

1 **Title Page**

2

3 **Title: “Destructive fishing” – a ubiquitously used but vague**
4 **term? Usage and impacts across academic research,**
5 **media, and policy**

6

7 Running Title (40 characters): Defining Destructive Fishing

8

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32

33 **Abstract**

34

35 250 words containing title keywords and six keywords

36

37 The term “destructive fishing” appears in multiple international policy instruments intended to improve
38 outcomes for marine biodiversity, coastal communities and sustainable fisheries. However, the
39 meaning of “destructive fishing” is often vague, limiting effectiveness in policy. Therefore, in this study
40 we systematically reviewed the use of “destructive fishing” in three record types: academic literature,
41 media articles, and policy documents between 1976 - 2020. A more detailed analysis was performed
42 on sub-sets of these records, considering the extent to which the term is characterised, geographic
43 distribution of use, and specific impacts and practices associated with the term. We found that use of
44 “destructive fishing” relative to the generic term ‘fisheries’ has increased since the 1990s. Records
45 focused predominantly on fishing practices in South-eastern Asia, followed by Southern Asia and
46 Europe. The term was characterised in detail in only 15% of records. Habitat damage and
47 blast/poison fishing were the most associated ecological impacts and gear/practices, respectively.
48 Bottom trawling and unspecified net fishing were regularly linked to destructive fishing. Importantly,
49 the three record types use the term differently. Academic literature tends to specifically articulate the
50 negative impacts, while media articles focus generally on associated gears/practices. Significant
51 regional variation also exists in how the term is used and what phenomena it is applied to. This study
52 provides evidence and recommendations to inform stakeholders in any future pursuit of a unified
53 definition of “destructive fishing” to support more meaningful implementation of global sustainability
54 goals.

55

56 **Key Words**

57 (6, not including words in title, alphabetical order)

58 conservation, fishing policy, food security, marine environment, ocean habitat, sustainable fishing

59

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80 **Main Text**

81

82 **Introduction**

83

84 Wild capture fisheries are a cornerstone of the global food system, drawing from enormously
85 productive and diverse ocean ecosystems to feed billions of people. Food from the ocean currently
86 accounts for 17% of global edible meat production (Costello et al., 2020), and marine capture and
87 mariculture production stood at 115.2 Mt in 2020 (FAO, 2020). Sustainably managed marine fisheries
88 have the potential to contribute to several societal needs, including ending poverty, ending hunger,
89 decent work, reducing inequality, climate action and restoring marine biodiversity (Singh et al., 2018).
90 Consequently, the need to tackle negative aspects of fisheries is embedded in international, regional
91 and national policy frameworks and action plans (Singh et al., 2018). As with any policies arising from
92 consensus-driven processes, moving from political ambitions to implementation is an enduring
93 challenge (Armitage et al., 2020; Liuzza, 2021; Sorkar, 2020). A well-established component of this
94 challenge is interpreting the language of global goals and their associated targets, particularly where
95 texts of agreements, or related resolutions or measures, are legally binding for terms that are vague
96 (King, 2017; UNESCO, 2020).

97 Where goals, targets and indicators have been established and gained global traction, efforts have
98 been made to develop a more coherent, shared understanding of key words, phrases or concepts
99 within relevant frameworks and amongst relevant stakeholder groups. In the fields of marine
100 conservation and fisheries management, several recent examples exist of definition-setting and
101 indicator-setting processes to aid the interpretation of terminology. These include definition-setting
102 processes for the terms “other effective conservation measures” (a term in the UN Convention on
103 Biological Diversity) (Alves-Pinto et al., 2021), “industrial fishing” and “levels/scales” of Marine
104 Protected Areas (Grorud-Colvert et al., 2021), and “illegal, unregulated and unreported fishing”
105 (Macfadyen et al., 2019). It is vital to note that these are explicitly political processes. This often
106 means the need to satisfactorily resolve negotiations or political disputes, and reconcile collisions of

107 divergent worldviews, interests and value systems, drives outcomes as much as – if not more so –
108 than scientific and linguistic definitions surrounding the focal terms (J. C. Rice, 2011).

109 One of the most relevant global policy ambitions to fisheries is Sustainable Development Goal (SDG)
110 14 Life Below Water, particularly Targets 14.4 (“effectively regulate harvesting”) and 14.6 (“prohibit
111 certain forms of fisheries subsidies”). These targets collectively refer to three problematic dimensions
112 of fisheries: “overfishing”, “illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing (IUU)” and “destructive fishing
113 practices”. Whilst there are established indicators to monitor progress towards ending “overfishing”
114 and “IUU”, no such indicator exists for “destructive fishing”, limiting the effectiveness of “destructive
115 fishing” as a policy term.

116 PLACEHOLDER FIGURE 1

117 PLACEHOLDER TABLE 1

118 The terms “destructive fishing” and “destructive fishing practices” appear in at least five multi-lateral
119 policy frameworks in addition to the SDGs (Figure 2, Table 2), all of which seek to “end”, or “prohibit”
120 this problem. The intent of these suggested prohibitions encompasses supporting ecosystem
121 recovery and sustainable resource use. The specific practices considered to be destructive also vary
122 and include “dynamiting”, “poisoning” and “bottom trawling”, on certain habitats.

123 PLACEHOLDER FIGURE 2

124 PLACEHOLDER TABLE 2

125 In a 2009 UNEP/FAO expert workshop, “destructive fishing” was described alongside “IUU” and
126 “overfishing” as a sub-component of the term “unsustainable fishing” (FAO/UNEP, 2009). In this
127 workshop “destructive fishing” was described as “the use of fishing gears in ways and places...[such
128 that]...one or more ecosystem components are obliterated, devastated or ceases to be able to
129 provide essential ecosystem functions” (Table 1). This description has not been formally ratified as an
130 internationally agreed definition. The description also states that “only a very small number of fishing
131 gears or fishing methods are recognized as inherently ‘destructive’ wherever and however they are
132 used, the primary examples being explosives and synthetic toxins. In the absence of any formal
133 agreement regarding the term, the classification of a gear or practice as destructive is a policy choice

134 related to pre-set objectives and consistent with national and international law” (page 9 in FAO/ENEP,
135 2009).

136 This summary alludes to an unresolved tension of values/worldviews around the discussion of
137 “destructive fishing” that (J. C. Rice, 2011) expands on, noting that FAO and UNEP experts in the
138 cited workshop differed significantly in their approaches to synthesising the evidence they presented
139 in support of an improved definition. Recognising historical tensions and barriers to meaningful
140 progress is vital to inform any future attempt to improved shared understanding of “destructive
141 fishing”. In particular, tensions have been around 1. Whether scientists and/or experts should
142 explicitly direct policy-makers as to which practices are “categorically harmful or acceptable” and 2.
143 Divergence in expert opinion as to the relative inherent destructiveness of specific fishing gears.
144 Interestingly, while the workshop itself appears to have been seen as productive, the subsequent
145 involvement of individuals beyond original participants fostered further intersectoral tensions resulting
146 in attempts to accommodate an unwieldy number of perspectives, thereby hindering the imperative to
147 make the term more specific (J. C. Rice, pers. comm).

148 In addition to its presence in a multitude of policy fora, the term “destructive fishing” frequently occurs
149 in popular ocean discourse and is used by a range of other societal actors (e.g., academic literature,
150 NGO campaigns, media coverage) (Ochave, 2016; Odvek, 2021). This is perhaps not surprising given
151 that the word “destructive” is one with strongly negative associations. When such words are used in a
152 public discourse without context or in a vague manner, they can drive intersectoral and political
153 polarisation (Cap, 2017). We hypothesise that “destructive fishing” and “destructive fishing practices”
154 have the potential to become and indeed are predominantly utilised as “quasi-concepts”. The terms
155 as they stand are, in effect, “flexible enough to allow the meanderings and necessities of political
156 action from day to day” (Bernard, 1999). Therefore, it is critical to assess the use of “destructive
157 fishing” across the areas it is used, which includes the media and academia as well as in policy
158 documents, to develop a definition which is accurate and useful in informing global policy.

159 We think that a unified definition of “destructive fishing” would produce benefits for sustainable
160 fisheries management and marine conservation by reducing intersectoral polarisation on the
161 definition, increasing alignment of political objectives and influencing “on the water” implementation of
162 those objectives. Recognising the political nature of definition-setting and the challenges faced by

163 previous attempts to gain consensus around the term, we seek to justify why a unified definition is
164 required and provide a comprehensive overview of current usage of the term to inform progress
165 towards an acceptable and practical definition. Through systematically reviewing the term's usage in
166 English-language academic articles, media articles and policy documents, we will attempt to explain
167 the drivers of its use and consider the consequences of leaving the term undefined. Specifically, we
168 aim to address the following questions:

- 169 1. Has the term's relative usage over time increased?
- 170 2. How is its English-language use distributed geographically?
- 171 3. How often is the term explicitly characterised or explained?
- 172 4. What specific impacts (environmental, social and/or economic) are associated with the term's
173 usage?
- 174 5. What is the scope of the term's usage in relation to specific "practices/gear types" that are
175 referred to as "destructive"?

176

177

178 **Methods**

179

180 *Data extraction*

181 References to destructive fishing were extracted for academic literature, policy documents, and media
182 articles (Table 3), in the English language only. All databases were searched using the term
183 “destructive fishing”, and records were extracted if the term was found in the in the title,
184 abstract/introduction and/or body text of records. Academic literature was extracted from the Scopus
185 (Elsevier) database on the 1st of March 2021; this database contains records from approximately
186 35,000 journals in the life, social, physical and health sciences. Policy documents were extracted from
187 the FAOLEX (United Nations) database on the 4th of October 2021; this database is administered by
188 the Food and Agriculture Organisation, and is one of the largest online repositories of national laws,
189 regulations and policies on food, agriculture and natural resources management. Media articles were
190 extracted from the Factiva (Dow-Jones) database on the 5th of August 2021; this database combines
191 over 30,000 newspaper, website and online news sources. All articles up until the search date were
192 included, so the three searches cover slightly different time periods. In addition, the date of earliest
193 record varied between the three databases; we controlled for this discrepancy where appropriate (see
194 below). To justify our selection of English language only content, we briefly screened all three
195 databases for the term in Spanish (“pesca destructiva”). This screening returned 3.5% (n=5) of policy
196 and legal documents, 5.8% (n=274) of media articles and no academic articles.

197 Subsets of the English language extracts were selected for more detailed analysis and
198 characterisation (see below). We selected a subset of records from each database because the
199 volume of total records (particularly of media articles) would mean detailed analysis would be
200 prohibitively time-consuming. For policy and academic records, we analysed those most likely to be
201 explicitly concerned with destructive fishing, rather than just mentioning it in passing (see “Rationale
202 for selecting analytical subset” in Table 3). For media articles, no reasonable criteria existed and so a
203 random sample was chosen, with the sample size determined by the number of records required to
204 be statistically representative at the 95% confidence level. To ensure the difference in 2021 coverage
205 did not bias results, we excluded 2021 records from all subsets.

206

207 TABLE 3 PLACEHOLDER

208

209 *Temporal analysis*

210 To calculate the rate of publications concerning “destructive fishing” (i.e., temporal publication trends),
211 while accounting for the increased background rate of publications generally, we first took the total
212 number of relevant records extracted from each database (“Initial extract” in Table 3), and calculated
213 the number of records per year. Then, we searched each database again using the term “fishery OR
214 fisheries”, and extracted the total number of records per year. For each database, we then divided the
215 total number of “destructive fishing” records per year from the total number of “fishery OR fisheries”
216 records per year, to generate a “relative publication rate” metric that tracked terminological use
217 relative to all content in this topic domain. In other words, this metric gives the proportion per year of
218 all records to do with fish and fisheries that mention destructive fishing, and thus provides a fair
219 estimate of the rate of increase or decrease in interest in destructive fishing while accounting for
220 background publication trends. To allow comparison among record types on the same axis scale, we
221 limited the years to be between 1980 and 2020 for this analysis; <5% of records were before 1980 in
222 all of the databases.

223

224 *Geographical distribution*

225 For the subset of records chosen for in-depth analysis, we determined the geographical distribution of
226 records by recording the focal country/region in the academic literature, media articles and policy
227 documents, which we used to plot the overall distributions of regions of interest for each record type.
228 In addition, if the information was available, we also recorded its geographical origin (i.e. the home
229 country of its host publication; see Dataset S1). Countries were subsequently assigned to a region
230 based on either its “sub-region name” or “intermediate region name” according to (UNSD, 2021).
231 Records that were global in scope or did not specify a focal country were discarded for this analysis
232 only. In total, the focus region could be determined for 471 out of 522 records (36/52 academic,
233 113/115 policy, 322/355 media).

234

235 *Characterisations and associated impacts and practices*

236 For the subset of records that were chosen for in-depth analysis (focal articles), information relating to
237 the use of the term “destructive fishing” was characterised in three ways. First, we recorded whether
238 the record provided a characterisation or explanation specifically of the term destructive fishing; if so,
239 we recorded the characterisation and noted its key properties. We then undertook additional
240 quantitative analysis to note where the term was associated with specifically named negative impacts
241 and practices/gears (i.e. that were inferred as being destructive through contextual use), described in
242 the next two paragraphs. We have provided information for each record in the subset, in addition to
243 their geographical distribution and how we coded their listed impacts and gear types, in Dataset S1.

244 Second, we carried out a form of iterative analysis, following (Srivastava & Hopwood, 2009), to
245 document the impacts associated with the use of the term, as described by our records. We began by
246 reading a small selection of the focal articles while asking the question ‘what specific impacts do
247 these authors link with destructive fishing’ and writing individual entries for the specific impacts listed
248 in each. During this initial process it became clear that each entry belonged in one of three
249 thematically grouped categories: environmental, social or economic changes. We therefore
250 established these categories as overarching themes, and then arranged individual entries into
251 subcategories we developed that nested within each theme (e.g. “destroying coral reefs” and “ripping
252 up seagrass” would both be classed in the ‘Habitat destruction’ subcategory in the environmental
253 theme). These subcategories were then further developed in iterative fashion, by reading the rest of
254 the focal articles and placing described impacts into the different subcategories, adjusting or adding
255 subcategories where necessary. This ensured that the nuance in the impacts listed had been
256 captured by our themes and subcategories, thus reconciling the relationship between what the data
257 said and what we wanted to know (Srivastava & Hopwood, 2009). This process led to six
258 subcategories in the social theme, five in the environmental theme and four in the economic theme.
259 To ensure both consistency and reliability in categorisation, the iterative analysis was carried out by
260 two authors (A.P. and J.W.) who developed the subcategories, checked each other’s categorisations
261 and agreed upon the final classifications.

262 Third, we explored the specific practices/gear types that were associated with the term “destructive
263 fishing.” Based on the expert knowledge of the author group (i.e. in contrast to the content analysis

264 above) we *a priori* identified three categories that practices could fall into: 1. The use of a specific
265 fishing gear (e.g., beach seines), 2. The use of an auxiliary device/gear component (e.g. lights on
266 catching devices) or 3. Other practices/fishing-associated behaviours (e.g. “trash fishing”). Where
267 references to practices were sufficiently detailed in the reference to specific gears and/or auxiliary
268 devices, we used the classification system in (He et al., 2021), which is an objective, multi-lingual
269 lexicon of fishing technology developed by FAO gear technologists. From our records, we identified
270 40 separate fishing practices associated with the term “destructive fishing” across the three content
271 types; 24 identifiable fishing gears, five auxiliary fishing devices and 11 other fishing practices/fishing
272 associated behaviours. We calculated the proportion of references to each fishing practice and
273 derived a mean proportion across all content types; practices with a mean proportion of less than 2%
274 were discarded from further analysis.

275 Finally, we carried out an additional cross-table analysis to break the impacts and gears down by
276 record type (academic, media or policy) and geographic distribution (at a continental scale, with
277 Central and South America being combined), to determine if there were different trends between
278 continents for listed gear types and impacts. To account for the different numbers of total records
279 between continents, we calculated the percentage of records within each document type and
280 continent that mention a specific impact or gear type, excluding those groups where there were <3
281 total records (Table S1 Gears, Table S2 Impacts).

282

283

284 **Results**

285

286 The study reveals a large increase in the use of the term “destructive fishing” in academic literature,
287 media articles, and policy documents over the past four decades, even while accounting for increases
288 in the background publication rate (Figure 3). It is notable that the highest publication rate values for
289 academic literature and policy documents occur after the 2015 Agenda for Sustainable Development,
290 the process that created the SDGs. Similar sized spikes occur in academic records in the mid 1990s
291 after the development of the Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries in 1995; the fact that these

292 spikes are not reflected in national policy records logically suggests a time lag between the ratification
293 of global instruments and their inclusion in national decision-making frameworks, although it is notable
294 that policy documents have seen the sharpest overall increase in usage rate.

295 Media usage of the term has risen the least sharply of the three content types and its only notable
296 spike comes after UN Resolution 59/25 (on deep-sea fisheries) in 2004, which explicitly refers to
297 case-specific instances of high seas bottom trawling as “destructive fishing” (Table 2). This initial
298 adoption by the UN General Assembly to introduce more precaution into how high seas fisheries are
299 managed was followed by an intense period of political campaigning (between 2005-2008) for a
300 moratorium on high seas bottom trawling (Carmine et al., 2020).

301 PLACEHOLDER FIGURE 3

302 Most records across academia, media, and policy relating to “destructive fishing” focus on practices in
303 South-eastern Asia (61%, 38% and 23% of academic, media, and policy respectively) (Figure 4). This
304 is followed by Southern/Western Asia, Oceania, and East/South Africa which each represented at
305 least 5% of the academic, media, and policy records. Some of these differences are striking: for
306 example, there were no academic articles focusing on destructive fishing in the Americas, and very
307 few in Europe, in contrast to low- and middle-income regions in the tropics which were
308 disproportionately represented in the academic literature.

309 There were also clear discrepancies between the distribution of record types between geographic
310 regions. For example, North America and Europe had the greatest proportion of their records coming
311 from the media, while Southeast Asia and Southeast Africa had the greatest proportion of their
312 records coming from academic articles. Oceania, Central America and West/North Africa had the
313 greatest proportion of their records coming from policy documents (Figure 4).

314

315 PLACEHOLDER FIGURE 4

316

317 The term “destructive fishing” was only defined and/or characterised in 13% of the academic literature
318 (n=7, out of 52), 19% of policy documents (n=22, out of 115) and 14% of media articles (n=50, out of
319 355). A sub-set of those characterisations are presented in Table 4.

320

321 PLACEHOLDER TABLE 4

322

323 Across the records, environmental, economic, and social impacts associated with “destructive fishing”
324 were identified (Figure 5). The proportion of records considering all of the impacts was highest in
325 academia, with almost all (94%) of the literature focusing on the impacts, compared to 85% of media
326 articles, and 61% of policy documents. Environmental impacts were the most reported type of impacts
327 across all three record types (Figure 5a); predominantly habitat damage, closely followed by target-
328 species population decline, with the exception being a greater prevalence of target-species decline in
329 media articles.

330 The media had the greatest focus on social impacts (30% of all reported impacts, compared to 16% in
331 academic literature and 9% in policy), with illegality and damage to livelihoods dominating (Figure 5b).
332 The academic literature reported economic harm the most frequently (21% of all impacts, compared
333 to 10% in the media, and 6% of policy), with loss to local fisheries and fishers’ livelihoods being the
334 most prevalent concern. The short-term economic benefits of destructive fishing to the individual
335 fisher were raised in the academic literature and infrequently in the policy documents, but were not
336 reported in the media articles. In contrast to the academic literature and media articles, policy
337 documents focused more on environmental impacts than broader social and economic harm.

338 There were also some clear differences in the distribution of impacts listed between geographic
339 regions. For example, within media articles, the economic losses to fisheries in the private sector
340 caused by destructive fishing were heavily emphasised in articles from Africa and Asia, with little
341 mention in media articles from other continents (Table S2). In contrast, the environmental impacts of
342 habitat damage and non-target species decline were disproportionately mentioned in media articles
343 from Europe and North America, with a much lower rate of mention in Africa and Asia; whilst the
344 decline of target species was mentioned fairly evenly across media articles from all continents (Table
345 S2). This was in striking contrast to the policy documents, where the impact of the decline of target
346 species was not mentioned in any policy document from Europe or North America.

347

348 PLACEHOLDER FIGURE 5

349

350 94% of the academic literature (n=49), 49% (n=56) of policy documents and 56% of media articles
351 (n=198) mentioned at least one fishing practice (Table 5). Of the 23 practices that occurred at >2%
352 frequency, only four had an overall proportion of references above 10%; “Blast fishing” (51%) and
353 “Poison fishing” (43%), then “Bottom trawls” (27%) and “Nets, unspecified” (15%). There was more
354 emphasis on the first two practices in academic literature and more emphasis on the third in media
355 articles with nets showing a more even spread.

356 The distribution of gear mentions was unevenly distributed among continents within each record type.
357 The distribution was not consistent between record types: for example, 22% of media articles from
358 Oceania mention purse seines (no other continent had more than 4% of media articles mentioning
359 this) (Table S1); but then Oceania had no policy documents at all mentioning purse seine, suggesting
360 a disjunction between the emphasis of destructive fishing placed by media and policy (Table S1).
361 Other clear areas of potential concern for management for specific geographic regions could be
362 identified: for example, 38% of North American policy documents mentioned set gillnets, while no
363 other region had more than 4% of policy documents mentioning this gear type; in contrast, many
364 media articles from Africa and Asia mentioned nets while few media articles from other continents did
365 (Table S1). We also detected the potential importance of specificity in defining gears: for example,
366 ‘trawls’ generally were most mentioned in media and policy from Africa and Asia, while ‘bottom trawls’
367 were mentioned most in media and policy from North America and Europe.

368

369 PLACEHOLDER TABLE 5

370

371

372 Discussion

373

374 Our results illustrate that “destructive fishing” means different things to academics, media producers
375 and policy-makers in different parts of the world, and that moving towards a shared understanding of
376 “destructive fishing” will require reconciling a set of contrasting yet potentially equally valid
377 approaches to the term.

378 Our study shows that in the three record types of academic literature, media articles and policy
379 documents, the relative usage of the term “destructive fishing” has increased over time. We found that
380 its English-language use is geographically biased towards South-eastern Asia. We found only a
381 minority of specific characterisations in each of the three record types; at 19%, policy documents had
382 the highest proportion. We much more frequently identified negative impacts and gear/practices
383 associated with the term’s usage (i.e. that were inferred as being destructive through contextual use).
384 Environmental impacts – particularly habitat damage – were the term’s most consistently associated
385 impacts and the use of explosives and poisons to fish were the most commonly associated
386 gears/practices, with the very separate gear/practice of bottom trawling also central to the term’s
387 usage.

388 Building off these findings, we now acknowledge limitations of our study, summarise why we believe
389 this term has been (and continues to be) subject to vague usage, consider the consequences of
390 leaving the term undefined and offer recommendations for the future pursuit of a unified definition of
391 the term.

392 *Research limitations*

393 The authors acknowledge that our analysis was limited by several factors. First, while we did screen
394 for the term in one additional language (Spanish – see Methods) and found minimal additional
395 references to the term, there would be value in additional consideration of even those limited
396 references. In particular, this may explain the unusual trend of no academic articles concerning
397 destructive fishing in Central and South America (Figure 4): they may have been absent in our
398 English-language search because they were written in Spanish, and absent from our Spanish-
399 language search because (to our knowledge) Scopus does not specifically index Spanish sources, in

400 contrast to the FAOLEX and Factiva databases. While beyond the scope of the current manuscript,
401 we highlight the need to consider the possible evidence base available in other languages when
402 moving forward with a wider destructive fishing discourse (Amano et al., 2016). Second, we
403 acknowledge that trend formation (i.e. the underlying drivers of why a concept emerges and becomes
404 significant) is more complex than the basic terminological history we have been able to present. It is
405 likely that the political, scientific and popular discourses around this term are confounding variables
406 that influence one another in explaining the term's usage patterns, rather than discrete factors.
407 Finally, while we attempted to consider the differing motivations and mandates of the three record
408 types we drew our data from, we acknowledge contrasts in how language is used in these distinct
409 realms of discourse. In particular, we recognise the need for more analysis of ideological bias,
410 sentiment and positionality in further explaining why and how "destructive fishing" is prioritised in
411 these records. Nonetheless, our results offer valuable insights from which we can consider the
412 consequences of using the term vaguely and form recommendations for future work.

413 *Why is the term "destructive fishing" used vaguely?*

414 Through considering its usage in multi-lateral policy instruments (Table 2) from the FAO Code of
415 Conduct for Responsible Fisheries in 1995 (FAO, 1995) onwards, we see that there is a consistent
416 call for states to "end" or "prohibit" destructive fishing. However, the intent of these measures or the
417 negative impacts they are trying to prevent is often vague, therefore the scope of the measures or
418 specific practices they direct states to end is often absent. By confirming that usage across our three
419 content types is also vague, we demonstrate the need for a revised definition-setting process for the
420 term "destructive fishing", building on past efforts to derive a unified definition (FAO/UNEP, 2009; J.
421 C. Rice, 2011).

422 When considering examples of the term's associated negative impacts (Figure 5), we found that
423 specific negative impacts were articulated most commonly by academic literature and least commonly
424 by policy documents. This suggests that scientific research is the most likely record type to try to
425 identify a specific effect around the term "destructive". This finding is complicated by the abundance
426 and diversity of associated impacts across all three record types. While environmental harms such as
427 "habitat damage" and social harms such as "damage to livelihoods" were relatively consistent, other
428 identified impacts pointed towards "destructive fishing" overlapping with other, more-defined,

429 problematic dimensions of fisheries (e.g. “target species decline” and “overfishing”, “illegality” and
430 “IUU”, “unsustainable fishing”). Separating what is “destructive” from these more established concepts
431 is vital in ensuring clarity in the term’s future usage.

432 Regarding the term’s associated gears/practices (Table 5), we found that specific gears/practices
433 were identified most commonly by academic literature and least commonly by media articles. This
434 finding broadly supports the notion that scientific research is more likely to attempt to identify a
435 specific action as “destructive” than a media article is. There is also different emphasis placed on both
436 gears and impacts between policy and media *within* each continent (Tables S1, S2). It suggests the
437 importance of different concepts, as deemed by policy-makers, are poorly reflected in the media, who
438 may be more driven to generate more general interest in destructive fishing. More generally, the very
439 different emphasis on impacts among record types (Figure 5) indicates that different stakeholders
440 have very different interpretations on how the term should be used, providing a key reason why the
441 term, as it stands, is so nebulous.

442 The focus on negative impacts and gear/practices associated with “destructive fishing” are perhaps
443 also an explanation of why the term is used vaguely. These impacts and gears/practices are the most
444 common markers associated with the term’s written use and it is discrepancy around these markers
445 that inhibited past attempts to define the term (J. C. Rice, 2011). Selecting simple impacts and
446 gears/practices enormously simplifies the complexities outlined in (FAO/UNEP, 2009) and the range
447 of spatial, temporal and regional dimensions of what may constitute “destructive fishing” as well as
448 what constitutes a “practice”. Our findings also emphasise that discourse around this term partly
449 driven by political and value-oriented discussions of “which fishing gears cause which environmental
450 harms”. This is instructive in explaining why the term is vague given that the discourse generally
451 remains unresolved and polarised.

452 We emphasise that “destructive fishing” means different things to academics, media producers and
453 policy-makers in different parts of the world, and that a shared understanding of “destructive fishing”
454 requires reconciling a set of contrasting yet potentially equally valid approaches to the term. We see
455 this trend emerge in three specific ways in our results. First, different gears are emphasised by the
456 records of different continents across all of academia, media and policy (Table 5, Table S1),
457 suggesting that different parts of the world may be subject to different destructive practices (or may

458 differentially ascribe destructive properties to a practice). Therefore, a ubiquitous approach to
459 “destructive fishing” may benefit more from identifying *outcomes* as destructive, rather than specific
460 gears, which vary in usage and impact throughout the world. Second, we also see a different focus in
461 impacts between continents (Table S2), which may reflect the differing importance in fishing more
462 broadly. In particular, media records from Africa and Asia were particularly concerned about
463 “destructive fishing” causing a loss in fisheries income, and policy records were concerned with the
464 decline of target species. In contrast, media from Europe and North America were more concerned
465 with habitat damage and non-target species decline, and policy documents were not concerned at all
466 with target species decline (Table S2). We suggest that this may reflect the increased importance of
467 small-scale and subsistence fisheries in low/middle income tropical regions relative to high income
468 temperate regions. The recognition that fisheries (on the whole) hold variable importance to different
469 stakeholders and different regions is clearly an important driver of the vague use (at a global scale) of
470 “destructive fishing”. Third, and related to the second point, we also see broad global differences in
471 the total distribution of records (Figure 4). If a clear global use for the term “destructive fishing” is to be
472 found, we need to ensure that the evidence base and stakeholders consulted are also global: our
473 review suggests there is still work to be done in this area. It is particularly important to not mistake a
474 perceived absence in one area for a complete lack of consideration; for example, Central America
475 and West/North Africa have little discussion of destructive fishing in the media articles or academic
476 literature analysed in this study, yet it is clearly of interest to policy-makers in these areas (Figure 4).

477 *Consequences of an undefined term*

478 There remains a divide over whether to be “destructive” is to be defined by the inherent properties of
479 a fishing gear, the case-specific nature of instances in which those gears are used, or an even wider
480 range of parameters. For example, our study shows that the negative impacts associated with the
481 term may include social phenomena (Fig. 5), a parameter not even considered in (FAO/UNEP, 2009).

482 The current debate around the role of bottom trawling in the future of wild capture fisheries
483 exemplifies this schism and our results can partly help to explain why terminological unification could
484 contribute to better informing this debate. In our study, bottom trawling was more associated with the
485 term “destructive fishing” in media articles than in academic or policy documents. This is in contrast to
486 the broader trend of media articles being less specific about gears/practices, suggesting that popular

487 discourse drives this association more than scientific research. The only gears/practices more
488 frequently associated with the term were “blast fishing” and “poison fishing”, which are both already
489 politically well-established as “destructive” and, in most jurisdictions, illegal. Given we found different
490 specificity on the use of “trawling” versus “bottom trawling” in media and policy from different
491 continents, our results also highlight that the nuances in different terms may be understood differently
492 in different parts of the world, and that this needs to be constructively and openly addressed.

493 This comparison between an already marginalized, relatively regionally-specific set of practices (“blast
494 fishing” and “poison fishing”) and bottom trawling, a globally distributed commercial practice,
495 exemplifies the tension between the level of evidence needed to define something as “destructive”
496 and the politics and values associated with such a process. The question of whether bottom trawling
497 (which is generally legal) was in the same category of “inherently destructive” as blast and poison
498 fishing (which is generally illegal) or was “case-specifically destructive” seems to have been a major
499 contributor to the difficulties of the previous definition-setting process (J. C. Rice, 2011). Furthermore,
500 a 2009 review of the foundational “destructive fishing” multi-lateral framework (Figure 2) - the Code of
501 Conduct for Responsible Fisheries (in referring to global progress on article 8.4.2 “Prohibiting
502 destructive fishing methods and practices”) - referred to bottom trawls as “implicitly covered by the
503 measure” but noted that very few countries have interpreted it this way and implemented full
504 prohibitions (FAO, 2009).

505 The debate over the evidence and political priorities around bottom trawling remains highly polarised;
506 several expert review studies consistently rank its environmental impact as highest amongst fishing
507 gears (Chuenpagdee et al., 2003; Clark et al., 2017; Fuller et al., 2008). In contrast, other studies
508 emphasise the high degree of context-specificity in ascribing “destructive” ecological effects to this
509 practice (Hiddink et al., 2017) and the link between the severity of its impact and the level of in-situ
510 fisheries management (Pitcher et al., 2022). While much of this debate is complex and nuanced,
511 enduring central questions remain around whether bottom trawling is destructive in all contexts or only
512 in specific conditions, what it means for a fishing practice to be destructive and whether there are
513 objective parameters to identify this status. Similar problems regarding the differential interpretation
514 and implementation of a marine policy measure have been seen in the context Marine Protected
515 Areas and the resulting inconsistency in the protection they provide (Grorud-Colvert et al., 2021).

516 While a unified definition of “destructive fishing” would not resolve the intersectoral, political and
517 value-oriented tension around the relative impacts of different fishing practices, the authors believe it
518 would contribute strongly to better informing this debate. This in turn could foster more meaningful,
519 consistent, and even urgent, management of cases of “destructive fishing”, in line with the
520 requirements already established by multiple global ambitions (Figure 2).

521 *Recommendations for progress towards a unified definition*

522 Our study has shown that inherent vagueness, regional variation, and deeply political schisms of
523 interpretation may explain why global political ambitions that seek to end, prohibit or reduce
524 “destructive fishing” have struggled to succeed. Any future process to progress towards a unified
525 definition of “destructive fishing” and to resolve these tensions should consider the following:

526 1. Addressing context specificity and measurement around what is “destructive”: The tension
527 over whether a practice is destructive at a fundamental or contextual level is the central driver of the
528 vagueness of this term. This context includes both geographic context, and the forums (academic,
529 media or policy) in which the term is discussed.

530 2. Developing a regionalised and evidence-based approach to the causal “destructive” linkages
531 between specific fishing gears/practices and specific impacts: better capturing the interaction between
532 gears/practices and the impacts they are associated with (across different regions) would contribute
533 to reducing this vagueness.

534 3. Separating “destructive fishing” from other better-defined, fishery-associated terminology:
535 Shared understanding is undermined where the term is elided or synonymised with other terms, for
536 example, “overfishing” or “IUU fishing”. Separating what is “destructive” from what is merely
537 “unsustainable” is particularly critical.

538 4. Recognizing (and mitigating) persistent schisms between different stakeholder groups around
539 specific fishing practices and whether they should be considered “destructive”: The vagueness of the
540 term also reflects long-standing and unresolved intersectoral tensions around certain practices –
541 particularly bottom trawling and nets. Any future definition-setting process should be cognizant of
542 these tensions and seek meaningful progress in resolving them.

543 The term “destructive fishing”, despite appearing in multi-lateral agreements and increasing in use
544 over time, is used variably and vaguely across academic literature, media articles, and policy
545 documents, as well as across geographical regions. Variation in how different stakeholder groups
546 understand the term has no doubt contributed to tensions between cross-sectoral groups and
547 hindered the use of “destructive fishing” in a constructive manner. Our study provides a basis of
548 shared understanding for how the term is used in English-language documents that we hope will
549 provide a foundation for future, constructive efforts to define “destructive fishing”.

550

551

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553

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562

563 **Data Availability Statement**

564

565 All data is available in the manuscript or supplementary materials.

566

567

568 **References**

569

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- 716

717

718

719 **Tables**

720

721 Table 1. Definitions of problematic dimensions of fisheries (otherwise known as components of the
 722 overarching term “unsustainable fishing”) referred to in SDG Targets 14.4 and 14.7 (from FAO,
 723 UNEP, 2010) (FAO/UNEP, 2009)

Component of “unsustainable fishing”	Definition
Overfishing	“A situation in which the fishing pressure exerted on the target species is higher than the pressure theoretically required for harvesting the maximum sustainable yield (MSY), or would, if continued in the medium term, impair the population productivity”
IUU fishing	“Illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing”; more detailed definition in International Plan of Action to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal Unreported Unregulated Fishing
Destructive fishing practices	“The use of fishing gears in ways or in places such that one or more key components of an ecosystem are obliterated, devastated or ceases to be able to provide essential ecosystem functions”

724

725 Table 2. Contextual use of the term “destructive fishing” in five international policy instruments

International policy instrument	Relevant clause/article	Intent of clause/article (i.e. desired outcome)	Active phrase relating to “destructive fishing”	Scope of term
Code of Conduct on Responsible Fisheries (FAO, 1995)	8.4.2	“Ensuring the effective conservation, management and development of living aquatic resources, with due respect for the ecosystem and biodiversity”	“Prohibit”	“Dynamiting, poisoning and other comparable... practices”
UN General	66	“Responsible fisheries in	“Consider the	“Bottom trawling that has

Assembly 59 th Session, Resolution 59/25 (UN, 2004)		the marine ecosystem”	interim prohibition of”	adverse impacts on vulnerable marine ecosystems, including seamounts, hydrothermal vents and cold water corals located beyond national jurisdiction”
UN General Assembly 66 th Session, Resolution 66/288. (UN, 2011)	168	“Manage by-catch, discards and other adverse ecosystem impacts from fisheries”	“Eliminating”	n/a
Voluntary Guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small- Scale Fisheries (FAO, 2015)	5.16	“Sustainable resource management”	“Deter, prevent and eliminate”	n/a
UN Sustainable Development Goals (UN, 2016)	14.4	“Restore fish stocks in the shortest time feasible, at least to levels that can produce maximum sustainable yield as determined by their biological characteristics”	“End”	n/a

726

727 Table 3. Description of databases used and sampling methods

	Academic literature	National policy documents	Media
Database used	Scopus (Elsevier, 2021)	FAOLEX (FAO, 2021)	Factiva (DowJones, 2021)
Initial extract (records)	308	141	4678

with “destructive fishing” anywhere in text)			
Oldest record	1974	1976	1981
Rationale for selecting analytical sub-set	Presence in title and/or abstract	Discarded any documents using the term without context i.e. a reference in passing	Random selection using a statistically representative sample with a 95% confidence level and a 5% margin of error
Total records used for in-depth characterisation	52	115	355

728

729 Table 4. Examples of the term “destructive fishing” and commonalities between examples from across
730 record types. See Dataset S1 for full details.

Content type	Characterisation	Commonalities			Focal country and reference
		Specific negative impacts	Specific gears/practices	Specific properties	
Academic papers	“Fishing methods which are low cost, extremely effective regarding catch, but unsustainable due to wasted bycatch and damage to marine ecosystems”	Bycatch, Unsustainable, Ecosystem damage	n/a	Low cost, effective	Hong Kong, Malaysia, Philippines. (Chan & Hodgson, 2018)
	“Operations that destroy benthic habitats and result in indiscriminate fishing mortality”	Benthic damage, Indiscriminate mortality	n/a	n/a	Philippines. (Bacalso & Wolff, 2014)
	“Fishing gear is considered environmentally destructive if their use results in large amounts of by-catch of non-	Bycatch, Environmental degradation	n/a	n/a	Tanzania. (Silva, 2006)

	target species or cause degradation of the coastal environment”				
	“Fishing methods, gears or practices whose impact is so indiscriminate and/or irreversible that they are universally considered destructive irrespective of the environment in which they are used”	Indiscriminate impact, Irreversible impact	n/a	Universally “destructive”	Global. (Javaid et al., 2017)
National policy documents	“Control destructive fishing such as the use of the small-size mesh.”	n/a	Small-mesh nets	n/a	India. West Bengal Fisheries Policy (ICSF, 2021)
	“The main threats include destructive fishing practices such as bombing and cyanide fishing”	n/a	Bombing, cyanide	n/a	Indonesia. National Strategy and Action Plan: 2012 – 2015 (MFF, 2012)
	“Electrofishing has emerged as a major threat, decimating fisheries as well as impacting species that depend on them, and causing direct fatalities to the Critically Endangered...Irrawaddy Dolphin”	Endangered species mortality, Fishery decimation	Electrofishing	n/a	Myanmar. National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan 2015-2020 (Tun, 2011)
	“The juvenile mortality of these species has been increasing as a result of	Bycatch, Juvenile mortality,	Shrimp fishing (trawling)	n/a	Liberia. National Fisheries and

	increase in the by-catch rate in the shrimp fishery. This situation is aggravated by the indiscriminate use of destructive fishing methods”	Indiscriminate			Aquaculture Policy and Strategy 2014 (Chenoweth, 2014)
Media articles	"Destructive fishing practices" are practices that destroy the long-term natural productivity of fish stocks or habitats such as seamounts, corals, and sponge fields for short term gain”	Fish stock productivity decline, Sensitive benthic community damage	n/a	Short-term gain	USA, Office of White House. (C. Rice, 2006)
	“Fishing practices that jeopardize fish stocks or the habitats that support them or provide a commercial advantage to those who engage in such practices that is unfair in comparison with their competitors.”	Jeopardy to fish stocks, Habitats, Unfairness	n/a	Provides commercial advantage	USA, The Hill (Snyder, 2006)
	"Indiscriminate methods that destroy and degrade the sea floor habitats, damage the ecosystems and put livelihoods at risk”	Benthic damage, livelihood risk	n/a	n/a	New Zealand, Green Party (Sage, 2016)
	"... practices that are destroying marine life, hurting coastal communities, jobs and the people that depend on the ocean"	Marine life destruction, Socio-economic destruction	n/a	n/a	Global, Evening Standard (Foster, 2018)

731

732 Table 5. Fishing practices associated with the term “destructive fishing” and proportions of reference
 733 to each practice across record types. “Fishing gears” ordered by classification in (He et al., 2021).

734 “Auxiliary devices” and “Other fishing practices” ordered alphabetically. Practices with mean
 735 proportion of references above 25% highlighted in blue.

Fishing practice type	Fishing practice	Proportion of relevant records that refer to practice			Mean proportion across all content types	Dominant focal region across all content types
		Academic papers	National policy documents	Media articles		
1. Fishing gears	1.1 Purse seines	12%	5%	10%	9%	Asia
	2.1 Beach seine	12%	4%	0%	5%	Africa
	2.2 Boat seines	6%	4%	3%	4%	Asia
	3. Trawls (<i>not specified</i>)	4%	4%	17%	8%	Africa
	3.1 Bottom trawls	24%	23%	32%	27%	North America
	4. Dredges	4%	0%	7%	4%	Oceania
	7.1 Set gillnets (anchored)	0%	9%	4%	4%	North America
	7.2 Drift gillnets	0%	7%	4%	4%	North America
	7.x Fine-meshed nets	6%	11%	8%	8%	Africa
	7.x Gillnets (<i>not specified</i>)	8%	7%	6%	7%	Oceania
	7.x Nets (<i>not specified</i>)	10%	21%	14%	15%	Asia
	9.3 Longlines	2%	0%	7%	3%	Oceania
	10.2 Hand implements	10%	13%	1%	8%	South America
	10.4 Electric fishing	6%	9%	3%	6%	Asia
	10.5 Push nets	2%	4%	2%	2%	Africa
10.7 Drive-in nets	4%	5%	2%	4%	Asia	
10.8 Diving	6%	0%	1%	2%	Asia	
2. Auxiliary devices	Fish Aggregating Devices	0%	2%	6%	2%	Oceania
	Lights	0%	2%	4%	2%	Africa
3. Other	Blast fishing	67%	59%	28%	51%	Africa/Asia

fishing practices	Coral harvesting	0%	9%	2%	4%	Oceania
	Ornamental fishing (reefs)	0%	7%	1%	3%	Asia
	Poison fishing	63%	46%	20%	43%	Asia

736

737

738

739 **Figure Legends**

740

741 **Figure 1. Suggested relationship between problematic dimensions of fisheries referred to in**
742 **SDG Target 14.4 and 14.7 and their associated indicators**

743

744 **Figure 2. Presence of “destructive fishing” in multilateral ocean policy frameworks.**

745

746 **Figure 3. Change in frequency articles focusing on destructive fishing over time.** Articles are in
747 academic literature (green line); media articles (orange line); and policy (blue line). The article
748 frequency rate is adjusted to account for the background rate of publications on fisheries; see
749 Methods. Vertical lines in (labelled a - i) indicate significant global policy mechanisms that impact
750 fisheries management and conservation

751

752 **Figure 4. Map indicating the percentage of academic, media, and policy focal articles that**
753 **focus on each global region.** Alternating shades of grey are used to represent each global region.
754 Percentages were rounded up to the nearest whole percent, to enable records at <0.5% to be
755 visualised, therefore some totals slightly exceed 100%.

756

757 **Figure 5. Bar charts showing the ecological, economic and social impacts of destructive**
758 **fishing for each content type.** Ecological, economic, and social themes are grouped into key
759 subcategories; see Methods for the process used to define these groups. Note that there was uneven
760 emphasis on the three themes, with environmental impacts being more widely discussed than
761 economic or social impacts, and so each y-axis is on a different scale. Main coloured images: Tracey
762 Saxby, Integration and Application Network (ian.umces.edu/media-library). Small icons from the Noun
763 Project (website icon, Syawaluddin; policy document icon, iconixar; academic icon, general Noun
764 project).

Target

14.4: By 2020, effectively regulate harvesting, and end:

14.6: Prohibit certain forms of fisheries subsidies which contribute to:

Components

Overfishing

Illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing

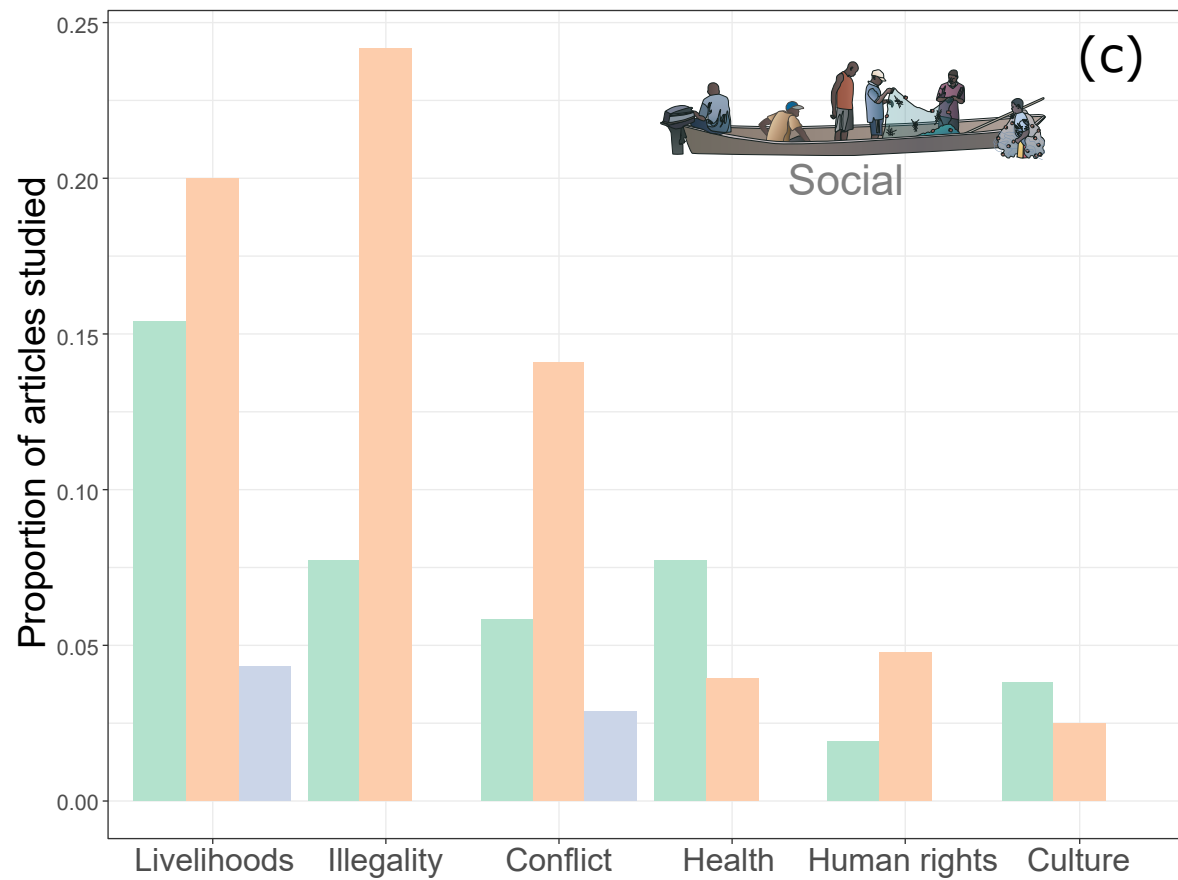
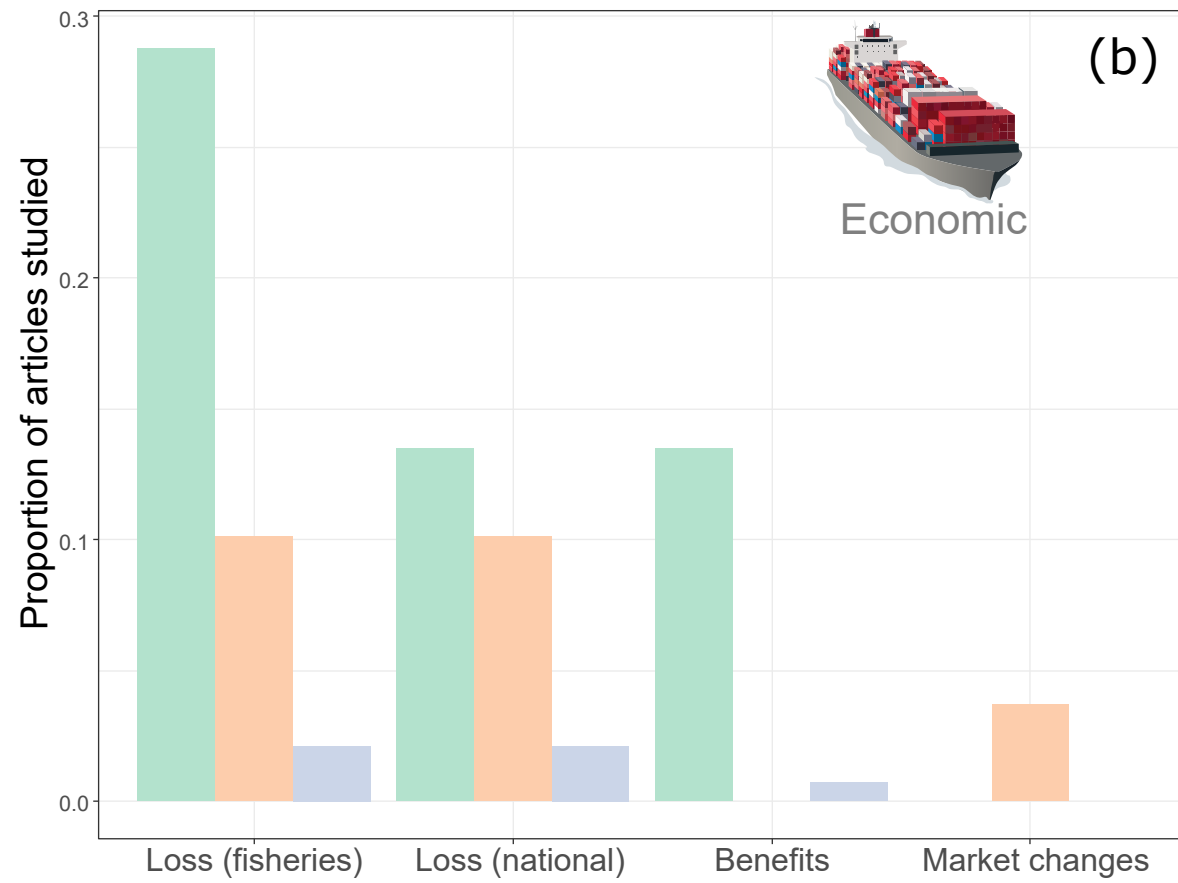
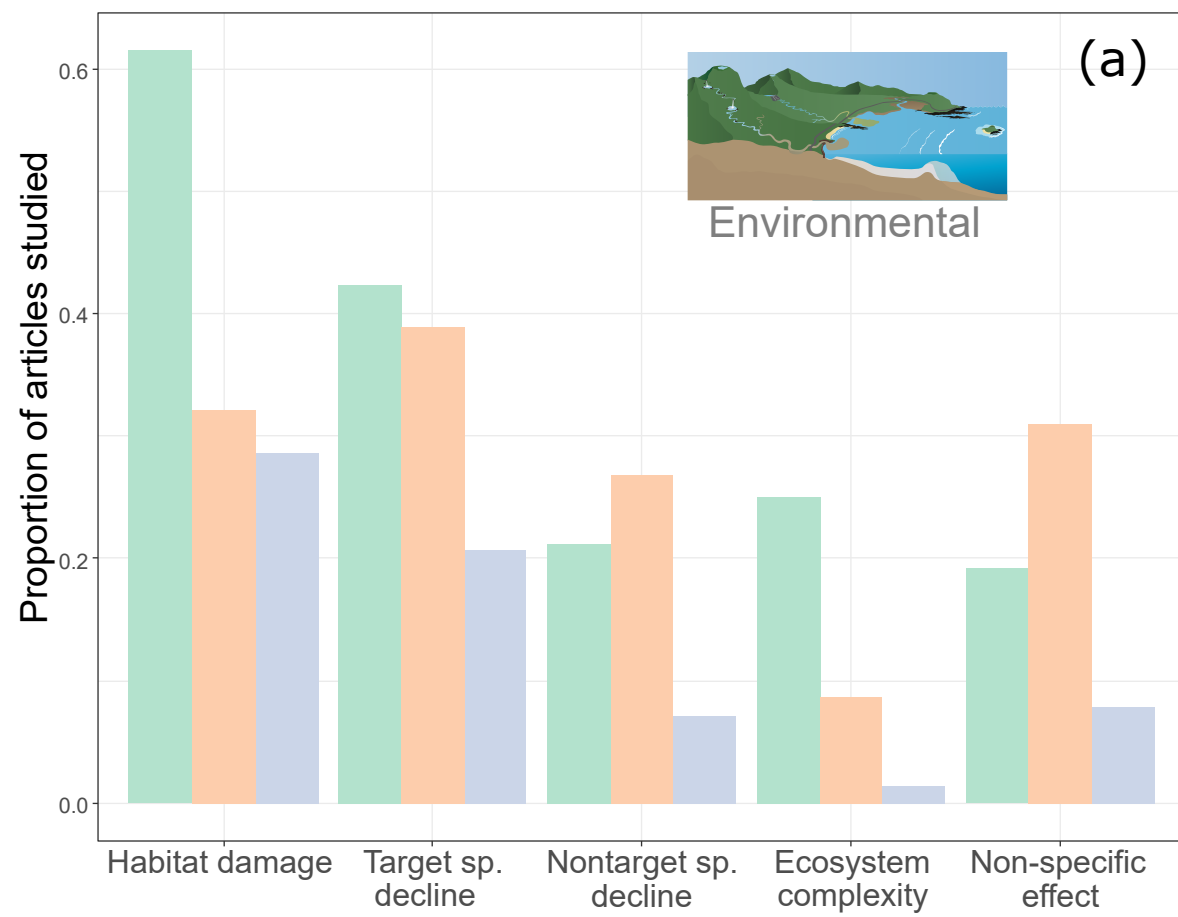
Destructive fishing practices

Indicators

14.4.1 Proportion of fish stocks within biologically sustainable levels

14.6.1 Degree of implementation of international IUU instruments

No specific measurement of progress



1995



Article 8.4.2:

“States should **prohibit** dynamiting, poisoning and other comparable **destructive fishing practices**”

2004



General Assembly

Fifty-ninth session

Resolution 59/25, Art 66:

“Calls upon States...to **take action urgently**, and consider the interim prohibition of **destructive fishing practices**”

2012



RIO+20
United Nations
Conference on
Sustainable
Development

Article 168:

“We commit to enhance action to manage by-catch, discards and other adverse ecosystem impacts from fisheries, including by **eliminating destructive fishing practices**”

2015

Voluntary Guidelines for Securing Sustainable Small-Scale Fisheries
in the Context of Food Security and Poverty Eradication

Article 5.16:

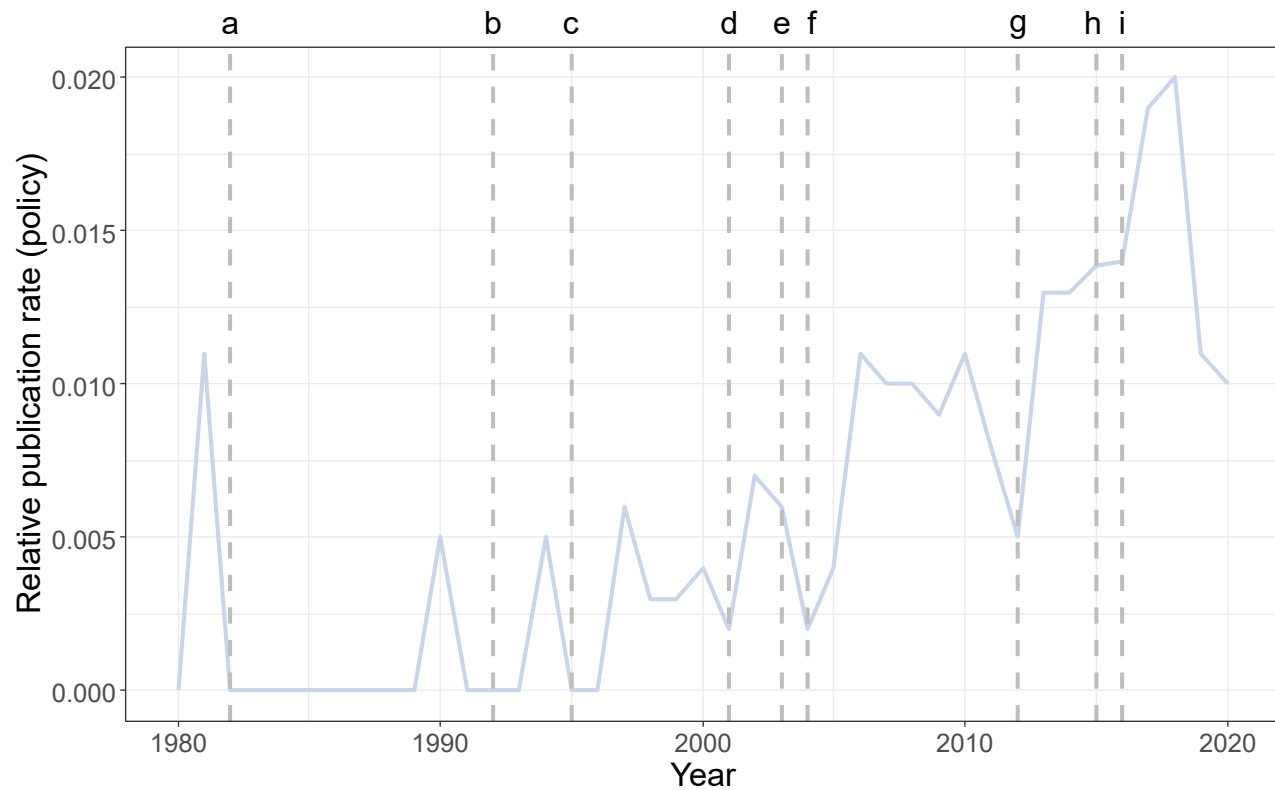
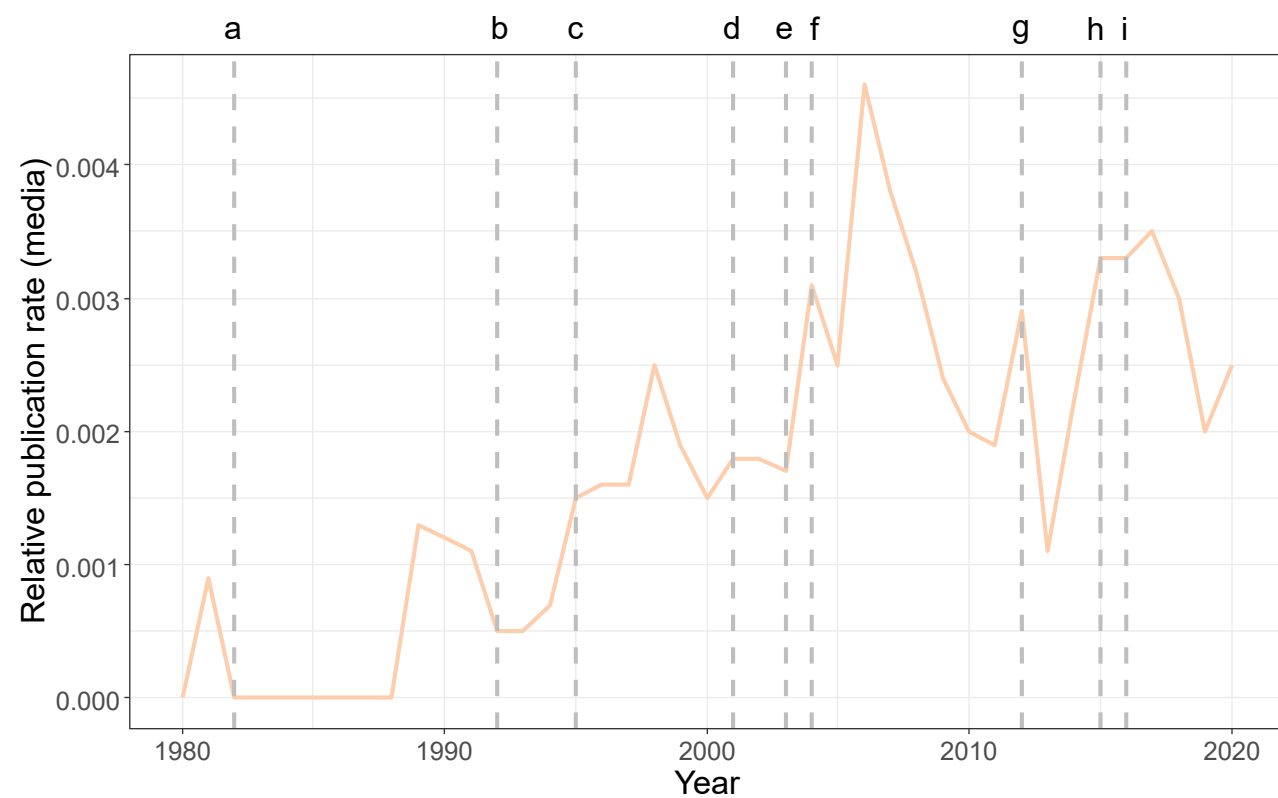
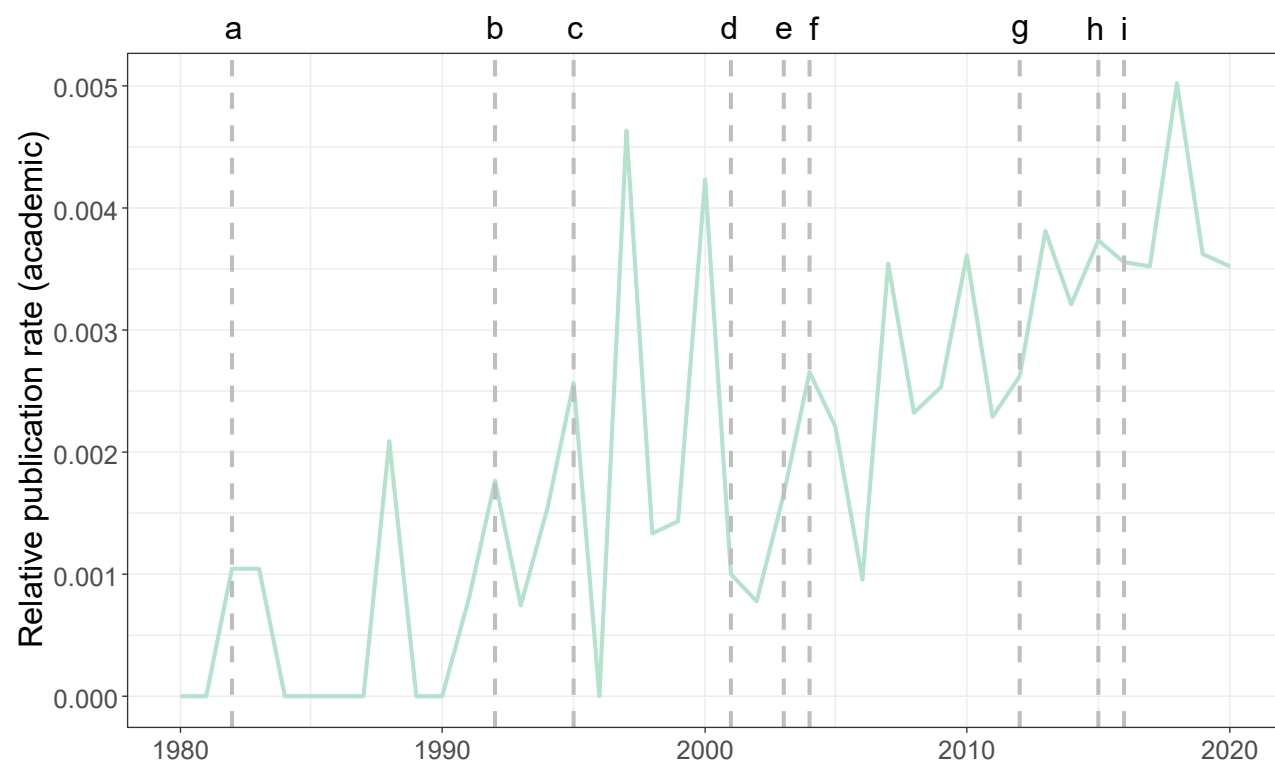
“States should...**deter, prevent and eliminate** all forms of illegal and/or **destructive fishing practices** having a negative effect on marine and inland ecosystems.”

2016



Target 14.4:

“By 2020, effectively regulate harvesting, and **end** overfishing, illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing and **destructive fishing practices**”



- a: UN Convention on the Law of the Sea
- b: Convention on Biological Diversity
- c: FAO Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries
- d: UN Fish Stocks Agreement
- e: FAO Compliance Agreement
- f: UN Resolution 59/25
- g: Rio +20 Sustainable Development Conference
- h: Guidelines for Securing SSF
- i: 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (SDGs)

