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1 Essential coastal habitats for fish in the Baltic Sea

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33 **ABSTRACT**

34 Many coastal and offshore fish species are highly dependent on specific habitat
35 types for population maintenance. In the Baltic Sea, shallow productive habitats in the
36 coastal zone such as wetlands, vegetated flads/lagoons and sheltered bays as well as
37 more exposed rocky and sandy areas are utilised by fish across many life history stages
38 including spawning, juvenile development, feeding and migration. Although there is
39 general consensus about the critical importance of these essential fish habitats (EFH) for
40 fish production along the coast, direct quantitative evidence for their specific roles in
41 population growth and maintenance is still scarce. Nevertheless, for some coastal

42 species, indirect evidence exists, and in many cases, sufficient data are also available to
43 carry out further quantitative analyses. As coastal EFH in the Baltic Sea are often found
44 in areas that are highly utilized and valued by humans, they are subjected to many
45 different pressures. While cumulative pressures, such as eutrophication, coastal
46 construction and development, climate change, invasive species and fisheries, impact
47 fish in coastal areas, the conservation coverage for EFH in these areas remains poor.
48 This is mainly due to the fact that historically, fisheries management and nature
49 conservation are not integrated neither in research nor in management in Baltic Sea
50 countries. Setting joint objectives for fisheries management and nature conservation
51 would hence be pivotal for improved protection of EFH in the Baltic Sea. To properly
52 inform management, improvements in the development of monitoring strategies and
53 mapping methodology for EFH are also needed. Stronger international cooperation
54 between Baltic Sea states will facilitate improved management outcomes across
55 ecologically arbitrary boundaries. This is especially important for successful
56 implementation of international agreements and legislative directives such as the Baltic
57 Sea Action Plan, the Marine Strategy Framework Directive, the Habitats Directive, and
58 the Maritime Spatial Planning Directive, but also for improving the communication of
59 information related to coastal EFH among researchers, stakeholders, managers and
60 decision makers. In this paper, efforts are made to characterize coastal EFH in the Baltic
61 Sea, their importance and the threats/pressures they face, as well as their current
62 conservation status, while highlighting knowledge gaps and outlining perspectives for
63 future work in an ecosystem-based management framework.

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66

67 1. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

68

69 Fish are central for the functioning of food webs and ecosystems in the Baltic Sea
70 (Österblom et al. 2007, Östman et al. 2016), and are broadly used in environmental
71 monitoring as indicators for ecosystem status and health (Bergström et al. 2016ab). Fish
72 are also important in socio-economic terms, such as for commercial and recreational
73 fisheries (Holmlund and Hammer 1999). The geographical distribution and occurrence
74 of fish in the Baltic Sea, and thereby the species composition of fish communities, differ
75 over both large and small scales. Fish distributions are largely driven by spatiotemporal
76 differences in natural biotic and abiotic factors as well as by human pressures
77 (Bergström et al. 2016a, Östman et al. 2017). The same habitat may have only one or
78 several functions during different seasons with regard to e.g. spawning, feeding and
79 overwintering for the same or different species (Aro 1989, Vetemaa et al. 2006).
80 Examples of common gradients and factors that are determining fish distribution are
81 salinity, temperature, depth, pollution, eutrophication, predation, food availability,
82 fishing pressure, and also the availability and conditions of coastal essential fish habitats
83 (EFH) which is the focus of this review article (Leppäkoski and Bonsdorff 1989, Sparholt
84 1994, Bonsdorff and Pearson 1999, MacKenzie et al. 2007, HELCOM 2010, Olsson et al.
85 2012, Seitz et al. 2014). In the review, efforts are made to characterize coastal EFH in the
86 Baltic Sea, their importance and the threats/pressures they face, as well as their current
87 conservation status, while highlighting knowledge gaps and outlining perspectives for
88 future work in an ecosystem-based management framework.

89

90 In a broad sense, an EFH is any environment that is needed for the maintenance of a
91 fish population. More specifically, coastal EFH are defined as shallow and nearshore

92 waters and substrates necessary to any life-stage of fish for spawning, breeding, feeding
93 or growth to maturity (Benaka et al. 1999, Rosenberg et al. 2000). In this respect, the
94 term *waters* include all aquatic coastal areas (down to a maximum depth of 10–20 m)
95 and their physical, chemical, and biological properties, whereas *substrates* include
96 surfaces and their associated biological communities that make them suitable as fish
97 habitats (Rosenberg et al. 2000). Coastal EFH are thus comprised of juvenile growth
98 areas, foraging areas, reproduction areas and migratory routes. While the latter three
99 are of direct importance for fisheries, by offering high catches or value per fishing effort
100 (Airoldi and Beck 2007, Seitz et al. 2014), the former one is a step required to produce
101 recruits to replenish the fishery (Beck et al. 2001). Fishing may, however, be challenging
102 for the sustainable management of some coastal EFH, not only as some fishing practices
103 are detrimental to the habitats per se, but also because targeted extraction of species
104 from the general marine ecosystem may indirectly influence the habitats by altering
105 predator-prey interactions (Hopkins 2003, Eriksson et al. 2011, Pikitch et al. 2014,
106 Östman et al. 2016, Pommer et al. 2016, Eddy et al. 2017). Despite consensus among
107 scientists on the critical importance of EFH, their role for sustaining fish stocks and
108 communities has received relatively little attention (Beck et al. 2001, Gillanders et al.
109 2003, Armstrong and Falk-Petersen 2008, Sheaves et al. 2015). The influence of the
110 amount and quality of EFH on fish population dynamics has generally been poorly
111 described in the scientific literature, and only rarely, has the information been
112 incorporated into scientific advice for fisheries management (Mangel et al. 2006,
113 Armstrong and Falk-Petersen 2008, Thrush and Dayton 2010, Kallasvuo et al. 2017). As
114 coastal EFH are often found in areas that are highly valued and utilized by humans (de
115 Groot et al. 2012, Šiaulyš et al. 2012), numerous pressures/threats and management

116 issues are implied (Korpinen et al. 2012) and thus the gaps in knowledge with regard to
117 the importance of coastal EFH need to be addressed (Sundblad and Bergström 2014).

118

119 Coastal EFH represent “home grounds” for coastal fish species throughout their lives
120 and for other fish species during different life history stages when they are using the
121 coastal zone. Major coastal EFH consist of: (1) coastal wetlands and shallow bays
122 (including salt marshes, estuaries, river mouths, coastal lagoons and flads), (2) shallow
123 vegetated areas (including seagrass meadows and macroalgal beds, but also freshwater
124 plants in brackish water areas), (3) biogenic reefs and hard structures (including mussel
125 beds, rocky shores, mariculture installations and other artificial substrates) and (4)
126 unvegetated soft and sandy areas and shallow open water (modified from Seitz et al.
127 2014). Thus, basically, most types of shallow benthic and pelagic areas can function as
128 coastal EFH, at least for some species at some life stage. In temperate waters, shallow
129 and wave-sheltered EFH are generally characterised by higher water temperatures,
130 extensive macrophyte vegetation and a particularly high production of zooplankton and
131 zoobenthic prey, thus providing excellent conditions for survival and growth of fish
132 larvae and juveniles (Blaber and Blaber 1980, Karås and Hudd 1993, Gibson 1994, Karås
133 1996, Ljunggren 2002, Stål et al. 2007, Härmä et al. 2008, Kallasvuo et al. 2009, Snickars
134 et al. 2009, 2010, Ljunggren et al. 2010, Seitz et al. 2014). Many habitats, such as
135 seagrass and macrophyte meadows, perennial macroalgal belts and mussel beds, also
136 aid in maintaining fish populations by providing three-dimensional benthic structures
137 serving as more or less permanent habitats, temporary nursery areas, rich feeding areas
138 and refuges/shelter from predation (Rajasilta et al. 1989, Jackson E.L. et al. 2001, Pihl
139 and Wennhage 2002, Lappalainen et al. 2004, 2005, 2008, Härmä et al. 2008, Díaz et al.
140 2015). Mariculture installations, artificial substrates and rocky bottoms, in turn, are

141 important for providing surfaces for habitat-forming macroalgae and sessile animals,
142 which serve as food and refuge from predation (Pihl and Wennhage 2002, Seaman 2007,
143 Fabi et al. 2011, Kraufvelin and Díaz 2015, Bergström et al. 2016c). Finally, seabeds
144 without macroscopic vegetation as well as open shallow waters are often highly
145 productive, both with regard to primary and secondary production (Gerbersdorf et al.
146 2005, Engelsen et al. 2008). As such they support a diverse range of fish by providing
147 spawning, juvenile growth, feeding and resting grounds (McCormick et al. 1998,
148 Wennhage and Pihl 2002, Cattrijsse and Hampel 2006, Florin et al. 2009, Seitz et al.
149 2014).

150

151 Despite the increased attention during recent years towards characterizing EFH in
152 the Baltic Sea (HELCOM 2012, Sundblad et al. 2014, Kallasvuo et al. 2017), sufficient
153 information is lacking for many fish species to quantitatively assess the role of coastal
154 habitats for fish population growth and production. In this review, the main focus is on
155 the role of coastal essential habitats for commercial, threatened and ecologically
156 important (from a conservation perspective) fish species. The species and groups that
157 benefit from a decrease in the environmental status of the Baltic Sea, such as cyprinids
158 (Bergström et al. 2016ab) and three-spined stickleback (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*)
159 (Bergström et al. 2015, Byström et al. 2015), are thus excluded. Within this process, the
160 threats to and current conservation status of coastal EFH in the Baltic Sea are also
161 thoroughly reviewed, while knowledge gaps are highlighted and perspectives for future
162 work on this topic within an ecosystem-based management framework are outlined.

163

164

165

166

167 **2. OCCURRENCE AND IMPORTANCE OF COASTAL EFH IN THE BALTIC SEA**

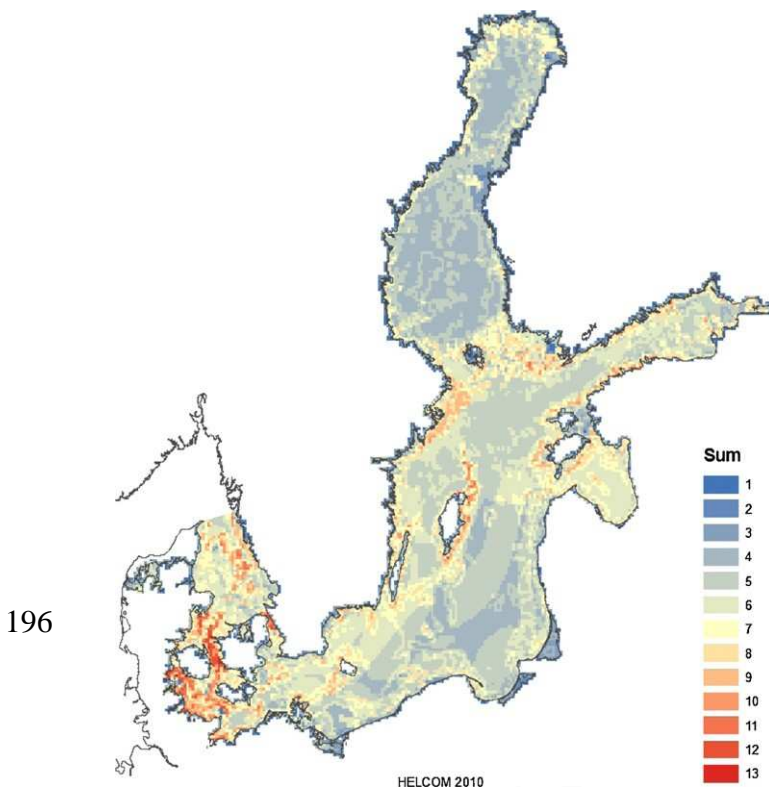
168 **2.1. Occurrence of coastal EFH in the Baltic Sea**

169 The Baltic Sea is the world's largest semi-enclosed brackish water area, with a
170 surface salinity gradient ranging from 2 in the northern and easternmost parts to 31 in
171 Kattegat in the southwest. It is relatively shallow in relation to its size, with the coastal
172 zone constituting a large and important part of the ecosystem. Figure 1, from HELCOM
173 (2010), illustrates the richness of habitat types (named ecosystem components) in
174 different parts of the Baltic Sea. The categorization of the ecosystem components in this
175 figure closely resembles the EFH categorization used in this review, apart from a few
176 classes based on species data and deeper aphotic bottoms away from the coast, and can
177 thus, in our opinion, be used as a proxy for EFH in the Baltic Sea.

178

179 In the context of Figure 1, an ecosystem component refers to biological parts of the
180 ecosystem such as species, biotopes formed by habitat-forming species or abiotic
181 biotopes with a clear linkage to certain species (Korpinen et al. 2012). The 14 named
182 ecosystem components in Korpinen et al. (2012) are divided into benthic biotopes
183 (two), benthic biotope complexes (six), water column (two) and species data (four). In
184 the map the habitats specifically constitute: 1) mussel beds and 2) eelgrass meadows
185 (benthic biotopes); 3) photic sand, 4) non-photoc sand, 5) photic mud and clay, 6) non-
186 photic mud and clay, 7) photic hard bottom and 8) non-photoc hard bottom (benthic
187 biotope complexes); 9) photic water and 10) non-photoc water (water column); as well
188 as 11) harbour porpoise, 12) seals, 13) seabird wintering grounds and 14) spawning
189 and nursery areas of cod (species data). Note, however, that for the purposes of this
190 review, a number of ecosystem components from the list above are not fully

191 synonymous to coastal EFH, as the term is interpreted and used in the present study.
 192 This clearly applies to the species data points 11–13 above, but also partly to non-photic
 193 bottoms (points 4, 6 and 8 above) and non-photic water column (point 10), i.e. for those
 194 parts that are occurring deeper down and farther away from the shoreline.
 195



198 **Figure 1. Map showing the number of ecosystem components present (benthic and**
 199 **water column biotope complexes, benthic biotopes and species-related data**
 200 **layers) as a proxy for EFH in 5 km × 5 km squares in the Baltic Sea. Altogether 14**
 201 **data layers were used when constructing the map, but no single square contained**
 202 **all ecosystem components. The map is taken from HELCOM (2010), with**
 203 **permission.**
 204

205 If the ecosystem components from Korpinen et al. (2012) and coastal EFH in the
 206 Baltic Sea are considered to be of the same kind, the richest diversity of
 207 components/EFH is found in squares in the southwestern Baltic Sea, for example in the
 208 Sound, in the Belts and in Kattegat. A reasonably high diversity of components/EFH are
 209 also found around the large islands and in the archipelagos of the central Baltic Proper.

210 Lower diversities (fewer EFH) are found in the Bothnian Bay and in the eastern parts of
211 the Baltic Sea (Figure 1).

212 **2.2. Importance of coastal EFH in the Baltic Sea**

213 The importance of coastal EFH can in general be assessed as the effects of changes in
214 their quantity or quality on metrics of viability and production of fish populations,
215 stocks or communities in time or space (e.g. Levin and Stunz 2005, Sundblad et al.
216 2014). A recent review by Seitz et al. (2014) shows that in the Northeast Atlantic, 44% of
217 all “ICES species”, i.e. species assessed and advised by the International Council for the
218 Exploration of the Sea, utilizes coastal habitats as spawning, feeding, nursery or
219 migration areas. These stocks contribute to 77% of the commercial landings of the “ICES
220 species”. It follows then, that a limited habitat supply, possibly acting independently at
221 different life-history stages utilising different habitats, can impact the size and dynamics
222 of fish populations, although the relationships are not easily quantified (Seitz et al. 2014,
223 Vasconcelos et al. 2014, Kallasvuoto et al. 2017).

224

225 The available quantitative evidence for the importance of coastal habitats for fish
226 production and viability has been achieved through a number of different approaches.
227 These approaches include e.g. model based ones (e.g. Minns et al. 1996, Halpern et al.
228 2005, Levin and Stunz 2005, Fodrie et al. 2009), long-term field experiments (Schmitt
229 and Holbrook 2000), otolith chemistry (e.g. Fodrie and Levin 2008), habitat specific
230 biomass and size distributions (e.g. Mumby et al. 2004) and nursery habitat size
231 (Rijnsdorp et al. 1992). Species distribution modelling has, in this respect, emerged as a
232 promising tool to map specific habitat requirements for different life stages of species
233 with ontogenetic habitat shifts (Bergström et al. 2013, Sundblad et al. 2014). By using
234 modelling techniques, species occurrence or abundance can be related to map-based

235 predictor variables and thereby, fine-scale mapping of the distribution of species and
236 habitats across spatially heterogeneous ecosystems can be carried out (Elith and
237 Leathwick 2009, Pittman and Brown 2011, Bučas et al. 2013, Kotta et al. 2016, Moore et
238 al. 2016).

239

240

241 **2.2.1. Direct and indirect evidence of the effects of coastal EFH on fish population** 242 **size**

243 From the Baltic Sea, some case studies give direct (quantitative) evidence on the
244 role of coastal EFH for fish populations and fish production, although most of the
245 evidence can be characterised as indirect (Table 1). Also, there do not seem to be any
246 studies available from the Baltic Sea utilizing habitat-specific demographic rates,
247 although this has been a preferred method for demonstrating habitat dependence in
248 many circumstances globally (Levin and Stunz 2005, Vasconcelos et al. 2014). As may be
249 noticed from the case studies below, the area of establishing direct links between
250 habitats and fish populations is quite understudied in the Baltic Sea and most evidence
251 seems to be available between habitats and larval fish, not directly for adult populations.
252 Despite the fairly low number of studies showing direct links between fish stock sizes
253 and availability of habitats, a reasonable amount of data on occurrence, or preferentially
254 abundance, of various life stages of different fish species in specific habitats still
255 indirectly indicate the importance of coastal EFH and help in their further identification
256 and verification.

257

258 As direct evidence, Sundblad et al. (2014) used species distribution modelling on
259 data from Sweden and Finland and related the distribution of nursery habitats for perch,

260 *Perca fluviatilis*, and pikeperch, *Sander lucioperca*, to the size of the adult populations of
261 these species in twelve archipelago areas in the northern Baltic Proper. By doing this,
262 the authors reveal that availability of coastal EFH explains almost half of the variation in
263 population size, indicating a crucial role in limiting adult stock sizes. The relationships
264 are, however, non-linear, suggesting that the negative effects of e.g. habitat loss or
265 positive effects of e.g. restoration measures will be most significant in areas with the
266 most limited habitat availability.

267
268 For whitefish, *Coregonus lavaretus*, Vanhatalo et al. (2012) utilized data from both
269 the Swedish and Finnish coasts of the Gulf of Bothnia to establish direct relationships
270 between environmental variables characterizing coastal EFH and larval production.
271 Vanhatalo and colleagues used Gaussian processes for species distribution modelling
272 and show that the most important variables describing potential larval areas over large
273 scales, are bottom type, prolonged ice period in spring, ecological status of coastal areas,
274 distance to large shallow sand areas and water depth. Thus, the most important
275 variables are descriptors of coastal EFH for whitefish larvae and a metric of the current
276 level of human impact on these areas.

277
278 In a recent Finnish case study, as a final example of direct connections between
279 coastal EFH and coastal fish populations in the Baltic Sea, Kallasvuo et al. (2017)
280 assessed the most important reproduction habitats for fish by using larval survey data
281 and Bayesian species distribution models. By utilising data for four commercially and
282 ecologically important fish species along the Finnish coast, Baltic herring (*Clupea*
283 *harengus membras*), perch, pikeperch and smelt (*Osmerus eperlanus*), Kallasvuo and
284 colleagues demonstrate that the production of fish stocks can be concentrated to very

285 limited areas compared to the total suitable production area that is available. Thus,
286 spawning areas that are highly effective relative to the general pool of spawning areas
287 can be identified. The applied methodology enables linking of the total production
288 potential across the whole distribution area to fisheries stock assessment and
289 management, especially for more strictly coastal species such as perch and pikeperch.

290

291 Concerning cod, *Gadus morhua*, there are a few studies available from the Baltic Sea
292 that show the direct relationship between the volume of EFH for reproduction and the
293 adult stock. MacKenzie et al. (2000) estimated reproduction volumes in time and space
294 and demonstrate that the volume of EFH for egg survival determines the interannual
295 stability in hatching success of cod eggs, while Cardinale and Arrhenius (2000) by the
296 use of generalized additive models show that the volume of EFH for reproduction also
297 affects cod recruitment. These results for cod are, however, not primarily focusing on
298 coastal EFH. Still, with regard to coastal EFH, a recent study by Hinrichsen et al. (2017)
299 demonstrates the importance of habitat availability for juvenile cod (nursery) and its
300 effect on density-dependent growth, as a process relevant for recruitment success. Thus,
301 across multiple life history stages, EFH availability influences stock size.

302

303 The remaining case studies presented in this chapter and in Table 1 are more
304 indirect with regard to the connections between coastal EFH and fish populations,
305 although there are no sharp distinctions between the direct studies mentioned above
306 and the indirect ones mentioned below.

307

308 Hansen and Snickars (2014) utilized data from Sweden and Finland and report that
309 the quality (species composition) of the macrophyte community on shallow soft bottoms

310 in relation to anthropogenic stressors shows good compliance with fish reproduction
311 data. Bays that are dominated by stress sensitive macrophyte species also prove to be
312 important nursery areas for fish. In another case study from Sweden and Finland,
313 Snickars et al. (2010) report that distribution of spawning habitat for perch depends
314 strongly on the type of substrate. The substrates generally consist of different types of
315 vegetation, where the ones providing rigidity and structural complexity are preferred by
316 the perch. Also, water depth, wave exposure and temperature matter to a relatively high
317 extent with shallow depths and sheltered areas being preferred habitat characteristics.
318 No direct links to the size of perch stocks have, however, been established.

319
320 In another case study from southern Finland, Engström-Öst et al. (2007) compared
321 habitat choice and survival of pike larvae (*Esox lucius*) experimentally and conclude that
322 pike larvae prefer and also survive better in filamentous algae (*Cladophora glomerata*)
323 than in bladderwrack (*Fucus vesiculosus*) in the presence of predators. This is probably
324 because the bladderwrack habitat is too "open" for the newly hatched pikes. In a related
325 experimental study, Engström-Öst and Mattila (2008) compared the performance of
326 larval pike under the influence of turbidity induced by phytoplankton. In this study, they
327 report that the larval weight of pike is lower in turbid water, despite that pike larvae
328 spend less time in vegetation and attack more prey. Thus, both direct (i.e. feeding and
329 habitat choice) and indirect qualities (i.e. weight) of pike larvae are affected by the
330 habitat quality (macroalgal structure, turbidity) and therefore probably also larval
331 survival and recruitment to the adult population (Engström-Öst et al. 2007, Engström-
332 Öst and Mattila 2008).

333

334 In a case study comprising the entire Finnish coastline, Uusitalo et al. (2012) used a
335 Bayesian network model (expert driven model structure, data-learned parameters) to
336 study the effects of many different factors (N, P, chlorophyll *a*, duration of ice coverage
337 in winter, shore density in the area and salinity) on the CPUE (of reported commercial
338 catches). Shore density was defined as the length of the shoreline within a rectangle,
339 measured from the basic water level line from a 1:20 000 map and divided by the area of
340 water surface in the rectangle (in ha), and it reflected the availability of coastal areas in
341 the rectangle. The tested fish species were among others: pikeperch, pike, perch,
342 flounder (*Platichthys flesus*), Baltic herring, burbot (*Lota lota*) and smelt. In their study,
343 Uusitalo et al. (2012) report that shore density is the most influential factor. The
344 strongest effects occur for pike, although it is concluded that shore density,
345 corresponding closely to the availability of coastal EFH, is an important factor for all
346 species, despite the fact that many of them are essentially freshwater ones, whose
347 distribution also can be limited by salinity.

348
349 With regard to the importance of coastal EFH for production and viability of
350 flounder, there are a number of case studies available from the Baltic Sea. In a study
351 from Latvia, Ustups et al. (2013) utilized data spanning over 30 years to demonstrate
352 that the spawning habitat (available water volume suitable for reproduction with regard
353 to oxygen conditions) positively affects the survival and abundance of flounder larvae.
354 Still, recruitment does not correlate with the supply of larvae, suggesting the presence of
355 a bottleneck in the availability of juvenile growth habitat, which in itself, is also coastal.
356 Case studies from southern Finland used fishery-independent data on adult flounder as
357 well as historical and present-state data on juveniles in shallow coastal areas. These
358 studies show that a pronounced decrease in abundance of juveniles correlates with an

359 increased bottom coverage of filamentous algae. A simultaneous decrease in the
360 abundance of the adult stock indicates that a decline in the availability of EFH for
361 juveniles acts as a bottleneck for the flounder population (Jokinen et al. 2015, 2016),
362 supporting the conclusions of Ustups et al. (2013). Similar results have also previously
363 been demonstrated by Pihl et al. (1994) and Carl et al. (2008) in the Kattegat and by
364 Florin et al. (2009) for the Baltic Sea, but in the latter study more clearly for turbot
365 (*Scophthalmus maximus*) than for flounder. The results for flounder above are further
366 supported by Orio et al. (2017) who modelled spawning areas of flounder at a Baltic-
367 wide scale and recognise a positive correlation between flounder spawning areas and
368 adult stocks. The findings by Ustups et al. (2013) and Orio et al. (2017) are included as
369 direct evidence in Table 1, although like the case with cod above, these results are not
370 fully “coastal”.

371
372 For pikeperch in the German area of the Baltic Sea, the population size is strongly
373 connected with the occurrence of suitable spawning sites in the inner coastal waters
374 with lower salinities around 5-6 (Winkler 1996). These EFH are the base for nearly 40%
375 of the total annual catch of pikeperch in German coastal waters with higher salinities
376 (around 10) and corresponding numbers, or 44 %, can be shown for roach (Winkler et
377 al. unpubl.).

378
379 For pike, Nilsson et al. (2014) show an increased recruitment of juveniles in three
380 coastal wetlands of SE Sweden which have been restored in different ways. In areas with
381 temporally flooded terrestrial vegetation, the migration of pike juveniles is shown to
382 increase from a few thousand individuals in previous years to >100,000 individuals after
383 the measures have been taken. To what extent these restored wetlands affect adult fish

384 stocks in coastal areas remains to be clarified, although there are indications of positive
385 effects (Fredriksson et al. 2013).

386

387 Finally, some species utilize both coastal habitats, coastal wetlands and rivers for
388 spawning and may display sympatric, genetically isolated populations. While their
389 juvenile and adult stages may occur in the same habitats, spawning takes place in either
390 fresh or brackish waters (Westin and Limburg 2002, Wastie 2014). The relative
391 proportions of these sympatric populations may differ between areas and through time.
392 In case studies from Estonia and Sweden, the relative importance of fresh or brackish
393 water recruitment areas (spawning habitat preferences) for brackish water fish
394 populations was examined through the use of otolith Sr:Ca profiles. These studies
395 demonstrate the importance of coastal wetlands and rivers as spawning habitats for
396 (semi-)anadromous fish as pike (Engstedt et al. 2010, Rohtla et al. 2012), burbot and ide
397 (*Leuciscus idus*) (Rohtla et al. 2014, 2015). In the Väinameri Sea area in Estonia, 90% of
398 adult pike hatches in fresh water and only 10% in brackish water (Rohtla et al. 2012;
399 Rohtla 2015). In Sweden, 20% of pike hatches in brackish water in the Forsmark area at
400 the 60° N latitude and 80% hatches in brackish water in the Kalmar Sound at the 56° N
401 latitude (Engstedt et al. 2010). When compared with older (observational or anecdotal)
402 data, the Estonian results suggest that brackish-water spawning pike is becoming rarer,
403 which may be a result of deteriorated brackish water spawning grounds (Rohtla 2015).
404 Along the Estonian coastal area, Rohtla et al. (2017) further demonstrate, also through
405 the use of otolith chemistry techniques, that brackish water spawning whitefish has
406 become rarer, which probably also reflects a poorer ecological status of its coastal
407 spawning areas. Similarly, Byström et al. (2015) notice an important role of freshwater

408 habitats for perch recruitment in a Swedish coastal area with high abundance of the
409 three-spined stickleback, which may prey on early life stage perch.

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416 **2.2.2. Means to increase the knowledge of the importance of coastal EFH**

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418 Although many different coastal habitats are essential for fish production and for
419 the provisioning of rich fish communities in the Baltic Sea, the establishment of
420 direct/quantitative relationships demonstrating their actual role for fish production is
421 still in its infancy. The relatively low number of studies explicitly dealing with the
422 importance of EFH for fish stocks is somewhat surprising. For many species, too little
423 seems to be known about the ecology of the species in order to assess whether habitats
424 are actually essential and limiting the production and viability of the populations (Levin
425 and Stunz 2005, Seitz et al. 2014). Better evidence is, however, often found for non-
426 migrating coastal species compared to migrating species (Iles and Beverton 2000), with
427 cod (Hinrichsen et al. 2017) and the demersal ecotype of flounder (Orio et al. 2017) as
428 possible exceptions. This could potentially be due to the conservative nature in habitat
429 choice of non-migratory fish, or simply that it is easier to detect fish-habitat
430 relationships in studies where many geographically restricted populations are included.

431

432 In other cases, indirect evidence exists or data for quantitative examination of the
433 importance of coastal EFH for fish stocks may already be available and additional
434 analyses could contribute to pinpoint their ecological importance (Pulkkinen et al. 2011,
435 Kraufvelin et al. 2016). In a recent paper, Macura et al. (2016) present a methodological
436 protocol for conducting a systematic review mainly on the impact of anthropogenic-
437 induced physical and structural habitat changes on fish recruitment in shallow
438 nearshore areas. Such a protocol can be used to assess the importance of undamaged
439 coastal EFH for fish production. Further evidence on the role of coastal EFH can also be
440 achieved using spatial approaches (e.g. assessing relationships between habitats of
441 juveniles and adult fish to detect bottlenecks in early life stage), temporal data analyses
442 (e.g. assessing variability between years in success of different life stages), stage-
443 structured modelling (assessing habitat specific survival in stage-structured models) or
444 otolith chemistry techniques (comparing contribution of different habitats through
445 “fingerprinting” of different juvenile habitats). Currently, the most promising approach
446 may be to estimate habitat-specific demographic rates in stage-structured modelling
447 (Levin and Stunz 2005, Vasconcelos et al. 2014). It is then important, however, to
448 combine this approach with habitat maps to quantify the importance of different
449 habitats. When used properly, this approach may identify low productivity (per unit
450 area) habitats as important, if they are abundant enough, compared to very productive
451 habitats that are scarcer.

452

453 It should also be stressed that the establishment of a link between coastal EFH and
454 fish stocks may not always be the prime interest as this is sustained already by the
455 definition of EFH and the fact that a fish population is viable. Instead, the importance of
456 EFH utilised by a population throughout different life history stages should maybe be

457 the centre of attention. This, in turn, leads to the question of “overlapping” EFH in a
458 region or an area, and as a consequence, the difficulties to separate the relative effects or
459 importance of different EFH (spawning, nursery, feeding, etc.) for a fish population and
460 how “sub-EFH” are inter-linked and connected in the context of spatial/landscape
461 ecology (Rose 2000, Levin and Stunz 2005, Vasconcelos et al. 2014).

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466 **3. THREATS TO AND PRESSURES ON COASTAL EFH IN THE BALTIC SEA**

467 **3.1. Generally about the conditions of coastal EFH in the Baltic Sea**

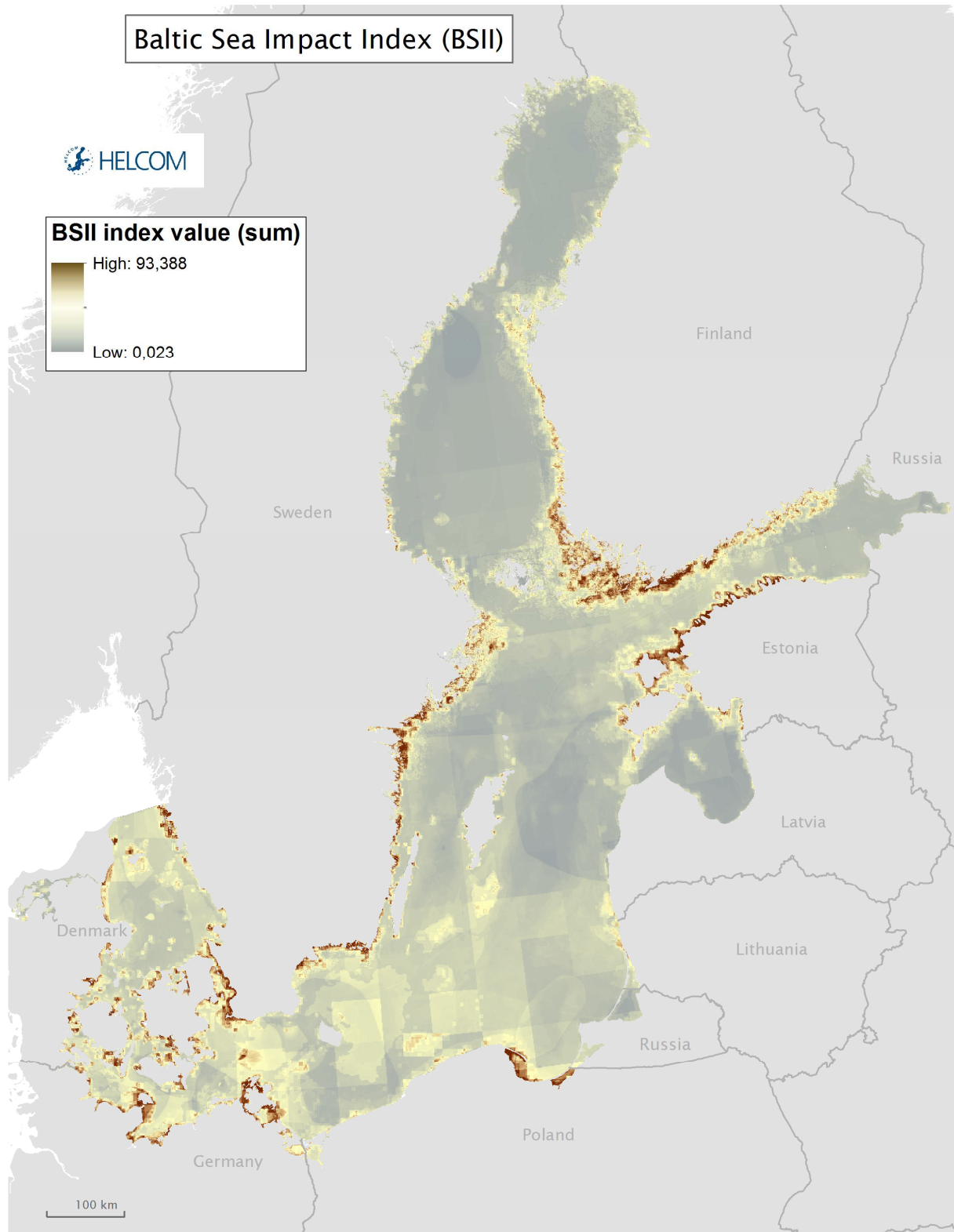
468 Coastal EFH in the Baltic Sea are exceptionally vulnerable as several natural features
469 make the sea area inherently susceptible to the influence of human pressures. The Baltic
470 Sea has a long water residence time (~30 years) and a large catchment area, which is
471 relatively highly populated. The environmental status of many coastal areas of the Baltic
472 Sea has declined considerably over the last 50 years (Bonsdorff et al. 1997, Lotze et al.
473 2006, Węśławski et al. 2013, Olsson et al. 2015, Andersen et al. 2015, Bergström et al.
474 2016a). This has for example led to evident changes in species composition of coastal
475 fish, benthic invertebrate and macrophyte communities (e.g. Boström et al. 2002, Olsson
476 et al. 2012, 2013, Snickars et al. 2015, Bergström et al. 2016a). The multifaceted
477 environmental problems of the Baltic Sea, including extensive algal blooms, increasing
478 areas of anoxic sea bottoms, contaminated organisms, and overexploitation of fish
479 stocks, emerge as real challenges for environmental management calling for integrated
480 strategies focusing on both fish and their preferred environments (e.g. Borja et al. 2016,
481 Uusitalo et al. 2016). Within this process, a central focus on nearshore coastal areas

482 subjected to environmental pressure could be pivotal for the future potential of the
483 Baltic Sea to provide ecosystem goods and services (Holmlund and Hammer 1999,
484 Rönnbäck et al. 2007, Ahtiainen and Öhman 2014, Uusitalo et al. 2016).

485
486 As a spatial representation for weighing large numbers of cumulative anthropogenic
487 impacts against ecosystem components and describing the current condition of various
488 part of the sea area, the Baltic Sea Impact Index has been developed (see Halpern et al.
489 2008, HELCOM 2010, 2017 and table 2 in Korpinen et al. 2012 for details). This index
490 shows that the lowest cumulative impact is generally found in the Gulf of Bothnia in the
491 sparsely populated northernmost part of the Baltic Sea, and the highest impacts mainly
492 occur in the coastal areas of the Finnish south and southwest, along the Estonian
493 northern and western coast, along the east and west coast of southern Sweden, in the
494 Polish Bay of Gdansk and in the Danish and German parts of the Baltic Sea (Figure 2).
495 This impact map may be regarded as closely reflecting the general pressures on coastal
496 EFH, as well.

497
498 Eutrophication, coastal construction and development, climate change, invasive
499 species and fisheries have been acknowledged as major human-induced threats to
500 coastal EFH in general (Jackson J.B.C. et al. 2001, Kappel 2005, Powers et al. 2005, Orth
501 et al. 2006, HELCOM 2010, Hansen and Snickars 2014, Seitz et al. 2014, Sundblad and
502 Bergström 2014, Kraufvelin et al. 2016). A specific feature and a natural threat to coastal
503 EFH in the Baltic Sea is the post-glacial land-uplift process, which naturally, but
504 constantly, shapes and alters the coastline and its shallow habitats for instance when
505 semi-isolated flads and bays turn into freshwater ecosystems (Snickars et al. 2009,
506 Meriste and Kirsimäe 2014). Among the human-induced threats, physical pressures

507 such as trawl fishery, shipping and boat traffic with the required infrastructure in the
508 form of dredging, and shoreline modifications generally cause direct impacts on the
509 habitats and are hence – in theory – easier to manage (Eriksson et al. 2004, Sandström et
510 al. 2005, Sundblad and Bergström 2014, Pommer et al. 2016). Other (non-physical)
511 threats/pressures usually act more indirectly and are hence often more challenging to
512 manage (Elliott 2010, Duarte 2014). Most human-induced threats are severe on their
513 own, but often have their largest impact when acting additively and synergistically
514 (Elliott 2004, McLusky and Elliott 2004, Crain et al. 2008). Fish communities are affected
515 both directly when exposed to these threats and indirectly through fragmentation,
516 deterioration and loss of habitat. Here, the distinction between different fish species
517 must again be stressed as for instance



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520 **Figure 2. Presentation of cumulative potential anthropogenic impacts by the**
521 **Baltic Sea Impact Index in 5 km × 5 km assessment units. The index in each**
522 **assessment unit consists of the sum of anthropogenic impacts on selected**
523 **ecosystem components present in the unit. The original index formula is from**
524 **Halpern et al. (2008) and Korpinen et al. (2012). The map is taken from HELCOM**
525 **(2017), with permission.**

526 mesopredatory fish, such as cyprinids and sticklebacks, may benefit from some of these
527 threats/pressures or the negative effects of the threats/pressures imposed on other fish
528 species (see e.g. Persson et al. 1991, Sandström and Karås 2002, Bergström et al. 2015,
529 Byström et al. 2015). This may also be the case, to some extent, for pikeperch, which
530 seems to be benefitting from coastal eutrophication and warmer summers (Heikinheimo
531 et al. 2014) and also for the non-indigenous round goby *Neogobius melanostomus*
532 (Ojaveer et al. 2015).

533

534 From a strict habitat perspective, there are some inherent differences with regard to
535 which threats/pressures are the most dramatic ones for coastal EFH in the Baltic Sea.
536 Seagrass and macrophyte beds are threatened by anthropogenic factors such as poor
537 water quality caused by pollution, eutrophication, dredging, excessive sedimentation,
538 altered openness of sheltered bays to the sea, climate change (leading to increased land
539 runoff) and coastal development (Hemminga and Duarte 2000, Idestam-Almquist 2000,
540 Airoidi and Beck 2007, Snickars et al. 2009, 2015, Rosqvist et al. 2010). Perennial
541 macroalgal belts are threatened by eutrophication processes increasing the abundance
542 of ephemeral algae, that suppress or inhibit the recolonization of canopy-forming algae
543 and other organisms (Thompson et al. 2002, Råberg et al. 2005, Korpinen et al. 2007,
544 Kraufvelin et al. 2007, 2010), but also by human construction and urbanization affecting
545 water movement, water quality and causing habitat-related changes (Vogt and Schramm
546 1991, Eriksson et al. 1998, Kraufvelin 2007, Kraufvelin et al. 2010). Mussel beds are
547 threatened by eutrophication, pollution, sedimentation, invasive species (e.g. the round
548 goby), destructive fishing practices, and processes connected with climate change, such
549 as higher water temperatures, acidification, increased storminess, increased land run-off
550 and decreased salinity (Thompson et al. 2002, Airoidi and Beck 2007, Rakauskas et al.

551 2013, Díaz et al. 2015). Some of these pressures may, however, sometimes also prove to
552 be beneficial, for instance for blue mussels (*Mytilus trossulus*) when new settlement
553 areas are provided or when there are moderate increases in water movement (Díaz et al.
554 2015) and in temperature levels seasonally (Widdows 1991). The information on
555 current threats to sedimentary environments, finally, is quite scarce (Brown and
556 McLachlan 2002), but the major pressures on these habitats consist of the construction
557 and use of marinas and ship ways including dredging, extraction of sand or gravel, trawl
558 fishery, eutrophication, tourist developments, pollution from sewage discharge and
559 industries as well as aquaculture activities (Newell et al. 1998, Airoidi and Beck 2007).

560

561 Thus, not all coastal EFH are affected by exactly the same threats, nor do they
562 respond in the same way to similar pressures. All the human activities mentioned above
563 are involved in causing different types of pressures and impacts on the habitats e.g.
564 anoxic conditions in estuaries and enclosed basins (Karlson et al. 2002), accumulation of
565 drifting algae (Vahteri et al. 2000), long-term accumulation of contaminants (Islam and
566 Tanaka 2004) and introduction of non-indigenous species (Leppäkoski et al. 2002,
567 Katsanevakis et al. 2014, Ojaveer and Kotta 2015). For more detailed information on
568 species and habitats in the north-eastern Atlantic, see <http://www.marlin.ac.uk/>.
569 Exclusively for the Baltic Sea, this kind of information is being gathered within HELCOM
570 (<http://www.helcom.fi/>) and at a national level at least in Finland
571 (<http://paikkatieto.ymparisto.fi/velmu/>).

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576 3.2. Case studies about threats to and pressures on coastal EFH

577 Eutrophication favours the production of fast-growing, short-lived benthic and
578 planktonic algae, that alters the structure and function of marine habitats and may cause
579 hypoxia when accumulated and broken down (Lundberg 2005, Conley et al. 2009,
580 Kraufvelin et al. 2010, Paerl and Otten 2013). This human pressure is acknowledged as a
581 major problem to coastal EFH all over the Baltic Sea (HELCOM 2010, 2017, Kraufvelin et
582 al. 2016). The large-scale decrease in distribution of the macroalga bladderwrack in
583 eastern Sweden and southwestern Finland at the deeper end of its depth limit is of
584 specific relevance for this study. This bladderwrack habitat loss is mainly caused by
585 eutrophication-related processes in form of decreased light penetration and hampered
586 recruitment and growth due to competition with filamentous algae and sedimentation
587 (Kautsky et al. 1986, Korpinen et al. 2007, Kraufvelin et al. 2007, Rinne et al. 2011). As a
588 consequence of this, large areas of shallow waters, potentially valuable for coastal fish,
589 have been lost (Kautsky et al. 1986, Bergström et al. 2013, Vahteri and Vuorinen 2016).
590 Similar patterns were also found in the shallow Puck Bay in Poland (Plinski and Florczyk
591 1984, Ciszewski et al. 1992, Węśławski et al. 2009), although this area is now slowly
592 recovering (Węśławski et al. 2013). Another typical phenomenon due to eutrophication
593 is the reed belt overgrowth of lagoons, sheltered bays and river mouths (Pitkänen et al.
594 2013, Altartouri et al. 2014, Meriste and Kirsimäe 2014). This process is potentially
595 making shallow areas less useful as habitats for fish (Kneib and Wagner 1994, Weinstein
596 and Balletto 1999), although see also Härmä et al. (2008), Lappalainen et al. (2008),
597 Snickars et al. (2010) and Nilsson et al. (2014) for some positive influences of reed
598 vegetation on fish communities, especially pike, but also for perch. Probably, too wide-
599 spread and compact reed belts are negative for fish, while more restricted belts, and

600 belts from the previous season that have been flattened from ice and waves as well as
601 the outer edges of reed areas are generally positive for fish (Lappalainen et al. 2008).

602

603 Eutrophication is also often acting in concert with other pressures such as coastal
604 construction, seabed disturbance, climate change, overfishing and species introductions
605 (Lundberg 2005) and understanding relationships between ecosystems and multiple
606 human-induced pressures acting simultaneously is indeed a major challenge within
607 marine environmental management (Borja 2014, Borja et al. 2016). Eutrophication
608 combined with mesopredator release due to overfishing of large piscivorous fish species
609 constitutes an example of a cumulative pressure, which can have strong effects on
610 coastal EFH and present extensive challenges for management (Eriksson et al. 2009,
611 2011, Östman et al. 2016, Uusitalo et al. 2016). Eutrophication combined with the
612 presence of invasive species can also impose interactive pressure on coastal EFH, as in
613 the case with the recent invader in the northern Baltic Proper, Harris mud crab,
614 *Rhithropanopeus harrisi*, occurring in both bladderwrack (Jormalainen et al. 2016) and
615 eelgrass beds (Gagnon and Boström 2016) in the Finnish Archipelago Sea and in boulder
616 fields with bladder-wrack (Nurkse et al. 2015) as well as in un-vegetated soft bottom
617 areas in Estonia (Lokko et al. 2017). This invader acts as a mesopredator and can
618 strongly reduce the number of grazers and impair their capability to buffer excessive
619 growth of filamentous algae leading to decreased biodiversity and lowered habitat
620 quality. Eutrophication effects combined with coastal construction dampening wave
621 action can be exemplified by Kraufvelin et al. (2010) who conducted long-term
622 experiments in outdoor rocky shore mesocosms. Kraufvelin and colleagues show that a
623 combination of high nutrient enrichment with 50% lowered wave action over two years
624 lead to a 2.5-fold reduction of habitat-forming perennial brown algae (mainly of the

625 order Fucales) and an 80-fold increase in annual green algae (mainly of the order
626 Ulvales).

627

628 The physical pressure from human activities is both high and increasing in the
629 coastal zone, especially in the shallowest areas and habitats (Sundblad and Bergström
630 2014). Activities such as recreational boating, building of marinas and other forms of
631 construction constitute major problems for coastal EFH all over the Baltic Sea, but
632 perhaps currently to a higher extent in Sweden, Finland, Poland, Germany and Denmark
633 than in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania (HELCOM 2010, Dafforn et al. 2015, Kraufvelin et
634 al. 2016). In the Stockholm archipelago of Sweden, Sundblad and Bergström (2014) used
635 predictive habitat modelling and mapping of human pressures to estimate the
636 cumulative long-term effects of coastal development in relation to fish habitats. The
637 results suggest an annual increase in the proportion of degraded areas of 0.5% on
638 average and of 1% for areas close to larger human population centres. Furthermore, the
639 same study shows that approximately 40% of available habitat for pike, perch and roach
640 was already subject to some form of construction by 2005 (Sundblad and Bergström
641 2014).

642

643 In Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland, invasive species are, apart from
644 eutrophication, brought forward as important human-induced threats to coastal EFH
645 (HELCOM 2010, Kraufvelin et al. 2016). Among invasive species, the round goby has
646 been of increasing importance during the last years (Ojaveer et al. 2015, Kotta et al.
647 2016) with potential to impact the distribution of EFH in the form of blue mussel beds
648 (Järv et al. 2011, Kornis et al. 2012, Rakauskas et al. 2013). Round gobies generally
649 prefer hard bottom habitats, where mussels make up its most important food source

650 (Barton et al. 2006, Karlson et al. 2007, Järv et al. 2011, Kornis et al. 2012, Rakauskas et
651 al. 2013), although Nurkse et al. (2016) characterize the species as a generalist
652 consumer. Due to competition with round gobies, it has also been shown that juvenile
653 turbot change their diet and turbot recruitment simultaneously decreases significantly
654 (Ustups et al. 2016). Round gobies may also, through competition for food and habitat,
655 negatively affect flounder (Karlson et al. 2007, Järv et al. 2011, Orio et al. 2017), ruffe
656 *Gymnocephalus cernua* (Rakauskas et al. 2013), and viviparous eelpout *Zoarces viviparus*
657 ([https://www.nobanis.org/marine-identification-key/fish/fish-start/fish-
658 key/neogobius-melanostomus/](https://www.nobanis.org/marine-identification-key/fish/fish-start/fish-key/neogobius-melanostomus/)). The effects of invasive species increase as the
659 populations establish and spread to adjacent areas as can be seen with the round goby
660 in the southwestern Baltic Sea (Azour et al. 2015). The round goby may, however, not
661 only influence the biological communities of the Baltic Sea negatively. Recent studies
662 from the northeastern German coast (Oesterwind et al. 2017) and from Estonia
663 (Liversage et al. 2017) show that the round goby is included in the local food web,
664 including fish eating birds.

665
666 In Germany, Denmark and on the southern and southwestern coast of Sweden,
667 major human-induced threats to coastal EFH are, in addition to eutrophication and
668 climate change, coastal construction, demersal trawling, tourism, dredging and material
669 extraction (HELCOM 2010, Kraufvelin et al. 2016). Material extraction, e.g. extensive
670 removal of stones and boulders in coastal areas of Denmark has not only led to
671 destruction of reefs and removal of hard bottom habitat, but also to the loss of biogenic
672 structures associated with and characteristic of these reefs (Carr 1994, Dahl et al. 2008).
673 Støttrup et al. (2014) studied a re-established stony reef in Kattegat and documented an
674 increase in fish abundance and can thereby demonstrate that these damages may be to

675 some extent reversible. Also, bottom trawling in the Kattegat has led to a decrease in
676 hard bottoms in general through removal of stones and boulders (homogenisation of
677 mixed bottoms) and to a decrease in the amount of sensitive species, some of which are
678 habitat-forming (Hopkins 2003, Pommer et al. 2016).

679

680 Interestingly, despite many scientists mentioning climate change as a major threat
681 to coastal EFH in their regions (Kraufvelin et al. 2016), there are still few studies from
682 the Baltic Sea that explicitly focus on climate change related effects on EFH. This is
683 surprising as many different pressures in the Baltic Sea fall under the climate change
684 umbrella such as increased temperatures, decreased salinity, decreased oxygen
685 concentrations, acidification, increased storminess, increased sea levels, etc. (BACC
686 Author Team 2008, HELCOM 2013). There are, however, some references available that
687 are related to effects on coastal EFH, e.g. for macrophytes from the Baltic Proper
688 (Ideham-Almquist 2000, Härmä et al. 2008), for perennial bladderwrack from the Baltic
689 Proper and from the southwestern Baltic Sea (Kraufvelin et al. 2012, Graiff et al. 2015,
690 2017), for blue mussels from the southwestern Baltic Sea (Thomsen et al. 2010,
691 Havenhand 2012), and for fish and zoobenthos from the entire Baltic Sea (MacKenzie et
692 al. 2007) and from the Baltic Proper (Snickars et al. 2015), although most of the
693 reported and projected habitat effects in these studies are rather minor ones.

694

695 To better quantify and evaluate the magnitude of all threats to and pressures on
696 coastal EFH highlighted in the case studies above and to provide more accurate and
697 reliable information and recommendations for the management and conservation of
698 EFH in a Baltic Sea wide perspective, maps of pressure variables, together with a
699 mechanistic understanding of habitat effects of different threats/pressures, need to be

700 integrated with habitat maps. For these kinds of purposes, web-based knowledge
701 platforms such as the one developed by MarLin for the UK (<http://www.marlin.ac.uk/>)
702 can be utilized and applied. An attempt in this direction has also been done by HELCOM
703 (2010) and Korpinen et al. (2012), as may be seen in Figure 2 of this review. More recent
704 web resources can be found in HELCOM HOLAS II ([http://helcom.fi/helcom-at-](http://helcom.fi/helcom-at-work/projects/holas-ii/)
705 [work/projects/holas-ii/](http://helcom.fi/helcom-at-work/projects/holas-ii/), see also HELCOM 2017) and the associated HELCOM TAPAS
706 (<http://helcom.fi/helcom-at-work/projects/tapas>). A promising approach to assess
707 habitat quality based on the ecological status of benthic indicators and the EU Habitats
708 Directive (Anon. 1992) has also recently been presented for Estonian waters by Torn et
709 al. (2017) and similar approaches could be further developed for other regions of the
710 Baltic Sea. Another way forward could be to combine probabilistic Bayesian network
711 models describing the complex relationships between human activities and sensitive
712 ecosystem components (e.g. sensitive habitats), with GIS databases (Stelzenmüller et al.
713 2010, Helle et al. 2016).

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4. INTEGRATED MANAGEMENT AND CONSERVATION OF COASTAL EFH IN

728

THE BALTIC SEA

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The increasing anthropogenic impacts on marine waters have fuelled the discussion on how to manage and to conserve marine resources sustainably. During the last decade, there has been a raised focus on ecosystem-based management of marine ecosystems to secure the maintenance of healthy, productive, and resilient ecosystems capable of providing the services needed for the well-being of society (Collie et al. 2013, Yáñez-Arancibia et al. 2013, Borja 2014, Andersen and Kallenbach 2016, Borja et al. 2016). Within the Baltic Sea region, the current leading directives and agreements for this are the EU Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD; Anon. 2008), the HELCOM Baltic Sea Action Plan (BSAP; HELCOM 2007) and the Common Fisheries Policy (CFP; Anon. 2013), but also the EU Habitats Directive (HD; Anon. 1992), the EU Water Framework Directive (WFD; Anon. 2000) and the EU Maritime Spatial Planning Directive (MSPD; Anon. 2014) are important.

Although both healthy fish populations and benthic habitats are central elements for maintaining a good status of the coastal environment, management of fisheries and nature conservation have historically been separated in the Baltic Sea region like in many other parts of the world (Sissenwine and Symes 2007, Kenny et al. 2009, Kraufvelin et al. 2016). The awareness of potential synergies between the two has also been low. Traditional management of marine resources has typically ignored interactions between fisheries and the status of coastal habitats, cross-system fluxes,

750 predator-prey interactions and other ecosystem components. An ecosystem-based
751 management perspective where conservation and fisheries issues are integrated could
752 instead provide mutual benefits and has therefore been brought forward as a more
753 convenient platform for coastal systems (Pikitch et al. 2004, Leathwick et al. 2008,
754 Thrush and Dayton 2010, Möllmann et al. 2014). Such a perspective would better cover
755 the traits and needs of whole ecosystems and not only the ones of certain species, while
756 simultaneously ensuring that multidisciplinary scientific approaches are adopted and
757 that the right actors and stakeholders are involved (Hopkins et al. 2011, Long et al.
758 2015). The multitude of drivers to account for, however, also calls for other
759 management strategies. With regard to the management of threats/pressures,
760 cumulative impact assessments could be a functional approach for setting limits on
761 allowable levels of human impact on ecosystems (Halpern et al. 2008, Korpinen et al.
762 2012, Rahikainen et al. 2014, Andersen et al. 2015, HELCOM 2017).

763

764 The conservation of coastal EFH is generally poor in the Baltic Sea, although coastal
765 benthic habitats, and thus EFH, in many countries around the Baltic Sea, have been a
766 focus of national conservation efforts (Sundblad et al. 2011). Within the fisheries
767 management sector, attention has, however, mainly been devoted to commercial and
768 threatened species. Maintenance and restoration of fish stocks have indeed been
769 objectives in nature conservation, but still with restricted focus on the habitats
770 themselves and with most focus directed towards salmonids or the threatened species
771 covered by the Habitats Directive (Anon. 1992) and the European and national IUCN
772 red-lists
773 (http://ec.europa.eu/environment/nature/conservation/species/redlist/index_en.htm,

774 Kraufvelin et al. 2016). Sundblad et al. (2011) investigated the representativity and
775 connectivity of Marine Protected Area (MPA) networks in the northern Baltic Proper
776 (Sweden and Finland) with respect to a coastal fish assemblage and associated habitats
777 based on fish distribution maps and the linking of specific life stage occurrences to
778 environmental variables. These analyses reveal that both the representativity and the
779 connectivity of the network are poor as only 3.5% of the assemblage recruitment habitat
780 is protected and 48% of potentially connected habitats are included in the MPA network.
781 Furthermore, from a coastal EFH perspective, it appears that the most relevant areas are
782 not always the ones being preserved. The lack of an ecosystem-based management
783 perspective and the traditional split of fisheries and environmental management have
784 again been major reasons underlying the poor conservation status of EFH in the Baltic
785 Sea. Further challenges to the management of fish and habitats in the coastal zone are
786 that they are under national jurisdictions of ten different countries in the Baltic Sea area,
787 which cause large practical differences in management regimes. Hence, the authors see a
788 need for the EFH perspective to be more strongly considered at both national and
789 international levels of coastal management and conservation. Currently, changes appear
790 to be taking place in many countries around the Baltic Sea (Kraufvelin et al. 2016) so
791 now would be an opportune time for science advisors to bring EFH to the forefront of
792 policy makers' attention.

793

794 In order to aid in merging the management of fisheries and environmental issues,
795 there is a general need for a common awareness of the importance of coastal EFH and
796 also about the threats to these habitats among managers, politicians and the public (e.g.
797 Lotze 2004). There has been an apparent lack of information on the importance of the
798 habitats for fish production and viability, but also previously a lack of maps depicting

799 the spatial distribution of specific types of coastal EFH to be used in marine spatial
800 planning, permitting processes and for other management purposes. To that end, there
801 is also a great need for more species- and life-stage-specific knowledge, both in terms of
802 population-level effects and the geographical distribution of coastal EFH. As quantitative
803 evidence for habitat limitation of fish production is slowly accumulating from different
804 areas and species through the use of various methods (Vasconcelos et al. 2014, Seitz et
805 al. 2014), the possibilities for integrating fish habitats in fisheries management and
806 nature conservation will improve accordingly.

807

808 In order to reach a higher level of protection of coastal EFH, the role of habitats in
809 supporting fisheries must also be disentangled in a broader context so that the value of
810 the ecosystem services that these habitats provide can be emphasized more strongly
811 (Holmlund and Hammer 1999, Rönnbäck et al. 2007, Uusitalo et al. 2016). These
812 services may include producing fish for commercial and recreational fisheries,
813 aquaculture and biological regulation (e.g. regulation of eutrophication symptoms
814 through top-down control of filamentous algae), but also maintenance of biodiversity
815 and ecosystem resilience. Many habitats considered EFH are also of importance for
816 coastal protection against erosion, as nutrient filters, carbon sinks and for human
817 recreation and scientific, educational and cultural purposes (Ahtiainen and Öhman
818 2014, Bouma et al. 2014, Ivarsson et al. 2017). Natural scientists together with
819 environmental economists and social scientists should therefore consider all the ways in
820 which coastal fish habitats provide value to society and use these as examples in
821 communicating the needs for protection of coastal EFH and their sustainability (Støttrup
822 et al. 2016). In this context, the general protection of coastal EFH from diverse pressures
823 and what level of sustainable use that can be permitted should also be clearly stated

824 (Turner et al. 1999, Fluharty 2000). This information can be included in utility functions
825 of decision support tools and in that way be accounted for when the performance of
826 alternative management strategies/actions are evaluated quantitatively (see Laurila-
827 Pant et al. 2015).

828

829 In the process of developing an efficient management scheme for the protection of
830 coastal EFH, merging the objectives of fisheries and environmental management,
831 possible difficulties of a common management of habitats and fish must be taken into
832 careful consideration (Rose 2000, Rice 2005). Most exploited fish are long-lived, utilise
833 many different habitats during their life cycle, and often exhibit large fluctuations in
834 abundance. Efficient management therefore requires understanding how environmental
835 variability, due to both natural and anthropogenic sources, affects fish population
836 dynamics. Rose (2000) described a number of issues that are related to quantifying
837 effects of environmental quality on fish populations and which at the same time may
838 serve as demonstrations of how modelling could be used to address them. These issues
839 include difficulties with the detectability of relationships, uncertainties due to
840 heterogeneity in the habitat and disproportional population responses, unnecessary
841 sacrifice of biological realism, neglected significance of community interactions, and
842 ignored sublethal and cumulative effects. The quantification of effects of environmental
843 quality on fish populations can be improved if these issues are carefully considered in
844 the analyses, and by adopting multidisciplinary approaches that combine stage-
845 structured modelling and life history theory (Rose 2000, Levin and Stunz 2005,
846 Vasconcelos et al. 2014).

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848 Finally, the need to combine alternative management strategies or actions and the
849 objectives of the society, i.e. decision-making criteria against which success or failure of
850 management are to be evaluated, should also be explored. Laurila-Pant et al. (2015)
851 discuss these issues in connection with criteria setting towards a more holistic
852 framework, although mainly with focus on biodiversity-related objectives. From a risk
853 management perspective, approaches based on the precautionary principle may also
854 sometimes be needed (Long et al. 2015, Chapman 2017). This, because uncertainty and
855 lack of sufficient evidence are not acceptable reasons for not protecting supposedly
856 essential habitats, if losing them may cause the collapse of fish stocks, with effects
857 potentially propagating throughout food webs. Another issue which may complicate
858 joint management is the inconsistency in the definition and understanding of the term
859 habitat and habitat-related concepts in general (Elliott S.A.M. et al. 2016). It will not be
860 dwelled further into habitat definitions in this review, but according to Elliott S.A.M. et
861 al. (2016), unclear use of habitat-related terminology could have implications for the
862 effectiveness of ecosystem-based fisheries management when e.g. different actors
863 within marine science use the same terms with different connotations. However, when
864 coastal management is implemented at local scales, the inclusion of all stakeholders
865 from an early stage can go some way to mitigate such incommensurable language
866 barriers and potential miscommunication (Hopkins et al. 2011).

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880 **5. SYNTHESIS**

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882 Coastal EFH form elementary cornerstones of the Baltic Sea ecosystem due to the
883 central importance of fish for ecosystem functioning and the dependence of fishes upon
884 specific coastal habitat types. As such, there are strong needs to focus on the protection
885 of coastal EFH in addition to increasing our understanding of their species-specific
886 importance, and on disentangling causal factors, pressures and mechanisms behind the
887 changes that are observed in their status. Efficient management measures can be
888 developed based on improved knowledge of causal factors and mechanisms for
889 ecosystem change, e.g. how various stressors interact to structure communities (e.g.
890 Rose 2000). The same applies to monitoring, assessing and mapping the availability and
891 the state of coastal EFH as well as the documentation of human activities and pressure
892 variables related to them (HELCOM 2010, Kraufvelin et al. 2016). Initial steps to bring
893 this work forward could be to construct roadmaps, focus on directed studies and
894 develop and harmonize the methodology (Kraufvelin et al. 2016). During this process,
895 there will be evident needs for intensified cooperation between the Baltic Sea countries
896 in order to reach successful implementations of international agreements and legislative
897 marine acts such as the Baltic Sea Action Plan (BSAP), the Habitat Directive (HD), the

898 Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD) and the Marine Spatial Planning Directive
899 (MSPD). At the same time, local/regional conditions and the actual characteristics of the
900 targeted ecosystems need to be taken into consideration more efficiently, because, as it
901 has been shown in a number of cases in this review, the most efficient management may
902 sometimes benefit from being planned and implemented case-specifically.

903

904 A major underlying objective for developing a more efficient management
905 framework should be to improve the possibilities for connecting fisheries and
906 environmental management across sectors (Pikitch et al. 2004, Thrush and Dayton
907 2010). Efforts made in these directions will also simultaneously aid in improving the
908 sustainability of coastal EFH, enhance our abilities to predict and mitigate current and
909 future effects of environmental change as well as support activities to create and
910 implement adaptive management plans. To increase the awareness of the benefits of
911 integrating management of fish and habitats, the scientific community can contribute in
912 many ways. Ecological synergies achieved by protecting coastal EFH can be
913 demonstrated; methods for large-scale mapping of EFH can be developed and utilized;
914 effects of different threats to EFH may be quantified; and the importance of the habitats
915 may be communicated (Kraufvelin et al. 2016). However, since not all habitats can be
916 conserved or restored, some general frameworks to prioritize critical habitats of e.g.
917 exploited fishes or red-listed species need to be developed and followed (Rose 2000). It
918 must also be kept in mind that if a specific fish habitat is not strictly limiting population
919 growth, a change in its availability does not lead to a change in stock sizes, provided that
920 other regulating factors remain constant (Levin and Stunz 2005, Rice 2005).

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922 This review gives an overview of the current knowledge as well as the lack of
923 knowledge about coastal EFH in the Baltic Sea and brings about some suggestions for
924 future work and cooperation. The topic is timely and of high importance in the current
925 era of rapidly improving habitat modelling, new demands for better monitoring of
926 marine ecosystem such as BSAP (HELCOM 2007), MSFD (Anon. 2008) and MSPD (Anon.
927 2014), and the findings that the Baltic network of MPAs cannot be considered
928 ecologically coherent (Sundblad et al. 2011). The review also stresses the importance to
929 protect key habitats vital for the survival of early life stages of fish and to map these
930 areas (Kraufvelin et al. 2016). Apart from the need for conducting more investigations
931 into the topics mentioned above, further studies also seem to be especially urgent within
932 the field of attaining quantitative data for the value of coastal EFH for fish production,
933 including defining the key habitats for protection and for possible restoration efforts, as
934 well as disentangling the major threats/pressures and their effects (e.g. Elliott 2004,
935 Elliott, M. et al. 2016). Improved integration of habitat quality in fish stock assessment
936 and ecosystem-based fishery management is also warranted when this path is followed
937 (Seitz et al. 2014, Sundblad et al. 2014). A crucial part of this work could consist of
938 carrying out additional analyses on existing data as a lot of the needed information
939 already seems to be available through monitoring and mapping work carried out in
940 Baltic Sea countries (Kraufvelin et al. 2016). During this process, the utilization of meta-
941 analytical approaches could be worth considering (see e.g. Pulkkinen et al. 2011, Östman
942 et al. 2016). The initiation of common research projects and intensified outreach efforts
943 constitute fruitful ways to bring this work forward on a Baltic-wide scale. In order to
944 succeed with all these undertakings, devoted endeavours focusing on all aspects of
945 coastal EFH will be of utmost importance. Successful implementation of these activities

946 will then in turn hopefully lead to clear and lasting improvements for fish and their
947 habitats in the entire Baltic Sea region.

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956

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Direct evidence				
Fish species	Area	Studied topic(s)	Central findings	Reference(s)
Perch (<i>Perca fluviatilis</i>) and pikeperch (<i>Sander lucioperca</i>)	Sweden and Finland	Species distribution modelling was used on coastal data from twelve archipelago areas where the distribution of nursery habitats for perch and pikeperch was related to the size of adult populations.	Habitat availability explains almost half of the variation in population size and indicates a crucial role in limiting adult stock sizes.	Sundblad et al. 2014
Whitefish (<i>Coregonus lavaretus</i>)	Gulf of Bothnia, Sweden and Finland	Species distribution modelling was used on coastal data on whitefish to evaluate relationships between variables describing EFH and larval production.	Metrics describing EFH and their current level of human impact are the most important ones for the abundance of whitefish larvae.	Vanhatalo et al. 2012
Perch, pikeperch, Baltic herring (<i>Clupea harengus membras</i>) and sprat (<i>Osmerus eperlanus</i>)	Finnish coast	Species distribution modelling was used on larval survey data of a number of fish species to assess the most important reproduction habitats.	Identification of highly effective spawning areas, i.e. that production of fish stocks can be concentrated to very limited areas compared to the total suitable production areas that are available.	Kallasvuo et al. 2017
Cod (<i>Gadus morhua</i>)*	Baltic Proper	Various statistical models were used for the determination of relationships between the volume of EFH (coastal and non-coastal) available for Baltic cod and processes affecting adult stock size.	Positive relationships exist between the volume of EFH and cod reproduction (and thus the adult stock size) as well as between habitat availability for juvenile cod (nursery areas) and density-dependent growth.	MacKenzie et al. 2000, Cardinale and Arrhenius 2000, Hinrichsen et al. 2017
Flounder (<i>Platichthys flesus</i>)*	Baltic Proper	Spawning area availability of pelagic spawning flounder through time was quantified by species distribution modelling, and related to larval production and adult stock sizes.	Decreases in spawning habitat availability have been accompanied by a decrease in larval production as well as a decrease in adult stock sizes.	Ustups et al. 2013, Orio et al. 2017
Indirect evidence				
Fish species	Area	Studied topic(s)	Central findings	Reference(s)
Perch	Sweden and Finland	Investigation of how coastal spawning habitats for perch are dependent on the type of substrate.	Vegetated substrates providing rigidity and structural complexity are preferred by the perch. Also, shallow depths and sheltered areas are preferred characteristics.	Snickars et al. 2010
Juvenile fish	Sweden and Finland	Relationships between fish reproduction data and the quality (species composition) of macrophyte communities on shallow soft bottoms were investigated	Investigated bays that are dominated by stress sensitive macrophyte species are important nursery areas for fish.	Hansen and Snickars 2014
Pike (<i>Esox lucius</i>)	Southern Finland	Habitat choice and survival of pike in filamentous algae and in bladder-wrack were	In the presence of predators, pike larvae prefer and also survive better in filamentous algae	Engström-Öst et al. 2007

		tested experimentally.	than in bladderwrack.	
Pike	Southern Finland	The performance of larval pike under the influence of turbidity induced by phytoplankton was investigated experimentally.	Larval weight of pike is lower in turbid water, despite that pike larvae here spend less time in vegetation and attack more prey.	Engström-Öst and Mattila 2008
Commercial fish species	Entire Finnish coastline	Relationships between many environmental variables (N, P, chlorophyll <i>a</i> , duration of ice coverage in winter, shore density in the area and salinity) and the CPUE (of reported commercial catches) were investigated.	Shore density, corresponding closely to the availability of EFH, is an important factor for all species, although the strongest effects occur for pike.	Uusitalo et al. 2012
Flounder	Southern Finland	Fishery-independent data on adult flounder as well as historical and present-state data on juveniles in shallow coastal areas were utilized to study relationships between EFH and the production of flounder.	Increased coverage of filamentous algae correlates with a pronounced decrease in the abundance of juvenile flounder. A simultaneous decrease in the abundance of adult flounders indicates that the declined EFH availability for juveniles acts as a bottleneck for the population.	Jokinen et al. 2015, 2016
Pikeperch	Germany	Investigation of pikeperch spawning in inner coastal waters of salinities around 5-6.	Coastal EFH of lower salinities are the base for nearly 40% of the total annual catch of pikeperch in waters with higher salinities (around 10).	Winkler 1996, Winkler et al. unpubl.
Pike	Southeastern Sweden	The recruitment of pike was studied in coastal wetlands restored in different ways.	In restored wetlands with temporally flooded terrestrial vegetation, juvenile pike migration increase from a few thousand individuals in previous years to >100,000 individuals afterwards.	Nilsson et al. 2014
Pike	Swedish east coast	The relative importance of fresh and brackish water recruitment areas (spawning habitat preferences) for pike was examined through the use of otolith Sr:Ca profiles.	For pike, 20% hatches in brackish water in the Forsmark area at the 60° N latitude and 80% hatches in brackish water in the Kalmar Sound at the 56° N latitude.	Engstedt et al. 2010
Pike, whitefish, burbot (<i>Lota lota</i>) and ide (<i>Leuciscus idus</i>)	Estonia	The relative importance of fresh and brackish water recruitment areas (spawning habitat preferences) was examined for brackish water fish populations through the use of otolith Sr:Ca profiles.	The relative importance of coastal wetlands and river-mouths as spawning grounds compared to brackish water areas is demonstrated. There are indications that brackish water spawning is becoming rarer.	Rohtla et al. 2012, 2014, 2015, 2017, Rohtla 2015

Table 1. Direct and indirect evidence from the Baltic Sea with regard to the effects of EFH on fish population size. *Note that the results for cod and flounder in the Baltic Proper are not strictly coastal (see text for more details).