FISH PRO III

Status of coastal fish communities in the Baltic Sea 2016-2020 - the fourth thematic assessment

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Executive summary

This report summarizes the most recent advances in the HELCOM regional collaboration on Baltic Sea coastal fish communities by reviewing the current state of knowledge on important pressures impacting coastal fish communities and available measures to restore and sustain the status of this essential ecosystem component. A significant part of the report also includes a presentation of the latest status assessment (pertaining to the years 2016-2020) of coastal fish as included in the HO-LAS 3 assessment using three HELCOM agreed upon core indicators; *Abundance of key coastal fish species*, *Size structure of coastal fish*, and *Abundance of coastal fish key functional groups*. The rationale for producing the report is to complement the assessment of coastal fish within HOLAS 3 with reviews on impacting pressures on coastal fish and measures to support the fish communities. In addition, future development needs for status- and impact assessments, as well as effective restoration and conservation measures are included. The report also marks the finalization of the HELCOM FISH PRO III-project running between the years 2018-2023 and will hopefully be of use for managers, stakeholder and the wider scientific community.

The status assessment as presented in this report includes data from Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Denmark and Sweden, and updates the previous assessment published in 2018 covering the years 2011-2016. Overall, the status of coastal fish communities is poor and has worsened between the previous abd the current assessment. For the indicator *Abundance of key coastal fish species* including the species perch, flounder, eelpout, pike, pikeperch and whitefish, only 32% of the considered assessment units reached the threshold for good status compared to 62% of the assessment units in 2011-2016. The current assessment of the indicator *Abundance of coastal fish key functional groups* only

considered cyprinids and mesopredators, and only 29% of the assessment units considered reached the threshold for good status. Reasons for the low and deteriorated state includes the fact that additional key species (pike, pikeperch, whitefish, and eelpout) and monitoring areas were considered in the current compared to the previous assessment, and that several of these are not in a state characterized by good status. The aggregation and integration rules applied in the current assessment are also stricter compared to the previous assessment in turn making the current one more conservative. But the observed deterioration in status cannot be attributed to methodological differences alone. For example, the status of perch and flounder, which is more comparable between previous and current assessments, do show rather small differences in status but with no clear signs of improvement over time. The newly introduced indicator *Size structure of coastal fish*, evaluated as the size of the largest fish in the population compared to a size threshold, was used for the key species perch. The results show that only 27 % of the assessment units considered achieved good status.

As highlighted above, the overall status of coastal fish as derived from the three core indicators evaluated is far from good. There are, however, differences between some areas, regions and indicators. For the indicator *Abundance of key coastal fish species*, the status appears to be better along the coasts of the Bothnian Bay, parts of the central Finnish coasts, and in the one Estonian and two Latvian monitoring areas. The spatial coverage for the assessment of the indicator *Size structure of coastal fish* is poorer compared to that of the abundance-based indicator, but variation in the assessment results are similar across coastal areas. There is a tendency for better status in more northern areas in the Gulf of Bothnia, with the exception of the Northern

Quark, for the indicator *Abundance of coastal fish key functional groups*. In the areas characterized as being in poor status for this indicator, it is foremost the high abundance of cyprinid fishes that is preventing the indicator from reaching the threshold for good status. The confidence in the assessment is low to intermediate in most areas for *Abundance of coastal fish key functional groups*, and intermediate to high for most areas considered for *Abundance of key coastal fish species* and *Size structure of coastal fish*.

The observed poor status of coastal fish communities in the Baltic Sea is likely the result of impacts from a multitude of natural and anthropogenic pressures acting simultaneously and potentially also synergistically and cumulatively. From the review included in this report, the poor status likely reflects unfavorable environmental conditions related to the impacts of habitat loss and degradation, fishing (including commercial and recreational fisheries), eutrophication, climate change, and food web interactions such as predation from apex predators. As coastal fish communities have rather local population structures and the extent to which different factors affect the communities likely varies substantially across coastal areas, the potential for generalizations across areas is limited. Some factors may have strong effects locally and thereby explain a large proportion of the variation in fish abundance and size structure, whereas others could have comparatively smaller effects or may be apparent only under certain environmental conditions. In order to address the extent of impacts from human activities on coastal fish communities, one must therefore take a full set of potential human-induced pressures into account and assess them within the context of food web interactions and ambient environmental conditions of the specific area.

Given the overall poor status of coastal fish in many areas of the Baltic Sea, as presented in this report, there is an urgent need for additional measures to be taken to support and restore the impacted populations and communities. As the key factors influencing the status of coastal fish likely vary across areas, the recommended plan of action will likely differ between areas, and should hence be developed while accounting for the specific environmental setting, the range of current anthropogenic pressures, and the structure of the fish community and food web in focus. Of all the available potential measures, our literature review shows that only a few, primarly those aiming at reducing the fishing mortality of the fish, have sufficient scientific support for being effective. The strongest support is found for permanent fishing closures (no-take areas). Partial fisheries closures and regulations of fishing gears and catch might also be effective, but these have all weaker support in the literature. Among the measures aiming to support the recruitment and growth of

fish, those focusing on protecting existing habitats have gained the strongest scientific support for being effective. Habitat restoration and nutrient reductions might also be effective but have rarely been evaluated and henced recieved relatively little scientific support. Despite public support, there is to date also no general scientific support for measures related to biomanipulation including stocking of hatchery-reared fish, regulation of top predators, or intensively fishing unwanted species. To gain stronger support for the effectiveness of individual measures, it is of utmost importance that ongoing and past measures to support coastal fish are scientifically evaluated to a far greater extent than what is currently done. More in-depth reviews and detailed meta-analyses of the existing literature on measures could also help in the development of appropriate measures for restoring and supporting coastal fish. Moreover, an adaptive ecosystem-based approach to management where fisheries and environmental management, as for example fisheries closures and habitat protection, are considered jointly is likely to be most effective since coastal fish are at the center of coastal food webs and are hence impacted by both top-down and bottom-up processes. Given the regulatory roles of fish in marine food webs, carefully designed measures with an integrated and ecosystem-based management strategy are also likely to result in both direct and indirect positive effects for the coastal food web structure and functioning.

To that end, the results and conclusions as presented in this report should serve as the basis for future follow-up actions within the context of the Baltic Sea Action Plan, the national implementation of the Marine Strategy Framework Directive, as well as for local management measures and assessments for coastal fish communities in the Baltic Sea. The work presented in this report has been facilitated by co-operation between HEL-COM Contracting Parties within the HELCOM FISH PRO III project and HOLAS 3 process, and by nationally funded development work and research projects. Despite the recent advances in the Baltic-wide cooperation on coastal fish communities there are still several knowledge gaps and development needs to fill, which should be considered in the future. One often neglected aspect that should be stressed is an expanded potential use of coastal fish data to for example further study the expansion and effects of invasive species like the round goby. Finally, besides the issues already considered above, perhaps the most important is that future efforts should include safeguarding and expanding the spatial coverage of coastal fish monitoring programs while also considering additional data sources for status assessments besides fisheries independent surveys, as well as further refinement and development of the currently used indicators, assessment methods and associated thresholds.

1. Background

1.1. Coastal fish in the Baltic Sea

The Baltic Sea with its brackish water exhibits strong environmental gradients in salinity, temperature and nutrient conditions (HELCOM 2018a). Fish inhabiting the Baltic Sea represent a mixture of species with a marine and freshwater origin, where some are favored by warmer waters and eutrophic conditions while others are not (Koehler *et al.* 2022). "Coastal fish communities" here refers to the fish assemblages in relatively near-shore and shallow (< 20 m depth) coastal areas, and often harbor a mixture of species of marine and freshwater origin (Ojaveer *et al.* 2010; Olsson *et al.* 2012a; Koehler *et al.* 2022). Typical coastal freshwater species are perch (*Perca fluviatilis*), ruffe (*Gymnocephalus cernua*), pikeperch (*Sander lucioperca*), pike (*Esox lucius*), whitefish (*Coregonus maraena*) and species from the carp family (*Cyprinidae*), such as roach (*Rutilus rutilus*), breams (*Abramis sp.*) and bleak (*Alburnus alburnus*). Common marine species found in coastal areas are herring (*Clupea harengus*), flounder species (*Platichthys flesus* and *Platichthys solemdali*), cod (*Gadus morhua*), turbot (*Scophthalmus maximus*), sticklebacks (*Gasterosteidae)*, gobies (*Gobiidae*), eelpout (*Zoarces viviparous)* and eel (*Anguilla anguillla)* (HELCOM 2012; Olsson *et al.* 2012a; Bergström *et al.* 2016b). In the eastern and northern parts of the Baltic Sea, with lower salinity, species of freshwater origin dominate, whereas an increased segment of marine species is commonly found in the more saline southern and western parts (HELCOM 2012). There are also seasonal and small-scale spatial variations in species composition. During the warmer parts of the year, coastal fish communities are often dominated by freshwater species and those preferring higher water temperatures (Olsson *et al.* 2012a), especially in more sheltered areas. In contrast, more exposed areas can be relatively more dominated by species of marine origin and those preferring lower water temperatures during the colder parts of the year.

Hence, due to the influence of environmental gradients and seasonality in community composition, the predominating coastal fish species in the Baltic Sea vary both spatially and temporally. Still, a key feature of coastal fish communities in the Baltic Sea region is their relatively restricted dispersal pattern, compared to fully marine regions. Many coastal species of freshwater origin have a clear local population structure (Laikre *et al.* 2005; Östman *et al.* 2017b). Freshwater species in the Baltic Sea, such as perch, pike, whitefish, pikeperch, and cyprinids, exhibit rather strong genetic population subdivision on a small scale and restricted migration across coastal areas (Laikre *et al.* 2005; Olsson *et al.* 2011, 2012b; Östman *et al.* 2017b). Populations of marine species like cod and herring, on the other hand, migrate across vast areas and are typically characterized by substantial gene flow and relatively weak population sub-structuring (Nielsen *et al.* 2003; Jørgensen *et al.* 2005; Florin & Höglund 2007; Östman *et al.* 2017b). There are also examples of ecological adaptation of fish in the Baltic Sea in response to the brackish conditions. Recent studies on flounder have shown that flounder populations in the Baltic harbors two distinct species, the Baltic flounder (*Platichtys solemdali*) and European flounder (*Platichthys flesus*; (Momigliano *et al.* 2018).

As a result, coastal fish communities are also local in how they may respond to environmental conditions and pressures (see for example (Bergström *et al.* 2016b; Östman *et al.* 2017b). Combined, the local population structure and spatial variability in community composition along environmental gradients imply that assessments of coastal fish communities need to consider a small geographic scale, preferably relating to the migration distance of the most common species in the communities (Bergström *et al.* 2016a; Östman *et al.* 2017b; a). This also implies that management measures to restore and/or strengthen coastal fish communities should consider local preconditions.

1.2. Ecological role and societal relevance of coastal fish

Coastal fish are important both for the Baltic Sea ecosystem and for humans with respect to socio-economic and cultural values (Blenckner *et al.* 2021). Fish constitute a central part of the food web and hence have a key role in linking different

Perch is on of the key target species in recreational fisheries in the Baltic Sea. © Jens Olsson.

processes, meaning the status of coastal fish communities influences the larger ecosystem structure and functioning (Östman *et al.* 2016; Olsson 2019). As such, the status of coastal fish conveys information on the general status of coastal ecosystems in the Baltic Sea (HELCOM 2006, 2012, 2018b). The ecosystem services concept captures the various direct and indirect ways in which the ecosystem and its organisms, including coastal fish, contribute to human well-being (IPBES 2019; Daily & Ruckelshaus 2022). A key regulating service that coastal predatory fish provide is the natural control of nuisance, opportunistic and invasive species (Ljunggren *et al.* 2010; Sieben *et al.* 2011; Eklöf *et al.* 2020). Coastal fish also contribute to the binding of carbon, nutrients and harmful substances, as these components are taken up in the bodies of fish via their food and subsequently decomposed and buried in sediments (or in some cases fished or consumed by predators) (Hjerne & Hansson 2002; Vanni *et al.* 2013; Dabrowska *et al.* 2017; Mariani *et al.* 2020; Bianchi *et al.* 2021; Scotti *et al.* 2022). Such regulating services can provide benefits to humans by buffering excess levels and fluctuations resulting from human activities, enabling human activities

to be carried out in an ecologically sustainable way and reducing costs for restoration measures. Further, the maintenance of living environments that support coastal fish provides direct benefits in the form of nutrition for both humans and wild animals, including other fish, sea birds and marine mammals. Ensuring a diversity of coastal fish habitats also contributes to ensuring genetic resources that can be utilized to secure the resilience of coastal fish against environmental perturbations (Wennerström *et al.* 2017) and potentially support aquaculture and restocking (Ben Khadher *et al.* 2016; Baer *et al.* 2021). For humans, further, both coastal fish and their habitats also contribute to recreational activities, where recreational fishing, snorkeling and photography are some examples (HELCOM 2015; Jernberg *et al.* 2024). Ensuring the availability of these habitats and species also enables aesthetic experiences for entertainment or representation, scientific investigation or the creation of traditional ecological knowledge or enable education and training. Several coastal species are, further, highly valued by humans for their contribution to culture, heritage or for their existence value (Nieminen *et al.* 2019).

Table 1. Example of key ecosystem services provided by coastal fish. The second column indicates the most closely corresponding classification code according to (Haines-Young & Potschin-Young 2018).

The many connection points between coastal fish and ecosystem services highlight the importance of achieving a good status of coastal fish communities, as described for example in the environmental objectives of the Baltic Sea Action Plan (HELCOM 2007) and the Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD, European Commission 2008), for example.

mentation of the EU Marine Strategy Framework Directive (European Commission 2008, 2017) have led to an increased focus on regional harmonization of assessment methods and monitoring programs also for coastal fish (HELCOM 2013).

1.4. Objectives of the report

1.3. HELCOM FISH-PRO and earlier coastal fish assessments

Coastal fish monitoring in the Baltic Sea region date back to the early 1970s in some areas (Olsson *et al.* 2012a). Since 2023, HELCOM has coordinated coastal fish monitoring and assessments in the Baltic Seaunder dedicated projects (HELCOM FISH, HELCOM FISH-PRO I-III. This work will be continued from 2024 and onwards in the newly established Expert group on coastal fish (EG Coastal Fish).

Three thematic assessments describing the status of coastal fish communities in the Baltic Sea based on indicators have previously been produced (HELCOM 2006, 2012, 2018b). The Baltic Sea Action Plan (HELCOM 2007) and the impleThis fourth thematic assessment of coastal fish in the Baltic Sea advances previous status assessments (HELCOM 2006, 2012, 2018b) by expanding the spatial coverage of the assessment, including additional monitoring sites, and also by considering additional aspects of coastal fish communities, assessing more species and the size structure of some key species. With these improvements, the report gives an update on the status of coastal fish communities in the Baltic Sea until year 2020 (Chapter 3). To that end, the report also reviews the current knowledge base about factors influencing the state and temporal development of coastal fish (Chapter 2), measures to strengthen and restore coastal fish communities (Chapter 4), and recommendations for future work to advance the monitoring and management of coastal fish in the Baltic Sea (Chapter 5).

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2. Factors impacting coastal fish communities

Coastal areas are among the most productive environments worldwide, but also the most heavily impacted by human activities (Lindeboom 2002; Airoldi & Beck 2007). Several human-induced pressures may impact coastal ecosystems, including fishing, habitat exploitation, climate change, eutrophication and exposure to hazardous substances (Collie *et al.* 2008; Brown *et al.* 2018; HELCOM 2018a; Reusch *et al.* 2018; Viitasalo & Bonsdorff 2022). Due to their central position in the food web, fish are also influenced by species interactions and internal population processes (Persson *et al.* 2000; Harvey *et al.* 2003). Hence, coastal fish communities may be subject to a plethora of pressures, which are likely to differ among areas and between seasons, due to the local population structure of most coastal fish species and due to different combinations of pressures in space and time (Olsson *et al.* 2012a; Östman *et al.* 2017a). This chapter aims to review the main potential drivers of change in coastal fish communities in the Baltic Sea and to increase the understanding of which drivers mitigation measures should focus on.

2.1. Fishing

Fishing can exert different types of pressures on fish communities. One main distinction is between direct effects from the extraction of species, and the indirect effects of trophic cascades triggered by species extraction, (Airoldi & Beck 2007).

Both commercial and recreational fisheries target coastal fish populations, but the main focal species differ between activities and sub-regions. For coastal resident species such as perch, pikeperch, pike, and whitefish the outtake by

recreational fisheries greatly exceeds that of the commercial fishery in many countries (Karlsson *et al.* 2014; Hansson *et al.* 2018; Bergström *et al.* 2022b; Dainys *et al.* 2022). In coastal areas of the southern and western Baltic Sea, relatively large recreational catches have also been seen for marine species like cod and flounder, and the migrating species eel (Sparrevohn & Storr-Paulsen 2012; Ferter *et al.* 2013; Eero *et al.* 2015; Hyder *et al.* 2018). With the ongoing decrease in commercial fishers it is likely that the proportion of total catch attributable to recreational fishers will only increase in the future (Lewin *et al.* 2023). The exception to this trend may be eel and cod, which ICES has suggested should no longer be targeted by either fishery (European Commission 2022; ICES 2023).

While the commercial fishery is obliged to report catches and effort to the authorities, reporting of catches from the recreational fishery (in some form) do not occur regularly in all countries around the Baltic Sea (Karlsson *et al.* 2014; HELCOM 2015; ICES 2022b). Due to the general poor reporting by the sector, and likely high take, the effect of recreational fishing on coastal fish communities is certainly underestimated (Dainys *et al.* 2022). However, coastal member states of the European Union shall in the nearest future ensure that citizens engaged in recreational fisheries are registered and that they record and report their catches through an electronic system (European Commission 2023).

Fishing can have strong effects on coastal fish populations and their broader communities. This is mainly the outcome of direct fishery induced mortality reducing the abundance and mean size of targeted species (Florin *et al.* 2013). High fishing pressures has been linked to declines in abundance and size of flatfish and pike

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Fishing is one of the human activities impacting coastal fish communities. © Jens Olsson

(Berggren *et al.* 2022; Tomczak *et al.* 2022), and, correspondingly, using no take zones (NTZs) to decrease fishing pressure has proven effective for increasing monitoring catches within the NTZs for, among other species, pike, perch, and whitefish (Berkström *et al.* 2021; Bergström *et al.* 2022a). Coastal commercial fisheries as well as recreational fishers, target large piscivores such as perch and pikeperch (Olsson *et al.* 2015; Bergström *et al.* 2016a), and the share of large perch and pike in a population are affected by the fishing pressure in an area (Bergström *et al.* 2016b, 2022b; Lappalainen *et al.* 2016; Berggren *et al.* 2022). The large individuals in a popula-

tion also contribute disproportionally to reproduction and are therefore highly important for the sustainability of fish populations (Birkeland & Dayton 2005; Olin *et al.* 2012; Barneche *et al.* 2018). Thus, the size distribution of a population gives an indication of the local fishing pressure and the health of the population. The indirect effects of fishing are diverse and vary from changes in individual species' life-history traits caused by fisheries induced selection (Cardinale *et al.* 2009), to changes in trophic regulation leading to trophic cascades within and across communities (Baden *et al.* 2003; Österblom *et al.* 2007; Eriksson *et al.* 2011; Casini *et al.* 2012).

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2.2. Temperature

Temperature regulates the productivity of several species in coastal ecosystems, and hence influences food and energy availability for coastal fish. Temperature also directly affects ectothermic organisms, such as fish, for which increasing temperatures increase both activity and growth rate, until they reach their species or population-specific upper tolerance (Biro *et al.* 2009; Lindmark *et al.* 2022). For warm-adapted species such as perch, pikeperch, and roach, higher temperatures have led to strong recruitment, and faster growth (Böhling *et al.* 1991; Karås & Thoresson 1992; Lehtonen & Lappalainen 1995; Tarkan & Vilizzi 2015; Fey & Greszkiewicz 2021; Lindmark *et al.* 2023). Some studies show that increased growth rate is restricted to younger age classes, and that the positive effects of increasing temperatures on growth decrease or vanish for larger pike and perch (Huss *et al.* 2019; van Dorst *et al.* 2019; Berggren *et al.* 2022) (but see Lindmark *et al.* 2023).

Warmer waters have also been linked to increased mortality rates which can be due to shifts in activity increasing risk of capture by predators or fishers or simply due to a shift in pace-of-life (Berggren *et al.* 2022; Lindmark *et al.* 2023). All increases in growth for warm-adapted species are dependent on fish being able to access sufficient resources and temperatures remaining under their thermal optima.

For cold-adapted species, the temperatures in shallow coastal systems can exceed their physiological limits, periodically excluding them from particular habitats (Tunney *et al.* 2014; Guzzo *et al.* 2017), increasing mortality (ICES 2020) and decreasing recruitment (Östman, et al. in rev). As temperatures increase, these cold-adapted species can be outcompeted by freshwater species such as percids and cyprinids which have higher optimum temperatures, leading to a decrease of cold-water adapted species (Olsson *et al.* 2012a; Östman *et al.* 2017a; Olin *et al.* 2023). In the Baltic, the cold-water fishes most at risk due to warming include salmonids, sculpins, and species of marine origin (e.g. herring, flatfish, and cod) (Karås & Thoresson 1992); Östman et al. in rev).

The abundance of adult flounder is, somewhat favoured by increasing water temperatures (Olsson *et al.* 2012a) but see (Orio *et al.* 2017). However, different life stages and individual populations may show contradictory responses to coastal temperature increases, with responses depending heavily on the overlap of environmental temperatures with the species' thermal maxima. For example, European whitefish, a cold-adapted freshwater species found in northern coastal fish communities, show mixed responses to increased temperatures depending on life stage. Like many fish species, young whitefish show higher growth rates as temperatures increase, but they reach maturity earlier allocating resources to reproduction instead of growth, likely reducing the reproductive capacity of the stock (Veneranta *et al.* 2021). The high temperatures and reduction in ice cover can also reduce the reproductive success of whitefish by impairing fertilization and increasing embryo mortality (Cingi *et al.* 2010; Veneranta *et al.* 2013).

Changes in water temperature, caused by weather conditions and currents, also impact the activity of coastal fish, directly affecting their catchability in passive gears such as gill nets and fyke nets, making it important to consider the effect of temperature during sampling when assessing the status of coastal fish communities (Bergström *et al.* 2016a; Östman *et al.* 2017a; Naddafi *et al.* 2022). Given that the water temperature of the Baltic Sea reflects global warming trends and that local thermal conditions are unlikely to be influenced by management actions in the short-term, it is important to consider the effect of climate-related changes in temperature on coastal fish in their general management including for example the potential for species ranges shifts and increased vulnerability of certain populations and species to other pressures when already under "temperature stress".

2.3. Salinity

Being a brackish water system, the salinity in the Baltic Sea has a substantial impact on the distribution patterns of organisms (Johannesson & André 2006; Wennerström *et al.* 2013; Uspenskiy *et al.* 2022). The prevailing salinity can affect the survival of fish eggs, larvae and juveniles, as well as prevent adults from utilizing certain habitats, e.g. potential feeding or spawning areas (DeFaveri & Merilä 2014; Lehtonen & Kvarnemo 2015; Illing *et al.* 2016). The variability of salinity observed in parts of the Baltic Sea creates overlaps in the distribution of different fish species, and in many coastal areas a co-occurrence of marine species, like cod, and freshwater species, such as perch or roach, are observed. Generally, however, the fraction of marine species decreases with increasing latitude in the Baltic Sea (HEL-COM 2012). The abundances of species of freshwater origin drastically decrease in the more southern and western parts of the Baltic Sea as the salinity exceeds 10 psu.

The salinity gradient though is not fixed and is characterized by regional climate-driven inflow events and the mixing of saline North Sea water with the brackish Baltic water (Bendtsen *et al.* 2009). This mixing of water masses of different densities affects the dispersal patterns of passively drifting eggs and larvae from deepwater spawn-

ing species to coastal juvenile growth areas and may influence the survival of larvae (Hinrichsen *et al.* 2012; Petereit *et al.* 2014). Marine inflows also vary in strength from year-to-year influencing the recruitment and temporal distribution of marine species (Miethe *et al.* 2014; Hinrichsen *et al.* 2016).

Salinity might also act as a driver of ecological adaptation and differences in salinity between areas could be a barrier to gene flow. The presence of divergent populations of the same species in the Baltic Sea is exemplified by the differential in salinity tolerances of geographically separated cod stocks (Kijewska *et al.* 2016), and different reproductive strategies of non-isolated flounder species and pike populations (Nissling & Dahlman 2010; Momigliano *et al.* 2018; Sunde *et al.* 2018).

Changes in salinity levels, in parallel with temperature, could also be linked to changes in the long-term development and structure of coastal fish communities. During the last decades, the salinity of surface waters in the Baltic Sea has decreased, in parallel with a shift in coastal fish community composition in favour of freshwater species over those of marine origin (Olsson *et al.* 2012a, 2015). If salinity in the Baltic Sea continues to decrease, the proportion of freshwater species such as percids and cyprinids is expected to increase, whereas the abundances of marine species like herring, cod, and flounder are expected to decrease. However, there is also high uncertainty around the magnitude and direction of future changes in salinity in the Baltic Sea, so any predictions about future fish abundances or communities as they relate to changes in salinity should be interpreted with caution (Saraiva *et al.* 2019).

Similar to temperature, salinity is not a factor that can be controlled via management actions and should instead be accounted for when assessing the status of coastal fish communities (Bergström *et al.* 2016a; Östman *et al.* 2017a), similarly as highlighted for temperature above.

2.4. Eutrophication

The Baltic Sea has historically been subject to high input of nutrients, which, combined with long water-residence time, makes it one of the world's most eutrophied seas (HELCOM 2010; Fleming-Lehtinen *et al.* 2015; Reusch *et al.* 2018). Though the input of nutrients from land-based sources have decreased in recent years, due to the large amount of stored nutrients in both the sediments and the water column, along with high rates of nitrogen fixation by cyanobacteria, eutrophic conditions are expected to persist and should be accounted for in management plans (HELCOM 2018a). Under the current nutrient regime, the exchange of water masses between

coastal and offshore areas in the Baltic Sea also has a large influence on nutrient concentrations in the coastal areas, and hence their eutrophication status (Bryhn *et al.* 2017).

The trophic conditions are decisive for the productivity of the coastal ecosystem and hence ultimately for the energy intake, growth, and reproduction of fish. Eutrophication may, for example, influence the balance between lower trophic groups of organisms, which in turn affects the food type and quality for fish. While slight eutrophication, shifting a system from oligotrophic to mesotrophic, often increases resources and thereby could increase fish biomass, excessive eutrophication is linked to oxygen deficiency, reduced habitat quality and water clarity, ultimately affecting species' behaviour, physiology, and abundance in different ways (Tomczak *et al.* 2022).

Eutrophication has a substantial impact on the distribution and occurrence of organisms in the Baltic Sea and also impacts the structure and function of coastal fish communities (Lappalainen 2002; Bergström *et al.* 2016a; Östman *et al.* 2017a). A common observation is an increased abundance of cyprinid species with increasing nutrient levels (Bonsdorff *et al.* 1997; Lappalainen 2002; Ådjers *et al.* 2006; Härmä *et al.* 2008; Snickars *et al.* 2015; Bergström *et al.* 2016a, 2019). Pikeperch, which are adapted to hunting in turbid conditions, are also comparatively abundant in eutrophic coastal areas (Bergström *et al.* 2019; Sundblad *et al.* 2020), along with sticklebacks which benefit from coastal eutrophication (Olin *et al.* 2022).

Perch, one of the most abundant predators in coastal fish assemblages, as well as pike, are often negatively affected by eutrophication, due to the decreased water transparency which decreases their foraging efficiency (Ljunggren & Sandström 2007; Bergström *et al.* 2019). The suitability of nursery habitats for various coastal fish species can also be decreased by lowered water transparency (Bergström *et al.* 2013), along with the increased presence of ephemeral macroalgae which reduces availability of suitable spawning areas through overgrowth and poorer oxygen conditions, all symptoms of eutrophication (Wennhage & Pihl 1994; Jokinen *et al.* 2015, 2016; Kraufvelin *et al.* 2018). These reductions in nursery habitat extent and quality have, for example, proven important for key species such as whitefish (Veneranta *et al.* 2013) and flounder (Carl *et al.* 2008). Some important coastal habitats may be lost altogether as a result of eutrophication impacting the species that depend on them (Vaher *et al.* 2022).

The symptoms of eutrophication can be mitigated in some cases by the regulatory functions of coastal fish communities, such as the top-down control by piscivorous fish that may lessen eutro-

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Algal bloom during summer in a Swedish coastal bay. © Jens Olsson

phication symptoms in coastal areas (Eriksson *et al.* 2011; Sieben *et al.* 2011; Baden *et al.* 2012; Östman *et al.* 2016). The potential regulating effect of piscivorous fish on ephemeral algae might be as strong as the effects of nutrient additions, and the most pronounced effects are seen in already heavily eutrophied systems (Östman *et al.* 2016). Besides maintaining healthy and viable populations of coastal predatory fish to combat eutrophication symptoms, management should continue to take measures aiming at reducing nutrient input and concentrations in the Baltic Sea to conserve habitat qulatity and oxygen conditions for coastal fish communities as well to the balance and relative abundance of species within the communities.

2.5. Habitat availability and quality

Habitat availability can become a limiting factor for coastal fish populations when activities such as coastal development, resource extraction, dredging or filling of sand to combat erosion (so-called beach nourishment) take place on a

The quality of fish essential habitats is key for the recruitment of coastal fish species. © Jens Olsson

large scale (Kraufvelin *et al.* 2018). Coastal development includes, for example, the building of marinas, ports or coastal residences. The activities can physically cause displacement of fish by drastically altering the bathymetry, hydrography, seafloor type, and vegetation structure of coastal areas (Dafforn *et al.* 2015; Hansen *et al.* 2019).

Though there is a general consensus among fisheries biologists that coastal habitat availability and quality is a limiting factor for coastal fish production, to date, few studies have demonstrated this for coastal fish in the Baltic Sea (reviewed in (Kraufvelin *et al.* 2018) , but evidence is accumulating (Lefcheck *et al.* 2019). Although the effect may be very local in each individual case, the cumulative impacts of coastal development on fish habitat suitability have been shown to reduce the total available habitat for important life-history stages (Sundblad & Bergström 2014; Brown *et al.* 2018; Donadi *et al.* 2020), and impact the local productivity of the adult stage (Sundblad *et al.* 2014). Boat traffic and resource extraction in the coastal zone can also reduce the quality of available habitats by removing and affecting their structure and complexity (Sandström *et al.* 2005). This has been documented for the loss of coastal boulder reefs (Støttrup *et al.* 2014) and suggested for the removal of medium and large gravel (Christoffersen *et al.* 2018) along with other hard-bottom habitats more generally (Flávio *et al.* 2023). There is some evidence that the creation of sandbanks adjacent to dredged areas, increased diversity and fish biomass in the short-term, however, follow-up studies are needed (De Jong *et al.* 2014).

2.6. Changes in food web interactions

Coastal fish, especially piscivorous species, are important components of coastal food webs and affect ecosystem functioning (Eriksson *et al.* 2009; Baden *et al.* 2012; Olsson *et al.* 2012a; Östman *et al.* 2016; Olsson 2019). Large piscivores, such as perch, pike, and pikeperch, generally have a structuring role in the coastal ecosystem, mainly via top-down control on lower trophic levels (reviewed in Olsson 2019). The role of food-web processes such as internal dynamics

A cormorant colony along the Swedish Baltioc Sea coast. © Jens Olsson

and predation is, however, likely different between areas and communities (Vetemaa *et al.* 2010; Lehikoinen *et al.* 2011; Östman *et al.* 2012, 2016; Heikinheimo *et al.* 2016).

Coastal piscivorous fish populations are predated on by apex predators, foremost birds, such as cormorants, and seals (Veneranta *et al.* 2020). In some areas, the outtake of coastal fish by cormorants or seals exceeds, or is of a similar magnitude, to that of recreational or commercial fisheries (Vetemaa *et al.* 2010; Hansson *et al.* 2018; Berkström *et al.* 2021; Bergström *et al.* 2022b). Decreases in perch and pike abundance have been attributed to increases in cormorant populations in some areas (Vetemaa *et al.* 2010; Mustamäki *et al.* 2014; Veneranta *et al.* 2020; Bergström *et al.* 2022b), but other locations have found no relationship between coastal piscivorous fish abundance and cormorant colony size (Lehikoinen *et al.* 2017), suggesting that the effects are local. Ovegård *et al.*, (2021) concludes in a meta-analysis that percids and cyprinids are the most vulnerable to cormorant predation due

to prey selection, so even local negative effects on one species should not be generalized to the broader local fish community.

Along the northern and western coast of the Baltic Sea, a small, abundant, mesopredator, the three-spine stickleback (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*, henceforth stickleback) is also responsible for substantial predation on coastal piscivorous fish, with negative effects from this predation observed along the Swedish coast (Byström *et al.* 2015; Olin *et al.* 2022). Stickleback migrate between the open sea and the coast where they spawn in the same bays used by coastal fish such as perch, pike and cyprinids. As adults, coastal predators feed heavily upon this small species, however, as juveniles, perch and pike are vulnerable to predation by sticklebacks (Donadi *et al.* 2017; Jakubavičiūtė *et al.* 2017; Jacobson *et al.* 2019; Nilsson *et al.* 2019). Sticklebacks can also consume perch and pike eggs, with field studies showing predation rates on pike eggs of up to 100% (Nilsson 2006). In recent years, predator fish populations along the central Swedish coast

have been diminished to the point that they no longer exert sufficient top-down pressure to control stickleback populations, resulting in predator-prey reversals in which sticklebacks can suppress predator recruitment and bays previously dominated by perch and pike are now dominated by sticklebacks (Eriksson *et al.* 2011; Nilsson *et al.* 2019; Olin *et al.* 2022). These regime shifts are becoming more common and have been described as a "stickleback wave" in which bays closer and closer to the coast are becoming dominated by sticklebacks (Olin *et al.* 2022; Eklöf *et al.* 2023). It has been suggested that these patterns could be reversed locally by reducing fishing pressure or by restoring piscivore-spawning habitats, especially those with little connection to the sea, which sticklebacks have a harder time accessing (Eriksson *et al.* 2011; Donadi *et al.* 2020).

Similar to sticklebacks, populations of the invasive round goby have increased in recent years and show continuous northward range expansion (Puntila *et al.* 2018; Kruze *et al.* 2023). These gobies feed largely on bivalves and other benthic prey and show niche overlap with coastal species such as flatfish, ruffe, and large perch (Karlson *et al.* 2007; Rakauskas *et al.* 2013; Ustups *et al.* 2016; Herlevi *et al.* 2018). This resource competition is a proposed mechanism leading to local decreases in flatfish (Karlson *et al.* 2007; Ustups *et al.* 2016). A recent study has also shown that round gobies can prey on egg or larval stages of sticklebacks as well as important commercial species such as cod and herring, but the total impact on abundances is unknown (Wallin Kihlberg *et al.* 2023). Round gobies have also had positive effects on coastal species in some locations. There are local observations of round gobies creating new links in coastal foodwebs between molluscs and top predators (Almqvist *et al.* 2010) and increased consumption of round gobies has corresponded to increases in growth and condition of pikeperch (Hempel *et al.* 2016). Round gobies have also been incorporated into the diets of other predators such as cod, perch, and pike with the proportion of round gobies in the diet increasing as abundance increases and, in some cases, making up the majority of the diet (Rakauskas *et al.* 2013; Oesterwind *et al.* 2017; Herlevi *et al.* 2023).

2.7. Other important factors

Many other natural and human-induced pressures can also influence coastal fish. A non-exhaustive list of additional natural factors, acting more on the local scale, includes wind/wave exposure, the bathymetry and morphology of the coastal area, and interactions within the food web (other than those related to changes in the predation regime as discussed in section 2.6). These are part of the local abiotic settings of a coastal area that set the limits for the local abundance of coastal fish (HELCOM 2012; Bergström *et al.* 2016a; Naddafi *et al.* 2022).

The most widely studied consequences of human induced climate change, shifts in temperature and salinity, are discussed at length in the sections above but additional outcomes of climate change can also affect coastal fish. Some examples of these outcomes include shifts in the frequency and patterns of saltwater inflows, run-off from land, ice coverage, and shifts in overarching patterns of multi-annual and multidecadal weather patterns such as the North Atlantic Oscillation (Olsson *et al.* 2012a).

Other potential pressures related to human-activity include the pressures from marine transport (Sandström *et al.* 2005), the introduction of non-indigenous species (Kruze *et al.* 2023), and input of hazardous substances (Hanson *et al.* 2009; Bergek *et al.* 2012), and organic matter (humic substances).

2.8. Cumulative effects and longterm trends

The natural variability in temperature, salinity, trophic state, and bathymetry of the Baltic Sea set the initial boundaries that determine coastal fish community composition. On top of that, human-induced pressures and food web interactions interact with these conditions to structure the communities that we observe today. A few strong pressures often explain a large proportion of the variation in fish abundance and distribution, whilst the effects of others can only be observed locally or under certain conditions.

Decades of eutrophication have shifted coastal fish community composition in favour of cyprinids by altering resource availability, habitat quality, and visual conditions. Coastal fish abundance more generally though can suffer in areas where eutrophication has led to harmful algae or potentially cyanobacteria blooms. Increasing temperatures have also changed community composition during recent decades in favour of fish species benefitting from warmer waters, which show increased growth rates as temperatures increase and can outcompete cold-water species. Though temperature can increase fish growth in the short term, it is likely that higher temperatures will ultimately lead to smaller-sized fish, since it might increase

mortality through increases in pace-of-life and vulnerability to predation and fishing. Lower resource availability in warmer waters can also contribute to decreasing fish size, and the lower reproductive output of smaller fish can decrease total fish abundance.

The impacts of habitat degradation are most visible on a local scale since many of the most abundant coastal species either have limited home ranges or return yearly to the same spawning grounds. However, if degradation is widespread, especially in habitats used by important life-history stages, the cumulative impacts on the abundance of certain species may be more widely viable.

Fishing intensity within the Baltic Sea also varies widely between areas, but it is occurring in the context of habitat degradation, eutrophication, and increasing temperatures, which have already altered community composition, population abundance, and average fish size. Fishing has been proven to have effects on the abundance of key coastal predatory fish in several areas. The impact of these decreases can be visible in the broader ecosystem often manifesting in the form of regime shifts, making restoration more difficult.

The recent shifts in food web structure in the Baltic Sea with sharp increases of mesopredatory fish as sticklebacks and apex predators as cormorants and seals have further impacted coastal fish species and communities. In all, there has been a chain of changes over time covering eutrophication, increased temperatures, deteriorated habitat conditions, fishing, and changes in food web structure and interactions in both the coastal and offshore Baltic that have had additive and cumulative effects on the structure and function of coastal fish communities.

To that end, the extent to which different pressures affect coastal fish varies substantially across coastal areas and among communities. The potential for generalizations across areas is limited and for each case, an individual evaluation should be performed. Furthermore, to address the extent of impacts from human activities on coastal fish populations, one must take a full set of potential human-induced pressures into initial account and assess them within the context of natural pressures and ambient environmental conditions of the specific area.

3. Status assessment

3.1. Monitoring of coastal fish in the Baltic Sea

To date, coastal fish monitoring is undertaken in some form by all countries around the Baltic Sea except Russia (HELCOM 2019), and regionally agreed upon indicator data are stored in a common database, COOL, hosted by the HELCOM secretariat [\(https://bio.helcom.fi/apex-](https://bio.helcom.fi/apex/f?p=108:5) [/f?p=108:5\)](https://bio.helcom.fi/apex/f?p=108:5). The current assessment relies on time-series of indicator data (see below). Data from all countries except Germany was available for assessments at the time of production of this report. Although coastal fish monitoring in the Baltic Sea is coordinated by HELCOM, the exact methods used vary slightly between countries, due to different traditions in monitoring practice and varying ecological preconditions. Most countries carry out fisheries-independent monitoring programmes using passive gears, such as gill nets, fyke nets or trap nets (HELCOM 2019). Active gear types, for example, bottom trawls, are used in some areas to monitor demersal fish (HELCOM 2019). In Finland, fisheries-independent monitoring programs for coastal species are less developed and non-existant in Denmark. The status assessment for Finnish areas is therefore also based on data obtained from coastal commercial fisheries (HELCOM 2023b) and for Denmark the data is based on citizen science from recreational fishers (Støttrup *et al.* 2018). The indicators used in this assessment are developed in order to be generic and applicable in a similar way to data originating from all of the monitoring methods included in it (HELCOM 2023a).

Coastal fish monitoring during summer in Estonia. © Luari Saks

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Monitoring of coastal fish is designed to primarily detect changes in the fish communities over time in relation to large-scale changes in the environment. For this reason, many of the monitoring areas are located in so-called reference areas, where the level of local human pressure is comparably low, i.e. with little to no physical development (or protection) or local sources of loading. However, fishing and small-scale boat traffic is typically allowed.

Figure 1. Map of coastal fish monitoring areas including delineation of the coastal zone (white areas) in the Baltic Sea. The areas denoted as "Assessed" are included in the latest status assessment of coastal fish as presented in Chapter 3 in this report and in HOLAS 3 (HELCOM 2023c). Areas denoted "Not assessed" are not included in the latest status assessment. In Finland data for status assessments are derived from commercial fisheries in the different ICES subdivisions (29, 30, 31 and 32, ie within the striped areas). In Germany there is no established coastal fish monitoring program, but pilot studies along the coast have been undertaken in recent years.

3.2. Methods for status assessment

The assessments presented in this report are based on the status of the three currently operational HELCOM core indicators for coastal fish (Box 1). The first indicator is *Abundance of coastal fish key species,* which describes the status of the key fish species perch (*Perca fluviatilis*), flounder (*Platichthys* spp.), pike (*Esox lucius*), pikeperch (*Sander lucioperca*), whitefish (*Coregonus maraena*), and/or eelpout (*Zoarces viviparus*), depending on the coastal area. The second indicator is *Abundance of coastal fish key functional groups*, which describes the state of important functional groups in the coastal fish communities, namely cyprinids or mesopredators. The third indicator is *Size structure of coastal fish*, which was assessed against a threshold for the key species perch, and evaluated using trends for pikeperch and flounder, using the new HELCOM indicator L90. L90 focuses on the size of fish at the relatively higher end of the observed size distribution, by looking at the proportion of fish in different length classes, and finding the fish length at the 90th percentile of the size distribution (Östman *et al.* 2023). The indicators estimate the relative abundance, biomass, or size distribution of key coastal fish species or species groups, derived from monitoring data and defined by each indicator, related to a site-specific threshold value or trend. The estimates are obtained from fishery-independent monitoring, citizen science and/or commercial catch statistics, as described further below. For more information on these indicators see below and (HELCOM 2023a; b; d).

Some general features of the assessment of coastal fish are of note:

- **First**, the indicators are evaluated in relation to conditions corresponding to sustainable use within prevailing environmental (climate and hydrography) conditions (European Commission 2008). For abundance indicators, time series data from the time period 2002-2015 (subject to availability) is evaluated as potential a reference period.
- **Second**, for abundance-based indicators, the approach for the assessments depends on the length of the time-series:
	- A threshold value (ASCETS approach) is used when the time-series covers more than 15 years (ten or more years potential reference period + five or more years assessment period (Figure 1a-c).
	- A trend-based approach is used when the time-series covers less than 15 years (Figure 1d-f).
- **Third**, for the size-based indicator:
	- The size structure is evaluated in relation to a threshold for good environ-

Coastal fish constitute important components of coastal foodwebs and reflect the ecological state of coastal ecosystems, because they are influenced by processes in different parts of the food-web, general environmental and hydrographical conditions, as well as anthropogenic pressures. Different aspects of this is reflected in the indicators *Abundance of coastal fish key species, Abundance of coastal fish key functional groups*, and *Size structure of coastal fish*.

Abundance of key coastal fish species is based on changes over time in typical key species of fish, such as perch (*Perca fluviatilis*), flounder (European flounder, *Platichthys flesus*, and Baltic flounder, *Platichthys solemdali*), pike (*Esox lucius*), pikeperch (*Sander lucioperca*), whitefish (*Coregonus maraena*) and eelpout (*Zoarces viviparous*), depending on the location, coastal area and sub-basin. Perch, pike, pikeperch, and whitefish are generally the key species in coastal fish communities in the less saline eastern and northern Baltic Sea (Sweden, Finland, Estonia, and Latvia), and in more sheltered coastal areas in Lithuania, Poland and Germany. In the more exposed coastal parts of the central Baltic Sea and in its western parts, the abundance of perch is generally lower and flounder and eelpout are used as key species. Perch and flounder are considered in most assessment units, but where data is available pike, pikeperch, whitefish, and eelpout are used as complementary species in the evaluation. Good status is achieved when the abundance is above a set site- and species-specific threshold value. Viable populations of key coastal fish species are generally considered to reflect an environmental status with few eutrophication symptoms and balanced food webs (Eriksson et al. 2009; Baden et al. 2012; Östman et al. 2016; Eklöf et al. 2020). Key coastal fish species are generally piscivores and/or benthivores species.

Abundance of coastal fish key functional groups evaluates the abundance of selected functional groups of coastal fish in the Baltic Sea. The functional groups used in this indicator are members of the cyprinid family. In areas where cyprinids do not exist naturally, mesopredatory fish species are used, i.e. any mid-trophic level species that are not piscivorous. The composition of cyprinid and mesopredator species differ along the coast. The most abundant species in the Cyprinid family (Cyprinidae) in the less saline eastern and northern parts of the Baltic Sea are for example roach (Rutilus rutilus) and bream (Abramis sp.), whereas mesopredatory fish such as wrasses (*Labridae*), sticklebacks (*Gasterosteidae*), flatfishes, clupeids and gobies (*Gobiidae*) are representative of the more exposed coastal parts of the central Baltic Sea and in its more saline western region. Good status is achieved when the abundance of cyprinids or mesopredators is within an acceptable range for the specific site. High abundances of cyprinids and mesopredatory fish are generally indicative of poorer environmental conditions in the coastal ecosystem and might reflect lack of top-down regulation, elevated eutrophication and increased water temperatures (Eriksson et al. 2009b; Baden et al. 2012; Bergström et al. 2016c, 2019; Östman et al. 2016)

Size structure of coastal fish evaluates the size distribution of typical key species of fish, such as perch, flounder, and pikeperch in the coastal areas of the Baltic Sea, to assess environmental status. As a rule, good status is achieved when the size of large fish (size at L90) is above a set gear- and species-specific threshold value. Large piscivores such as perch and pikeperch, are targeted by both the small-scale coastal commercial fishery as well as by recreational fishing (Olsson et al. 2015; Bergström et al. 2016a; c). Thus, the size distribution of a population gives an indication both regarding the fishing pressure in the area as well as the state of the coastal ecosystem.

mental status for perch.

— For pikeperch and flounder, the size structure is assessed with a trendbased approach.

For abundance-based indicators, threshold values for the status assessments are identified based on site-specific time-series data for each indicator. Site-specific values are used, because coastal fish generally have local population structures, limited migration, and show local responses to environmental change (see references in previous sections of the report). Furthermore, as the data supporting the indicators are derived from different types of monitoring programs, catch registration and data collection, the threshold values are not comparable across monitoring areas and data sources.

3.2.1 Threshold values

Abundance-based indicators

For **key species**, good status is achieved when the indicator of abundance or size distribution is

Figure 2. Threshold value (a-c) and trend-based (d-f) approaches to determine environmental status of the indicators Abundance of coastal fish key species and Abundance of coastal fish key functional groups. Figure headings denote which indicator(s) each figure pertains to and how the current status is determined in relation to the status during the reference period (a-c) or at the beginning of the time series (d-f). The threshold value approach is applied when the reference period spans a minimum of 10 years. The trendbased approach is used when the baseline approach cannot be applied, and it defines the status based on the direction of the trend of the indicator compared to the desired direction of the indicator over time.

above a specified threshold value. For **functional groups**, good status is achieved when the abundance is within a specific range of indicator values.

The quantitative threshold values for the *abundance-based indicators* of coastal fish are based on location-specific reference conditions where time series covering more than 15 years are available (ten or more years potential reference period + five or more years assessment period). In areas where shorter time series are available (<15 years), a trend-based approach is used. The specific approach used in the various monitoring locations is presented in the Results section.

A reference period needs to be defined for determining the threshold value. The period used to define the reference period needs to cover at least ten years in order to extend over more than twice the generation time of the typical species represented in the indicator and thus cater for natural variation in the indicator value, due for example to strong and weak year classes. For the period used to determine the reference to be relevant, it must also be carefully selected to reflect time periods with stationary environmental conditions, as stated within the MSFD (European Commission 2008). Substantial turnovers in ecosystem structure in the Baltic Sea were apparent in the late 1980s, leading to shifts in the baseline state (Möllmann *et al.* 2009), and for coastal fish communities, substantial shifts in community structure have been demonstrated in the late 1980s and early/mid 1990s (Olsson *et al.* 2012a; Bergström *et al.* 2016b). In some areas, there have also been minor shifts in fish community structure later. To account for this, the ASCETS method (Östman *et al.* 2020) is applied on time-series with more than 15 years of data. This method offers a refined approach to infer structural changes in indicator values over time and establish threshold values for the state during a reference period based on the observed variation in indicator values.

The assessment period applied when using the ASCETS methods should cover at least five years to cater for natural variability. Status is evaluated based on the deviation of the median value of the indicator during the assessment period in relation to the threshold value of the reference period (Figure 2a-c). When using the trend-based approach, environmental status is evaluated based on the direction and statistical significance of the linear trend towards good status, over the time period 2014-2020 (Figure 2d-f).

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Size-based indicator

For the *size-based indicator*, gear-specific threshold values for good status are implemented for perch. The thresholds were arrived at by analysing data on perch size distributions from 33 monitoring locations throughout the Baltic Sea coasts, using time series data of varying length from each location, ending at the year 2020 and with the longest time series starting in 1978 (Bolund in prep). The data was composed of annual survey data from Sweden, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, and Poland, and a combination of annual monitoring data and commercially collected data from Finland that fulfilled minimum data criteria (namely, a minimum of 50 measured individuals per year per location, and a minimum of six years of data from each location). Before calculating L90, a lower cut-off of 15 cm is applied to lower the influence of yearly fluctuations in recruitment. After accounting for the effects of gears, seasons, regions, and time on L90 in a linear mixed-effects model framework, implemented in R (R Core Team 2021), the mean L90 value was set as the threshold (Bolund in prep). There was relatively low amount of variation in L90 across regions and seasons, and also over time, but significant differences in the size distribution due to gears used necessitated gear-specific thresholds of 23 cm for net series and 25 cm for Nordic multimesh nets and fyke nets. The data used to map size structure of perch likely reflects a situation where the populations are not overfished (i.e. we see no strong negative trends over time), but still exploited at a level that the size structure is impacted (i.e. L90 is higher in notake areas and MPAs; (Östman *et al.* 2023).

It is challenging to set a regional threshold value for L90 in flounder. This is because of substantial differences in L90 among regions, gears, seasons and ecotypes, and often there is a combination of these factors in different areas (Bolund in prep). Therefore, trends over time in L90 for flounder are addressed in the different monitoring areas. For pikeperch, data from commercial fisheries in Finland provide sample sizes that allow estimation of L90 and assessment of trends over time. The commercial data on pikeperch may allow the development of threshold values in future (Lappalainen *et al.* 2016).

3.2.2 Assessment protocol

Abundance/biomass-based indicators ASCETS method

Coastal fish datasets must meet certain criteria in order to be able to apply an evaluation of status using the ASCETS method:

— The time period used to determine the reference period should cover a minimum number of years that is twice the generation time of the species most influential in the indicator assessment. This is to ensure that the influences of strong year classes are taken into account. For coastal fish, this is typically about ten years. In this evaluation, the time period used to determine the reference period against which good status is evaluated spans the years 1998-2015, with varying numbers of years depending on data availability for each time series.

— Before evaluating status, it should be decided whether the reference period reflects good status or not. If a previous status evaluation exists from HOLAS II, the reference period is assigned the same status as the assessment period in HOLAS II (2011-2016). When a previous status evaluation does not exist, this can be done by using historical data predating the start of the reference period, using additional information, or by expert judgment. For example, if available data from years preceding the current reference period have much higher indicator values, as determined by expert judgement, the reference might represent not good status (in case of an indicator where higher values are indicative of a good environmental state) or good status (in case of an indicator where higher values are indicative of an undesirable state).

The ASCETS method (Östman *et al.* 2020) offers a refined approach to infer structural changes in indicator values over time and establish threshold values for the state during a reference period based on the observed variation in indicator values. ASCETS also gives estimates on the confidence of an apparent change in state of indicator values between a reference period and an assessment period. Thus, by applying ASCETS to time series data, it is possible to derive threshold values for addressing structural changes in indicator values over time and to evaluate the confidence of the derived current indicator state relative to previous indicator values. To determine the status of the indicator, the ASCETS method first derives a bootstrapped distribution of median values from a time series of observed indicator values during a reference period. Specific threshold values for changes in indicator state is set based on the Xth and XXth percentile values of the bootstrapped distribution. The percentiles are 5 and 98 percent for key species and 5 and 95/98 percent (depending on the status of the reference period, see below) for functional groups. In both cases, the percentiles represent the confidence interval of median indicator values during the reference period. In this way, the derived boundaries of the confidence interval can function as threshold

values for a change in state per assessment unit of each species/functional group. Because AS-CETS bootstraps median indicator values during the reference period it is possible that one or several observed indicator values during the reference period will fall outside of the confidence interval, because the bootstrapping reduces the influence of what may be large sampling errors. Second, the bootstrapped median indicator value during the assessment period is evaluated in relation to the threshold values derived from the reference period depending on how much of the bootstrapped median distribution from the assessment period falls below, within, or above the Xth and XXth percentiles (see Figure 3).

For key species, this evaluation is done as follows:

Figure 3. Decision tree for assessment of abundance-based indicator status. The ASCETS approach (top figure) and trend-based approach (bottom figure) are presented.

— In situations where the reference conditions represent good status, the median of the years in the assessment period should be above the 5th percentile of the median distribution of the dataset used to determine the reference in order to reflect good status.

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In situations where the reference conditions represent not good status, the median of the years in the assessment period should be above the 98th percentile of the median distribution of the dataset used to determine the reference in order to reflect good status.

For functional groups, the evaluation proceeds as follows:

- In situations where the reference state reflects good status, the median of the years in the assessment period should be above the 5th percentile and below the 95th percentile to reflect good status.
- In situations where the reference state reflects not good status, in order to reflect good status, the median of the years in the assessment period should be above the 98th percentile if the reference status is indicative of too low abundances, and below the 5th percentile if the reference status is indicative of too high abundances.

Trend-based method

If the requirements for defining quantitative baseline conditions are not met (e.g. short time series), then a trend-based evaluation should be used. All available data starting from year 2014 is included in trend analyses.

In the trend-based approach, good status is defined based on the direction and significance of the trend of the indicator compared to the desired direction of the indicator over time (Figure 2d-f and 3).

For key species, this means that:

When the first years of the time series evaluated represent good status, the trend of the indicator over time should not be negative in order to represent good status. If the first years of the time series evaluated represent not good status, the trend in the indicator should be positive in order to represent good status. The level of significance for these trends should be $p < 0.1$.

For functional groups, this means that:

Where the first years in the evaluated time series represent good status, the trend of the indicator over time should not exhibit any direction in order to reflect good status. If, on the other hand, the first years of the evaluated time series represent not good status, the trend should be in the desired direction to reflect good status. The significance level for these trends should be p <0.1.

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Size-based indicators

To assess environmental status of the size structure of perch, the median value of L90 during the assessment period was assessed in relation to the gear-specific threshold (analogous to figure 1a), and confidence in the status was determined by the number of years that fell above/below the threshold

Changes in L90 over time in flounder and pikeperch were assessed according to a trend-based approach, with a linear regression for year 2014- 2020 and the significance threshold set to p<0.1 (Analogous to Figure 2d).

3.2.3 Assessment units and aggregation

Due to the local appearance of typical coastal fish populations, status assessments of coastal fish communities are representative for rather small geographical scales. In this evaluation the HEL-COM assessment unit scale 3 'Open sub-basin and coastal waters' has been applied. The indicator is not evaluated for the open sea sub-basins since the species in focus are coastal.

For the integration of status across species and monitoring locations within assessment units, the One-Out-All-Out principle is applied (Dierschke *et al.* 2021).

The assessment units are defined in the Annex 4 of the [HELCOM Monitoring and Assess](http://helcom.fi/Documents/Action%20areas/Monitoring%20and%20assessment/Monitoring%20and%20assessment%20strategy/Monitoring%20and%20assessment%20strategy.pdf)[ment Strategy](http://helcom.fi/Documents/Action%20areas/Monitoring%20and%20assessment/Monitoring%20and%20assessment%20strategy/Monitoring%20and%20assessment%20strategy.pdf) .

3.2.4 Data used in the assessment

The evaluations are based on data from fishery independent monitoring, citizen science and/ or commercial fisheries catch statistics. For detailed information on the data and areas included in the assessment, see Appendix 1 results Table 1, 5 and 9.

Fishery independent monitoring

The evaluations are based on catch per unit effort (CPUE) data from annual averages of all sampling stations in each area. Individuals smaller than 12 cm (Nordic Coastal multimesh nets) or 14 cm (other net types) were excluded from the evaluation in order to only include species and sizegroups suited for quantitative sampling by the method. Abundance is calculated as the number of individuals of the species included in the indicator per unit effort (CPUE).

Commercial catch data

Analyses were based on CPUE data in the form of kg/gillnet day, and each data point represents total annual CPUE per area. The gillnets used have mesh sizes between 36-60 mm (bar length) and hence target a somewhat different aspect of the fish community in the area, compared to the fisheries independent monitoring data. In addition, fishing is not performed at fixed stations nor with a constant effort across years. As a result, the estimates from the gillnet monitoring programmes and commercial catch data are not directly comparable, and only relative changes across data sources should be compared.

Citizen science

As for the other surveys, analyses were based on CPUE data (number of fish per effort) from monofilament gill nets or fyke nets. Voluntary recreational fishermen undertake fishing during the period April to November. For comparability only data from August was used in the current evaluation. The fishermen fish at fixed stations and during the first half of each month throughout the season. This mediates the comparability of the data with fisheries independent monitoring programs using gill nets or fyke nets.

3.3. Assessment results

3.3.1 Summary of status

The evaluation of coastal fish using core indicators shows that six out of twenty-two assessed coastal units achieved good status with regards to the indicator *Abundance of coastal fish key species*, and four out of fourteen assessed units with regards to the *Abundance of coastal fish key functional groups* (Figure 4, Appendix 1 results Table 2 and 6). Regarding *size structure of coastal fish*, four out of fifteen assessed units achieved good status (Figure 4, Appendix 1 results Table 10). Size structure was assessed for the key species perch using the new HELCOM indicator L90, which focuses on the size of fish at the relatively higher end of the observed size distribution, by looking at the proportion of fish in different length classes and finding the fish length at the 90th percentile of the size distribution (HELCOM 2023d).

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Figure 4. The status for coastal fish was assessed using three core indicators: Abundance of key coastal fish species, Abundance of coastal fish key functional groups, and Size structure of coastal fish. Pie charts indicate the shares of all relevant spatial assessment units, 42 in total, achieving good status (green), not good status (red) or which were not assessed due to lack of data (white). Numbers give the number of assessment units within each category. See also Core indicator reports: (HELCOM 2023a; b; d).

In all, the spatial coverage of the evaluation of coastal fish has expanded compared to the previous assessment in 2018 with data until 2016, as more monitoring locations and assessment units were included this time. In addition, more species have been included under the indicator Abundance of key coastal fish species and the new HELCOM indicator Size structure of coastal fish has been developed. Still, only 22 of in total 42 coastal assessment units were evaluated, and the indicator Abundance of key species was the only indicator that was evaluated in all 22 assessed units (Figure 4). Quantitative threshold values are lacking for all species included in the indicator Size structure of coastal fish, except perch.

The HELCOM indicator Abundance of key coastal fish species was evaluated based on data on the key species perch, flounder, pike, pikeperch, whitefish, and/or eelpout, depending on the coastal area. When combining the evaluation results across species and monitoring locations, using the One-Out-All-Out principle, the indicator achieved good status in six out of 22 assessment units (Bothnian Bay Finnish and Swedish coastal waters, Bothnian Sea Finnish coastal waters, and the coastal waters of Estonia, and Latvia; Figure 5, Appendix 1 results

Table 2). Looking at results for different species and monitoring locations (HELCOM 2023b) and Figure 6), this reflects an overall good status for perch in 24 of 31 monitoring locations, and for flounder in eight of 26 locations. The other species were assessed at relatively fewer locations. For these, two of seven locations achieved good status for pike, six of nine for pikeperch, five of 11 for whitefish, and 10 of 14 for eelpout (Figure 6). In comparison to the previous assessment (HELCOM 2018b), the results indicate a deteriorating state. Only six out of 22 HELCOM assessment units achieved good status for the indicator Abundance of key coastal fish species in the current assessment, compared to 13 out of 21 assessment units in HOLAS II (Appendix 1 results Table 4). The decreased overall status partly reflects the inclusion of additional key species in the current assessment, namely pike, pikeperch, whitefish, and eelpout. Also, a stricter integration approach across monitoring locations was used this time (OOAO, while the majority rule was used in HOLAS II). Pike and whitefish did not achieve good status in most of the monitoring locations. For perch and flounder, which are more comparable between assessment periods, differences between this and the previous assessment are rather small.

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Figure 5. Aggregated status for the three indicators abundance coastal fish key species (a), abundance coastal fish functional groups (b), and size structure coastal fish key species perch (c) per assessment unit. Status is determined based on the one-out-all-out-approach in cases where assessment results from more than one indicator and/or monitoring area are available. Confidence in the assessment is shown in two classes (high and intermediate, no assessment unit had low confidence in the assessment).

Status Key species indicator pikeperch, data until 2020

Figure 6. Status of coastal fish during 2016-2020 for the *Abundance of key coastal fish species*. Figures show the status per monitoring area and species (perch, flounder and eelpout in Danish waters, pike, pikeperch, whitefish, and flounder.

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Figure 6. (Continued). Status of coastal fish during 2016-2020 for the *Abundance of key coastal fish species*. Figures show the status per monitoring area and species (perch, flounder and eelpout in Danish waters, pike, pikeperch, whitefish, and flounder.

The HELCOM indicator *Size structure of coastal fish* was only evaluated for the key species perch due to lack of quantitative threshold values for other species. Integration of monitoring results to the level of the spatial assessment unit showed that only four out of 15 assessed units achieved good status (The Quark Finnish coastal water, Bothnian Sea Finnish and Swedish coastal waters, and Gulf of Riga Estonian coastal waters; HELCOM 2023d and Figure 4 and 5, Appendix 1 results Table 10). In all, 28 monitoring locations were included, and half of these met the threshold value for good status (see HELCOM 2023d and Figure 7). The indicator was used for the first time in the current assessment.

The HELCOM indicator *Abundance of coastal fish key functional groups* was evaluated based on data on the groups of cyprinids and/or mesopredators, depending on the coastal area. The spatial coverage for this indicator was lower compared to that of the key species indicator. When combining the evaluation results across groups and locations, only four out of 14 assessment units fell between the upper and lower threshold values (Figure 4 and 5, Appendix 1 results Table 6). The indicator has both upper and lower threshold values because both very high and very low abundances of cyprinids and mesopredators may characterize an undesirable environmental state.

Figure 7. Status of coastal fish during 2016-2020 for the *Size structure of coastal fish* (perch) per monitoring area.

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In cases when good status was not achieved, this was generally due to too high abundances. Good status was achieved in the Swedish coastal waters of the Bothnian Bay, Bothnian Sea, and Bornholm basin, and in the Polish coastal waters of the Gdansk basin. Looking at results for different monitoring locations, good status was achieved in 20 out of 32 monitoring locations (see (HELCOM 2023a) and Figure 8). In comparison to the previous assessment (HELCOM 2018b), there was a tendency for a slight decrease in the status of this indicator when considering cyprinids and mesopredators (Appendix 1 results Table 8). In three of the assessment units also considered in the previous assessment, the status has decreased, and in the remaining 10 assessment units there was no change in status. The differences partly reflect the inclusion of additional areas and functional groups (mesopredators) in some assessment units and areas, and the use of a stricter integrating approach across monitoring locations (majority rule was used in HOLAS II and the One-Out-All-Out principle in the current assessment).

Figure 8. Status of coastal fish during 2016-2020 for the *Abundance of coastal fish key functional groups* (cyprinids and/or mesopredators) per monitoring area.

3.3.2 Confidence in the assessment

The confidence scoring followed the principles as outlined in the HELCOM integrated biodiversity assessment. Confidence was scored using four criteria with three different levels $(1=$ high, $0.5=$ intermediate, and $0 = low$). The criteria used were:

Confidence in the accuracy of the estimate (ConfA).

- In the ASCETS approach, confidence of the status assessment for each location is determined by the C(S) value. C(S) varies between 0 and 1, with values <0.1 representing high confidence of changed status (in both directions) and values >0.9 high confidence of unchanged status (Level 1). Values of 0.1-0.3 represent medium confidence in changed status and 0.7-0.9 medium confidence in unchanged status (Level 0.5). Values of 0.3-0.5 represent low confidence of changed status and 0.5-0.7 low confidence in unchanged status (Level 0).
- In the trend-based approach, confidence in the evaluation is determined by the p-value of the linear regression, with p-values <0.05 representing high confidence in a trend (Level 1), 0.05<p<0.1 medium confidence in a trend (Level 0.5), p 0.10-0.20 low confidence in no trend (Level 0), p 0.21-0.49 medium confidence in no trend (Level 0.5), and p 0.5-1.0 high confidence in no trend (Level 1).
- For the size-based indicator, Confidence in the assessment is determined by the number of years during the assessment period that falls above or below the median. If all values fall either below or above the median, the confidence is high. If all values except one fall above/below the median, the confidence is medium, and if all values except two fall above/below, the confidence is low.

Confidence in the temporal coverage of assessment (ConfT). Level 1 = data for all years during 2016-2020, 0.5 = one or two years of data missing during 2016-2020, and $0 =$ three or more years of data missing during 2016-2020.

Confidence in spatial representability of the assessment (ConfS). Level = 1 full coverage/ several monitoring locations per assessment unit given its size, 0.5 = two or more monitoring locations per assessment unit but insufficient numbers given its size, and $0 =$ one monitoring location per assessment unit.

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Methodological confidence (ConfM). For coastal fish all assessment units reach level 1 since all monitoring programs included in the assessment are described in the coastal fish monitoring [guidelines](http://helcom.fi/action-areas/monitoring-and-assessment/manuals-and-guidelines/coastal-fish-guidelines) .

In general, the confidence varies across assessment units, countries and monitoring programmes since, for example, the number of years for which coastal fish monitoring has been carried out varies between locations, as does the spatial coverage of monitoring within assessment units, and thus the confidence in the actual evaluation. Generally, the confidence of the evaluation is higher in locations where monitoring started before 1999 and where data is available for all the years during the assessment period (2016-2020, high ConfT), where there is good spatial coverage of monitoring (high ConfS), and where the monitoring is fisheries independent and targeting the focal species of the evaluation. To note is that this confidence concept as developed for the purposes of the integrated biodiversity assessment is not fully applicable to coastal fish as further assessment of the precision in data and the congruence in status across monitoring locations within assessment units would provide additional needed information.

Considered across the three indicators, the methodological confidence (ConfM) is **high** in all monitoring locations. The confidence in the temporal coverage (ConfT) is **high** in all assessed units except for in six, where the individual monitoring locations have data missing for one or more years (in Finland, Denmark, Poland and Sweden). The confidence in spatial representability (ConfS) is **high** along the Lithuanian and Polish coasts, but **low** along the southern Swedish coast (Arkona basin) and in Latvian and Estonian coastal waters. In all other areas, ConfS is scored as being **intermediate**. The confidence in the accuracy of the evaluation (confA) varies between the three indicators and ranges from **low** to **high**. The integrated confidence considering all four categories varies between high and intermediate depending on assessment unit (See Figure 5 and Appendix 1 results Table 3, 7, 11).

4. Measures for coastal fish

A multitude of factors can potentially impact coastal fish community development and status, and in addition most coastal fish species have rather local population structures and are thus likely to show local responses to changes in the environment (Chapter 2). Therefore, it is generally not possible to identify a single generic measure to restore and support coastal fish communities in the Baltic Sea. Rather, the recommended plan of action will likely differ between areas, and should be developed while accounting for the specific environmental setting (including food-web structure and function), current anthropogenic pressures, and structure of the fish community in focus.

In general, there are two main non-mutually exclusive routes to improve the status of a population of a key species: to reduce mortality and to increase production. The reviewed measures as presented in this chapter are therefore subdivided into those primarily aiming to reduce *the mortality* of the population, and those primarily aiming to support *its recruitment or growth*. To achieve these two aims, measures can target individual species or species assemblages, or take a broader approach and target a whole food-web or ecosystem. For example, in an ecosystem-based approach to management, multiple goals should be targeted where the management action may aim to increase both

the productivity of key species in the ecosystem, as well as more general aims that indirectly will support the productivity of individual species, such as increasing the resilience of the ecosystem to disturbances, as well as to balance the food-web in the ecosystem. Therefore, measures that target the whole food-web or ecosystem are also, briefly discussed in this chapter.

Table 3 lists potential measures to restore and protect coastal fish communities in the Baltic Sea, provide their links to pressures, and the scientific support for their effectiveness. Based on this summary, the measures that are potentially suitable for restoring or protecting coastal fish communities are presented in detail in the text. The focus of this detailed presentation is on measures that have been scientifically validated and have shown positive effects within current management structures in the Baltic Sea. However, also factors that are difficult to manage within a short time-frame (like climate change and eutrophication), or that constitute natural parts of the ecosystem (such as natural predation) are also important regulators of coastal fish community development and status (Chapter 2). Such factors should, even if there may be little scientific support for effective management actions, nevertheless be considered when restoring and supporting coastal fish communities.

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Table 3. Table of potential measures for coastal fish in the Baltic Sea organized by the major aim of the measure (reducing mortality or supporting productivity). The table shows the name of the measure, the pressures that the measure is targeting and whether there is scientific support for the effectiveness of the measure in the Baltic Sea. The scientific support is described in detail in Ch. 4.1-4.2.

4.1. Measures reducing mortality

Two major sources of mortality for fish in the Baltic Sea are mortality as a result of fishing, and natural mortality from diseases, starvation, and predation from other fish and apex or top predators such as birds and mammals. One measure to regulate mortality induced by fishing is to set allowable catches. However, key coastal fish species in the Baltic Sea, like perch, pikeperch, pike, whitefish and cyprinid species, are mainly targeted by fisheries that are for various reasons not often regulated by allowable catches. Thus, other options for measures need to be considered. The majority of fishing methods, both those targeting coastal as well as those targeting offshore fish communities and stocks, target large individuals and species at the top of the food-web, hence leading to changes in the fish size- and age distribution and fish community function (Pauly *et al.* 1998; Olsson *et al.* 2015; Bergström *et al.* 2016a; Griffiths *et al.* 2024).

In this report, measures that regulate fishing mortality are mainly evaluated with respect to the effects on the coastal fish community as described by the indicators *Coastal fish key species* and *Coastal fish size*. The species in the indicator *Coastal fish functional groups* (cyprinids and mesopredators) are much less affected by fishing, with only limited small-scale fishing targeting mainly cyprinids locally in Sweden and Finland (Lappalainen *et al.* 2019; Dahlin *et al.* 2021), and to some extent in the Baltic States and Polish

coasts. An indirect effect on lower trophic level fish such as cyprinids and mesopredators from fisheries regulations focusing on piscivorous fish is, however, likely as a result of cascading effects in the food-web (Eriksson *et al.* 2011; Casini *et al.* 2012). In particular, a decreased predation pressure from declining stocks of piscivorous fish species might favour the increase in abundance of mesopredatory fish species (Östman *et al.* 2016) and can lead to further negative effects on the ecosystem due to trophic cascades (Donadi *et al.* 2017; Eklöf *et al.* 2020).

Measures that aim at regulating fishing mortality and that have scientifically documented effectiveness for coastal fish in the Baltic Sea include permanent fisheries closures, partial fisheries closures, as well as gear and catch regulations. These measures are described in detail in the paragraphs below, both with respect to the expected effects of the measure, as well as evidence from the Baltic and other geographical regions for the effectiveness of the measure. Importantly, fisheries closures are in some cases pertaining only to commercial fisheries, with the assumption that recreational fisheries will have a negligible impact on fish population recovery rates. This assumption was tested in a recent study in inland waters in Lithuania, which showed that recreational angling slowed the recovery rates of predatory species (e.g. pikeperch and perch) while species that are rarely caught by anglers (e.g. roach) showed rapid recovery after a complete commercial fishing ban in 2013 (Dainys *et al.* 2022).

4.1.1 Permanent fisheries closures (no-take areas)

No-take marine reserves, where no harvesting is allowed, have been recommended as a general tool for ecosystem-based fisheries management (Halpern 2003; Halpern *et al.* 2009). Indeed, it has been pointed out that biodiversity conservation should focus on no-take marine reserves because 94% of marine protected areas globally allow fishing (Costello & Ballantine 2015). Furthermore, in the Mediterranean, a recent study found that small-scale fisheries catch more threatened elasmobranchs inside partially protected areas than in unprotected areas (Di Lorenzo *et al.* 2022). In no-take areas, fishing mortality is regulated by permanent cessation of fishing activity in a particular area, allowing fish populations and communities within the boundaries of the closed areas to recover from fisheries exploitation with respect to both abundance and size structure. Indeed, there is evidence of positive effects of no-take areas in marine ecosystems, regardless of their size (Halpern 2003; Bergström *et al.* 2019). No-take areas can lead to increases in biomass, density, individual size, and diversity in all functional groups of the targeted fish community (Halpern *et al.* 2009; Bostedt *et al.* 2020; Bergström *et al.* 2022a). European marine reserves have been shown to promote key biological functions and variables such as species richness, biomass, density, and

body size of targeted populations (Fenberg *et al.* 2012). However, careful design of no-take areas is imperative for their success. Studies show that a match in geographical scale between the home-ranges of the focal species and the size of the no-take area will increase the benefit (Palumbi 2003; Claudet *et al.* 2008; Baskett & Barnett 2015). For open sea populations, a large complete no-take zone surrounded by partially protected areas in the Kattegat, targeting the cod, and remaining closed over a 13- year period was not enough to restore the Kattegat cod, possibly at least partly due to a mismatch between the size of the protected area and the home-range of the cod. However, other species in the fish assemblage showed a positive response, namely dab, lemon sole, turbot, and Norway lobster (Sköld *et al.* 2022). Similarly, there was no detectable recovery in cod and flatfish abundances after 12 years of full protection in no-take zones and strict fishing regulations in the large surrounding buffer zones in Havstensfjorden on the Swedish West coast, indicating that recovery of populations that are highly diminished when no-take zones are established may take a long time (Bergström *et al.* 2022a). Thus, the placement and duration of the no-take area needs to be tailored to the life-history and migration patterns of the focal species (Halpern & Warner 2002; Claudet *et al.* 2008; Molloy *et al.* 2009; Vandeperre *et al.* 2011).

Fish monitoring using small boats in Estonia. © Luari Saks

No-take areas might also lead to spill-over effects of adult fish, pelagic eggs, and larvae to adjacent areas and systems (Abesamis & Russ 2005; Halpern *et al.* 2009). They may also lead to general and positive ecosystem effects on other parts of the food-web besides the targeted fish populations (Thrush & Dayton 2010; Baskett & Barnett 2015; Bergström *et al.* 2022a). For example, no-take areas often result in an increase in large predatory fish, which in turn may restore food-web functions and thereby counteract the effects of eutrophication and decrease the risk of regime shifts in the coastal ecosystem (Eriksson *et al.* 2011; Baden *et al.* 2012; Östman *et al.* 2016; Donadi *et al.* 2017; Eklöf *et al.* 2020). No-take areas can also result in populations and food-webs that are more resilient to marine heat waves and other strong environmental perturbations (Ziegler *et al.* 2023). Many of these effects might, however, be slow since fish populations in marine reserves can have slower growth rates as a result of increased density dependence (Gårdmark *et al.* 2006), although this is not always the case (Berggren *et al.* 2022).

In the Baltic Sea, several no-take areas have been established and some have been closed to fishing for 10 years or more (Bergström *et al.* 2022a; HELCOM 2023c), see also (Berkström *et al.* 2021). In a recent report, Bergström et al. (2022) evaluated the effect of eight no-take areas in Swedish coastal and off-shore waters, where each no-take zone focused on 1 to 4 target species. They found that the abundance of the focal species (perch, pike, pikeperch, and whitefish, as well as cod and sea trout, and also flatfishes: turbot, dab, lemon sole and plaice, and finally crustaceans: Norway lobster, lobster, and brown crab) in each no-take area was on average 3.8 times higher than in a comparable reference area after six years of protection. This means that abundances increased in most of the target species, however in five out of 22 cases, abundances of the target species did not recover in the short (5-6-year) or long (10 or more years) term (pertaining to cod, turbot, plaice, and perch in one area). Concurrently, the proportion of old and large individuals increased in most of the no-take areas. In most cases, these effects persisted and increased in the longer term over 10 years or more. Growth rates in no-take areas were lower in some populations, showing that density-dependent effects may decrease the effect of the no-take areas. However, one population showed a clearly higher growth rate in the no-take area compared to the reference area. Two of the eight evaluated no-take areas (one with the target species whitefish, and one with the target species perch and pike) were reopened to fishing after 5 years, at which point the positive effects on fish stocks quickly eroded to pre-protection levels, and this happened despite the areas remaining closed during the spawning

period. In a rare example of a very long-term (>30 years) no-take area along the Swedish coast, the catch biomass of piscivores was 2-3 times higher than in reference areas (Bergström *et al.* 2019), and pike in the no-take area were significantly larger and older than pike in reference exploited populations, likely due to lower mortality and not due to differences in body growth (Berggren *et al.* 2022). Studying the same no-take area, Bergström et al. (2019) also looked at the effects of a eutrophication gradient and found that the abundance of cyprinids in the no-take area, which had intermediate eutrophication levels, corresponded to that of reference areas with low eutrophication. These results suggest that reduction of predatory fish, may enhance eutrophication-like symptoms. In another example of effects on the food-web, marine protected areas were more resistant to invasion by round goby in the Baltic Sea (Holmes *et al.* 2019). Thus, no-take areas could increase the resilience of the food-web to disturbances.

4.1.2 Partial fisheries closures

This measure concerns closing of an area from fishing during a specific time of year or season in order to reduce the mortality of targeted species and populations. The timing of a closure usually targets vulnerable life stages such as spawning females and/or sensitive juvenile stages of the targeted population. The key objective of this measure is to ensure reproduction by allowing fish to spawn, to protect juveniles from overexploitation, and to reduce the risk of potential genetic selective effects of fishing. To that end, this measure is similar to no-take areas with the only difference that the less restrictive partial closures might be easier to advocate for fisheries managers.

Seasonal closures have been considered beneficial mostly for restoring commercial shellfish (e.g. shrimp and lobster fisheries; reviewed by (Everson 1986)). Studies have also demonstrated positive effects of partial closures on fish populations (Gwinn & Allen 2010; Samy-Kamal *et al.* 2015). In the Baltic Sea, a recent study found that spawning closures along the Swedish coast positively impact the catch and weight per unit effort of pike, while the catch per unit effort of the more common predator perch, and of the mesopredators roach and three-spined stickleback, did not increase compared to the reference areas (Eklöf *et al.* 2023). An additional study along the Swedish coast showed similar results of a fisheries closure targeting whitefish (Berkström *et al.* 2021). However, more studies are needed to determine if the increased catches of pike are due to increased abundances or behavioral changes in the protected areas and to elucidate the potential for cascading effects on lower trophic levels (Eklöf *et al.* 2023).

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4.1.3 Regulations on fishing gears and catch

These measures aim to reduce the mortality of targeted fish populations and communities by limiting the number and types of gears and vessels in the fishery, as well as by restricting fishing licenses and total allowable catch. The measures in this section can also aim to preserve the size and age structure of the targeted fish populations by imposing restrictions on the mesh size of the gears used and minimum and/or maximum size limits of the catchable size of the fish (only a sub-section of the exploited populations and communities are targeted).

A reduction in the effort (number of gears and vessels allowed, and licenses permitted) of a fishery can have a positive effect on targeted stocks and species by reducing mortality (Roberts & Polunin 1991; Dickey-Collas *et al.* 2010; Hannesson 2022). This might result in long-term sustainable out-take from the fishery and maintain the spawning stock biomass of targeted populations at a sustainable level. The type of gear used typically impacts both target and non-target species. As pointed out above, overharvest of large and piscivorous fish might result in undesirable alterations of the size structure and species composition in the food web (Pauly *et al.* 1998). Discarding of non-target species still occurs in the Baltic Sea (ICES 2022a; b), despite being illegal for the

major commercial fisheries (EU 2013) and this can affect the trophic structure of the ecosystem (e.g., increased abundance of scavengers; (Gislason 2003) ultimately impacting non-targeted species and populations negatively if the incidental catch is substantial. By altering the size and species selectivity of the gears used in the fishery, the negative effects on targeted and non-targeted fish populations and communities might be reduced.

Several measures of the types discussed in this section are in place for coastal fish in the Baltic Sea (HELCOM 2015). Indirectly supporting the possible benefits of catch regulations, a recent study found that a reduced total fishing mortality of pikeperch in the coastal waters of southern Finland was associated with a declining trend in the total mortality, despite increased abundances of cormorants and seals (Olin *et al.* 2023). According to a bio-economic simulation model by (Heikinheimo *et al.* 2006) mesh size regulations have been suggested to have a positive effect on the biological sustainability of the pikeperch fishery in the Archipelago Sea, Finland. The model indicated that a larger mesh size would double the spawning stock biomass of pikeperch, which in turn would benefit the fishery in the long term (Heikinheimo *et al.* 2006). A recent simulation study focusing on the German western Baltic Sea recreational cod fishery found that a combi-

A perch caught in a multimesh gillnet during coastal fish monitoring in Ploand. © Adam Lejk

nation of seasonal closure and size or slot limits, while allowing a high (10 cod) bag limit, would be the most suitable combination of management measures for limiting cod removals while at the same time minimizing impacts on angler welfare (Haase *et al.* 2022). Despite the enforcement of both size and bag limits for pike fishing along the Swedish cost since 2010 the status of the assessed population has not improved.

4.1.4 Reduction of natural predation

Changing patterns of natural predation could potentially be a target of management actions. Studies have shown local effects of natural predation by for example cormorants and seals on coastal fish species and communities, but effects vary drastically between different areas in Sweden, Finland, and Germany (Heikinheimo *et al.* 2016; Lehikoinen *et al.* 2017; Hansson *et al.* 2018; Arlinghaus *et al.* 2021; Ovegård *et al.* 2021; Bergström *et al.* 2022b; Olin *et al.* 2023, 2024), and studies of consumption rates of apex predators likewise indicate local effects on the fish community (Lehikoinen *et al.* 2011; Salmi *et al.* 2015; Veneranta *et al.* 2020). Furthermore, a global meta-analysis of cormorant predation effects on fish populations found that species within the *Cyprinidae* and *Percidae* families appear most vulnerable to cormorant predation, which means that changing levels of cormorant predation could result in the changed composition of fish species in the ecosystem (Ovegård *et al.* 2021). More generally, empirical knowledge of effects on non-target species and possible resulting trophic cascades in the food web as a result of anthropogenic reduction of natural predation (from seals and cormorants) is scarce (Eriksson *et al.* 2023).

4.2. Measures supporting fish recruitment and growth

The measures discussed above that are aimed at reducing mortality are mainly targeting the adult life stage of the fish populations and communities. The measures in this section are instead generally focused on safeguarding or boosting the production of early life stages. Studies in the Baltic Sea have suggested that the perhaps single most important factor in this regard for coastal fish is the availability and quality of essential habitats (Sundblad *et al.* 2014; Kraufvelin *et al.*

2018; Bergström *et al.* 2022a). Scientific support remains weak for other measures, but there is evidence that the reduction of hazardous substances can have strong effects on population level viability of eelpout in the Baltic Sea (Bergek *et al.* 2012).

4.2.1 Habitat protection

The first and most important measure in this category focuses on the protection of already functioning and essential habitats of coastal fish. Here, it can be noted that it is always more cost-effective to protect the habitats and minimize further loss and damage than to restore essential habitats in a deteriorated state (Kraufvelin *et al.* 2018, 2021b). The idea behind habitat protection is to prevent further habitat degradation that has negative impacts on the recruitment and production of juvenile fish, thus safeguarding sustained yields of adult fish populations (Sundblad *et al.* 2014; Kraufvelin *et al.* 2018). This is achieved through the protection of habitats from various impacts such as physical exploitation via coastal constructions and infrastructure, boating traffic, eutrophication, dredging and destructive fishing methods (Kraufvelin *et al.* 2021a). It could also include protection from dam constructions in river mouths and upstream brooks and rivers. To maximize the effect of this type of measure, it is best to combine it with fisheries regulations as presented in Section 4.1 (Bergström *et al.* 2022a).

Although there is no direct evidence from the Baltic Sea of positive effects on coastal fish from habitat protection, substantial indirect evidence for the support of the measure is available (Kraufvelin *et al.* 2018). (Sundblad *et al.* 2014) showed that habitat limitation in early life stages of perch and pikeperch may restrict the abundance of later adult stage fish. In addition, from Sweden there is evidence of long-term negative effects of coastal development on fish reproduction habitats (Sundblad & Bergström 2014), and of negative impacts on the habitat and hence production of juvenile fish from recreational boating traffic (Sandström *et al.* 2005; Hansen *et al.* 2019). Moreover, in Denmark the extraction of large boulders (i.e. "stone-fishing") from coastal reefs for construction of harbours and coastal protection in Kattegat has destroyed many cavernous reefs and modified macroalgal coverage in the area, which in turn have led to degradation of the habitat for local fish populations (Støttrup *et al.* 2014; Kristensen *et al.* 2015).

4.2.2 Habitat restoration

An alternative and often complementary measure to that of habitat protection is to restore already impacted and partly destroyed habitats for fish. The main objective of this measure is to restore degraded habitats affected by physical interferences to a state where they can support biodiversity and productivity of fish populations. Learning how to do this in effective ways has been listed as one of the great challenges within marine ecosystem ecology (Borja 2014), and ways forward have been proposed to deal with the criticism of 'too small and too expensive' that often hamper the large-scale adoption of marine restoration efforts (McAfee *et al.* 2021).

Habitat restoration can be undertaken by either re-creating the physical structures of the habitats, or by compensatory efforts where new and artificial habitats are constructed (Loughlin & Clarke 2014; Paxton *et al.* 2020; Kraufvelin *et al.* 2021b). Examples of habitat restoration along the Baltic Sea coast include the construction of artificial stone reefs (Støttrup *et al.* 2014, 2017; Kristensen *et al.* 2015; Stenberg *et al.* 2015), the restoration of eelgrass meadows (Moksnes *et al.* 2016), the restoration of wetlands and tributaries as reproduction habitats for coastal anadromous fish species like pike, ide and turbot (Nilsson *et al.* 2014), and the lowering of eutrophication levels by various means(Reusch *et al.* 2018; Bergström *et al.* 2023).

Artificial reefs have been constructed in the Baltic Sea in German, Polish, Russian, Finnish, Swedish and Danish waters (Fabi *et al.* 2011). In Denmark, artificially built stone reefs and mussel beds have attracted fish species with a preference for rocky habitats, and also increased biodiversity and the abundance of larger specimens of certain species of fish (Støttrup *et al.* 2014; Kristensen *et al.* 2015; Stenberg *et al.* 2015). Biogenic reefs of mussels can also increase the structural complexity and biodiversity of the habitat and associated fauna. This could lead to an increase in fish growth and diversity. However, it is not established to date whether such an increase is the result of attraction effects of the fish or population abundance level effects.

Eelgrass meadows are of substantial importance for the production of juvenile fish in marine habitats (Lilley & Unsworth 2014; Cole & Moksnes 2016), but a substantial proportion of these important habitats has disappeared along the Baltic coasts over the last decades (Baden *et al.* 2003; Frederiksen *et al.* 2004). Despite the uncertain success of eelgrass meadow restoration attempts and the resulting effects on fish production to date (Moksnes *et al.* 2018), eelgrass meadow restoration might be an important measure to consider in the future when more evidence has accumulated. A recent review pointed out that a focus on not only reducing physical

stressors but also on incorporating positive species interactions throughout the ecosystem into restoration methods can be a promising avenue forward (Valdez *et al.* 2020). Examples of this that pertain to eelgrass meadow restoration include re-establishing top-down control and considering positive density dependence, for example by using large numbers (<100000) of shoots or seeds in seagrass meadow restoration (van Katwijk *et al.* 2016).

Many coastal fish species of freshwater origin in the coastal zones of the Baltic Sea undertake spawning migrations to coastal tributaries and wetlands (Engstedt *et al.* 2010; Nilsson *et al.* 2014; Rohtla *et al.* 2014, 2015). In many regions of the Baltic Sea, these habitats have substantially deteriorated in quality due to anthropogenic pressures during the past decades (Engstedt *et al.* 2010; Nilsson *et al.* 2014), and spawning ground reconstruction has for example been suggested as the main management measure to rebuild the anadromous pike population along the Baltic coasts (Greszkiewicz *et al.* 2022). Indeed, efforts to restore these wetlands as reproduction areas for foremost pike have proven to result in a drastic increase in the production of juvenile pike as a result of optimal spawning conditions, predation refuge and food production (Nilsson *et al.* 2014; Larsson *et al.* 2015; Hansen *et al.* 2020). The resulting effects on the adult populations of pike are, however, not yet well established (but see (Fredriksson *et al.* 2013; Hansen *et al.* 2020). Furthermore, restoration efforts need to consider interactions between species in the food-web. For example, along the Swedish and Finnish coast, perch and pike larval densities decrease with three-spined stickleback abundance and increase with increasing summer cumulative temperature. Thus, more enclosed bays that are less accessible to stickleback and have a comparatively higher temperature are crucial for higher larval survival of perch and pike and should be prioritized in management (Donadi *et al.* 2017). Similarly, in the Northern Baltic Sea, the most sheltered habitat types showed the highest pike larvae abundances (Pursiainen *et al.* 2021). In general, restoration efforts need to consider the spatial scale of the intervention because species in the food-web can interact in different ways at different spatial scales (Donadi *et al.* 2020).

Restoration measures with limited implementation and evaluation to date in the Baltic Sea include restoration of soft bottom macrophytes other than eelgrass, restoration of brown macroalgae, restoration of soft bottoms naturally free of vegetation, rehabilitation of hypoxic areas by oxygen pumping, and rehabilitation of anoxic, nutrient rich or polluted sediments by removal or coverage (reviewed in Kraufvelin *et al.* 2021b).

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4.2.3 Nutrient reduction

Habitats in the Baltic Sea have long been affected by excess anthropogenic input of nutrients. Nitrogen and phosphorous loads peaked around 1990, then decreased substantially, and have plateaued in recent years (Reusch *et al.* 2018). Thus, eutrophication levels remain high in many coastal areas. Few studies have shown direct effects on fish from of lowered eutrophication levels, but one recent study that followed the effects over one decade of a successful drastic initial reduction in nutrient levels in a Swedish coastal area, found an increase in mean trophic level and proportion of piscivores, but responses were weak and slow (Bergström *et al.* 2023). Importantly, responses to changes in eutrophication may be species-specific. A recent modelling study projected a 37% increase in perch and 59% decrease in pikeperch biomass if the reference level for water clarity (a core indicator of the status of eutrophication) in the Baltic Sea Action Plan would be reached (Sundblad *et al.* 2020).

Measures aimed at nutrient reduction with limited implementation and evaluation to date in the Baltic Sea include reduction of nutrient loading by farming and harvesting blue mussels, and reduction of internal phosphorous loads by metal binding (reviewed in Kraufvelin *et al.* 2021b).

4.2.4 Biomanipulation, stocking of fish

Biomanipulation by removing for example cyprinids and sticklebacks has been suggested to rehabilitate coastal ecosystems by restoring topdown control and balance the food-webs. However, this measure has limited implementation and evaluation to date (Kraufvelin *et al.* 2021b).

Stocking, i.e. the release of wild-captured or hatchery-reared animals, continues to be a standard practice in fisheries management to support and restore fish communities and fishing opportunities. However, stocking can have lasting negative ecological and evolutionary effects on populations, food webs, and ecosystems, and it may often fail to increase populations (Lorenzen *et al.* 2012). To this end, ecosystem-based management may outperform species-focused stocking as a means to enhance fish populations and communities including also improved fishing opportunities (Radinger *et al.* 2023).

Roach is the most abundant species within the cyprind fish family in the Baltic Sea. © Adam Lejk

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5. Future recommendations

Despite the recent advances presented in this report, there are still several knowledge gaps and development needs in order for future coastal fish assessments to be regionally adequate with sufficient spatial coverage and confidence. There is also a need to maintain and possibly expand the current monitoring programs and cooperation within and between contracting parties.

Important future aims/activities include (responsible body for implementation in italics):

- The current level of monitoring locations should be seen as a minimum level, and new monitoring programs and relevant data collection procedures for coastal fish needs to be initiated to increase the spatial coverage. This is essential for increasing the confidence of future status assessments, as the current assessment only covers about half of the assessment units in the Baltic Sea. Contracting parties of HELCOM.
- To a larger extent make use of alternative data sources for coastal fish assessments to increase spatial coverage. Besides fisheries independent monitoring programs, alternative sources include commercial catch statistics and citizen science data. Contracting parties of HELCOM and EG Costal Fish.
- Make better use of existing coastal fish monitoring data by intercalibrating historical and current data sets using different monitoring strategies and methods. EG Costal Fish.
- Further refinement and development of the present set of indicators used. This includes deriving thresholds for the size structure indicator for additional species besides perch, including indicators to assess the status for abundance of additional key coastal fish species besides perch, pike, pikeperch, whitefish and flounder, improving data qual-

ity and if needed integration/aggregation principles for all indicators, and increasing the confidence level for the threshold values. EG Costal Fish.

- Further harmonization and development of assessment methods. This includes developing assessment methods that do not require long time series to enable the inclusion of assessment results from additional monitoring programs. EG Costal Fish.
- Expand the use of coastal fish data. This could for example include using the existing monitoring network for coastal fish to further follow the distribution, expansion, and effects of the round goby. The network of coastal fish monitoring stations offers a unique possibility to study these effects, as data from before and after the establishment of the species exist in many areas. Contracting parties of HELCOM and relevant HELCOM groups with the support of EG Costal Fish.
- Evaluation of measures to restore and support coastal fish communities. A wide range of measures has been implemented for fish in the Baltic Sea, but there is generally a lack of scientific evaluations and evidence on the effects of many of the measures. This significantly limits the work of restoring and supporting coastal fish communities and stocks. Contracting parties of HELCOM and relevant HELCOM groups with the support of EG Costal Fish.
- Improved understanding and knowledge of the spatial variation and gradients in pressures impacting coastal fish communities including also information on where specific measures are most likely to be most effective and where additional measures needs to be taken. Contracting parties of HELCOM with the support of EG Costal Fish.

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Appendix 1. Detailed indicator evaluation results

Abundance of coastal fish key species

Key species results Tables

Appendix result Table 1. Data and methods used for the key species status evaluation, per monitoring location and assessment unit. Column headings provide the following information: geographic location, the time period assessed, the key species used, the monitoring method, and the assessment approach applied.

Appendix result Table 1. (Continued). Data and methods used for the key species status evaluation, per monitoring location and assessment unit. Column headings provide the following information: geographic location, the time period assessed, the key species used, the monitoring method, and the assessment approach applied.

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Appendix result Table 2. Key species status evaluation outcome per monitoring location and assessment unit for the assessment period 2016-2020. GS = good status, nGS = not good status. Column headings provide the geographical location, the status during the reference period, the threshold value for good status (for the trendbased approach the + or – sign indicate the desired direction of the trend), the current indicator value, the status of the monitoring area, and the aggregated status of the assessment unit. The status for each assessment unit is derived using the One-Out-All-Out principle across species and monitoring locations.

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Appendix result Table 2. (Continued). Key species status evaluation outcome per monitoring location and assessment unit for the assessment period 2016-2020. GS = good status, nGS = not good status. Column headings provide the geographical location, the status during the reference period, the threshold value for good status (for the trend-based approach the + or – sign indicate the desired direction of the trend), the current indicator value, the status of the monitoring area, and the aggregated status of the assessment unit. The status for each assessment unit is derived using the One-Out-All-Out principle across species and monitoring locations. = good status, nGS = not good status. Column headings provide the geographical location, the status during the reference period, the threshold value for good
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Appendix results Table 3. Confidence in the status evaluation of key species according to the criteria developed within HELCOM for the integrated biodiversity assess-Gulf of Finland Estonia Gulf of Finland Estonia Gulf of Finland Estonian Coastal waters NA NA NA NA NA NA NA NA ment.

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Appendix results Table 3. (Continued). Confidence in the status evaluation of key species according to the criteria developed within HELCOM for the integrated biodi-
versity assessment. **Appendix results Table 3.** (Continued). Confidence in the status evaluation of key species according to the criteria developed within HELCOM for the integrated biodiversity assessment.

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Appendix results Table 4. Overview of trends for key species between current and previous assessment in year 2018 (HOLAS II, including data until 2016). For each HELCOM assessment unit, it is noted whether the integrated status using the BEAT tool achieves of fails to achieve the threshold value. The current integrated status is compared to the pervious status with regards to any distinct increasing or decreasing trend. In case of changed integrated status, the outcome is briefly described focusing on the relevant changes compared to the previous assessment.

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Abundance of coastal fish key functional groups

Functional groups results Tables

Appendix results Table 5. Data and methods used for the functional groups (cyprinids/mesopredators) status evaluation for the assessment. Column headings provide the following information: geographic location, the time period assessed, the key species used, the monitoring method, and the assessment approach applied.

Appendix results Table 6. Functional groups (cyprinids/mesopredators) evaluation results for the assessment period 2016-2021. GS = good status, nGS = not good status. Column headings provide the following information: geographic location, the status during the reference period, the threshold value for good status (for the trend-based approach the + or – sign indicate the desired direction of the trend), the current indicator value, the status of the monitoring area, and the aggregated status of the assessment unit. The status for each assessment unit is derived using the One-Out-All-Out principle across monitoring locations.

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Appendix results Table 7. Confidence in the status evaluation of the functional group cyprinids/mesopredators indicator according to the criteria developed within HELCOM for the integrated biodiversity assessment.

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Appendix results Table 8. Overview of trends for functional groups between current and previous assessment in year 2018 (HOLAS 2, including data until 2016). For each HELCOM assessment unit, it is noted whether the integrated status using the BEAT tool achieves of fails to achieve the threshold value. The current integrated status is compared to the pervious status with regards to any distinct increasing or decreasing trend. In case of changed integrated status, the outcome is briefly described focusing on the relevant changes compared to the previous assessment.

Size structure of coastal fish

Functional groups result Tables

Appendix result Table 9. Data and methods used for the status evaluation of the size distribution of key coastal fish species for the assessment. Column headings provide the following information: geographic location, the time period assessed, the key species used, the monitoring method, and the assessment approach applied.

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Appendix result Table 10. Status evaluation outcome for size distribution of key coastal fish species per monitoring location and assessment unit for the assessment period 2016-2020. GS = good status, nGS = not good status. Column headings provide the following information: geographic location, the status during the reference period, the threshold value for good status (for the trend-based approach the + or – sign indicate the desired direction of the trend), the current indicator value (the current value is shown for perch. For flounder and pikeperch, the current value with accompanying direction of trend is shown (+: increasing, s: stable, -: decreasing)), the status of the monitoring area, and the aggregated status of the assessment unit. The status for each assessment unit is derived using the One-Out-All-Out principle across monitoring locations.

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Appendix results Table 11. Confidence in the status evaluation of the size distribution indicator according to the criteria developed within HELCOM for the integrated biodiversity assessment.

Trends in size distribution compared to the previous assessment.

The size distribution of coastal fish was not included in the previous status assessment, HOLAS II. Available data dating back to the late 1990s and early 2000s do, however, suggest that L90 in perch have been rather stable over time with no strong temporal trends (Bolund et al. in prep; Results figure 1). L90 in flounder and pikeperch have likewise tended to remain stable over time in terms of L90 in most monitoring locations (Bolund et al. in prep; Results figure 1). Despite that no previous assessment has been undertaken, this lack of consistent regional trends over time indicates that there does not seem to be a general worsening of the situation regarding size distribution of key species in the Baltic Sea. However, current data only allows for an evaluation of three species with a rather limited spatial coverage. Moreover, L90 in perch did not meet the threshold for good environmental status in 11 out of 15 HELCOM assessment units (Results table 2), suggesting that the environmental status in terms of L90 for perch in the Baltic Sea is consistently not good in the majority of assessed coastal areas.

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