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# Combining quantitative and qualitative models to identify functional groups for monitoring changes in the Bay of Biscay continental shelf exploited foodweb

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#### Abstract:

To develop and implement ecosystem-based management, it is critical to monitor foodweb components or functional groups which are robust to uncertainty in ecosystem structure and functioning yet sensitive to changes. To select such functional groups for the Bay of Biscay continental shelf, both quantitative and qualitative foodweb models were developed. First, functional groups for which predictions of directions of change following an increase in primary productivity, prey or predators, or in fishing activities were identical across alternative qualitative model structures were identified. Second, the robustness to model type was assessed by comparing qualitative predictions with quantitative Ecopath model results. The demersal fish community was identified as a sensitive and robust indicator for monitoring foodweb ecological status in the Bay of Biscay. The present study also suggested the potential antagonistic effects of alternative management measures on small pelagic fish and highlighted the need for the joint management of all pressures.

**Keywords:** comparative studies ; ecosystem management ; foodweb ; loop analysis ; Northeast Atlantic continental shelf

32 1. Introduction

33 Human activities increasingly affect ecosystem processes (Millenium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005). Therefore the ability to predict the direct and indirect effects of human activities has 34 become a priority (Jennings and Kaiser, 1998; Stevens et al., 2000). For marine ecosystems, 35 implementing the ecosystem approach to fisheries, also called ecosystem-based fisheries 36 management (EBFM), has led to the development of a wide range of models dealing with 37 38 fishing effects at ecosystem scale (Plagànyi, 2007). Ecosystem models that take into account several trophic levels are proposed as complements to conventional stock-assessment models, 39 for example, for refining estimates of mortality and production of commercially important 40 41 species (Gaichas et al., 2010), or in a more holistic way, for providing information on the state of the whole system (Baltic Sea case study; ICES (2011b)). In parallel to the 42 development of the ecosystem approach to fisheries, the European marine strategy framework 43 44 directive (MSFD) provides a legislative and operational framework at the European scale. The main objective of the MSFD is to achieve or maintain "good environmental status" 45 46 (GES) of marine ecosystems by 2020 at the latest (http://ec.europa.eu; Directive 2008/56/EC). Due to the complexity of ecosystems and their inherent spatial and temporal variability, 47 model predictions based on a single model structure are highly uncertain. As marine food 48 49 webs are difficult and costly to observe, variable amounts of information are gathered on different parts of them, leading to uncertainty in data and subsequently in model parameter 50 estimates (Plagànyi and Butterworth, 2004; Hill et al., 2007). The effects of model structure 51 and parameter uncertainty can be considerably reduced by considering predictions from a 52 53 suite of models of differing complexity; the approach is known as the "biological ensemble modelling approach, BEMA" (Gårdmark et al., 2012). 54 55 Quantitative predictions of the magnitude of food web responses to natural perturbations or

56 potential management measures are not always needed for management (Dambacher *et al.*,

2009). Instead, knowledge on directions of trends in food web components (Rochet *et al.*, 57 58 2010) and robust predictions from complementary models (Ortiz and Wolff, 2008; Metcalf, 2010) may be sufficient. In this study, robust model predictions are defined as those which are 59 similar for different models. If a number of alternative plausible models with different 60 structures and/or underlying functions and behaviours yield qualitatively similar predictions, 61 62 this helps to gauge how much confidence can be placed in the predictions and provides a basis for selecting suitable management measures (Plagànyi and Butterworth, 2012). For the 63 implementation of the MSFD, the GES of ecosystems should be translated into measurable 64 environmental targets and associated indicators that can be monitored in situ in a cost-65 66 effective manner (Van Hoey et al., 2010). In this context, a multiple comparative modelling approach could be useful for identifying reliable indicators of ecosystem changes (Samhouri 67 et al., 2009; Metcalf et al., 2011). 68

69 In marine ecosystems worldwide, continental shelves and slopes are subject to both landdriven and marine anthropogenic pressures (Halpern et al., 2008). The North-Eastern Atlantic 70 71 shelf was identified by Halpern and collaborators as one of the areas suffering from high anthropogenic pressures. In the Bay of Biscay, fishing is the only human activity having 72 widespread documented impacts on several ecosystem components (Lorance et al., 2009). 73 The present study used qualitative and quantitative food web models of the Bay of Biscay 74 continental shelf ecosystem to predict the effects of two kinds of human and natural pressure 75 changes: (i) increase in fishing pressure exerted by the different fleets operating in the area 76 and, (ii) increase in primary productivity due to nutrient inputs and/or climate change. The 77 main aims of the study were first to determine predicted ecosystem changes which were 78 robust to model structure, i.e. identical for alternative qualitative models, and to model type 79 (qualitative or quantitative models), and second to identify potential indicators for food web 80

ecological status monitoring which are robust to model uncertainty but sensitive to changes in
primary productivity or fishing pressure.

The paper is structured as follows. First, the two modelling approaches and the "Bay of 83 Biscay" models are presented. Second, the methodology used to determine sensitive food web 84 components are described. Third, a short description of Ecopath outputs is provided, followed 85 by the identification of predictions robust to both model structure and model type. Lastly, the 86 identification of suitable indicators of food web changes and management options that 87 emerged from this study is discussed. The focus was generally on small pelagics given their 88 large variability on an annual and decadal time scales and their role as a major natural 89 90 resource and as key contributors to the functioning of marine ecosystems (see the review by 91 Fréon et al. (2005)).

92

93 2. Material and Methods

94 2.1. Study area

The Bay of Biscay is a large gulf in the Northeast Atlantic located off the western coast of
France and the northern coast of Spain, between 48°5 and 43°5'N and 8 and 3'W (Figure 1).
It is part of the "Celtic-Biscay shelf" large marine ecosystem (LME;

http://www.lme.noaa.gov/). The Bay of Biscay supports a multi-species, multi-fleet fishery 98 with a large diversity of species exploited by a wide range of fishing gears primarily operated 99 from French and Spanish ports. The French fleets can be characterized by 12 landing profiles 100 each dominated by one or two species (Daurès et al., 2009). Nine species characterized most 101 102 profiles and 20 species contributed over 80% in volume and value of French landings during the period 2000 to 2006 (Daurès et al., 2009). For the Spanish fleet, no equivalent information 103 was found. Though French fleet capacity has decreased over the last two decades, the positive 104 effects of this on the ecosystem are not (yet) detectable (Rochet et al., 2012). 105

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- 107 2.2. Quantitative modelling
- 108 2.2.1. Ecopath approach
- 109 The food web of the French continental shelf was modelled using Ecopath with Ecosim
- 110 (Christensen and Walters, 2004; Christensen *et al.*, 2008). EwE is a tool to analyse organic
- 111 matter and energy flows within a steady-state/static (Ecopath) and dynamic (Ecosim) mass-
- balance model. The Ecopath model parameterization is based on two "master" equations. The
- 113 first equation decomposes the production term of each compartment (species or group of
- 114 species with similar trophic role):
- 115 Production = fishery catch + predation mortality + net migration + biomass accumulation +
- 116 other mortality
- 117 "Other mortality" includes natural mortality factors such as mortality due to senescence,
- diseases, etc.
- 119 The second equation describes the energy balance within each group:
- 120 Consumption = production + respiration + unassimilated food
- 121 More formally, the two equations can be written as follows for group *i* and its predator *j*:

122  $B_i \times (P/B)_i = Y_i + \sum_i (B_i \times (Q/B)_i \times DC_{ij}) + Ex_i + Bacc_i + B_i(1 - EE_i) \times (P/B)_i$  (1)

123 and

124  $B_i \times (Q/B)_i = B_i \times (P/B)_i + R_i + U_i$  (2)

- where the main input parameters are biomass density (*B*, here in kg C·km<sup>-2</sup>), production rate (*P/B*, year<sup>-1</sup>), consumption rate (*Q/B*, year<sup>-1</sup>), proportion of *i* in the diet of *j* (*DC*<sub>*ij*</sub>; *DC* = diet composition), net migration rate (*Ex*, year<sup>-1</sup>), biomass accumulation (*Bacc*, year<sup>-1</sup>), total catch
- 128 (*Y*; kg C·km<sup>-2</sup>), respiration (*R*; kg C·km<sup>-2</sup>·year<sup>-1</sup>), unassimilated food fraction (*U*) and
- 129 ecotrophic efficiency (*EE*).

Several indices can be derived from an Ecopath model. Niche overlap is calculated as the 130 proportion of prey and predators shared among different functional groups. Niche overlap 131 between two groups was assumed important if greater than 0.6. The mixed trophic impact 132 (MTI) matrix quantifies the direct and indirect trophic impacts of each functional group on 133 (the biomass of) all other functional groups (Ulanowicz and Puccia, 1990). It is calculated as 134 the product of all net impacts. The MTI is based on the assumption that the overall trophic 135 136 structure remains constant. The net impact of i on j, denoted  $q_{ij}$ , is given by the difference between positive effects  $d_{ji}$  (quantified by the fraction of prey *i* in the diet of predator *j*), and 137 negative effects  $f_{ij}$  (evaluated as the fraction of total consumption of *j* used by predator *i*): 138

139  $q_{ij} = d_{ji} - f_{ij}$  (3)

The elements of the MTI matrix  $m_{ij}$  are then calculated as the product of the net impacts  $q_{ij}$  of 140 141 all possible pathways in the food web that link the functional groups i and j. Negative  $m_{ii}$ values indicate prevalence of predator effects (top-down effects) while positive values 142 indicate prevalence of prey effects (bottom-up effects). To evaluate the sensitivity of the signs 143 of the  $m_{ij}$  values (referred to as the original MTI values) to small changes in the  $q_{ij}$  values, 144 5000 Q matrices were created by drawing  $q_{ij}$  values from independent uniform distributions 145 146 defined by original  $q_{ij} \pm 0.1$ . The sample of Q matrices was then used to calculate  $m_{ij}$  values, record their sign and estimate the percentage of  $m_{ii}$  values with the same sign as in the original 147 MTI matrix  $(S_{MTI})$  (Rochette *et al.*, 2009; Nelva Pasqual, 2013). This sensitivity analysis is 148 not part of the distributed EwE 6 software package; further technical information can be 149 found in Rochette et al. (2009) and be requested from the first author. 150

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152 2.2.2. Quantitative Bay of Biscay model

153 A full description of the Bay of Biscay Ecopath implementation, including the diet

154 composition and parameter values, can be found in Lassalle *et al.* (2011). For Ecopath results

to be meaningful, model parameters need to be based on information specific to the study 155 156 area. For almost all groups, biomass (B), production/biomass ratio (P/B), consumption/biomass ratio (Q/B) as well as diet composition (DC) were derived from area 157 and period specific raw data or stock assessment results. Thirty-two functional groups were 158 included in the model: two seabirds groups, five marine mammal, nine fish, eight 159 160 invertebrate, three zooplankton, two primary producer, and one bacteria group, as well as discards from commercial fisheries and pelagic detritus. The five main pelagic forage fish 161 species were given their own group while demersal fish were divided into four multi-species 162 groups on the basis of their diets. The model covered the central shelf of ICES divisions VIIIa 163 164 and b between the 30-m and 150-m isobaths with a surface area of 102 585 km<sup>2</sup>. Shallower and deeper parts were excluded for data availability reasons. The study area represented the 165 core of the distribution range for most species included in the model. Nevertheless, those 166 167 species were known to frequent the whole Northeast Atlantic (www.fishbase.org/). The model represented a typical year between 1994 and 2005, i.e. before the collapse of the European 168 anchovy and the subsequent five-year closure of the fishery for this species. 169 170 The single fishery described in the original model by Lassalle et al. (2011) was split into three fleets targeting small pelagic fish, demersal fish and invertebrates respectively to be able to 171 study the impacts of these fleets separately (Table 1). Regarding the main target species, 172 anchovy and sardine were mainly captured by offshore pelagic trawlers and coastal seiners 173 respectively, hake by offshore netters, sole by netters and Nephrops by trawlers, both 174 operating from coastal to more offshore waters (Daurès et al., 2009). Due to these changes in 175 model structure, the model needed re-balancing, i.e. ecotrophic efficiency of piscivorous 176 demersal fish and carnivorous invertebrates' compartments were slightly above one. Their 177

biomasses were therefore increased by 4 and 10% respectively.

179	For parameterizing the three fishing fleets, for assessed stocks, international landings for
180	divisions VIIIa and b were obtained from reports of the relevant ICES working groups (see
181	Lassalle et al. (2011) for references). For multi-species fish groups, as well as mackerel and
182	horse mackerel, landings were taken from the Eurostat/ICES catch database (ICES 2010 -
183	Copenhagen). Annual landings were averaged over the period 1998-2003 for all
184	compartments as most of the biomass data were gathered during this interval (see
185	supplementary material 2 in Lassalle et al. (2011)). Due to lack of detailed spatial
186	information, landings could not be limited to the central shelf area, so they might be
187	somewhat overestimated.
188	Discards for each fishing fleet were obtained from the OBSMER programme for the year
189	2010 (Fauconnet et al., 2011), stock assessment reports cited above and the scientific
190	literature (Pierce et al., 2010). For this, based on expert advice (L. Fauconnet, pers. comm.),
191	each fishing gear was uniquely assigned to one of the three modelled fishing fleets (demersal,
192	pelagic and invertebrates). Due to sparse discard sampling coverage (mostly 2010), observer
193	bias, and non-random trip selection on a voluntary basis, discard estimates included in the
194	present model should be considered as the best estimates available, though they are most
195	likely underestimates.
196	Bycatch estimates for common dolphin and harbour porpoise were derived from observations
197	of incidental captures of cetaceans and seabirds in European waters (data from national
198	reports on the implementation of Regulation 812/2004); they were entered as discards in the
199	model. These recent cetacean bycatch estimates and past scientific publications indicated that

200 pelagic trawls were primarily responsible for common dolphins bycatch and set nets for

201 harbour porpoises incidental captures (see Lassalle *et al.* (2012) for references). Hence, the

estimates were assigned to the pelagic and demersal fleet respectively.

#### 204 2.3. Qualitative modelling

205 2.3.1. Loop analysis

For qualitative system analysis, a food web can be represented by a graph, known as a signed 206 207 digraph (Levins, 1974), which displays the interactions between variables (here functional groups and fleets) and is constructed using the signs of interactions (+, -, 0), not their 208 magnitude. This means model parameter values are not specified, only their signs. A signed 209 210 digraph has an equivalent representation in the community matrix (A) where each element  $a_{ii}$ represents the direct effect of variable *i* on variable *i*. For instance, the direct effect of a 211 predator group on its prey, i.e. removal of biomass through predation, is represented by a 212 213 negative link, and the direct effect of a prey group on its predators, i.e. biomass creation, gives rise to a positive link. Negative feedback connecting a population to it-self is termed a 214 self-effect. It represents intra-specific competition for space and resources particularly for 215 216 primary producers, intra-component predation, and links with the outside system as external recruitment or consumption of species from outside the system (Puccia and Levins, 1985). 217 218 Dambacher (2001) showed that negative self-effects applied to all system components 219 promoted the stability of the system and the results of associate inverse community matrix. Assuming the model system is at equilibrium, press perturbation analysis corresponds to 220 investigating the expected direction of change (toward a new equilibrium) of each model 221 variable, i.e. its abundance change, following sustained changes in the dynamics (birth or 222 223 death rates) of one or more model variables. It is carried out by considering the signs of the adjoint of the negative community matrix (adj-A) (Dambacher et al., 2002). In complex 224 systems, a press perturbation may impact a given variable through multiple pathways, a 225 pathway being a suite of direct (e.g. prey and predator) and indirect (e.g. prey of prey) effects 226 227 that lead from the input (pressed) variable to the response variable. If multiple pathways exist, the resulting responses of a given variable may have opposing signs (increase, +, or decrease, 228

- in abundance). The opposing signs create ambiguity in the predicted responses to change
(Dambacher *et al.*, 2002). Weights can be given to the predictions to provide an assessment of
the level of ambiguity (Dambacher *et al.*, 2003). For a given response variable, the weight
corresponds to the net number of pathways (difference between the number of positive and
negative responses) divided by the total number of pathways. Weights range between 0
(complete sign indeterminacy of predictions; sign of overall effect will depend on interaction
strength) and 1 (sign completely determined).

For investigating model stability, the sign of all feedback loops in the system are inspected. 236 Negative feedback loops maintain a system's equilibrium. Conversely, positive feedbacks 237 238 magnify changes in variables and drive runaway growth or collapse (refer to Dambacher et al. (2003) for a description of feedback cycles). A model system needs to be stable, at least under 239 certain conditions, for the results of press perturbation analyses to be meaningful. 240 241 PowerPlay (version 2.0; http://esapubs.org/Archive/ecol/E083/022/suppl-1.htm) was used to draw signed digraph (Westfahl et al., 2002) and the "Loop Analysis" facility provided on the 242 243 "Loop Group" web page (http://www.ent.orst.edu/loop/) to perform qualitative and symbolic 244 analysis of the community matrix, including press perturbation analyses corresponding to changes in primary productivity and fishing mortality. For further details on loop analysis, see 245

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248 2.3.2. Qualitative Bay of Biscay models

Rochet *et al.* (2013) proposed a simplified food web model for North-Atlantic temperate shelf
fish communities, that was adapted in the present study to the specific case of the Bay of
Biscay continental shelf (baseline model; Figure 2a). The model has seven functional groups
or model nodes which were organized into two trophic chains, one pelagic chain and one
bentho-demersal chain, coupled at different trophic levels and connected at the top by top

Puccia and Levins (1985), Dambacher *et al.* (2002) and the web site of the "Loop Group".

predators. Pelagic piscivores include albacore (Thunnus alalunga) and bluefin (Thunnus 254 *thynnus*) tunas which are highly migratory species caught off the shelf (but adjacent to the 255 shelf break) in the Bay of Biscay (international commission for the conservation of Atlantic 256 257 tunas (ICCAT); http://www.iccat.es/en/). As no reliable biomass estimates exist, pelagic piscivores were not included in the Ecopath model. Tunas were assumed to have no impact on 258 259 pelagic planktivores given the low spatial and temporal overlap between these two groups. 260 Benthos includes suspension and deposit feeders of dead plankton bodies, but because benthos is restricted to the sea floor, it is not expected to have a negative effect on living 261 plankton. Other predator-prey links (benefiting the predator and detrimental to the prey) 262 263 present in the original model of Rochet et al. (2013) were evaluated on the basis of the expertise gained with the Bay of Biscay Ecopath model, which led to the removal of several 264 weak links. The modifications made to the original model of Rochet et al. (2013) were 265 266 summarized in Figure 2b (both additions and removals of links). Fisheries were grouped into three fleets as in the Ecopath model: a pelagic fleet which targets 267 planktivores and pelagic piscivores, a demersal fleet targeting demersal piscivores, 268 269 benthivores are targeted and/or taken as bycatch by this fleet, and benthos is negatively affected by the fishing gear. Some benthos species such as large crustaceans (e.g. Norway 270 lobster (*Nephrops norvegicus*)) were specifically targeted by an invertebrates fishery. 271 Press perturbation analyses were carried out for two general scenarios representing changes in 272 natural and anthropogenic pressures which correspond to a permanent increase or decrease in 273 (i) primary productivity resulting in higher/lower birth rates of each functional group, (ii) the 274 size of each fishing fleet due to fisheries management. As results of a permanent increase are 275 symmetrical (reverse in signs) to those for a permanent decrease, press perturbation results are 276 277 only presented for permanent increases.

The press perturbation of the baseline model and its three variants were compared to assess 278 279 structural uncertainty. The model variants were obtained by modifying some of the links in the baseline model presented in Figure 2a. On the first hand, as the internal dynamics of a 280 fishery are more driven by management rather than by economics or resource state (Rochet et 281 al., 2012), the positive links between targeted groups and fleets were removed from the 282 283 baseline model leading to the variant 1. On the other hand, the positive effect of demersal 284 benthivores on demersal piscivores was removed as it was questionable whether piscivores population dynamics really depend on benthivores abundance. Variants 2 and 3 were thus 285 derived from the baseline model and the variant 1, respectively. Local conditions for stability 286 287 of the baseline model and its three variants were evaluated using two Routh-Hurwitz criteria (Dambacher *et al.*, 2003). 288

289

290 2.4 Comparability of the qualitative and quantitative models

Studying potential system changes using loop analysis or the MTI matrix of an Ecopath 291 292 model both aim at taking into account direct (e.g. prey and predator) and indirect (e.g. prey of prey) ecosystem interactions and depend on matrix algebra. Therefore, the results are often 293 interpreted in a similar way, that is as providing the likely system response to sustained small 294 positive or negative inputs (e.g. Metcalf (2010)). This interpretation was retained in the 295 present study but other alternatives exist (Nelva Pasqual, 2013). Metcalf (2010) asserted that 296 if model structure is the same when using MTI and qualitative modelling, and if no ambiguity 297 of flows or predictions occurs, the results obtained with the two methods will be of the same 298 299 sign. However, there is an important difference in the resolution at which the two model types function the best and as such are generally constructed. A typical Ecopath model has between 300 301 24 and 40 functional groups, and should include at least 12 groups in order to cover the entire ecosystem, from detritus to top predators (Christensen et al., 2008). A qualitative model with 302

so many variables would provide highly ambiguous press perturbation results and thus bring 303 304 little insights into the dynamics of the system following perturbation. For example, weights of most predictions were zero for a qualitative model with 35 functional groups as in the 305 306 Ecopath model. In contrast, in qualitative modelling, it is easy to use multiple simple model structures and thus assess the effects of structural uncertainty on press perturbation results. 307 308 As Ecopath models with different number of groups can have different total impact matrices in which the signs of relationships can be reversed, differences between MTI predictions and 309 press perturbation analyses should be interpreted with care (Nelva Pasqual, 2013). Briefly, 310 loop analysis is a qualitative analysis of the community matrix (Levins, 1974). Each element 311 312 of the community matrix represents the direct effect (+, -, 0) of one variable on the growth rate of another variable at equilibrium (Puccia and Levins, 1985). In the case of MTI, the 313 direct impact matrix is calculated from flow transfers (Ulanowicz and Puccia, 1990). 314 315 Therefore, the community matrix and the MTI matrix can only be related when the flow intensity reflects the strength of the dynamic effects between two variables. High flow 316 317 transfers can potentially be associated with a high dynamic effect, but it is not always the case 318 especially when considering interactions between populations.

319

320 2.5. Identifying functional groups sensitive to food web changes

Functional groups sensitive to natural or anthropogenic pressure changes are suitable as indicators for monitoring changes in the food web dynamics. When identifying sensitive functional groups, particular attention was paid to MTI and press perturbation results for scenarios corresponding to an increase in fleets or a functional group, in particular plankton; responses to a decrease are strictly reverse in signs. Indeed, in both approaches, the qualitative nature of any indirect effect is determined by the sign of the product of the sequential actions along the pathway by which such influence is exerted (Ulanowicz and Puccia, 1990). The

consequences of several perturbations happening concomitantly were not assessed as it 328 329 greatly increases model prediction ambiguity and such complex simulations (multiple pressure scenarios) could not be performed using the available tools in Ecopath. 330 331 The identification of indicator functional groups was carried out in several steps. First, qualitative (press perturbation) model predictions which had weighted predictions  $\geq 0.5$  and 332 were consistent over the baseline model and its three variants were selected. They were 333 334 termed robust qualitative predictions. Dambacher et al. (2002) had demonstrated that weighted-prediction values >0.5 were found to exhibit high (near 95%) sign determinacy. 335 Second, their robustness to model type was investigated by comparing the qualitative 336 337 predictions to the niche overlap and MTI matrices from the Ecopath model. Further, the predator and prey overlap indices were combined on the same graph to quantitatively identify 338 which species, or groups of species, were strongly linked by trophic interactions. Third, 339 340 functional groups (and species) with robust qualitative predictions and quantitative MTI predictions with the same sign were identified. Fourth, among those groups, functional groups 341 342 which change (increase or decrease) when fleet size or another functional group is increased, 343 i.e. perturbed, were selected as suitable indicators of food web changes. They are three important criteria for suitable ecosystem indicators: they should be sensitive to perturbations, 344 345 have an overall influence on the ecosystem and be currently monitored (Fulton *et al.*, 2005). The modelling approach applied here ensures the first two criteria are fulfilled, the third 346 347 criteria is evaluated using additional information.

348

349 3. Results

350 3.1. Robust predictions determined from qualitative models

351 The baseline model and its three variants had local conditions for stability based on the

352 metrics of Dambacher *et al.* (2003). Press perturbation results for single pressure changes are

summarised in Table 2. The percentage of concordant predictions was low but allowed the
identification of robust conclusions which could be compared with the quantitative Ecopath
outputs. Most robust predictions corresponded to a top-down control exerted by higher
trophic level groups which was transmitted down the food web. Given the general structure of
the considered models, plankton (Plkt) was never influenced by any of the other functional
groups in any of the press perturbation analyses.

Regarding fishing activities, none of the qualitative predictions for an increase in the 359 invertebrate fleet (Inv Fleet) were consistent across alternative model structures. In contrast, 360 predictions regarding the impact of the pelagic fleet (Pel Fleet) presented high consistency in 361 362 terms of the groups impacted and the directions of responses. In all cases, the functional group "top predators" (TopP) was predicted to decrease in abundance following a press 363 perturbation (increase) in the pelagic fleet. This decrease was associated with a concomitant 364 365 response of the demersal food chain, i.e. an increase of demersal piscivores and a decrease in demersal benthivores. An increase in the demersal fleet (Dem Fleet) was always predicted to 366 lead to an increase of pelagic planktivores (Plv). Plv were predicted to also increase in 367 response to an increase in primary productivity (Plkt). 368 Permanent changes in top predators and demersal piscivores led to robust qualitative 369

370 predictions of changes for themselves and other functional groups. An increase in top

predators was predicted to have a negative effect on demersal piscivores and a positive one on

demersal benthivores. An increase in demersal piscivores was predicted to have a negative

impact on their benthic, demersal and pelagic prey, namely demersal benthivores and pelagic

374 planktivores.

375

376 3.2 Ecopath outputs

The combination of predator and prey diet overlap indices highlighted two groups occupying 377 the same trophic niche within the Bay of Biscay food web and as such being susceptible to 378 respond similarly or conjointly to perturbations. The two groups consist of the small pelagics 379 380 which have both similar prev and predators among the five species, and the suprabenthivorous demersal fish which share a large part of their prey, and have the same predators (Figure 3a). 381 Considering the MTI of each functional group, the largest impacts were positive and due to 382 phytoplankton, mesozooplankton and detritus (Figure 3b). Among the three fishing fleets, 383 only the invertebrate fleet had a positive MTI. Discards, which were caused by the 384 invertebrate fleet, were predicted to induce a positive response of the system in the MTI 385 386 assessment as well. Top predators and demersal fish compartments presented a homogeneous overall negative impact on the system while the effects of small pelagics differed. A small 387 increase of anchovy, sardine and sprat was predicted to provoke a positive response of the 388 389 food web as a whole, in contrast to a negative impact for mackerel and horse mackerel (Figure 3b). 390

391

#### 392 3.3. Concordant predictions

Robust qualitative predictions were found to be largely but not always consistent with the 393 quantitative Ecopath outputs (Table 3). In the Ecopath model, suprabenthivorous demersal 394 395 fish shared the same predators with all five modelled forage fish species (predator overlap index  $\geq 0.8$ ) (Figure 3a). This quantitative result was consistent with the predicted identical 396 qualitative response of Btv and Plv to an increase in demersal piscivores (Table 3). However, 397 398 when considering the MTI matrix, a negative impact of piscivorous demersal fish was predicted only for prey pertaining to the bentho-demersal food chain, thus the equivalent of 399 400 Btv (Figure 4). S<sub>MTI</sub> values ranged from 91 to 100 depending on the functional groups which indicated that the signs of the MTI matrix were insensitive to small changes in net impacts. 401

The small pelagic species shared the highest percentage of common prey, mostly composed of 402 403 zooplankton (prey overlap index  $\geq 0.75$ ) (Figure 3a). A slight increase in large phytoplankton was predicted by the MTI to result in a common positive response of all small pelagic species, 404 405 with the value of  $S_{MTI}$  being smallest for sprat (65%). This shared pattern was even clearer when mesozooplankton was the impacting group (Figure 4), *i.e.* MTI values were higher and 406 sign stable ( $S_{MTI}$  100%). These two quantitative results were in accordance with the robust 407 qualitative prediction of a positive response of the Plv group to a persistent increase of 408 primary production (Plkt) (Table 3). 409

Prey overlap was found to be high between seabirds, marine mammals and piscivorous 410 411 demersal fish. In the MTI it translated only into significant negative impacts between bottlenose dolphins and piscivorous demersal fish which constituted the sole major effect of 412 top predators on the food web (Figure 4) ( $S_{MTI}$  100%). As such, the Ecopath model was able 413 414 to take the analysis one step further in suggesting that the negative impact of top predators (TopP) on Dpis identified through press perturbation analysis was more likely related to 415 416 competition for food resources rather than to predation, i.e. the two groups feed largely on the 417 same prey.

In contrast, quantitative and qualitative findings did not agree regarding a positive impact of
an increase of top predators for benthivores (Table 3). This was due to some extent to the diet
regime of top predators differing between the two modelling approaches. In the Ecopath
model, marine mammals were feeding on piscivorous and benthivorous, suprabenthivorous,
and benthivorous demersal fish. No such trophic link existed between TopP and Btv in the
qualitative baseline model (Figure 2a).

424 Common dolphins and harbour porpoises, which are bycaught by the pelagic and demersal 425 fleets respectively (Table 1), were predicted by the Ecopath model to be negatively ( $S_{MTI}$ 

426 100%) impacted by a slight increase of fishing activities (Figure 4). Nevertheless, prey

427 overlap between top predators and fishing fleets was low to moderate (values ≥ 0.6 only for
428 common dolphins) and did not suggest strong competition between these two predator groups
429 for the same resources. Thus, the negative impacts were a result of direct effects of fishing.
430 These quantitative findings again strengthened the predictions obtained from the qualitative
431 models (Table 3).

Finally, conclusions derived from qualitative modelling regarding the impacts of the pelagic
fleet on functional groups in the bentho-demersal food chain and the effects of the demersal
fleet on zooplanktivorous pelagic fish were not confirmed by quantitative model outputs
(Table 3).

436

437 3.4 Potential indicators of food web changes

The predictions which were robust to model structure and model type concerned benthivores 438 439 (corresponding to several demersal fish compartments in the Ecopath model) and planktivores (corresponding to anchovy, sardine, sprat, mackerel and horse mackerel in the Ecopath 440 441 model) (Table 3). Benthivores are predicted to decrease when their demersal piscivores predators increase, while planktivores increase when primary productivity increases. Thus 442 benthivores and planktivores are potential indicator groups as together they are sensitive to 443 444 two types of food web changes, in the abundance of demersal piscivores and in primary productivity, respectively. 445

Though all demersal fish had a negative MTI, the relative magnitude varied between Ecopath demersal compartments (Figure 3b). The two groups with the strongest negative impact on the ecosystem (MTI) were the suprabenthivorous demersal fish and the benthivorous and piscivorous demersal fish (see supplementary material for their detailed composition). Blue whiting (*Micromesistius poutassou*) represented 80% of the biomass of suprabenthivorous demersal fish. Half of the biomass of benthivorous and piscivorous demersal fish was

452 composed of Gadidae, i.e. bib (*Trisopterus luscus*) and sand goby (*T. minutus*). The remaining
453 half comprised several other species.

Availability of survey data series is the third criteria for suitable indicator groups. In the Bay
of Biscay, a regular bottom trawl survey started in 1987, while pelagic planktivores have been
surveyed annually since 2000 using fisheries acoustics.

457

458 4. Discussion

In this study, benthivores and planktivores were identified as functional groups sensitive to 459 food web changes, independent of model structure and type. For planktivores, commonly 460 461 referred to as small pelagics, two robust predictions were identified: a high risk of decline associated with an increase in demersal piscivorous fish abundance and a potential increase 462 following a rise in primary productivity, the reverse being also true. The first pressure change, 463 464 for which predictions were only partially robust to model type, is very likely to take place during phases of demersal fish stock rebuilding, such as occurred in the recent years for the 465 European hake (Merluccius merluccius) stocks (ICES, 2011a). The European hake is an 466 abundant piscivorous species with a substantial part of its diet composed of small pelagics 467 (Guichet, 1995; Cabral and Murta, 2002; Le Loc'h, 2004). The second result is relevant in the 468 469 context of decreasing eutrophication in coastal areas, but also climate variability (Beaugrand and Reid, 2003). A temporary or permanent diminution in system fertility and thus primary 470 production could follow and as such constrain to a certain degree the abundance of 471 zooplanktivorous fish populations (Malzahn et al., 2007). In the Bay of Biscay, several 472 473 coastal areas with eutrophication problems have been identified (AAMP and Ifremer, 2011). Recently, balanced harvesting, which is defined as applying fishing mortality in proportion to 474 475 natural productivity, has been advocated as a way to maintain relative size and species compositions of exploited ecosystems (Garcia et al., 2012). However, indirect effects might 476

complicate the picture. The qualitative model analyses results indicated that a given fishery 477 478 could affect the opposite food chain, e.g. pelagic fleets could change the abundance of functional groups in the bentho-demersal food chain. This cross-effect is in line with the 479 findings of Rochet et al. (2013) regarding the way anthropogenic and natural pressures 480 propagate within food webs. Indeed, these authors stated that the multi-species fisheries 481 482 operating in the northeast Atlantic are characterised since decades by a low fishing selectivity 483 across and within functional groups. Using qualitative models, the same authors demonstrated that these less selective fisheries might create antagonistic pressures, the impacts of which 484 being less predictable. Nevertheless, quantitative outputs of the present work (MTI and 485 486 overlap index) did not confirm propagation of fishing pressure. A possible explanation for this discrepancy is that direct impacts of individual fishing fleets on their targeted stocks were not 487 strong and consequently indirect impacts on opposite food chain components were even less 488 489 detectable.

A four step approach was proposed in the present study to determine indicator functional 490 491 groups suitable to evaluate food web effects of pressure changes, particularly fishing. In a previous study of the Bay of Biscay ecosystem, functional groups were also found to be a 492 relevant level at which to seek impacts of fishing pressures and other changes (Rochet et al., 493 2010). The indicator groups of the current study being robust to model structure and type, 494 they can provide support for the definition of management options robust to model 495 uncertainty. However, multiple impacts were not analysed in the present work as they 496 increase ambiguity in qualitative predictions and are difficult to perform with EwE. However, 497 498 it should be acknowledged that applying several pressures concomitantly is an important step in selecting and interpreting ecological indicators, particularly when ambiguities can be 499 500 overcome by accounting for the relative strength of positive and negative effects.

During the selection process of indicators suitable to describe GES under the European 501 MSFD, the "large fish indicator" (LFI) has been identified as an indicator of "food web" 502 structure (Rogers et al., 2010) and was more particularly viewed as an indicator of the general 503 504 "health" of the demersal fish community (Greenstreet et al., 2009). In the North Sea, LFI is defined as the proportion by weight of fish greater than 40 cm in length and is notably 505 sensitive to variations in fishing pressure. Others have derived expected directions of changes 506 under the impact of fishing (Shin et al., 2005), i.e. a decrease in the proportion of large fish 507 with increasing fishing pressure. However, concrete applications to demersal communities 508 have highlighted that the actual processes that link changes in the LFI to changes in fishing 509 510 pressure still remain to be properly understood (Rochet et al., 2007; Greenstreet et al., 2011; Shephard *et al.*, 2011). 511

Propositions were made to convert the LFI index into an indicator of "food web" status 512 513 (MSFD descriptor 4) (Rombouts et al., 2013): the use of species-specific thresholds to define large individuals rather than a single cut-off point, e.g. 40 cm, and coupling of this indicator 514 515 with the maximum asymptotic length  $(L_{\infty})$  to take into account changes in species 516 composition. From this perspective, the two demersal compartments in the Ecopath model with the greatest overall impact on the ecosystem corresponded to 48 species, among which 517 five dominated the biomass and included most of the evaluated stocks (see supplementary 518 519 material). This information could help to define the species to be included in the suite of species to be monitored within the demersal fish functional groups in the Bay of Biscay 520 continental shelf ecosystem. 521

In conclusions, an easy-to-implement modelling approach combining two types of ecosystem
models was applied to draw robust conclusions regarding the functioning of the Bay of Biscay
continental shelf food web and its expected responses to single perturbations. The approach

offers a structured way towards the selection of indicators for monitoring food web status andresponses to perturbations.

527

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- 533

534 Supplementary material

- 535 Supplementary material is available at the ICESJMS online version of the paper. It includes
- the species composition of the four demersal fish compartments in the Bay of Biscay
- 537 continental shelf ecosystem model.

538 Figure captions

Figure 1. Study area of the Bay of Biscay continental shelf and locations of the main rivers
flowing into it. The shaded area corresponded to the French part of the continental shelf. For
clarification, ICES divisions VIIIa and b are also added in bold line.

542

543 Figure 2. (a) Baseline qualitative model of the Bay of Biscay continental shelf food web. System variables include trophic groups (circles) and fishing fleets (squares). Arrows 544 represent positive links, circles negative links. Closed circles starting and ending at the same 545 variable represent self-effect (density-dependence). TopP: Top Predators; Ppis: Pelagic 546 Piscivores; Plv: Pelagic Planktivores; Plkt: Plankton; Dpis: Demersal Piscivores; Btv: 547 Demersal Benthivores; Bthos: benthos; Dem fleet: Demersal fleet; Pel fleet: Pelagic fleet; Inv 548 fleet: Invertebrate fleet. Dashed links were those that were altered for creating model variants. 549 550 (b) Summary of modifications made to adapt the generic qualitative model proposed by Rochet et al. (2013) to the Bay of Biscay case study. Added links are in bold and removed 551 552 links dashed.

553

Figure 3. (a) Prey versus predator niche overlap index derived from an Ecopath model. 554 Groups in the upper left corner have a very high overlap of prey; groups in the upper right 555 corner have a high overlap of both predators and prey. (b) Total mixed trophic impacts of 556 each functional group on the ecosystem (sum over the remaining groups). Compartments 557 were ordered by qualitative model groups, e.g. mackerel, horse mackerel, anchovy, sardine 558 and sprat pertained to the planktivorous fish category (Plv) and as such they were more 559 closely grouped together in the graph. The names corresponding to the numbers of functional 560 561 groups are given in Table 1. 33 pelagic fleet; 34 demersal fleet; 35 invertebrate fleet.

563 Figure 4. Combined direct and indirect trophic impacts that a functional group (impacting

group) had on each of the remaining groups (impacted groups) in the Ecopath model. Black

565 circles indicate potential positive impacts and white circles potential negative impacts.

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## Table 1. Landings and discards (kg $C \cdot km^{-2} \cdot year^{-1}$ ) of the three fishing fleets included in the Ecopath model of the continental shelf of the Bay of

719 Biscay.

	Pelagic	fleet (Pel Fleet)	Domor		<b>T</b> .	
	-		Demer	sal fleet (Dem Fleet)	Inverte	ebrates fleet (Inv Fleet)
	Y	Discards	Y	Discards	Y	Discards
1. Plunge and pursuit divers seabirds						
2. Surface feeders seabirds						
3. Striped dolphins Stenella coeruleoalba						
4. Bottlenose dolphins Tursiops truncatus						
5. Common dolphins Delphinus delphis		0.101*				
6. Long-finned pilot whale Globicephala melas						
7. Harbour porpoise Phocoena phocoena				$0.0078^{*}$		
8. Piscivorous demersal fish			8.86	0.43	1.56	0.38
9. Piscivorous and benthivorous demersal fish	0.64		5.45	2.43	4.59	1.22
10. Suprabenthivorous demersal fish					0.64	26.79
11. Benthivorous demersal fish			4.63		0.37	
12. Mackerel Scomber scombrus	1.69	0.49	4.55	0.90		0.34
13. Horse mackerel Trachurus trachurus	15.13				1.68	
14. Anchovy Engraulis encrasicolus	16.80	0.10				
15. Sardine Sardina pilchardus	10.82					
16. Sprat Sprattus sprattus						
17. Benthic cephalopods			3.53			
18. Pelagic cephalopods			1.99			
19. Carnivorous benthic invertebrates				1.24	2.91	0.84
20. Necrophagous benthic invertebrates						
21. Sub-surface deposit feeders invertebrates						
22. Surface suspension and deposit feeders inv.						
23. Benthic meiofauna						
24. Suprabenthic invertebrates						
	<ol> <li>Plunge and pursuit divers seabirds</li> <li>Surface feeders seabirds</li> <li>Striped dolphins <i>Stenella coeruleoalba</i></li> <li>Bottlenose dolphins <i>Tursiops truncatus</i></li> <li>Common dolphins <i>Delphinus delphis</i></li> <li>Long-finned pilot whale <i>Globicephala melas</i></li> <li>Harbour porpoise <i>Phocoena phocoena</i></li> <li>Piscivorous demersal fish</li> <li>Suprabenthivorous demersal fish</li> <li>Suprabenthivorous demersal fish</li> <li>Mackerel <i>Scomber scombrus</i></li> <li>Horse mackerel <i>Trachurus trachurus</i></li> <li>Anchovy <i>Engraulis encrasicolus</i></li> <li>Sardine <i>Sardina pilchardus</i></li> <li>Sprat <i>Sprattus sprattus</i></li> <li>Benthic cephalopods</li> <li>Pelagic cephalopods</li> <li>Necrophagous benthic invertebrates</li> <li>Surface suspension and deposit feeders inv.</li> <li>Benthic meiofauna</li> <li>Suprabenthic invertebrates</li> </ol>	1. Plunge and pursuit divers seabirds2. Surface feeders seabirds3. Striped dolphins Stenella coeruleoalba4. Bottlenose dolphins Tursiops truncatus5. Common dolphins Delphinus delphis6. Long-finned pilot whale Globicephala melas7. Harbour porpoise Phocoena phocoena8. Piscivorous demersal fish9. Piscivorous and benthivorous demersal fish11. Benthivorous demersal fish12. Mackerel Scomber scombrus13. Horse mackerel Trachurus trachurus15. Sardine Sardina pilchardus16. Sprat Sprattus sprattus17. Benthic cephalopods18. Pelagic cephalopods19. Carnivorous benthic invertebrates20. Necrophagous benthic invertebrates21. Sub-surface deposit feeders invertebrates22. Surface suspension and deposit feeders inv.23. Benthic meiofauna24. Suprabenthic invertebrates	1. Plunge and pursuit divers seabirds2. Surface feeders seabirds3. Striped dolphins Stenella coeruleoalba4. Bottlenose dolphins Tursiops truncatus5. Common dolphins Delphinus delphis0.101*6. Long-finned pilot whale Globicephala melas7. Harbour porpoise Phocoena phocoena8. Piscivorous demersal fish0.6410. Suprabenthivorous demersal fish0.6411. Benthivorous demersal fish1.6912. Mackerel Scomber scombrus1.6913. Horse mackerel Trachurus trachurus15.1314. Anchovy Engraulis encrasicolus16.8015. Sardine Sardina pilchardus10.8216. Sprat Sprattus sprattus17. Benthic cephalopods18. Pelagic cephalopods19. Carnivorous benthic invertebrates20. Necrophagous benthic invertebrates21. Sub-surface deposit feeders invertebrates22. Surface suspension and deposit feeders inv.23. Benthic meiofauna24. Suprabenthic invertebrates	1. Plunge and pursuit divers seabirds2. Surface feeders seabirds3. Striped dolphins Stenella coeruleoalba4. Bottlenose dolphins Tursiops truncatus5. Common dolphins Delphinus delphis0.101*6. Long-finned pilot whale Globicephala melas7. Harbour porpoise Phocoena phocoena8. Piscivorous demersal fish0.649. Piscivorous and benthivorous demersal fish0.6411. Benthivorous demersal fish4.6312. Mackerel Scomber scombrus1.6913. Horse mackerel Trachurus trachurus15.1314. Anchovy Engraulis encrasicolus10.8216. Sprat Sprattus3.5317. Benthic cephalopods3.5318. Pelagic cephalopods3.5320. Necrophagous benthic invertebrates1.9921. Sub-surface deposit feeders invertebrates2. Surface suspension and deposit feeders inv.23. Benthic meiofauna24. Suprabenthic invertebrates	1. Plunge and pursuit divers seabirds         2. Surface feeders seabirds         3. Striped dolphins Stenella coeruleoalba         4. Bottlenose dolphins Stenella coeruleoalba         4. Bottlenose dolphins Stenella coeruleoalba         5. Common dolphins Delphinus delphis       0.101*         6. Long-finned pilot whale Globicephala melas       0.0078*         7. Harbour porpoise Phocoena phocoena       0.0078*         8. Piscivorous demersal fish       8.86       0.43         9. Piscivorous and benthivorous demersal fish       0.64       5.45       2.43         10. Suprabenthivorous demersal fish       4.63       4.63       4.63         11. Benthivorous demersal fish       4.63       4.63       4.63         12. Mackerel Scomber scombrus       1.69       0.49       4.55       0.90         13. Horse mackerel Trachurus trachurus       15.13       4       4.63       4.63         14. Anchovy Engraulis encrasicolus       16.80       0.10       5.53       4.53       4.53         15. Sardine Sardina pilchardus       10.82       1.89       1.99       1.24       4.63       4.24       4.24       4.24       4.24       4.24       4.25       4.24       4.25       4.25       4.25       4.25       4.25       4.25 </td <td>1. Plunge and pursuit divers seabirds         2. Surface feeders seabirds         3. Striped dolphins Stenella coeruleoalba         4. Bottlenose dolphins Tursiops truncatus         5. Common dolphins Delphinus delphis       0.101*         6. Long-finned pilot whale Globicephala melas         7. Harbour porpoise Phocoena phocoena       0.0078*         8. Piscivorous demersal fish       0.64       5.45       2.43       4.59         10. Suprabenthivorous demersal fish       0.64       5.45       2.43       4.59         11. Benthivorous demersal fish       0.64       5.45       0.90       0.64         11. Benthivorous demersal fish       4.63       0.37       0.37         12. Mackerel Scomber scombrus       1.69       0.49       4.55       0.90         13. Horse mackerel Trachurus trachurus       15.13       1.68       1.68         14. Anchovy Engraulis encrasicolus       16.80       0.10       1.58         15. Sardine Sardina pilchardus       10.82       1.99       1.24       2.91         10. Necrophagous benthic invertebrates       1.24       2.91       2.91         20. Necrophagous benthic invertebrates       1.24       2.91         21. Sub-surface deposit feeders invertebrates       2.2       2.91     </td>	1. Plunge and pursuit divers seabirds         2. Surface feeders seabirds         3. Striped dolphins Stenella coeruleoalba         4. Bottlenose dolphins Tursiops truncatus         5. Common dolphins Delphinus delphis       0.101*         6. Long-finned pilot whale Globicephala melas         7. Harbour porpoise Phocoena phocoena       0.0078*         8. Piscivorous demersal fish       0.64       5.45       2.43       4.59         10. Suprabenthivorous demersal fish       0.64       5.45       2.43       4.59         11. Benthivorous demersal fish       0.64       5.45       0.90       0.64         11. Benthivorous demersal fish       4.63       0.37       0.37         12. Mackerel Scomber scombrus       1.69       0.49       4.55       0.90         13. Horse mackerel Trachurus trachurus       15.13       1.68       1.68         14. Anchovy Engraulis encrasicolus       16.80       0.10       1.58         15. Sardine Sardina pilchardus       10.82       1.99       1.24       2.91         10. Necrophagous benthic invertebrates       1.24       2.91       2.91         20. Necrophagous benthic invertebrates       1.24       2.91         21. Sub-surface deposit feeders invertebrates       2.2       2.91

747 25. Macrozooplankton ( $\geq 2 \text{ mm}$ )

- 748 26. Mesozooplankton (0.2-2 mm)
- 749 27. Microzooplankton ( $\leq 0.2$  mm)
- 750 28. Bacteria
- 751 29. Large phytoplankton ( $\geq$  3 µm)
- 752 30. Small phytoplankton ( $< 3 \mu m$ )
- 753 31. Discards
- 754 <u>32. Pelagic detritus</u>

<sup>\*</sup>Bycatch of toothed cetaceans (common dolphins and harbour porpoises).

Table 2. Expected directions of change\* of the abundance of different functional groups and fishing fleets based on press perturbation analysis of Bay of Biscay continental shelf food web models. Only predictions which were consistent (same direction) across a baseline model and its three variants and had weights  $\geq 0.5$  were retained. Corresponding Ecopath compartment numbers from Table 1 are given in brackets. Blank cells indicate ambiguous predictions.

760

761	Impacted	Impacti	ng group (ir	ncrease)							
762	group (Ecopath)	TopP	Ppis	Dpis	Plv	Btv	Plkt	Bthos	Dem fleet	Pel Fleet	Inv fleet
763	Top predators (1-7)	+	-	-					_†	-	
764	Pelagic piscivores										
765	Demersal piscivores (8)	-		+						+	
766	Planktivores (12-16)	6) - + +							+		
767	Benthivores (9-11)	+		-						-	
768	Plankton (25-27, 29, 30)	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
769	Benthos (19-24)										
770	Demersal fleet (33)								+		
771	Pelagic fleet (34)									$+^{\dagger}$	
772	Invertebrates fleet (35)										

\*+ (increase), - (decrease) or 0 (no trend) indicates the direction of the response in group i (impacted group in rows) resulting from a sustained

positive input into group *j* (impacting groups in columns); e.g. the predicted response of a sustained increase in top predators is predicted to have

a positive effect on demersal benthivorous fish.

<sup>†</sup>Signs vary with the inclusion (or not) of the positive effect of Btv on Dpis in model variants.

Table 3. Concordance between robust qualitative model predictions (press perturbation analyses in Table 2) and quantitative Ecopath outputs.

Ecopath outputs were compared with qualitative predictions in terms of ecosystem components impacted and directions of change.

779									
780	Robust qualitative predictions	Quantitative outputs							
781		Diet overlap	MTI						
782 783	Increase in demersal piscivores (Dpis) has negative effect on their bentho- demersal (Btv) and pelagic prey (Plv).	Yes	Yes, only for demersal prey						
784	Increase in primary productivity (Plkt) has positive effect on Plv.	Yes	Yes						
785 786	Increase in top predators (TopP) has negative effect on Dpis and positive effect on Btv	Yes	Yes, only bottlenose dolphins No						
787 788	Increase in Pel Fleet has negative effect on TopP and Btv and positive effect on Dpis	Yes* No*	Yes, on common dolphins No						
789	Increase in Dem Fleet has positive effect on Plv	No	No						

<sup>\*</sup>Prey overlap indices between ecosystem components and pelagic fishery were calculated using the modified Pianka index proposed in Ecopath

which is based on proportions of the different prey consumed: pursuit diver seabirds (0.64), common dolphins (0.73) and piscivorous demersal

792 fish (0.66).

The species composition of the four demersal fish compartments in the Bay of Biscay continental shelf ecosystem model. In bold are those with the greatest impact on the ecosystem based on the overall Mixed Trophic Impact calculated in Ecopath and \* corresponded to species with the highest biomass.

Benthivorous demersal fish Arnoglossus laterna Arnoglossus imperialis Arnoglossus thori Callionymus lyra Microchirus variegatus Solea solea Chelidonichthys cuculus Liza ramada Balistes carolinensis Enchelyopus cimbrius Mullus surmuletus Raja clavata *Raja montagui* Sparus auratus Microstomus kitt *Callionymus maculatus* Buglossidium luteum Chelidonichthys obscurus Dicologlossa cuneata Lesueurigobius friesii Leucoraja circularis *Pomatoschistus minutus* Syngnathus acus *Umbrina canariensis* 

#### Suprabenthivorous demersal fish

Capros aper\* Micromesistius poutassou\* Argentina silus Boops boops Cepola macrophthalma Ammodytes tobianus Aphia minuta Merluccius merluccius (juveniles)

### Piscivorous and benthivorous demersal fish

Scyliorhinus canicula\* Conger conger Gaidropsarus vulgaris Lepidorhombus boscii Lepidorhombus whiffiagonis Lophius budegassa Lophius piscatorius Merlangius merlangus Trisopterus luscus\* Trisopterus minutus\* Argentina sphyraena Dicentrarchus labrax Galeorhinus galeus Leucoraja naevus Myliobatis aquila Zeus faber Spondyliosoma cantharus Squalus acanthias Torpedo marmorata Trachinus draco Molva molva Molva dypterygia Chelidonichthys gurnardus Mustelus asterias **Pollachius pollachius** Melanogrammus aeglefinus Chelidonichthys lucerna Mustelus mustelus Galeus melastomus Dasyatis pastinaca Dicentrarchus punctatus Diplodus vulgaris Echiichthys vipera Helicolenus dactylopterus dactylopterus Hyperoplus lanceolatus Labrus mixtus Lithognathus mormyrus Pagellus acarne Pagellus bogaraveo **Phycis blennoides** Scophthalmus maximus

#### Piscivorous demersal fish

Merluccius merluccius Argyrosomus regius Torpedo nobiliana Hexanchus griseus











Durantic direct accelerate	Surface feeders seablinds	Strined dolphins		Bottlenose dolphins	Common dolphins	Long-finned pilot whales	Harbour porpoises	Piscivorous demersal fish	Piscivorous and benthivorous demersal fish	Suprabenthivorous demersal fish	Renthivorous demersel fish	Mackaral	Horse mackara		Anchovy	Sargine	Sprat	Benthic cephalopods	Pelagic cephalopods	Carnivorous benthic invertebrates	Necrophagous benthic invertebrates	Sub-surface deposit feeders invertebrates	Surface suspension and deposit feeders inv	Benthic meiofauna	Suprabenthic invertebrates	Macrozooplankton	Mesozooplankton	Microzooplankton	Bacteria	Large phytoplankton	Small phytoplankton	Discards	Detritus	Pelagic_fleet	Demersal_fleet	Invertebrates_fleet	
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