

The persistence in time of distributional patterns in mobile species: its impact for zonal conservation strategies

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Abstract

The main type of zonal conservation approaches corresponds to Marine Protected Areas (MPAs), which are spatially defined and generally static entities aiming at the protection of some target populations by the implementation of a management plan. For highly mobile species the relevance of an MPA over time might be hampered by temporal variations in distributions or home ranges. In the present work, we used habitat model-based predicted distributions of cetaceans and seabirds within the Bay of Biscay from 2004 to 2017 to characterise the aggregation and persistence of mobile species distributional patterns and the relevance of existing MPA network. We explored the relationship between population abundance and spatial extent of distribution to assess the aggregation level of species distribution. Specific core areas of distributions were determined, based on predicted distributions, as the smallest spatial extent including 50% of the population present in the Bay of Biscay and their persistence was calculated over the 14 studied years. The relevance of MPA network was assessed regarding aggregation and persistence. The potential to zonal conservation was confirmed for spatially aggregated and persistent species, as bottlenose dolphins or auks. We showed that aggregation level alone is not sufficient to determine candidates to zonal conservation, since some species might be aggregated in space, but poorly persistent in time (black-legged kittiwake). Nonetheless, some loosely distributed species with strong persistence might not benefit from existing zonal conservation due to poor overlap between existing MPA networks and their core areas of distribution (great skuas). We thus have demonstrated that both aggregation and persistence have potential impact on the amount of spatio-temporal distributional variability encompassed within static MPAs. Our results exemplified the need to have access to a minimal temporal depth in the species distribution data when aiming to designate new site boundaries for the conservation of mobile species.

Keywords: zonal conservation, Bay of Biscay, persistence, core areas, aggregation, Marine Protected Areas

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1 Introduction

Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) are spatially defined and are generally static entities aiming at the protection of some target populations through the implementation of a management plan (Kelleher, 1999). Ideally, MPAs should protect the entire range of a species distribution (Boersma & Parrish, 1999; Reeves, 2000), but this goal is generally impossible to achieve for marine species ranging at basin-scales. As a consequence, MPA design has to be optimised as to protect the key areas of distributions by encompassing high spatial aggregations of individuals within rather small protected areas, *i.e.* the critical habitats target species (Hooker & Gerber, 2004).

Critical habitats of a species include the ecological units required for successful breeding and foraging ensuring its survival and population growth. For sessile and poorly mobile species, these critical habitats are contiguous and their protection can be achieved through rather small areas, but the protection of highly mobile endothermic top predators (*i.e.* seabirds and marine mammals) is more challenging as these species can cover thousands of kilometres per year (Game et al., 2009; Lewison et al., 2015). For these species, the units can be separated in both space and time, especially for seabirds, pinnipeds or baleen whales, sometimes very distantly apart.

Generally, these resting and breeding sites are well-known, as for seabird colonies and seal haul-out sites, and their protection is made easier by the aggregation of large amounts of individuals in restricted coastal areas (Game et al., 2009). However, the time spent within these areas is often small compared to the time spent outside, where species remain unprotected despite potentially important cumulative threats (Hooker & Gerber, 2004). Yet, both foraging habitats and access to these foraging resources are subject to a combination of major threats (acoustic and chemical pollutions, physical habitat destruction, marine debris, overfishing) and would require adequate protection. Due to the lack of knowledge about the marine top predator at-sea distributions, especially within oceanic waters (Game et al., 2009), their protection remained poor. In the past few years, effort has been made toward extension of the coastal networks of marine protected areas (MPAs) to offshore waters in order to encompass such particular areas (*e.g.* Skov et al., 2007; Notarbartolo Di Sciara et al., 2008; Arcos et al., 2012; Garthe et al., 2012; Delavenne et al., 2017; Heinänen & Skov, 2015). This is particularly the case in the European Union where Member States are currently designating offshore sites completing the existing coastal networks of MPAs (see INPN, 2018, in France).

Although this effort of extension to the offshore top predators diversity hotspot is of crucial importance, the relevance of zonal strategies (*i.e.* establishing static MPAs) can be questioned for the conservation of highly mobile marine endothermic predators. Indeed ocean is highly dynamic in both space and time (Longhurst, 2007; Game et al., 2009), and mobile endothermic top predators are known to track the spatially and temporally varying features of interest to sustain their growth and reproduction (Ballance et al., 2006; Weimerskirch, 2007). Despite some site-fidelity linked to particular phase of their life cycle (*i.e.* reproduction, especially for seabirds or pinnipeds), habitat preferences exhibited by endothermic top predators when at-sea could be expected to vary depending on the environmental conditions experienced by species on a particular year and at a particular season (Lambert et al., 2017a, 2018). These temporally varying preferences might induce more or less important variations in distribution. For example, a breeding seabird should adjust its at-sea habitat use depending on

37 the available environmental conditions around its colony, or odontocetes should change their distribution to
38 match the spatial variation of their favourable habitats between years. These spatial variations in distribution
39 might thus lead to variations in the relevance of a static MPA over years (Game et al., 2009; Lewison et al.,
40 2015). Species with loose distribution or with strong temporal variations might more benefit from non-zonal
41 conservation approaches. As a result, a better understanding of the aggregation and persistence of distributional
42 patterns of target species would ultimately help to make choice between policy instruments.

43 This study aimed at elucidating the effect of predator mobility on static MPA relevance in the Bay of Biscay
44 (BoB), France, where oceanographic multi-disciplinary cruises have been conducted every spring since 2003.
45 All seabirds and marine mammals are fully protected at the national level (against destruction, mutilation,
46 capture, transport. . .) in France, but they, and their habitat, also benefit from the specific protection provided
47 by various MPAs designated under diverse jurisdictional status. Seabirds are protected by Natura 2000 sites
48 under the European Birds Directive, while marine mammals and their habitat are protected under the Natura
49 2000 Habitat Directive (only four species: harbour porpoise, bottlenose dolphin, grey and harbour seals). Both
50 taxa are protected by a set of Marine Natural Parks as well. Within the Bay of Biscay, in 2018, 99 MPAs include
51 3 Marine Natural Parks (French National Parks, 2018), 58 Natura 2000 sites designated under the Habitats
52 Directive and 38 Natura 2000 sites designated under the Birds Directive (INPN, 2018). Among those Natura
53 2000 sites, two offshore sites of large extent have been designated in 2018 to achieve the EU Member States
54 objectives of offshore waters protection (Delavenne et al., 2017; Journal Officiel, 2018).

55 The implication of species mobility for zonal conservation strategies was explored by following two main
56 steps: (i) characterising the distributional patterns of mobile species based on two parameters, their aggregation
57 level and their persistence; (ii) assessing the relevance of existing MPAs regarding those two parameters. The
58 variations of distribution were defined for eight species (seven seabirds, one cetacean) for each year from 2004 to
59 2017 in the Bay of Biscay based on habitat modelling predictions computed from oceanographic cruise data. The
60 aggregation level was quantified using the predicted distribution to assess the relationship between population
61 abundance and spatial extent of distribution. Predicted distribution were used to identify specific core areas
62 of distributions, corresponding to the smallest spatial extent including 50% of the Bay of Biscay population
63 (following a method similar to the one implemented by Nur et al., 2011). The persistence of these core areas was
64 calculated over the 14 studied years. Finally, we explored whether the MPA network would actually be adequate
65 for the protection of our eight predators regarding their core areas of distribution and their persistence, and
66 discussed the implication of such spatially varying distributions for the conservation of mobile marine predators
67 through static MPAs.

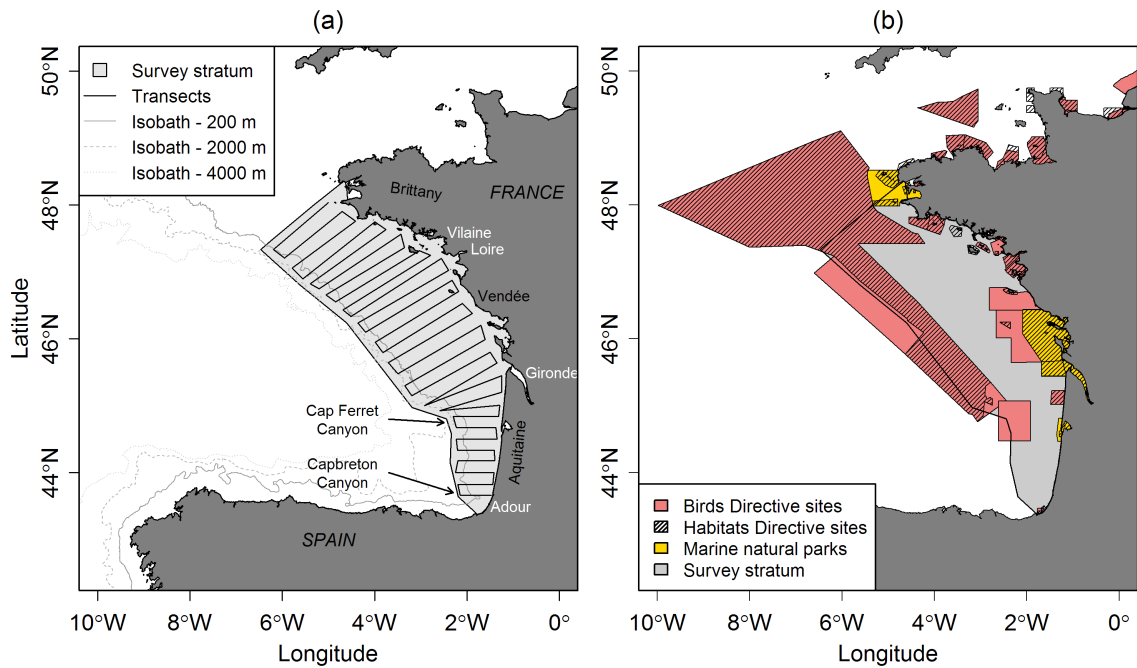


Figure 1. (a) Survey area and theoretical sampling design of PELGAS survey. The isobaths are indicated in grey, the four main estuaries in white, the geographical localities and main canyons in black; (b) Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) used for the assessment of existing MPAs within the Bay of Biscay. Birds Directive sites were assessed only for seabirds, Habitats Directive sites only for cetaceans.

2 Material and Methods

2.1 Data source

The pelagic oceanographic cruises PELGAS (*PELagiques GAScogne*), conducted by IFREMER onboard the R/V *Thalassa*, sample long transects perpendicular to the coast over the shelf (Figure 1a; Doray et al., 2018). Top predator observations were collected following a line transect protocol (Buckland et al., 2001) over the period 2004–2017. In-situ environmental variables were routinely collected along transects: surface and bottom temperatures, salinity, mixed layer depth and surface chlorophyll a concentration (Doray et al., 2018).

The habitat modelling was performed for eight group of species: bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops truncatus*), northern fulmar (*Fulmarus glacialis*), small-sized shearwaters (Manx *Puffinus puffinus* and Balearic *P. mauretanicus* shearwaters), storm petrels (European *Hydrobates pelagicus*, Leach's *H. leucorhous* and band-rumped *Hydrobates castro* storm-petrels), northern gannet (*Morus bassanus*), great skua (*Catharacta skua*), auks (common guillemot *Uria aalge* and razorbill *Alca torda*), black-legged kittiwake (*Rissa tridactyla*).

The habitat modelling procedure and results used here are presented in Lambert et al. (2018). The habitat modelling was done over a 0.25° grid aggregating both the environmental variables and the survey effort conducted in good conditions (Beaufort sea state < 4 and medium to excellent observation conditions). A set of nine environmental variables were available, of different origins: *in-situ* predictors (sea surface temperature, sea bottom temperature, mixed layer depth, sea surface salinity); SST gradient, computed from SST as the largest difference between each cell and its neighbours; remote sensing surface chlorophyll a concentration (monthly MODIS composite, <http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov>) and net primary productivity (same temporal resolu-

87 tion, <http://www.science.oregonstate.edu/ocean.productivity>); bathymetry and slope from the GEBCO
88 08 database. We first computed a PCA over these variables to explore the structuring of the environmental
89 conditions over the BoB, and then used the PCA dimensions as covariates for modelling the habitat.

90 Generalized Additive Models (GAMs, Wood (2006)) were used to explore the relationships between the
91 number of individuals and the covariates, considering the sampled area per cell as an offset and using a log-link
92 function of the tweedie family (Foster & Bravington, 2013). The covariates were the three PCA dimensions,
93 but we also considered the distance to the closest colony for seabird species, except for great skuas which only
94 include non breeders in the area. For each studied group, we tested two models: one model with only simple
95 effects of variables and one with the year as an interaction term for the four variables considered. The model
96 with the lowest AIC and predictions fitting best the sighting data was retained as the best model (Appendix
97 A). The use of PCA dimensions rather than individual variables allowed us to reduce the number of covariates
98 within the model, which simplify its interpretation. Once models were fitted, densities (individuals/km²) were
99 predicted over each year (Appendix A). The whole habitat modelling procedure was computed in R 3.4.3 (R
100 Core Team, 2017).

101 2.2 Distribution patterns

102 We first transformed the abundance maps provided by the models into proportion maps to identify aggregation
103 level in distribution. For each cell, the abundance was related to the total abundance predicted within the
104 PELGAS stratum. For each species and each year, all cells were sorted by decreasing predicted proportions
105 and the cumulative sum was computed. The aggregation level characterising species distribution was explored
106 by plotting the cumulative sum of abundance proportion against the corresponding cumulative sum of surface
107 for each species and year.

108 Core areas of distribution were identified as the smallest spatial extent including 50 and 75% of the popula-
109 tion. Based on the cumulative sum of abundance proportion, the set of cells containing 50% of the population
110 was assigned the value of "2", the set of cells containing from 50 to 75% of the population was assigned the
111 value of "1". All remaining cells were assigned "0".

112 The persistence of core areas was calculated as the number of years each cell belonged to a core areas
113 (category 1 or 2). Since some cells were not sampled during some years, this number was related to the number
114 of year each cell was sampled. The persistence was thus expressed as the proportion of sampled year a cell was
115 included in the core area of distribution.

116 2.3 MPA relevance within the Bay of Biscay

117 The proportions of core areas of distributions actually falling within MPAs for each studied year was quantified
118 to assess the relevance of MPAs within the Bay of Biscay. We quantified as well the proportions of persistent
119 cells (*i.e.* belonging to a core areas at least 50% of time) falling within MPAs.

120 We assessed Bird Directive sites for seabirds, and Habitats Directive sites for bottlenose dolphin (Figure 1b).

121 The Bird Directive sites target the protection of bird species, while the Habitats Directive sites aim at protecting,
122 among other species, the bottlenose dolphin habitat. We only considered sites overlapping significantly with
123 the study area.

124 **3 Results**

125 **3.1 Habitat modelling predictions**

126 The eight studied taxa exhibited different predicted distribution patterns (Figure 2; see Appendix A for yearly
127 predicted distributions). The bottlenose dolphins exhibited the less variable and most aggregated spatial distri-
128 bution, with a very clear preference for the shelf edge (Appendix A1). Kittiwakes also exhibited an aggregated
129 distribution, with highest predicted densities along the coast of northern BoB (Appendix A2). Auks were the
130 third most aggregated taxon, occurring mostly along the coast during the fourteen years, especially within river
131 plumes (Appendix A3). Storm petrels were predicted over the whole northern BoB shelf and offshore Basque
132 country (Appendix A4). The northern fulmars were mostly predicted over the slope and outer shelf of the BoB,
133 avoiding coastal areas, during the fourteen years (Appendix A5). The distribution of small-sized shearwaters
134 was varied more between years, but they remained mostly predicted in inner and central shelf areas of the
135 northern BoB (Appendix A6). Great skuas were widely distributed over the whole BoB during all years, but
136 avoided the shelf edge (Appendix A7). Northern gannets were distributed over the whole BoB, with higher
137 densities in the northern part (Appendix A8).

138 **3.2 Aggregation levels**

139 We expected the relationships between proportions of population covered and the corresponding minimum
140 proportion of surface to evidence differences between species with an aggregated distribution compared to
141 species with a loose distribution. For aggregated species, we expected high proportions of population to be
142 reached with small surface, *versus* larger surface for broadly distributed species.

143 Bottlenose dolphins, black-legged kittiwakes and auks presented the highest aggregation levels among the
144 studied species, their core areas showing the smallest spatial extent (Figure 3). In average, 75% of the population
145 was encompassed within 20, 23 and 25% of the study area, respectively. The curves rapidly reached this value,
146 then the proportion of population levelled off with the increase of stratum surface proportion. The aggregation
147 level varied somehow across years for bottlenose dolphins and auks, but the overall relationship remained the
148 same throughout the studied years (Figure 3). Bottlenose dolphins core areas were restricted to the shelf edge
149 during all the studied years (Appendix B1), while auks were mostly aggregated over river plumes from the
150 Vilaine to Gironde estuaries, with some years core areas occurring within the Adour river plume (2004–2009;
151 Appendix B3). However, the black-legged kittiwake distribution showed different pattern of aggregation during
152 three of the studied years, being highly aggregated in a few cells in some years (2017), but broadly distributed
153 in two others (relationships tending toward linearity, 2005–2006; Figure 3). Overall, black-legged kittiwakes

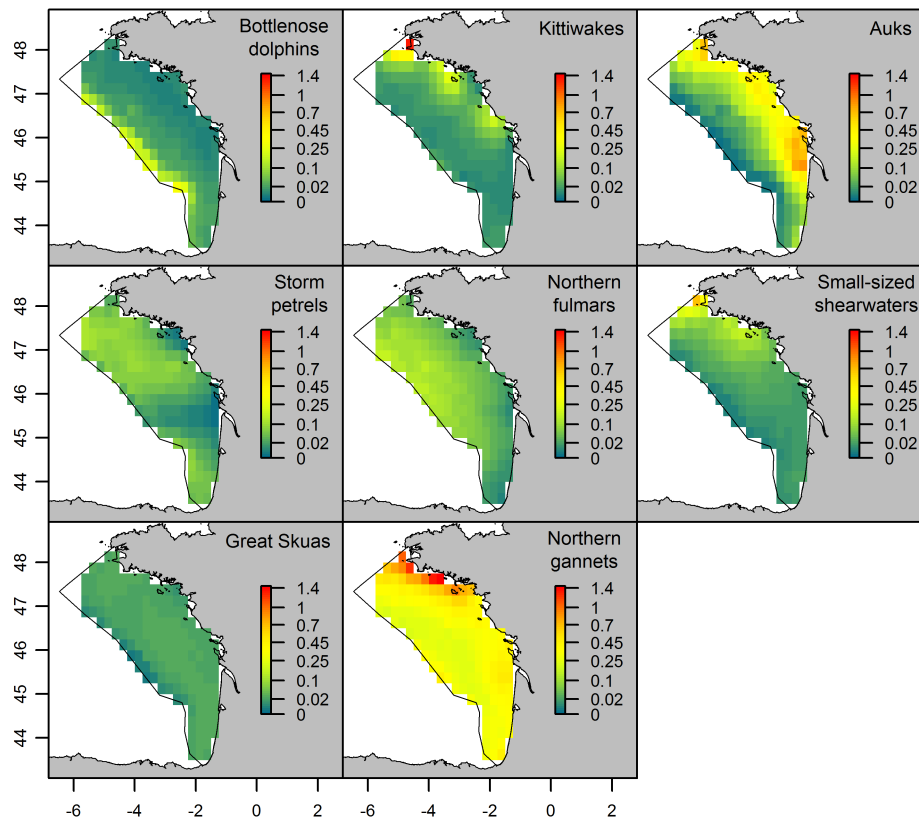


Figure 2. Predicted densities (individual/km²) averaged over the fourteen studied years for the eight studied groups of species.

154 were mainly aggregated in the southern Brittany, with an extension down to the Gironde estuary during some
155 years (Appendix B2).

156 An intermediate aggregation level in distribution was observed for storm petrels, northern fulmars and
157 small-sized shearwaters, with, in average, 75% of the population included in 36, 39 and 42% of the study area,
158 respectively (Figure 3). A similar pattern was observed for all studied years, showing only limited variations,
159 for storm petrels and northern fulmars. Storm petrels had a main core area located in the northern part of the
160 BoB, whose extent varied somehow across years, and a secondary one over the shelf edge of the southern BoB
161 during some years (Appendix B4). Northern fulmar core areas were consistently located over the outer shelf
162 of the northern part of the study area (Appendix B5). The small-sized shearwaters aggregation level increased
163 throughout the studied years (Figure 3) due to a contraction of their core areas in the north of the study area
164 (Appendix B6). The spatial extent covered by 75% of the population shifted from 50–60% of the study area
165 (broad distribution, with a relationship tending toward linearity) in 2004–2010 to 21% in 2017.

166 Great skuas and northern gannets exhibited broad distribution with reduced aggregation level (Figure 3).
167 Their relationships between population and surface was almost linear, with very few variations across years.
168 In average, 75% of the population occupied 50–55% of the study area. The core areas of great skuas were the
169 broadest, covering the central shelf from north to south, but avoiding both the river plumes and the shelf edge
170 (Appendix B7)

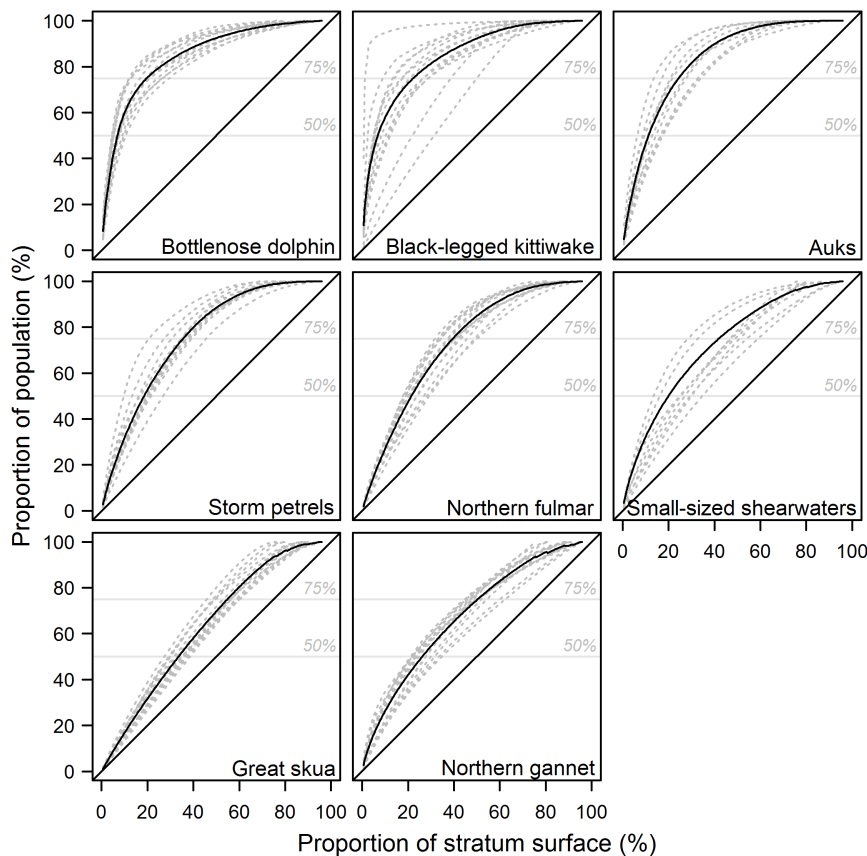


Figure 3. Relationships between the proportions of population covered and the corresponding proportions of stratum surface for the eight studied taxa. Annual relationships are dotted grey lines, the averages over the fourteen years are plain black lines. The 75% and 50% of population thresholds used to determine core areas are shown in grey.

171 3.3 Persistence of core areas

172 Bottlenose dolphins exhibited the largest spatial consistency across years, and their core area of distribution
 173 was strongly persistent (Figure 4a): the bottlenose dolphin core area of distribution (representing only 21% of
 174 the study area; Figure 4b) was located over the shelf edge 100% of surveyed years, and the vast majority of the
 175 BoB was never encompassed within the species core areas. The kittiwake had the lowest core areas persistence
 176 among all our species due to the spatial variation of its core areas location across years (Figure 4a). Kittiwakes
 177 were nevertheless located off Brittany and along the Vendée coast during more than 50% of the studied years,
 178 which represented 21% of the study area (Figure 4b). The extreme north of the BoB had a persistence larger
 179 than 80% of years, but those cells were sampled during less than 10 of the studied years. Auks' core areas
 180 had strong persistence, with estuaries being included in a core areas more than 50% of surveyed years (Figure
 181 4a), resulting in a persistent area (*i.e.* more than 50% of surveyed years) representing 29% of the study area
 182 (Figure 4b). The rest of the shelf was never used by auks. The storm petrels' core area located in the northern
 183 BoB was well persistent across years (>80% of surveyed years; Figure 4a). The second core area, located in
 184 the southern BoB, was a bit less persistent (about 50% of surveyed years). The persistence of northern fulmar
 185 core areas was high, with a large area over the outer shelf being included in core areas more than 90% of years
 186 the cells were surveyed (Figure 4a). The same occurred for small-sized shearwaters, for which a large amount

187 of cells was persistent more 80% of surveyed years, from the southern Brittany to the Gironde estuary (Figure
 188 4a). For those three species, 45, 45, 48% of the survey area was persistently included in core areas (*i.e.* more
 189 than 50% of surveyed years; Figure 4b). The persistence of great skua core areas was very high thanks to their
 190 low spatial variation, and the spatial extent of their persistent area was very large thanks to their widespread
 191 distribution (70% of the survey area; Figure 4). Only the shelf edge and the estuaries had a persistence lower
 192 than 50% of surveyed years. The northern gannets were widely distributed over the BoB across all the years,
 193 and all cells were included in a core area at least during one year (Figure 4a). The most persistent area were
 194 located off Brittany and off the Gironde estuary. 65% of the Bay of Biscay belonged to a core area for at least
 195 50% of surveyed years (Figure 4b).

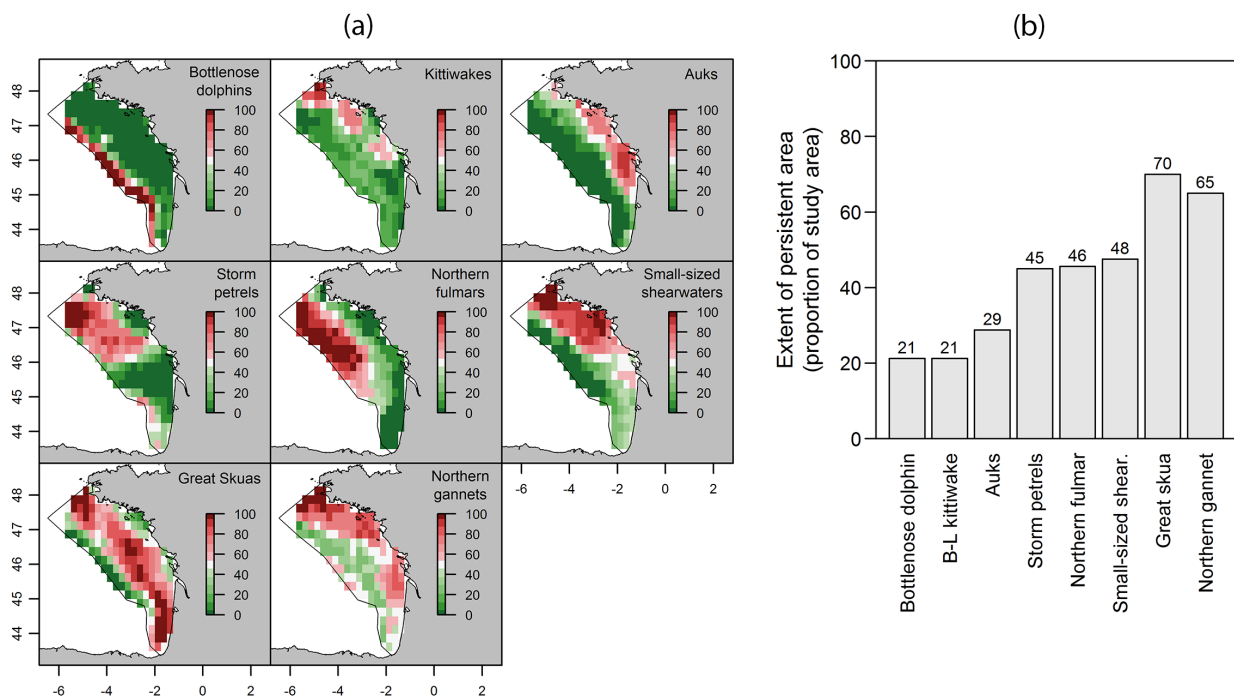


Figure 4. (a) Persistence of core areas of distributions by species. The persistence is expressed as the proportion of surveyed year a cell was included in species' core area of distribution (in percent). (b) Spatial extent of persistent area by species, expressed as the proportions of the study area included in core areas more than 50% of the studied years, in percent.

196 3.4 MPA relevance within the Bay of Biscay

197 In the BoB, the Bird Directive sites are currently covering 68% of the stratum cells, Habitats Directive sites
 198 58%. The above-identified core areas of distribution covered variable proportions of the study area, depending
 199 on species but also depending on years. The aggregation levels of species and the location of core areas led to
 200 varying amount of core areas being actually included within MPAs.

201 Thanks to their aggregated and persistent distribution over years, the proportion of bottlenose dolphin core
 202 areas within MPAs did not vary much, but was quite high thanks to the new offshore Habitats Directive site
 203 covering the shelf edge (42–67%; Figure 5). We saw above that black-legged kittiwake core areas spatial extent

204 was reduced, but their localisation quite variable, resulting in the proportion of core areas in MPAs to be highly
205 variable across years, from 21% to 80% (100% in 2017 when the core area was made of only 1 cell; Figure 5).
206 Auks were among species with aggregated distribution persistent over time, resulting in fairly high proportion
207 of core areas in MPAs, from 35 to 68% (Figure 5). Storm petrels, northern fulmars, small-sized shearwaters
208 were more widespread, their larger core areas being well persistent. As a result the proportion of their core
209 areas in MPAs were medium, and showed low variation across years (24–35% for storm petrels, 33–51% for
210 northern fulmars, 19–37% for small-sized shearwaters; Figure 5). Great skuas had the largest core areas (fairly
211 persistent), but they were less well covered by MPAs (14–38%) due to their distribution on the central shelf
212 (Figure 5). Northern gannets were widespread, with large core areas, but these showed some variations in
213 distribution across years, leading to variable proportions of core areas covered by MPAs, from 25 to 59% in
214 MPAs (Figure 5).

215 The proportions of persistent area (*i.e.* area included in core areas more than 50% of the studied years)
216 included in MPAs varied across species (Figure 6). Thanks to the strong persistence and aggregation of their
217 core area over the shelf edge, 59% of the bottlenose dolphin persistent area was included in MPA (the largest
218 proportions among studied species; Figure 6). Black-legged kittiwakes, auks, northern fulmars, small-sized
219 shearwaters and northern gannets showed similar medium proportions of persistent area in MPAs (34–49%,
220 Figure 6). Only 32% of storm petrels persistent area was included in MPAs, while great skuas had the lowest
221 covering of persistent area in MPAs, with only 21% (Figure 6).

222 4 Discussion

223 The Bay of Biscay is a rather small area compared to some offshore MPAs implemented worldwide, such as the
224 Pelagos Marine Sanctuary or the Coral Sea Commonwealth Marine Reserve, but the surveys conducted annually
225 since 2004 were a unique opportunity to investigate some of the main limitations of zonal conservation strategies
226 for mobile species (Game et al., 2009; Wilson, 2016). Those limitations are linked to the mobility of animals,
227 in terms of movements and relationships to habitat, but also to the variability of pelagic habitats, which are
228 hard to characterise and highly dynamic in space and time. These combined factors lead to the conclusion that
229 for such species, a relevant protection would necessitate larger areas as movement rates increase (Hooker &
230 Gerber, 2004; Lewison et al., 2015). However, marine predators represent a wide range of species with various
231 distributional patterns, and many species are known to target discrete and predictable oceanographic features
232 (Ballance et al., 2006; Weimerskirch, 2007). Such aggregated species might well benefit from zonal conservation
233 approaches (Oppel et al., 2018). In addition, some species might be more vulnerable within a small proportion
234 of their range. All these elements make possible to meet conservation objectives by focusing on a few critical
235 areas (Game et al., 2009).

236 Here, we aimed at investigating the effect of the temporal variability in distribution for a set of marine
237 top predators on the potential protection by static MPAs. First, we were successful in characterising the
238 habitats available within our study region thanks to the use of a PCA based on *in-situ* environmental conditions

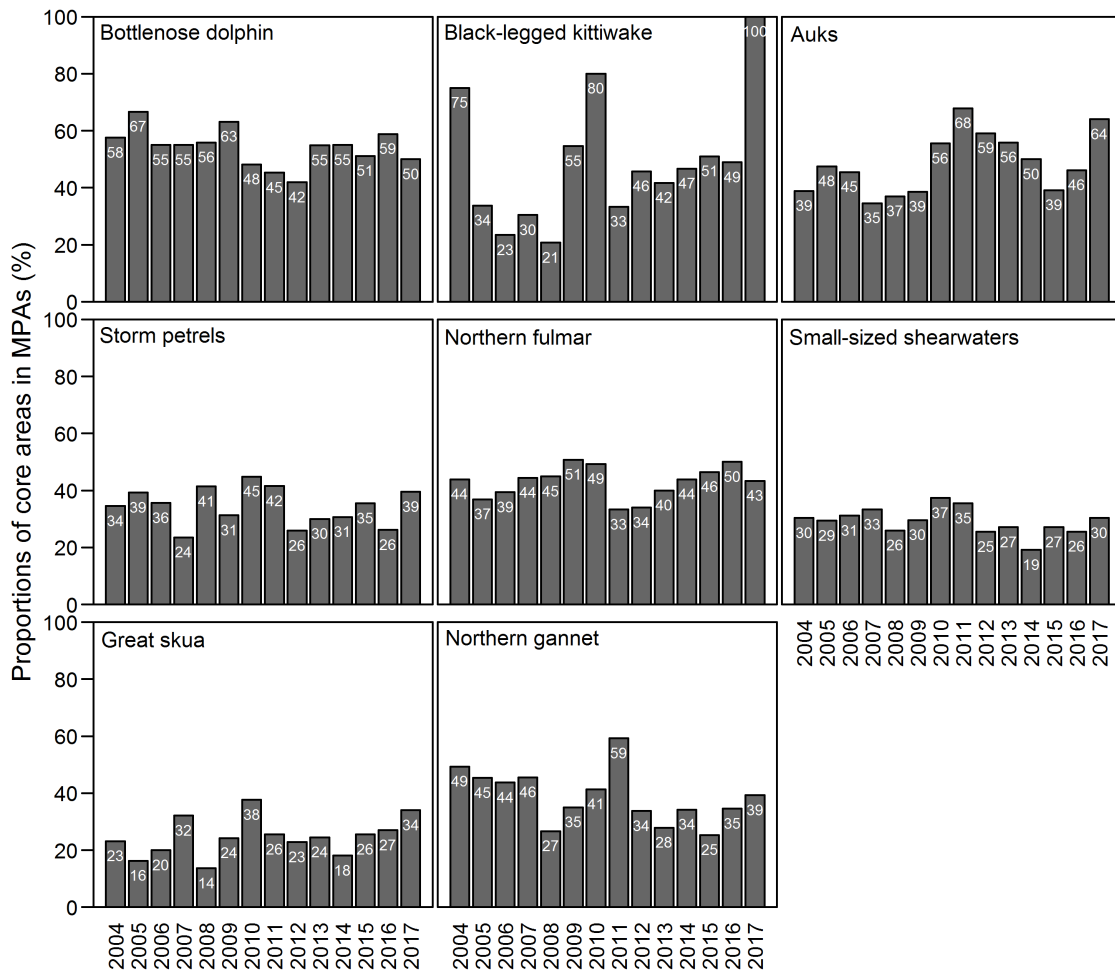


Figure 5. Proportions of core areas encompassed within existing MPAs (Marine Natural Parks and Bird Directive sites for seabirds; Marine Natural Park and Habitat Directive sites for bottlenose dolphins) along the fourteen years for the eight studied groups of species, in percent. The proportion is indicated in each bar.

239 monitored simultaneously with the megafauna survey (Lambert et al., 2018). Second, we found various levels
 240 of temporal variability in aggregation and location of core areas according to the species. The relationship
 241 between the proportion of population and surface clearly showed that we had several species with aggregated
 242 distributions on small areas, such as bottlenose dolphins, kittiwakes and auks (75% of the population was
 243 concentrated over 22% of the area, in average), and other species with broader distributions, such as great
 244 skuas (75% of the population was spread over 55% of the area, in average). As such, we confirm the potential
 245 of species with more aggregated distribution for zonal conservation (Oppel et al., 2018), but species to be
 246 good candidate, these areas of higher density must be persistent in time in addition to being aggregated. Our
 247 results showed varying patterns depending on species, from aggregated species with strong persistence of their
 248 distribution over the decade (e.g. bottlenose dolphins and auks) to widespread species with medium to high
 249 persistence (e.g. northern gannets, storm petrels, northern fulmars and great skuas) and aggregated species
 250 with intermediate or low persistence (e.g. kittiwakes).

251 Theoretically, species with more persistent distributions should be the easier to protect with zonal conserva-
 252 tion strategy, and the more the distribution is aggregated, the smaller the required protected area would have

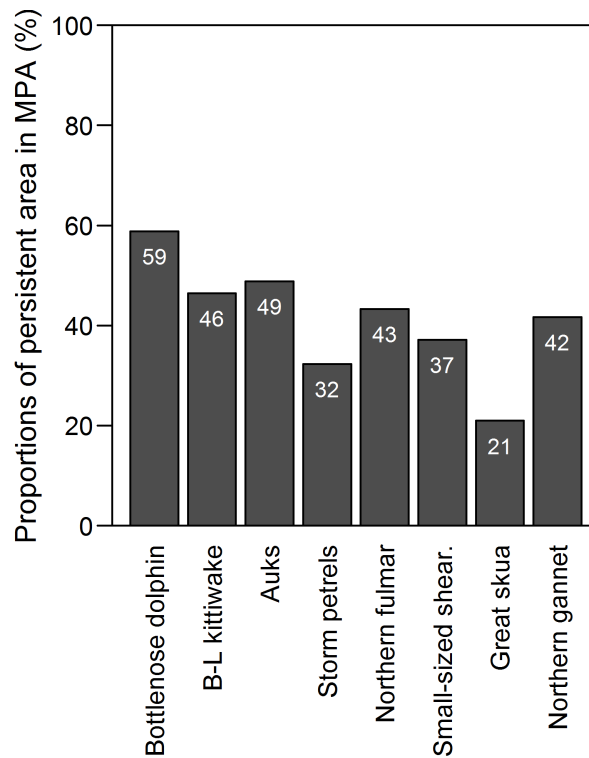


Figure 6. Proportions of persistent areas (cells included in core areas more than 50% of the studied years) encompassed within existing MPAs (Marine Natural Parks and Bird Directive sites for seabirds; Marine Natural Parks and Habitat Directive sites for bottlenose dolphins) for the eight studied species, in percent. The proportion is indicated in each bar.

253 to be. In our case, it would be possible to design MPAs based on the persistent distributional patterns for
254 bottlenose dolphins, auks, storm petrels, northern fulmars, small-sized shearwaters, great skuas and northern
255 gannets. The resulting MPA would be fairly small for bottlenose dolphin and auks, thanks to their aggregated
256 distribution, but would be larger for storm petrels, northern fulmars and small-sized shearwaters (50% of the
257 study area). In case of aggregated species with lower persistence (black-legged kittiwakes) and species loosely
258 distributed with important persistence area (great skua and northern gannets) in contrast, the establishment of
259 a zonal conservation would necessitate a large MPA, to encompass all the observed temporal variability in core
260 area distributions in one case, to encompass the whole persistent area in the other case. Those species might
261 **more benefit** from non-area based conservation approaches, such as regulation of incidental mortalities linked
262 to fisheries bycatches **or extraction of food resources** at a larger scale for example.

263 Here, our goal was not to propose new sites, since many MPAs already exists which currently cover 68% of
264 the study area for the Bird Directive sites, 52% for the Habitats Directive sites. The investigation of the overlap
265 between species core areas and these MPAs showed that bottlenose dolphins and auks, the two most aggregated
266 taxa with strong persistence, had the highest coverage by MPA with reduced temporal variability. This was
267 achieved through the important coastal network of MPA for auks. The boundaries for Habitats Directive and
268 Bird Directive sites were historically proposed mostly based on expert's knowledge of coastal distributions, with
269 poor information on their temporal variability, and *a fortiori* on the target species at-sea distributions leading
270 to a succession of small and large sites along the BoB coast, ensuring a good coverage of the auks distribution.
271 The important coverage of bottlenose dolphin distribution (59% of its core area) was largely ensured by the

272 new offshore Habitats Directive site (see Figure 1) that has recently been designated, along with an equivalent
273 Bird Directive site, based on dedicated large-scale surveys (SAMM surveys; [Lambert et al., 2017b](#); [Laran et al.,](#)
274 [2017](#); [Pettex et al., 2017](#)) within French waters to compensate for the previous absence of any protected sites
275 within offshore waters ([Delavenne et al., 2017](#)).

276 Our results demonstrate the interest of these new sites both for the bottlenose dolphin, as they included
277 most of its range, but also for northern fulmars and storm petrels. Those two latter taxa were more broadly
278 distributed than the bottlenose dolphin, with larger core areas strongly persistent over the outer shelf. Prior the
279 designation of the offshore sites, they were as poorly covered by the coastal network of MPAs as the bottlenose
280 dolphin ([Lambert et al., 2017c](#)), but here, we demonstrated that the offshore sites support important proportion
281 of their persistent core areas (32% of storm petrels', 43% of northern fulmars' core areas). The BoB slope has
282 recently been identified as an area with important densities of marine species whose distributional range up to
283 now poorly overlapped with any MPAs ([Klein et al., 2015](#)). Among marine species, mammals are the species
284 group with the lowest proportions of species range overlapping with MPAs. Our results demonstrated that the
285 implementation of the two new very large offshore sites was a crucial advance toward the protection of species
286 with offshore distribution (both mammals and seabirds), but remains to be confirmed by the establishment of
287 an efficient management plan, a work in progress at present.

288 The coverage by MPAs of the two most broadly distributed species was different, despite similar levels of
289 aggregation and persistence. An important proportion of northern gannets persistent core area was included
290 in MPAs (42%) thanks to its mostly coastal distribution. However, the great skua, despite exhibiting large
291 and persistent core area was only poorly concerned by MPA (only 21% of its core area in MPA) due to its
292 distribution over the central shelf, which is the part of the BoB remaining free of any zonal conservation sites.
293 The full legislative protection ensured at the national level is therefore crucial for this species.

294 Despite these positive points, we showed that fairly large proportions of the core persistent areas (more
295 than half) fell outside MPAs in our study area for all species but bottlenose dolphins. Yet, the BoB belongs
296 to the ocean's most impacted areas by cumulative human impacts ([Halpern et al., 2008, 2015](#)). We can thus
297 wonder whether these medium to low levels of protection represent a brake to the effectiveness of conservation
298 strategies implemented within the BoB. In his recent editorial, [Wilson \(2016\)](#) argue that the lag between the
299 identification and the designation of MPAs would inevitably lead to a drop of densities within MPAs, due to
300 the dynamic drivers of species distributions and to their mobility inducing temporally varying distributional
301 patterns, as shown here. However, the protection of half of a species core area is probably better than providing
302 no protection at all, especially if the protected areas match the ones with higher threats or species vulnerability
303 ([Game et al., 2009](#)): several case studies have shown that protecting critical habitats or reducing area-specific
304 threats can strongly reduce overall mortality rates in spite of the mitigation action taking part on a small part
305 of the species ranges (*e.g.* [Hyrenbach et al., 2006](#); [Alpine & Hobday, 2007](#)). Therefore, despite the intermediate
306 to limited proportions of core and persistent areas of species distributions within MPAs in the BoB, the target
307 species should theoretically benefit from the implemented zonal conservation strategies. This is particularly
308 true for offshore distributed species that had very low level of zonal protection before the establishment of the

309 two offshore sites (Lambert et al., 2017c). Obviously, the assessment of the actual efficiency of those boundaries
310 would be completely dependent on the relevance and efficiency of the management plans to be defined and
311 implemented within each single MPAs (Edgar et al., 2014) and remains to be addressed at the BoB scale.

312 5 Conclusion

313 Our results showed varying levels of temporal persistence in distributional patterns according to predator species
314 combined with various levels of aggregation in distribution. The important results here was that these two factors
315 did not necessarily covary, since strong persistence was shown in both aggregated and loosely distributed species,
316 while some species with aggregated distributions also showed limited year-to-year persistence in their patterns.
317 As a consequence, we have demonstrated that these two factors have potential impact on the amount of spatio-
318 temporal distributional variability encompassed within static MPAs implemented over the study area. Our
319 results exemplified the need to have access to a minimal temporal depth in the species distribution data when
320 aiming to designate new site boundaries for the conservation of mobile species, as this would be the only way to
321 minimize the bias linked to the species and environment mobility (as discussed by Game et al., 2009; Wilson,
322 2016).

323 Acknowledgements

324 The authors have no competing interests to declare. CL was funded by the French ministry in charge of
325 research (*Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche*, MESR) during her PhD. We are indebted
326 to crew members on-board the R/V *Thalassa*, to all observers who participated in the surveys as well as to the
327 French Agency for Biodiversity (*Agence Française de la Biodiversité*, AFB) and French ministry of environment
328 (*Ministère de la Transition Écologique et Solidaire*) who funded the megafauna observers. Paul Bourriau and
329 Martin Huret are thanked for taking care of the CTD casts and maintaining the hydrological sensors, Matthieu
330 Doray for his coordination of the survey.

331 Data accessibility

332 Data from the PELGAS surveys used for this analysis are freely accessible on the Sea scientific open data edition
333 (SEANOE) repository at <http://doi.org/10.17882/53389> (Doray et al., 2018).

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