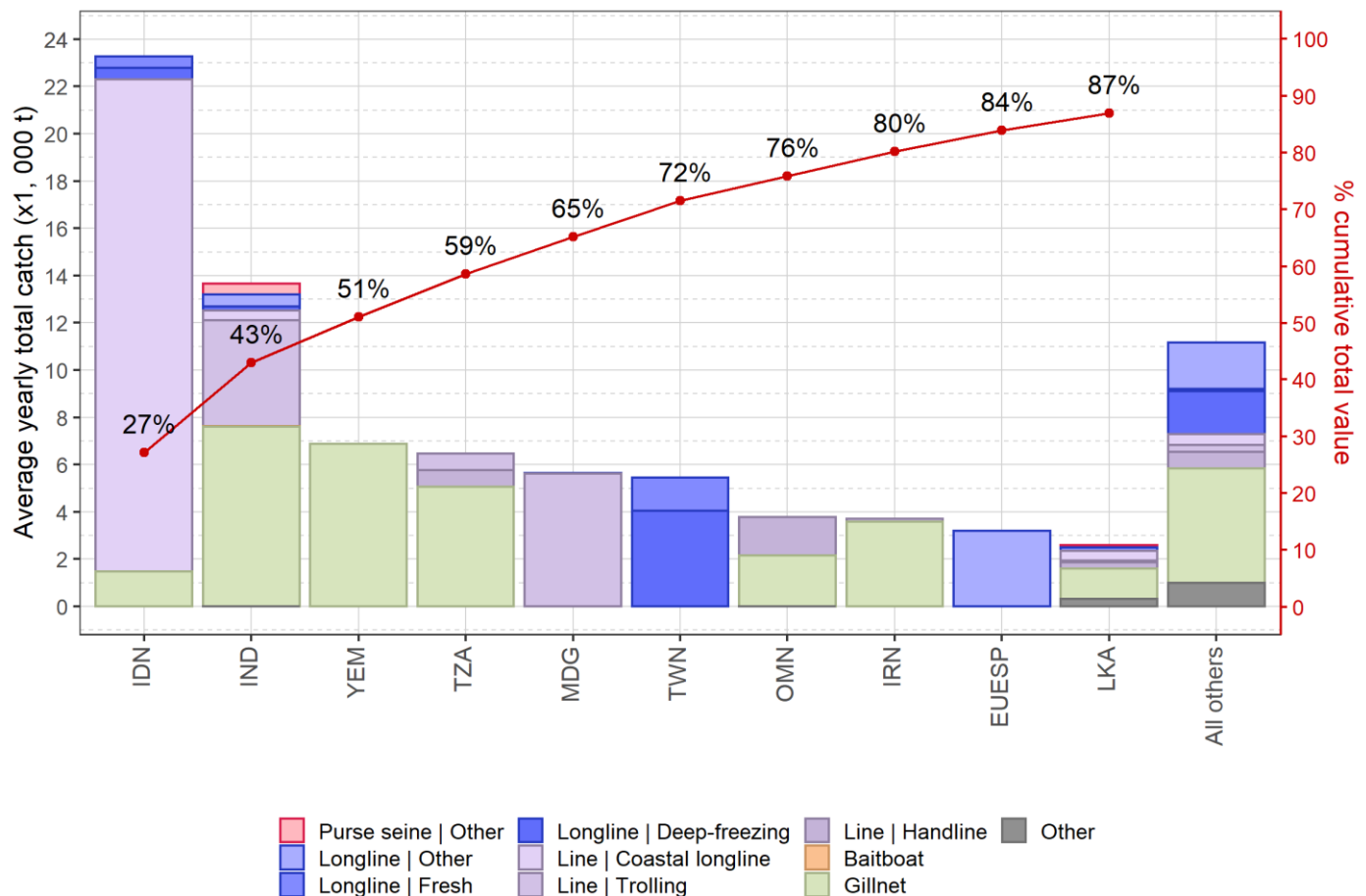


Figure 13: Mean nominal catches (metric tons; t) of sharks and rays over the period 2016–2020, by fishery and fleet ordered according to the importance of catches. The solid line indicates the cumulative percentage of the total combined catches of the species for the fleets concerned

### Discarding practices

In the absence of data on total discard for most fisheries (see section [Uncertainties in catch data](#)), information on discarding practices can only be inferred from observer data collected by the ROS programme. The distribution of shark interactions with pelagic longline fisheries, as available through the ROS data for the period 2009-2020 only covers a small part of the longline fishing grounds (**Fig. 14**). This is mainly due to the non-availability of observer data (in a format suitable for analysis) from major longline fisheries such as Taiwan, China, China, EU, Spain, EU, Portugal, Seychelles, and Korea as well as an almost complete lack of observer data from minor longline fisheries. 5% of the interactions in this data set refers to species reported in aggregate form (e.g., “various sharks NEI”). Furthermore, information on fate and condition at release is lacking for more than 2% and 18% of the recorded interactions, respectively.

It is also important to highlight how restrictions following the onset of the CoViD pandemic have had a huge impact on the number of observers deployed onboard during 2020, therefore reducing the coverage of the information available in the ROS database.

The species composition of longline catches appears to vary between the western and eastern parts of the Indian Ocean, although blue shark dominates the catches in both areas (**Fig. 14a**). Most sharks are discarded at sea and the fate of the species seems to depend on the fishery and fishing grounds, with most sharks being discarded when caught

around Reunion Island and Madagascar (as well as in the eastern Indian Ocean, to a lesser extent) and retained when caught in the waters off South Africa (**Fig. 14c**). Information collected by the observers on the condition at release indicates that about 43% of all sharks discarded at sea were alive: little information is known about post-release survival rates in Indian Ocean longline fisheries but experiments conducted in other oceans with satellite tags have shown that the mortality of the most common sharks discarded at sea varies around 15-20% ([Musyl and Gilman 2018](#); [Schaefer et al. 2021](#)).

Pelagic stingray largely dominates the longline catches of rays by contributing to 99% of all rays' interactions observed at sea (**Fig. 14b**). A large majority of these are reported to have been discarded at sea, with less than 50% of the individuals being released alive (**Fig. 14d**).

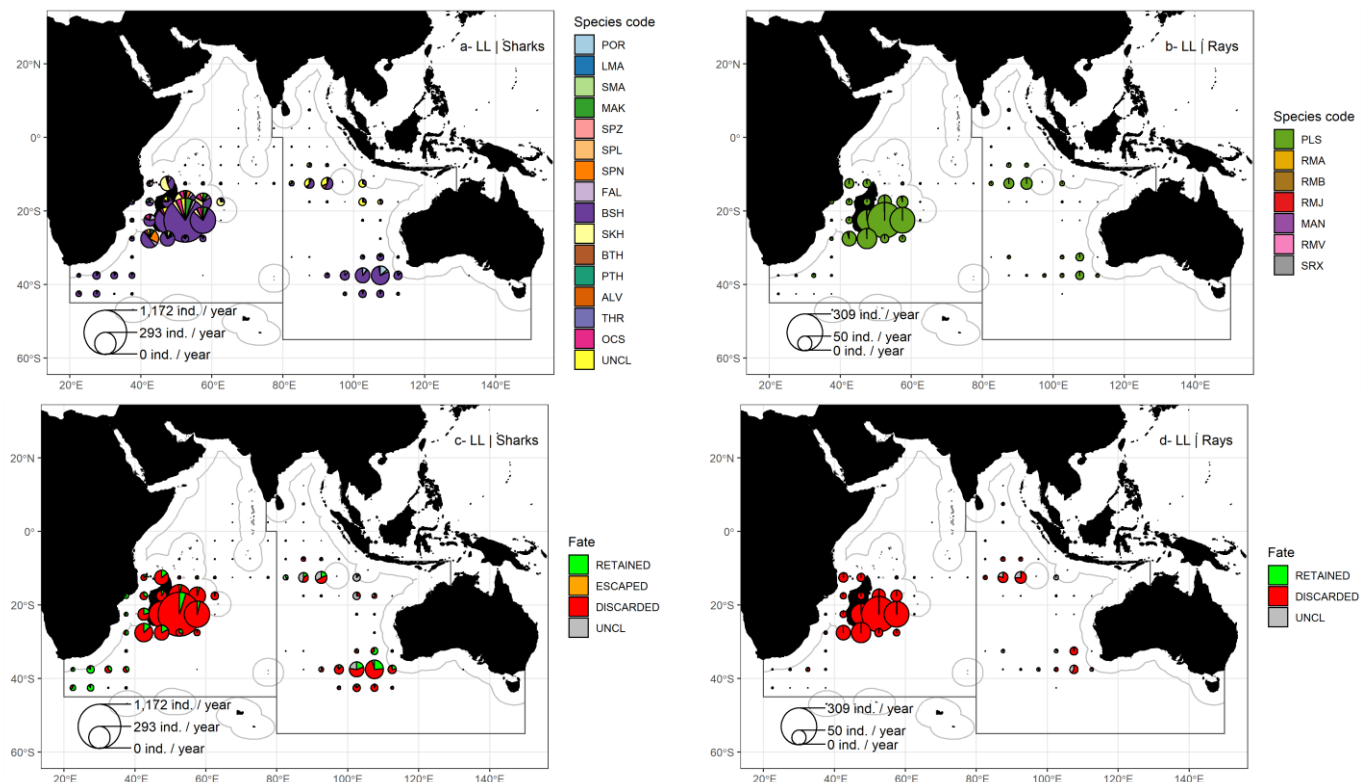


Figure 14: Mean annual number of shark and ray interactions (numbers of individuals per year) with deep-freezing longline fisheries by species (a & b) and fate (c & d) as reported to the Secretariat during the period 2009-2020

Observer data collected onboard purse seiners show the large dominance of silky shark interactions, which represent 97% of all shark interactions recorded by the fishery in the data available to the Secretariat for the period 2005-2020 (**Fig. 15a**). Oceanic whitetip shark comes second with about 1.5% of all shark interactions for the fishery, while most reports of bycatch of bull sharks might be due to errors of species identification. Most sharks are discarded at sea (**Fig. 15c**) following the guidelines of best practices developed over the last decade by the fishing companies ([Poisson et al. 2014b](#); [Grande et al. 2019](#)). The overall mortality rate of silky sharks caught with purse seine in the Indian Ocean has been estimated to be at around 80%, including a mortality rate of about 50% for the sharks released alive at sea ([Poisson et al. 2014a](#)).

Overall, few interactions with rays are observed in the purse seine fishery (**Fig. 15b**) and almost all rays are discarded at sea (**Fig. 15d**). As for longline, pelagic stingray is the dominant species with a total of 162 interactions reported. Among the pelagic stingrays for which the condition at release was known and recorded, the percentage of dead individuals was more than 60%, an apparent mortality rate (i.e. excluding the additional mortality after release) consistent with that reported for this species from a larger observer data set collected onboard the EU and associated purse seine fishery ([Clavareau et al. 2020](#)).

Purse seine interactions with mobulid rays, i.e. reef manta (RMA), giant manta (RMB), Spinetail mobula (RMJ), devil fish (RMM), and Chilean devil ray (RMT) also occur in the Indian Ocean ([Martin 2020](#)), with an apparent mortality of about 35% among the 188 mobulid rays reported with a known condition at release.

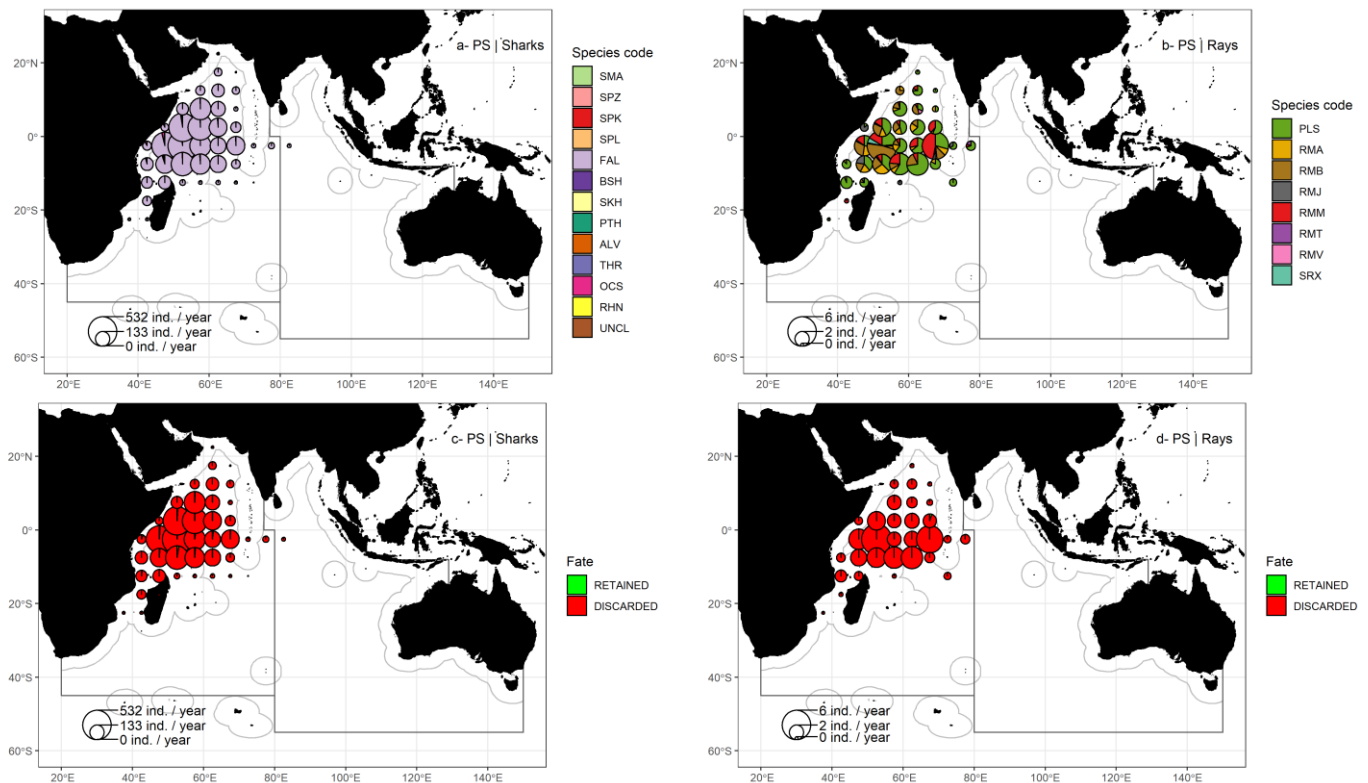


Figure 15: Mean annual number of shark and ray interactions (numbers of individuals per year) with large-scale purse seine fisheries by species (a & b) and fate (c & d) as reported to the Secretariat during the period 2005-2020

### Size composition of the catch

There are two major reporting sources of size data for sharks and rays: 1) length/weight data by species, stratified by year, fleet, type of fishery, month, and 5x5 degrees grid, as per IOTC [Res. 15/02](#) and to be reported according to the IOTC guidelines and through the recommended [form 4SF](#), and 2) length/weight data collected through the Regional Observer Scheme programme ([Res. 11/04](#)).

Size data can be collected at sea by fishermen or observers and at landing sites by staff from research institutions or the industry, and no size data derived from the analysis of pictures or videos collected with Electronic Monitoring systems are currently available to the IOTC Secretariat.

[Res. 15/02](#) states that “size data for longline fleets may be provided as part of the Regional Observer Scheme where such fleets have at least 5% observer coverage of all fishing operations”. Size data collected by observers could then have been reported twice to the Secretariat, although at different levels of spatio-temporal resolution, i.e., once per year, through regular submissions of fishery statistics stratified by fleet, gear, grid and month, and (when available) through the more detailed ROS data sets, which include information recorded by day / hour and exact location of capture.

The number of size samples for sharks and rays reported according to [Res. 15/02](#) varies greatly between species, fisheries, and fleets, with 18% of available size data collected by observers at sea. Blue sharks, which are mainly caught with longlines, represent 80% of all size samples ( $n = 248,212$ ). About 15,000 size samples are available for shortfin mako and silky shark while the number of samples decreases dramatically for the other shark species and almost no size sample is available for rays (**Table 4**).

Also, a total of 20,768 samples have been reported for species groups (SKH, MSK, MAK, THR), which is of limited use when the species composition of the aggregates is unknown.

Table 4: Total number of fish size samples collected as per Res. 15/02 and reported at species level for shark and ray species covering the period 2005-2020 through IOTC forms 4SF or equivalent. Only species with more than 20 samples are shown. N\_STD = number of samples collected by fishermen or enumerators at landing; N\_OBS = number of samples collected by observers)

Species code	Species name	Initial year	Final year	N_STD	N_OBS	N_TOT	%
BSH	Blue shark	2005	2020	200,940	47,272	248,212	79.70
FAL	Silky shark	2005	2020	19,800	1,193	20,993	6.74
SMA	Shortfin mako	2005	2020	11,393	4,189	15,582	5.00
POR	Porbeagle	2007	2020	623	1,913	2,536	0.81
CCL	Blacktip shark	2007	2020	931	0	931	0.30
ALV	Thresher	2017	2020	511	0	511	0.16
OCS	Oceanic whitetip shark	2007	2020	236	237	473	0.15
BLR	Blacktip reef shark	2007	2017	335	0	335	0.11
PLS	Pelagic stingray	2013	2018	163	56	219	0.07
BTH	Bigeye thresher	2005	2020	88	97	185	0.06
SPL	Scalloped hammerhead	2007	2020	171	4	175	0.06
PTH	Pelagic thresher	2013	2020	145	9	154	0.05
PSK	Crocodile shark	2007	2017	8	127	135	0.04
SPZ	Smooth hammerhead	2016	2018	64	2	66	0.02
DUS	Dusky shark	2015	2015	56	0	56	0.02
LMA	Longfin mako	2007	2019	2	36	38	0.01

For the shark species with a substantial sample size, fork length distributions show strong variability and spikes for some fisheries, particularly in the data collected for blue sharks by longline fisheries other than “deep-freezing” and “fresh”, i.e., those targeting swordfish and sharks (**Fig 16**). Size data from deep-freezing longliners are consistent between observer and non-observer data for both blue shark (BSH) and porbeagle (POR), indicating a median fork length of about 170 cm (i.e., ~30.7 kg) and 90 cm (i.e., ~9.2 kg), respectively (**Fig 16a-b**). Blue sharks caught by coastal longliners of Sri Lanka and Indonesia are dominated by small sharks, described by a median fork length of about 120 cm (~10 kg) (**Fig 16a**).

Size data collected for shortfin mako (SMA) by observers onboard deep-freezing longliners show a distribution described by a median fork length of 177.5 cm, which is larger than the median of the sizes collected by other enumerators (162 cm) (**Fig 16c**). Spatial information shows that observer samples for this species mostly come from southern latitudes (south of 20°S) while other size data mainly come from the central and south western Indian Ocean, which might explain the differences in distributions beside suggesting some size-dependent variability in the spatio-temporal distribution of shortfin mako that needs further investigation.

Finally, size data collected for silky shark (FAL) caught with deep-freezing and fresh longline show quite similar distributions described by a median fork length of about 145 cm (~31.9 kg) (**Fig 16d**). Recent information available for silky sharks (FAL) caught by Sri Lankan coastal longliners and gillnetters shows these sharks are smaller than those caught with longline, having a median fork lengths of about 130 cm (~23.2 kg) and 115 cm (~16.2 kg), respectively.

Few data are available at the IOTC Secretariat for silky sharks caught and discarded at sea by purse seiners: those available indicate that measured individuals are all juveniles with a median fork length of about 90 cm (~7.9 kg). This pattern is confirmed by a larger data set (>20,000 fish) collected onboard EU purse seiners during 2005-2017 which indicates that most silky sharks are caught with purse seine when in association with drifting floating objects and FADs in particular (Clavareau et al. 2020).

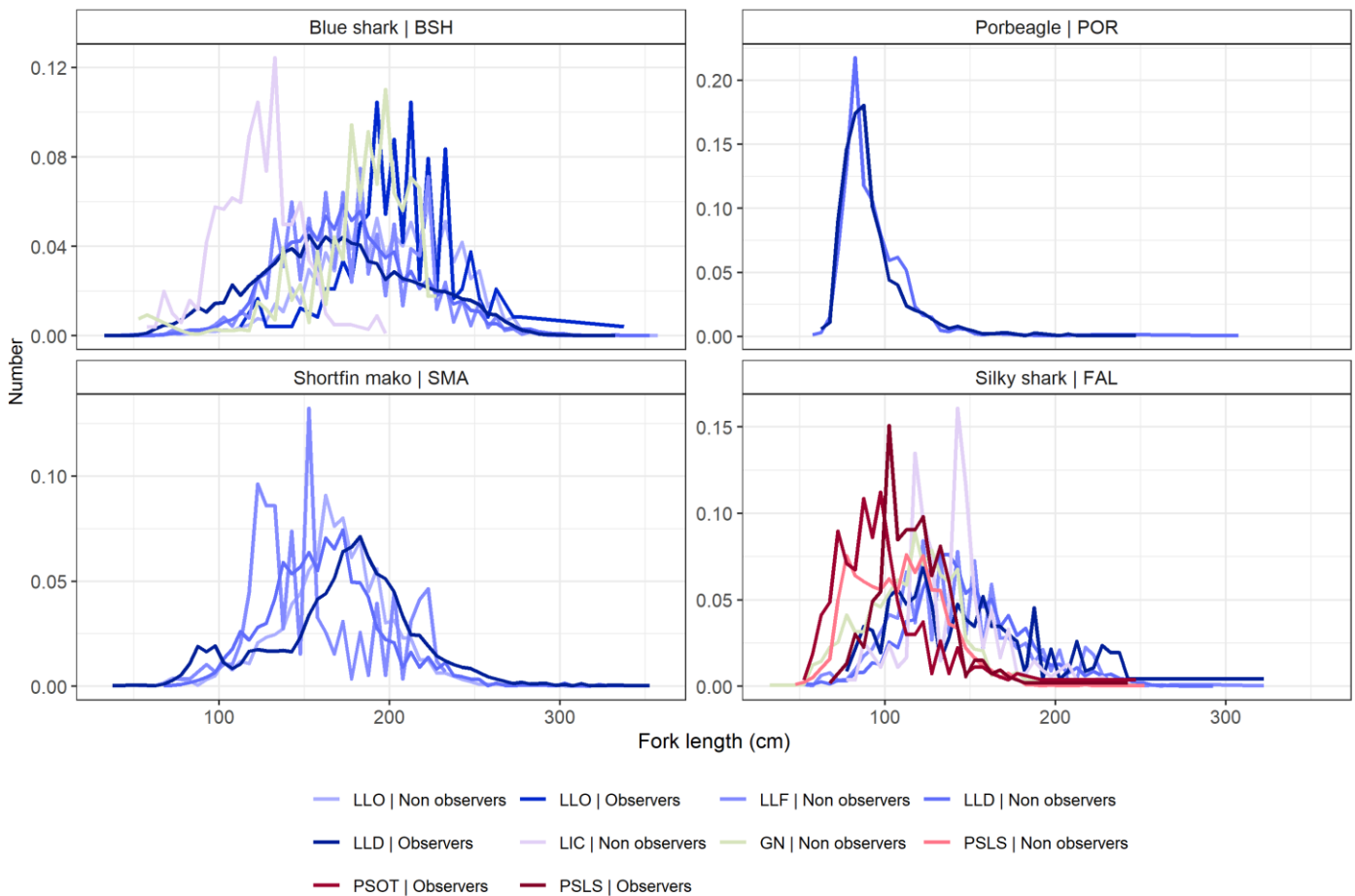


Figure 16: Relative distribution of fork lengths (cm) by 5 cm classes by fishery and source of information (i.e., observers vs. fishermen or enumerators) for the four shark species with more than 200 fish samples by fishery available after conversion of raw size data into fork length when required

There are some major outstanding issues in the reporting of size data:

- **Gillnet fisheries of I.R. Iran and Pakistan:** to date, I.R. Iran and Pakistan have not reported size frequency data of sharks species caught by their gillnet fisheries;
- **Longline fisheries of India, Malaysia, and Oman:** to date, these countries have seldom or not at all reported size frequency data of shark species caught by their longline fisheries. In 2018 and 2019 Madagascar reported size frequency data for blue shark and smooth hammerhead shark, while Indonesia has reported size-frequency data for shark species for their fresh-tuna longline fleet collected by scientific observers (2018) and through logbooks (2019-2020);
- **Coastal fisheries of India, Indonesia, Madagascar, and Yemen:** to date, these countries have seldom or not at all reported size-frequency data for their coastal fisheries. Madagascar reported size frequency data for blue shark, silky shark, and smooth hammerhead shark for 2018-2020, and Indonesia for blue shark and silky shark for 2019-2020.

Furthermore, the IOTC Secretariat must use length-age keys, length-weight keys, ratios of fin-to-body weight, and processed weight-to-live weight keys for sharks from other oceans due to the limited amount of biological data



available: this situation could be potentially addressed in the medium to long term by guaranteeing a consistent increase in scientific observer data submissions according to ROS standards and requirements.

### Spatial information on sharks and rays' catches

Geo-referenced catches of sharks and rays are reported both in number of fish and total weight, and generally represent only a subset of the nominal catches reported by fleet and gear for each species. Due to the general lack of information on the size composition of the catch, these cannot be converted into a common unit and therefore spatial distribution maps of catches are provided both in numbers and in weight. Overall, the distribution of the catches of sharks and rays shows the increasing improvements of data reporting over time, with data becoming available for more shark and ray species from an increasing number of CPCs and fisheries over the last four decades.

During the 1980s and 1990s, most spatial information available on retained catches of sharks and rays came from longliners of Taiwan, China and Korea and from gillnetters of Pakistan (Figs. 17-18a-b). All nominal catches reported during the 1980s were aggregated sharks (SKH) while catches started to be reported at species and genus levels throughout the 1990s for blue shark (BSH), oceanic whitetip shark (OCS), silky shark (FAL), shortfin mako (SMA), thresher sharks (THR), and hammerhead sharks (SPN).

During the 2000s, important levels of sharks and rays' catches were reported for the handline fishery of Yemen in addition to the catches taken by longline and gillnet fisheries from several other CPCs (Figs. 18c). The number of CPCs reporting information on retained catches of sharks and rays increased throughout the 2000s and 2010s as well as the proportion of catch reported at species level (Figs. 19-20). In 2020, aggregated species represented less than 14% of the total geo-referenced catches reported in number and less than 14% of those reported in weight.

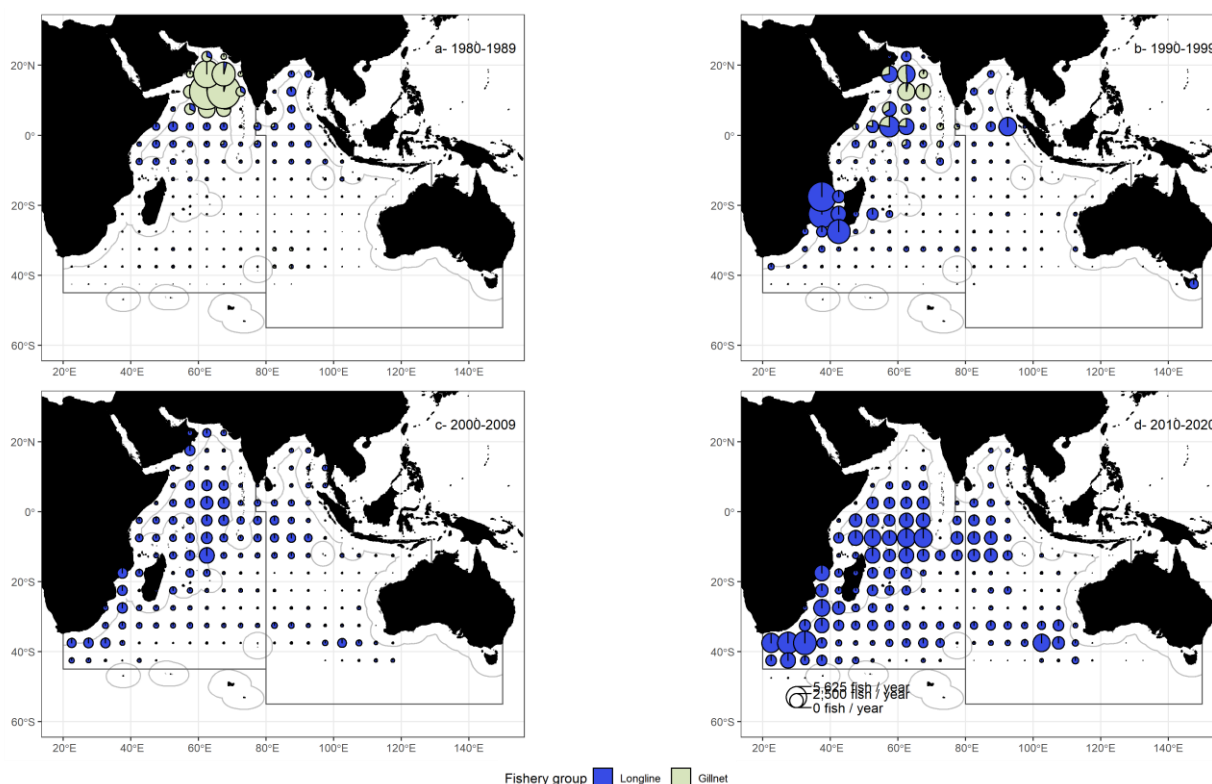


Figure 17: Mean annual retained catches by number of sharks and rays by fishery group and decade reported to the Secretariat covering the period 1980-2020



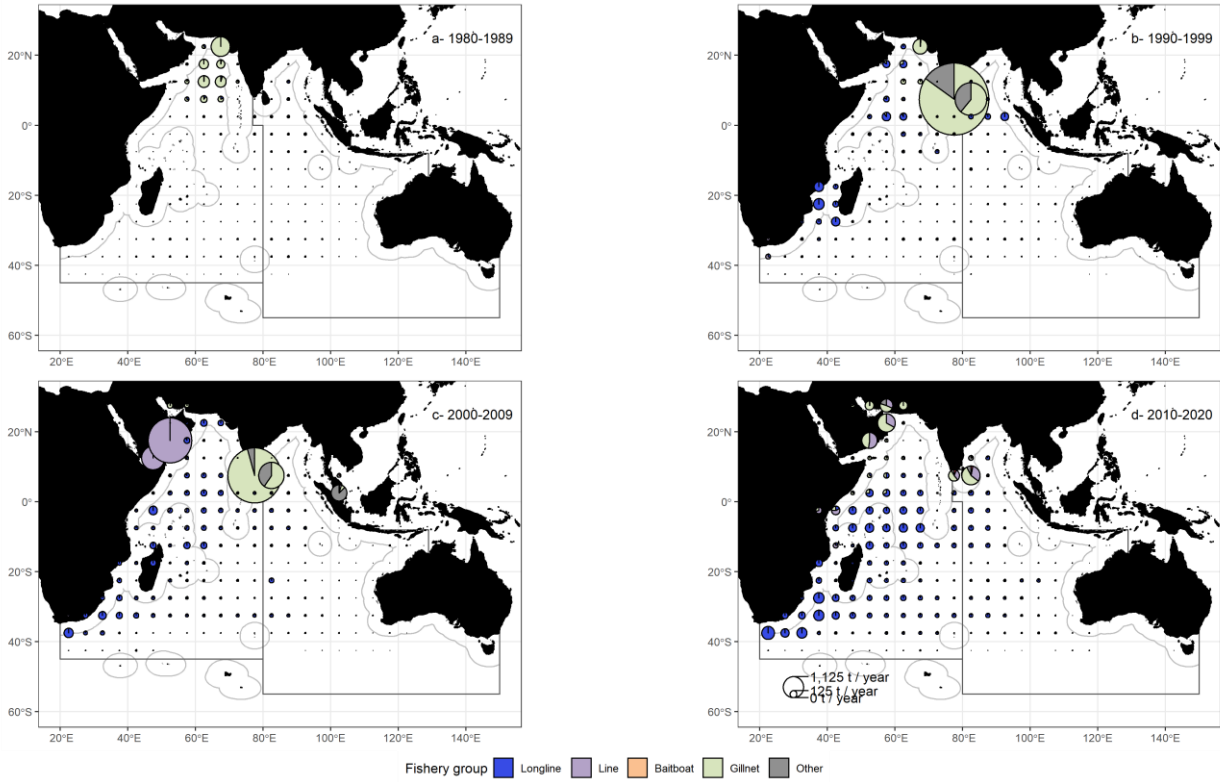


Figure 18: Mean annual retained catches by weight (t) of sharks and rays by fishery group and decade reported to the Secretariat covering the period 1980-2020

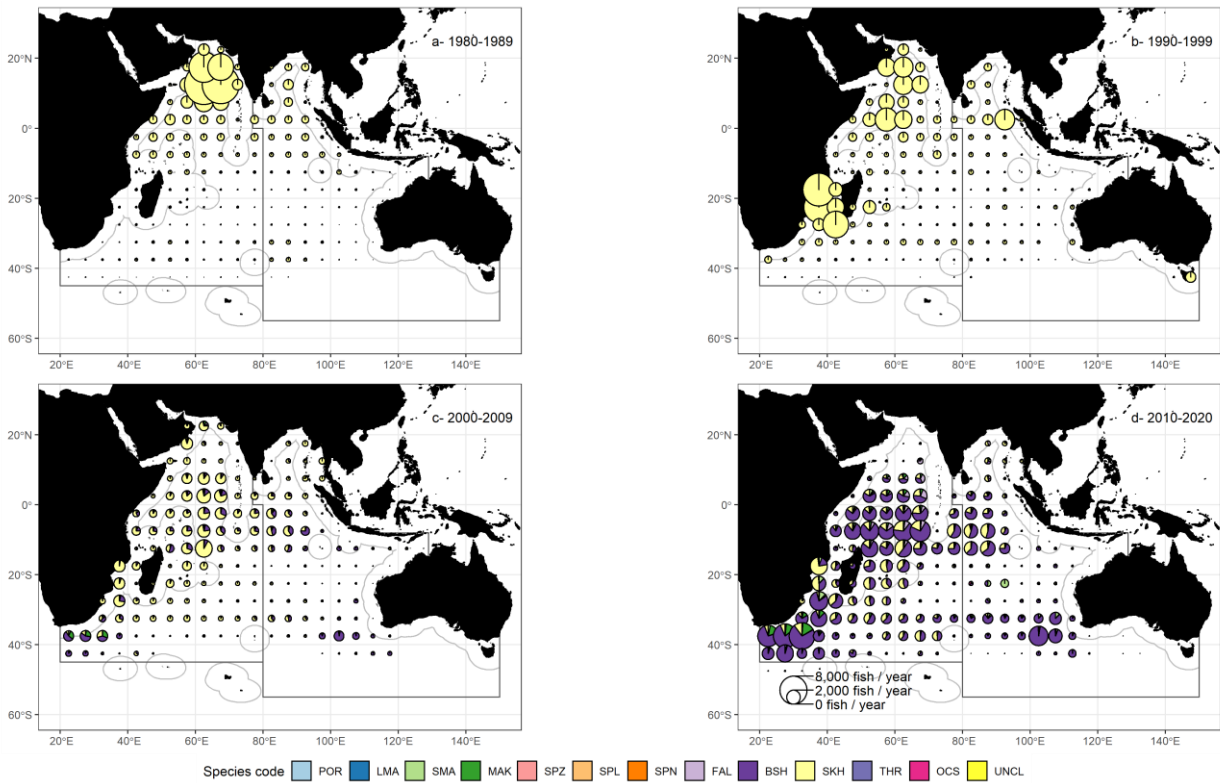


Figure 19: Mean annual retained catches by number of sharks and rays by species and decade reported to the Secretariat covering the period 1980-2020

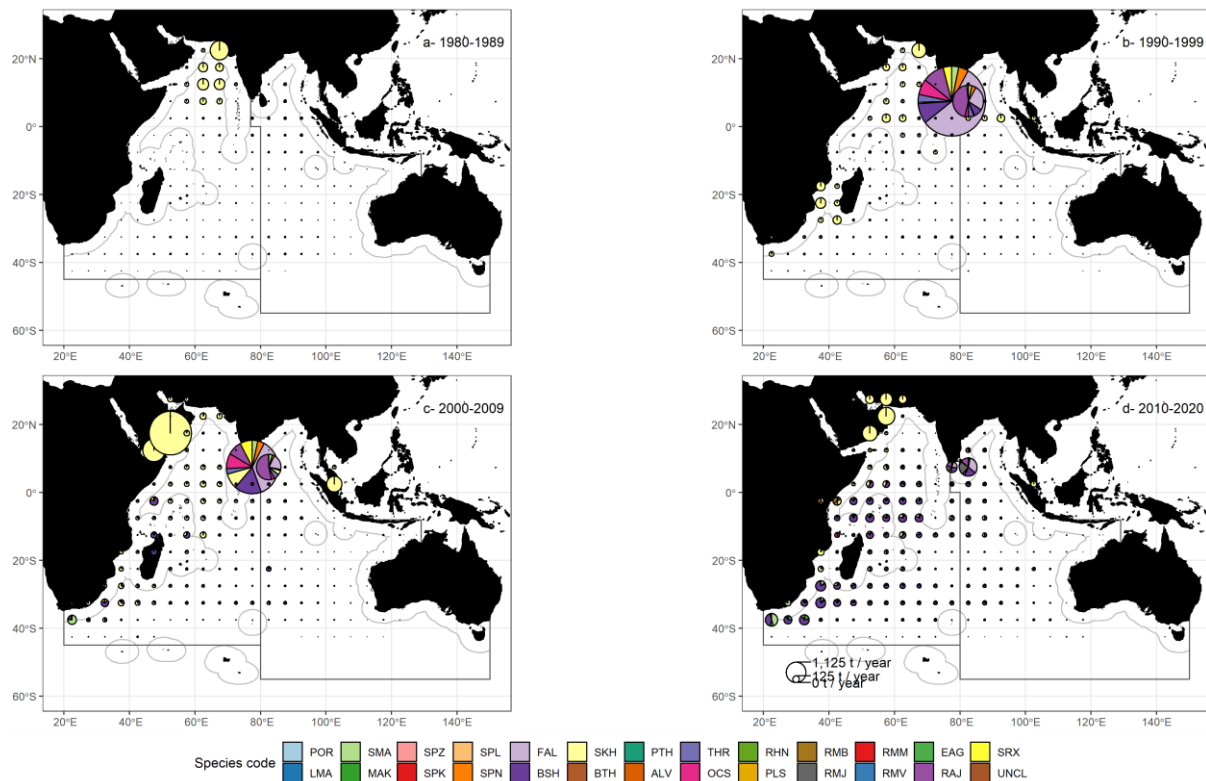


Figure 20: Mean annual retained catches by weight (t) of sharks and rays by species and decade reported to the Secretariat covering the period 1980-2020. Sri Lanka reported high levels of shark catches during the 1990s

### Uncertainties in catch and effort data

The estimation of catch and effort for sharks and rays in the Indian Ocean is compromised by the paucity and inaccuracy of the data originally reported by some CPCs.

#### *Unreported catches*

Although some fleets have been operating since the early 1950s, there are many cases where historical catches have gone unreported as many countries were not collecting fishery statistics in years prior to the 1970s. It is therefore thought that important catches of sharks and rays might have gone unrecorded in several countries. Also, there still are several fleets not reporting on their interactions with bycatch species, despite data showing that other fleets using similar gears and with comparable fishing patterns report high catch rates of bycatch species.

Some fleets have also been noted to report catches only for those species that have been specifically identified by the Commission and do not report catches of other species, not even in aggregate form: this creates problems for the estimation of total catches of all sharks and rays and hinders the possibility of further disaggregating catches originally provided as species groups.

#### *Errors in reported catches*

For the fleets that do report interactions, there still are several issues with estimates of total volumes of biomass caught. In fact, reported data tend to refer only to retained catches rather than total catches, with discard levels that are often severely under-reported or not available at all. While [IOTC Res. 15/02](#) explicitly calls for the provision of discard data for the most commonly caught elasmobranch species, very little information has been received so far by the Secretariat. To date the EU (Spain and UK prior to BREXIT), Japan and Taiwan, China, have not provided estimates of total discards of sharks by species for their longline fisheries, although all are now reporting discards in their observer data. As for industrial purse seine fisheries, I.R. Iran, Japan, and Thailand have not provided estimates of total quantities of discards of sharks and rays by species for industrial purse seiners under their flag. EU, Spain and Seychelles are now reporting discards in their observer data and EU, Spain reported total discards for its purse seine fleet in 2018.

Errors are also introduced by the processing of retained catches undertaken at national level: these create further problems in the estimation of total weight or numbers, as sometimes dressed weight might be recorded instead of live

weights. For high levels of processing such as finning, where the carcasses are not retained, the estimation of total live weight is extremely difficult and prone to errors.

#### *Poor data resolution*

Historically, shark catches have not been reported by species but simply as an aggregated total. However, the proportion of catches reported by species has increased substantially in recent years (see section [Historical trends in catches \(1950-2019\)](#)). Misidentification of shark species is also common and additional data processing might introduce further problems related to proper species identification, requiring a high level of expertise and experience to be able to accurately identify specimens. The level of reporting by gear type is much higher, and catches reported as allocated to gear aggregates are now a smaller proportion of the total.

#### *Catch and effort data*

For all aforementioned reasons, geo-referenced catch and effort data sets available at the Secretariat for shark and ray species are of poor quality overall, with very little information available to derive time series of abundance indices that are essential for conducting stock assessments.

The main issues with shark data affecting the information sets available to the IOTC Secretariat vary with gear and fleet:

- **Gillnet fisheries**
  - **Driftnet fishery of Taiwan,China (1982–92):** data not reported to IOTC standards (no species-specific catches);
  - **Gillnet fisheries of Pakistan:** revised nominal catches with species-specific shark data have been provided from 1987 onward (although reports of catches for “various sharks NEI” are still present). Catch levels of shark species decrease dramatically with the revised time series (to levels which are practically negligible compared to years prior to 1987). Furthermore, spatially disaggregated catch-and-effort data have never been provided, if not for a very limited number of years (1987-1991);
  - **Gillnet fisheries of I.R. Iran:** spatially disaggregated catch-and-effort data are now available from 2007 onwards, although not fully reported to IOTC standards as they do not include data for distinct shark species for the years in which these are instead available as nominal catches (2012-2020);
  - **Gillnet fisheries of Oman:** data not reported to IOTC standards, as nominal catches of distinct shark species are only available for a limited period of the recent time-series (2014-2020) for which no spatially disaggregated catch-and-effort data have been provided.
- **Longline fisheries**
  - **Historical catches of sharks from major longline fisheries (Taiwan,China, Indonesia, and Rep. of Korea):** for years before 2006 data are either unavailable or not reported according to IOTC standards;
  - **Fresh-tuna longline fisheries (Malaysia, Indonesia):** data not provided or not reported to IOTC standards. Indonesia started reporting catch and effort data since 2018 but the level of coverage is very low, with minor reported blue shark catches;
  - **Deep-freezing longline fisheries (EU,Spain, India, Indonesia, and Oman):** data not provided or not reported according to IOTC standards for the periods during which these fisheries were known to be active.
- **Coastal fisheries**
  - **Coastal fisheries of Yemen:** data not provided;
  - **Coastal fisheries of India and Oman:** data not reported to IOTC standards;

- **Coastal fisheries of Madagascar:** data provided since 2018 but with a very low coverage and not reported to IOTC standards;
- **Coastal fisheries of Indonesia:** data provided since 2018 but coverage is very low, with minor reported catches of some shark and ray species.

### Catch estimation process

For some fisheries characterized by outstanding issues in terms of data collection and management, the composition of the catch may be derived from a data processing procedure that relies on constant proportions of the catch assigned to shark species over time (e.g., [Moreno et al. 2012](#)). Also, revisions of historical data aimed at estimating species-specific time series of catch may rely on assumptions of constant species composition (e.g. [Kai 2021](#)), although more complex approaches exist ([Martin et al. 2017](#)). The use of constant catch proportions conceals the variability in catches inherent to changes in abundance and catchability and strongly depends on the original samples used for the processing. Recently, a revision of gillnet catches by Pakistan from 1987-2018 has impacted the mean shark catches of the CPC to the point where these are close to negligible, whereas they previously accounted for the second highest mean annual catch from all CPCs ([IOTC 2019](#)).

## Marine turtles

### Main species and fisheries concerned

Six species of marine turtles have been involved in interactions with pelagic fisheries (**Table 5**). The overall abundance and IUCN status varies by species, ranging from data deficient (flatback turtle) to critically endangered (hawksbill turtle).

Table 5: List of marine turtle species reported to occur in the Indian Ocean with the most recent status of the IUCN Red List

Species code	Species name	Scientific name	IUCN status
DKK	Leatherback turtle	<i>Dermochelys coriacea</i>	Vulnerable
FBT	Flatback turtle	<i>Natator depressus</i>	Data deficient
LKV	Olive ridley turtle	<i>Lepidochelys olivacea</i>	Vulnerable
TTH	Hawksbill turtle	<i>Eretmochelys imbricata</i>	Critically endangered
TTL	Loggerhead turtle	<i>Caretta caretta</i>	Vulnerable
TUG	Green turtle	<i>Chelonia mydas</i>	Endangered

The interaction between marine turtles and IOTC fisheries is likely to be significant only in tropical areas, involving both industrial and artisanal fisheries, notably for:

- Industrial purse seine fisheries, in particular on sets using fish aggregating devices (EU, Seychelles, Mauritius, Korea, Japan, I.R. Iran) ([Bourjea et al. 2014](#); [Ruiz et al. 2018](#));
- Gillnet fisheries operating in coastal waters or on the high seas (Sri Lanka, I.R. Iran, Pakistan, Indonesia) ([Gilman et al. 2010](#); [Shahid et al. 2015](#));
- Industrial longline fisheries operating in tropical areas (China, Taiwan, China, Japan, Indonesia, Seychelles, India, Oman, Malaysia and the Philippines) ([Huang 2016](#)).

### Status of data on marine turtles' bycatch

Overall, the reported data available on marine turtles caught in the IOTC area of competence are considered to be of low to poor quality, sparse and not standardised. All information related to marine turtles' interactions was extracted from the data currently incorporated in the ROS regional database. Although some CPCs tend to report (limited) information on incidental catches of marine turtles through their national reports, these are not integrated in the

present study due to their incompleteness and lack of standardization. It is important to recall that the current version of the ROS database includes only a fraction of the data expected from longline fisheries.

A total of 938 turtle interactions with tuna fisheries were reported through the ROS, with loggerhead ( $n = 267$ ) and Olive ridley turtles ( $n = 150$ ) being the most frequent incidentally caught species in longline and purse seine fisheries, respectively (**Table 6**). Only 2 flatback turtles were reported to have interacted with tuna fisheries, notably by the longline fishery of Sri Lanka.

Table 6: Number of turtle interactions by species with longline and purse seine fisheries as reported in the ROS regional database during the period 2006-2020

Fishery group	Species code	Species name	Scientific name	Interactions
Longline	DKK	Leatherback turtle	<i>Dermochelys coriacea</i>	88
	FBT	Flatback turtle	<i>Natator depressus</i>	2
	LKV	Olive ridley turtle	<i>Lepidochelys olivacea</i>	77
	TTH	Hawksbill turtle	<i>Eretmochelys imbricata</i>	28
	TTL	Loggerhead turtle	<i>Caretta caretta</i>	267
	TTX	Marine turtles nei	<i>Testudinata</i>	40
	TUG	Green turtle	<i>Chelonia mydas</i>	83
Purse seine	DKK	Leatherback turtle	<i>Dermochelys coriacea</i>	4
	LKV	Olive ridley turtle	<i>Lepidochelys olivacea</i>	150
	TTH	Hawksbill turtle	<i>Eretmochelys imbricata</i>	64
	TTL	Loggerhead turtle	<i>Caretta caretta</i>	47
	TTX	Marine turtles nei	<i>Testudinata</i>	12
	TUG	Green turtle	<i>Chelonia mydas</i>	76

The spatial distribution of turtle interactions with longline fisheries is limited to very few areas due to the small size of the longline observer data set while the purse seiner observer data cover the purse seine fishing grounds well (**Fig. 21**). Most turtles were released (as expected) except for a few injured individuals caught by Reunion-based longliners that were brought back to the Kelonia turtles observatory and care center. The survival rate appeared to be lower in longline fisheries (~70%) than in purse seine fisheries (>95%) although data from other longline fisheries are required to confirm this pattern.

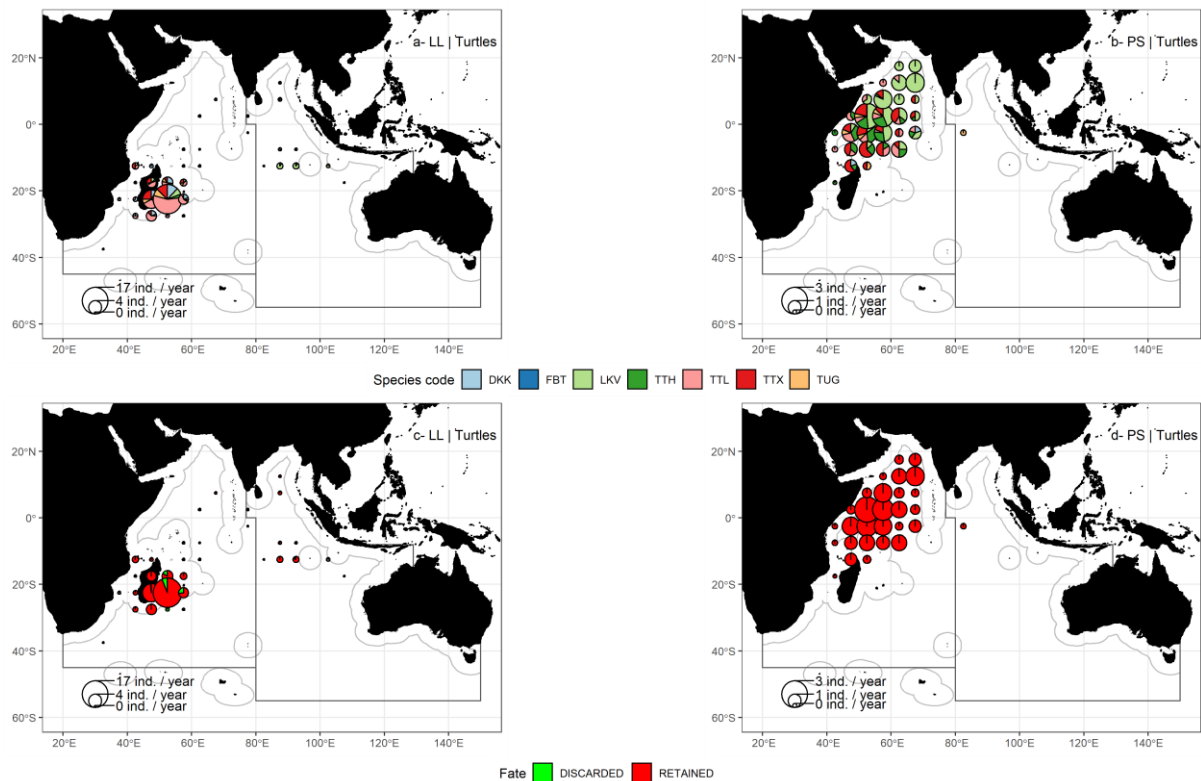


Figure 21: Mean annual number of marine turtle interactions (numbers of individuals per year) with pelagic fisheries by species (a & b) and fate (c & d) as reported to the Secretariat during the period 2005-2020

### Incidental catches of marine turtles

- Gillnet fisheries of Pakistan and Indonesia: to date, there have been no reported incidental catches of marine turtles for these gillnet fisheries;
- Longline fisheries of Malaysia, Oman, India, Philippines and Seychelles: to date, these countries have not reported incidental catches of marine turtles for their longline fisheries;
- Purse seine fisheries of Japan, I.R. Iran and Thailand: to date these countries have not reported incidental catches of marine turtles for their purse seine fisheries, including incidental catches of marine turtles on Fish Aggregating Devices. Seychelles provided data on discards of marine turtles from their purse seine fleet for 2018.

While a number of CPCs have been mentioned specifically here, as they have important fisheries or have not provided any information, there are still many CPCs that are providing data that are not consistent with the IOTC minimum reporting standards.

### Cetaceans

#### Data availability and fisheries concerned

Reporting of interactions between IOTC fisheries and cetaceans has been extremely limited to date, and interactions are expected to vary greatly by fishing gear, gear configuration, time-area strata, and environmental conditions. The full lists of whale and dolphin species susceptible to interactions with tuna and tuna-like species fisheries are given in [Appendix II](#). The overall expected levels of interactions are as follows:

- Few interactions occur between purse seine and cetaceans although tuna schools associated with whales could have been targeted prior to the entry in force of [IOTC Resolution 13/04](#) as was the case for schools associated with whale sharks. Those sets represented a small component of all sets and the animals were released alive in most cases ([Escalle et al. 2015](#)). Very few cases of dolphin-associated schools have been reported in the Indian Ocean while they are more common in the Pacific Ocean;

- Most interactions between longline and cetaceans stem from the animals being attracted mainly to longlines as a source of food, possibly resulting in incidental entanglement, injury, and mortality ([Gilman et al. 2006](#); [Hamer et al. 2012](#)). The extent of these interactions and associated levels of mortality are poorly known although several studies have focused on depredation in the Indian Ocean ([Romanov et al. 2013](#); [Munoz-Lechuga et al. 2016](#));
- Gillnet (or driftnet) is considered to be the main fishing gear responsible for direct mortality of cetaceans through entanglement ([Anderson et al. 2020](#))
- Artisanal fisheries may be responsible for some bycatch of small cetaceans, with different fishing gears involved, including gillnet ([Temple et al. 2018](#))

### Status of data on cetaceans' bycatch

A total of 143 cetacean interactions with tuna fisheries has been reported through the ROS (**Table 7**). Most interactions were reported for the fresh pelagic longline fishery of Reunion Island (85% of all observations) and are limited to the south-western Indian Ocean, east of Madagascar (**Fig. 22**). The interactions observed for this fishery were dominated by Risso's dolphins that were all released alive. Overall, 97% of the cetaceans having interacted with the fishery were assessed to be alive at release. Remaining interactions were reported from Japanese longliners operating in the eastern part of the Indian Ocean (9 toothed whales with about 90% of them released alive) while only 2 observations of common dolphins were reported for Sri Lankan longliners without information on their condition at release (**Fig. 22b**).

Table 7: Number of cetacean interactions by species with longline fisheries as reported in the ROS regional database from 2009-2020

Species code	Species name	Scientific name	Interactions
DRR	Risso's dolphin	<i>Grampus griseus</i>	106
ODN	Toothed whales nei	<i>Odontoceti</i>	13
FAW	False killer whale	<i>Pseudorca crassidens</i>	6
HUW	Humpback whale	<i>Megaptera novaeangliae</i>	6
SHW	Short-finned pilot whale	<i>Globicephala macrorhynchus</i>	4
DCO	Common dolphin	<i>Delphinus delphis</i>	4
MIW	Minke whale	<i>Balaenoptera acutorostrata</i>	2
DBO	Bottlenose dolphin	<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>	2



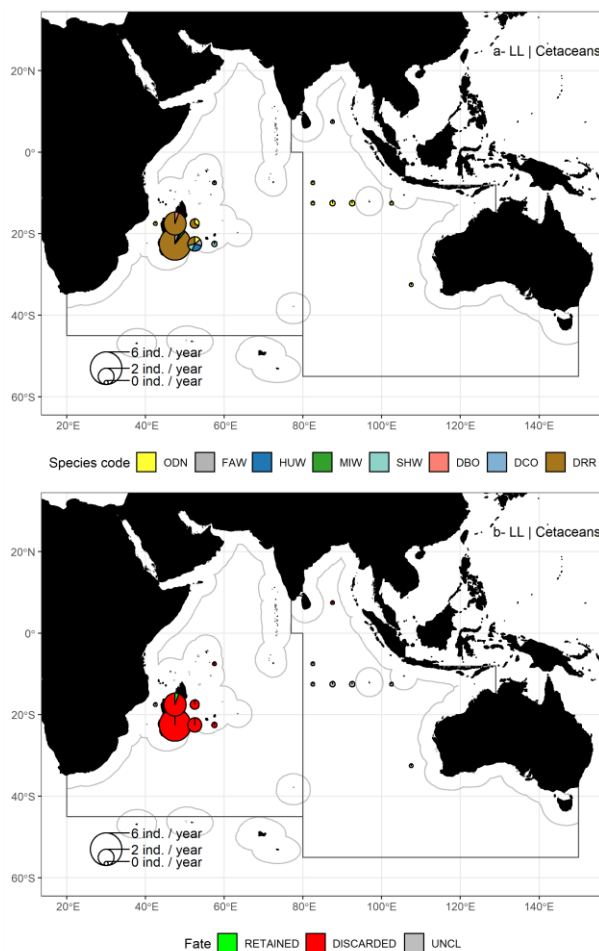


Figure 22: Cetacean interactions (numbers of individuals) with pelagic longline fisheries by species and fate as reported to the Secretariat during the period 2005-2020

## Seabirds

### Longline vessels fishing in southern waters

The interaction between seabirds and IOTC fisheries is likely to be significant only in southern waters (south of 25°S), an area where most of the effort is exerted by longliners (ACAP 2007). Spatial information available on longline fishing effort shows the dominance of vessels from Japan and Taiwan, China in this area since the mid-1950s, with a progressive decline in the effort exerted by the Japanese fleet since the mid-2000s and an increased effort of the Taiwan, China fleet starting from the 2010s (Fig. 23). In recent years (2017-2020), Taiwan, China represented about 70% (~80 million hooks) of the total reported longline effort of about 115 million hooks deployed annually in southern waters.

With more than 11 million hooks deployed annually, Japanese longliners contribute to about 10% of the total effort while the fleets of China, Seychelles, EU, Spain, and Malaysia deploy between 2.8 and 7.3 million hooks annually. The fishing effort might actually be incomplete for some reporting fleets while a number of other longline fleets may also operate in this area as suggested by the presence of temperate species in their catch data (e.g., Indonesia).

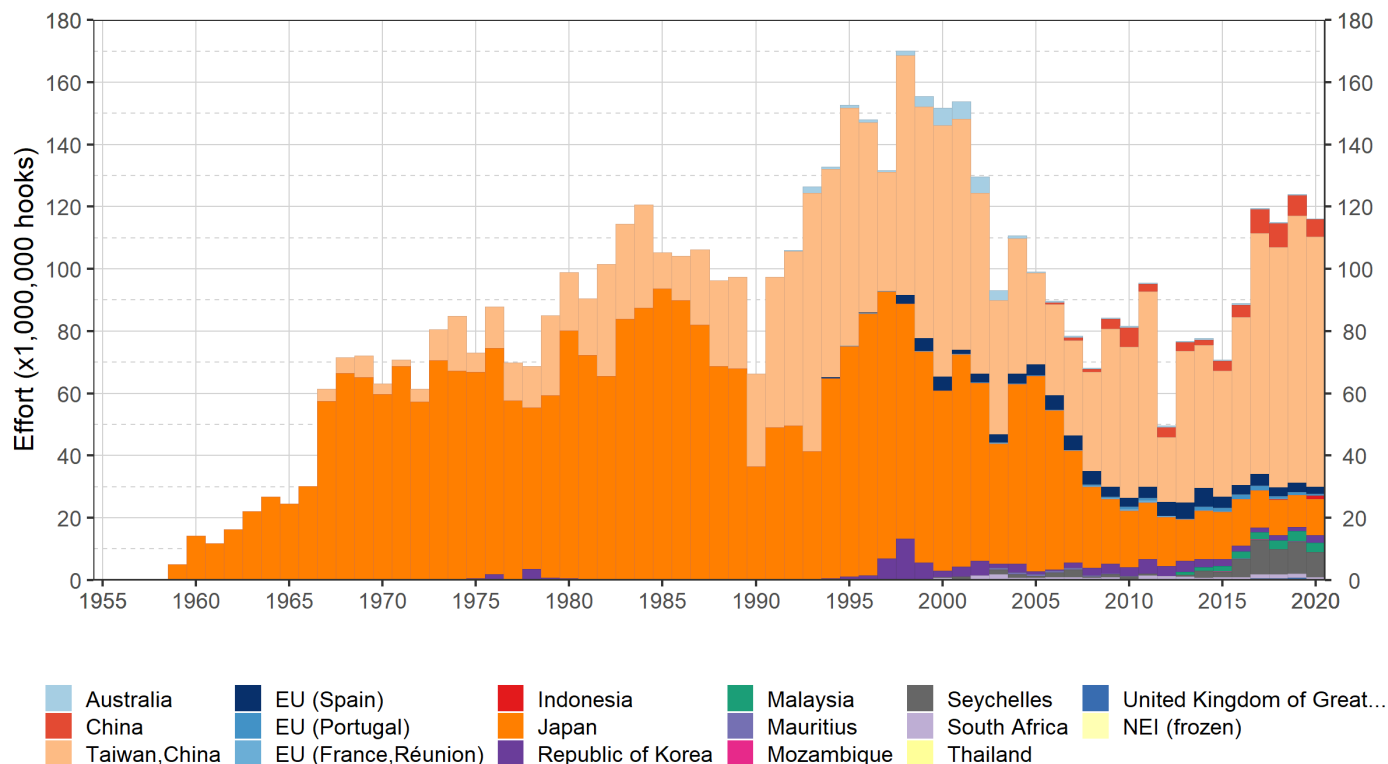


Figure 23: Reported longline effort (hooks) for fleets operating south of 25°S between 1955 and 2020

### Main species concerned

Among the 24 species of petrels and albatrosses known to occur in the IOTC area of competence ([ACAP 2007](#)), 19 species have been reported to interact with longline fisheries according to the ROS regional database (**Table 8**). It is important to note that the ROS data set only includes data from Japan over the time period 2012-2016 and no other data of interactions with seabirds have been reported to date using reporting formats suitable for automated data extraction according to the ROS data standards.

In 2016, six CPCs (Australia, EU-Portugal, EU-Spain, EU-France, Japan, Rep. of Korea, Taiwan,China and South Africa) submitted data in response to a call for data submission on seabirds following the dissemination of the IOTC Circular 2016-043 ([IOTC 2016](#)). Although some of the interactions with seabirds were reported in aggregate form, 16 species were recorded to have interacted with longline fisheries in the compiled data set covering the period 2009-2015, including six in addition to those available from the ROS (**Table 8**).

In addition, some CPCs have also reported seabird interactions through their national reports. For instance, Taiwan,China reported a total of 40 interactions with their longline fishery operating south of 25°S for 8 species of seabirds in 2018: black-browed albatross (1), wandering albatross (2), Salvin's albatross (1), light-mantled sooty albatross (1), sooty albatross (7), white-chinned petrel (17), white-capped albatross (5), and yellow-nosed albatross (6). In the same year, Korea reported the incidental catch of three grey-headed albatrosses and one sooty albatross.

Table 8: List of seabird species reported to have interacted with longline fisheries in the Indian Ocean with the most recent status of the IUCN Red List. ROS = Regional Observer Scheme; 2016-043 = IOTC Circular 2016-043

Species code	Species name	Scientific name	IUCN status
DCR	Atlantic yellow-nosed albatross	<i>Thalassarche chlororhynchos</i>	Endangered
DCU	Shy albatross	<i>Thalassarche cauta</i>	Near threatened
DIC	Grey-headed albatross	<i>Thalassarche chrysostoma</i>	Endangered
DIM	Black-browed albatross	<i>Thalassarche melanophris</i>	Least concern
DIP	Southern royal albatross	<i>Diomedea epomophora</i>	Vulnerable
DIQ	Northern royal albatross	<i>Diomedea sanfordi</i>	Endangered
DIX	Wandering albatross	<i>Diomedea exulans</i>	Vulnerable
MAH	Hall's giant petrel	<i>Macronectes halli</i>	Least concern
MAI	Antarctic giant petrel	<i>Macronectes giganteus</i>	Least concern
MWE	Cape gannet	<i>Morus capensis</i>	Endangered
PFC	Flesh-footed shearwater	<i>Ardenna carneipes</i>	Near threatened
PFG	Sooty shearwater	<i>Ardenna grisea</i>	Near threatened
PFT	Short tailed shearwater	<i>Ardenna tenuirostris</i>	Least concern
PHE	Light-mantled sooty albatross	<i>Phoebastria palpebrata</i>	Near threatened
PHU	Sooty albatross	<i>Phoebastria fusca</i>	Endangered
PRO	White-chinned petrel	<i>Procellaria aequinoctialis</i>	Vulnerable
TQH	Indian yellow-nosed albatross	<i>Thalassarche carteri</i>	Endangered
TQW	Campbell albatross	<i>Thalassarche impavida</i>	Vulnerable
TWD	White-capped albatross	<i>Thalassarche steadi</i>	Near threatened

### Status of data on seabirds' bycatch

The data available on seabirds caught in the IOTC area of competence are generally fairly limited: the information collected through circular 2016-043 highlighted some general trends in seabird bycatch rates across the Indian Ocean, with higher catch rates at higher latitudes – even within the area south of 25°S – and higher catch rates in the coastal areas in the eastern and western parts of the southern Indian Ocean ([IOTC 2016](#)). Data also showed that the mortality rates were generally high for most species, and the mean mortality rate across all years and fleets was higher than 70%.

To date, properly structured data on seabird interactions collected as part of the ROS are only available for the Japanese longline fishery: a total of 180 interactions was reported during 2012-2016, with an average of 36 interactions per year and all birds reported as dead, when the information on condition at capture was available. Regarding the overall low observer coverage and very few data currently available on seabird interactions, no estimation of the total bycatch of seabirds from the longline fishery south of 25°S was undertaken.

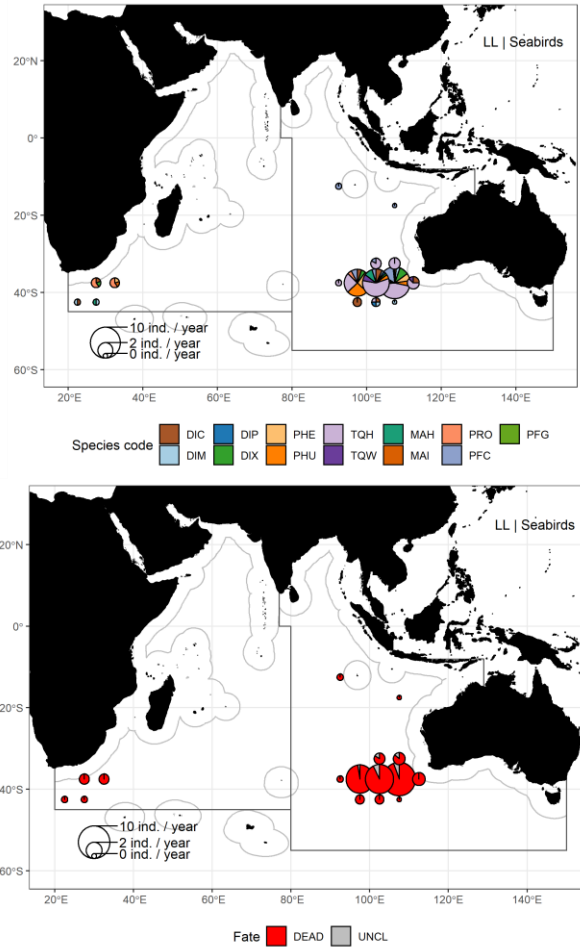


Figure 24: Mean annual number of seabird interactions (number of individuals per year) with deep-freezing longline fisheries by species and fate as reported to the Secretariat during 2012-2016

The longline fisheries of Seychelles, Malaysia, and Mauritius that operate or have operated in areas with high densities of seabirds have not reported incidental catches of seabirds for longliners under their flag.

### Other bycatch species categories

The reporting of non-IOTC species other than sharks is extremely poor and where it does occur, this is often in the form of patchy information which is not submitted according to IOTC data reporting procedures, is non-standardized and often lacking in clarity. Formal submissions of data in an electronic and standardized format using the available IOTC templates, in combination with observer data reported in the context of the ROS programme, will considerably improve the quality of data obtained and the type of regional analyses that these data can be used for.

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## Appendices

### Appendix I: Morphometrics for pelagic sharks of the Indian Ocean

Table 9: Summary of length-length relationships available for some pelagic sharks of the Indian Ocean. PCL = Precaudal length (cm); FL = fork length (cm); TL = total length (cm)

Species	Equation	a	b	N	MinFL	MaxFL	Reference
Blue shark	$TL=a+b*FL$	-2.133820	1.2165450	10			Anderson et al. 2011
	$PCL=a+b*FL$	-0.831809	0.9145784				Coelho et al. 2017
	$TL=a+b*FL$	-4.417651	1.2172855				
	$TL=a+b*FL$	5.319706	1.1680878	6,485	68	352	Ariz et al. 2007
Silky shark	$TL=a+b*FL$	2.900000	1.2000000	265			Filmalter et al. 2012
	$PCL=a+b*FL$	0.400000	0.9090909	214			
	$TL=a+b*FL$	4.404965	1.2168411	192			Anderson et al. 2011
	$TL=a+b*FL$	10.136700	1.1436000	520	66	247	Ariz et al. 2007

Table 10: Summary of length-weight relationships available for some pelagic sharks of the Indian Ocean. FL = fork length (cm); RD = round weight (kg); HG = dressed weight (kg)

Species	Equation	a	b	N	MinFL	MaxFL	Reference
Blue shark	$RD=a*FL^b$	0.00001590000	2.84554	2,842	57	311	Romanov and Romanova 2009
	$RD=a*FL^b$	0.00000279680	3.16970	2,279	81	298	Ariz et al. 2007
	$HG=a*FL^b$	0.00000040189	3.36200	2,129	82	352	
	$HG=a*FL^b$	0.00000160945	3.09904	289	150	260	Garcia-Cortés and Mejuto 2002
	$HG=a*FL^b$	0.00000190163	3.07615	164	93	253	Espino et al. 2010
Silky shark	$RD=a*FL^b$	0.00001600000	2.91497	687	66	281	Romanov and Romanova 2009
	$RD=a*FL^b$	0.00000472550	3.17710	369	66	244	Ariz et al. 2007
	$HG=a*FL^b$	0.00001297700	2.83230	94	97	269	
	$HG=a*FL^b$	0.00001132940	2.91484	411	50	220	Garcia-Cortés and Mejuto 2002
Oceanic whitetip shark	$RD=a*FL^b$	0.00001842800	2.92450	93	57	219	Ariz et al. 2007
	$HG=a*FL^b$	0.00008043100	2.44780	131	94	243	
	$HG=a*FL^b$	0.00000298446	3.15417	567	65	215	Garcia-Cortés and Mejuto 2002
Shortfin mako	$RD=a*FL^b$	0.00003490000	2.76544	906	70	342	Romanov and Romanova 2009
Bigeye tresher	$RD=a*FL^b$	0.00001413000	2.99565	185	110	256	Romanov and Romanova 2012
Tiger shark	$RD=a*FL^b$	0.00002614000	2.82374	676	50	351	
Great hammerhead	$RD=a*FL^b$	0.00000293000	3.23475	143	107	335	
Scalloped hammerhead	$RD=a*FL^b$	0.00002101000	2.88029	197	94	257	

## Appendix II: List of bycatch species interacting with Indian Ocean tuna fisheries

Table 11: List of shark species reported at species level in the nominal catch or ROS data for the period 1950-2020

Species code	Name	Scientific name	IUCN status
ALS	Silvertip shark	<i>Carcharhinus albimarginatus</i>	Vulnerable
ALV	Thresher	<i>Alopias vulpinus</i>	Vulnerable
BLR	Blacktip reef shark	<i>Carcharhinus melanopterus</i>	Vulnerable
BRO	Copper shark	<i>Carcharhinus brachyurus</i>	Vulnerable
BSH	Blue shark	<i>Prionace glauca</i>	Near threatened
BTH	Bigeye thresher	<i>Alopias superciliosus</i>	Vulnerable
CCE	Bull shark	<i>Carcharhinus leucas</i>	Near threatened
CCL	Blacktip shark	<i>Carcharhinus limbatus</i>	Near threatened
CCP	Sandbar shark	<i>Carcharhinus plumbeus</i>	Vulnerable
CCQ	Spottail shark	<i>Carcharhinus sorrah</i>	Near threatened
CCW	Grey reef Shark	<i>Carcharhinus amblyrhynchos</i>	Endangered
FAL	Silky shark	<i>Carcharhinus falciformis</i>	Vulnerable
LMA	Longfin mako	<i>Isurus paucus</i>	Endangered
OCS	Oceanic whitetip shark	<i>Carcharhinus longimanus</i>	Critically endangered
OSF	Zebra shark	<i>Stegostoma fasciatum</i>	Endangered
POR	Porbeagle	<i>Lamna nasus</i>	Vulnerable
PSK	Crocodile shark	<i>Pseudocarcharias kamoharai</i>	Least concern
PTH	Pelagic thresher	<i>Alopias pelagicus</i>	Endangered
RHN	Whale shark	<i>Rhincodon typus</i>	Endangered
SMA	Shortfin mako	<i>Isurus oxyrinchus</i>	Endangered
SPK	Great hammerhead	<i>Sphyrna mokarran</i>	Critically endangered
SPL	Scalloped hammerhead	<i>Sphyrna lewini</i>	Critically endangered
SPZ	Smooth hammerhead	<i>Sphyrna zygaena</i>	Vulnerable
SSQ	Velvet dogfish	<i>Scymnodon squamulosus</i>	Least concern
TIG	Tiger shark	<i>Galeocerdo cuvier</i>	Near threatened
AGN	Angelshark	<i>Squatina squatina</i>	Critically endangered
CCB	Spinner shark	<i>Carcharhinus brevipinna</i>	Vulnerable
CCD	Whitecheek shark	<i>Carcharhinus dussumieri</i>	Endangered
CCG	Galapagos shark	<i>Carcharhinus galapagensis</i>	Least concern
CCM	Hardnose shark	<i>Carcharhinus macloti</i>	Near threatened
CCO	Finetooth shark	<i>Carcharhinus isodon</i>	Least concern
CCY	Graceful shark	<i>Carcharhinus amblyrhynchoides</i>	Near threatened

Species code	Name	Scientific name	IUCN status
CLD	Sliteye shark	<i>Loxodon macrorhinus</i>	Least concern
CTU	Gummy shark	<i>Mustelus antarcticus</i>	Least concern
DUS	Dusky shark	<i>Carcharhinus obscurus</i>	Endangered
GAG	Tope shark	<i>Galeorhinus galeus</i>	Critically endangered
GAM	Mouse catshark	<i>Galeus murinus</i>	Least concern
HAY	Lined catshark	<i>Halaelurus lineatus</i>	Least concern
HCM	Hooktooth shark	<i>Chaenogaleus macrostoma</i>	Vulnerable
HEE	Snaggletooth shark	<i>Hemipristis elongata</i>	Vulnerable
NTC	Broadnose sevengill shark	<i>Notorynchus cepedianus</i>	Vulnerable
OXY	Angular roughshark	<i>Oxynotus centrina</i>	Vulnerable
RHA	Milk shark	<i>Rhizoprionodon acutus</i>	Vulnerable
SBL	Bluntnose sixgill shark	<i>Hexanchus griseus</i>	Near threatened
SCK	Kitefin shark	<i>Dalatias licha</i>	Vulnerable
SHM	Shark mackerel	<i>Grammatorcynus bicarinatus</i>	Least concern
SMD	Smooth-hound	<i>Mustelus mustelus</i>	Vulnerable
TFM	Whiskery shark	<i>Furgaleus macki</i>	Least concern
TRB	Whitetip reef shark	<i>Triaenodon obesus</i>	Vulnerable
WSH	Great white shark	<i>Carcharodon carcharias</i>	Vulnerable

Table 12: List of ray species reported at species level in the nominal catch or ROS data for the period 1950-2020

Species code	Name	Scientific name	IUCN status
PLS	Pelagic stingray	<i>Pteroplatytrygon violacea</i>	Least concern
RMA	Alfred manta (reef manta ray)	<i>Mobula alfredi</i>	Vulnerable
RMB	Giant manta	<i>Mobula birostris</i>	Endangered
RMJ	Spinetail mobula	<i>Mobula japanica</i>	Endangered
RMM	Devil fish	<i>Mobula mobular</i>	Endangered
RMT	Chilean devil ray	<i>Mobula tarapacana</i>	Endangered

Table 13: List of whale species susceptible to interactions with tuna and tuna-like species fisheries in the IOTC area of competence

Species code	Species name	Scientific name	IUCN status
BAW	Arnoux's beaked whale	<i>Berardius arnuxii</i>	Least concern
BBW	Blainville's beaked whale	<i>Mesoplodon densirostris</i>	Least concern
BCW	Cuvier's beaked whale	<i>Ziphius cavirostris</i>	Least concern
BDW	Andrews' beaked whale	<i>Mesoplodon bowdoini</i>	Data deficient
BHW	Hector's beaked whale	<i>Mesoplodon hectori</i>	Data deficient
BLW	Blue whale	<i>Balaenoptera musculus</i>	Endangered
BNW	Longman's beaked whale	<i>Indopacetus pacificus</i>	Least concern
BRW	Bryde's whale	<i>Balaenoptera edeni</i>	Least concern
BSW	Sherpherd's beaked whale	<i>Tasmacetus shepherdi</i>	Data deficient
BYW	Gray's beaked whale	<i>Mesoplodon grayi</i>	Least concern
CPM	Pygmy right whale	<i>Caperea marginata</i>	Least concern
DWW	Dwarf sperm whale	<i>Kogia sima</i>	Least concern
EUA	Southern right whale	<i>Eubalaena australis</i>	Least concern
FAW	False killer whale	<i>Pseudorca crassidens</i>	Near threatened
FIW	Fin whale	<i>Balaenoptera physalus</i>	Vulnerable
HUW	Humpback whale	<i>Megaptera novaeangliae</i>	Least concern
KIW	Killer whale	<i>Orcinus orca</i>	Data deficient
KPW	Pygmy killer whale	<i>Feresa attenuata</i>	Least concern
MIW	Minke whale	<i>Balaenoptera acutorostrata</i>	Least concern
PIW	Long-finned pilot whale	<i>Globicephala melas</i>	Least concern
PYW	Pygmy sperm whale	<i>Kogia breviceps</i>	Least concern
SHW	Short-finned pilot whale	<i>Globicephala macrorhynchus</i>	Least concern
SPW	Sperm whale	<i>Physeter macrocephalus</i>	Vulnerable
SRW	Southern bottlenose whale	<i>Hyperoodon planifrons</i>	Least concern
TGW	Ginkgo-toothed beaked whale	<i>Mesoplodon ginkgodens</i>	Data deficient
TSW	Strap-toothed whale	<i>Mesoplodon layardii</i>	Least concern



Table 14: List of dolphin species susceptible to interactions with tuna and tuna-like species fisheries in the IOTC area of competence

Species code	Species name	Scientific name	IUCN status
CMD	Commerson's dolphin	<i>Cephalorhynchus commersonii</i>	Least concern
DBO	Bottlenose dolphin	<i>Tursiops truncatus</i>	Least concern
DCO	Common dolphin	<i>Delphinus delphis</i>	Least concern
DDU	Dusky dolphin	<i>Lagenorhynchus obscurus</i>	Least concern
DHI	Indo-Pac. hump-backed dolphin	<i>Sousa chinensis</i>	Vulnerable
DPN	Pantropical spotted dolphin	<i>Stenella attenuata</i>	Least concern
DRR	Risso's dolphin	<i>Grampus griseus</i>	Least concern
DSI	Spinner dolphin	<i>Stenella longirostris</i>	Least concern
DST	Striped dolphin	<i>Stenella coeruleoalba</i>	Least concern
FRD	Fraser's dolphin	<i>Lagenodelphis hosei</i>	Least concern
HRD	Hourglass dolphin	<i>Lagenorhynchus cruciger</i>	Least concern
IRD	Irrawaddy dolphin	<i>Orcaella brevirostris</i>	Endangered
RSW	Southern right whale dolphin	<i>Lissodelphis peronii</i>	Least concern
RTD	Rough-toothed dolphin	<i>Steno bredanensis</i>	Least concern

Table 15: List of seabird species susceptible to interactions with tuna and tuna-like species fisheries in the IOTC area of competence

Species code	Species name	Scientific name	IUCN status
DCR	Atlantic yellow-nosed albatross	<i>Thalassarche chlororhynchos</i>	Endangered
DCU	Shy albatross	<i>Thalassarche cauta</i>	Near threatened
DIC	Grey-headed albatross	<i>Thalassarche chrysostoma</i>	Endangered
DIM	Black-browed albatross	<i>Thalassarche melanophris</i>	Least concern
DIP	Southern royal albatross	<i>Diomedea epomophora</i>	Vulnerable
DIQ	Northern royal albatross	<i>Diomedea sanfordi</i>	Endangered
DIX	Wandering albatross	<i>Diomedea exulans</i>	Vulnerable
MAH	Hall's giant petrel	<i>Macronectes halli</i>	Least concern
MAI	Antarctic giant petrel	<i>Macronectes giganteus</i>	Least concern
MWE	Cape gannet	<i>Morus capensis</i>	Endangered
PFC	Flesh-footed shearwater	<i>Ardenna carneipes</i>	Near threatened
PFG	Sooty shearwater	<i>Ardenna grisea</i>	Near threatened
PFT	Short tailed shearwater	<i>Ardenna tenuirostris</i>	Least concern
PHE	Light-mantled sooty albatross	<i>Phoebastria palpebrata</i>	Near threatened
PHU	Sooty albatross	<i>Phoebastria fusca</i>	Endangered
PRO	White-chinned petrel	<i>Procellaria aequinoctialis</i>	Vulnerable
TQH	Indian yellow-nosed albatross	<i>Thalassarche carteri</i>	Endangered
TQW	Campbell albatross	<i>Thalassarche impavida</i>	Vulnerable
TWD	White-capped albatross	<i>Thalassarche steadi</i>	Near threatened

### Appendix III: Changes in nominal catches from previous Working Party

Table 16: Changes in annual nominal catches (1998-2019) of sharks and rays' species by year, fleet, fishery group and main Indian Ocean area, limited to absolute values higher than 10 t

Year	Fleet	Fishery group	Area	Current (t)	Previous (t)	Difference (t)	
2019	ARE	Other	Western Indian Ocean	380	400	-20	
	CHN	Longline	Eastern Indian Ocean	22	0	22	
		Longline	Western Indian Ocean	132	154	-22	
	LKA	Gillnet	Eastern Indian Ocean	1,685	1,662	23	
		Gillnet	Western Indian Ocean	50	249	-199	
		Line	Eastern Indian Ocean	274	130	144	
		Line	Western Indian Ocean	0	153	-153	
		Longline	Eastern Indian Ocean	59	25	34	
		Longline	Western Indian Ocean	125	159	-34	
		Other	Eastern Indian Ocean	272	234	38	
		Other	Western Indian Ocean	0	38	-38	
	MOZ	Gillnet	Western Indian Ocean	2,655	0	2,655	
		Line	Western Indian Ocean	750	0	750	
		Other	Western Indian Ocean	350	0	350	
	QAT	Gillnet	Western Indian Ocean	90	0	90	
	SYC	Longline	Eastern Indian Ocean	0	33	-33	
		Longline	Western Indian Ocean	1,325	877	448	
	2018	ARE	Other	Western Indian Ocean	410	400	10
		LKA	Gillnet	Eastern Indian Ocean	1,713	1,517	196
			Gillnet	Western Indian Ocean	11	613	-602
Line			Western Indian Ocean	0	23	-23	
Longline			Eastern Indian Ocean	62	7	55	
Longline			Western Indian Ocean	33	88	-55	
Other			Eastern Indian Ocean	275	248	27	
Other			Western Indian Ocean	0	27	-27	
Purse seine			Eastern Indian Ocean	79	112	-33	
QAT		Gillnet	Western Indian Ocean	109	0	109	
SYC	Line	Western Indian Ocean	28	12	16		

Year	Fleet	Fishery group	Area	Current (t)	Previous (t)	Difference (t)
		Longline	Eastern Indian Ocean	0	69	-69
		Longline	Western Indian Ocean	1,261	1,190	71
<b>2017</b>	LKA	Gillnet	Eastern Indian Ocean	748	1,291	-542
		Gillnet	Western Indian Ocean	254	320	-66
		Line	Eastern Indian Ocean	632	676	-44
		Purse seine	Eastern Indian Ocean	137	156	-18
	QAT	Gillnet	Western Indian Ocean	105	0	105
	SYC	Longline	Eastern Indian Ocean	0	18	-18
		Longline	Western Indian Ocean	639	613	26
<b>2016</b>	QAT	Gillnet	Western Indian Ocean	98	0	98
<b>2011</b>	ARE	Other	Western Indian Ocean	1,340	1,353	-13
<b>2009</b>	SYC	Line	Western Indian Ocean	43	32	11
		Longline	Western Indian Ocean	203	214	-11
<b>2008</b>	SYC	Line	Western Indian Ocean	40	22	18
		Longline	Western Indian Ocean	58	76	-18
<b>2006</b>	SYC	Line	Western Indian Ocean	32	13	19
		Longline	Western Indian Ocean	146	165	-19
<b>2002</b>	SYC	Line	Western Indian Ocean	65	50	15
		Longline	Western Indian Ocean	25	40	-15
<b>2001</b>	SYC	Line	Western Indian Ocean	129	57	71
		Longline	Western Indian Ocean	23	94	-71
<b>2000</b>	SYC	Line	Western Indian Ocean	108	30	78
		Longline	Western Indian Ocean	11	89	-78
<b>1999</b>	SYC	Line	Western Indian Ocean	64	0	64
		Longline	Western Indian Ocean	1	65	-64
<b>1998</b>	SYC	Line	Western Indian Ocean	27	0	27
		Longline	Western Indian Ocean	0	27	-27