

The Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Authority is implementing the Representative Areas Program to help ensure better protection of the Marine Park's biodiversity. This will involve a review of the existing zoning throughout the Marine Park. This information sheet is part of a package of materials that help explain various technical elements of the Representative Areas Program and the zoning review.

Do no-take areas work?

Researchers have shown that no-take areas can reverse a decline in species' richness and genetic diversity. This effect has been seen in Tasmania, New Zealand, Belize, Kenya and elsewhere (Samoilys 1988, Cole et al. 1990, Barrett & Edgar 1999 in Ward et al 2001), and is likely elsewhere, including the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park (the Marine Park). However, the significance of the effect depends on the population dynamics and role of the target species in the community, the fishing intensity and selectivity, and whether habitats are impacted by extractive activities.

When humans take out the top predators of a system, such as carnivorous fish, that whole system can change. We can affect the entire food web if links in the food chains are broken. Once that human impact ceases, and provided the level of impact has not been catastrophic, the whole community adjusts back to a more natural state, more resilient to other human pressures (Jackson et al 2001).

Local fishers often bear more of the immediate burden of no-take areas. On the other hand, they are also likely to reap the benefits in the medium-term. Spill-over and recruitment of fish stocks from no-take areas to adjacent fished areas have been documented. Highly protected coral reef areas allow population densities of animals, including fish, to significantly increase over two to four years (Clark et al. 1989; Polunin & Roberts 1993; Roberts & Polunin 1994; Sluka et al. 1997, Williamson 2000).

As population densities increase inside no-take areas, we might expect mobile animals to move to the lower density areas. Tag and release studies of crustaceans (e.g. prawns) and fish show that these animals can and do travel sufficiently to move out of reserves (e.g. Attwood & Bennett 1994). If animals actually do move out of reserves, we would expect their densities adjacent to no-take areas to be greater than away from no-take areas. This is supported by data from Barbados and Apo Island in the Philippines (Rakitin & Kramer 1996; Russ & Alcala 1996).

Modelling studies have focused on the potential for recruitment of fish stocks in no-take areas (e.g. Bohnsack 1992, McGarvey & Willison 1995). This work indicated that closures of 20% could increase egg production significantly (1200-1500%). These increases reflect the disproportionate degree to which large adults produce more eggs than smaller adults. Empirical work by Murawski et al (in press) shows positive recruitment effects in reserves that had been closed to scallop fishing on Georges Bank, Canada, for four years.

Several studies show evidence of improvements in actual catch per unit effort due to no-take areas (McClanahan & Kaunda-Arara 1996; see also Ward et al. 2001). Fishers themselves seem informed about the benefits and spill-over effects of no-take areas. Roberts & Hawkins (2000) have documented the phenomenon of 'fishing the line', where fishers target areas close to the boundaries of no-take areas. This phenomenon would be unlikely to persist if the fisher's efforts were not successful. Altogether there is evidence that, in the medium- and long-term, fishers can expect to benefit from the GBRMPA's efforts to protect the biodiversity of the GBR region (Ward et al. 2001).

Increases in no-take areas will result in a displacement of fishing and collecting effort. The GBRMPA will try to minimise displacement of fisheries and work with the Queensland Government to ensure the ecological sustainability of fisheries overall, but there is concern about potential negative impacts caused by concentrating fishing effort.

Throughout the world, various types of marine reserves have been established without proportional reductions in fishing efforts. Studies exploring the effects on fish populations outside these reserves detected no harmful effect from displaced fishing effort (Roberts & Hawkins 2000). The only evidence of the effects of displacement, at Apo Island in the Philippines and St. Lucia, Caribbean, points to increases in populations of target fish outside reserves despite displaced effort (Russ & Alcala 1996, Roberts & Hawkins 1997). Crowder et al. (2000) also strongly support the implementation of marine protected areas with biodiversity conservation goals, reasoning that such areas can produce detectable benefits to fish stocks and so gain public support.

It is broadly recognised that the design and implementation of no-take areas must be undertaken in a collaborative and consultative way, to ensure reserves use local expertise and are respected by local stakeholders.

There is also an argument regarding imperfect compliance with the 'no-take' rule within no-take areas. No place in the world, including the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park, can ensure complete compliance to its natural resource management rules. Halpern (in press) reviewed 76 studies of reserves that were protected from at least one type of fishing. His study included reserves where some kinds of fishing were allowed, where protection had lapsed, or where there had been significant violations. Across all reserves, he found that fish density approximately doubled and that biomass (the total mass of all living creatures in a given location) increased to two and a half times that found in adjacent fished areas. He also found that the average fish body size increased by approximately one third and the number of species sampled increased by a third in comparison with non-reserve areas. Halpern's (in press) review suggests that failures in compliance do not make no-take areas ineffective. However, greater degrees of compliance will generate greater benefits.

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For more information, please, contact:

Great Barrier Reef Marine Park Authority

PO Box 1379, Townsville, 4810

Phone: 1 800 990 177 ;

Fax: 07 47726093

Email: info@gbmpa.gov.au

Web: www.gbrmpa.gov.au