



Integration of fisheries into marine spatial planning: Quo vadis?

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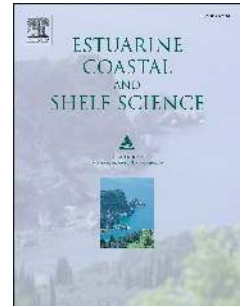
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1 Integration of fisheries into marine spatial planning: Quo vadis?

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19

20 Abstract

21 The relationship between fisheries and marine spatial planning (MSP) is still widely unsettled.
22 While several scientific studies highlight the strong relation between fisheries and MSP, as
23 well as ways in which fisheries could be included in MSP, the actual integration of fisheries
24 into MSP often fails. In this article, we review the state of the art and latest progress in
25 research on various challenges in the integration of fisheries into MSP. The reviewed studies
26 address a wide range of integration challenges, starting with techniques to analyse where
27 fishermen actually fish, assessing the drivers for fishermen's behaviour, seasonal dynamics
28 and long-term spatial changes of commercial fish species under various anthropogenic
29 pressures along their successive life stages, the effects of spatial competition on fisheries and
30 projections on those spaces that might become important fishing areas in the future, and
31 finally, examining how fisheries could benefit from MSP. This paper gives an overview of the
32 latest developments on concepts, tools, and methods. It becomes apparent that the spatial and

33 temporal dynamics of fish and fisheries, as well as the definition of spatial preferences,
34 remain major challenges, but that an integration of fisheries is already possible today.

35 **1. Introduction**

36 Fisheries in MSP has only been evaluated to a limited extent, even while the concept of MSP
37 has been promoted in various marine regions around the world over the last two decades (e.g.
38 revision of Australia's Great Barrier Reef Marine Park, Ocean Acts in the U.S. states of
39 Oregon and California, Canada's Ocean Act, European Integrated Maritime Policy, EU
40 Natura 2000 areas, ocean zoning in China and Taiwan, UNESCO-IOC initiative on MSP).
41 Several scientific studies highlighted the extensive relevance and significance of fisheries in
42 MSP (e.g. Gray et al., 2005; Crowder & Norse, 2008; Berkenhagen et al., 2010; van Deurs et
43 al., 2012; Bastardie et al., 2015). However, fisheries are usually not or not fully integrated into
44 today's marine spatial plans (if regulations on marine protected areas are understood as
45 conservation law, not as spatial planning regulations). The English East Inshore and East
46 Offshore Marine Plans (HM Government, 2014), for example, seek to integrate fisheries, but
47 ultimately they do not come up with spatial designations, but instead pass the issue on to
48 subsequent licensing procedures. The Norwegian Integrated Management Plan for the Barents
49 Sea-Lofoten area (NME, 2011) mentions fisheries, but the plan actually focuses mainly on
50 sectorial fisheries management. Canada is currently developing integrated management plans
51 for its marine regions that shall also address fish and fisheries. As seen in the example of the
52 Gulf of St. Lawrence Integrated Management Plan, this also included, during the preparation
53 phase, the identification of spawning grounds, but in the end the management plan resulted
54 only in a strategic plan (DFO, 2013). For the preparation of the U.S. Rhode Island Ocean
55 Management Plan, spatial demands of fisheries and of fish species during different life stages
56 were mapped, but this management plan also did not come up with spatially explicit solutions
57 for the integration of fisheries (CRMC, 2010). A bit different is the example of the Great
58 Barrier Reef Marine Park zoning, which gives spatial designation for fisheries and other
59 human uses (GBRMPA, 2004).

60 Modern MSP plans do not seem to achieve their theoretical integration potential when it
61 comes to fisheries. While several studies proposed ways in which fisheries could principally
62 be included in MSP (e.g. Douvère, 2007; Fock, 2008; Stelzenmüller et al., 2008), an often-
63 cited argument for the non- or partial integration is that data on spatial demands of fish and
64 fisheries cannot yet be provided in a spatial and temporal quality adequate for MSP purposes
65 (Petra Schmidt-Kaden, personal communication, January 15, 2014). This raises the question

66 of the current state of knowledge on spatial demands of commercially important fish species
67 and fisheries.

68 In this article, we present brief overviews of the state of the art of approaches which seek to
69 overcome fisheries integration challenges by providing spatially explicit knowledge for the
70 inventory, draft development, and negotiation phases of MSP processes. The aim is to give an
71 overview of the progress in providing data and knowledge for MSP processes. We define six
72 sub-challenges on the integration of fisheries and MSP, and for each of them, progress is
73 checked against the applicability in MSP practice.

74 **2. Methodology/approach**

75 In formulating a suitable methodology for the review, an initial conceptualization of the
76 challenges in the integration of fisheries into MSP was undertaken. Based on guiding MSP
77 principles (e.g. Ehler & Douvère, 2009; Ramieri et al., 2014), scientific support for the
78 inventory, draft development, and negotiation phases of MSP processes, in particular, was
79 thought to be necessary. As highlighted by Jentoft and Knol (2014) and de Groot et al. (2014),
80 being able to table good spatial data is crucial in many MSP processes. According to Hopkins
81 et al. (2011) and HELCOM-VASAB (2015), the above-mentioned MSP steps are of great
82 importance for the integration of ecosystem-based activities, such as fisheries. In order to
83 identify relevant literature on the integration of fisheries into MSP, a structure of MSP-
84 relevant knowledge challenges was developed as follows:

- 85 • MSP inventory phase:
 - 86 – Where do fishers actually fish (effort allocation)?
 - 87 – Which areas are more, which are less valuable for fishers?
 - 88 – What locations do commercially important fish species need access to during
89 their different life stages?
- 90 ▪ MSP draft plan development and negotiation phase
 - 91 – Long-term changes in species and life stage distributions, e.g. due to climate
92 change, eutrophication, etc.
 - 93 – Effects of fisheries management (CFP, national) on MSP goals.
 - 94 – Effects of MSP and human maritime uses on fisheries.

95 This structure laid the basis for a literature review with the aim to draw together information
96 on the progress in research on the above-mentioned integration challenges and the
97 applicability of today's scientific approaches in MSP practice.

98 Articles published from 2000 to 2015 were selected by means of a structured literature search
99 in SciVerse (ScienceDirect & Scopus), Web of Science, Google Scholar, and OCLC
100 WorldCat. Supplementary papers were found by following the references of articles found in
101 the above-mentioned databases and search engines. Search words were combinations of
102 "MSP", "marine/maritime spatial planning", "fisheries", "spatial", "effort", "closure",
103 "spawning", "EBM", "VMS", "anchovy", "cod", "flatfish", "herring", "plaice", "saithe", and
104 "sole" in differing dictions and including Latin names of fish species. Studies were included
105 in this review if they dealt with one of the above-mentioned challenges, had a marine focus,
106 led to spatially explicit results with an extent comparable to the average MSP planning
107 regions, and if they were written in the English language. In the case of identical or
108 conceptually similar studies, those studies were included in this review that best summarize
109 longer development trends or had the stronger focus on MSP requirements.

110 To get an overview about the different types of contributions to the integration of fisheries
111 into MSP we structured the publications by using the Grounded Theory methodology (Strauss
112 & Corbin, 1994). Each publication was assigned within four dimensions via open and axial
113 coding on the basis of the paper titles, abstracts, and keywords. The categorisation was based
114 on contrasting pairs (model-based - sample-based; fleet – fish; inventory – projection) and the
115 axial coding elements as defined by Strauss & Corbin (1998).

116 **3. Results**

117 The literature search led to more than 3,000 results with general relevance to the topic. Of
118 these, 121 studies had higher significance for the integration of fisheries into MSP. Most of
119 these were studies which focus on conceptual issues, aspects of stakeholder integration and
120 participation, and details of interdependencies of ecosystem components or of human
121 activities and fish stocks. Thirty-four of those 121 studies fulfilled the above-mentioned
122 criteria, whereof 25 studies were published since the year 2010 (see table 1 below and table 2
123 in chapter 3.2).

124 As a result of the coding the majority of reviewed papers were identified as having a focus on
125 model-based assessments of the behaviour of fishing fleets (16 papers). Nine of those studies
126 included information on the wider context or on the effects of interventions on fishermen's

127 decision-making (see figure 1). A total of eight papers described mainly phenomena, another
128 eight articles included causal conditions, while only five studies were so applied to give
129 concrete advice on MSP action strategies or similar. The smallest group of papers used
130 sampling to deduce the effects of managements measures on stock development or species
131 behaviour (3 papers). Model-based approaches clearly predominate the reviewed studies (26
132 articles), while the relation between stock-taking studies and those that make use of
133 projections is balanced. Studies coded as containing information on context, intervention,
134 action strategies, or consequences were later on more frequently considered as offering advice
135 not only for the MSP inventory phase (table 1), but also for the plan development and
136 negotiation phase (table 2).

137 *3.1 MSP inventory phase*

138 *Mapping fishing effort in space and time.* The spatial resolutions of ICES statistical rectangles
139 (30' latitude x 60' longitude) or other grid-based landings and fishing effort statistics are
140 usually too coarse to fulfil the information requirements of MSP on fisheries' demand for
141 space. Suitable resolutions have been defined, for instance, by Jin et al. (2013), who suggest a
142 grid system of maximum 10' x 10' to be able to assess economic values of marine space.
143 Marchal et al. (2014a) recommend a more delicate system of 3' x 3' to be able to analyse the
144 interactions between fishing activities and other human offshore activities. Actually, catch and
145 effort data for fleets is often available at finer scales than the ICES rectangle in most national
146 fisheries institutes. Recent technological progress has led to massive acquisition of fishing
147 vessels' movement data (e.g., Vessel Monitoring System, VMS), which offer new means of
148 studying the spatio-temporal dynamic of fishermen (e.g. Bertrand et al., 2008; Patterson et al.,
149 2009; Bastardie et al., 2010; Vermard et al., 2010; Walker and Bez, 2010; Hintzen et al.,
150 2012; Gloaguen et al., 2015). But because VMS transmits the vessel positions at best every
151 hour (without any further information such as the current activity of the vessel, the catches,
152 etc.) these data alone, especially if displayed within ICES rectangles, are usually insufficient
153 for MSP processes, and information on where fishermen actually fish has to be inferred from
154 the data, and additional information (gear type used, catches) obtained from coupling to the
155 fishermen's logbooks. Various methods have been applied to model non-observed fisher
156 behaviour (cf. Hutton et al., 2004). The studies show quite well the value of model
157 simulations for getting insights into detailed fishing vessel behaviour, as required for a
158 holistic MSP. However, the authors also mentioned various constraints which currently limit
159 the validity and reliability of the simulation results, such as general uncertainties in model

160 simulations and the liability of covariates describing the environment (e.g. the time of the day,
161 the season, or the habitat and knowledge of the gear actually used by the fishing vessel). This
162 causes limitations in the general advantage of numerical models in comparison to limited
163 observational studies (limited in space, time, and in the number of individuals observed). As
164 shown by Pascual et al. (2013) and Turner et al. (2015), it may therefore also be necessary to
165 conduct analyses of fisher behaviour based on sightings and interviews for MSP purposes. A
166 recent example integrating data on fishing effort in Israeli draft MSP plans was published by
167 Mazor et al. (2014), who developed surrogate opportunity cost layers of commercial fishing
168 with a resolution of 1 x 1 km.

169 *Biotope identification.* To fully integrate fisheries into MSP, knowledge of spawning areas
170 and other essential fish habitats (EFH) is a prerequisite. To be able to define relevant
171 spawning areas, this includes knowledge of the importance of variability in environmental
172 conditions for egg survival. In a series of studies, Hüseyin et al. (2012), Hinrichsen et al. (2012)
173 and Petereit et al. (2014) used hydrodynamic drift modelling to test whether the
174 environmental conditions in different regions are *i*) suitable for spawning, and *ii*) suitable for
175 egg survival, and then used this data to estimate the population connectivity of the egg stage
176 between different spawning grounds. The modelling exercise showed that the dispersal of
177 individual stocks of a species may depend on complex patterns of different external forces,
178 such as topography, local winds, barotropic and baroclinic pressure gradients. As a
179 consequence, traditional sampling methodologies are unable to provide high spatial and
180 temporal resolution of egg distributions in the western Baltic Sea without considering flow
181 dynamics and the impact of abiotic conditions on egg survival. In regions like the western
182 Baltic the identification EFH needs to be stock-specific and requires the use of hydrodynamic
183 modelling. Brown et al. (2000) highlighted the value of habitat suitability index models for
184 the identification of EFH in different life stages. Overviews of predictive species-habitat
185 modelling approaches have been published for various species (cf. Valavanis et al., 2008).
186 There is a wide array of literature on marine habitat mapping with some relation to MSP (cf.
187 Cogan et al. 2009). However, detailed biotope maps are currently not available for most
188 regions worldwide, due to a lack of full-coverage environmental data (Schiele et al., 2015). It
189 becomes apparent that advances in biotope identification and its usefulness for MSP are
190 dependent on evolving technological and modelling capabilities (ibidem), but also on a
191 rigorous approach for model validation to force modellers to combine observations and
192 experiments as an integral part of the overall modelling process (Hannah, 2007).

193 *Long-term changes in fish distributions and fishing fleets (climate change impacts)*. Cheung
194 et al. (2009) showed that climate change and related warming sea water temperatures are
195 expected to drive global changes in ectothermic marine species ranges due to physiological
196 limitations in thermal tolerance levels. Spatial shifts of commercial fish species may be of
197 importance for MSP in those cases where fisheries follow these shifts. MSP usually has a
198 planning horizon of decades. It therefore has a need to understand these changes if it wants to
199 develop reliable spatial management regimes. Few studies in the literature collected here give
200 spatial information in a resolution and quality sufficient for MSP. Studies like the one from
201 Drinkwater (2005) are informative for MSP processes, but not explicit enough for the
202 designation of spatial management schemes for human offshore activities. The study of van
203 Keeken et al. (2007) is an example of spatial information which is too coarse for MSP
204 purposes, but of interest to MSP is the authors' indication for a potential need for spatial
205 changes in fisheries management schemes, i.e. adaptation needs in sectorial management with
206 interdependencies to MSP. Teal et al. (2012) used a mechanistic tool to predict size- and
207 season-specific distributions of fish based on the physiology of the species and the
208 temperature and food conditions for two flatfish species in the North Sea: plaice, *Pleuronectes*
209 *platessa*, and sole, *Solea sole*. This kind of mechanistic modelling approach enhances the
210 predictability of fish distribution under different environmental scenarios above what is
211 possible with simple correlative studies, and the results may also serve as input for economic
212 scenario models. The effects of such changes in fish distributions on fisheries were simulated
213 by Bartelings et al. (2015). In their case study, the authors showed that long-term effects of
214 fish displacement due to climate change had little impact on the spatial distribution of flatfish
215 and shrimp fisheries. This could be explained by the range of the shift and the expected
216 productivity. The range shift of sole and plaice is not expected to be very large by 2050 and
217 the final distributions largely overlap with the current fishing areas.

218 The authors mentioned that predicting the availability of key prey items remains a challenge.
219 Together with the fact that fish and fleet distributions are effected not only by physiology and
220 availability of suitable habitat but also by behavioural choices, migration routes for spawning
221 grounds, species interactions and fishing pressure, this results in limitations of the validity of
222 these approaches in their application in MSP. Additionally, the application of bio-economic
223 models to new fisheries may require a considerable amount of time and data. One of the
224 difficulties comes from the availability of spatial data to parameterise this kind of model (e.g.
225 estimations on the spatial distribution of stock). This type of prospective modelling exercise
226 should only be used as “what-if” scenarios, with underlying assumptions clearly stated.

227 Indeed, a sensitivity analysis by Bartelings et al. (2015) showed that the fishery was much
228 more impacted by changes in fish and energy prices than by fish displacement or area
229 closures.

230 *Designation of fishery management areas.* In the majority of cases, the designation of fishery
231 management areas will be an issue of sectorial management, and not of MSP itself. However,
232 spatio-temporal restriction and closures of smaller areas for fishing are commonly applied, for
233 example, to protect spawning aggregations, habitats, etc. (Babcock et al., 2005; Stelzenmüller
234 et al., 2008; Lorenzen et al., 2010; Sciberras et al., 2013) and these management measures are
235 taken within the context of an encircling MSP. Challenges arise from the fact that fish and
236 fisheries, together with their management, can be highly dynamic in time and space, in
237 contrast to MSP, which is generally associated with stable conditions (wind farms, shipping
238 routes, etc., stay at the same location for decades or longer). This has been demonstrated for
239 the western Baltic cod management area, where mixing with the eastern Baltic population is
240 taking place at varying proportions (Eero et al., 2014). This may require temporal re-
241 allocations of fishing effort within a management area to protect local populations, depending
242 on natural variability in population distributions, which would result in temporally varying
243 overlap of fisheries with other human uses of the sea. These examples demonstrate that
244 integrating wide-scale ecosystem processes (where appropriate) and accounting for spatial
245 and temporal ecological changes influencing fisheries management should be incorporated
246 into MSP strategies. This is in line with other studies, e.g. Beare et al. (2013), which
247 additionally emphasise the need to consider socio-economic and governance dimensions
248 (MSP dimensions) in the designation of fishery management areas. For this review, we only
249 found retrospective studies that analysed imperfect management examples and called for more
250 sound and holistic strategies, linking MSP and fishery management areas.

251 *Economic value of marine space.* The importance of seas and oceans for human prosperity, as
252 expressed e.g. in the transatlantic Galway Statement, has always been an important driver for
253 marine exploitation, management, and research. Numerous authors stress the importance of
254 the ability of spatio-economic analyses to balance multiple uses of marine space. Surprisingly,
255 only one study could be found that analysed the spatial distributions of economic values in a
256 resolution that would be informative for MSP. Jin et al. (2013) compiled empirical data on the
257 economic values arising from commercial fishing around the Gulf of Maine. The authors
258 showed that it is, in principle, possible to identify the specific location in a planning area
259 where a specific industry would be able to generate the highest value among alternative uses.

260 *3.2 MSP draft development and negotiation phase*

261 *Spatial dynamics and vulnerability of fish during different life stages.* MSP may influence
262 economically important fish species with life cycles that depend on different habitats (coastal
263 vs. offshore areas) that are subjected to different pressures (pollution, habitat destruction,
264 fisheries) and policies. There are numerous studies available on impacts of the destruction or
265 impairment of specific habitats. Most of these studies operate on scales that are too detailed
266 for MSP but which are of relevance for more detailed impact assessments within the
267 framework of licensing procedures. Stelzenmüller et al. (2010) assessed, on a larger spatial
268 scale, the vulnerability of various fish species to aggregate extraction. The authors highlight
269 the crucial importance of spatial scale for such exercises and stress that the scale of the human
270 activity has to be balanced with the occurrence of the ecological receptor. Rochette et al.
271 (2010) and Archambault et al. (in press, this volume) disentangled the effects of multiple
272 interacting stressors on population renewal (e.g. estuarine and coastal nursery habitat
273 degradation, fishing pressure) of common sole abundance in the Eastern Channel. Their
274 results emphasise the importance of nursery habitat availability and quality for this species,
275 with a two-thirds increase in catch potential for the adjacent subpopulation. Pressures on those
276 habitats can be managed by MSP by-laws, with a potential benefit for the fisheries. The study
277 showed that it is feasible to integrate coastal habitat and fisheries management in MSP based
278 on today's knowledge. However, some uncertainties remain, caused by fragmentary
279 knowledge on the effects of anthropogenic pressures and spatial connectivity. Janßen and
280 Schwarz (2015) outlined the potential benefit of MSP for stock development, here for western
281 Baltic herring. But the authors also mentioned limits of MSP in regulating some of the most
282 important stressors; in the given case this is valid mainly for eutrophication and partly for
283 pollutants.

284 *Effects of MSP and other human uses on fleet behaviour.* Effects of spatial management
285 measures and competing human activities on fisheries have been analysed in numerous
286 retrospective studies. Usually such studies are of little use for MSP, as their findings depend
287 on specific case study conditions. This challenge can be overcome by using predictive fleet
288 behaviour models, which have been used in various parts of the world to simulate potential
289 impacts of various kinds of scenarios on fisheries fleets. Holland (2000) used bioeconomic
290 modelling and showed that marine protected areas might affect catches, revenues, and
291 spawning stock of principal groundfish species in southern New England and the Gulf of
292 Maine. His simulation results also demonstrated that the impacts of sanctuaries can vary

293 greatly across species, sometimes increasing yields for some while decreasing yields for
294 others. Bastardie et al. (2014) used bioeconomic modelling to show that spatial restriction
295 scenarios (offshore wind farms, marine protected areas) may lead to a net effort displacement
296 with a subsequent change in the spatial origin of the landings. The impact of the fishing
297 activities changes for the harvested stocks, with various fishing pressure put on them after the
298 implementation of the zonation. The divergence in catch composition from alternative effort
299 allocations was, however, sufficient to create a surplus of abundance in the long term that
300 helps the fisheries to compensate for the zonation effect. Outcomes from the simulations were
301 more nuanced when studied at the individual vessel scale because some vessels were not able
302 to cope with space restrictions without a significant loss in individual profitability. Simons et
303 al. (2014) reported that changes in fishing behaviour, in terms of effort allocation patterns
304 (e.g. caused by MSP) or entry and exit of vessels, affect not only the catch, but also fishing
305 mortality of species and ultimately the development of the fish stocks (here: saithe in the
306 North Sea). Simons et al. (2015) identified areas which could lead to the greatest increase in
307 spawning stock biomass. This could be of interest not only for fisheries management but also
308 for an MSP that either seeks to stabilize fisheries as an economic sector or aims for efficient
309 contributions to the preservation of ecological functions.

310 Cumulative losses caused by the displacement of fisheries are often evaluated on a
311 macroeconomic level (Berkenhagen et al., 2010; Oostenbrugge et al., 2010), whereas impacts
312 for single enterprises or coastal regions are often ignored. As shown by Marchal et al. (2014a)
313 this can be overcome by conducting an individual stress level analysis (ISLA), i.e. calculating
314 the future potential losses in per cent (stress level) of a fisheries enterprise (individual vessel)
315 by comparing the revenues (alternatively effort or catch) gained in the past in an area which
316 might be closed to fisheries in the future with the total revenues of that individual vessel. By
317 aggregating this data per coastal area, harbour or other entity, an individual stress level profile
318 for a specific future spatial management option can inform decision makers about the
319 consequences of implementing a spatial plan. The authors report that impacts on single
320 vessels and/or single harbours may differ significantly.

321 Discrete-choice models incorporating a random utility model (RUM) are now widely used in
322 fleet dynamics and effort allocation studies (Holland and Sutinen, 1999; Hutton et al., 2004;
323 Vermard et al., 2008; Marchal et al., 2009). In these studies, the main drivers of fishing
324 behaviour considered are economic opportunities and traditions, and these indeed appeared to
325 determine spatial effort allocation. Similar RUMs were applied to a variety of French and

326 English fleets operating in the Eastern English Channel (Girardin et al., 2015; Tidd et al.,
327 2015), but with additional explanatory variables reflecting spatial interactions/competitions
328 with other fishing fleets, maritime traffic, aggregate extractions and closed areas. To the best
329 of our knowledge, this was the first time discrete-choice models have been applied to evaluate
330 the impact of spatial interactions (effects of other human uses and closed areas) on fleet
331 dynamics. Alternative spatial approaches, including spatially-explicit time series analyses,
332 have been complementarily conducted to investigate more specifically, at a finer spatial
333 resolution than that considered in the RUMs, the spatial interactions between (1) fishing
334 activities and aggregate extractions (Marchal et al., 2014a) and (2) fishing activities and
335 maritime traffic (Vermard et al., unpublished data). As shown by these authors, competing
336 activities, such as maritime transport or aggregate extraction, generally have a repelling effect
337 on the distribution of fishing fleets. However, this effect is probably not linear, and it also
338 depends on the spatial and temporal scale of the analysis, on the fleet, and on the targeted
339 species. In the study by Marchal et al. (2014b), some fleets (e.g., potters targeting whelks and
340 large crustaceans, netters targeting sole, and even some scallop dredgers) were attracted to the
341 vicinity of aggregate extraction sites. For shipping lanes, it was shown that, when stock
342 density was high, the influence of maritime traffic decreased, possibly because the risk of
343 being caught in an accident within the shipping lanes was offset by the expected profit.

344 These results indicate that the interactions between fishing activities and other human
345 activities offshore are complex in nature, and hence highlight the importance of choosing a
346 sufficiently accurate spatial scale to implement MSP efficiently. In the case of the Eastern
347 English Channel, the ICES rectangle (30' x 60'), or even the 1/8th of an ICES rectangle (15' x
348 15') would not be of sufficient precision to monitor spatial interactions between human uses.

349

350 **4. Synthesis and discussion**

351 During recent years, research on the integration of fisheries into MSP has been gaining
352 momentum. Three-fourths of the reviewed studies were published recently (since 2010). As
353 shown above, tools and methods for identifying productive areas with relevance for fish
354 resources, fisheries and the management of fish stocks (e.g. fishing grounds, spawning
355 grounds, nursery grounds, benthic habitats, etc.) are widely available or under development.
356 The same is true for models that support analyses on changes in species distribution and of
357 effects of MSP or human uses on existing fisheries. While we found fewer than three dozen

358 studies with direct significance for the topic, there is a large number of publications with
359 general relevance. This suggests that the knowledge that is actually available might be much
360 larger, while the publications might simply have been written in a style that did not focus on
361 spatial management approaches and were therefore not included in this review. The papers,
362 approaches and case studies reviewed here indicated that very often the presented tools,
363 methods and models are still in a scientific stage and not directly usable by MSP management
364 bodies. Most of the modelling approaches require large amounts of data, including satellite-
365 based VMS data, fishermen's declaration of catches in logbooks, sales slips from fish
366 auctions, and biological information that is available on various scales over a range of species,
367 as well as biological and economic processes and functional relationships. Not all of the data
368 needed is always easily accessible, e.g. logbook data of foreign fleets operating in the
369 planning region. In addition, this kind of tool requires advanced modelling skills; some may
370 even require access to supercomputing facilities.

371 As seen in the reviewed studies, extensive and broad expertise is needed to integrate fisheries
372 and MSP. This may include detailed knowledge on benthic communities, the biology of
373 selected fish species during different life stages, and various forms of cause-effect
374 relationships, as well as proficiency in statistics, economics or modelling, among others.
375 While such expertise is usually not part of the infrastructure of MSP agencies, it is
376 increasingly available, as shown by the reviewed studies.

377 Spatial resolution is still a challenge for the integration of fisheries and MSP. Fisheries
378 research and management often operate on the basis of grid systems which are not optimal for
379 MSP. Resolutions of 30' x 60' (ICES rectangle) or even 10' x 10' are often not informative
380 enough for MSP processes. Stock dynamics and fleet movements operate on fine spatial
381 scales, while the catches and fishing effort (fishing logbooks) are usually reported at the ICES
382 rectangle scale or similar grid systems (e.g. Bastardie et al., 2010). The ICES rectangle
383 resolution does not seem adequate to describe the space and time structure and change in
384 stock and fleet distribution (nursery areas, spawning areas, economic zones, ports and vessel
385 mobility, etc.). Offshore platforms are also fine-scale settlements, which makes the use of the
386 current fisheries zoning (for reporting, i.e. ICES rectangle at best) quite irrelevant. New
387 information are now requested by ICES (2015 ICES/OSPAR/HELCOM data call) to advise
388 on the impact of fishing and the use of space in European waters on a much finer scale than
389 previously used, by making use of transnational VMS data. VMS tracks (at least the vessel
390 position data collected every 2 hours) will be coupled to the logbook information to map the

391 fishing per activity category. Fine fishing distribution mapping, using coupled VMS/logbook
392 data information and fishing gear questionnaire surveys at a European scale, is furthermore
393 currently under way in the EU-FP7 BENTHIS project. The example by Mazor et al. (2014)
394 suggests that 1 x 1 km could be an adequate grid resolution.

395

396 The reviewed studies gave insights into a number of more general issues in the integration of
397 fisheries into MSP:

398

399 *Space is not equally important to fish stocks and fisheries.*

400 What sounds like a platitude for a fisheries biologist is a challenge for MSP. Very often, MSP
401 processes fail to identify those priority areas which are of increased relevance for fisheries or
402 for fish species during different life stages (cf. Jay et al., 2013). A planning area should be
403 divided into subspaces to which different qualitative values of fisheries' relevance need to be
404 assigned to, e.g. values on the importance for relevant species during different life stages or
405 on the relevance for fishing fleets. If such assessments are omitted, an integration of fisheries
406 into MSP will not succeed. The approaches used in the reviewed studies are not without
407 constraints and obstacles and they may still be unsatisfactory for the needs of MSP
408 authorities. But they show that detailed assessments on the dynamics of fishing effort and fish
409 stocks (spawning activities, etc.) are possible and available. The same is true for the
410 identification of habitats over different life stages and fleet models which link species
411 dynamics with fleet behaviour. Another crucial aspect in this context is foreseeing unwanted
412 detrimental effects of the plan, such as effects that a misplaced area closure for fisheries could
413 potentially create by concentrating the fishing effort on the most sensitive parts of the stock or
414 the ecosystem components (Suuronen et al., 2010).

415

416 *How to define valuable areas?*

417 Fisheries are often mainly understood as an economic sector. In these cases (e.g. Jin et al.,
418 2013; Bartelings et al., 2015), areas valuable for fisheries are often defined as those areas with
419 high fishing effort, high catches, or high revenues. These methods usually work fine but they
420 partly ignore the broader approach of spatial planning as defined within the European
421 Regional/Spatial Planning Charter (Council of Europe, 1983), according to which "spatial
422 planning gives geographical expression to the economic, social, cultural and ecological
423 policies of society." In particular, the integration of social and cultural dimensions may
424 require additional criteria for the definition of valuable areas. These could, for instance, be

425 information on those areas to which small-scale fishermen are most attached (which might not
426 be of high value at the scale of the whole fisheries) or information on areas for recreational
427 fisheries. Currently, the link to social aspects is still relatively weak in the tools and models
428 developed, and only a small amount of literature on the social value of marine areas was
429 found.

430

431 Even in those cases where economic goals are in the focus, a decision on how “value” is
432 defined may be necessary (e.g., employment vs. total revenue from catches; cf. Bastardie et
433 al., 2014). The definition of valuable areas can be dynamic and changeable, as is often the
434 case with societal decision-making processes. It is important that this discussion is taken up
435 by MSP processes to prove that MSP actually reflects societal policies, as stated above.

436

437 *MSP’s responsibility for fisheries and fish stocks*

438 How MSP goals and approaches are understood around the world differs from country to
439 country, and ranges from lean zonation methods to comprehensive ecosystem-based ocean
440 management approaches (Jay et al., 2013). If and how fisheries are integrated into MSP
441 processes is influenced in part by these differences in how MSP is understood. Independent of
442 a country’s MSP philosophy, MSP may affect fisheries and fish stocks on various levels. MSP
443 assigns spaces to human uses which usually impose limitations on fisheries, with effects on
444 effort, fleet behaviour, and revenues. These effects can be analysed with model simulations,
445 and these analyses can also help to identify affected stakeholders, down to the level of single
446 harbours and coastal communities. Even if these assessments sometimes include a large
447 number of uncertainties, they are still capable of supporting stakeholder mapping and the
448 establishment of MSP discussion fora.

449

450 Examples like Simons et al. (2015) and Janßen et al. (2015) indicate that MSP may have
451 direct and indirect influence on the development of fish stocks. In the case of indirect impacts,
452 one could argue that these effects are usually not caused by the MSP itself but by single
453 human activities (e.g. sediment extraction, harbour dredging) which MSP merely coordinates
454 but does not implement. In that case, these impacts would have to be addressed within
455 sectoral Environmental Impact Assessments (EIA), but not necessarily within a MSP
456 procedure. On the other hand, these interactions between human uses and fish stocks may
457 well be relevant for the decision making on spatial designations within MSP. Within Europe,
458 Article 5 of the EU MSP Framework Directive (Directive 2014/89/EU) obliges member states

459 to implement MSP, among others with the objective of achieving a sustainable development
460 of the fisheries sector. MSP also requires, from the perspective of the fisheries, some
461 evaluations on how biological targets and targets set within the fishery management context
462 can still be achieved in the broader context of multi-sector use of the sea. The above-
463 mentioned examples give various indications on issues and interactions, which MSP
464 processes should reflect. The increasing competition for marine space and the cumulative
465 impact of human activities on marine ecosystems render the current, fragmented decision-
466 making in maritime affairs inadequate, especially for co-management of fisheries and other
467 pressures on fish habitats and fish populations. A MSP which ignores its responsibility for
468 that would not only not be rising to its full potential, but might also fail to meet the
469 requirements of the EU MSP Directive. MSP could be especially efficient for preventing new
470 alteration by managing present human activities.

471

472 *Spatial dynamics and temporal dimension*

473 The spatial dynamics of commercial fish species and fisheries are often understood as a major
474 challenge for MSP. However, this is, in principle, nothing new, as all ecological and social
475 systems are dynamic, such that specific management decisions and tools should and often
476 already use an adaptive management process (cf. Foley et al., 2010). Fish and fisheries,
477 together with their management, can be highly dynamic in time and space, in contrast to MSP,
478 which is often associated with more stable conditions and planning horizons of decades (see
479 Directive 2014/89/EU). This may include space and time displacement of fishing effort within
480 a management area, depending on natural or non-natural variability in population
481 distributions. With certain limitations, these shifts can be projected. The scientific foundations
482 of those projections may still be too weak to be directly used in administrative MSP decisions,
483 but they can nevertheless serve today as assessments for the identification of areas with an
484 increased probability for shifting fisheries effort. This may help to define areas for the
485 application of the precautionary principle in MSP, e.g. areas that may be suitable for limited
486 or non-permanent human uses. Long-term changes, e.g. impacts of climate change, may
487 further complicate the integration of fisheries into MSP. But again, model simulations can
488 help to identify the spatial and temporal dimensions of these shifts with the aim to identify
489 those areas that fish and fisheries might shift towards (and away from).

490

491 If a zonation scheme is set in stone, then fishermen can lose fishing grounds or access, in the
492 case of a hypothetical shift in stock distribution, e.g. due to climate change. This touches the

493 question of revision periods of MSP plans, which should occur with an appropriate time frame
494 of at most 10 years. However, it is unrealistic to require infrastructure to be moved because of
495 a plan revision. It will therefore be important to define, at an early stage, those areas that
496 underlie relevant fish and fisheries dynamics and to apply this knowledge to the
497 implementation of the precautionary principle.

498

499

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686 **FIGURES & TABLES**687 **A) Table list**

688 Table 1. Approaches to overcome integration challenges during the inventory phase

Challenge /MSP step	Approach	Regions	Scale	Species	Reference	Specifics	Stage of development
Inventory – effort allocation	Vessel sighting, log-book data, questionnaires, VMS data analysis (model based),	English Channel; North Sea; Celtic Sea; North East Atlantic, East Pacific	0 - 100 nm	Various	Bertrand et al., 2008; Patterson et al., 2009; Vermard et al., 2010; Walker and Bez, 2010; Hintzen et al., 2012; Pascual et al., 2013; Campell et al., 2014; Gloaguen et al., 2015; Turner et al., 2015	Limited validity, limitations of individual data sets, high effort, lack of access to high-resolution gear-specific fisheries data	Operational, partly usable for MSP
Inventory – biotope identification (e.g. spawning grounds, essential fish habitats)	Statistical analyses, habitat suitability indices, drift modelling	Caribbean Sea; North West Atlantic, Western Baltic Sea	Small scale; model: 1 - 500 nm	Cod, flounder, salmon and others	Brown et al., 2000; Harborne et al., 2008; Hüsey et al., 2015; Hinrichsen et al., 2012; Petereit et al., 2014	Insufficient coverage of MSP planning areas; traditional sampling unable to predict egg distributions	Operational, partly usable for MSP
Inventory – long-term changes in fish distributions and fishing fleets	Modelling	Global, Northern Atlantic, North Sea	0.5 - 500 nm	Various, cod, plaice, sole	Cheung et al., 2009; Drinkwater, 2005; Teal et al., 2012; Bartelings et al., 2015	Large uncertainties, e.g. in high-res projections of stocks and key prey items	Operational, but not yet fully usable for MSP
Inventory – designation of fishery management areas	Genetic analyses and stock assessment, retrospective analysis	Baltic Sea, North Sea	0.5 - 300 nm	Cod, sole, plaice, shrimp	Beare et al., 2013; Eero et al., 2014	Fisheries and their management can be highly dynamic in space and time; ICES rectangles not suitable for MSP; potential socio-economic, political, and governance dimensions to be taken into account	Operational and usable, mainly for sectorial management; partly insufficient understanding of ecological processes

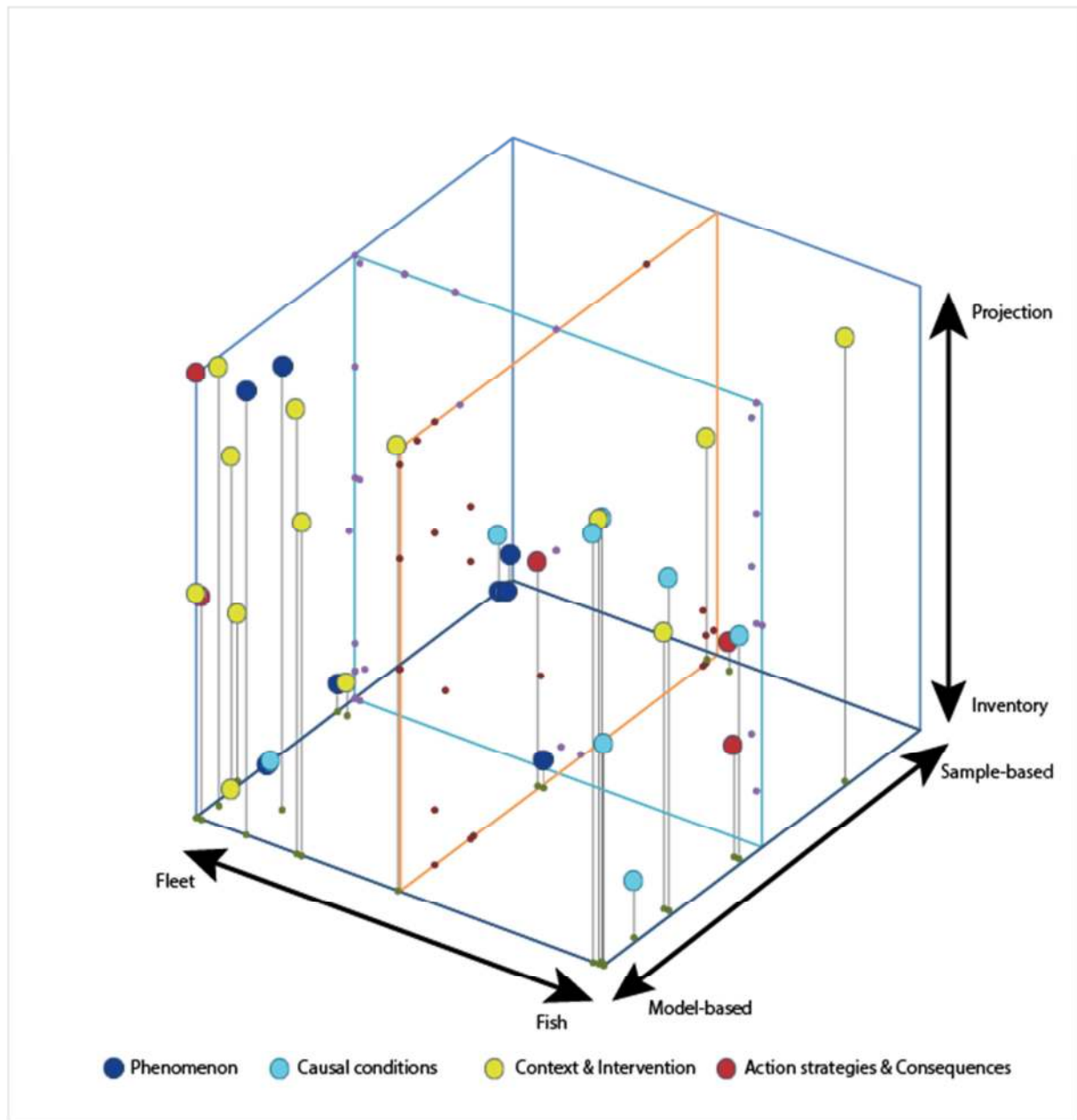
Inventory – economic values of ocean space	Empirical data analysis	Gulf of Maine	0.17 - 100 nm	about 200 species	Jin et al., 2013	Recommended spatial scale: at least the 10-min square	Operational and usable for MSP
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690 Table 2. Approaches to overcoming integration challenges during the draft development and negotiation phases

Challenge /MSP step	Approach	Regions	Scale	Species	Reference	Specifics	Stage of development
Draft development/Impact assessment – effects of multiple pressures on biotopes during different life stages	Modelling	English Channel, Irish Sea, Baltic Sea	0.25 -150 nm	Various	Rochette et al., 2010; Stelzenmüller et al., 2010; Janßen et al. 2015; Archambault et al., (in press, this volume)	Uncertainties caused by limited knowledge on impacts and on connectivity; fisheries may benefit from MSP	Operational, partly usable for MSP
Draft development/Impact assessment – effects of multiple pressures on fisheries	Modelling (various), stress level analysis	Gulf of Maine, North West Atlantic, Eastern English Channel, North Sea, Baltic Sea	1 - 500 nm	Various	Holland, 2000; Hamon et al., 2013; Marchal et al., 2014a/b; Bastardie et al., 2015; Giradin et al., 2015; Simons et al., 2014, 2015; Tidd et al., 2015	Effects may be complex and fleet dependent; ICES rectangles not suitable for MSP, limited validity	Operational, but not yet fully usable for MSP

691 B) Figure list



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693 Figure 1: Scatterplot of reviewed publications on challenges for the integration of fisheries into MSP published
 694 between 2000 and 2015. Based on concepts of Grounded Theory the publications were categorized by means of
 695 contrasting pairs (model-based - sample-based; fleet – fish; inventory – projection) and additionally structured
 696 along the axial coding elements.