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Seafloor mapping and cartography for the management of Marine Protected Areas

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Abstract

Geographical Information Systems (GIS) and diagnostic cartography have traditionally shown to be useful tools for the practical application of Ecosystem-Based Management. To date, bionomic and diagnostic cartographic approaches have been commonly used to support decision-making in the selection, zoning and management of Marine Protected Areas (MPAs), with a range of practical tools developed for this purpose. In addition to these, new and emerging technologies have the potential for generating better information for scientists, managers and other stakeholders alike, such as underwater survey tools, three dimensional (3D) visualization systems and interactive web platforms. These new methodologies allow taking into consideration the spatial heterogeneity and temporal variability of the marine environment to be managed for conservation. This paper reviews emerging and innovative technologies for marine mapping and marine spatial planning with a special focus on their use in MPAs management. These include the generation and use of benthic cartography, scientific visualization of ecosystem analyses, web-based GIS platforms and their final use as decision-support tools. Seafloor mapping technology has improved and become more affordable for small-scale MPA management purposes. However, the lack of coherent and small scale spatial data still remains an issue, limiting the power of diagnostic cartography analysis within MPAs. The proposed framework can (1) improve the generation and dissemination of cartographic and visual data, and (2) allow for a more stakeholder-driven management approach within MPAs, based on (3) scientific knowledge, and (4) ecosystem-based management principles.

Keywords: Marine Protected Areas, GIS, Spatial Decision-Support Tools, Diagnostic Cartography, Seafloor Mapping, Technology

1. Introduction

Global marine biodiversity is exposed to several threats such as increased human ocean use and climate change [1]. The Mediterranean Sea is a global biodiversity hot spot under increasing human pressure, posing serious threats to vulnerable ecosystems, unless the necessary actions to mitigate current trends are taken [2]. Marine spatial planning (MSP) is defined as a public process of analysing and allocating the spatial and temporal distribution of current and future human activities in coastal and marine areas with the overall aim to achieve sustainable ecological, economic, and social processes [3-5]. MSP is regarded as a promising tool to counteract these threats and to support the implementation of an ecosystem-based management (EBM) of our marine and coastal resources [5-7]. Ecosystem-based marine spatial planning (EB-MSP) clearly incorporates ecological principles which articulate the scientifically recognised attributes of healthy, functioning ecosystems into a decision-making framework [3, 7]. While a growing body of literature is available on conceptual frameworks for EB-MSP [4, 8, 9], with a range of methodologies and practical tools [5], their actual application in supporting the implementation of the EBM approach is still scarce [9]. Defining boundaries within Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) constitute a key element of EB-MSP practices. At the same time, experience in MPAs design and management have provided methods and concepts (such as zoning) back to the wider EB-MSP context, especially where assigning values to spatial biophysical features of MPAs allows readdressing management policies and therefore may assist EB-MSP [9]. There is general consent within the scientific community that MPAs are effective tools to manage and conserve species, habitats and ecosystems [10-12], however, in 2008 more than half of the Mediterranean MPAs had not adopted management plans and can be considered as paper parks, substantially limiting the region's marine conservation efforts [13].

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3 Nonetheless, within the past few years progress has been made in terms of ecological
4
5 baseline assessments and the implementation of regular monitoring activities, using
6
7 different parameters and indicators [14]. In this context, Governments have sometimes
8
9 taken major initiatives with limited information available [13]. For instance, the Marine
10
11 Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD, 2008/56/EC), adopted in 2008, has the stated
12
13 goals to use an EBM approach in order to achieve Good Environmental Status (GES) of
14
15 European seas by 2020 [15]. The European Union Member States are obliged to ensure
16
17 that their biological and physical marine features are closely linked to the 11 qualitative
18
19 descriptors of GES for the maintenance of biological diversity, habitat quality, and
20
21 sustainable harvest levels of marine resources [15]. Consequently Member States must
22
23 take actions to achieve GES, with the establishment of coherent networks of MPAs as
24
25 the only mandated measure [15, 16]. Unfortunately, directives such as the MSFD or
26
27 Water Framework Directive (WFD, 2000/60/EC) often lack to provide clear indications
28
29 on how to assess or achieve these qualitative descriptors or criteria, making it hard to
30
31 the scientific community to translate the principles of these directives into realistic and
32
33 accurate approaches (e.g. how is GES defined and what indicators should be used to
34
35 assess the state of the marine environment?) [17]. Recently, there has been a growing
36
37 interest and need for sound and robust indices and indicators and efforts have been
38
39 made to develop these [18]. However, no clear political agreements have been made so
40
41 far in order to select suitable indicators or indices.

42
43 MPA managers need access to a great variety of different spatial data in order to
44
45 effectively manage marine resources in an EBM context. Such data usually includes
46
47 information on the spatial distribution and abundance of species and habitats, as well as
48
49 the spatial extent and intensity of human activities and ocean uses. Anthropogenic
50
51 pressures and coastal and marine ecosystems have a spatial component and therefore
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3 cartographic tools are traditionally considered essential for the analysis and
4
5 management of natural resources [19]. The use of cartographic management tools in a
6
7 planning conservation context requires clear defined management goals and objectives
8
9 (e.g. as stated in the management plan) to specifically address management issues and
10
11 provide useful decision-support.
12

13
14 This paper reviews technologies and cartographic approaches for marine
15
16 seafloor mapping and MSP with a special focus on their use in MPAs management.
17
18 These include standard protocols for the generation of bathymetric and benthic habitats
19
20 maps, innovative diagnostic cartographic approaches using GIS to characterise and
21
22 evaluate the marine environment, and interactive, web-based platforms and their final
23
24 use for specific decision-support. Section 2 describe different seafloor and habitat
25
26 mapping approaches with their strengths and weaknesses as they play a key role in the
27
28 selection, management and conservation of MPAs [20]. Furthermore, they help to
29
30 generate scientific knowledge of benthic ecosystems and can be used to conduct seabed
31
32 resource assessments for economic and management purposes [21]. Section 3 critically
33
34 analyse GIS-based diagnostic cartography methods, which are used to characterise and
35
36 evaluate the marine environment in order to support decision-making processes within
37
38 MPAs. Finally section 4 present a general integrated framework of new technologies
39
40 and innovative approaches in cartography that can contribute towards a more
41
42 successful, comprehensive and stakeholder-driven management of MPAs.
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48 49 **2. Mapping the seafloor and benthic habitats**

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51 Traditionally, morpho-bathymetric, sedimentological and habitat maps are the most
52
53 commonly used cartographic tools to characterise the marine environment [22] as they
54
55 provide the basis for several subsequent spatial analyses. Acoustic remote sensing
56
57 technology has greatly improved within the last decade, matching the quality and
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1
2
3 resolution of terrestrial mapping efforts in the marine environment [23]. Today it is
4
5 possible to produce accurate and high-resolution images of the seafloor using these
6
7 acoustic-surveying techniques. Nevertheless, remote sensing technology still requires at
8
9 least some sampled or visual ground control points for data calibration and *a-posteriori*
10
11 checks, usually made by Remotely Operated Vehicles (ROVs) or scientific SCUBA
12
13 divers. Table 1 summarises the main features and characteristics of the most common
14
15 seafloor mapping technologies available (please refer to [21, 23-26] for a more
16
17 extensive review on seafloor mapping technologies).
18
19

20 21 22 **2.1. Seafloor mapping technology** 23

24
25 Bathymetric or morpho-bathymetric maps are traditionally produced to support safety
26
27 of surface or sub-surface navigation and anchorage, as in nautical maps, and represent
28
29 the basic information for any kind of recreational, commercial or scientific activities
30
31 performed at sea. Bathymetric and morphological data can be analysed within a GIS to
32
33 produce cartographic maps containing information such as slope, aspect, exposition and
34
35 morphology, which are important factors determining species and habitat distribution in
36
37 marine and coastal ecosystems [21]. Modern seafloor mapping techniques based on
38
39 acoustic or other kind of remote sensing technologies largely vary in their applicability,
40
41 mapping effort, spatial resolution and cost [23, 26] (see Table 1).
42
43

44
45 Acoustic seafloor mapping techniques are useful tools to gather spatial
46
47 information on physical attributes and main habitats such as soft and hard bottoms and
48
49 seagrass meadows at varying geographic scales. The transducers are usually mounted
50
51 under the keel of the ship or housed in towfishes, however, they can be installed on
52
53 board of ROVs and Autonomous Underwater Vehicles (AUVs).
54

55
56 Generally three main acoustic systems can be distinguished, namely Single-
57
58 Beam Echo-Sounders (SBES), Side Scan Sonars (SSS) and Multi-Beam Sonars (MBS).
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1
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3 These systems can be ranked according to their mapping resolution, area of coverage
4
5 and cost (see Table 1). The use of lower frequencies increases the depth range of the
6
7 device and therefore allows the mapping of deep-sea environments. On the other hand,
8
9 higher frequencies increase the data resolution and are usually applied to map shallow
10
11 marine and coastal environments, such as most of the MPAs [24].
12

13
14 SBES have been originally developed to measure the water depth and to support
15
16 marine navigation and are generally considered a low cost tool suitable to map
17
18 relatively small areas [23]. Digital, high frequency and narrow beam systems should be
19
20 preferred for their accuracy and precision, especially in shallow marine environments.
21
22 Boat speed and spacing between the survey tracks influences the quality of the seafloor
23
24 map as interpolation methods are used to generate a seamless map representing the
25
26 seafloor. In the context of MPA management SBES can be regarded as a cost-efficient
27
28 and simple method to produce seafloor maps. Unfortunately, the quality of SBES maps
29
30 cannot be compared with those generated with more powerful and more expensive
31
32 technologies such as SSS and MBES. However, SBES are used by a great number of
33
34 recreational boaters and their data recordings can be used to improve nautical charts (for
35
36 more information see the Autonomous Remote Global Underwater Surveillance, at
37
38 argus.survice.com, or OpenSeaMap, at www.openseamap.org).
39
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42
43 SSS is an acoustic imaging device used to provide large area and high-resolution
44
45 “pictures” of the seafloor [21]. Thanks to its fan-shaped beam, SSS is able to map
46
47 bottom features such as reefs, sand ripples, seagrass meadows [27] and can reveal some
48
49 distinct sediment structures such as mounds, depressions, anthropogenic features (e.g.
50
51 wrecks) or trawl track marks on relatively wide areas. Through dedicated software, a
52
53 photorealistic mosaic image can be produced for a wide area showing geological,
54
55 sedimentological and some general biological features (e.g. seagrass meadows).
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1
2
3 Multi-beam sonar (MBS) is one of the most expensive acoustic seafloor mapping
4 technologies producing high quality depth measurements (see Table 1). A major
5 advantage of MBS systems over SSS is the ability to generate quantitative bathymetric
6 data and acoustic backscatter data simultaneously, which may be used for further habitat
7 classification purposes [28]. Thanks to the greater swath width of MBS systems,
8 significantly wider areas can be mapped in relative short times in comparison to the
9 other two acoustic seafloor mapping technologies. In the past MBS systems have been
10 usually applied for deep-sea mapping purposes, however, recent developments have
11 focused on reducing the size of the devices to allow small vessels to conduct MBS
12 surveys in shallow coastal environments, making the technology more interesting for
13 the mapping of MPAs (see [29]).
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28 **2.2. Benthic habitats mapping**

29 Understanding diversity and ecological processes occurring in coastal marine habitats,
30 as well as conservation and management of marine biological resources, require a
31 proper representation of seabed typologies, benthic communities, and benthic species
32 distribution at a wide range of spatial scales [30, 31]. Bionomic cartography is the
33 production of a specific kind of thematic map reporting biological habitats and
34 assemblages distribution for an area of interest [22].
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45 Coupling the results from acoustic or other remote sensing approaches with
46 conventional in situ sampling methods (such as grabs, dredges, cores, underwater
47 photographs or videos and observations carried out by scientific SCUBA divers, etc.)
48 allows to characterise the geological and biological seafloor characteristics and to create
49 thematic maps for MPA management purposes [32]. Backscatter data from acoustic
50 devices, which can be used to identify habitats such as seagrass meadows [27], other
51 biota or substratum classes [28], and significant improvements in graphic computing
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3 and GIS, have led to a steep increase of high-resolution seafloor maps available [25,
4
5 33].

6
7 Satellite or airborne remote sensing technology has been successfully applied to
8
9 identify and map shallow water habitats like seagrass meadows and coral reefs [34].
10
11 This technology allows to map large areas at a relatively low cost (see Table 1),
12
13 however, due to the limited penetration of light through seawater, most of the marine
14
15 environment lies beyond the possibility of this technique [21], and therefore makes this
16
17 approach only suitable for MPAs with wide shallow and clear water environments.
18
19

20
21 A wide range of marine biology sampling techniques can be used by scientific
22
23 SCUBA divers during underwater surveys; most are based on visual census or video
24
25 recording [35-38]. For mapping purposes, underwater surveys are generally carried out
26
27 by visual or photo/video transects. Underwater visibility and the spacing between
28
29 transects determine the sampling resolution. Afterwards, the recorded still images and
30
31 videos are analysed by expert researchers by means of image analysis software [38, 39].
32
33 Scientific SCUBA divers can only map relatively small areas at a high cost (see Table
34
35 1). However, scientific SCUBA diving is essential to conduct *a-posteriori* ground
36
37 control. In the context of MPA mapping, scientific SCUBA diving should only be used
38
39 to collect additional data in order to improve already existing maps.
40
41

42
43 The geographical positioning during biological underwater surveys is essential.
44
45 Unfortunately, ROVs, AUVs, submarines and scientific SCUBA divers cannot receive
46
47 GPS signals when operating below the water surface, as they are blocked by the water
48
49 column. Therefore, local underwater acoustic positioning systems, eventually connected
50
51 with the GPS at the surface, may be employed. For SCUBA surveys up to 30 m in
52
53 depth, a DGPS (Differential GPS) may be positioned on a floating buoy and dragged
54
55 along the surface following the divers. Thanks to the synchronisation between the inner
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1
2
3 clocks of the superficial DGPS, video camera and depth gauge, and applying
4
5 appropriate deviation corrections of the recorded DGPS track, recorded data and images
6
7 may be geo-referenced and subsequently spatially analysed.
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9
10 As described above different mapping methods have different uses and provide
11
12 different types of results for varying costs. Therefore it may be beneficial to use more
13
14 than one method for a survey, which covers different resolutions and scales [40]. All
15
16 methods are quite expensive and they require a great amount of technical. Nevertheless,
17
18 all of these methods are relatively fast and require minimal data processing unless more
19
20 detailed analyses are required.
21
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23 24 **3. Diagnostic cartography**

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26
27 Cartographic applications for the implementation of EBM are still scarce and recent
28
29 examples have been based on expert judgment and modelling [19], while others focus
30
31 on the characterisation of the marine environment [20, 22]. The main goal of these
32
33 recent cartographic approaches is to describe and visually represent the relationships
34
35 between human activities and their impacts on coastal and marine ecosystems, thus
36
37 allowing for a comparison of the expected effects of different management solutions on
38
39 coastal and marine ecosystems [19]. The successful management of a MPA requires
40
41 diagnostic cartographic tools for the following main reasons:
42
43

- 44 1. to provide operational decision support to MPA managers;
 - 45 2. to synthesize data for environmental assessments;
 - 46 3. to communicate with stakeholders and the public.
- 47
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51 52 **3.1. Assessment and visualisation of human activities**

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55 Managers of MPAs require accurate information regarding the distribution, intensity
56
57 and extent of human activities within and outside the boundaries of protected areas in
58
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1
2
3 order to identify possible hotspots of anthropogenic disturbance and to manage and
4
5 mitigate user conflicts. In the past the management of coastal and marine resources has
6
7 specifically focussed on a sector-by-sector approach [5], where each human activity,
8
9 such as fisheries, tourism and shipping, is managed independently [41]. Such sectorial
10
11 approaches to marine management make it difficult to assess cumulative impacts of
12
13 several human activities and their associated pressures [5]. Cumulative impacts can be
14
15 described as the combined effect of several different activities over space and time [5,
16
17 42]. However, according to Parravicini et al. [19] it is difficult to understand and assess
18
19 the relationship between different anthropogenic activities and the status of ecosystems.
20
21 Different pressures may interact in complex and non-additive manners [43] and reliable
22
23 and accurate information on ecosystem status and potential sources of pressures is
24
25 scarce [19, 41].
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29
30 Frameworks for evaluating and mapping cumulative impacts have been
31
32 developed to support MSP and EBM efforts by helping practitioners to: (1) identify the
33
34 most threatened and vulnerable areas, (2) identify priority stressors to mitigate specific
35
36 areas, (3) identify compatible and incompatible ocean uses based on ecosystem
37
38 component vulnerability, (4) map the most and least impacted locations within an area
39
40 of interest, and (5) assess the relative contribution of stressors to the overall ecosystem
41
42 condition [1, 6, 41, 43-45]. One of the first frameworks to evaluate and map cumulative
43
44 impacts of human activities on global marine ecosystems has been introduced by
45
46 Halpern et al. [6] and then further developed, adapted and applied at smaller scales with
47
48 more refined datasets [43, 44, 46, 47] (see Table 2). The basic idea behind this
49
50 methodology is to systematically evaluate the potential impacts of pressures or stressors
51
52 on different marine ecosystem components, based on two relevant assumptions: (1)
53
54 human activities and infrastructures are used as proxies to determine and visualise the
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3 spatial extent and intensities of each individual pressure; (2) the impact of a specific
4
5 pressure on a specific ecosystem component is given by the intensity of the pressure
6
7 multiplied by the specific vulnerability score of the ecosystem component. As shown in
8
9 Table 2, most studies have used expert opinion (often supported through references) to
10
11 calculate ecosystem component vulnerability scores followed by literature research. Not
12
13 all of the presented studies used an ecosystem component vulnerability score and only
14
15 assessed the distribution and intensity of human stressors across an area of interest.
16
17

18
19 For instance, Halpern et al. [6] quantified and mapped the impacts of 17 human
20
21 activities on 20 marine ecosystems on a global scale. This approach relies on human
22
23 activity data sets with a broad spatial resolution, producing differing results for a
24
25 specific region, when comparing the results with a study using more refined pressure
26
27 and ecosystem component data sets [47]. In the context of MPA management this
28
29 framework needs to be adjusted to support management decisions on a regional or local
30
31 scale. Few studies have adapted the framework for cumulative impact assessment in
32
33 MPAs, using smaller Planning Units (PU) and finer data sets on human activities,
34
35 habitats and species distributions [19, 20, 22].
36
37

38
39 Coll et al. [1], for example, mapped the distribution and intensity of 18 human
40
41 activities and their impacts on species richness of five main taxonomic groups for the
42
43 Mediterranean Sea, which were then used to identify important areas of conservation
44
45 concern, i.e. areas where high species diversity and high cumulative impacts occur
46
47 simultaneously.
48

49
50 The Baltic Sea Pressure Index (BSPI) is another example of a practical tool to
51
52 assess and visualise the distribution and intensity of anthropogenic pressures on the
53
54 Baltic Sea marine environment [48], its main objective being to provide a spatial
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1
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3 overview of the quantity of 42 pressures without considering their impacts on
4
5 ecosystem components [49].
6

7 Ban and Alder [50] developed a GIS-methodology to map and visualise the
8
9 spatial distribution and intensity of human activities within the Exclusive Economic
10
11 Zone (EEZ) of British Columbia, Canada. The authors used a methodology to calculate
12
13 stressor values beyond its location of occurrence in order to account for spatial
14
15 distribution of pressures. Ecosystem vulnerability was not accounted for in this study.
16
17

18 Diagnostic cartography techniques may be used to assess the status of
19
20 ecosystems; however, as mentioned before, there is no scientific consent yet on how to
21
22 define GES. Recent efforts have been made to develop and test methods to assess
23
24 seafloor-integrity [22, 46]. The implementation of the European MSFD (2008/56/EC)
25
26 should lead to improved state of the marine ecosystems and hence enhance their
27
28 resistance and resilience to counteract natural and human induced changes while
29
30 ensuring the sustainable use of ecosystem goods and services. According to the
31
32 ecological status qualitative descriptor of the MSFD “*Sea-floor integrity is at a level*
33
34 *that ensures that the structure and functions of the ecosystems are safeguarded and*
35
36 *benthic ecosystems, in particular, are not adversely affected*”. The objective of the
37
38 descriptor is that human pressures on the seabed do not hinder the ecosystem
39
40 components to retain their natural diversity, productivity and dynamic ecological
41
42 processes. The lack of coherent information of the spatial distribution and quality of the
43
44 benthic habitats may have led to short-sighted decisions in the permitting of human
45
46 activities on sea and, consequently, local loss or significant degradation of benthic
47
48 habitats [51].
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52

53 Bianchi et al. [22] proposed a cartographic toolkit that provides MPA managers
54
55 with a useful series of diagnostic maps. In this case traditional geomorphological,
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1
2
3 sedimentological and habitat maps are used to characterise the marine environment.

4
5 These three maps are useful to gain a better understanding of the distribution of habitats
6
7 and species within a Marine Protected Area. As a following step, the Marine Protected
8
9 Area is divided into equal Territorial Units (TU), also known as Planning Units (PU),
10
11 using the UTM grid of the maps.

12
13 The map of “natural emergencies” allows the visualization of biological or ecological
14
15 features (habitats and species) that need special attention to prevent a worsening of their
16
17 environmental status [22]. An index is created using information about protected
18
19 species and habitats from several international conventions (e.g. 1976 Barcelona
20
21 Convention) and European Directives (e.g. EU Habitats Directive 92/43/EEC) to map
22
23 and visualise the level of protection required by law.
24
25

26
27 The “vulnerability” map allows to visualise the distribution and degree of
28
29 vulnerability for specific habitats within a MPA [22]. Bianchi et al. [22] matched habitat
30
31 types as far as possible to habitat typologies widely recognised in the region of interest
32
33 in order to assign specific vulnerability scores for each habitat. Then the individual
34
35 vulnerability scores should be adjusted according to the total abundance of specific
36
37 habitats within the MPA to account for underrepresented habitats [20].
38
39

40
41 The map of “potential environmental quality” helps to inform on the value of the
42
43 marine environment [22]. The habitat map is used to create an individual integrated
44
45 index score for each habitat using a ranked score for each of the following four
46
47 categories: natural value, economic value, aesthetic value and rarity value [20, 22].
48

49
50 The production and use of the previously mentioned maps require intensive use
51
52 of Geographic Information Systems and are very time consuming. Recently the
53
54 scientific community has addressed the need to speed up and simplify the data
55
56 processing steps and analysis by providing “toolboxes” for use within commercial (e.g.
57
58
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2
3 ArcGIS by ESRI®) or open-source (e.g. Quantum GIS) software. The working steps
4
5 need to be simplified to allow other non-experts to apply the same methodology in
6
7 different regions around the globe. For example, Stelzenmüller et al. [5] describe the
8
9 development of some promising prototype tools to simplify routine planning tasks for
10
11 the assessment of conflicting human activities within ArcGIS. These prototype tools
12
13 allow for an assessment of the current activities within an area, conversion of data on
14
15 human activities to data on human pressures, an assessment of impacts of those
16
17 pressures on specific ecosystem components, and an assessment of the risk of
18
19 cumulative pressures [5].
20
21

22
23 The cartographic analysis methods mentioned above represent powerful tools to
24
25 address several different management issues within a MPA. However, two important
26
27 requirements need to be met prior to applying one of the diagnostic methods: (1) a clear
28
29 definition of the problem to solve, and (2) the availability of coherent spatial data for
30
31 the study region. Most of these diagnostic approaches [19, 20, 22] require high expertise
32
33 in GIS unless the tool developers make their applications increasingly user-friendly [5].
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38 **4. Web-based interactive cartographic decision-support tools**

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40 Geographical data, spatial analyses and the scientific visualization in form of maps play
41
42 an important role in MPA management. In the last decade, geographic information
43
44 technologies have advanced in both sophistication and ease of use, thereby providing
45
46 non-technical stakeholders with the ability to visualise and interpret geographic data
47
48 [52]. These tools rely on adequate cartographic input to work properly, and are intended
49
50 to analyse socio-economic and other data in a holistic approach to inform decisions.
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53 Coastal or marine web-based map viewers (also known as Coastal Web Atlases or Geo-
54
55 Portals) allow non-specialists to visualise geographic data and have become
56
57 increasingly important in the context of marine spatial planning as they communicate
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3 spatial information to a broad audience over different geographic scales and localities,
4
5 from local and single MPAs, to national, cross-border and international [53] (for a more
6
7 extensive review on participatory technology see Markantonatou et al. [54] and
8
9 references therein). Unfortunately, available and shared information are often very
10
11 scarce, inaccurate or out-dated, and these drawbacks tend to increase with the increasing
12
13 geographic area covered.
14

15
16 Recent innovations have focused on more participatory and interactive
17
18 approaches where information can be easily accessed, shared and discussed with other
19
20 stakeholders. For example, MarineMap® (<http://marinemap.org>) is a web-based
21
22 collaborative geo-design application which was introduced in 2008 to facilitate the
23
24 redesign and evaluation of Marine Protected Areas as defined by California's Marine
25
26 Life Protection Act (MLPA) [55]. The application allows users to visualise spatial data,
27
28 design and map perspective MPAs, analyse those MPAs, and share the proposed
29
30 designs with other stakeholders participating in the MLPA process [52]. MarineMap
31
32 enabled non-technical users to contribute geo-referenced shapes that reflect their
33
34 personal values about a specific place and users were provided with a real-time
35
36 feedback about how their proposals contributed to the scientific and management
37
38 guidelines of the MLPA initiative.
39
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41

42
43 One of the most recent innovations in interactive, web-based ocean geo-design
44
45 is SeaSketch® (<http://seasketch.org>). It has been launched in October 2012 and is
46
47 currently being used as decision-making tool for Marine Spatial Planning in the Hauraki
48
49 Gulf in New Zealand. In SeaSketch, users are able to “(1) initiate a project by defining a
50
51 study region, (2) upload different map layers from existing web services, (3) define
52
53 ‘sketch classes’ such as prospective marine protected areas, transportation zones or
54
55 renewable energy sites, (4) author sketches and receive automated feedback on those
56
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3 designs, such as the ecological value or the potential economic impacts of a marine
4
5 protected area, and (5) share sketches and discuss them with other users in a map-based
6
7 chat forum [56, 57]”.

8
9
10 Within the past few years several decision-support tools based on digital
11
12 cartography and diagnostic maps, have been developed to address a variety of issues
13
14 both within and around MPAs. Some of these tools have been developed and designed
15
16 for a specific study area targeting a particular user-group, potentially decreasing the
17
18 awareness about the existence of this tool for other stakeholder groups. Therefore,
19
20 efforts such as the EBM Tools Database [58], the Decision Guide: Selecting Decision
21
22 Support Tools for Marine Spatial Planning [45] or the National Marine Protected Areas
23
24 Center’s Inventory of GIS-based Decision-Support Tools for MPAs [59] can help to
25
26 minimise the risk of duplicating work, but certainly, these databases and inventories
27
28 need to be continuously updated.
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32 33 ***4.1 Three-dimensional (3D) cartographic visualization*** 34

35
36 An enhanced visualization of scientific data has the potential to widely improve the
37
38 common understanding of the phenomenon or data being studied. Two-dimensional
39
40 representations are often insufficient when trying to describe the spatial distribution of
41
42 benthic assemblages and ecosystem processes occurring in underwater habitats
43
44 characterised by steep slopes or complex geomorphology, which is very common for
45
46 the rocky bottoms [38]. Although requiring much more effort and higher investments in
47
48 data collection procedures (e.g. using stereo-cameras, see [60] and references therein)
49
50 and their processing, these new technologies can allow for a very realistic three-
51
52 dimensional (3D) representation of the underwater environment, some of them even
53
54 offering interactive functions [38]. The Digital Elevation Model (DEM) of the seabed
55
56 can be obtained by combining different types of data, which generally are MBS and/or
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3 SBES data and eventually stereo-photogrammetric data for very detailed surveys. The
4
5 geo-referenced data is processed by powerful contouring, gridding, and 3D surface
6
7 mapping software, which produce a DEM based on geostatistical algorithms [38]. SSS
8
9 images as well as videos and photos taken by scientific SCUBA divers, while they
10
11 gather geological and biological data, are used to reconstruct small details, textures of
12
13 the rocky formations and improve the realistic impression [38]. Species 3D models,
14
15 which may also represent organism health status and behaviours, can also be included in
16
17 these 3D representations of the underwater environment. Beyond its scientific value, 3D
18
19 interactive visualization can be easily spread to a wide audience through the web by the
20
21 implementation on portable devices, like smartphones and tablets, greatly increasing its
22
23 educational and outreach value (see [54]).
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31 **5. Outlook / Future needs**

32
33 In the last decade seafloor mapping technologies [23], coastal and marine cartographic
34
35 tools [5, 22] and interactive web-based cartographic decision-support tools [52, 53, 56]
36
37 have made big steps forward and are undergoing a steady and continuous development
38
39 process thanks to the continuous feedback provided by users. Through the rapid
40
41 improvement of technology, hardware and software more sophisticated and advanced
42
43 spatial analysis methods are expected to become available in the near future, enabling
44
45 non-technical users to access, generate, share and visualise spatial data for MPA
46
47 management processes.
48
49
50

51 A framework for a more stakeholder-driven, interactive and web-based cartographic
52
53 decision-support for the management of MPAs should include the following key
54
55 elements (Figure 1). Seafloor maps, benthic habitat maps and other thematic maps
56
57 produced during survey activities and studies are required to apply diagnostic
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3 cartographic approaches to support MPA management and conservation goals. All maps
4
5 and data are stored in a central GIS and database administered by the MPA management
6
7 authority. In a best-case scenario the GIS and database are continuously updated with
8
9 the latest data and maps available. The MPA management authority initiates actions and
10
11 sets up rules based on the management and conservation goals stated in the MPA
12
13 management plan, which are then translated into maps and integrated into the GIS and
14
15 database as well as the interactive Web-GIS, which allows for immediate stakeholder
16
17 feedback. Suitable monitoring approaches need to be applied to control the
18
19 effectiveness of each individual management decision or action taken. If the monitoring
20
21 results confirm the effectiveness of the chosen management decision no further
22
23 adjustments or changes need to be made. However, in case of proven ineffectiveness of
24
25 the chosen management decision the current management approach needs to be rejected
26
27 and alternative solutions need to be examined. Through the dissemination of results in
28
29 form of thematic maps through the interactive Web-GIS, relevant stakeholders will have
30
31 an easy to use tool at hand to discuss and propose alternative management scenarios,
32
33 expressing their interests and needs. Taking into account stakeholder feedback,
34
35 alternative scenarios and management decisions can be designed, discussed and
36
37 analysed, profiting from adequate cartographic support. The proposed framework not
38
39 only accelerates decision-making processes and mitigates user conflicts, but also
40
41 provides stakeholders with a powerful tool to communicate with the MPA management
42
43 authority and other stakeholders in an interactive way using the latest technology
44
45 available. The use of this framework can (1) improve the generation and dissemination
46
47 of cartographic and visual data, and (2) allow for a more stakeholder-driven
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49 management approach within MPAs, based on (3) scientific knowledge, and (4) EBM
50
51 principles.
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3 One remaining issue is the lack of coherent and harmonised spatial marine data,
4
5 limiting the potential of diagnostic cartography for an EBM approach within MPAs.
6
7 While broad scale data is sufficient for preliminary analyses of bigger study regions,
8
9 local-scale cartographic approaches, especially within MPAs are often hindered through
10
11 the unavailability or the poor quality of spatial data regarding the distribution of species
12
13 and habitats, human activities and ecosystem health [47]. EU Commission agreements
14
15 such as INSPIRE (2007/2/EC) and the MSFD underpin the need for spatially coherent
16
17 data and actions have been taken to improve the availability of harmonised coastal and
18
19 marine spatial datasets, which are needed to conduct environmental assessments and to
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21 achieve GES for European seas by 2020.
22
23

24
25 Considering the increasing availability and potential of web-based GIS
26
27 technology, the level of stakeholder participation could be substantially increased using
28
29 these new and emerging technologies. Recent advances in scientific visualization will
30
31 help to disseminate and communicate marine conservation subjects to a broad audience
32
33 and increase awareness of the coastal and marine environment and foster marine
34
35 education within society. The combination and integration of several different methods
36
37 and approaches into one interactive, easy to access and easy to use web-platform will be
38
39 the future for a sustainable and more participatory management of MPAs based on
40
41 scientific knowledge and stakeholder-driven management approaches.
42
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45 In the view of MPA management, cost-efficient mapping technology coupled
46
47 with diagnostic cartography tools and the dissemination of results through an interactive
48
49 Web-GIS, allowing user feedback, are a step into the right direction and should be
50
51 further developed in order to equip and provide MPA management authorities with
52
53 more powerful tools to support marine conservation. This process should be undertaken
54
55 in close cooperation with relevant MPA stakeholders, decision-makers and scientists in
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order to tailor these tools to the specific management and conservation goals of the MPA.

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Table 1. Comparison of main seafloor mapping technologies and benthic cartography methods.

Approach	Technology	Platform	Max. depth (m)	Mapping effort (km ² h ⁻¹)	Survey cost indications	Bathymetry	Geomorphology	Benthic Habitats	Benthic Samples	Taxonomy	Remarks
Satellite remote sensing	radar, visual	satellite	10	>1,000	<500 € km ⁻²	x	x	x			based on already available satellite flight and restricted to clear and shallow waters and satellite coverage
Light detection and ranging (LIDAR)	laser	airborne	30	>10	high	x		x			very high initial costs; cost per km ² decreases as survey area increases
Multi-beam sonar (MBS)	acoustic	ship	6,000	30 - 100	7,000 € km ⁻²	x	x	x			backscatter data
Side-scan sonar (SSS)	acoustic	ship	6,000	3	4,000 € km ⁻²		x	x			backscatter data
Single-beam echo sounder (SBES)	acoustic	ship	100-200	1	2,000 € km ⁻²	x	x	x			backscatter data
Remote operated vehicle (ROV)	visual	ship	1,000	0.001	>10,000 € km ⁻²		x	x	x		identification of megabenthos and geological features, ground-truth
SCUBA Divers	visual	ship or land	40	0.001	500-1,000 € dive ⁻¹	x	x	x	x	x	sampling of benthos and geology, ground-truth
Grab and core samples	mechanic	ship	1,000	0.000001	2-500 € sample ⁻¹			x	x	x	Sampling of benthos, ground-truth

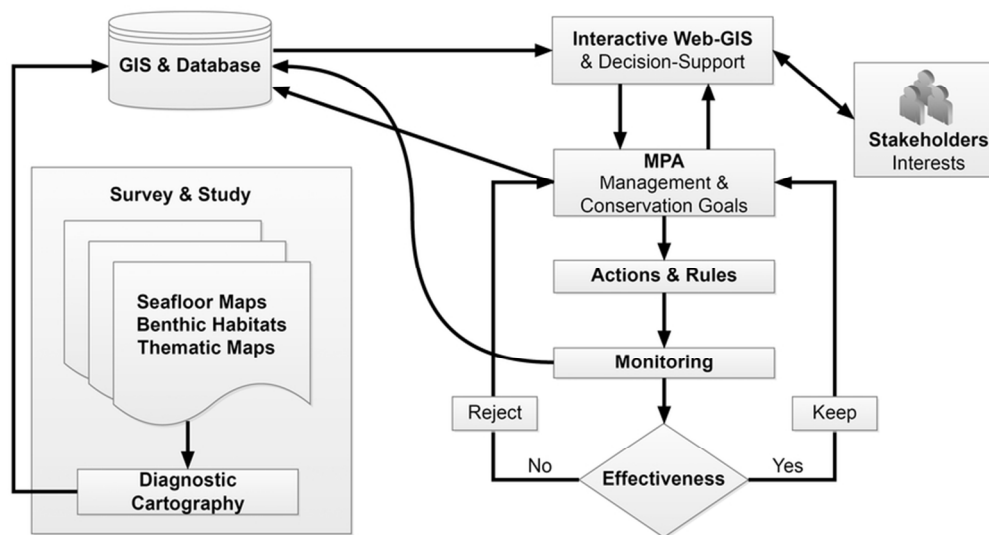
Table 2. Table summarizing and comparing different cumulative impact approaches for the marine environment.

Tool name	What does it do?	Number of pressures	Number of ecosystems or (species)	Ecosystem/species vulnerability	Size of planning units	Used for MPAs	Covered area	References
Global map of human impact on marine ecosystems	GIS approach to map human activities impacts using specific ecosystem vulnerability weighting scores	17	20	expert opinion	1 km ²	no	Global	[6]
Assessing the intensity of anthropogenic marine activities	GIS approach to map the distribution and intensity of human activities. A stressor value beyond location of occurrence was created to account for spatial distribution	39	nr	nr	1 km ²	no	Canada, British Columbia	[50]
Cumulative impact mapping	GIS approach to map human activities impacts using specific ecosystem vulnerability weighting scores	38	12(+2)	expert opinion	0.04 km ²	nr	Canada, British Columbia	[43]
A map of human impacts to a coral reef ecosystem	GIS approach to map human activities impacts using specific ecosystem weighting scores	14	10	expert opinion	0.01 km ²	yes	Pacific Ocean, Hawaii	[47]
Baltic Sea Pressure Index (BSPI)	GIS approach to map distribution and intensity of human impacts	42	nr	nr	25 km ²	no	Baltic Sea	[48, 49, 51]
Baltic Sea Impact Index (BSII)	GIS approach to map human activities impacts using specific ecosystem vulnerability weighting scores	42	14	expert opinion	25 km ²	no	Baltic Sea	[48, 49]
Cumulative impact on benthic habitats	GIS approach to map human activities impacts using specific ecosystem vulnerability weighting scores	12	18	expert opinion	0.07 km ²	no	Baltic Sea	[46]
Spatial overlap between marine biodiversity, cumulative threats and marine reserves	GIS approach to map human activities impacts using specific ecosystem vulnerability weighting scores	18	(5)	expert opinion; literature	0.1° geo-grid	yes	Mediterranean	[1]
Mapping cumulative impacts of human activities on marine ecosystems	GIS approach to map human activities impacts using specific ecosystem weighting scores	15	21	expert opinion	0.0625 km ²	no	Massachusetts, USA	[44]
Conflicting human uses and coastal ecosystem status	GIS approach to model relationships between human pressures and ecosystem status	8	nr	literature	0.00025 km ²	yes	Mediterranean, Italy	[19]

nr = not relevant information

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8 **Figure captions**
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13 Figure 1. A general framework for a more stakeholder-driven MPA management approach using innovative seafloor mapping technologies,
14 diagnostic cartography and interactive Web-GIS as decision-support.
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A general framework for a more stakeholder-driven MPA management approach using innovative seafloor mapping technologies, diagnostic cartography and interactive Web-GIS as decision-support.
78x42mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Review Only

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