

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

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## Abstract

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

**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).

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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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115

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.

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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'.

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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.

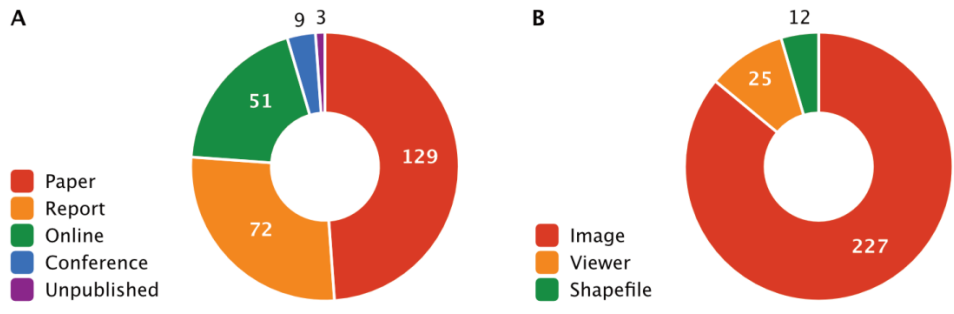
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203 *Information by source and format*

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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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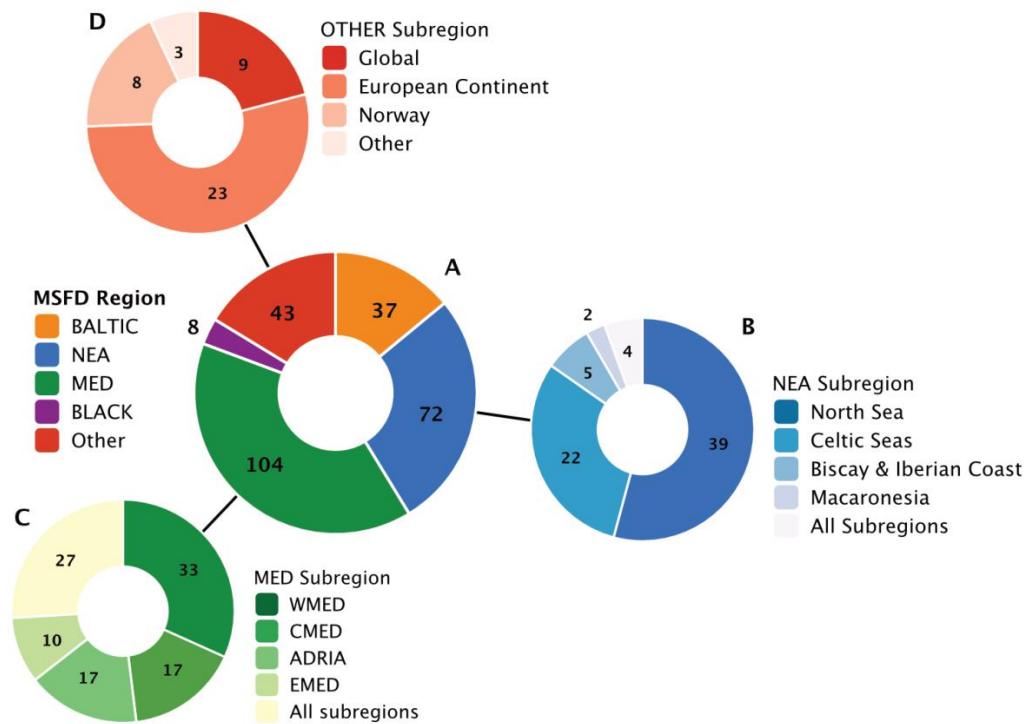


**Figure 1.** Sources (A) and format (B) of records containing spatial information on anthropogenic activities and/or pressures.

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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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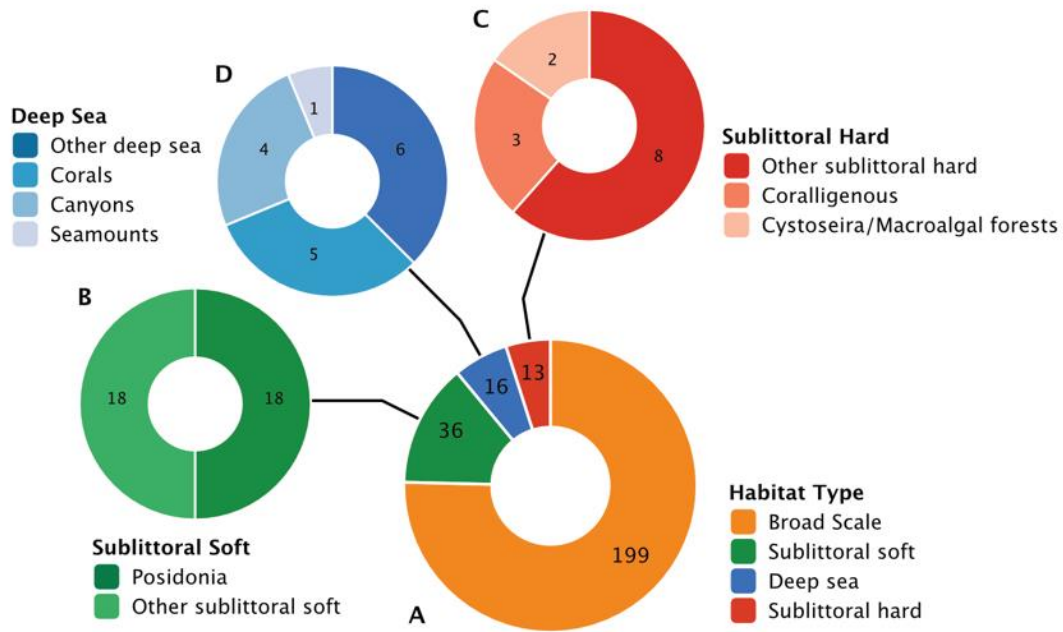
230 *Information by habitat*

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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.

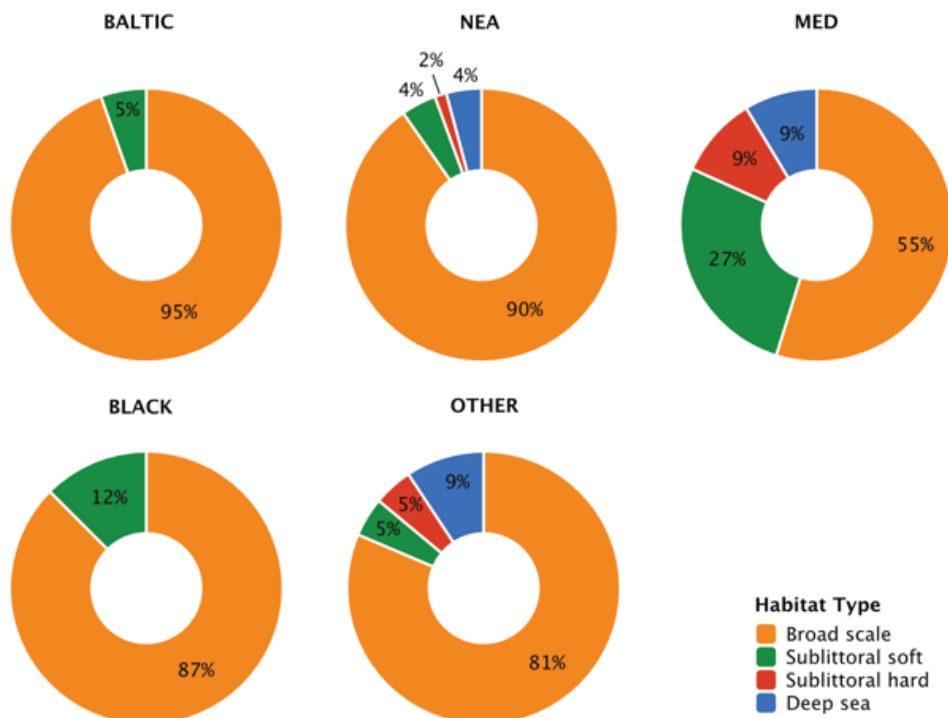




Figure 4. The number of records of habitat types by geographic region (for abbreviations see Figure 2).

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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 CO<sub>2</sub> storage requiring seabed intervention) and “Agriculture” had the lowest number of records.

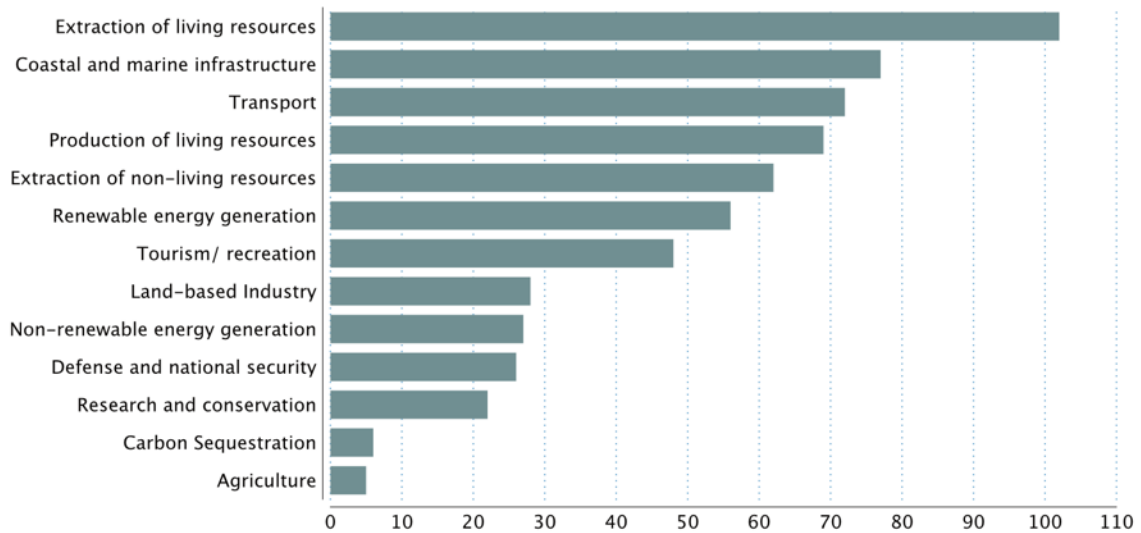
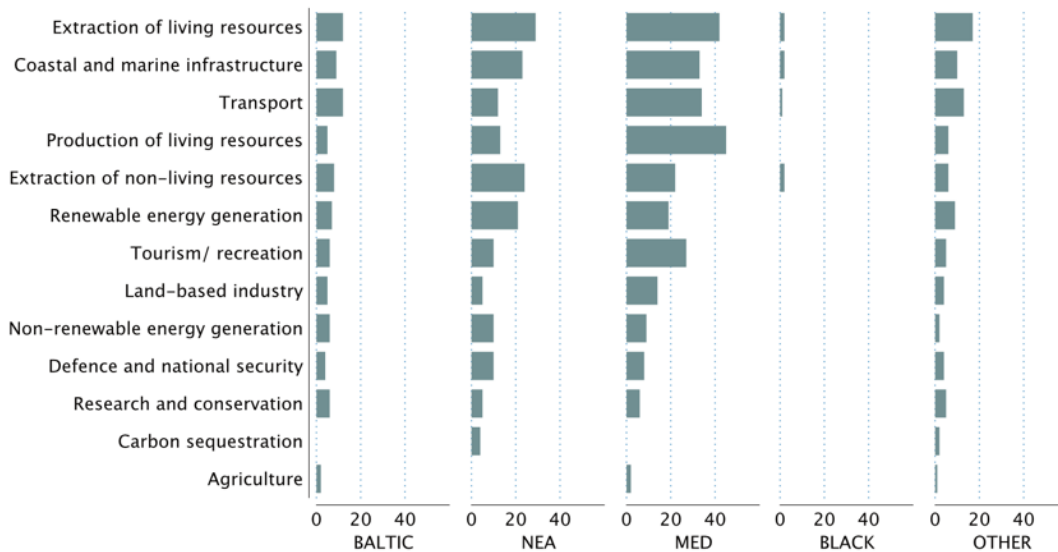


Figure 5. Mapped activities ranked by number of records.

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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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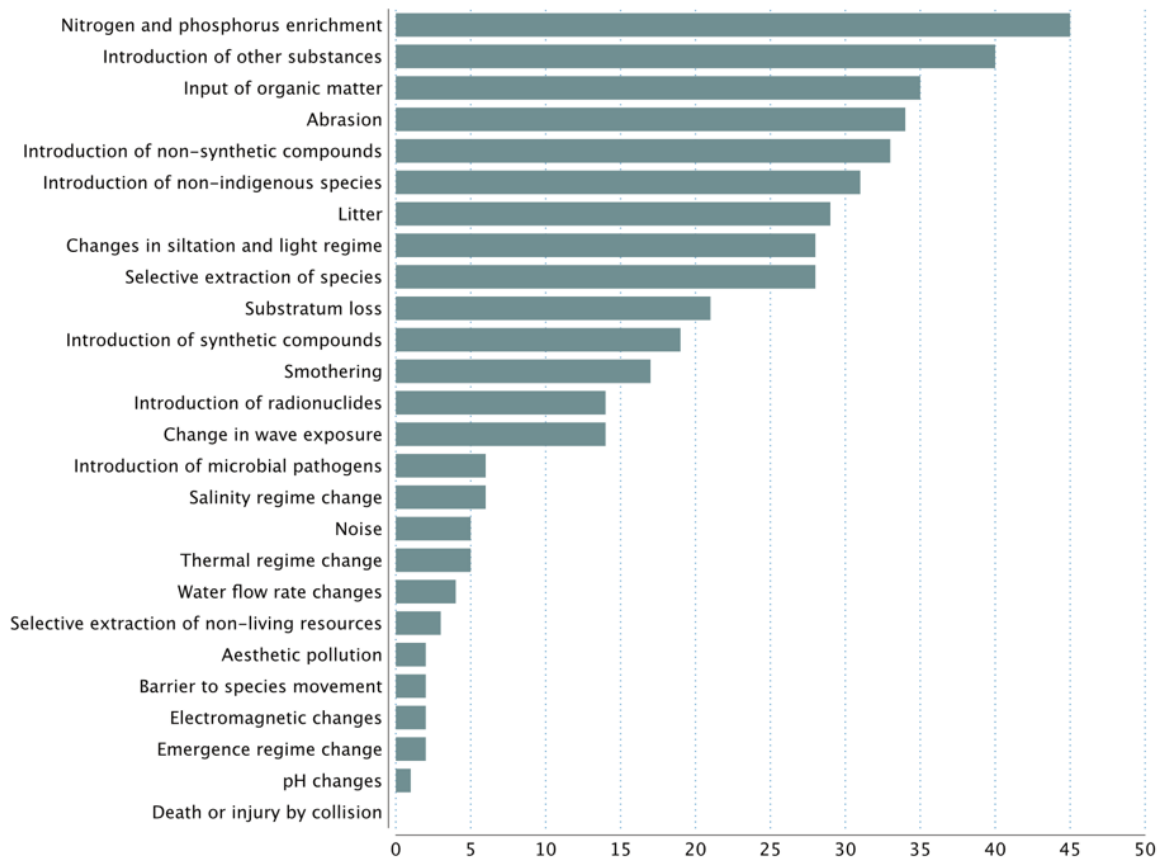
275 *Information by endogenous pressure*

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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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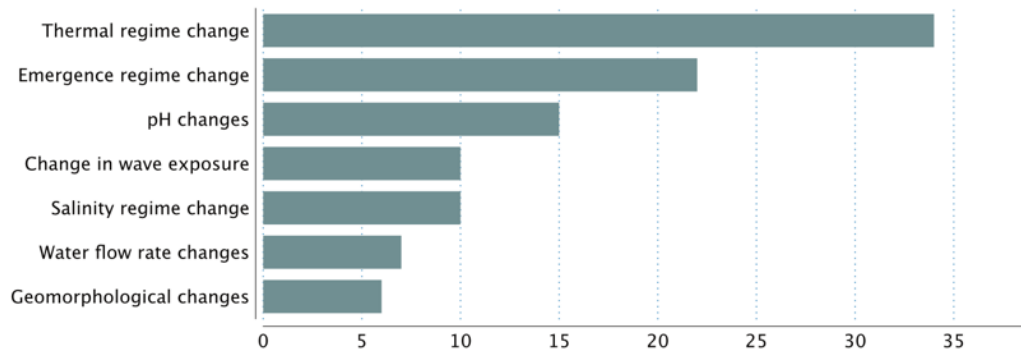


Figure 9. Mapped exogenous pressures ranked by number of records

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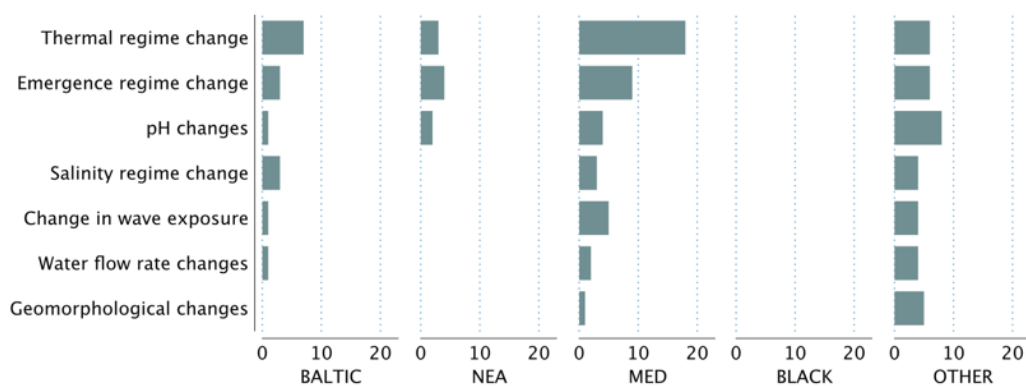


Figure 10. Mapped exogenous pressures by geographic region (for abbreviations see Figure 2).

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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.

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### 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).

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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.

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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).

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### 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*

433

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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