

1 **Title:** Are we ready to track climate-driven shifts in marine species across international
2 boundaries? - A global survey of scientific bottom trawl data

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116 Abstract

117 Marine biota is redistributing at a rapid pace in response to climate change and shifting
118 seascapes. While changes in fish populations and community structure threaten the
119 sustainability of fisheries, our capacity to adapt by tracking and projecting marine species
120 remains a challenge due to data discontinuities in biological observations, lack of data
121 availability, and mismatch between data and real species distributions. To assess the extent
122 of this challenge, we review the global status and accessibility of ongoing scientific bottom
123 trawl surveys. In total, we gathered metadata for 283,925 samples from 95 surveys
124 conducted regularly from 2001 to 2019. 59% of the metadata collected are not publicly
125 available, highlighting that the availability of data is the most important challenge to assess
126 species redistributions under global climate change. We further found that single surveys do
127 not cover the full range of the main commercial demersal fish species and that an average of
128 18 surveys is needed to cover at least 50% of species ranges, demonstrating the importance
129 of combining multiple surveys to evaluate species range shifts. We assess the potential for
130 combining surveys to track transboundary species redistributions and show that differences
131 in sampling schemes and inconsistency in sampling can be overcome with vector
132 autoregressive spatio-temporal modeling to follow species density redistributions. In light of
133 our global assessment, we establish a framework for improving the management and
134 conservation of transboundary and migrating marine demersal species. We provide
135 directions to improve data availability and encourage countries to share survey data, to
136 assess species vulnerabilities, and to support management adaptation in a time of climate-
137 driven ocean changes.

138

139

140 Introduction

141 Marine species worldwide are redistributing in response to climate-induced shifting
142 seascapes, while constrained by physiological features over latitudinal, longitudinal and
143 bathymetric gradients^{1,2}. The movement of individuals and species from one location to
144 another in response to climate change, either through active migration or passive dispersal
145 of early life-stages, results in colonizations and potential invasions into previously
146 unoccupied areas^{3,4}. Such redistributions have profound consequences for community
147 composition and biodiversity, as demonstrated by substantial changes in taxonomic⁵⁻⁹ and
148 trait diversity¹⁰⁻¹⁴. They also affect the structure and functions of marine ecosystems¹⁵⁻¹⁸.
149 While species on the move have important socioeconomic consequences¹⁹⁻²², our capacity
150 to adapt to these changes by tracking and projecting species range shifts across regional
151 boundaries remains a challenge, not only scientifically, but also economically and
152 politically²³⁻²⁵.

153 The capacity to detect species range and community changes in response to climate
154 variability and change depends foremost on the ability to monitor species through, among
155 others, the existence, coverage and quality of surveys. There is a broad variety of monitoring
156 efforts on species distributions and abundances on land and in the oceans²⁶⁻²⁸. Among
157 them, scientific bottom trawl surveys have been started in the ~1900s and hence collected
158 demersal marine species (living over and on the sea bottom) on continental shelves and
159 slopes in many areas of the world^{29,30}. The primary purpose of these surveys is to provide
160 fishery-independent data to inform stock assessment of commercially important species and
161 populations, and more recently for multidisciplinary ecosystem monitoring. Many of the
162 surveys offer long and often continuous time-series of data on community composition and
163 provide a unique opportunity to both track species range shifts within and across
164 international boundaries and improve the assessment of biodiversity under global change.

165 Studies examining climate change impacts on marine communities across large
166 regions have mostly focused on the North Atlantic and Northeast Pacific ecosystems^{9,31–34}.
167 This is due to the lack of availability and knowledge on the existence of bottom trawl surveys
168 elsewhere, but also to fewer surveys and reduced transnational cooperation in the southern
169 hemisphere compared to the northern hemisphere. While there is a global movement
170 towards “open science”³⁵, particularly by making data publicly available^{36–39}, it has also
171 sparked considerable debate on how to proceed^{40,41}. Therefore, the application of open
172 science principles, making primary outputs of scientific research available and reproducible,
173 remains a challenge. From a broader political and management perspective, there is a need
174 to access surveys covering species range across international boundaries to assess species
175 responses to environmental change because there is an increasing need for transboundary
176 assessment of commercial species. Particularly, the lack of assessment of species range
177 shifts across international boundaries and management areas may lead to political disputes
178 on shifting fisheries resources^{24,42–44}. If the data generated by bottom trawl surveys are
179 available—combined and modeled properly—they may allow comparisons of species
180 distribution and abundance in time and space. This can offer the opportunity to quantitatively
181 monitor the dynamics of species distributions and community structure by following the
182 different stages of species redistribution and mechanisms through which communities are
183 altered by climate and anthropogenic stressors⁴⁵. Developing knowledge on marine species
184 responses to climate change is the first step towards developing transboundary and
185 international management plans.

186 To uncover the difficulties preventing a global assessment of marine species
187 redistributions, we first review the existence and availability of bottom trawl surveys
188 worldwide by collecting survey metadata. We assess the global coverage of productive and
189 trawled seas by bottom trawl surveys. Second, we show the importance of combining
190 surveys to cover commercial species range. Third, we demonstrate that modelling can
191 incorporate multiple surveys and unbalanced sampling to follow species density in time and

192 space. We propose a framework where open science would help to support transboundary
193 management and conservation.

194

195 Global availability of trawl survey data

196 Scientific bottom trawl surveys have been conducted in many countries to sample
197 continental shelves and slopes around the world, inhabited by essential demersal fisheries
198 resources⁴⁶. They have formed the backbone of information supporting research on marine
199 fish communities in response to climate change and variability across ecosystems and over
200 large spatial scales^{10,31,47–51}, as well as meta-analysis across taxonomic groups and
201 biomes^{9,34}. However, a single survey sampling demersal communities is typically carried out
202 nationally, regionally or within a delimited management zone. The monitoring protocol might
203 differ among surveys, and the resulting data are not always publicly available, creating an
204 obstacle for assessing potential species range shifts. Determining the consequences of
205 climate change on marine species critically depends on the availability and quality of the
206 data^{52,53}.

207

208 **Global data synthesis.** To assess the existence and accessibility of fishery-independent
209 data on demersal species in the global ocean, we collected metadata (latitude, longitude,
210 and depth if available) from scientific bottom trawl surveys (henceforth surveys) including
211 samples (hauls) of marine communities. We only collected metadata for recent and ongoing
212 surveys that included at least one year of sampling since 2015 and use otter trawl gear, the
213 most widely spread type of trawl to sample demersal communities. In addition, we only
214 retained the surveys that were performed for four years or more between 2001–2019 and
215 reported the first year surveyed if it was prior to 2001 (complete list in Supplementary Table
216 1.1). Finally, we excluded surveys covering near-shore areas (conducted within 3 miles from
217 the coast) as they are designed to primarily target juvenile or coastal fish. However, we kept
218 track of all surveys that did not follow our selection criteria (Supplementary Table 2.1).

219 The survey information was gathered and built on knowledge of previously existing
220 survey collections (<https://datras.ices.dk/>, <https://oceanadapt.rutgers.edu/>, <https://james-thorson.shinyapps.io/FishViz/>) and previous studies using aggregated survey data^{29,31,47–51}.
221
222 In order to ensure a broad geographical coverage, we sent a standardized query to
223 established and identified contacts of surveys, particularly where geographical gaps were
224 identified (South America, Africa, Asia, and Oceania). In case no obvious contact person
225 was available, we contacted national fisheries institutes. We acknowledge that despite the
226 rigorous surveying and querying, some surveys might still be missing.

227 For each survey, based on haul coordinates, we estimated the spatial area covered
228 using an alpha-convex hull method⁵⁴, where we set the parameter controlling for the volume
229 shape at $\alpha = 1$. This allowed the creation of polygons from the location of samples at the
230 extremes of the surveyed area and a rough estimation of the area covered by surveys.
231 Overall, available metadata covered 95 surveys across 78 Exclusive Economic Zones
232 (EEZs) around the world and constitute a total of 283,925 unique geo-referenced hauls from
233 2001 to 2019 (Figure 1, Supplementary Table 1.1), covering approximately 2,509,000 km² in
234 total.

235

236 **Surveys cover productive and fished continental shelves.** We compared the spatial
237 extent of the surveys with the area covered by productive continental shelves and the area
238 fished by bottom trawlers. To estimate the area of productive continental shelves, we used
239 global depth data (GEBCO <https://www.gebco.net/>) and chlorophyll-a concentration data
240 (GlobColour GSM, 2005–2015)⁵⁵. The fished area was estimated from bottom trawl fishing
241 data from Global Fishing Watch for the years 2013 to 2016⁵⁶. The environmental and
242 fisheries data were aggregated on a grid (0.04°×0.04°). A grid cell was considered as a
243 productive shelf site if its depth was between 30-500 m and its chlorophyll-a concentration
244 was higher than 0.5 mg/m³ (several thresholds tested are shown in Supplementary 3). A grid
245 cell was counted as fished if more than one trawling activity was detected in the grid cell in

246 the period 2013-2016. Thus, a grid cell could be designated as productive, fished, neither, or
247 both. We then compared the productive and fished grid cells with the convex hull of surveys
248 to compute the global proportion of productive shelves and fished areas covered by the
249 surveys. We estimated that the surveys cover 62% of continental productive seas and 54%
250 of coastal bottom-trawl fished areas (Supplementary Figure 3.3 and Figure 3.5).

251

252 **Criteria for data accessibility.** The survey metadata were classified based on their relative
253 degree of accessibility, using the following classification criteria:

254 ● *Publicly available:* data for all years and species sampled were available in a public
255 repository

256 ● *Partly publicly available:* data only for some years, or only for some species were
257 available in a public repository and access to full data is possible upon request

258 ● *Available upon request:* data are not publicly available but access to data is possible
259 upon request. This category was assigned if at least one person not affiliated to the
260 institution that owns the data obtained the full raw data via request

261 ● *Not publicly available:* when the data, to the best of our knowledge, were not publicly
262 available, access to data is not possible upon request, but access to metadata is
263 possible upon request

264 ● *Incomplete metadata:* when the data were not publicly available and we received
265 access to partial survey metadata via request, or were reconstructed from the
266 literature

267 ● *Unavailable metadata:* when we are aware of ongoing surveys but did not receive
268 access to the metadata, and/or were unable to reconstruct the metadata from the
269 literature

270

271 **Global status of availability.** Among all collected surveys, species abundance/biomass
272 data from 41% of the survey hauls are *publicly available*, while an additional 31% of the

273 surveys *partly publicly available* or *available upon request* (Figure 1). The remaining 28% of
274 the surveys are classified as *not publicly available* or have *incomplete metadata* and are
275 therefore not available. While species range shifts in response to climate change have
276 occurred across a broad range of aquatic organisms worldwide^{2,21,34}, most marine studies
277 are concentrated in the Northern hemisphere with a majority of surveys located in the North
278 Atlantic and Northeast Pacific. This can be explained by the geographical coverage of
279 surveys in the Southern hemisphere, which is considerably more restricted and includes
280 almost exclusively not publicly available data, except for South Africa, Chile, New Zealand,
281 Falkland Islands and Kerguelen Islands (classified as *partly publicly available* and *available*
282 *upon request*, Figure 1a,b). Lower transnational collaboration within Regional Fisheries
283 Management Organizations (RMFOs) in the southern hemisphere may explain this
284 difference in availability. While our international review of the coverage and accessibility of
285 scientific surveys shows that surveys are regularly conducted across continental shelf seas
286 worldwide (78 EEZs), a vast majority of the publicly available data are located in Europe and
287 North America (Figure 1c).

288

289 **Need for improving data availability.** The dominance of Northern hemisphere climate
290 change studies has been specifically criticized^{32,34,57,58}. The under-representation of tropical
291 seas, polar areas and southern hemisphere studies may mislead our knowledge of demersal
292 communities' response to global change. The non-availability of data can be, among many
293 other factors, driven by lack of human and/or logistical resources and capacity to maintain
294 data management systems, or by institutional incentives controlling data access.
295 Furthermore, the difficulty and inability to obtain even metadata from established contacts of
296 current, known surveys, might illustrate that the location of sampling is considered as
297 sensitive, likely from a political and economic perspective. We provide here the most
298 exhaustive assessment of ongoing bottom trawl surveys metadata around the world, and
299 provide information on who owns the data and where it can be requested, aiming at
300 enhancing data sharing (Box. 1).

301 There are many documented cases where disagreements regarding fishing rights
302 have led to serious international conflicts^{44,59}. Improved science regarding range shifts
303 across regional boundaries, their impacts on fisheries and fishing communities^{22,43,60}, as well
304 as political and regulation landscapes^{19,61,62}, could lead to better planning for contingencies
305 regarding climate-driven distribution shifts²⁴. This would provide scientific information to
306 design adaptation and management measures that anticipate potential international
307 conflicts. We therefore argue that financial or political incentives should be identified to better
308 share the existing data, and develop good data management systems⁶³. However, benefits
309 from sharing data are diffuse, while their costs (in terms of lost publication opportunities for
310 local teams) are concentrated⁶³, and this leads to the well-known “concentrated-diffuse”
311 mechanism for policy failure⁶⁴. This type of policy failure can be partly overcome by
312 concentrating scattered incentives, either by providing multilateral forums where many
313 scientists can jointly benefit from data sharing (e.g. North Pacific Marine Science
314 Organization, <https://meetings.pices.int/>, International Council for the Exploration of the Sea,
315 <https://www.ices.dk/>, RFMOs) or by bilateral data-sharing agreements⁶⁵. The movement
316 towards publicly available and accessible data in science can lead to a lack of recognition of
317 the source, devaluation of essential investments such as data collection, preparation and
318 curation⁶³. As a result, it remains hard to enhance public availability of data. Publishing data,
319 following FAIR principles (Findable, Accessible, Interoperable and Reusable,
320 <https://www.go-fair.org/fair-principles/>) as well as open science principles, could ultimately
321 increase the visibility of surveys but will face the challenges of thoughtfully use the data by
322 prioritizing the need of and give credit to the data providers⁵² (Box. 1).

323

324

325 Species range covered by surveys

326 Studies quantifying species range shifts often assume that surveys are
327 representative of species' native range^{3,4,66,67} when in fact species' ranges may extend well
328 beyond the monitored area. Demersal fish habitats are often only partially covered by
329 surveys, particularly since surveys are designed to sample soft bottoms on primarily shallow
330 continental shelves, hence excluding hard bottoms and reefs. In addition, most of the
331 surveys are limited by depth, sampling the continental shelves but rarely the slopes at
332 greater depths. Moreover, ecosystems beyond national jurisdiction are often excluded. To
333 assess the percentage of species range covered by current surveys, and to evaluate the
334 probability of species range shifts to occur beyond surveyed areas, we compared the habitat
335 from species distribution models to the areas covered by the surveys.

336 To estimate the extent to which existing surveys cover species distribution range, we
337 selected the top three demersal species with the highest commercial catch in each of twelve
338 main FAO fishing areas from FishStats⁶⁸ (a platform reporting annual fisheries catch per
339 fishing zone, <http://www.fao.org/fishery/statistics/software/fishstat/>), defined as the average
340 catch over 2001–2019. We ended up studying 37 demersal species (with some species
341 covering several FAO areas). For the commercial species identified, we downloaded the
342 native range from AquaMaps⁶⁹, which shows the probability of occurrence of each species
343 on a 0.5°×0.5° grid. We used the modeled native range and considered it as the “true”
344 habitat and species range. The habitat in AquaMaps is based on publicly available global
345 occurrence data and expert judgment on species environmental niches. Even though
346 AquaMaps may sometimes misrepresent species ranges because of poor occurrence data
347 and lack of knowledge for some species⁷⁰, the ranges of the selected commercial species
348 are generally well documented. The preferred habitat data layer of each commercial species
349 for the analysis was defined as all locations from the AquaMaps habitat maps where the
350 probability of occurrence was higher than 0.5 (more details in Supplementary 5).

351 Next, we calculated the percentage of grid cells from the AquaMaps commercial
352 species habitat area covered by the survey footprints, showing the overlap between the two
353 across all FAO fishing areas. We also included the availability status of surveys. We
354 demonstrate that no combination of available surveys covers the entire range of any single
355 species (Figure 2). Nevertheless, for about a quarter of the species considered, existing
356 surveys cover more than 50% of the species habitats, up to a maximum of 79% for Atlantic
357 cod (*Gadus morhua*). However, even for these well-surveyed species, the surveys are
358 sometimes not available (MVO, *Lophius vomerinus* and HKK, *Merluccius capensis* in
359 Southeast Atlantic and South Africa) or only a part are *publicly available* (PCO, *Gadus*
360 *macrocephalus* and ALK, *Gadus chalcogrammus* in the North Pacific). We computed the
361 number of surveys that overlapped with the species native range and show that the number
362 needed to cover at least 50% of the main commercial species habitat is highly variable (from
363 4 to 31, average of 18, Figure 2b) and depends on the areas covered by each survey. The
364 restricted spatial extent of some surveys conducted in Europe explains why more than 15
365 surveys may be needed to cover 50% of a specific species range, emphasizing the need for
366 standardizing surveys and developing tools to combine data from different surveys.

367

368 Tracking species densities across management areas

369 We have shown that demersal fish ranges and habitats are not fully covered by bottom trawl
370 surveys, which may be particularly problematic when fisheries stocks and populations are
371 transboundary. The capacity to track such transboundary species throughout their range
372 critically depends on the ability to combine surveys from multiple sources and regions.

373 In cases where data are available and gathered from different sources, formatting,
374 language differences and lack of user expertise on the survey itself may limit the ability to
375 use the data appropriately. For instance, information on units, haul duration or swept area

376 estimates are sometimes lacking, limiting the combined use of multiple independent surveys.
377 In addition, differences in gear, sampling designs, species identification procedures and
378 catchability across and within surveys may bias perceptions of species distribution and
379 regional changes in abundance⁷¹. In order to standardize processing of such data, we
380 recommend improving the availability of survey documentation, including explanations of
381 survey methodology and associated coding that can be freely applied to clean, standardize,
382 and combine surveys (Box. 1). Making expert knowledge easily accessible will facilitate
383 studies combining multiple surveys⁷².

384

385 **A case study to combine surveys across regions.** We used arrowtooth flounder
386 (*Atheresthes stomias*) to illustrate how to combine survey data across multiple regions when
387 tracking and investigating population-scale range shifts in species distribution. Arrowtooth
388 flounder is a widespread and ecologically important predator in the Northeast Pacific⁷³,
389 monitored and assessed by 10 distinct but contiguous surveys across the region from the
390 California Current to the Bering Sea between 2001 and 2018. To predict densities within the
391 entire survey domain, we fit a spatio-temporal Poisson-link delta-gamma model⁷⁴ to biomass
392 data from each survey using the R-package VAST^{71,75} (vector autoregressive spatio-
393 temporal). This model has the advantage of interpolating density across time and space
394 within the survey domain when survey data are lacking in a given area or time step (see
395 Supplementary 6). We assumed that each survey has identical gear performance (i.e.
396 catches the same proportion of individuals within the area-swept by bottom trawl gear). The
397 validated model shows that the highest densities of arrowtooth flounder are observed in the
398 center of distribution within the Gulf of Alaska (Figure 3). However, densities have recently
399 increased in the eastern Bering Sea and the distribution has shifted inshore and northward.
400 Simultaneously, its distribution has slightly moved southward in the California Current.
401 Despite this expansion at both ends of its range, the centroid of the population shows a net
402 change northward by 40 km in less than 20 years (Figure 3c).

403

404 **Improving the management of transboundary species.** The use and coordination of
405 multiple surveys is needed to monitor commercially important species distributions that
406 extend beyond a singular survey. Our case study and other recent studies^{76–79} show that
407 statistical tools to reconstruct species densities across surveys is possible, and can
408 appropriately quantify the changes of densities through time and across regions by
409 correcting for unbalanced sampling^{71,75}. The multiple-survey approach—applied here to the
410 arrowtooth flounder—is applicable for many other wide-ranging species, including
411 commercially important transboundary species such as Greenland halibut⁸⁰, Pacific cod⁸¹
412 and Atlantic cod^{67,82}. For each of these species, combining surveys will require initial
413 research to determine the most appropriate methods to account for differences in
414 catchability between surveys, species and sites^{75,83–85}. For example, this could be done by
415 using regression-discontinuity-designs to estimate catchability ratios for surveys that are
416 contiguous, but not overlapping. Furthermore, ongoing efforts to standardize national
417 surveys will also help to combine surveys. For instance, Russia and Norway started a joint
418 ecosystem-wide survey in the Barents Sea instead of conducting them separately⁸⁶. This is
419 also the case of the MEDITS program, ensuring consistent sampling protocol across EU
420 regions of the Mediterranean Sea⁸⁷. Such intercalibration of different survey schemes and
421 sampling designs will improve long-term intercomparison of surveys and will help assess
422 marine species range shifts under global warming. Our knowledge of species redistribution
423 across surveys will clearly benefit from long-term consistent surveys, when combined and
424 modeled appropriately.

425 Long-term global monitoring datasets are essential to develop transboundary
426 science, and offer opportunities to improve the management and conservation of migrating
427 transboundary species (Box. 2). Under global change, migrating species create a potential
428 for economic and political conflicts⁸⁸, and may lead to species overexploitation or collapse in
429 the case of lack of adaptation and cooperation^{24,89–92}. The 1982 United Nations Convention
430 on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) provides the legal framework for international obligations

431 towards safeguarding marine resources. Migratory and transboundary stocks are principally
432 managed by RFMOs⁹²⁻⁹⁴, or conservation-related initiatives such as the Global
433 Transboundary Conservation Network (<http://www.tbpa.net/>). Still, these organizations need
434 to explicitly consider governance in the context of climate change^{90,94,95}. While building a
435 common understanding of status and trends is a key first step towards transboundary
436 cooperation²⁴, international governance will require global geopolitical flexibility and the
437 establishment of transnational agreements^{96,97}, which need to be supported by cross-
438 boundary open science (Box. 1 and Box. 2). The adaptation of management and policy is
439 essential for the sustainability and conservation of shared resources, but are often motivated
440 by economic and cultural values rather than ecological considerations⁹⁶. Scientifically-
441 supported transboundary governance will avoid overexploitation, conflicts about newly or
442 historically shared resources and conservation of vulnerable species. The identification of
443 priority areas, vulnerable transboundary species and capacity for adaptation is essential to
444 initiate fast and efficient governance of 'biodiversity beyond national jurisdictions'⁹⁸⁻¹⁰⁰.

445

446 Maintaining surveys to face future challenges in the 447 oceans

448 Regular bottom trawl surveys do not cover the entire global ocean nor the whole continental
449 shelves and the lack of monitoring makes it problematic to track ecosystem change and
450 adapt management and policy to shifting resources²³. A range of alternative approaches
451 could be considered to better cover demersal species habitats, understand changes in
452 spatial distribution under global change, and promote an ecosystem approach to fisheries
453 and other human activities management. Such alternatives could include both citizen
454 science initiatives reporting species observed well outside their known ranges (e.g. the
455 Range Extension Database and Mapping project; Redmap¹⁰¹ <https://www.redmap.org.au/>
456 and the European Alien Species Information; EASIN¹⁰² <https://easin.jrc.ec.europa.eu/easin>)

457 as well as formal fishery-dependent data (such as observer, landings, vessel trip report data)
458 able to report species occurrences and abundances. Other promising sources of data could
459 be derived from environmental DNA¹⁰³. Datasets derived from such alternative sources can
460 improve evidence of range shifts, particularly in poorly sampled areas.

461 Bottom trawl surveys are highly valuable for following marine species redistribution
462 and biodiversity change. However, maintaining surveys in a consistent way through time is a
463 challenge as they are costly and require political agreements. However, ecological time
464 series become more informative the longer their timespan, highlighting the need to maintain
465 long-term monitoring programs^{53,104}. The existence of international programs such as the
466 Nansen program (<http://www.fao.org/in-action/eaf-nansen/en/>) is valuable to inform
467 ecosystem-based management^{105,106} and could be expanded, assuming that the data
468 collected become available. Bottom trawl surveys impact seafloor habitat, benthic
469 communities, and sampled fish²⁹ and we should ensure that this kind of monitoring benefits
470 science as much as possible. Surveys provide relevant and essential information for
471 fisheries management and marine ecology, but they must be designed to be as efficient as
472 possible by sharing (meta)data, providing opportunities for innovative uses of the data and
473 improve the economic and ecological efficiency of monitoring. In any case, challenges of
474 sampling marine communities and sharing data need to be overcome to allow scientific
475 assessment and adequate management of shifting marine resources.

476

477 Conclusions

478 The concentration of marine studies in the Northern hemisphere profoundly limits not only
479 our ability to track and understand climate change effects and species range shifts, but also
480 our capacity to adapt, mitigate or avoid potential conflicts and socio-economic consequences
481 that follow. This is particularly important in parts of the developing world where fisheries
482 constitute a primary source of food and livelihood for coastal communities, but information

483 supporting management is often scarce or non-existing. To alleviate these issues, a
484 coherent framework to monitor, understand and inform sound and scientifically underpinned
485 management actions to adapt to species range shifts is needed. Our study provides a first
486 step towards creating such a framework by conducting a joint and internationally coordinated
487 synthesis of the global coverage and availability of survey data, and it will be of great
488 assistance to various users aiming to assess and predict the response of marine biodiversity
489 to climate change. Our study has identified important gaps in data availability and
490 accessibility, and suggested ways to make the best use of surveys at hand by combining
491 data from multiple sources to assess species redistributions over multiple management
492 areas. In order to support comparative studies on species range shifts, we stress the need
493 for nations to strengthen monitoring efforts, particularly in under sampled areas of the world.
494 Moreover, we make a general plea for open science as well as fair and transparent sharing
495 of data. This is needed to support scientific advice on coordinated spatial management
496 actions, allowing us to adapt and prepare for the inevitable ecological and socio-economic
497 consequences of climate change yet to come.

498

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777
778

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804

805

806 Author contributions

807 A.M., R.F., L.P., N.S. and J.T. designed the project, directed and performed the data
808 collection and analyses. A.M. was leading the project and R.F. was leading the data
809 curation. J.T. produced the code and ran the model to estimate density of species with
810 multiple surveys. R.F., J.T. and A.M. produced figures and conducted analyses. All authors
811 have either provided metadata, provided contact lists and/or lists of surveys to help
812 collecting the metadata, conducted metadata requests and/or helped with the interpretation
813 of results. A.M. wrote the first draft of the manuscript and all co-authors were given the
814 opportunity to revise it.

815

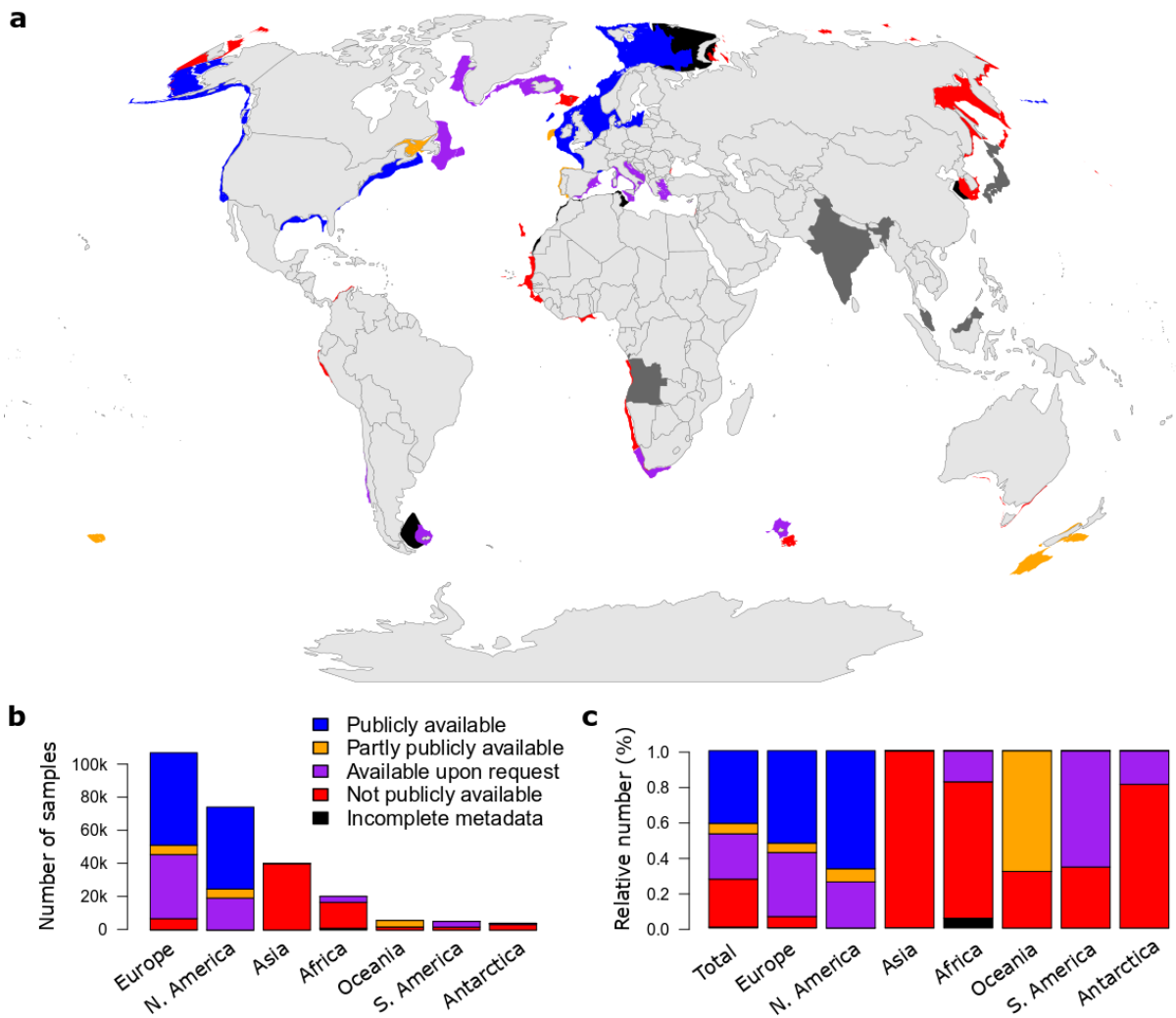
816 Competing interests

817 The authors declare no competing interests.

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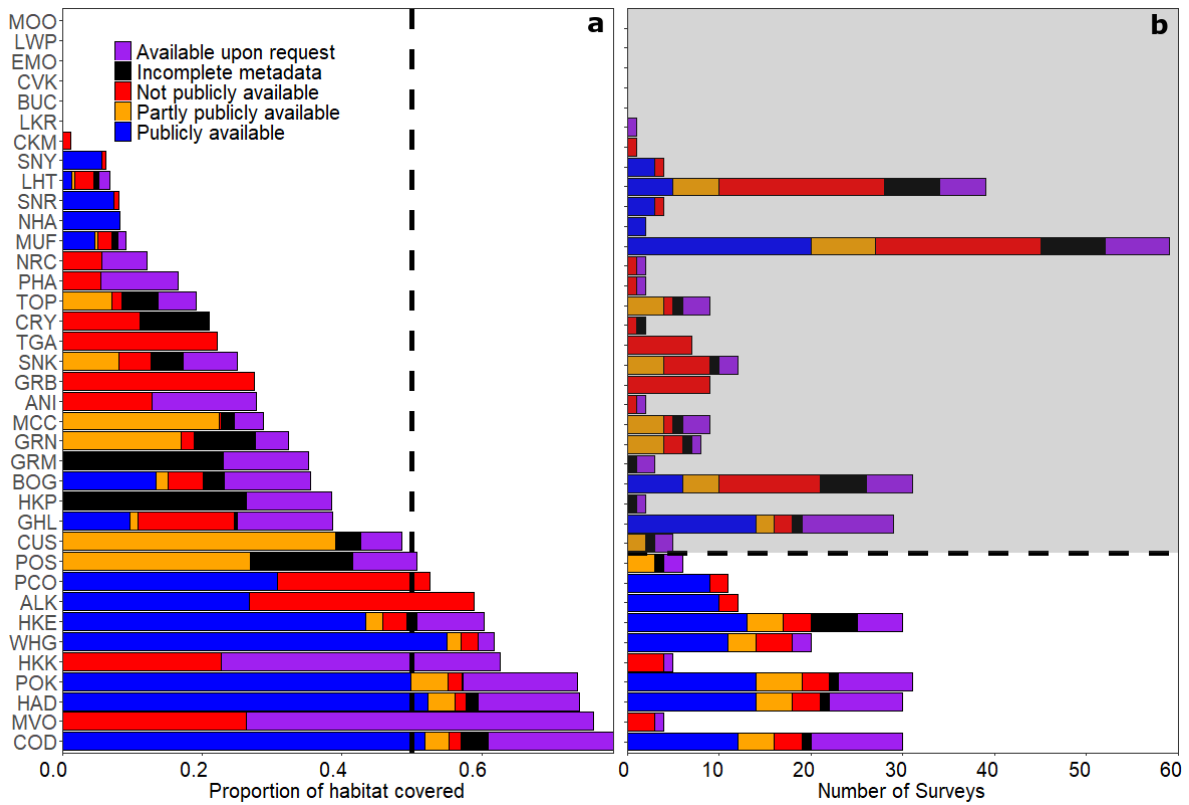
819 Figure Legends

820 **Figure 1:** Worldwide availability of bottom trawl surveys, classified as follows: *publicly*
821 *available* (blue), *partly publicly available* (orange), *available upon request* (purple), *not*
822 *publicly available* (red), *incomplete metadata* (black) and *unavailable metadata* (dark grey for
823 countries conducting the survey). **a**, Location of ongoing scientific bottom trawl surveys,
824 represented by the survey convex hull. Surveys are classified according to their availability.
825 Additional visualizations are available in Supplementary 4. **b**, number of samples for 2001-
826 2019 and availability across continents. (c) Relative availability of samples across
827 continents.



828

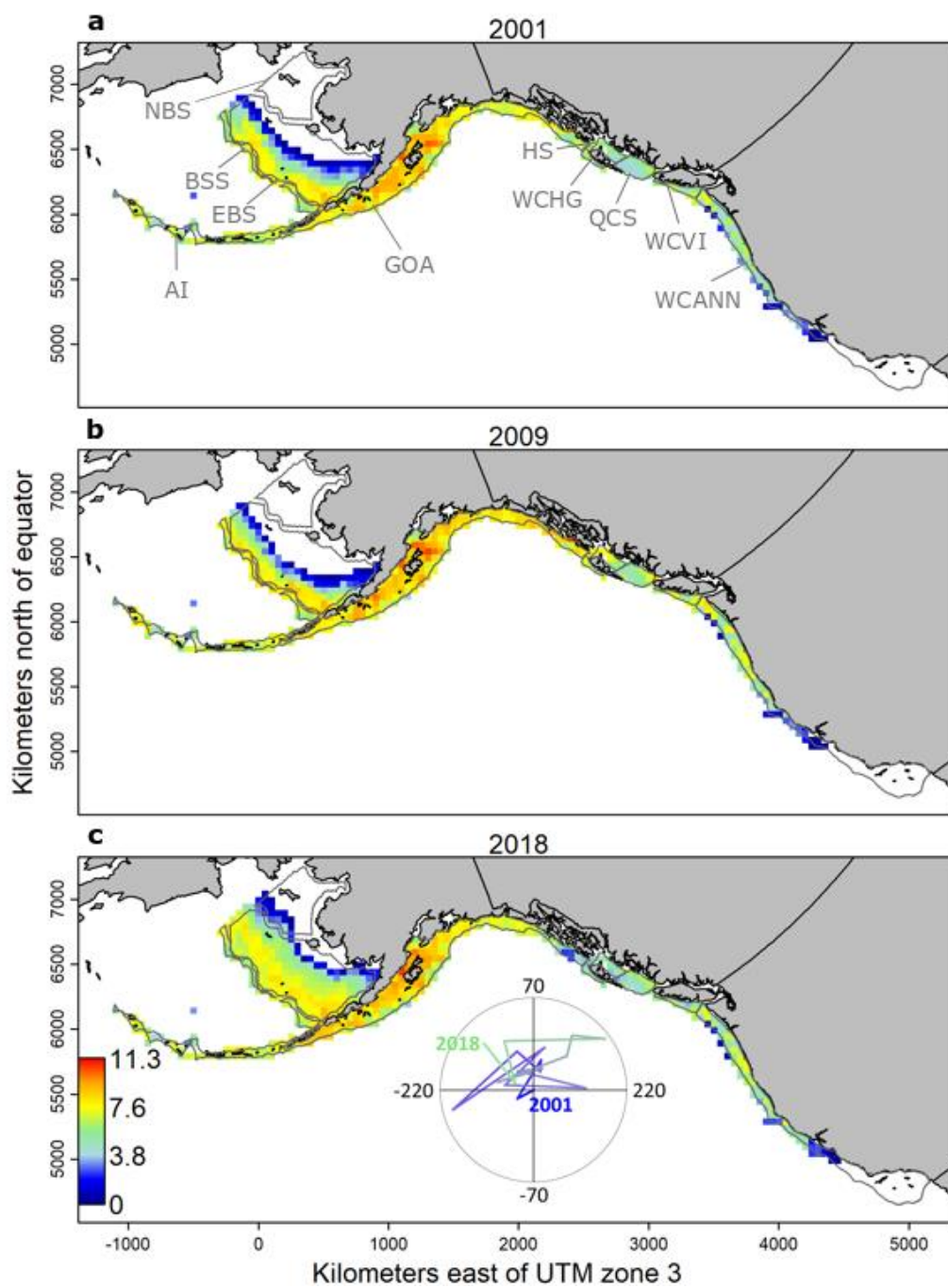
829 **Figure 2:** Main commercial demersal species identified by the ASFIS 3-letter codes and the
 830 corresponding coverage by the surveys: **a**, proportion of AquaMaps habitat covered by the
 831 surveys (the vertical dotted line indicates 50% of range covered) and **b**, number of surveys
 832 behind the proportion covered (species for which less than 50% of range covered are
 833 shaded). Corresponding Latin names to species are available in Supplementary Table 5.1.
 834 Colors indicate the availability status attributed to each survey.



835

836

837 **Figure 3:** Density estimates for arrowtooth flounder (*Atheresthes stomias*) along the
838 northeastern Pacific coast containing contiguous sampling data from multiple surveys in
839 $\log(\text{kg}/\text{km}^2)$ using regional bottom trawl surveys: West Coast US (WCANN), West Coast
840 Vancouver Island (WCVI), Hecate Strait (HS), West Coast Haida Gwaii (WCHG), Queen
841 Charlotte (WCS), Gulf of Alaska (GOA), eastern Bering Sea (EBS), northern Bering Sea
842 (NBS), Aleutian Islands (AI), and Bering Sea slope (BSS). Polygon contours represent the
843 different surveys, as indicated by the corresponding codes. Densities are presented for three
844 years: **a** 2001, **b** 2009 and **c** 2018. Only densities higher than 0.1% of the maximum were
845 selected to clearly differentiate areas occupied by the species (colored-coded) from those
846 mostly unoccupied (white). The inset in the bottom panel shows the change in the center of
847 gravity through time, where longitude and latitude for 2001 are (0;0).



848

849

850 **Box 1. Applying open science principles to bottom trawl survey data.**

851 Open Science is broadly defined as “Open data and content that can be freely used,
852 modified, and shared by anyone for any [ethical] purpose” (<http://opendefinition.org/>), and is
853 more specifically described by six main principles (see ref ³⁹ for a general description).
854 Following is a summary of advances towards Open Science and challenges regarding the
855 use of bottom trawl surveys.

856

857 **1. Ensure ethical use of shared information**

858 It is crucial that the push towards open science recognizes the value and human side of
859 information. Nations and communities, particularly those that have been historically exploited
860 must be able to benefit from their own data and be able to control their own information to
861 minimize potential abuse. Open science must ensure that open data do not enable an
862 opportunistic fishing company to exploit a nation’s or community’s resources. While open
863 science can promote transparent science and understanding, it is essential that any use of
864 open data give priority, proper credit, acknowledgement and potentially compensation to
865 those who collected the information, paid for collection and recognize the nation where the
866 data were collected. Access to data from economically stressed nations may require some
867 type of compensation to ensure the data continue to be collected and made available.

868

869 **2. Improve knowledge on existing trawl surveys (“Open resources”)**

870 Knowledge about the existence of a survey and about the essential course of actions to
871 request and access the survey data can be a challenge. This could be facilitated through a
872 network or a platform where scientists can share such relevant information. Regional
873 platforms currently exist in some areas: western Africa (<http://www.projet-istam.org/>;
874 <http://pescao-demerstem.org/>), southeast Asia³⁰, Europe (<https://datras.ices.dk/>) and North
875 America (<https://oceanadapt.rutgers.edu>). Such platforms would ideally improve the visibility
876 of their resources by making their metadata available and easily visible. Here, we
877 established a global network for open resources regarding bottom trawl surveys, where

878 metadata of surveys and contacts or links to access full data are provided (Supplementary
879 Table 1.1 and <https://rrelat.shinyapps.io/metabts/>). The difficulty in obtaining survey
880 metadata and accessing it suggests that challenges remain to create an exhaustive global
881 resource for bottom trawl surveys that can be maintained on the medium and long term.

882

883 **3. Improve the accessibility and availability of surveys (“Open data”)**

884 An evaluation of the accessibility and availability of surveys is necessary to enhance further
885 open data science. We assessed that 59% of the samples collected are not publicly
886 available to varying degrees (Figure 1). The network created here greatly improves the
887 visibility of surveys, by presenting their metadata. Further, the availability of data can only be
888 improved by changing the way we share scientific information, for instance by publishing
889 data⁵² and ensuring quality-controlled use of data. Several bottom trawl surveys are
890 published online, but the most recent years are not always included, or links to access the
891 data are not always maintained, e.g. the Norwegian surveys¹⁰⁷, the southern Gulf of St
892 Lawrence survey¹⁰⁸, Mauritania¹⁰⁹, southeast Asian surveys³⁰. Ensuring online publication of
893 data are updated and maintained is key, as is done for other repositories (e.g. DATRAS from
894 the International Council for the Exploration of the Sea <https://datras.ices.dk/>). Existing
895 platforms that enable online data publication, however, may not always allow updating or
896 involve peer-review of the data (e.g. PANGAEA <https://www.pangaea.de/> and DRYAD
897 <https://datadryad.org/stash>). To ensure data are available beyond a single report or
898 publication, a dedicated, sustainable, long-term management strategy is required with
899 dedicated personal. The data repositories mentioned above that update and maintain their
900 information all have dedicated programs and resources to ensure the data are available.

901

902 **4. Improve the visibility of the expertise on surveys (“Open source” and “Open 903 methods”)**

904 To ensure appropriate use of the data, it is highly important that survey protocols, reports,
905 and common practices are shared together with the raw survey data. Furthermore, providing

906 example code to clean the data or to combine data from multiple surveys can ensure the
907 appropriate use of data. Such types of open source and open access methods have been
908 developed in recent years, mostly for Europe and North America (for instance
909 <https://oceanadapt.rutgers.edu/>; <https://james-thorson.github.io/> for codes;
910 <https://datras.ices.dk/> and ref ⁷² for codes and published reports). However, such
911 documentation and tools need to be available and easy to find beyond Europe and North
912 America, as well as in multiple languages. Together with the survey metadata information,
913 we started gathering such information (see Supplementary Table 1.1).

914

915 **5. Open access of the produced research (“Open access”, “Open peer review”)**

916 The research published based on bottom trawl surveys can be open access, even when the
917 raw underlying data are not (see ref ⁴⁷ for an example). The accessibility of published papers
918 in science is improving, but is undermined by journals charging high costs for open access,
919 which is particularly prejudicing open publications in low and middle-income countries. Open
920 peer review is developing in several journals and will also increase transparency towards
921 publishing. Similarly, providing programming code and the underlying data are increasingly
922 required for publishing, thereby also enhancing open science.

923

924

925 **Box 2. Towards a framework for transboundary management and conservation**

926
927 **1. Agreement of Survey Data and Analyses.** All parties must agree on data, information,
928 current abundance and spatial footprint of the fisheries stock and species of interest.

929 a. Find the surveys covering the species range

930 The first key task is to establish which surveys cover the native range of the species of
931 interest. The next task is to find and access surveys corresponding to that species native
932 range. A list of existing surveys, their time coverage and available samples are available
933 here for demersal species (see Supplementary Table 1.1). If surveys are not publicly
934 available, one can use the network of contacts published in this paper and/or establish
935 bilateral/multilateral agreements to gain access to the survey data. Metadata should also
936 ideally include a list of species recorded in the surveys.

937 b. Estimate the change in species density and distribution

938 Surveys vary in terms of design, gear, catchability and sampling methods. Multiple surveys
939 can be combined to estimate species density and reconstruct past temporal changes in
940 spatial distribution. Modeling the change in species distributions can be done with multiple
941 models and needs to take into account survey discrepancies⁷⁶⁻⁷⁹. Sharing information across
942 international boundaries could enable a more complete picture of the distribution of a fish
943 population and reconsideration of the definition of their stock structure.

944 c. Forecast changes in densities and distributions

945 Building on the knowledge of past species distribution change and ecology, forecasting
946 species distribution will enable adaptation to changes in advance¹¹⁰. The spatio-temporal
947 model described here can also be used to forecast species distributions in the near future¹¹¹,
948 and thus the spatial scale at which adaptation measures should be applied.

949 d. Measure ecosystem impact in local management areas

950 Climate change enhances the dynamic nature of changes in species abundance and
951 requires fisheries management to adapt, not only directly to the resource, but also to assess

952 the impacts on port infrastructure, fishing fleets/gears and other human activities^{20,22,112}. The
953 immigration/emigration of species into local areas can lead to substantial changes in
954 community structure and diversity, and may lead other species to outcompete or be
955 outcompeted. By monitoring not only commercial species, but the entire community—as is
956 generally possible with bottom trawl surveys—we can understand ecological changes and
957 inform the conservation of vulnerable species^{17,96}.

958

959 **2. Management and cooperation.**

960 a. International agreements

961 All parties must create a management agreement for the regulation of the resource that is
962 legally binding, regardless of how the distribution or abundance of the resource might
963 change or not change in the future. Policies could be developed within the agreement to
964 adjust regulations depending on a range of future scenarios such as when stocks move
965 poleward, or decrease/increase in abundance. Pre-agreements covering a range of options
966 can help reduce future conflicts and reduce the need to renegotiate or abandon the
967 agreement¹¹³. An important goal of the management agreement is to acknowledge that
968 changes are likely to occur, while recognizing that the specific change is likely unpredictable.

969 b. Transboundary cooperation

970 In the case of transboundary species and distribution over multiple management areas,
971 changes in spatial distribution under climate change and variability may favor/exclude
972 countries or regions^{90,114}. Therefore, some areas will ‘win’ or ‘lose’ and create conflicts and/or
973 lead to species overexploitation^{24,88}. Building agreements among countries to share
974 resources equitably—or compensate when not possible—is necessary to ensure the
975 sustainability of resources and the dependent human communities⁹². It is essential that all
976 parties perceive benefit from cooperating and remaining within the agreement. In the case of
977 non-exploited/non-targeted species, cooperative conservation actions should be established.
978 Such cooperation can only be built with open and transparent science (Box. 1) to conserve
979 the species and avoid conflicts.

980 c. Regulation and enforcement

981 To truly implement transboundary management and conservation, the involved parties must
982 develop a method to enforce their agreement. Effective monitoring to gather information on
983 the shared resource and to measure compliance is important. Compensation and/or
984 penalties may also be involved to ensure all parties adhere to the regulations. Side
985 payments are one means of compensation that can take different forms⁹². Direct cash
986 payments are possible, however countries can also share monitoring and research capacity
987 across international boundaries as is done for a number of stocks that straddle Canadian
988 and United States waters⁹². Nations can allow other nations to fish for a specific shared
989 resource in their EEZ as is done between Norway and Russia^{115,116} or swap quota in a
990 multispecies fishery as has been done in the Baltic¹¹⁷. Once again, the goal is to develop an
991 agreement in which all parties perceive benefits to properly manage shared stocks.

992