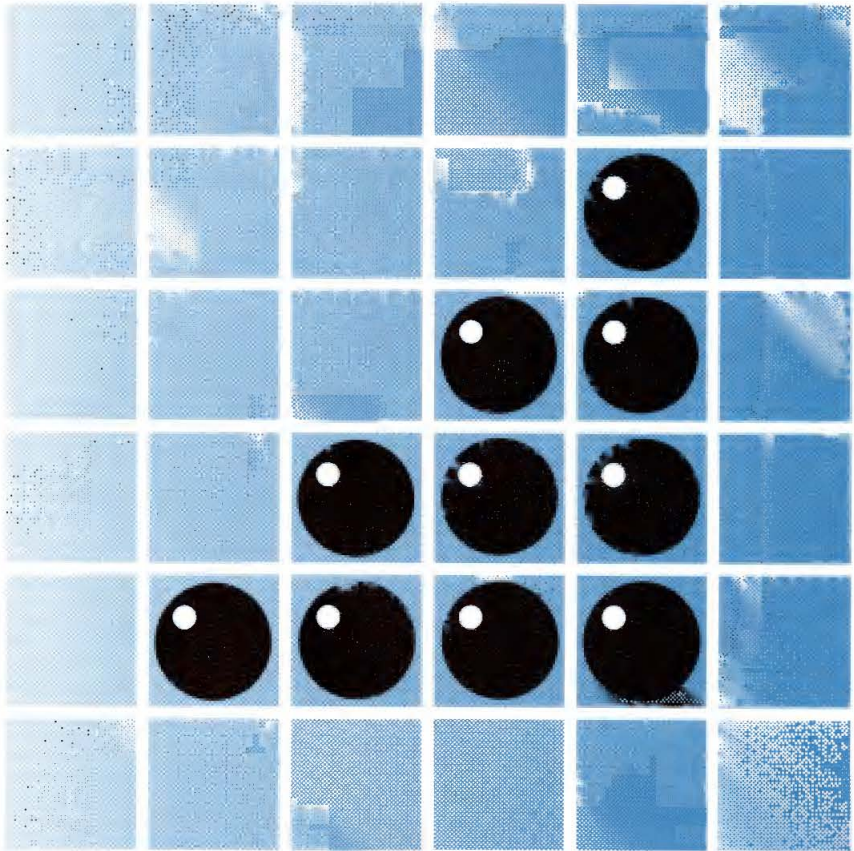


# THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY'S FISHERY POLICY

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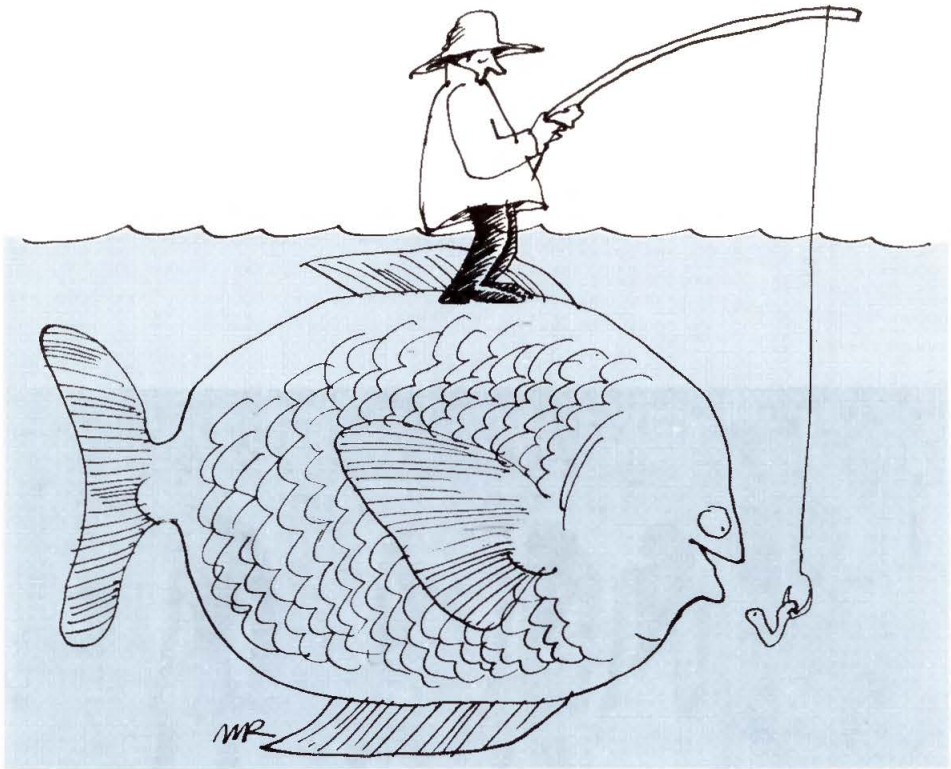


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## Introduction — History of fishing

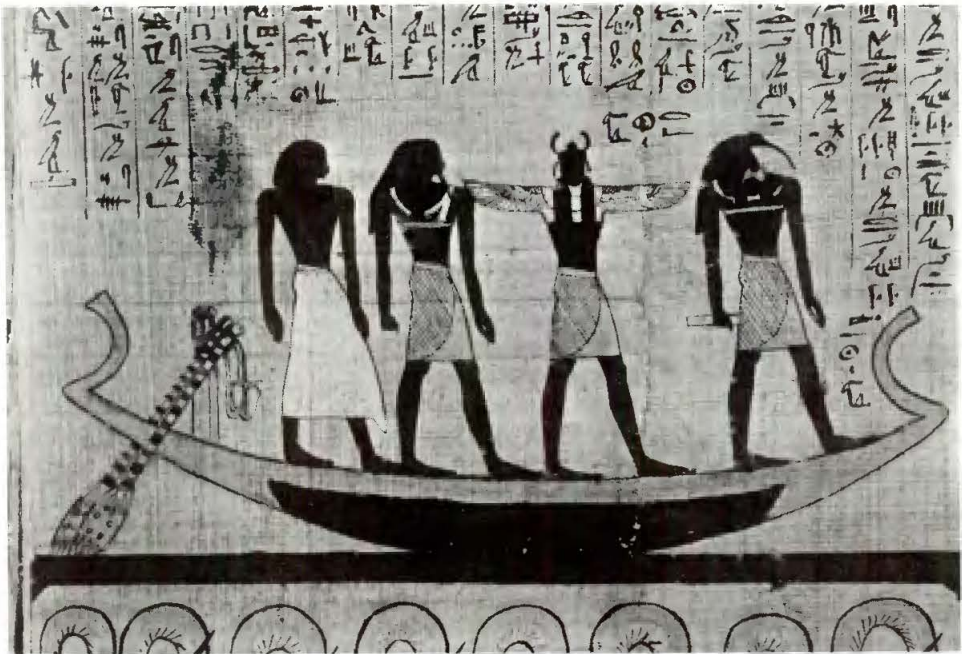


Fishing is one of mankind's oldest pursuits and can be traced back to prehistoric times. It is the only form of hunting to be carried out on a commercial scale and is found in oceans and seas throughout the world, except where impeded by depth, dangerous currents or prohibited by law.

Fish have been in existence for over 450 million years, gradually evolving to adapt to their environment. Apart from being a source of high protein food, it has considerable symbolic importance in the Christian world. It is frequently referred to in Christ's teachings and actions and was used as a secret sign by his early followers.

Two main types are caught: demersal (cod, haddock, hake, pollack and all forms of flatfish) swimming near the bottom of the sea, and pelagic (herring and related species and tuna) which live near the surface. Adult fish range in size from 10 millimetres to over 20 metres and in weight from 1.5 grams to 4 000 kilograms. They live in shallow thermal springs at temperatures of 42° centigrade, in cold arctic seas not far above freezing or in deep waters 10 000 metres below the surface of the ocean and enjoy a life span ranging from one to three years for small fish to over 20 years for a few large species.

The importance of the fishing industry to various regions throughout Europe over the centuries is reflected in place names such as Piscaya in Italy, Fisherrow in Scotland and Icaria in Greece, denoting a coast rich in fish. Fish has been exploited in Europe for thousands of years and was an essential part of the diet of most hunting groups before the arrival of farming. Large prehistoric mounds of shells, known by the Danish term kitchen midden, are found in many parts of the world and testify to their importance as a source of food. In earliest times, most fish was consumed at once, but gradually the needs of the expanding population led to new storage techniques such as drying, smoking, salting and fermentation.



*Egyptian art. The barque of the god Khepri, Thebes, papyrus fragment.*



The first documentary records of fishing are to be found in Mediterranean Europe, where it assumed considerable importance from Mesolithic times onwards. The Phoenicians were the first major developers of the fishing industry with bases in Spain from which they operated in the Mediterranean and Atlantic and traded as far afield as cities in the Eastern Mediterranean. By the 6th century BC fishing was playing a prominent part in the Greek economy and after the colonization of Scythia trade in fish continued until the 15th century. The rise of the Roman Empire, with its practice of oyster farming and restocking inland lakes and streams, provided further stimulus to the development of fisheries. Thousands of slaves were also trained as fishermen for a society that ate tuna, red mullet, hake, sardines, mackerel, eel, swordfish and shellfish.

The first evidence of trade in fish on the Atlantic seaboard, among the English, French and Flemish, dates from the 6th century. The delay in exploiting the rich resources is largely explained by the natural and climatic difficulties that had to be overcome, compared to the relative calm of the Mediterranean, and to remoteness from the main cities of the time. The Vikings and Normans were the first to engage in deep sea fishing, while in the 11th century English boats began to venture further out to sea in search of herring.

The growth in commercial fishing, with all the ancillary jobs it provided for traders and suppliers of salt for preserving the catch, wood for barrels, linen and hemp for lines and nets and iron for hooks, was matched by the emergence of major cities such as London, which had its own fishmongers guild as early as 1154, Cologne and Lübeck. The Basques and Dutch soon emerged as courageous innovators in deep sea fishing. By the 12th century, the former were catching whales and cod in the Bay of Biscay, later extending their efforts as far as Norway, while the latter were the first to use long lines on a large scale for whitefish, thus increasing considerably their catch. By the 15th century, Basque, English and French fishermen were exploiting with considerable intensity the Icelandic grounds discovered 300 years earlier. And the rapid development in the 16th century of the Grand Banks cod fishery off Newfoundland — which had started even before the Italian explorer John Cabot made his voyage there in 1497 — meant that all the major fisheries now worked by European nations, apart from the Arctic and South Atlantic, were known.

The Industrial Revolution made a huge impact on the fishing industry as a series of inventions created more powerful fishing craft capable of operating further from the shore and processing, marketing and distribution all increased in efficiency. Added to these developments was the emergence of the Soviet Union's fishing efforts off its European coast as part of national policy to expand food supplies.

In white fishing, the major breakthrough had come with the extensive use of trawling by Dutch, Belgian and French fishermen in the 17th century in the southern North Sea. This was further developed by English boats over the following two centuries and extended outwards to a considerable extent the sea areas intensively fished. The increase in catches and species caught further out to sea brought with it the need for ice making techniques to prevent the fish spoiling. From the end of the 19th century this was made artificially on a commercial scale.

The spread of the railways and the growth in population encouraged the sale of fish further inland and trawlers gradually extended the areas they worked in the North Sea up to the north of Scotland, Iceland and the Barents Sea. Political and customs unification, alongside the ine-

xorable march of the Industrial Revolution, also encouraged a more capital intensive fishery in Germany towards the end of the 19th century.

*Fishermen bringing their net into the port of Tema in Ghana (photo FAO).*

After the Second World War, considerable modernization took place in traditional fishing nations like Norway, France and Spain matched by the arrival of major Soviet, East German and Polish fleets and the more modest expansion in southern Europe in the Italian, Greek and Yugoslav industries. Trawlers were adapted to allow them to stay at sea for months on end, processing and freezing their catch on board. Developments in engines, hydraulic winches and steering, echo sounders (for vertical searching) and later sonar (for horizontal searching) and navigation aids all helped the industry to increase efficiency and catches and cope with harsh climatic conditions. The total fish catch in the world, as a result of this progress tripled between 1948 and 1968.



## *The fortunes of the herring industry*

That the fate of Europe's fishing industry, and in many cases general economic health has been closely linked over the centuries to the rise and fall of major stocks is clearly demonstrated by the swaying fortunes of the herring fleet, which was a major commercial fishery from mediaeval times until the start of the 20th century.

By the year 1200, it was the major Hanseatic towns of Lübeck and Bremen that benefited from the catch, financing the activities of Danish inshore fishermen and using salt from Lüneburg in north Germany to cure the fish. This autumn fishery included a substantial and lucrative trade for the Hanseatic League from Portugal to Russia and England, which collapsed with the failure of the herring shoals early in the 16th century.

It then became the turn of the Dutch to dominate the fishery until the 18th century. With their better boats and more advanced techniques, they fished herring both autumn and winter as far afield as the Shetlands, enhancing the wealth of the country. At its peak in the 17th century, the industry had up to 2 000 boats, each with a crew of 14 men aboard, making three voyages a year. By 1669, 450 000 people — 20% of the Dutch population — were involved in the fishery either on land or sea and the herring has been seen by many historians as one of the foundations for Dutch maritime supremacy.

Towards the end of the 18th century, the mantle passed to the Swedes, who built their fortunes on the large shoals to be found in the Bohuslan coastal archipelago in autumn and winter. During the three-month season, a herring fisherman or processor could earn three to five times as much as Swedish agricultural labourers made in a year.

After providing Norway with a brief spell of prosperity lasting 50 years, the herring moved off Scotland after 1870, where the practice of landing catches daily provided thousands of jobs for women in the curing industry. The fishery had by now become virtually year-round with boats following the herring shoals along the coast. In the peak year of 1907, the Scottish herring cure was over 2.5 million barrels and British landings were of the order of 400 000 tonnes. Most of this was destined for the markets of Russia and Germany, which collapsed in the inter-war years and after the great depression, forcing the British fleet to trim its sails. But equally important was the re-emergence of the Norwegian herring fleet and the growth of the German catch, which by 1937 had overtaken the Scottish one.

Although plucked from the sea, the herring left their mark on land. Whole centres of population depended on them and in many cases they were responsible for the founding of these settlements. The coat of arms of Lübeck contains a herring, Amsterdam (and probably many other Dutch towns) is said to be built on herring bones, while towns such as Torviken and Marstrand in Sweden, Alesund and Floro in Norway, Great Yarmouth, Wick, Fraserburgh and Peterhead in Britain owe their present size to the species.

*At all times and in all seas, man has fished, often in peril of his life, for some of his best food  
(photo FAO).*

## Chapter 1 — Why a common fisheries policy?

On 25 January 1983 — just 25 days after their legal deadline — the 10 Member States agreed a common fisheries policy (CFP).

The reasons for a common policy are plain to see. Community-wide rules and their enforcement are a more efficient way of preserving stocks than a variety of national laws and practices, thus ensuring a viable livelihood for those employed in the industry. The changes in the international environment in the 1970s with the spread of 200-mile exclusive fishery zones also made it necessary for the Community to react to defend its own interests, while the Treaties themselves contain an obligation on the Community to agree a common fisheries policy.

Slow but sure progress towards this target was achieved in four stages spread over 13 years.

In 1970, the Council adopted its first fisheries regulations on the common organization of the market and a structures policy.

In 1973, the Treaty of Accession, whereby the United Kingdom, Ireland and Denmark joined the Community contained specific references to the fishing industry (Articles 98-103) listing fishing rights for the following 10 years.

In 1976, the Council in its Hague Declaration of November agreed to introduce a 200-mile Community zone from 1 January 1977.

In January 1983, the Council adopted legislation on all the main aspects of a CFP. These were based on the principles enumerated by Community Foreign Ministers in May 1980 in their declaration on a common fisheries policy. These were:

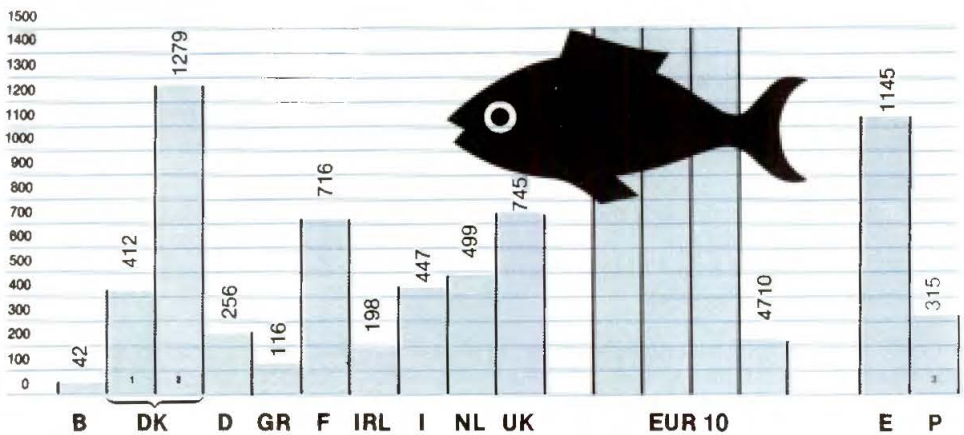
- (i) rational and non-discriminatory Community measures for managing resources;
- (ii) fair distribution of catches, paying special attention to the needs of regions highly dependent on fishing, traditional activities and losses from third country waters;
- (iii) effective controls on the conditions applying to fisheries;
- (iv) adoption of structural measures, including Community financial help;
- (v) long-term fisheries agreements with third countries.

All these policies replace the gentleman's agreements that existed previously. They have binding legal force in all Member States and are enforceable through the European Court of Justice and national courts. The following pages will explain the pressing need for a CFP, which is no example of harmonization for harmonization's sake, its aims and objectives and the challenges it faces.

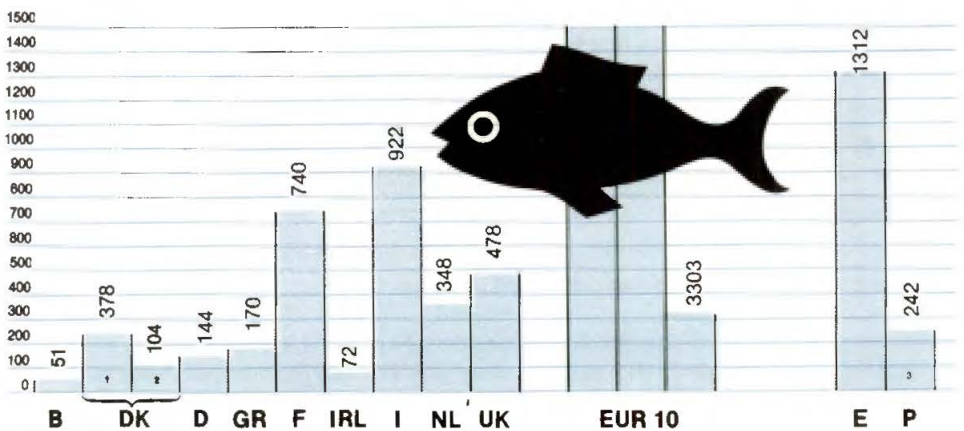
## Preserving fish stocks

Until the mid-1960s, fisheries were a boom activity. World production increased by 50% between 1956 and 1965 with the Community of Nine doubling its catch between 1958 and 1968. Catches later stagnated, or even declined, largely because investments during the boom pushed productivity to such a point that stocks had insufficient time to regenerate and some of the most common species became seriously depleted. By the mid-1970s, it had also become clear that the voluntary catch arrangements instituted by international conservation organizations, such as the Northeast Atlantic Fisheries Commission and the International Commission

**Fishing in 1983**      **Catch in quantities**      **in '000 t**



**Fishing in 1983**      **Catch by value**      **in million ECU**



<sup>1</sup> Human consumption.    <sup>2</sup> Industrial use.    <sup>3</sup> Estimate.



for Northwest Atlantic Fisheries, were not sufficiently effective. The crisis was compounded by high fuel prices following the oil crises which made distant water fishing increasingly uneconomic. Low world market prices and oversupply in the Community led the EEC in 1975 temporarily to restrict imports, provide aids to private storage and export subsidies on frozen fish.

The drastic results of overfishing during the 1960s and earlier 1970s provide eloquent proof of the need for effective conservation measures to protect fish stocks. A few examples paint a telling picture. In the 1950s, the average annual catch of adult herring in the North Sea was around 600 to 700 000 tonnes. Industrial fishing increased this to 900 000 tonnes and by the mid-1960s Norwegian purse-seiners had further increased the catch to 1.4 million tonnes. Ten years later catches of the depleted stocks had fallen to around 500 000 tonnes. By 1977 spawning stocks were at a 'critical' level of 150 000 tonnes.

In the North Atlantic as a whole, herring catches dropped from 3 334 000 tonnes in 1964 to 1 616 000 tonnes in 1974. Danish, German and Dutch catches were halved and only Britain's take increased, from 99 000 tonnes to 160 000 tonnes.

The same fate befell cod. In 1964, French boats were catching 178 000 tonnes in the North Atlantic, Germans 176 000 and British 361 000. Ten years later, German and French catches were halved and Britain's down by 38 000 tonnes.

The collapse of these stocks placed further pressure on mackerel, which had provided total catches in the North Atlantic in 1964 of 190 000 tonnes. By 1974, 973 000 tonnes were being taken. The biggest increase was perpetrated not by the Community, whose share rose from 74 000 tonnes to 94 000 tonnes, but by Norway (up from 51 000 to 288 000 tonnes), Poland (8 000 to 122 000 tonnes) and the Soviet Union (4 000 to 244 000 tonnes).

It is to prevent any further catalogue of dangers to the existence of fishery stocks that the Community has agreed on a range of conservation measures and enforcement procedures to ensure they are respected.

### *Controlling fishery methods*

But to build up fish stocks again and to sustain them at a productive level requires discipline on a Community basis, rather than haphazard national measures implemented with varying degrees of enthusiasm by individual member countries. Fish conservation cannot be managed in a purely national context. The fish which are caught fully grown in the waters of one member country may have been spawned and matured in the waters of another. The United Kingdom, for instance, has a high proportion of the Community's mature fish in its waters, but is heavily dependent on conservation in other countries' zones to ensure stocks are maintained.

Cod is an example of a migratory fish that moves into British waters as it matures. An ICES survey has shown that 54% of one-year-old fish are caught in German waters and only 13% in British. For two-year-old cod, the change in balance is already significant with 38% of the catch in each zone, but by the time they are three years old, 77% of the catch is to be found in British waters and only 7% in German. A similar pattern can be seen for whiting.

It may thus be necessary to impose strict discipline in the waters of one Member State in order to rebuild and maintain stocks important to fishermen in another Community country — a strong argument for a Community policy.

For the CFP to be effective, it must contain rules ensuring fishermen comply with the Community's conservation and management measures, especially as individual fishermen may derive substantial benefits from non-compliance. To ensure an effective, credible and non-discriminatory control system, these elements must include inspection of fishing vessels and their activities, control of catches, the fishing effort and Community verification procedures and also help to establish a climate of confidence and collaboration between the inspection services and fishermen. The establishment of quotas limiting fish catches, with a lasting effect, provide the industry with some certainty for the future framework within which it will have to work. Community action is also necessary to close a fishery if stocks approach dangerously low levels.

### *Ensuring employment in the fishing industry*

Protecting the future of fishery stocks is one of the best guarantees that catches will be maintained at stable levels and the future viability of the industry, with all the jobs it involves, ensured. Overfishing, whether accompanied by a ban on catches or not, so weakens the yield boats can expect to reap that many voyages, faced with the high cost of fuel, repayments on loans and need to find wages for the crew, become uneconomic forcing skippers to lay off their men.

The Community's structures policy with its emphasis on building up the inshore fishing fleet, fish farming, exploratory voyages for species, previously considered non-marketable and the gradual introduction of training programmes funded by the Social Fund, backed by infrastructure grants and loans from the Regional Fund and European Investment Bank have helped to bring a stable framework to the industry. The restructuring has not been achieved without human and financial hardship. Fleets and towns, like Hull and Grimsby, which depended on cod from Icelandic and other third country waters, have had to suffer increased unemployment as access to these rich waters was gradually denied them in the 1970s. The number of fishermen in the Community of Nine shrank from a peak of 154 000 in 1975 to 112 700 five years later. The arrival of Greece in 1981 pushed this figure up to nearly 160 000 (see Annex 4). But the vast majority — over 80% — of Community fishermen are now employed in boats that put to sea for little more than two to three days at a time and are thus able to benefit from the EEC's absolute control over its 200-mile exclusive fishery zone.

### *Special status of regions highly dependent on fisheries*

Regions of the Community with little other ways to make their living apart from fishing and its dependent industries of fish processing, boat building and retailing the catch have been given a special place in the concerns of Community legislators. Successive declarations have recognized their unique situation, the most notable being a special session of Foreign Ministers at the Hague in November 1976. There, a specific commitment was given that the nascent



Irish fishing industry should be allowed to double its catch over three years and that the 'vital needs' of Greenland and the northern parts of the United Kingdom would be taken into consideration in drawing up the CFP. This pledge can be seen in the access and quota legislation subsequently adopted.

But the Community's efforts are not limited to these areas. Coastal communities in southern Italy, north western France, especially Brittany, Denmark and northern Germany have all benefited from the special aids available to help construct and modernize inshore boats and start up fish farming.

### *Developing processing industries*

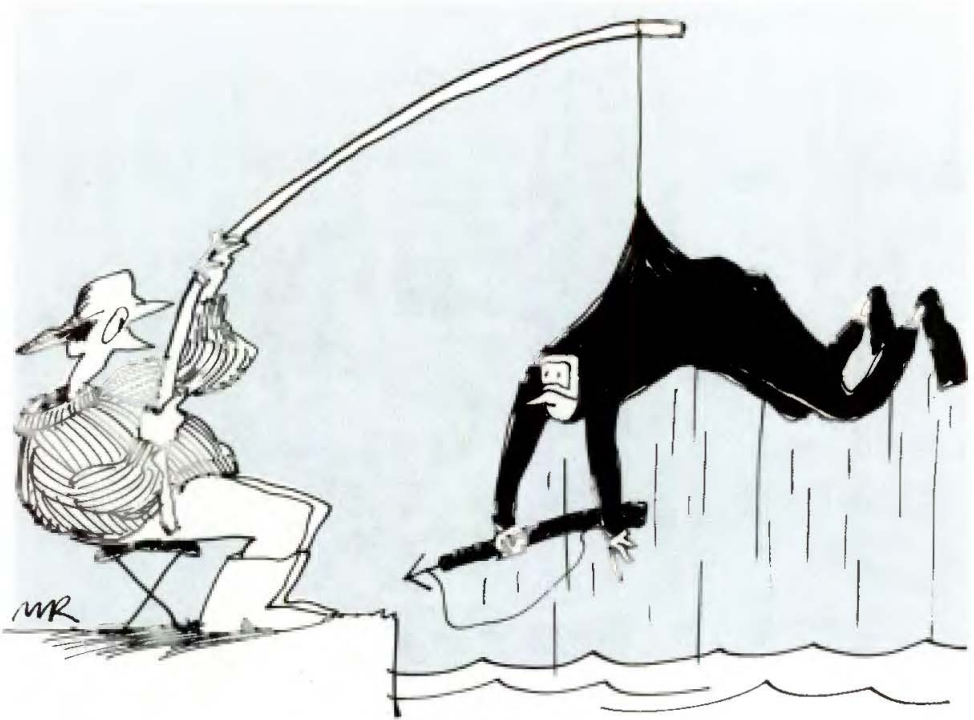
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*For each new job at sea, five are created on land in the fish processing and marketing industries and in shipbuilding and ship maintenance (photo FAO).*

For every job that exists at sea, it is said another five are created on land. Whether in the back-up industries of boat, repairing and building or the processing and marketing of fish caught. Increasingly sophisticated manufacturing techniques and the need to process many of the lesser known species to make them attractive to the public have provided jobs throughout the Community. The businesses may be concentrated largely in the hands of multinational companies, as in the United Kingdom and Germany, or in small family firms which predominate

in Denmark. The industry is involved in processing not just salmon, cod, mackerel, shrimps and other species for human consumption, but also industrial fish, like Norway pout and sand eel which are ground down and turned into fishmeal for fertilizer or feeding to pigs. Given its importance as one of the main purchasers of the fishing fleets' catches, the processing industry is a vital element in the common fisheries policy and is eligible for aid to develop plant or the necessary infrastructure.

### *Ensuring fair competition*



The various instruments that form a common fisheries policy would lose much of their value if Member States were free to give aid to their fishing and processing industries as they saw fit, without taking into account their effect throughout the Community. The principles of free and equal competition, which are at the very heart of the Community, would be jeopardized, as would the single market for fish products, if governments became involved in a dangerous game of trying to outdo each other in providing assistance to their industries.

To prevent this, the Community Treaties specifically give the European Commission power to forbid governments from handing out aid which would distort competition and affect trade between the Member States. In addition, since 1974 the Commission has been assisted in its task by governments who have had to provide an inventory of national fishery aids.

As far as the fishing industry is concerned, efforts are being made to establish a set of guidelines indicating the type of aid likely to receive Commission approval. At one time, the Commission was examining as many as 20 national aid schemes governments had introduced in the absence of a CFP. The aids tended to take three forms. In some cases, they constituted straight payment to producer organizations to enable them to carry out their task of regulating the market for fishery products. In others, they acted as a fuel subsidy. The Commission tends to frown on such schemes because they lead to no durable improvement in the sector. On the other hand, it generally supports investment aids which help the industry to adapt to the changing environment. The Commission is likely to give sympathetic consideration to:

- (i) aid for the temporary or definitive laying up of boats;
- (ii) investment aid for fishing vessels and for the processing and marketing of fishery products where such aid will help the industry develop along more rational lines;
- (iii) research aid for the development of new fishing or the discovery of new fishing grounds and the exploitation of other species of fish;
- (iv) aid for training, advisory work and technical assistance;
- (v) aid for the promotion of fishery products.

### *Introduction of 200-mile zones and agreements with third countries*

The introduction of 200-mile zones during the 1970s benefited most countries like the United States and Canada, with their long coast lines, and hit hardest Western European, Eastern European and Soviet fishing fleets, which tended to own most of the world's distant water vessels. This increased the need for a Community structural policy to handle the rundown of the deep sea fleet and to encourage the growth of local small and medium-sized boats that could take advantage of the Community's own 200-mile zone. At the same time, new contractual agreements were necessary with those third countries in whose waters the Community's fleet had traditionally fished to determine whether these arrangements could be maintained and to regulate the fishing effort by non-EEC boats in Community waters, both to prevent overfishing and to ensure a sufficient share for Community fishermen.

The impact that the arrival of 200-mile zones had on the Community is demonstrated in an analysis carried out by the Commission in 1975. This pointed out that although 72% of the Community's catch arose in areas then under Community jurisdiction (mainly in the North Atlantic), or likely to be under Community jurisdiction in future (the Baltic and Mediterranean), the figure was misleading because of the amount of fish for human consumption caught in third country waters. This had a much higher relative value than the industrial species caught by third countries in EEC waters.

The Community's main fishing grounds, which provided about 85% of the total catch, lay in the Northeast Atlantic. With the exception of Italy and Greece, Member States took most of their catch in this area. In 1975, only 7% of the Community's catch — but 86% of Italy's — came from the Mediterranean, 4% from the Northwest Atlantic and 2% from the mid-Eastern Atlantic.

*Blankenberge, Belgium: Fisherman's monument (photo Inbel).*

On the extreme assumption that the entire catch arising within the 200-mile limits of non-member countries might be lost, while the entire catch obtained within the 200-mile limits of Member States might be allocated to Community fishermen, the Commission calculated that the Community's net loss, covering all species, would be fairly small (approximately 150 000 tonnes from 1973 levels — less than 5%). But, given that these were usually higher value edible species like cod, this would have resulted in a considerable financial loss for the Community, coupled with the extra burden of restructuring the fishing and land-based industries.

Before third country agreements were concluded, the Commission estimated that for 1978, British losses would be 213 000 tonnes (36% of the total UK catch between 1973 and 1976), 173 000 tonnes (52% of the total catch) for Germany and 52 000 tonnes (20% loss) for France. Italy also suffered, but to a lesser extent.

It was to try and counter these effects, that the Community opened negotiations with fishing nations in the Atlantic and North Sea and even as far afield as the United States, Canada and many West African nations in a bid to gain access to stocks. At the same time, talks opened to limit catches by non-EEC boats in Community waters in an effort to preserve species, many of which were threatened by overfishing.

In 1973, the main countries with an interest in what was to become the Community 200-mile zone were Norway, which caught 366 200 tonnes, mainly herring and mackerel for industrial use, the Soviet Union 300 800 tonnes, Iceland 43 700 tonnes, Sweden 33 000 tonnes and Poland 28 500 tonnes.



## Chapter 2 — The economic importance of fishing

### *Resources*

The Community lands some 3.5 million tonnes of fish for human consumption every year — considerably more than the 1.7 million tonnes caught in 1970. The increase is largely due to the accession of two major fishing nations — the United Kingdom and Denmark — to the Community in 1973. Annex 1 sets out the evolution of landings for each member country, including Spain and Portugal, since 1970 for both edible and industrial species, with their value. As can be seen the highest landings are in the United Kingdom and France for edible fish, although both these countries are some 500 000 tonnes down on Spain.

Denmark is far and away the most important taker of industrial species in the Community, although a number of countries, notably France and Spain are developing this form of fishing. To put the Community fishmeal catch into a global perspective, the 1979 world production of fishmeal was over 4.8 million tonnes, with Japan on 870 000 tonnes the world's number one supplier. Peru was the major exporting country with 650 000 tonnes, while the United States was also a large producer with 387 000 tonnes.

The industrial catch is turned into fish oil by pressing and refining the resulting liquid and into fishmeal by drying. The first substances are used in the manufacture of margarine and paints, the second for making concentrate feeds for animals, like pigs. Other uses to which fish is put apart from human consumption are: fish protein concentrate (an upgraded form of fishmeal for human consumption as fish flour); glue (from the skins, heads and bones); pharmaceuticals such as insulin; leather (usually from shark's fins); or isinglass (originally from a sturgeon's bladder). This is the purest form of fish gelatin and is used to clarify wine.

Annex 2 lists the number of fish-processing factories in the Community in 1977 and their economic importance. This is particularly marked in Denmark, Germany and France.

### *Community fleet*

A quick glance at the number of fishing boats registered in the Community in 1973 and 1981 (just over 53 000) would suggest that the size of the fleet has remained relatively static despite the many developments which have taken place elsewhere in the fishing industry. It would be an erroneous conclusion. The arrival of Greece in 1981 boosted the fleet by 850 vessels, while the introduction of 200-mile exclusive fishery zones forced the authorities to encourage the Community's inshore fishing fleet. The greatest casualty was the deep sea fleet, whose number declined from 384 to 219. As a result the Community's gross registered tonnage in 1981 was



lower than eight years earlier. The destruction of such vessels was greatest in the United Kingdom, where numbers fell from 147 to 29 and Germany (109 to 29). Italy, Ireland and Greece are countries whose fleets are continuing to expand, largely because they started from a lower base than the others. Waiting in the wings is Spain with over 17 000 fishing vessels, the vast majority under 50 tonnes and a gross registered tonnage almost two thirds that of the Community. See Annex 3.

The introduction of 200-mile zones was but one factor which led to the demise of the deep sea fleet. Contributory causes were higher interest rates, government encouragement for the in-shore fishing fleet and extra fuel costs from successive oil crises. Commission estimates suggest that fuel costs, depending on the type of fishing and vessel involved, can be as high as 30% of the total costs of an expedition. High seas trawling is said to be the most expensive with one estimate being that one kilogram of fuel is needed to catch one kilogram of fish.

## *Trade*

The Community has a growing trade deficit on fish products. By 1982 the imbalance had reached 1.6 000 million ECU.<sup>(1)</sup> This represented a considerable reversal of the situation in 1975 — just before the widespread introduction of 200-mile zones — when the Community imported 851 million ECU (m ECU) worth of fish and exported 247 m ECU. The largest single importers are France (665 m ECU), much of it shellfish or luxury items like caviar, and Italy (473 m ECU). The main exporters are Denmark (222 m ECU), the Netherlands (136 m ECU) and France (139 m ECU).

The increase in imports is largely due to the loss of the rich fishing grounds off Iceland, Canada and Scandinavia. Instead of using her own boats to catch her needs as happened in the past, the Community has had to import the fish, especially species like cod. The main suppliers for white fish tend to be Canada and Scandinavia, but a number of Far Eastern and African countries (Thailand, Malaysia, Ivory Coast, Senegal and Morocco) are also developing their exports to Europe.

Mackerel has proved to be one of the Community's most successful exports, especially to Eastern Europe and Nigeria. Originally sold with the help of export subsidies, these, it was agreed in 1982, would subsequently be gradually phased out.

The abolition of tariff barriers in intra-Community trade has encouraged greater sales of fish products, which have proved particularly important to both Denmark and the Netherlands, countries with highly developed processing industries, relatively small domestic markets and ready access to other continental outlets. Annex 5 gives details of the financial value of Community imports and exports in 1982 for the 11 main categories of fish products.

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<sup>1</sup> 1 ECU (1.4.1984) = BFR/LFR 45,59; DKR 8,19; DM 2,22; DRA 88,74; FF 6,86; HFL 2,51; IRL 0,72; LIT 1 385,74; UKL 0,59; USD 0,86.

## *Regional importance*

*Fishing is often the principal source of income for whole regions of the Community (photo Inbel).*

By its very nature, fishing is a very regionalized activity, highly concentrated in certain parts of the Community, where jobs at sea and on shore are often the major form of livelihood for whole communities. Below are some of the major characteristics of the industry for individual countries. Annex 6 provides details of the importance of fishing in each member country's overall gross domestic product.

*Germany:* the bulk of the deep sea fleet still operating is based in the northern ports of Bremerhaven, Cuxhaven, and Hamburg. The first two account for over 90% of catches. Schleswig-Holstein and Lower Saxony are also important bases for smaller and medium-sized vessels. The loss of Icelandic waters is estimated to have cost the deep sea fleet 120 000 tonnes a year in catches.

*France:* the French fleet is very regionalized with Boulogne an important centre for the trawler fleet, although the port has suffered with the decline of North Sea and Faeroese stocks. The country's distant water fleet is concentrated in Bordeaux, Fécamp and St Malo and the tuna

fleet, which operates off West Africa is based at Concarneau, France's third port. The fleet is currently developing new fishing grounds off Cap Verde, Ascension, Brazil and Venezuela after losing most of the eastern seaboard of Canada with the introduction of 200-mile zones. Up to 60% of the French inshore fleet traditionally fish off the North and West of Scotland, Cornwall and the East of England.

*Italy:* the increase in the number of boats defies the general Community trend towards a reduction in the size of the fleet in line with the reduced fishing opportunities now available. Italy's expansion stems partly from the increased demand for sardine and tuna. Landings by the country's fishing industry in 1982 of 747 m ECU were the most valuable in the Community.

*Netherlands:* the North Sea provides the country's main fishing grounds with the two principal ports of Scheveningen and IJmuiden accounting for just over half of total landings. The relative stability in the number of Dutch shrimp fishing vessels has been counterbalanced by the fall in coastal and deep-sea boats.

*Belgium:* the smallest fleet in the Community, with the main cutbacks taking place in the inshore and southern North Sea fleet. Zeebrugge heads the list of Belgian ports in terms of vessels, tonnage and engine capacity, followed by Ostend and Nieuwpoort.

*Denmark:* the Community's main catcher of industrial species, especially sprat and Norway pout, although increased fuel prices and low world market prices for protein feeds have reduced the profitability of this activity. The country also has an important fleet and processing industry, both of which are largely family owned, for human-consumption fish.

*Ireland:* the government, with community approval, are giving full encouragement to expansion plans for the country's fledgling fishing industry. Killybegs on the west coast is the most important port followed by Howth just outside Dublin.

*United Kingdom:* in economic and political terms, the Community's most important fishing nation. The 1978 catch of 830 000 tonnes for human consumption was the largest in the Community and a total of 60% of fish caught in Community waters come from what would have been British fishery limits. The decline of the distant water fleet badly hit ports along the east coast like Aberdeen, Grimsby and Hull and from 1975 one large trawler has been built for every 9 that have been turned into scrap. Fishing interests are particularly strong in Scotland. In 1981 over 57% of total landings by British vessels was accounted for by Scottish boats in Scotland.

*Greece:* still relatively underdeveloped, the Greek fishing industry needs considerable modernization to help it expand its annual catch of some 115 000 tonnes. Of this, 25 000 tonnes is caught by the high seas fleet, 30 000 tonnes in her coastal waters and the remaining 60 000 tonnes in the Mediterranean. The chief species are sardine, anchovy, seabream and red mullet.

## Fish consumption



Fish is an important element in the human diet. It provides much needed fat, especially for the inhabitants of developing countries, vitamins A, D and E and minerals like iodine, fluorine and calcium — supplying two to three times the amount of fluorine yielded by meat. Fish is also an efficient source of protein, essential for an adequate human diet, that requires fewer calories for the amount of protein intake of most other foods as the table below shows.

**Comparison of protein and protein calories  
provided by the foods commonly consumed in  
various areas of the world**

	% protein weight	% protein calories
Yams	2.1	8.2
Sweet potato	1.8	6.5
Plantains	1.4	6.2
Taro	1.8	6.1
Cassava	0.9	2.3
Tapioca (cassava product)	1.5	1.8
Rice (polished)	5-8	5.7-8.8
White potato	2	9.4
Chinese cabbage	1.8	19
Beans (dry)	19	23
Fish (flesh)	18-25	48-85
Oysters	10	50
Shrimp	21	87
Pork	16	29
Beef	17	39
Veal	19	45
Poultry	21	56

Source: Encyclopedia Britannica.



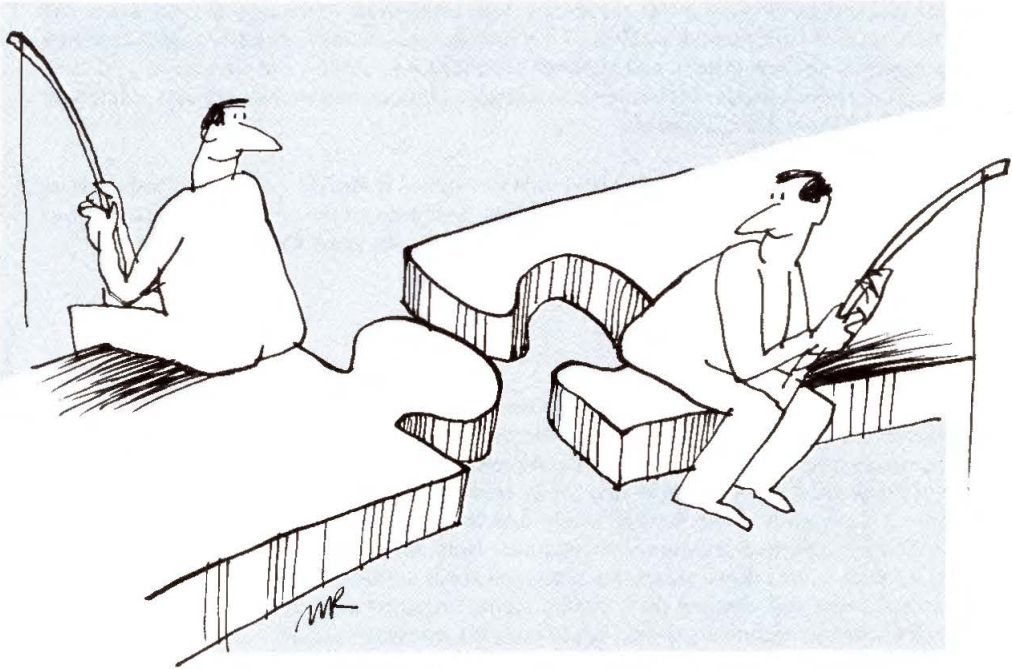
The importance of fish as a source of food can be seen from the accompanying table, displaying per capita consumption. In the early 1970s, scientists calculated that to produce land-animal protein to match the fish catches then harvested, Europe would need 150 million acres — equivalent to 40% of the land area then being cultivated.

**Per capita intake of fish protein as a portion of total protein consumed (1966–69 average)**

	Fish flesh (kg/year)	Fish protein (g/day)	Animal protein (g/day)	Fish protein as percent of animal protein
Japan	64.1	15.8	28.2	56
Portugal	56.5	13.9	31.7	44
Denmark	44.5	11.0	60.2	18
Norway	38.6	9.5	50.4	19
Korea	34.4	8.5	11.5	74
Jamaica	25.2	6.2	18.7	33

Source: Encyclopedia Britannica.

## Chapter 3 — The legal justification for a common policy



The legal basis for a CFP is to be found in the Treaty of Rome, the 1972 Act of Accession, declarations by the Council of Ministers, most notably at The Hague in 1976 and Brussels in May 1980, the legislative acts of the Council and the case law as developed by the European Court of Justice.

### *Treaty of Rome*

At the outset, the six founding members of the Community committed themselves to the general principle of adopting a common policy in the sphere of agriculture (Article 3 (d)). Article 38 later defined agricultural products as 'the products of the soil, of stockfarming and of fisheries and products of first stage processing directly related to these products'.



Articles 38 to 47 list the principles to be applied to a common policy for agriculture and fisheries throughout the Community, whose aims are:

- (i) to increase productivity by promoting technical progress and ensuring rational development and optimum utilization of factors of production,
- (ii) ensure a fair standard of living for the agricultural community,
- (iii) stabilize markets,
- (iv) ensure availability of supplies for consumers at reasonable prices.

The instruments for achieving this are already well established in the agricultural sector and have been included in fishing since 1971. They include regulation of prices through a common policy based on uniform criteria and methods of calculation, aids for the production and marketing of the various products, storage and carryover arrangements and common machinery for stabilizing imports and exports.

In seeking to attain these objectives, Member States agreed in Article 5 to 'take all appropriate measures, whether general or particular, to ensure fulfilment of the obligations arising out of this Treaty', and in Article 7 to avoid 'any discrimination on grounds of nationality'.

### *1972 Act of Accession*

The Act of Accession, unlike the Treaty of Rome, included specific references to a Community fisheries policy — not surprising given the highly developed fishery interests of the three new members (the United Kingdom, Denmark and Ireland) whose total catches were double those of the original Six. Articles 98 and 99 covered guide prices for fisheries products and the common organization of the market, while Articles 100 to 103 inclusive dealt with fishing rights. They established temporary derogations from the principle of free access to other countries' waters, laid down where the protected zones could be extended to 12 rather than six nautical miles and charged the Council, acting on a proposal from the Commission, to determine what arrangements should apply once the transition period expired on 31 December 1982.

Article 102 included a timetable for the first time and committed the Council from 1978 to decide on measures to regulate the fishing effort with a view to protecting fishing grounds and conserving the biological resources of the sea.

### *Declarations of the Council*

In addition to these Treaty obligations, Member States have issued a number of declarations confirming their commitment to a CFP. The first, and most important, occurred at The Hague in October 1976, and was ratified in Brussels a few days later. The major element in The Hague Agreement was a decision to establish a Community 200-mile exclusive fishery zone from 1 January 1977. This formed the bedrock on which the CDP was based. It also, as will be seen in Chapter 5, laid down the criteria to be taken into account when establishing the

fishery quotas. Special attention was to be paid to the needs of Greenland, the northern parts of the United Kingdom and to Ireland, who was to be allowed to double her 1975 catch of 75 000 tonnes by 1979. Moreover, it opened the way for special EEC aid to help patrol the 200-mile fishing zone off the Irish and Greenland coasts.

Equally important was the provision that in the absence of Community measures to conserve resources, Member States would have to consult and seek the approval of the Commission when considering any interim, non-discriminatory measures to protect stocks situated in their fishing zones.

On 30 May, 1980, the Council after labouring for many months to reach a formula that would reduce British and German net payments to the EEC budget, issued a statement on the common fisheries policy. This has no legal basis, but represented a further political commitment to the establishment of Community-wide structures and rules for the industry, reiterating and developing many of the ideas contained in The Hague Agreement.

### *Legislative acts of the Council*

The Commission's first proposals for a common organization for fishing products were made in 1968, along with proposals for a common structural policy, shortly before the end of the 12-year transitional period. They were adopted in October 1970 and applied from 1 February 1971. They recognized the principle of equal access for all Member States to the fishing zones of all Community countries for fishing purposes and lifted national restrictions on landings of catches by other Community fishermen. Some transitional arrangements were included to protect the interests of inshore fishermen. The legislation included support to restructure the fishing fleet and establish a market organization for fishery products.

The situation changed radically with The Hague Agreement and decision to introduce a 200-mile Community fishing zone from 1 January 1977. Previously, Member States had applied national regulations to all vessels in their three to 12-mile fishing zones and their own rules to their own boats in waters beyond this limit. Most of these were similar or identical since they were based on the recommendations of international fishery commissions. Now the Community had to exercise its competence and introduce conservation measures in the waters within the 200 miles falling under the sovereignty or jurisdiction of Member States.

### *European law as developed by the Court of Justice*

Since 1976, the European Court of Justice has played a central role in laying down the legal foundations of a CFP. By January 1984 it had handled a wide range of issues and given judgments or opinions on 14 occasions, with a further two cases still pending. It was also influential in developing the Commission's powers when the Council was unable to agree how to limit catches in the late 1970s and early 1980s. In a series of judgments, the Court ruled that

Member States could no longer exercise their own powers on conservation matters — this duty rested with the Community — but that they could introduce limited measures subject to certain conditions.

These had to be non-discriminatory, treating all Community fishermen alike. This stipulation also covered covert discrimination operated by setting limits on vessel sizes which obviously favoured one national group of fishermen to another. This emerged in the case brought by the Commission against Ireland in 1977, where the government introduced conservation measures prohibiting fishing vessels over 33 metres in length or with an engine of more than 1 100 brake h.p., from fishing within 50 miles of the coast. Only one of Ireland's 1 100 boats came in this category, but the conditions caught all 57 Dutch vessels and 101 of the 407 French ones fishing in the EEC.



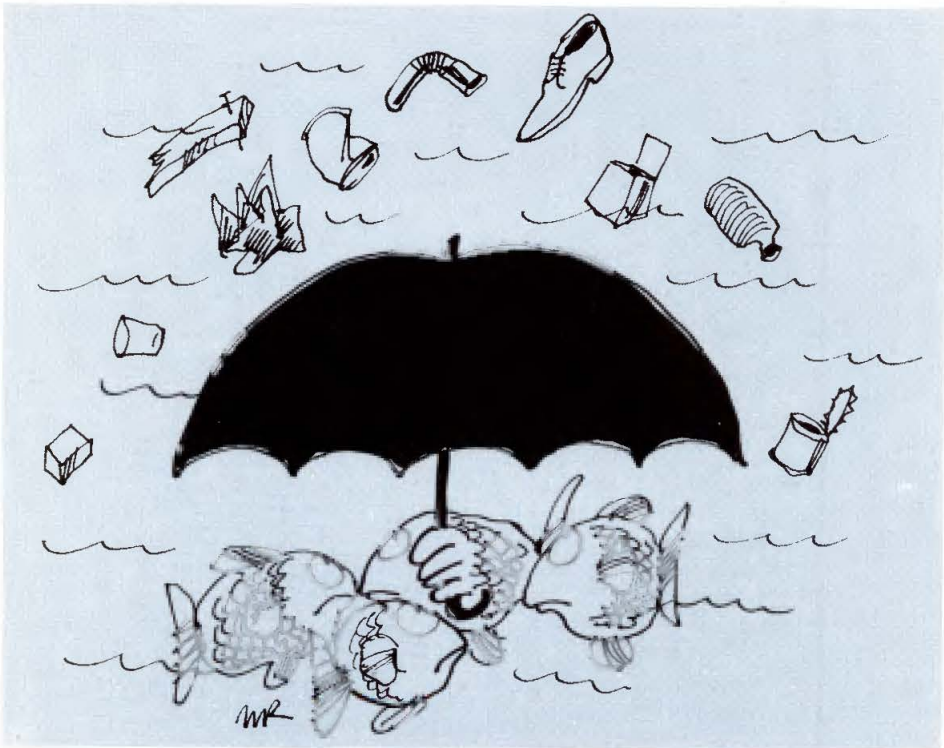
Secondly, the measures had to be necessary for conservation purposes as was made clear in the case brought by the Commission against the United Kingdom in 1979 for introducing unilaterally minimum mesh and landing sizes for certain species of fish. The Court's ruling in this case was also important for stating that since the end of the transitional period on 1 January 1979, the power to adopt measures conserving the resources of the sea, as part of a CFP, belonged fully and definitely to the Community. Member States, therefore, were no longer entitled to exercise any power of their own on conservation matters in the waters under their jurisdiction. Even though the Community had not adopted the required conservation measures, this did not restore to Member States any power or freedom to act unilaterally in this field.



Article 102 of the Act of Accession and subsequent decisions by the Council, said the Court 'imposes upon Member States not only an obligation to undertake detailed consultations with the Commission and to seek its approval in good faith, but also a duty not to lay down national conservation measures in spite of objections, reservations or conditions which might be formulated by the Commission'.

Thirdly, the Court ruled in another case against the British Government brought by the Commission that the measures should be publicized and not dependent for their operation on the discretion of the authorities.

The Court also recognized, at least until the total transfer of powers to the Community on 1 January 1979, that Member States had to adopt measures where these were necessary to prevent stocks being overfished. In a series of cases brought by Dutch fishermen challenging conservation orders for sole and plaice introduced by the Dutch Government, the Court ruled that Member States 'had the right and the duty to adopt . . . any measures compatible with Community law to protect the biological resources of the sea'. This was reiterated in the case involving British measures limiting fishing for herring in the Irish Sea and for Norway pout in the North Sea. Moreover, concerning herring fishing in the Mourne stock, the United Kingdom, said the Court, had a legal duty to introduce conservation measures because scientific opinion at the time considered a total ban necessary.





The Commission later developed this principle of duty, arguing, that as 'Guardian of the Treaties', it could insist on Member States adopting any necessary measures and could open infringement proceedings if they failed to act. Thus, on 27 July 1981, the Commission issued a declaration noting the failure of governments to agree on the TAC and quota proposals and concluded that the Council was unable to exercise the Community's exclusive competence over conservation. The Commission recalled its own rights and duties under Article 155 of the Treaty and called on all governments to comply with its proposals. There were two motives for this action. The first was the likelihood that agreement on a CFP would be some considerable time in coming. The second was that after years of a virtually total herring ban, scientific evidence showed that some stocks, especially off the West of Scotland, could be fished.

## Chapter 4 — The international context

Apart from the legal obligations enshrined in the Treaties, the greatest impetus for a common fisheries policy came from outside the Community: the establishment by major fishing nations in the 1970s of 200-mile exclusive fishery zones off their coasts over which they claimed sovereignty in fishing matters. A second major factor leading to a greater regulation of fishing activity was the growing demand for fish to meet the world food crisis. The Community is playing its part in this development, husbanding and increasing fish stocks not just in EEC waters, but also adding its efforts to those made elsewhere in the world, especially in developing countries.

### *Creation of 200-mile exclusive fishery zones*

By 1980, the 200-mile zones existing or planned by the 93 countries involved in this phenomenon covered 130 million square kilometres, equal to 35% of the world's ocean area and to 90% of the land mass. They contained 95% of living marine resources. This new limit was later endorsed by a new international Convention on the Law of the Sea. But it raised considerable problems for traditional fishing nations, who had caught 16 million tonnes of fish in waters now within the 200-mile zones of other countries. About one third of this catch, with a landed value of 2 000 million dollars took place off the coasts of developing countries.

The announcement by scores of countries that they were establishing 200-mile zones in the 1970s was no sudden decision. It represented the result of a change in thinking over the previous 30 years as governments sought to increase their control over the waters off their coasts, arguing that this was the best, if not only, way to protect fishery resources, which had declined under the previous free access regime. This was little consolation to British and German deep-sea fleets who overnight found themselves denied access to some of the world's richest fishing grounds, particularly off Iceland and tempers erupted in the 'Cod War' of the 1970s.

In Europe, the lead was taken by Iceland, although the same phenomenon was apparent elsewhere. In 1952, Chile, Peru and Ecuador extended their zones. It was in 1948 that the Icelandic Government passed the Law on Scientific Conservation of the Continental Shelf Fisheries. This did not extend the three-mile territorial sea, but stated that special jurisdiction over fish stocks should apply beyond this area for a country, like Iceland, which exports 90% of its catch and is heavily dependent on the benefits of the industry for the country's wellbeing and to pay for imports. By 1952, the fishery limits had been extended to four miles, six years later to 12 miles and in 1972 to 50 miles.

A further stimulus towards the extension of fishery limits came with the 1945 Truman Proclamations. These asserted sovereignty over the natural resources of the seabed and subsoil of the continental shelf of the United States to establish conservation areas beyond the three-mile territorial sea. During the next few years, many South American States followed suit.

These developments were monitored by the United Nations Law of the Sea Conference, which first met in 1958. Neither then, nor at the second conference in 1960, was there agreement on the extent of the territorial sea or fishery limits. But as many former European colonies gained independence so the number of countries determined to extend control over their fisheries resources grew. By 1974, 38 States had legislated for jurisdiction beyond 12 miles. Iceland was the only European country to do so, but their ranks included India and many South American, African and South East Asian States.

Pressure towards 200-mile zones built up with declarations and action by South American countries, the stance of the Organization of African Unity in 1973 when it recognized the right of each coastal State to establish an exclusive economic zone beyond their territorial seas of up to 200-nautical miles and the position of 74 non-aligned countries at their fourth conference in September 1973. There, they backed the rights of coastal States within zones of national jurisdiction not exceeding 200 miles to exploit natural resources — action followed by Australia, China and Canada (1 January 1977) and the United States (1 March 1977). But it was the stance of Iceland and then Norway which prompted Community Foreign Ministers at The Hague in October 1976 to declare a 200-mile fishery zone.

### *The Community response*

The Commission first officially alerted the Council of Ministers to what an official described as the 'most difficult and complex' issue the Commission had ever had to deal with. The issue of extending the Community's fishery zone to 200 miles on a concerted basis went to that June's European Council of Heads of State and Government in Brussels, which expressed the Community's 'determination to protect the legitimate interests' of its fishermen.

In July, the Council of Ministers announced their intention to introduce a 200-mile limit. In September, the Commission proposed to extend the principle of 12-mile coastal bands with access only on the basis of historic rights to all Member States at least until 1982, and beyond if the Council agreed, and to introduce a system of catch quotas, with appropriate controls, throughout the 200-mile zone. These met with initial opposition from the United Kingdom and Ireland, both of whom wished to protect their claims to 50-mile exclusive coastal bands. A compromise was reached at an informal meeting of Community Foreign Ministers at The Hague at the end of October 1976 and formally ratified on 3 November.

Under this arrangement, Member States agreed to extend together their fishing limits to 200 miles along the North Sea and Atlantic coasts on 1 January 1977, while special conditions were included to protect the interests of fishermen in Greenland, Ireland and the north of the United Kingdom.

This defensive action on the part of the Community was essential if its own fertile fishing grounds were to be protected. Failure to have done so would have allowed Russian, Polish and East German trawlers, similarly banned from Icelandic waters, to fish at will in the North Sea. At the same time, Community vessels were forced into the very same waters, leading to intensive competition and a serious threat of overfishing. It was these concerns to preserve and improve existing fisheries in the interests of both fishermen and consumers which led the Community to introduce the 200-mile zone and measures to regulate the fishing effort in this area.

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*Fish auctions are more than simply a tourist attraction. They play a day-to-day role in an important economic sector (photo Inbel).*

### *Law of the Sea Conference*

The Final Act of the Convention signed by 119 delegations in Jamaica on 10 December 1982 was the result of nine years of negotiations and represented an unprecedented effort to replace the concept of freedom of the seas formulated by Hugo Grotius with a less liberal order, applying to two thirds of the earth's surface. The Community obtained a participation clause in the Convention and was a signatory of the Final Act.



The Convention is intended to regulate almost every aspect of utilization, exploration, exploitation and preservation of the sea and its resources. It, in effect, provided *post facto* recognition of the move to 200-mile zones, but also imposes obligations on the same States to ensure the maintenance of living resources is not endangered by overexploitation.

### *World fishery resources*

Of the 30 000 known species of fish, only about 100 are regularly caught for human consumption. But as the world's population grows and food shortage becomes a very real threat for large numbers of people, increased attention is being devoted to improving and increasing catches of this rich form of protein.

The Rome-based Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) — the United Nations body responsible for fisheries — has estimated that the gap between supply and demand for fish products will rise to 30 million tonnes by the year 2000 from the 1980 level of 8 million tonnes, due to the increase in population and overall demand. In 1980 the total world catch for fish and shellfish for human consumption was about 75 million tonnes. This is expected to rise to 85 million tonnes by the end of the decade and to 93 million tonnes by the year 2000. The average yearly increases of 6% in the 1960s have slumped to 1% now because of the depletion of stocks, pollution, spoilage, changes in demand patterns and the absence of abundant unexploited stocks that can be readily caught and marketed.

Developing countries have, in fact, been gradually building up their fishery effort. A 27% share of the world catch in 1950 had reached 46% by 1977 and could climb to 58% by the year 2000, say FAO statistics. Recent figures show that half the countries among the top 10 fishing nations come from the Third World. Of the industrialized countries, Japan and the Soviet Union account for more than one quarter of the total catch. Apart from within the Community, the other major fishing fleets are located in China, Norway, the United States, Peru, India and South Korea. To put the various efforts into perspective: in 1977 the combined Community fleet caught 4.9 million tonnes of fish, the USSR and Japan some 10 million tonnes.

### *Community help to developing countries*

The Community does not have highly intensive fishing interests in the waters of developing countries. It is estimated these represent no more than 50 000 tonnes of demersal species and 40 000 tonnes of tuna annually. But it has been active in helping them to increase their fishing output.

Community aid has been used to tackle the lack of capital, specialist staff, adequate infrastructure and technology. Efforts are being made to end the situation whereby much of the fish caught perishes or is eaten by insects before it can reach the consumer. It has been estimated that 5 to 6 million tonnes of fish are lost in the tropics every year.

*The developing countries have gradually stepped up their fishing effort (photo FAO).*

The Seychelles is an example where British and French help, in particular, have encouraged the 60 000 inhabitants to develop their 200-mile zone of 393 400 square miles. They have contributed to the development of the pelagic fishery, which along with demersal species is estimated to be able to support catches of 30 000 tonnes a year. There is now a tuna catching fleet, cold storage installation, ancillary facilities and a fairly substantial fisheries protection service of ships and aircraft. The schemes have helped to increase not just catches, but also the country's revenue from the sale of licences.

Since 1958, the Community has financed a number of schemes through the various European Development Funds (EDF) to develop fishing and fish farming. Initially, aid was concentrated on the construction of fish wharfs and refrigeration facilities. Later more integrated, global projects received assistance as in the inner Niger Delta. These focused not just on port infrastructure and processing facilities, but on providing technical assistance, improving equipment and raising the standard of living in fishermen's camps. Such schemes were strongly backed during the fourth EDF, receiving more than half the available resources.

Fish farming is now a growing industry in the African, Caribbean and Pacific countries, whose links with the Community are assured by the Lomé Convention. They produce approximately 4 million tonnes of fish a year — a figure which can be expected to rise to 15 million tonnes by the turn of the century. Major fish-farm programmes, many with EDF help are now in hand in Kenya, the Central African Republic, Malawi, Nigeria and the Ivory Coast.

The Community's commitment to helping the ACP countries develop their fishery potential was enshrined in the 1979 Declaration on the Second Lomé Convention. This recognized the importance of this resource to the overall development of the States concerned and their right to determine the appropriate conservation policies required. At the same time, the ACP countries declared their willingness to negotiate bilateral agreements with the Community, which would enable EEC boats to fish in their waters.

## Chapter 5 — The main instruments of a common fisheries policy

The instruments elaborated over the years for managing the common fisheries policy within Community waters are designed with the interests of fishermen, consumers and fish in mind. They consist of four separate areas, each highly dependent on the others, and yield their greatest effectiveness only when operating in harmony. In each of them, special provision is made for regions highly dependent on fishing and ancillary industries, in line with successive declarations made by the Community.

The access arrangements determine exactly where fishermen may fish, reserving certain areas for coastal vessels alone. The marketing policy is so designed as to bring some stability to an industry of widely fluctuating fortunes, thus helping to provide fishermen with a living wage. Quotas, technical conservation measures and surveillance are there to protect fish stocks and enforce application of these restrictions, while the structures policy encourages the Community fleet to adapt to new realities by cutting back its activities in some areas and expanding in others. These, and the Community's international fisheries agreements, which are examined in the following chapter, form the backbone of the CFP. They are examined in detail below.

### *Access: situation until the end of 1992 and possibly beyond*

The right of fishermen to claim access to various fishing zones within Community waters, especially between six and 12 miles of another Member State's coastal zone, was one of the two most difficult obstacles facing agreement on a CFP. The other being quotas. The settlement finally reached in January 1983 represented a compromise between the conflicting demands of island countries — the United Kingdom, Ireland and Denmark in relation to Greenland — who sought preferential treatment for their fishermen to exploit resources off their coasts and the need to comply with Community principles of equal treatment for all and non-discrimination on national grounds, enshrined in the Treaties and successive legislation since 1970.

The arrangements agreed on 25 January 1983 are to run until 31 December 1992. By then, on the basis of a European Commission report assessing the economic, social and fishery situation, it will be decided whether any changes should be made before a further 10-year term starts to run.

The present system is largely based on the terms which applied from 1973 when the United Kingdom, Ireland and Denmark joined the Community. It authorizes Member States to maintain the existing regime and to expand up to 12 nautical miles for all waters under their jurisdiction the earlier six-mile limits. This was done to prevent job losses for local fishermen,



which might have occurred if there had been totally free access. It also provided the local population with definite advantages over competitors fishing the same stocks.



Negotiations took place prior to the agreement to determine the exact extent to which boats from other Member States employed their traditional fishing rights in other countries' six to 12-mile zones. Where these had lapsed through lack of use, they were abolished. Where they were still in operation, the legislation spelt out in detail the species that could be caught and the nationality of the boats that could be found in any particular location.

The January agreement introduced a further restriction on the right of Community vessels to fish at will outside the 12-mile zones. In order to protect certain fish stocks in biologically sensitive areas, a special conservation box was established round the Shetland Islands, restricting the rights of larger vessels to enter this zone to catch edible fish. No conditions are placed on industrial stocks like Norway pout or similar species.

## *Situation before 25 January 1983*

The first major effort to establish conditions on the right of access came with agreement on the London Fisheries Convention which entered into force on 15 March 1966. This granted exclusive fishing rights and jurisdiction for a coastal State within a six-mile zone. Between this and 12 miles the right to fish was to be exercised by the coastal State and other countries party to the Convention which had used that area in the 10 years preceding 1962.

Community legislation on a common structural policy, adopted in 1970, came into force the following year. It stated that governments could not discriminate in the rules applied in their waters and contained the principle of equal conditions of access to and use of fishing grounds, subject to certain conditions to protect the local fishing population.

The principle of free access caused great difficulties in the first enlargement negotiations in the early 1970s with the United Kingdom and Norway in particular determined to defend the interests of their coastal fishermen. Opposing this view stood Article 7 of the Treaty of Rome, which prohibited 'any discrimination on grounds of nationality'. In the end this application was deferred by Articles 100, 101 and 103 of the Act of Accession. These authorized Community countries, until 31 December 1982, to restrict fishing in their waters up to six nautical miles to vessels which fished traditionally in that area and which operated from ports in the vicinity. At the same time the special fishing rights vessels from other Community countries had enjoyed as on 31 January 1971 in those areas were to be retained.

The question of access to fishing grounds became a heated debate in 1976 with the introduction of 200-mile economic zones and the need for the Community's deep-sea fleet to turn its efforts to fishing in Community waters. Various voices in the United Kingdom and Ireland demanded permanent and exclusive zones ranging anything up to 50 miles. A number of other Member States opposed this, arguing for retention of their historic rights until the end of 1982 and then free access up to three miles from the coast thereafter. Efforts by the Commission to break the deadlock were unsuccessful until the new arrangements were introduced by the 25 January 1983 agreement.

## *Marketing policy*

A key feature of the CFP designed to prevent radical fluctuations in the incomes of fishermen and yet ensure a ready supply of good quality fish for consumers is the market organization policy introduced in 1970 and revised and developed at the end of 1981.

Since 1970, the Community has fixed fish prices annually, with far less argument and publicity than is attached to the annual farm price negotiations. The day to day organization of the market has covered fresh, dried, salted, smoked, frozen and chilled fish, fresh or preserved crustaceans and molluscs, preserved sardines and tuna. The aim has been to encourage rational marketing of fish products and stability in the market by applying common standards ensuring that fish of unsuitable quality is not sold, and thereby provide fishermen as far as is reasonably possible with a fair income for their labours.

By the end of the 1970s it had become clear that changes needed to be made to the basic rules to take account of the far reaching developments that had taken place in the previous decade. These included a marked diversion in production and consumption to processed and frozen products, thus reducing the natural advantages against imports Community fishermen had earlier enjoyed with their catches of fresh fish. The introduction of 200-mile limits radically altered the Community's supply situation — it now imports annually some one million tonnes of whitefish — while, for example, surplus mackerel stocks were exported or, less happily, led to an increase in the amount of Community fish taken of the market when prices fell. In 1980/81 the total quantity of fish withdrawn in this way was running at more than 100 000 tonnes.

The legislation adopted in 1981 confirmed the central role of producer organizations in implementing marketing policy and provided for increased start-up aid for up to five years to encourage their creation. There are now some 90 such bodies throughout the Community covering members involved in inshore, offshore, high sea and deep sea fishing. They take the form of recognized organizations or associations, established on the producers' own initiative to ensure fishing is carried out along rational lines and that the conditions for the sale of their products are improved. They are not allowed to hold a dominant position on the market, but members are bound by their rules and have to dispose of their catches through the producer organizations. In certain cases their rules may be extended to non-members by the Member State concerned subject to Commission approval.

The producer organizations may fix an autonomous withdrawal price, below which they will not sell the fish supplied by their members. More commonly, they apply the official withdrawal prices set by the Commission. To take account in particular of seasonal fluctuations in market prices, producer organizations may now apply the official withdrawal prices within a range 10% below or 5% above the basic withdrawal price.

Members receive compensation from their producer organizations for any fish withdrawn when the market price falls below the withdrawal price, but the Community's financial assistance is subject to a number of conditions. Such fish may not be used for human consumption and their disposal must not interfere with normal marketing practice. Nor is compensation granted if products withdrawn daily are below a minimum quantity or value. The compensation is determined by a sliding scale, so that 85% of the withdrawal price is reimbursed for quantities less than 5%, between 5 and 10% the figure is 70%. Between 10 and 15%, it is 55% and finally between 15 and 20%, the figure is 40%. But if more than 20% of fish caught is taken off the market, no compensation is paid for the quantities beyond this limit. In addition, the producer organization itself must make a limited contribution to the compensation. These measures provide a higher incentive to the producer organizations to market their catch rationally and replace the previous system where financial reimbursement took place at a standard rate, irrespective of the amount withdrawn.

There is also provision for regional withdrawal prices (currently for mackerel, hake and Atlantic sardines) in landing areas distant from the main centres of the Community.

The Community withdrawal price is derived from the guide prices which the Council establishes at the start of each fishing season for the main species. These are considered to be target prices and are arrived at by considering, in particular, average market prices at a range of



Community ports over the three previous years and by assessing production and demand prospects.



*The sea provides its wealth day after day. Conservation measures are essential, however, and form part of the European Community's fisheries policy (photo FAO).*

Certain products are eligible for a carry-over premium when withdrawn from the market, provided the quantities involved do not exceed 15% of the annual amount offered for sale by the producer organizations. This is designed to cover part of the processing and storage costs involved in drying, salting or freezing the species when catches are too plentiful. A special carry-over premium has also been introduced for Mediterranean sardines and anchovies.

Export refunds can be paid to help bridge the gap between Community and world prices. Their use has been almost entirely limited in recent years to mackerel sales. During 1983, the Commission cut these refunds by 20% in two stages, and finally set them at zero as from 1 November taking the view that the lowest Community processing costs were no longer higher than world market prices.

The final improvement introduced into the earlier marketing arrangements was to streamline the reference price system, the purpose of which is to ensure that fish imported from third countries do not cause problems for the market for home production. If imports enter the EEC below this yardstick, the Commission can apply a variety of measures.

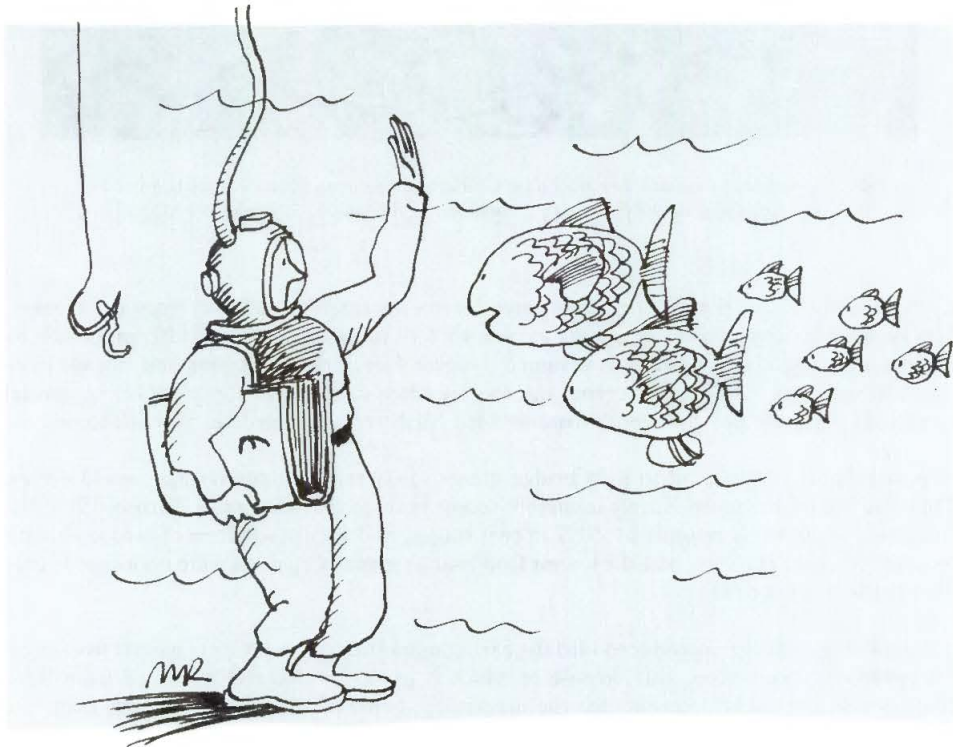


## *Cost to the Community budget of the marketing arrangements*

The cost to the Community of these various marketing measures is, even proportionately, nowhere near that generated by the common agricultural policy (CAP). The reasons are not hard to see. The CAP is based on guaranteed prices designed to ensure farmers a living wage. But the CFP operates a different system, whose role is to help stabilize market prices and shelter fishermen from any marketing disaster. Thus, fishermen are able to benefit from the peaks of price fluctuations caused by the inevitable irregularity of supply of fish, but the Community's intervention system — applied to some 80 000 tonnes in 1983 — is designed to shield them from the troughs while preventing the formation of surpluses.

Annex 7 shows on a country by country breakdown the cost to the Community between 1971 and 1980 of withdrawing fish from the market and encouraging exports. Annex 8 is a product by product analysis of the cost in 1981 of intervention and export refunds for individual species.

## *Conservation of fish stocks*



The Community's conservation policy to ensure stocks remain at healthy levels contains three elements:

- (i) annual establishment of total allowable catches (TACs) for each stock of fish (this represents a species in each region forming a self-contained management unit) set the absolute amount of each stock that may be taken. The share of the TACs available to the Community are divided into national quotas which are allocated to Member States;
- (ii) measures laying down technical conditions under which the TACs and quotas may be fished, such as minimum mesh sizes, minimum landing sizes, permitted level of by-catches and identification of regions where fishing needs to be subjected to special restrictions;
- (iii) a surveillance system to determine the rules are fully enforced and obeyed.

The purpose of Community-wide conservation measures is not to preserve fish stocks purely for the pleasure of doing so, but to provide the fishing industry with a viable economic base. With fish migrating from one country's waters to another's, no individual Member State has the ability on its own to protect a stock. The aim of the package of measures is to protect fishing grounds, conserve the biological resources of the sea and their balanced exploitation on a lasting basis, in appropriate economic and social conditions.

That such a policy is necessary was made abundantly clear by a Commission report published in 1976, just before the Community introduced its 200-mile zone in the Atlantic and North Sea. This indicated the serious danger of depletion of stocks of herring in the North Sea and off the West of Scotland and of sole and other species in the North Sea and pointed out that the only potentially undeveloped fisheries were for species such as blue whiting, horse mackerel, ling and blue ling. The drastic situation, concluded the report, had been brought about by cut-throat competition. It warned that greater fishing would not result in increased catches, but only in a dangerous drop in resources reducing the profitability of the industry and hitting fishermen's incomes.

### *TACs and quotas*

The starting point for ensuring stocks are not overfished is the setting of TACs, established annually for each stock. Two international organizations, the International Council for the Exploration of the Seas (ICES) established in 1902 in Copenhagen and the Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization (NAFO), provide the scientific input, calculating the level of catches possible at different levels of fishing from each of the stocks during the year. The Commission after analysing the information, puts forward proposed TACs to the Council designed to strike a balance between the long-term objective of replacing stocks and the short-term obligation of ensuring fishermen a suitable income. In the case of stocks occurring in waters of both the Community and of neighbouring States, negotiations take place with such third countries as Norway, who share responsibility with the Community for managing the stocks, to determine the TAC and how much of the available joint resources should be allocated to each party.

The technique for dividing up the Community's share was devised in three stages. The first set of criteria was laid down in 1976 at The Hague where the Community recognized the particular situation of regions highly dependent on fishing, with little alternative forms of employ-

ment. Thus, Ireland was to be allowed the prospect of developing her fishing industry by being given a Community guarantee that her total 1975 catch could be doubled by 1979. 'The Council furthermore recognizes that there are other regions in the Community . . . where the local communities are particularly dependent upon fishing and the industries allied thereto. The Council therefore agrees that in applying the common fisheries policy, account should also be taken of the vital needs of these fishing communities', said the declaration. The regions referred to were Greenland, the northern parts of the United Kingdom and Ireland.

In a second stage, these were elaborated on 30 May 1980 by the Community's Foreign Ministers in their declaration on the common fisheries policy, in which they stated should be taken into account:

- (i) the traditional fishing activities of Community boats;
- (ii) the special needs of fishermen operating in regions where there is little alternative employment apart from fishing and its allied industries;
- (iii) the losses suffered by Community boats in third country waters after the introduction of 200-mile zones.

In interpreting these three criteria, the Commission took catches between 1973 and 1978 as a base period to determine traditional fishing activities and then applied the guarantees or preferences for heavily dependent fishery regions agreed at the 1976 Hague meeting. In calculating third country losses, the Commission noted it was not possible to grant full compensation from stocks in Community waters, simply because there were insufficient resources and because such an approach would seriously disrupt traditional fishing patterns. It therefore suggested these be compensated on a percentage basis.

Finally, in order to establish a form of comparison between the different species, the six main categories of edible fish (later extended to include mackerel) were expressed in terms of 'cod equivalent' with the different tonnages added together. This calculation was arrived at by giving the value of one to cod, haddock and plaice, 0.87 to redfish, 0.86 to whiting, 0.77 to saithe and 0.30 to mackerel.

The quota share out is an annual exercise, but under the January 1983 agreement, the principle of staying power was introduced. Thus, each Member State is allocated the same fixed percentage of the available catch in each stock every year. This formula will, like the access provisions, operate until 1992, and probably longer. Under the same agreement, the Council will examine a Commission report after each September on the utilization of the quotas with a view to facilitating exchanges between Member States. Any exchanges would not prejudice allocations in future years.

### *Technical conservation measures*

Before the establishment of a common regime, the conservation and management of fishery resources was largely left to national governments who were free to establish rules controlling fishing activities in their own waters. These were frequently based on the recommendations issued by the international fishery commissions in which the Member States participated.



A comprehensive set of Community measures, first adopted in September 1980, lapsed a year later. A second set laying out the technical conditions for fishing in EEC waters was adopted in January 1983. The legislation sets standards for minimum mesh sizes to protect young fish, lays down minimum landing sizes and establishes permitted levels of by-catches of edible fish that may be scooped up with other, usually industrial species. It also lists zones where fishing is prohibited or restricted to certain times of the year to protect spawning grounds and nursery areas.

In addition to these measures which operate until they are expressly repealed or their time limit expires, other, temporary, conditions are attached to the TACs and used to protect stocks. These lapse if they are not renewed and are reviewed each year. An example is the closed season during the early months of the year for mackerel fishing off the northwest of Scotland.

### *Surveillance*

Despite their detail and comprehensive coverage, the quotas and technical conservation measures would be ineffective in protecting the Community's fishery stocks, if their contents were simply ignored. For this reason, special attention has been attached to creating an effective surveillance system, using both Community and national resources.

The basic tools for achieving this were adopted in June 1982, although a less comprehensive system had operated from March 1980. Under the new arrangements, each Member State's own inspectorate is obliged to check up on EEC fishing vessels in its own ports or maritime waters to ensure they comply with the conservation and control measures. They have to try and avoid undue interference with normal fishing activities and any discrimination in their work. It is the governments themselves that are mandated, and obliged, to take penal or administrative action against the skipper of any vessel found violating the measures. Member States are also obliged to inform the Commission at regular intervals of the number of fishing vessels inspected, their nationality, the type of infringements involved and the action taken.

To ensure national authorities apply a common interpretation of the control and conservation measures and that there is no obvious discrepancy in the action taken against those breaking the law, the Commission has established its own team of inspectors. They started operating towards the end of 1983. They have no right of enforcement against private citizens, and must accompany national inspectors who remain responsible for the operation at all times. The only exception to Commission officials being present at an inspection is if the national authorities have to carry out other priority tasks related to defence, security or custom inspection. If the Commission considers irregularities have occurred, it has the power to ask the Member State concerned to make an administrative inquiry with Commission officials present, if they so wish.

Member States have to record all landings made at their ports or transfers at sea from one ship to another and send the details to the Commission every month. These are then deducted from the total quotas available for that country. It is up to each government to determine the date for a halt to be called to the fishing of a particular stock, but it is the Commission which fixes



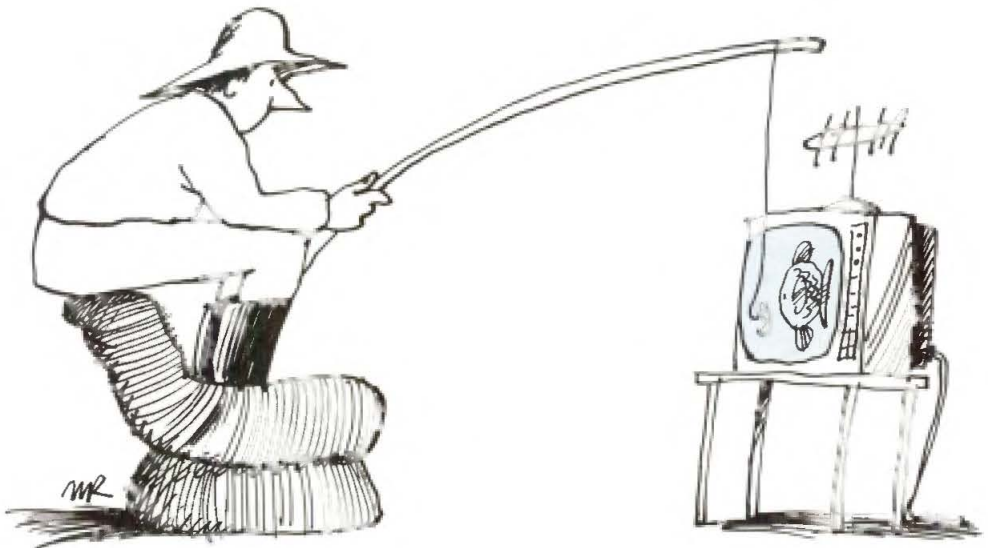
the date on which the catches for a particular stock are deemed to have exhausted the allocated quota.

Obligations are also placed on the skippers of fishing vessels. They have to keep a logbook listing, as a minimum, the quantities of each species caught and kept on board, the date and location of such catches and the type of gear used. This information is then submitted to national authorities when the catch is landed. Exceptions to this duty exist for boats under 10 metres in length, under 12 metres if fishing in the Skagerrak and Kattegat, or under 17 metres if the fishing activity lasts less than 24 hours.

The cost of patrolling the huge tracts of sea covered by the Community's 200-mile zone has placed a large financial burden on certain countries. In the United Kingdom, the annual cost of operating 10 fishery protection vessels and aircraft is estimated at 20 million pounds. But the real impact has been on Ireland, which now has to patrol a 130 000 square mile zone in the Atlantic, and Denmark, which operates surveillance activity in the 1 million square mile zone off Greenland. Consequently, the Community agreed that between January 1977 and December 1982, 10 million ECU and 46 million ECU would be allocated to Denmark and Ireland respectively to enable them to purchase or lease inspection and surveillance equipment.

### *Structures: adjusting fishing capacity to present realities*

The combined aims of the structures policy, whose final details were agreed in October 1983, are to: conserve and manage the fish stocks in the maritime waters of the Community; ensure the industry can face up to international competition; provide a fair standard of living for those who depend on fishing for their livelihood; and guarantee regular supplies at reasonable prices for consumers.



The May 1980 declaration signed by Community Foreign Ministers contained specific reference to the need for the CFP to adopt 'structural measures which include a financial contribution by the Community'. These complement the efforts already undertaken by national governments to adapt to the new circumstances and factors, such as the increased cost of fuel, the marine resources and to the 200-mile zones. Greece and Italy do not have 200-mile zones. This has meant cutting back the size of the fishing fleet by mothballing certain vessels in the hope they may be commissioned at a later date when resources increase or by scrapping other boats not able to adapt to the new fishing grounds or species. While these measures are designed to reduce the Community's fishing effort others have been chosen to stimulate it outside EEC waters through joint ventures with a number of West African or Mediterranean countries or through exploratory voyages. The greatest share of the Community effort (156 million ECU between 1983 and the end of 1985) is set aside to modernize the fishing fleet and encourage fish farming. The specific Community measures, based on national multiannual programmes, are:

- (i) *restructuring, modernizing and developing the fishing industry*: 11 million ECU is available for modernizing, by improving storage capacity or introducing energy saving measures for instance, or building boats between 9 and 33 metres in length;
- (ii) *fish farming*: the Community is to provide 34 million ECU to aid projects to build, equip and modernize aquaculture installations; and 2 million ECU for the construction of artificial reefs and structures to facilitate re-stocking of Mediterranean coastal areas. Community participation is limited to a maximum of 25% of the total investment, except for projects in Greenland, Ireland, Northern Ireland, the Italian Mezzogiorno, Greece and the French overseas departments, where it may be up to 50%. Aquaculture already accounts for up to 20% in value of fish and shellfish consumed in the Community and is considered to have even greater potential for high value stocks like salmon, trout, turbot, eels, oysters and scallops now that modern techniques and transport networks have opened up regions previously too remote from the main markets;
- (iii) *mothballing*: Member States may provide financial aid for the temporary laying-up of vessels over 18 metres in length, provided they were commissioned after 1 January 1958. In 1980, the Commission estimated as many as 15% of vessels in this category would have to be laid up for one year. The Community will meet half the cost of the exercise providing 44 million ECU;
- (iv) *scrapping*: vessels over 12 metres in length may be struck off the register (to prove they are not being used elsewhere) and scrapped. The scheme, which the Community will part finance to the tune of 32 million ECU, is especially geared for the larger deep sea boats unable to adapt to the loss of third country grounds;
- (v) *exploratory voyages*: vessels over 24 metres in length, prepared to make such journeys in search of new grounds and species will be entitled to special aid, of which the Community will provide 11 million ECU over three years;
- (vi) *joint ventures*: a further form of encouragement to shipowners to explore fishing possibilities elsewhere comes with the 7 million ECU the Community will contribute over three years towards joint ventures with companies or individuals especially in the Mediterranean or off the west coast of Africa. The aid is intended to offset some of the financial risk and costs involved in transferring a vessel to foreign waters (this may require technical modifications or repayment of an outstanding debt if a flag change is required) and the uncertainty of catching and marketing fish in another part of the world.

The Community's structures policy goes back to 1971 when it was agreed that the Guidance Section of the EAGGF could be used to promote the construction and modernization of inshore and middle water fishing vessels. In 1978, this was replaced by a series of annual interim packages of wider scope. By 1981, the Commission, under this scheme, had received 1 052 applications for aid to construct fishing vessels and 123 applications for fish farming involving 188.8 million ECU — nearly three times the aid available. The assistance tended to be concentrated in coastal areas where the local population was heavily dependent on fishing: Scotland, southern Italy, Greece, Ireland, Northern Ireland, Brittany and Greenland. Annex 9 provides full details of Community aid granted between 1971 and 1982 for the construction and modernization of boats, aquaculture, the processing industry and marketing policy. The assistance given specifically to the inshore fishing industry between 1971 and 1982 is contained in Annex 10.

The Commission has also made proposals to provide fishermen with the same opportunity for training and safety and health provisions at work as are enjoyed by other workers, while bearing in mind the specific nature of the industry. The Social Fund has already contributed to the industry by financing training programmes for fish farms in Ireland and Scotland, while the Regional Development Fund between 1981-82 granted 9.5 million ECU to projects involving harbour improvements, processing factories and research centres. Many of these schemes also attracted loans from the European Investment Bank.



## Chapter 6 — Third country agreements

In 1976, Member States explicitly recognized the competence of the Community to handle international fishing negotiations and the Commission was given the go-ahead to negotiate a number of agreements with third countries to take account of the widespread introduction of the 200-mile exclusive economic zones.

These agreements were necessary for various reasons. Firstly, they reflect the practical need to manage joint stocks in the North Sea, for instance, where the Community and Norway have common interests. Failure to do so, or the insistence on the part of one country to organize its fishing effort without considering the needs or practice of another would seriously damage stocks to the detriment of both parties.

Secondly, they are an attempt to respect fishing patterns of the past when fishermen operated in what traditionally used to be international waters, but which, since the introduction of 200-mile zones, have passed under the sovereignty of a particular country or Community Member State.

The agreements which take a number of forms are all negotiated by the European Commission and adopted by the Council of Ministers after consultation with the European Parliament.

Some, as with Norway, Sweden, the Faeroes and Spain are based on the principle of reciprocal fishing arrangements, where fish is traded for fish. In a second category emphasis is on access to surplus stocks. The only current example is the 1977 agreement with the USA. In accordance the rules of the Law of the Sea Convention the US grants the Community a set quantity of fishing possibilities every year from its own surplus stocks. Under a third formula, the Community pays financial compensation for the right to fish in the particular country's waters. The funds come from the EEC budget and from shipowners who have to accept certain financial and other obligations. The arrangements are designed to restore or maintain fishing rights for a Community fleet, essentially, Italian, Greek and French. Examples are the agreements with Senegal, Guinea Bissau, Revolutionary People's Republic of Guinea, Equatorial Guinea, the Democratic Republic of Sao Tome and Principe and the Seychelles. The Community is considering expanding this form of agreement to include other West African countries as a way of controlling catches of the migratory tuna stocks. A final category involves trade facilities as with Canada, whereby Community boats may fish in Canadian waters. In return, the Community opened tariff quotas at reduced rates for certain fish originating from the north Atlantic fish stocks.





*In the developing countries, fishing is still a craft industry.*

The fishing agreements have no specific form or content. They merely establish a framework within which the parties will deal with all their fisheries problems for a number of years. They contain general regulations on access to the fishing zone, compensation and licence fees (where appropriate), scientific cooperation in the region and through international organizations and procedures to settle disputes.

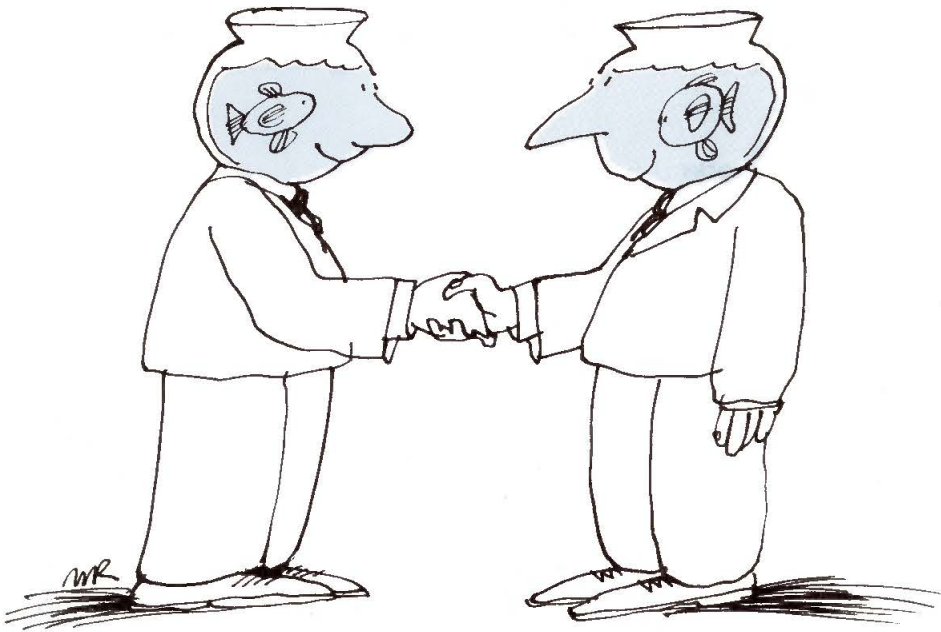
The agreements the Community has signed with developing countries tend to follow the same pattern, although they contain specific provisions to suit the particular situation. They are expected to grow in number as this cooperation is considered the safest way of ensuring the industrial world receives its supplies of fish and the developing countries obtain the technology they need to develop the sector.

They determine the volume of fishing rights granted by monitoring the number of vessels in the area, establish a licensing system whereby the ship-owner has to pay the authorities a fee whose size depends on the tonnage of the vessels and the type and duration of the fishing. The Community has accepted that part of the catches have to be landed locally, either to feed the local population or for processing, and that in certain cases the nationals of the coastal States be employed as seamen on board EEC vessels to gain employment and experience. The one exception to these conditions, on purely practical grounds, is for the highly migratory tuna fished in waters off a score of West African countries. The potential importance of this coopera-

tion can be gauged from the fact that many developing and ACP countries have enormous exclusive economic zones. The total area covered for Fiji is 330 900 square miles, the Seychelles 395 000 square miles and Papua New Guinea 690 000 square miles. To put this into context, the United Kingdom's zone, if the country were not in the Community, would be some 247 000 square miles.

But these agreements also involve a considerable commitment on the part of Community ship-owners. They have to be willing to fish in zones far from their home ports, possibly adapt their equipment to fishing in distant tropical waters, develop experience and knowhow about unfamiliar stocks, allow for the increase in fuel prices and overcome the costs involved in freezing and transporting the catch to the consumer.

### *Fishing agreements concluded by the Community*



#### **Reciprocal arrangements**

*Norway*: a 10-year agreement signed and concluded in 1980 between the Community and Norway covers joint and autonomous stocks in which each party grants access to the other's vessels to fish set quantities fixed annually within its own jurisdiction. Community vessels — essentially French, German and British — catch cod, haddock, saithe, redfish, blue whiting and halibut in Norwegian waters, while Norwegian fishermen concentrate on mackerel, sprat, blue whiting and prawns in the Community zone.

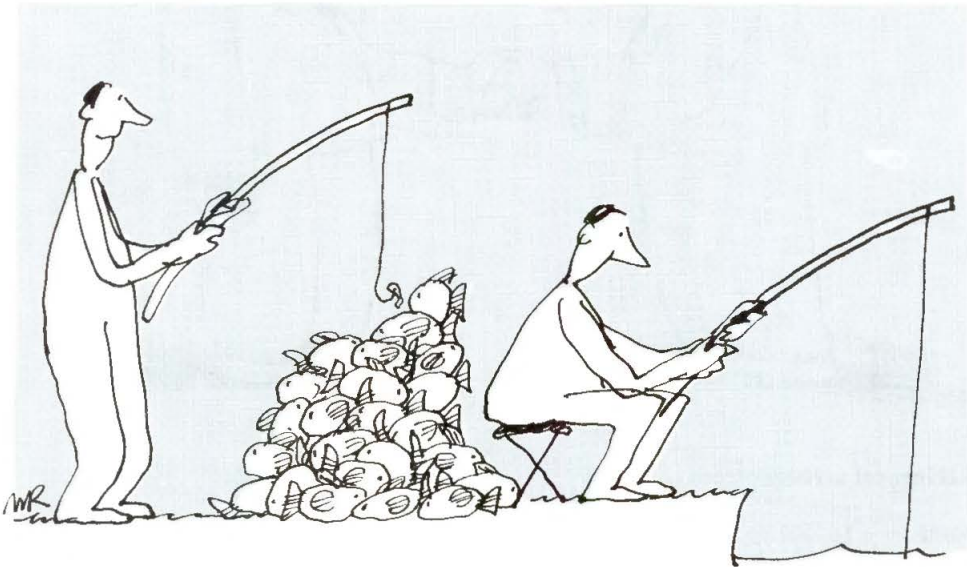
*Sweden:* concluded in 1980, the agreement officially entered into force in April 1981 and covers joint stocks in the Kattegat and exclusive stocks such as cod, herring and salmon in the Baltic and North Sea.

*Faeroes:* under the agreement concluded in June 1980 Community boats mainly from France, Germany, the United Kingdom and Denmark may catch cod, haddock, saithe, redfish, blue ling, ling and tusk in Faeroese waters. Because of the heavy Faeroese dependence on fishing — it provides roughly one third of the country's gross income and fish products account for 95% of exports — the islanders request slightly larger fishing possibilities in Community waters.

*Spain:* the 1980 framework agreement is similar to those concluded with Scandinavian countries. It establishes annual consultations to fix catch quotas, grants licences and establishes permitted fishing zones and cooperation to preserve fish stocks. Community fishing interest in Spain is fairly marginal. Community waters of particular interest to Spain lie off the West of Scotland, the West and South of England and Ireland and the Bay of Biscay.

*Finland:* a reciprocal fisheries agreement with Finland was concluded in July 1983. Under its terms, Community boats could obtain access to Finnish salmon in the Gulf of Bothnia and Finnish vessels are given small catches of North Sea herring, when the TAC is fixed at over 100 000 tonnes.

### Access to surplus stocks



*The United States:* the first ever fishing agreement signed by the Community as such was in 1977 with the United States. It provides the Community with access to surpluses in the American fishing zone for Italian and German vessels off the East coast and experimental fishing



off Alaska. The United States determines the annual TAC, American harvesting capacity and allocates part of the remaining stocks to Community boats in order to ensure optimum yield without the danger of overfishing.

### **Trade facilities**

*Canada:* in December 1981, the Community and Canada signed a long-term fisheries agreement in Brussels. This provides in principle for mutual access to surplus in the fishing zone of the other party.

Under a separate six-year agreement, Community boats (German, French, British and Italian) may catch set amounts of cod and squid in Canadian waters. In exchange, the EEC opened tariff quotas and reduced rates for limited imports of Canadian cod, lobsters, frozen redfish and herring flaps.

### **Financial compensation**

*Senegal:* signed in June 1979, initially for two years, this represented the first fisheries agreement between the Community and a developing country. It covers fishing rights for a number of small French trawlers, several larger tuna vessels and some Italian freezer trawlers. The Community agreed to finance projects and services of a rural nature, especially relating to sea fishing, to the tune of 4 million ECU a year. A new two-year protocol was signed on 12 January 1984.

*Guinea Bissau:* in February 1980, the Community signed an agreement which runs until 1985. In exchange for licences to EEC fishermen (basically French and Italian), the Community agreed to pay global financial compensation of 4.2 million ECU, to finance a scientific programme on fish stocks with 250 000 ECU and provide a grants programme for study into fisheries related subjects.

*Revolutionary People's Republic of Guinea:* under the three-year agreement negotiated in 1980, the Community provides 2.1 million ECU in financial compensation for sea fisheries projects and has introduced EEC grants for studies, training and a scientific programme in exchange for access for a limited number of EEC vessels. One stipulation is that Guinean seamen must be employed on board.

*Equatorial Guinea:* a three-year agreement was initialled by the Commission and Equatorial Guinea in June 1983. Under its terms, 27 Community deep sea refrigerated boats will be able to catch 4 000 tonnes of tuna for a special fee. In exchange, the Community, over and above the financial aid granted under the Lomé Convention, will provide 180 000 ECU a year to develop the country's fishing industry.

*Democratic Republic of Sao Tome and Principe:* a three-year agreement was signed on 1 February, 1984 allowing Community boats to catch tuna under conditions similar the those operating in the agreement with Equatorial Guinea.



*Seychelles*: a three-year agreement was signed on 18 January 1984 allowing the fishery by 18 Community tuna seiners against licence fees of 20 ECU per tonne of tuna caught, and an annual compensation of 300 000 ECU to be paid by the Community, as well as a further 250 000 ECU over the three years to encourage scientific cooperation. The annual compensation covers 6 000 tonnes of tuna; if catches are higher, the amount will be increased accordingly.

Furthermore, the Community has got the right to obtain permits for certain other fisheries under conditions to be determined.

The Community started negotiating a framework agreement with Mauritania in December 1978 with the aim of allowing EEC vessels to fish in those waters *inter alia* through joint ventures. These negotiations have since been intensified.

Cap Verde and Sierra Leone are keen to conclude fisheries agreements with the Community and further accords may be reached with Madagascar, Mauritius and Angola.

The Community has no fishing agreements with Mediterranean countries. The absence of an exclusive 200-mile zone in this area has reduced the pressure for such arrangements. Efforts have been made, however, to safeguard the rights of Sicilian vessels which previously fished Tunisian and Yugoslav waters. Morocco, Malta and Libya are other countries with whom fisheries agreements might be of benefit to the Community. Despite its vast fishery potential, Iceland has no fishery agreement with the Community. Belgium is the only EEC country to have worked out arrangements — in 1975 and later amended in 1979 — which allow a limited number of Belgian boats to catch around 4 500 tonnes annually.

### *Community fishery relations with Eastern European countries*

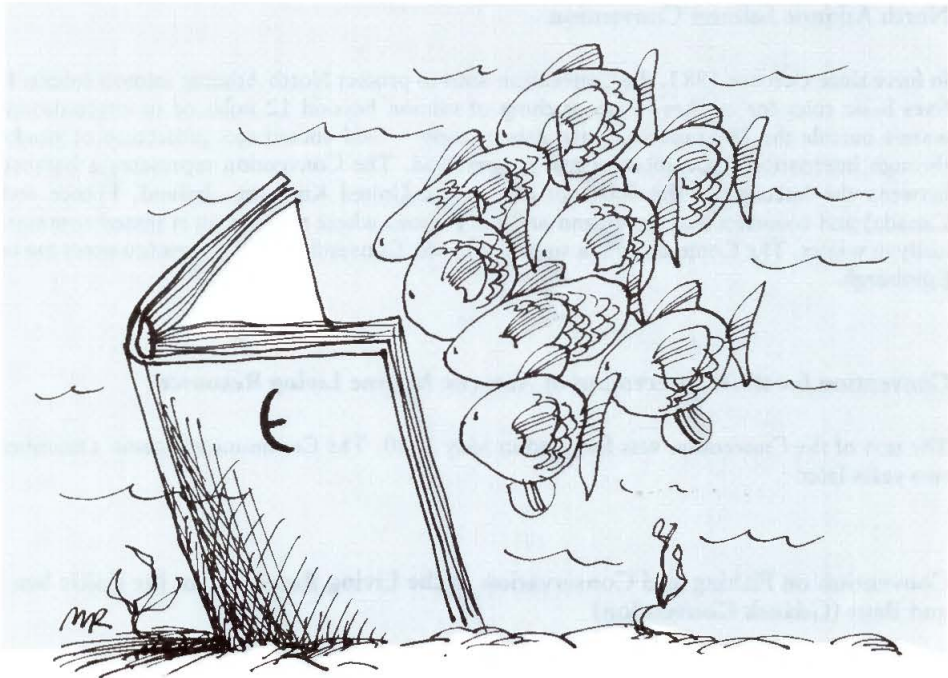
The Community has no fishery agreements with Eastern European countries, but was involved in lengthy negotiations after the introduction of the 200-mile zone. A system of licensing was introduced for the Soviet Union, Poland and the German Democratic Republic from 1 February 1977 to enable the Community to enforce the quotas introduced for the first three months of the year. The licences were issued by the country of the Presidency on behalf of the Community, with responsibility transferring to the Commission on 1 October 1977.

New autonomous quota arrangements were subsequently introduced for these three countries every few months until the end of September 1977 when the Community declined to allocate any quotas to the Soviet Union other than those previously agreed in international fishery organizations because of the Soviet decision severely restricting Community fishing in the Barents Sea. At the beginning of October 1977, the quotas for Poland and the German Democratic Republic were extended *pro rata* for two months only and not further renewed when they failed to complete negotiations on fishery agreements with the Community. The negotiations between the Community and the Soviet Union on a framework agreement — the first time the Soviet Union had entered into negotiations with the EEC — opened on 16 February 1977. Those with Poland on 25 February 1977 and with the German Democratic Republic on 11 March 1977. None was ever completed.

## *Multilateral relations*

Beyond the 200-mile zones the sea is free and so a series of international conventions have been agreed to regulate the management and conservation of fish stocks. It is through these that the Community conducts its multilateral fishery relations, representing all Member States and gradually replacing individual EEC countries as a member. Examples are the North Atlantic Fisheries Organization where the Community deals with Canada and the United States or the International Convention for the Conservation of Atlantic Tuna, which the Community has applied to join. These organizations tended to be more powerful before the widespread introduction of 200-mile zones in 1977 since most fish stocks fall within this area. They generally meet once a year, containing a scientific and management body and put forward recommendations.

## *Organizations in which the Community is a full member*



### **North Atlantic Fisheries Organization (NAFO)**

The first international fisheries organization to which the Community became a contracting party to the exclusion of the Member States. It covers the northwest Atlantic off the coasts of the United States, Canada and Greenland and came into force in 1979, replacing the former International Convention for the Northwest Atlantic Fisheries (ICNAF) after the creation of

the 200-mile zones. The Commission participated in all the work establishing the text, represents the Community, assisted in the fisheries commission by representatives of the Member States concerned, and chooses the specialist biologists that attend the scientific meetings. NAFO includes provision for inspection vessels, 95% of which are provided by Canada, although occasionally the Community might be involved.

### **Northeast Atlantic Fisheries Convention (NEAFC)**

Established in November 1980, the Convention came into force in March 1982, replacing the old NEAFC. The Community is a contracting party. The main stock covered by the Convention in the Northeast Atlantic area lying beyond zones under coastal State jurisdiction is blue whiting.

### **North Atlantic Salmon Convention**

In force since October 1983, the Convention aims to protect North Atlantic salmon stocks. It fixes basic rules for catches — no catching of salmon beyond 12 miles or in international waters outside the 200-mile exclusive fishery zone — and encourages protection of stocks through international consultation and cooperation. The Convention represents a balance between the interests of the States of origin (the United Kingdom, Ireland, France and Canada) and countries like Greenland and the Faeroes where the salmon is netted commercially in winter. The Community is a signatory to the Convention, whose headquarters are in Edinburgh.

### **Convention for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources**

The text of the Convention was finalized in May 1980. The Community became a member two years later.

### **Convention on Fishing and Conservation of the Living Resources in the Baltic Sea and Belts (Gdansk Convention)**

Signed in September 1973, the Convention entered into force in July 1974 with two Member States, Denmark and the Federal Republic of Germany contracting parties. The other members are Sweden, Finland, the Soviet Union, Poland and the German Democratic Republic. In November 1982, the Convention was amended to allow the Community to accede. It did so in 1984.

In a number of other areas, the Community is in the process of negotiating membership. These include:

## **International Convention for the Southeast Atlantic Fisheries**

In October 1980, the Federal Republic of Germany, a member along with France and Italy, requested the Convention be amended to allow accession of the Community. The Convention covers the TACs and quotas for fisheries particularly of hake, off the southern part of Africa from Angola to Mozambique.

*Egyptian sculpture of a fishing scene (2160-2000 BC). Painted plaster on wood  
(Cairo, Egyptian Museum).*



## **International Convention for the Conservation of Atlantic Tuna**

France is the only Community country to be a contracting party to the Convention which came into being in 1966. The Community's participation will ensure that France and Italy — no other Member State fishes for tuna — will both be subject to the regulations for this highly migratory fish, which is increasingly caught outside 200-mile zones.

## **International Whaling Commission**

The Community has observer status.

## **Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)**

The Community participates regularly as an observer in the work of the organizations established under the aegis of the FAO: the General Fisheries Council for the Mediterranean (GFCM) and the Committees on West-Central Atlantic Fisheries and East-Central Atlantic Fisheries. The Community is not a member as such as this would require changes to the statutes of the United Nations. None of the bodies has a secretariat or decides measures for the conservation of fish stocks.

## Chapter 7 — Outlook for the common fisheries policy

### *Enlargement*

Undoubtedly the greatest challenge facing the CFP will be to extend its rules and mechanisms to cover the Spanish and Portuguese fleets when both countries join the Community. With the arrival of these nations, the Community will have to cope *inter alia* with:

- (i) a doubling of the number of fishermen,
- (ii) a three quarter increase in fishing capacity,
- (iii) a 45% rise in production for human consumption,
- (iv) a 43% increase in fish consumption in the enlarged Community. In addition, two thirds of Spanish fishing takes place outside Spanish waters, as does 25% of Portuguese fishing.

The fishery negotiations in the overall enlargement talks were opened in 1983 when both countries were told they would have to accept the *acquis communautaire* and existing structure of the CFP: Thus, there will be no question of the negotiations undermining the pillars of the CFP established by Fisheries Ministers on 25 January 1983. Among the outstanding issues to be solved are: quotas, access to Community, Spanish and Portuguese waters, extension of the market regimes to both countries, eligibility to the structural funds, and relations with third countries.

The greatest challenge is presented by Spain, where the fishing industry has extensive political and economic importance, especially in the Basque country. Having the third largest fishing fleet in the world and 110 000 fishermen (equal to 1% of the labour force, compared to the Community 0.2%), Spain's fishing capacity is considerably greater than the resources available in Spanish waters. For this reason, Spain has concluded a number of agreements with third countries granting access for Spanish vessels to their waters. In 1983, for instance, Spain, under the 1980 Framework Agreement was allowed to catch small amounts of hake, sole and anglerfish in Community waters.

Spain's fishing activities in EEC waters account for 8 to 9% of her total catches. There is very little fishing by Community vessels in Spanish waters.

Fisheries play an important part in the Portuguese economy, providing employment for 0.9% of the working population, contributing 0.9% to the country's gross domestic product and earning valuable foreign currency through the sales abroad of preserved fish. The country's main fishing activities are carried out by a large number of small coastal vessels in Portuguese waters, although a deep sea fleet operates off Canada, Norway and Africa.

No fisheries agreements has been concluded between the Community and Portugal with the result that apart from some tuna fishing, neither party has had access to the other's waters. The nature of Portuguese fishing is very similar to that in Scotland, Ireland, Greece and France where the local population is highly dependent on the industry and the local activities it spawns. For this reason, Portugal's entry to the Community is unlikely to raise many difficulties in the fishery sector. It will increase the number of Community sailors by 25%, tonnage capacity by 16% and production for human consumption by 7%.

## The Mediterranean

The Community still has to develop its policies towards Mediterranean fishing, where the 80 000 French, Greek and Italian fishermen catch some 880 000 tonnes annually. It is difficult to make a direct comparison between Mediterranean and North Atlantic fisheries because of the different values of the species involved. The Mediterranean regions are covered by the market organizations, structural policy and other elements of the CFP. But they are not involved in the TACs and quotas as the 200-mile zones have not been established there. By the end of 1984 the Commission had already included proposals for developing fishing in the area in its integrated Mediterranean programmes and was working on biological and economic studies to develop and protect the sea's resources.

## Greenland

An agreement between Denmark and Greenland, on the one hand, and the Community on the other hand, valid for 10 years with a clause of automatic extension by periods of six years, shall come into force on 1 January 1985, following Greenland's decision to withdraw from the EEC. It takes account of the vital importance of fishing to the Greenland economy, while enabling the Community to continue its fishing activities in Greenland waters.

A protocol, which will run until the end of 1989, lays down the amount of fish (cod, redfish, greenland halibut, halibut, shrimps, catfish and blue whiting) Community vessels may take annually in Greenland waters. In return, the Community will pay Greenland compensation of 26.5 million ECU a year. Provision exists for the Community to obtain complimentary catch possibilities, if available, against suitable payment.

Greenland will continue to be able to export its fishery products to the Community free of customs duties or quantitative restrictions, as long as there is a satisfactory fisheries arrangement.

## *The common fisheries policy*

Nor is the common fisheries policies itself a static instrument whose mechanisms are established once and for all. Before 31 December 1991, the Commission has to submit a report on the fisheries situation in the Community to governments. This will examine the economic and social development of the coastal areas and the state and likely evolution of stocks. On the basis of this report, the Council will decide whether to change the access arrangements. Ten years later the same exercise will be repeated.

*In west Flanders fishing for common shrimps is still done on horseback by professional fishermen  
(photo Inbel).*

It is likely that methods other than TACs and quotas will be investigated to determine whether there are additional ways of protecting stocks. One possibility is extension of the idea of special conservation boxes to other waters. A second generation of conservation measures will also be necessary to reinforce the stability of stocks, while changes can be expected, in the light of experience, in the organization of the market for fish products.

Similarly, the operation of the structural policy to modernize and convert the fishing fleet will provide further information on how to equate fishing effort with fishing opportunities. At the same time, further thought will be given to integrating aquaculture into overall market needs. As always, the Commission will continue to keep an eye on national aids to the fishing industry to ensure these are compatible with Community aims and legislation.



## ANNEXES

*All the information contained in the following annexes was supplied by the European Commission Directorate General for Fisheries, based on information available to it as on 6 July 1983.*

*The global Community figures are aggregated as follows:*

*1970-72 Community of the Six;*

*1973-80 Community of the Nine;*

*1981 onwards Community of the Ten.*

# ANNEX I

## Landings 1976

	Total landings: quantity in tonnes	Value in million ECU	of which: industrial catch in tonnes	Value in million ECU
Belgium	45 000	26	1 000	Not available
Germany	301 000	144	52 000	9
Denmark	309 000	158	1 539 000	92
France	698 000	546	23 000	2.2
Greece	122 000	86	Not available	Not available
Ireland	89 000	25	19 000	Not available
Italy	381 000	319	2 000	0.9
Netherlands	248 000	156	9 000	2.4
UK	933 000	338	169 000	1.0
Community	4 543 000	2 100	1 814 000	Not available
Spain	1 354 000	940	215 000	Not available
Portugal	278 000	174	99 000	28

## 1982

Belgium	43 000	48	3 000	1
Germany	248 000	149	12 000	7
Denmark	463 000	303	1 434 000	100
France	716 000	740	41 000	1.4
Greece (1981)	120 000	172	Not available	Not available
Ireland	206 000	84	20 000	1.4
Italy	410 000	747	48 000	9
Netherlands	505 000	272	18 000	Not available
UK	774 000	465	124 000	8
Community (1981)	4 694 000	2 800	1 580 000	135
Spain	1 249 000	1 245	194 000	13
Portugal	315 000	242	48 000	5

Note: In the first column (total landings), the figures for Denmark refer to human consumption fish only.

**Community fish processing industry**  
**All data is for 1977 (latest available)**

	Number of fish processing factories for human consumption	Turnover in '000 ECU	Workforce	Production in '000 ECU
Belgium	7	39 500	748	36 900
Germany	64	685 000	15 789	601 200
Denmark	60	309 200	5 517	266 300
France	81	358 300	8 154	337 400
Ireland	12	15 600	534	15 000
Italy	52	161 300	3 033	126 800
Netherlands	16	57 800	1 120	51 500
United Kingdom	21	281 100	11 524	280 500
Community	313	1 908 600	46 515	1 715 800

No data available for Greece, Portugal and Spain.

## ANNEX 3

### Number of boats, tonnages in brackets 1976

	Gross registered tonnes					Total
	0-50	51-100	101-150	151-500	500+	
Belgium	73 (2 610)	147 (14 156)		32 (6 723)	1 (555)	253 (24 044)
Germany <sup>1</sup>	2 219 (13 560)	136 (10 164)	30 (3 384)	16 (3 318)	66 (114 011)	2 467 (144 437)
Denmark	6 844 (70 294)	233 (16 806)		346 (59 903)	3 (2 146)	7 430 (149 149)
France	12 153 (96 871)	164 (12 396)		361 (75 996)	86 (75 813)	12 764 (261 076)
Greece <sup>2</sup>	663 (16 565)	115 (8 047)		71 (12 374)	21 (19 845)	870 (56 831)
Ireland	1 049 (11 207)	154 (10 712)	32 (3 538)	1 (250)	1 (1 960)	1 237 (27 667)
Italy	20 582 (129 799)	506 (40 001)	187 (22 945)	106 (26 132)	55 (55 761)	21 436 (274 638)
Netherlands <sup>3</sup>	514 (12 121)	203 (15 104)	104 (12 695)	200 (48 332)	4 (2 139)	1 025 (90 391)
UK	6 458 (71 294)	321 (20 588)	61 (7 494)	232 (66 967)	97 (88 230)	7 169 (254 573)
Community	49 896 (407 756)	1 810 (133 231)		1 762 (344 373)	313 (340 615)	53 781 (1 225 975)
Spain	13 807 (109 313)	1 132 (80 842)	611 (75 028)	1 415 (349 736)	182 (192 446)	17 147 (807 365)
Portugal <sup>4</sup>	4 144 (39 474)	185 (12 215)	56 (4 146)	102 (29 643)	74 (95 460)	4 561 (180 938)

*Note:*

<sup>1</sup> From 1977 onwards German fishing boats used for sport are no longer included in the figures.

<sup>2</sup> From 1970 onwards Greek artisanal boats are excluded from the data, although inland fishing is included.

<sup>3</sup> For the Netherlands, data includes boats on the Ysselmeer.

<sup>4</sup> Figures for Portugal include only motorized vessels.



**Number of boats, tonnages in brackets  
1982**

	Gross registered tonnes					
	0-50	51-100	101-150	151-500	500+	Total
Belgium	59 (2 193)	55 (4 489)	47 (5 816)	41 (8 794)	1 (555)	203 (21 847)
Germany <sup>1</sup>	510 (10 865)	78 (5 569)	48 (5 611)	8 (1 487)	29 (62 574)	673 (86 106)
Denmark	6 474 (58 899)	192 (13 825)	277 (48 234)		7 (5 418)	6 950 (126 376)
France	11 836 (82 961)	107 (8 250)	196 (39 508)		56 (49 501)	12 195 (180 220)
Greece <sup>2</sup> (1981)	636 (Not available)	129	73 vessels (14 736)	101-500 grt	16 (24 376)	854 (39 112)
Ireland	1 415 (13 567)	149 (10 395)	45 (5 223)	30 (6 536)	7 (3 727)	1 646 (39 467)
Italy (1981)	21 839 (150 154)	715 (49 755)	234 (27 971)	139 (31 088)	54 (57 870)	22 981 (316 838)
Netherlands <sup>3</sup> (1981 tonnage)	425 (10 206)	193 (13 994)	105 (13 814)	261 (56 845)	21 (11 511)	1 005 (106 370)
UK	6 440 (77 233)	362 (24 712)	83 (9 714)	172 (44 255)	29 (30 778)	7 086 (186 692)
Community (1981)	49 913 (405 139)	1 981 (131 953)	1 745 (321 846)		219 (257 134)	53 858 (1 116 072)
Spain	14 356 (112 399)	1 178 (85 029)	589 (72 894)	1 233 (314 370)	143 (153 776)	17 499 (738 468)
Portugal <sup>4</sup>	5 016 (34 979)	190 (12 819)	61 (7 728)	120 (30 355)	74 (98 384)	5 461 (184 265)

*Note:*

<sup>1</sup> From 1977 onwards German fishing boats used for sport are no longer included in the figures.

<sup>2</sup> From 1970 onwards Greek artisanal boats are excluded from the data, although inland fishing is included.

<sup>3</sup> For the Netherlands, data includes boats on the Ysselmeer.

<sup>4</sup> Figures for Portugal include only motorized vessels.

## ANNEX 4

### Fishermen in the Community

(The number of full-time fishermen, where known, is given in brackets)

	1970	1975	1979	1980	1981	1982
Belgium	1 264 (1 264)	1 072 (1 072)	899 (899)	894 (894)	894 (894)	865 (865)
Germany	6 669 (6 507)	5 767 (5 350)	4 368 (4 136)	5 133 (3 815)	5 142 (3 687)	5 229 (3 679)
Denmark	15 457 (11 700)	15 316 (11 378)	14 800	14 700	14 600	14 500
France	35 799	32 172	22 548	22 019	21 255	20 177
Greece	50 000	47 000	45 500 (31 500)	46 500 (31 500)	46 500 (31 500)	
Ireland	5 862 (1 964)	6 482 (2 274)	8 711 (3 299)	8 824 (3 485)	8 740 (3 464)	8 975 (3 675)
Italy	62 045	65 000	40 000	34 000	34 000	
Netherlands	5 514	4 619	3 421	3 842	4 073	4 206
United Kingdom	21 651 (17 628)	22 970 (17 361)	21 906 (16 590)	23 289 (16 716)	23 927 (16 609)	23 358 (16 530)
European Community	111 291	153 398	116 653	112 701	159 131	
Spain	69 059	71 810	109 589	109 258	108 414	106 584
Portugal	35 309	30 562	37 422	35 579	37 251	

**Community imports and exports of fish  
in 1982 (in '000 ECU)**

	Exports	Imports
Germany	59 591	298 803
France	139 082	665 534
Italy	28 323	473 253
Netherlands	136 251	82 262
Belgium	4 271	104 651
United Kingdom	112 335	475 585
Ireland	37 748	2 584
Denmark	222 680	254 572
Greece	3 372	48 382
Community	742 557	2 405 686

## ANNEX 6

### Economic importance of fishing 1976

	Gross domestic product total at market prices in million ECU	Landings as percentage of gross domestic product	Total human consumption in 1000 tonnes	Per capita consumption in kilograms
Belgium + Luxembourg	59 645	0.044	135	13.26
Germany	397 959	0.036	473	7.69
Denmark	37 152	0.674	212	41.79
France	313 941	0.174	889	16.78
Greece	20 177	0.425	142	15.49
Ireland	7 353	0.335	43	13.32
Italy	168 421	0.189	551	9.81
Netherlands	81 272	0.192	168	12.20
United Kingdom	199 883	0.174	815	14.56
Community	1 267 667	0.166	3 287	12.70
Spain	96 793	0.971	1 042	29.00
Portugal	13 910	1.248	225	23.28

### 1981

Belgium + Luxembourg	85 491	0.043	134	13.10
Germany	614 161	0.022	511	8.28
Denmark	52 270	0.658	333	65.01
France	512 328	0.156	1 010	18.72
Greece	33 004	0.521	153	15.71
Ireland	15 015	0.373	54	16.57
Italy	315 177	0.197	539	9.42
Netherlands	126 316	0.179	129	9.06
United Kingdom	447 865	0.092	580	10.35
Community	2 205 094	0.127	3 545	13.05
Spain	167 283	0.811	985	32.19
Portugal	21 395	1.580	295	



**EAGGF expenditure under the EEC market organizations for fish products**  
('000 ECU)

	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
<b>Refunds</b>										
Belgium	—	259.8	156.4	363.3	16.9	93.7	240.9	76	57	106
Denmark	—	—	—	—	2 064.—	2 351.5	1 036.8	328	320	447
FR of Germany	4.9	132.7	130.8	77.5	500.1	753.3	652.9	1 144	1 181	1 213
France	34.1	86.4	168.7	34.0	128.6	94.2	95.9	289	186	85
Ireland	—	—	—	—	—	—	25.2	532	56	220
Italy	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Netherlands	—	2.1	0.3	—	—	59.9	656.0	2 349	4 003	5 441
United Kingdom	—	—	117.8	182.1	78.1	402.5	589.4	2 450	2 705	3 885
<b>Total</b>	<b>39.0</b>	<b>481.0</b>	<b>574.0</b>	<b>656.9</b>	<b>2 788.0</b>	<b>3 755.1</b>	<b>3 297.1</b>	<b>7 168</b>	<b>8 508</b>	<b>11 397</b>
<b>Withdrawals</b>										
Belgium	19.1	87.2	38.0	43.7	223.3	221.7	193.3	220	257	495
Denmark	—	—	—	0.8	637.6	747.5	174.5	109	265	808
FR of Germany	—	—	6.7	7.5	2 498.1	1 729.8	1 242.2	1 361	2 140	1 849
France	118.2	413.9	335.8	280.3	1 584.2	1 236.4	933.3	881	1 676	2 034
Ireland	—	—	—	—	—	322.9	207.5	231	440	810
Italy	—	—	—	—	—	—	36.3	2 889	3 232	4 057
Netherlands	—	266.2	233.9	179.5	870.8	946.6	506.8	248	345	737
United Kingdom	—	—	—	—	687.1	1 507.7	1 403.0	914	144	771
<b>Total</b>	<b>137.3</b>	<b>767.3</b>	<b>614.4</b>	<b>511.8</b>	<b>6 501.6</b>	<b>6 712.6</b>	<b>4 606.9</b>	<b>6 853</b>	<b>8 499</b>	<b>11 561</b>
<b>Grand total</b>	<b>176.3</b>	<b>1 248.3</b>	<b>1 188.4</b>	<b>1 168.7</b>	<b>9 289.4</b>	<b>10 467.7</b>	<b>7 904.—</b>	<b>14 021</b>	<b>17 007</b>	<b>22 958</b>

## ANNEX 8

**EAGGF intervention expenditure on each species is shown, for the Community as a whole in 1981,<sup>1</sup> in the following table:**

Products	ECU	
	A	B
Plaice	1 320 446	
Cod	708 633	
Hake	109 714	
Saithe	205 533	
Whiting	954 185	
Haddock	1 190 296	
Herring	1 084 907	
Sardines	2 797 461	
Mackerel	1 714 077	12 148 077
Shrimps	146 259	
Redfish	808 907	
Anchovies	3 996 533	
Others	—	153 252
Total	15 036 951	12 301 329

A = Financial compensation on withdrawal of the product from the market.

B = Export refunds.

<sup>1</sup> For Italy: 1980.

**EAGGF: Grants awarded**  
**(vessels – construction – modernization, aquaculture processing and marketing)**  
(Mio ECU)

Member State	1971-77			1978-82			1971-82		
	Number	Amount	%	Number	Amount	%	Number	Amount	%
FR of Germany	25	13 601	16.3	52	3 814	3.2	77	17 415	8.6
Belgium	12	1 610	1.9	12	1 024	0.9	24	2 634	1.3
Denmark	6	996	1.2	102	6 195	5.2	108	7 191	3.6
Greenland	5	764	0.9	20	1 738	1.5	25	2 502	1.3
Metropolitan	1	232	0.3	82	4 457	3.7	83	4 689	2.3
Greece	–	–	–	10	1 887	1.6	10	1 887	0.9
France	36	15 338	18.4	53	12 346	10.4	89	27 684	13.7
Oversea Depts.	–	–	–	5	962	0.8	5	962	0.5
Metropolitan	36	15 338	18.4	48	11 384	9.6	84	26 722	13.2
Ireland	66	10 777	12.9	123	19 204	16.2	189	29 981	14.8
Ireland	66	10 777	12.9	113	15 745	13.3	179	26 522	13.1
West Irl.	–	–	–	10	3 459	2.9	10	3 459	1.7
Italy	17	6 803	8.1	250	43 296	36.5	267	50 099	24.8
North	9	4 332	5.2	109	10 748	9.1	118	15 080	7.5
South	8	2 471	2.9	141	32 548	27.4	149	35 019	17.3
Netherlands	34	5 816	7.0	51	4 571	3.9	85	10 387	5.2
United Kingdom	188	28 625	34.2	262	26 156	22.1	450	54 781	27.1
England & Wales	54	10 323	12.3	83	6 662	5.6	137	16 985	8.4
Scotland	114	15 936	19.1	132	14 992	12.7	246	30 928	15.3
Northern Ireland	20	2 366	2.8	47	4 502	3.8	67	6 868	3.4
Total	384	83 566	100.0	915	118 493	100.0	1 299	202 059	100.0

**EAGGF Guidance Section: Grants awarded to inshore fishing  
(construction and modernization of fishing vessels)**

(Mio ECU)

Member State	1971 <sup>2</sup>	1972 <sup>2</sup>	1973 <sup>1</sup>	1974 <sup>1</sup>	1975 <sup>1</sup>	1976 <sup>2</sup>	1977 <sup>2</sup>	1978	1979 <sup>3</sup>	1980 <sup>4</sup>	1981 <sup>4</sup>	1982 <sup>4</sup>	Total 1973-1982	Member State
B	—	—	—	0.443	—	0.077	—		—	0.168	0.399	0.152	1.239	B
DK	—	—	—	—	0.375	—	0.389		1.108	0.291	0.662	1.389	4.214	DK
D	—	5.640	—	2.869	—	1.598	—		0.356	0.492	0.569	1.373	12.897	D
F	1.471	1.835	2.741	3.892	2.683	0.172	—		0.844	1.274	1.725	3.157	19.794	F
GR	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	1.247	1.247	GR
IRL	—	—	—	1.754	2.681	2.890	1.705		2.886	3.310	2.979	3.466	21.671	IRL
I	—	—	1.400	0.872	—	0.381	—		1.495	2.051	2.418	4.662	13.279	I
NL	—	—	2.157	2.141	—	—	—		1.783	—	0.547	0.954	7.582	NL
UK	—	—	1.174	4.652	6.410	8.875	0.798		6.548	4.077	4.240	4.220	40.994	UK
<b>Total</b>	<b>1.471</b>	<b>7.475</b>	<b>7.472</b>	<b>16.623</b>	<b>12.149</b>	<b>13.993</b>	<b>2.892</b>		<b>15.020</b>	<b>11.663</b>	<b>13.539</b>	<b>20.620</b>	<b>122.917</b>	

<sup>1</sup> Regulation 17/64 and Regulation 2272/72.

<sup>2</sup> Regulation 17/64.

<sup>3</sup> Regulation 17/64, last tranche, and Regulation 1852/78.

<sup>4</sup> Renewal of Regulation 1852/78.



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**The European Community's fishery policy**

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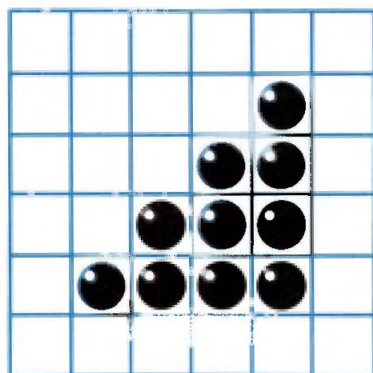
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