

1 Human activities and resultant pressures on key European marine 2 habitats: an analysis of mapped resources

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25

26 Abstract

27

28 Human activities exert a wide range of pressures on species, habitats, and ecosystems. In
29 many cases human activities result to the degradation of marine ecosystems and our ability
30 to restore them from past damage and limit future impacts is hindered by a lack of
31 knowledge of the extent, duration and severity of the pressures on marine ecosystems.
32 Central to the development of effective policy and conservation interventions is an
33 understanding of where and when such activities and pressures occur. This study provides a
34 comprehensive assessment of mapped human activities and pressures acting on the marine
35 environment in European seas through an exhaustive review of published records, web
36 resources, and grey literature compiled by the EU H2020 project “Marine Ecosystem
37 Restoration in Changing European Seas” (MERCES). The results highlighted a number of
38 limitations and gaps, including: (a) limited geographic coverage both at the regional and
39 sub-regional levels; (b) insufficient spatial resolution and accuracy in recorded data for the
40 planning of conservation and restoration actions; (c) the lack of access to the background
41 data and metadata upon which maps are based, thus limiting the potential for synthesis of
42 multiple data sources. Based on the findings, several recommendations for future marine
43 research initiatives arise, most importantly the need for coordinated, geographically
44 extended baseline assessments of activities and pressures, complying with high-level
45 standardisation regarding methodological approaches and the treatment of produced data.

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47 **Keywords:** mapping; ecosystem restoration; marine spatial planning; conservation

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50 **1. Introduction**

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52 Human activities such as fisheries, transport, tourism, mining and energy generation exert
53 multiple pressures on the marine environment which contribute to ongoing habitat
54 degradation and loss (e.g. Airoidi & Beck, 2007; Korpinen et al. 2013). In turn, such changes
55 reduce the capacity of marine ecosystems to deliver valuable ecosystem services and
56 increase their sensitivity to future impacts such as those associated with climate change
57 (Ramirez-Llodra et al. 2011). In addition, they hamper progress towards global, regional and
58 national efforts to conserve, restore and sustainably use the marine environment, such as
59 UN Sustainable Development Goals, the EU Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD)
60 and Marine Biodiversity Strategy, Maritime Spatial Planning Directive (MSPD) and the EU
61 Blue Growth agenda (Cavallo et al. 2017).

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63 The degree to which human activities impact the marine environment is a function of: (i) the
64 pressures associated with an activity (e.g. the activity of fishing may exert the pressure of
65 abrasion on the seabed), (ii) the sensitivity of a specific habitat over the above pressures,
66 and (iii) the intensity and duration of the pressures and the spatial and temporal footprint
67 over which they occur. Spatial maps of activities and their associated pressures are
68 therefore essential to monitor, mitigate and reduce their impact, for example through
69 marine spatial planning (Ansong et al. 2017). Specifically, spatial information can be used to
70 highlight where action is needed to remove or reduce stressors (e.g. Stewart et al. 2010);
71 forms the basis of species and habitat vulnerability assessments (Lauria et al. 2017) and aids
72 the design and spatial arrangement of marine protected areas (Gonzalez-Mirelis et al. 2014).

73

74 Whilst global assessments of human impacts, such as those undertaken by Halpern et al.
75 (2008), outline broad scale patterns of human impact upon marine ecosystems, the degree
76 to which they accurately represent the magnitude and spatial patterns of human activities
77 and pressures at regional, national and local levels depends upon the representativeness of
78 the underlying data. Within Europe, significant effort has been expended documenting,
79 categorising and mapping human activities and their associated impacts (Coll et al. 2011;
80 Micheli et al. 2013; Korpinen and Andersen 2016), for example, through the MSFD (EC 2008;
81 Loizidou et al. 2017) and outputs from multiple EU projects and academic research. Despite
82 significant progress, there remain data gaps and a poor understanding of the temporal and
83 spatial elements of the activities and pressures (Costello et al. 2010; Korpinen et al. 2012;
84 Korpinen & Andersen 2016). Nevertheless, whilst such limitations and biases are known to
85 exist, the extent of data gaps and the degree to which they are spatially or temporally
86 distributed remains unclear. With this in mind, the aim of this paper is to produce for the
87 first time an inventory of available spatial information relating to anthropogenic activities
88 and pressures within European regional seas as defined by the MSFD, in order to identify
89 limitations and gaps in knowledge and help focus future research efforts and data collection
90 where it is most needed.

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93 **2. Methodology**

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95 *Activities and pressures of interest*

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97 Activities and pressures were defined as follows: *Activity* - a human action or endeavour
98 that has the potential to create pressures on the marine environment, e.g. aquaculture or
99 tourism (Scharin et al. 2016); *Pressure* - the mechanism through which an activity has an
100 actual (or potential) impact on the ecosystem (Robinson et al. 2008). Following Elliot (2011)
101 pressures are divided into two types: *endogenous*, i.e. those emanating from within the
102 system and are directly manageable (e.g. abrasion on the seabed caused by trawling
103 activities) and *exogenous*, i.e. those emanating from outside the system and cannot be
104 directly managed (e.g. a change in seabed morphology from tectonic events).

105

106 In total thirteen activities, as well as twenty-six endogenous and seven exogenous pressures
107 are considered (Table 1), based on those defined in the MSFD and Smith et al. (2016);
108 definitions and examples for those are provided in Table S1-Supplementary Material.

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110

111 **Table 1.** List of activities and pressures (endogenous and exogenous) acting on marine habitats that were
112 considered in the present study; definitions in Smith et al. (2016).

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Activities	Pressures (endogenous)	Pressures (exogenous)
Agriculture	Abrasion	Change in wave exposure
Carbon sequestration	Aesthetic pollution	Emergence regime change
Coastal and marine infrastructure	Barrier to species movement	Geomorphological changes
Defense and security	Change in wave exposure (local)	pH changes
Extraction of living resources	Changes in siltation and light regime	Salinity regime change
Extraction of non-living resources	Collision	Thermal regime change
Land-based industry	Electromagnetic changes	Water flow rate changes
Non-renewable energy generation	Emergence regime change (local)	
Production of living resources	Input of organic matter	
Renewable energy generation	Introduction of microbial pathogens	
Research and conservation	Introduction of non-synthetic compounds	
Tourism/recreation	Introduction of other substances	
Transport	Introduction of radionuclides	
	Introduction of synthetic compounds	
	Introduction/translocations of non-indigenous species	
	Litter	
	Nitrogen and phosphorus enrichment	
	Noise	
	pH changes (local)	
	Salinity regime change	
	Selective extraction of non-living resources	
	Selective extraction of species	
	Smothering	
	Substratum loss	
	Thermal regime change	
	Water flow rate changes (local)	

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116 *Sourcing and inventorying information*

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118 A systematic literature search was conducted to identify spatial information relating to
119 activities and pressures within European regional seas (see below for a full list and relevant
120 definitions). A standard web search was performed, supplemented with queries in two
121 research databases (ISI Web of Science and Scopus) in order to ensure full coverage of the
122 published evidence. Searches were targeted using keywords and keyword combinations
123 relating to mapping of the activities and pressures taken into account within the area of
124 interest (a full list of keywords used is provided in Table S2-Supplementary Material). The first
125 100 results of each search, ranked by relevance, were examined for extraction of relevant
126 information. Specific web resources of international organizations, commissions and
127 agencies active on marine conservation (EEA, IUCN, UNEP-MAP-RAC/SPA, HELCOM, OSPAR,
128 FAO, OCEANA, MarLIN) and European projects registered in the European Marine Spatial
129 Planning platform (e.g. MEDTRENDS, CoCoNet, MESMA, PERSEUS, ADRIPLAN, THAL-CHOR,
130 BALANCE) were also queried for all available material (including downloadable reports). The
131 results of the above search were complemented by input from the MERCES consortium
132 experts who were asked to provide potentially missing data entries based on their thematic
133 expertise and regional knowledge. Searches extend to all records available as of the end of
134 2016.

135

136 An inventory was assembled, cataloguing the following information for each resource
137 identified:

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139 1. The specific activities and pressures considered (see above for categorization).

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141 2. The region and subregion of spatial coverage; this includes:

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143 • The MSFD region of the study: Baltic Sea; North-East Atlantic; Mediterranean Sea;
144 Black Sea or Other (such as Norwegian waters, or seafloor banks in the international
145 waters of North-East Atlantic).

146 • The sub-region: North-East Atlantic (Greater North Sea, including the Kattegat, and
147 the English Channel; Celtic Seas; Bay of Biscay and the Iberian Coast), Macaronesian
148 biogeographic region (Azores; Madeira and Canary Islands), the Mediterranean Sea
149 (Western Mediterranean; Central Mediterranean; Adriatic; Ionian and the Aegean-
150 Levantine Sea).

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152 3. The particular habitat type examined (see below for categorization), if applying; lacking
153 specific indication regarding habitat, the source was characterized as 'broad-scale'.

154

155 4. The type of information provided: map image; map viewer (interactive image on-line); GIS
156 georeferenced file.

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158 5. The source of information: on-line resource/website; scientific paper; report; conference
159 proceedings; expert/unpublished.

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162 *Habitats over which activities and pressures take place*

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164 Fifteen habitats or keystone species of high ecological importance, conservation interest
165 and/or those which are known to be particularly sensitive to -or threatened by- human
166 activities (e.g. EU Habitat Directive 92/43/EEC, OSPAR List of Threatened and/or Declining
167 Species and Habitats, OSPAR 2008, UNEP/MAP-SPA/RAC 2018 Annex II List of Endangered or
168 threatened species, Ramirez-Llodra et al. 2011; Smith et al. 2014) were identified for the
169 cataloguing purposes in the present study, as outlined below:

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171 Sublittoral soft-bottom:

- 172 • Seagrass beds (*Posidonia*, *Zostera*, other seagrasses)
- 173 • Other

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175 Sublittoral hard-bottom:

- 176 • Maërl beds
- 177 • Coralligenous formations
- 178 • Gorgonian forests and sponge beds
- 179 • Macroalgal forests/beds (*Cystoseira* or other canopy-forming algae)
- 180 • Other

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182 Deep-sea (>200 m depth):

- 183 • Coral gardens
- 184 • Sponge aggregations
- 185 • Mixed coral/sponge aggregations
- 186 • Seamounts
- 187 • Hydrothermal vents
- 188 • Carbonate mounds
- 189 • Canyons
- 190 • Other

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192 Broad-scale:

- 193 • No specific habitat identified

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196 **3. Results**

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198 In total, 264 records with relevant information were collected and included to the analysis,
199 of which 194 included maps of activities, 147 included maps of endogenous pressures, and
200 43 included maps of exogenous pressures. A considerable number (101) reported both
201 activities and endogenous pressures.

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203 *Information by source and format*

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205 Nearly half of the sourced records (49%) originated from peer-reviewed journals (Figure 1A).
206 However, a substantial amount of information was derived from grey literature, at a 27%
207 from project reports; 19% from web resources; 4% from conference proceedings and 1%
208 from unpublished information (unpublished data/expert opinion). The majority of records

209 contained just map images (86%), with interactive map viewers limited to 9%, and
 210 downloadable georeferenced files (e.g. shapefiles) to 5% (Figure 1B).
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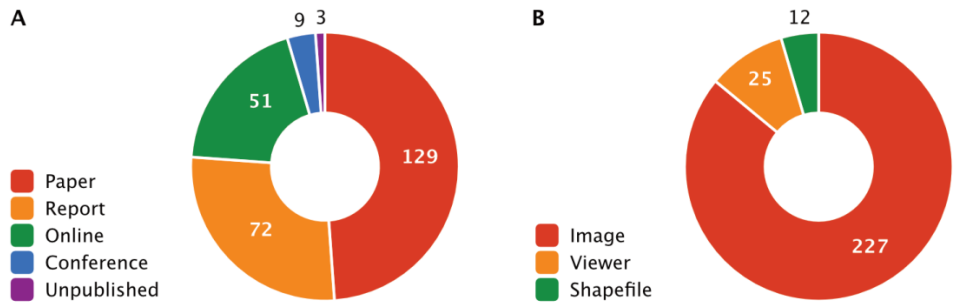


Figure 1. Sources (A) and format (B) of records containing spatial information on anthropogenic activities and/or pressures.

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Information by geographic area

The majority of records were from the Mediterranean Sea (39%) and the North-East Atlantic (27%); with the Baltic and Black Seas represented to a much lesser extent (16% and 14%, respectively) (Figure 2). At the sub-regional level, the North-East Atlantic was represented mostly by records from the Greater North Sea and the Celtic Seas (54% and 31%, respectively); a small portion of records (6%) included maps at the regional scale. Regarding the Mediterranean Sea, all four MSFD sub-regions were represented, and a significant portion of records (27%) included maps at a pan-Mediterranean scale. “Other” regions (i.e. records with a global coverage, those covering the entire European continent, sub-regions outside the EU, or regions which are not MSFD-relevant) represented 16% of the records.

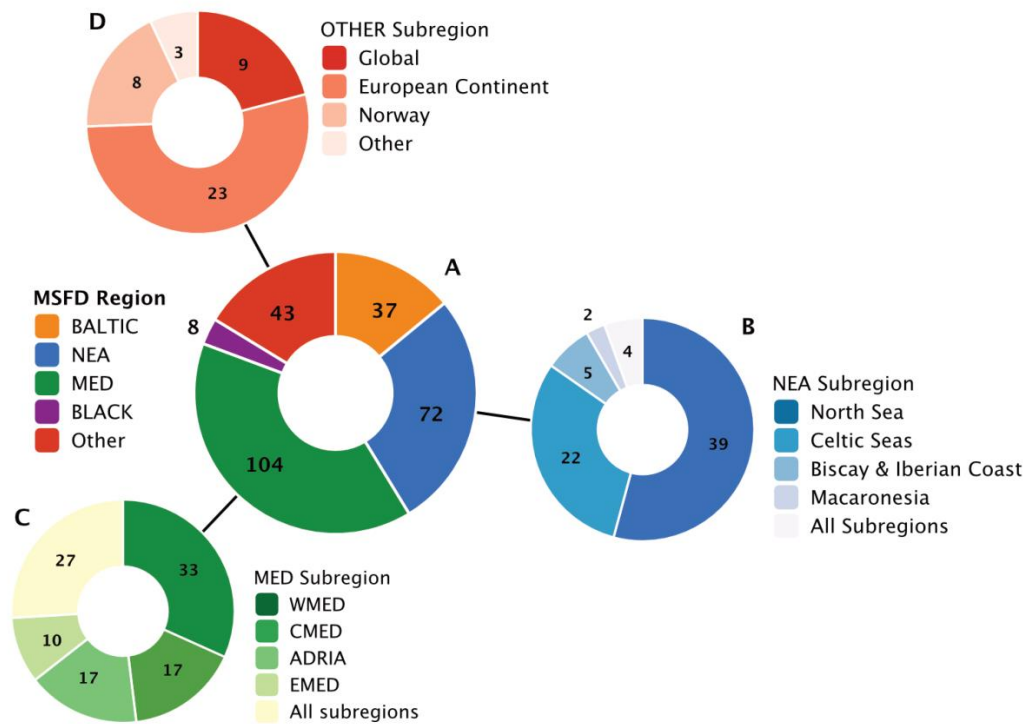


Figure 2. Number of records for European regions and sub-regions. A) Regional seas (BALTIC: Baltic Sea; BLACK: Black Sea; MED: Mediterranean Sea; NEA: North-East Atlantic; Other: Other regional sea), B) North-East Atlantic sub-region, C) Mediterranean Sea sub-regions (WMED: Western Mediterranean; CMED: Central Mediterranean; ADRIA: Adriatic; EMED: Eastern Mediterranean), and D) Non-MSFD regions.

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229

230 *Information by habitat*

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232 Seventy-five percent of the records were characterised as ‘broad scale’, spanning multiple
 233 habitats and depth zones without any further details provided (Figure 3). Of the remaining
 234 25%, the majority covered general shallow hard and soft habitats, such as coralligenous
 235 reefs (including gorgonian forests), euphotic reefs with macroalgal forests, and seagrass
 236 beds. Within the deep-sea category (accounting for 6% of the total records), activities and
 237 pressures were most frequently mapped over canyons and coral beds.

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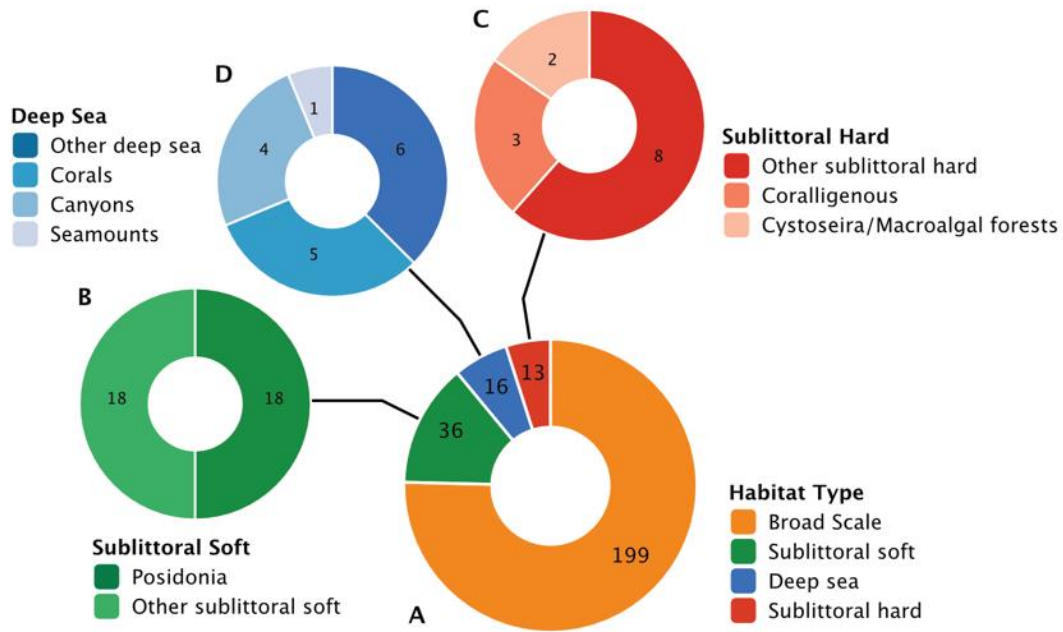


Figure 3. The number of records per habitat type (A), broken down by sublittoral soft (B), sublittoral hard (C) and (D) deep-sea habitats.

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The paucity of information relating to specific habitat types was consistent across all geographic sub-regions, although the relative percentages differed (Figure 4). Within the Mediterranean Sea, 45% of the records referred to specific habitats, with smaller percentages seen in the remaining regions. In the Baltic and Black Seas, only “sublittoral soft bottom” habitats were identified.

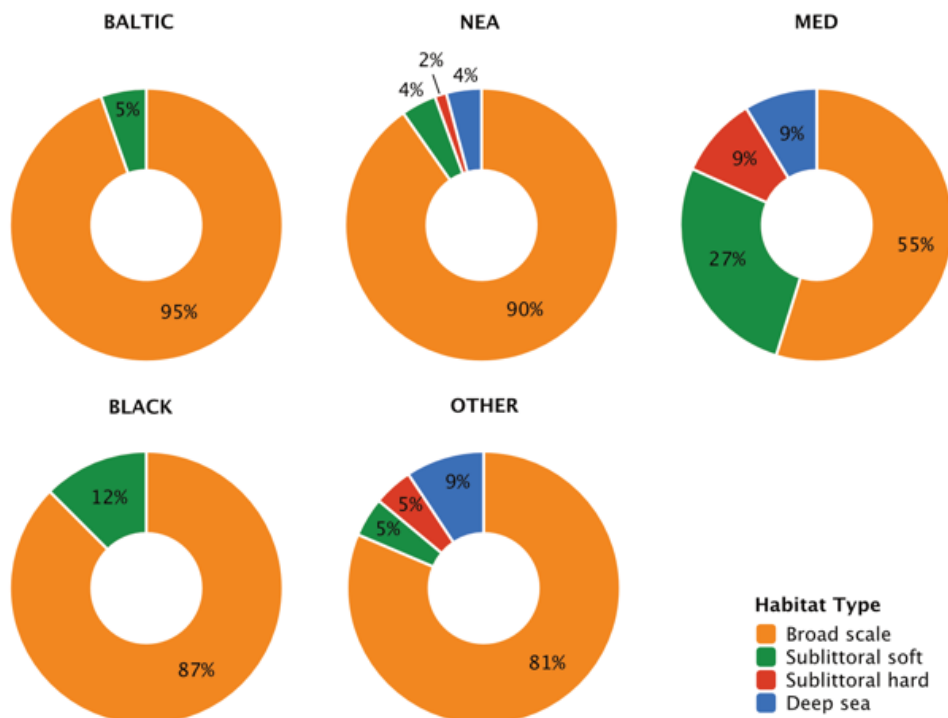


Figure 4. The number of records of habitat types by geographic region (for abbreviations see Figure 2).

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Information by activity

“Extraction of living resources” was found to be the most frequently mapped activity represented in 39% of the records (Figure 5). “Coastal and marine structure and Infrastructure”, “Transport” and “Production of living resources” were the next most frequent, mapped in 29%, 27%, and 26% of the records, respectively. “Research and conservation” was relatively poorly represented (only 8%), whilst “Carbon sequestration” (i.e. offshore CO₂ storage requiring seabed intervention) and “Agriculture” had the lowest number of records.

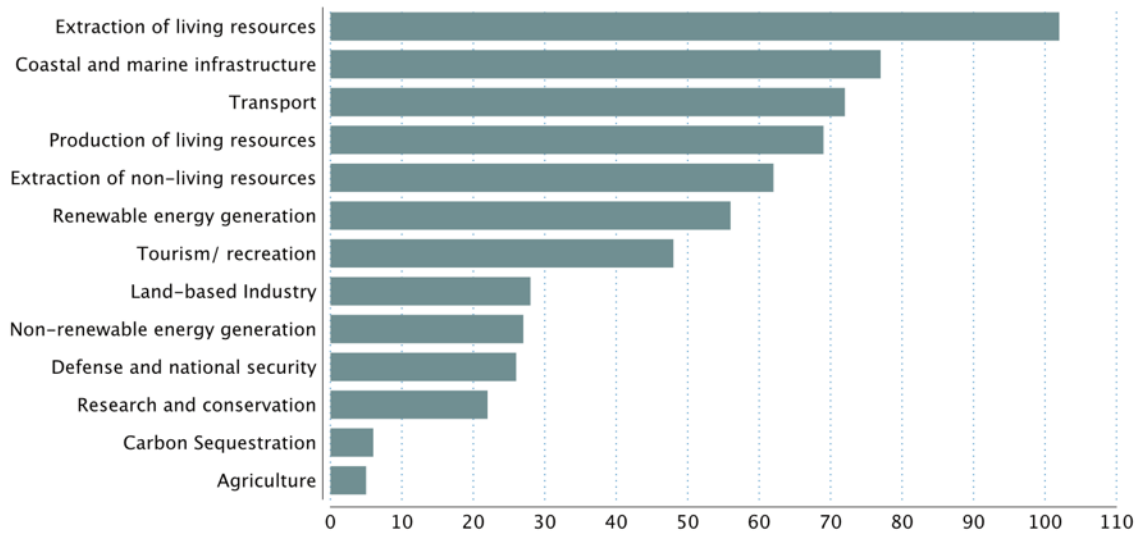


Figure 5. Mapped activities ranked by number of records.

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Records of all activities occurred in the North-East Atlantic, Mediterranean and Baltic Seas (Figure 6) but their relative importance varied. An abundance of mapped sources for “Production of living resources” (i.e. aquaculture) and “Tourism/recreation” were retrieved for the Mediterranean Sea, reflecting the importance of these sectors in the specific region. Correspondingly, mapping of “Extraction of non-living resources” and “Renewable energy generation” was pronounced in the North-East Atlantic, similar to “Transport” in the Baltic Sea and Norway.

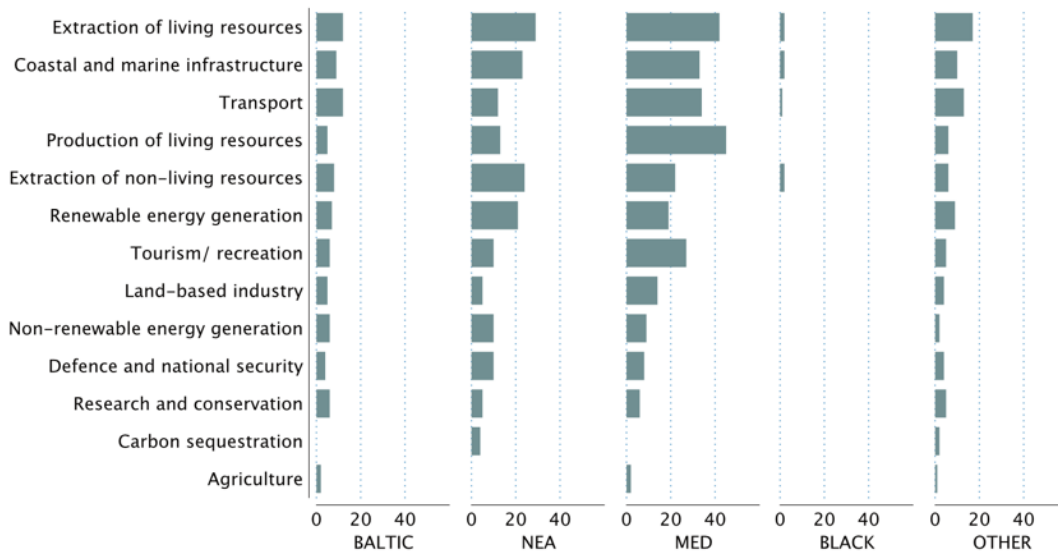


Figure 6. Mapped activities by geographic region (for abbreviations see Figure 2).

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275 *Information by endogenous pressure*

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277 Overall, pressures relating to chemical substances and chemical influxes accounted for the
 278 highest number of records, with “Nitrogen and phosphorous enrichment”, “Introduction of
 279 other substances” and “Input of organic matter” present in 17%, 15%, and 13% of the
 280 records, respectively (Figure 7). Of the other endogenous pressures that collectively
 281 accounted for more than 20% of the records, “Abrasion”, “Introduction of non-indigenous
 282 species” and input of “Litter” were the most frequently noted. There were only a few
 283 records relating to local “Thermal regime changes”, input of “Underwater noise”, “Selective
 284 extraction of non-living resources”, and “Barriers to species movement”.

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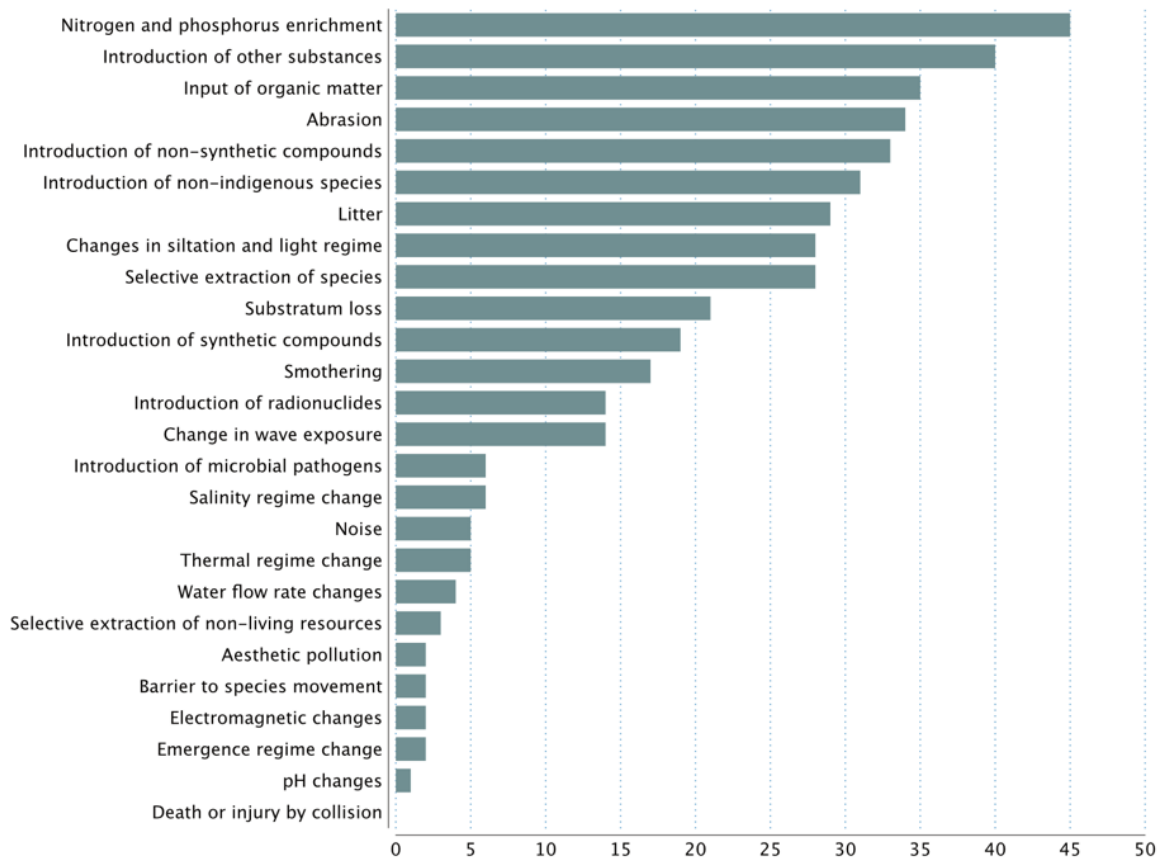


Figure 7. Mapped endogenous pressures ranked by number of records.

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289 The majority of important endogenous pressures are recorded in all the regions examined,
 290 with relative importance varying regionally (Figure 8). “Introduction of non-indigenous
 291 species” and “Litter” are frequently mapped in the Mediterranean Sea, while local “Change
 292 in wave exposure” appears only mapped in the specific region. Hydrological change and
 293 other physical disturbance-related pressures (e.g. “Smothering”, “Abrasion”) are most often
 294 mapped in the North-East Atlantic. Introduction of substances such as non-synthetic
 295 compounds and radionuclides is relatively more frequently mapped in the Baltic Sea.
 296 Notably, no collective litter maps for the latter region have been available by HELCOM to
 297 day. The Black Sea appears relatively deprived regarding mapped sources of pressures
 298 acting on its marine environment.

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Figure 8. Mapped endogenous pressures by geographic region (for abbreviations see Figure 2).

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303 *Information by exogenous pressure*

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305 Overall, “Thermal” and “Emergence” regime changes (wide-area, e.g. climate-induced
 306 change) were the most frequent exogenous pressures identified in the records (13% and
 307 9%, respectively), followed by changes in pH (Figure 9). In general, there is limited
 308 information and regional maps of exogenous pressures with slightly more for the
 309 Mediterranean and other regions (Figure 10).

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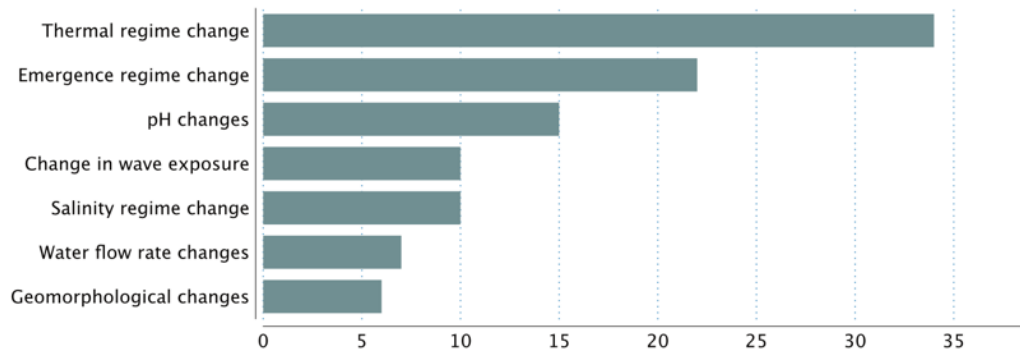


Figure 9. Mapped exogenous pressures ranked by number of records

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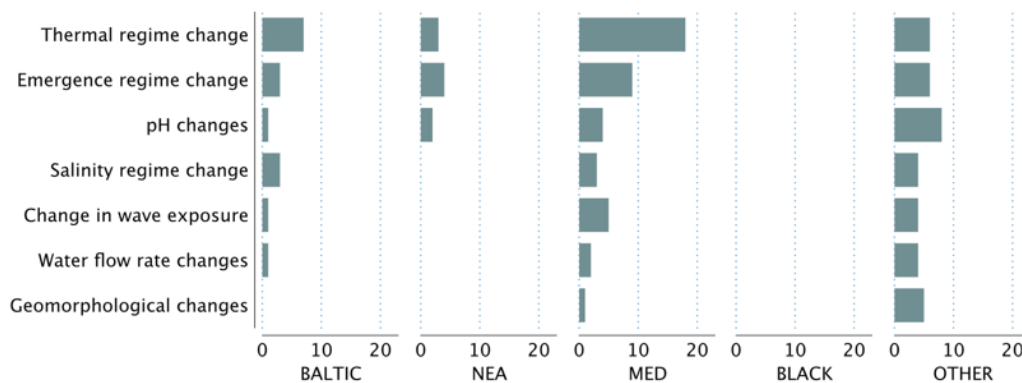


Figure 10. Mapped exogenous pressures by geographic region (for abbreviations see Figure 2).

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4. Discussion

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318 European seas and adjacent coastal areas have a long history of intense development and
 319 are of significant economic importance to the region (Randone et al. 2017), having been
 320 valued at 500 to 1000 billion Euros for the economic assets within 500 metres of coastline
 321 (EEA 2007). Consequently, they are also among the most severely degraded marine systems
 322 worldwide (e.g. Coll et al. 2011; Benn et al. 2010; Costello et al. 2010). Recently, an
 323 increased political and societal awareness of the condition of the marine environment and a
 324 recognition of its importance to society have resulted to concerted efforts to transition to a
 325 more sustainable and ecologically conscious future (Boyes et al. 2014; 2016). This has
 326 resulted in substantial time and funds being spent on classifying, documenting and mapping
 327 human activities and pressures in European waters (e.g. through the Water Framework
 328 Directive along with the MSFD and MSPD, work by the European Environmental Agency,
 329 EMODnet, OSPAR and HELCOM and an array of research efforts such as the VECTORS,
 330 DEVOTES, PERSEUS, BENTHIS, ADRIPLAN and Med-IAMER projects). However, due to
 331 differences in capacity between regions and institutions, and biases in political and scientific
 332 focus, the current level of knowledge is fragmented and incomplete.

333

334 The comprehensive review and analysis undertaken here highlights limitations and gaps in
335 our current level of understanding, which –if filled– would provide crucial information to
336 support conservation, policy, and economic sectors.

337

338 *Coverage of human activities and pressures*

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340 The extraction of living resources is the most frequently documented activity and is
341 generally expressed as the area of fishing activity, the amount of catch, the size of the
342 fishing fleet or fishing effort. Such information, supplemented by new data from Vessel
343 Monitoring Systems (VMS), render this activity easy to track and quantify, resulting in maps
344 of varying spatial scale and adequate detail (e.g. see Eigaard et al. 2016; Benn et al. 2010).
345 However, accurate catch data are not always available (Piroddi et al. 2015; 2017), while the
346 coverage is at present incomplete due to the absence of VMS data for certain fleets (e.g.
347 small artisanal) but also due to the confidentiality of the data. The production of living
348 resources, which relates to aquaculture, is also relatively well-documented. This information
349 tends to be documented and mapped at the national level and, as a result, data can be
350 combined to provide a regional overview (e.g. Trujillo et al. 2012). Oil and gas exploitation
351 and exploration is another commonly mapped activity (e.g. Piante & Ody 2015), with
352 information available on the location of pipelines and landing points. Due to the fact that
353 such operations are often planned years into the future, in addition to the existing location
354 of activity, it is also possible to obtain potential locations which is an asset for spatial
355 conservation planning and in balancing the competing demands for space in the ocean.

356

357 As far as pressures are concerned, many endogenous pressures are commonly represented
358 in maps, such as the introduction of chemicals and compounds (e.g. EEA, 2015), marine
359 litter (e.g. Pham et al., 2014) and abrasion (usually directly linked to trawling patterns and
360 intensity, e.g. Eigaard et al. 2016). However, other pressures appear to be under-
361 represented (e.g. underwater noise or change in wave exposure), or absent (e.g. death of
362 large vertebrates, such as cetaceans, by collision). This may be because these pressures are
363 not significant in particular study areas, or more likely, because they are not frequently
364 assessed (underwater noise for example was only recently made a priority for assessment
365 under the MSFD, and knowledge gaps hamper assessments, see Crise et al. 2015) and when
366 they are, they are not mapped at broad scales.

367

368 Compared to endogenous pressures, the location and intensity of exogenous pressures are
369 very poorly documented. Whilst warming trends, sea-level rise and acidification are
370 mapped, albeit to a lesser extent, other pressures such as changes in salinity and water flow
371 are somewhat neglected, despite the significant impact they can have on marine species
372 and ecosystems (Harley et al. 2006; Danovaro et al. 2017) and their high ranking as drivers
373 of environmental change among experts (Boonstra et al. 2015).

374

375 There is also variation in relation to how the activities and pressures are mapped, and the
376 degree to which they were quantified, which is often related to the nature and type of the
377 activity (i.e. fixed or mobile). Specifically, locations of mining or hydrocarbon extraction, fish
378 farms, shipping routes, locations of ports are predominately mapped as geographic points
379 indicating the presence of the activity, while other activities, such as fishing effort, density

380 of marine traffic, intensity of tourism, are depicted as concentrations of activities over set
381 areas.

382
383 *Breakdown by region(s)*

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385 Regional cooperation is of paramount importance for a number of flagship EU directives and
386 policies (e.g. MSFD, MSPD), as well as the sustainable management of resources (e.g. shared
387 fish stocks – Heffernan 2014) and the attainment of conservation goals (e.g. managing non-
388 indigenous species – Katsanevakis et al. 2015); it is therefore important that comparable
389 attention is given to all regions and that additional research effort is directed to those areas
390 that are data deficient.

391
392 The majority of mapped resources covers the Mediterranean Sea and North-East Atlantic,
393 presumably due to the highly active scientific fora and advisory bodies such as CIESM and
394 ICES and the long history of human use and exploitation –but also baseline research– in
395 these areas. In addition to specific regions, a substantial portion of records is on the global
396 or European scale, an expected outcome since those arise from much larger scale initiatives
397 (e.g. Nelleman et al. 2009).

398
399 The Baltic Sea is especially well documented in terms of pressures (Korpinen et al. 2012),
400 biodiversity (Ojaveer et al. 2010) and impacts (e.g. HELCOM 2009) and has several
401 functional, basin-wide management programmes coordinated through the Helsinki
402 Commission (HELCOM). The lower number of records from the Baltic Sea is not related to
403 data deficiency, but –contrastingly– is the result of great efforts made by HELCOM in
404 synthesizing available information and different data sources in harmonised pan-Baltic
405 maps; this coordinating effort renders a substantial amount of data available at the pan-
406 Baltic level and therefore has high information value.

407
408 In comparison, the Black Sea, which is 30% larger than the Baltic Sea, only has a small
409 number of records and is certainly under-represented in terms of mapping initiatives and
410 available data. The difference between these two regional seas is likely attributable to a
411 reduced research effort and/or limited communication/publication of study results in the
412 Black Sea region. Nevertheless, this is likely to change in the future as several initiatives
413 have recently been launched in the region which will increase the state of knowledge (e.g.
414 through IP projects such as MARSPLAN-BS, MISIS, CoCoNet and PERSEUS). Furthermore, the
415 European Commission is also supporting research institutes and public stakeholders from all
416 Black Sea countries to pool together existing data in order to create a single digital map of
417 the Black Sea seabed, including its geology, habitats and marine life (based on the
418 EMODNET example).

419
420 *Breakdown by habitat(s)*

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422 The majority of reviewed maps do not indicate the presence of, or impact on, specific
423 habitats. While this is in part due to the scope of the present analysis (i.e. to identify maps
424 documenting activities/pressures at the regional or national level), it also highlights a clear
425 limitation in our current knowledge. Whilst it is possible to overlay maps of activities and
426 pressures with habitat distribution and make inferences regarding the impact, quantifiable

427 evidence is obviously more informative; thus, refined data on the distribution and intensity
428 of human pressures should ideally be coupled with habitat-specific calibration of thresholds
429 in impact scores to provide a more realistic picture of the severity of cumulative impact
430 across habitats (e.g. see Bevilacqua et al. 2018).

431

432 *Contextual information*

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434 Context is essential to help translate maps of activities and pressures from indicators of
435 possible impact to more detailed indicators of likely impact (Andersen & Stock 2013,
436 Stelzenmüller et al. 2018) and therefore increase their utility to inform adaptive
437 management policies and develop successful restoration projects. For example, whilst a
438 specific activity (e.g. fishing) has the potential to cause a specific pressure (e.g. abrasion),
439 the latter may only apply in a particular location (e.g. where a specific habitat is present) or
440 time period (Puig et al. 2012). Furthermore, even if a pressure is present, its impact upon
441 the marine environment will vary as a function of its timing, frequency, intensity, duration
442 and spatial footprint (Knights et al. 2015). Cumulative pressure impact assessments try to
443 account for some of these issues although other challenges remain, for example: (i) non-
444 linear pressure responses and non-additive (antagonistic or synergistic) pressure effects are
445 not well understood (Halpern & Fujita 2013) and (ii) modelled outputs from large basin-wide
446 studies (e.g. Halpern et al. 2008; Korpinen et al. 2012; Micheli et al. 2013; Goodsir et al.
447 2015) have questionable ability to represent real conditions at the local scale (Guarnieri et
448 al. 2016) although finer scale applications at the habitat level do begin to appear
449 (Bevilacqua et al. 2018).

450

451 Contextual information generally tended to be lacking: whilst certain types of information
452 (e.g. VMS) have highly accurate geo-positioning (10 m accuracy), their frequency of
453 recording is low and by the time the data are processed and made available, the activity is
454 often presented at a coarser 2000 m resolution; differences in the spatial resolution of the
455 fishing pressure in maps result in significant differences as to where the footprint of the
456 activity is placed, especially in areas where depth changes occur, and therefore in an
457 assessment of the habitats affected (Eigaard et al. 2016). Yet, these limitations can be
458 overcome in the near future via widespread use of real-time Automatic Identification
459 System (AIS) and public release of VMS data (Kroodsma et al. 2018).

460

461 The same is true for interpolated maps based on modelled data, which are often relatively
462 coarse in scale. Such limitations make it difficult to infer the true extent of an activity at
463 local levels, and therefore efforts to implement effective regulatory policies are hindered. In
464 addition, modelled “footprints” of activity often lack actual parameters on intensity,
465 temporal variation, and duration. Furthermore, the majority of maps depict a single
466 snapshot in time and, as such, it is difficult to infer the frequency over which certain
467 pressures and activities operate and to project future trends.

468

469 The coastal zone is crowded and subjected to an ever-increasing demand for space (EEA
470 2015). A better understanding of the temporal patterns of human activities will aid the
471 development of more efficient spatial plans and will facilitate the integration of planning
472 where hotspots of human pressure occur and where critical habitats and species’
473 movements (e.g. migrations or spawning and breeding areas) are present and in need for

474 conservation in order to reduce negative impacts (Colloca et al. 2015). In addition, the
475 majority of data sources do not provide downloadable georeferenced files. This hampers
476 efforts to make inferences for certain sensitive habitats or determine the actual spatial
477 footprint of activities from which impacts can be derived; consequently, the lack of
478 georeferenced files limits the usability of the data for further synthesis, analyses and
479 conservation planning.

480
481 A specific attempt to produce a census of available maps of key European marine habitats
482 has been recently completed by Bekkby et al. (2017). Furthermore, whilst it was outside the
483 scope of this review, there is also a pressing need to combine activity and pressure maps
484 with biological information to obtain a more nuanced understanding of the degree of
485 impact (Eigaard et al. 2016; Rijnsdorp et al. 2016).

486

487 *Summary of gaps, limitations and recommended next steps*

488

- 489 • **Static data:** The majority of spatial information is limited to images of maps, greatly
490 reducing their usability and applicability to other studies. These images are static in time,
491 while activities and pressures in marine habitats (as well as the marine habitats
492 themselves) are temporally dynamic.
- 493 • **Potential interactions between pressures:** Pressures can interact in complex ways, and
494 cumulative and non-additive effects have been demonstrated to be common in nature.
495 However, precise knowledge regarding interaction between pressures and causative
496 effects of human activities are still lacking.
- 497 • **Spatial resolution:** Maps are usually broad-scale and low-resolution. This has
498 considerable implications for precision and accuracy. While low resolution information
499 may be sufficient for setting conservation priorities (see Giakoumi et al. 2015) it cannot
500 be considered appropriate for actual conservation, effective management, and
501 restoration actions.
- 502 • **Modelled data:** A number of the maps contain high levels of modelled/predicted data
503 with a great degree of interpolation between actual data points. This has the potential to
504 increase the uncertainty of the information and may limit its utility to policy makers and
505 conservation practitioners. In current maps with modelled data, estimates of uncertainty
506 are rarely provided.
- 507 • **Geographic coverage:** In European seas, geographic under-representation is an issue in
508 the current information, both at regional (e.g. Black Sea) and sub-basin (e.g. Eastern
509 Mediterranean Sea) levels.
- 510 • **Hotspots of conflict between activities and habitats:** There is a lack of maps which
511 simultaneously identify where high human activity coincides with vulnerable key habitats
512 (important in the planning and geographic positioning of MPAs).
- 513 • **Representation of habitats:** Some habitats (e.g. seagrass meadows) have more
514 information than others (e.g. seamounts). This is most likely due to their use by many
515 stakeholders, their perceived or legislative importance, or their accessibility for study.
- 516 • **Representation of activities and pressures:** Maps of exogenous pressures are generally
517 lacking. There is a bias in the types of activities and pressures mapped, with a greater
518 focus on resource exploitation activities with a long history (such as fishing or mining)
519 and a lesser emphasis on emergent activities and pressures (such as changes in thermal
520 conditions or noise stemming from new subsea installations such as tidal power).

521 • **Information availability:** Grey literature (e.g. dissemination publications, technical and
522 project reports) is an important source for useful activities/pressure maps and can
523 expand the knowledge that can be obtained by standard ISI journals; however, these
524 sources are not directly visible or easily retrievable through standard literature platforms.
525

526 Based on the above, it is recommended that future mapping initiatives should focus on the
527 following:
528

529 • **Generating geo-referenced data:** Open access, geo-referenced data on pressures and
530 activities as well as habitat extent and condition are in high demand for assessments of
531 ecosystem status and health, as well as of cumulative effects. The present study
532 recommends future maps should contain georeferenced information that is easily
533 accessible for use in marine management and conservation efforts.

534 • **Filling gaps in knowledge:** The study also recommends filling in the geographical and
535 temporal gaps (by digitization of old/historical maps and incorporating fragmented
536 information, e.g. Martin et al. 2014; Telesca et al. 2015) and supporting regional and
537 national mapping initiatives (with dedicated service calls and appropriate funding to
538 compensate for the current trend for reduced government budgets (Borja & Elliott,
539 2013).

540 • **Linking habitat, activity, and pressure data:** To better understand how different habitats
541 are affected, or could be affected by pressures, it is necessary to map both habitats and
542 pressures at the same scale and in the same area. This will enable effective conservation
543 and mitigation efforts.

544 • **Gaining high-level standardization:** The role of transnational and intergovernmental
545 organizations such as the EU, but also OSPAR, HELCOM, UNEP-MAP and the Barcelona
546 and Black Sea commissions, is crucial in the production, standardization, and integration
547 of data with universal approaches and balanced geographical representativeness.
548

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557
558

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