

The persistence in time of distributional patterns in marine megafauna impacts 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 the existing MPA network. We explored the relationship between population abundance and spatial extent of distribution to assess the aggregation level of species distribution. We used the smallest spatial extent including 75% of the population present in the Bay of Biscay to define specific core areas of distributions, and calculated their persistence over the 14 studied years. We inspected the relevance of the MPA network with respect to aggregation and persistence. We found that aggregation and persistence are two independent features of marine megafauna distributions. Indeed, strong persistence was shown in both aggregated (bottlenose dolphins, auks) and loosely distributed species (northern gannets), while some species with aggregated distributions also showed limited year-to-year persistence in their patterns (black-legged kittiwakes). 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). In general, MPA design aims at optimising the protection of key areas of distributions by encompassing high spatial aggregations of individuals within rather small protected areas, *i.e.* the critical habitats of target species (Hooker & Gerber, 2004). Critical habitats of a species include the habitats required for successful breeding and foraging ensuring its survival and population growth. In the case of endothermic top predators (*i.e.* seabirds and marine mammals), these critical habitats can be separated in both space and time, sometimes very distantly apart, as these species can cover thousands of kilometres per year (as for seabirds, pinnipeds or baleen whales for example; Game et al., 2009; Lewison et al., 2015).

For seabirds and pinnipeds, resting and breeding sites are well-known critical habitats, as seabird colonies and seal haul-out sites are generally well identified, 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 at-sea distributions of marine top predator, especially in 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 the available environmental conditions around its colony, or odontocetes should change their distribution to match the spatial variation of their favourable habitats between years. These spatial variations in distribution might thus lead to variations in the relevance of a static MPA over years (Game et al., 2009; Lewison et al.,

37 2015). Species with loose distribution or with strong temporal variations might more benefit from non-zonal
38 conservation approaches, such as full national or international protection. As a result, a better understanding
39 of the aggregation and persistence of distributional patterns of target species would ultimately help to make
40 choice between policy instruments.

41 This study aimed at elucidating the effect of predator mobility on static MPA relevance in the Bay of Biscay
42 (BoB), France, where oceanographic multi-disciplinary cruises have been conducted every spring since 2003. All
43 seabirds and marine mammals are fully protected at the national level (against destruction, mutilation, capture,
44 transport...) in France, but they, and their habitat, also benefit from the specific protection and conservation
45 measures provided by various MPAs designated under diverse jurisdictional status. Seabirds are protected by
46 Natura 2000 sites under the European Birds Directive, while marine mammals and their habitat are protected
47 under the Natura 2000 Habitat Directive (only four species: harbour porpoise, bottlenose dolphin, grey and
48 harbour seals). Both taxa are protected by a set of Marine Natural Parks as well. Within the Bay of Biscay,
49 in 2018, 99 MPAs include 3 Marine Natural Parks (French Marine Natural Parks, 2019), 58 Natura 2000 sites
50 designated under the Habitats Directive and 38 Natura 2000 sites designated under the Birds Directive (INPN,
51 2018). Among those Natura 2000 sites, two offshore sites of large extent have been designated in 2018 to achieve
52 the EU Member States objectives of offshore waters protection (Delavenne et al., 2017; Journal Officiel, 2018).

53 We explored the implication of species mobility for zonal conservation strategies by following two main
54 steps: (i) characterising the distributional patterns of mobile species based on two parameters, their aggregation
55 level and their persistence; (ii) assessing the relevance of existing MPAs regarding those two parameters. We
56 computed predictions of the distribution of eight taxa (seven seabirds, one cetacean) for each year from 2004 to
57 2017 in the Bay of Biscay based on habitat modelling computed from oceanographic cruise data. We identified
58 the aggregation level of species from the relationship between population abundance and spatial extent of
59 distribution, expecting aggregated species to have a large proportion of their population located into small
60 areas. We defined the smallest spatial extent including 75% of the Bay of Biscay population (following a
61 method similar to the one implemented by Nur et al., 2011) as the core area of distribution of a species, and
62 their persistence was calculated over the 14 studied years. Finally, we explored whether the MPA network would
63 actually be adequate for the protection of the eight studied groups of species in respect with their core areas of
64 distribution and their persistence, and discussed the implication of such spatially varying distributions for the
65 conservation of mobile marine predators through static MPAs.

66 2 Material and Methods

67 2.1 Data source

68 This study builds from observation data obtained through the pelagic oceanographic cruises PELGAS (*PELag-*
69 *iques GAScogne*), conducted by IFREMER (French research institute for the exploration of the sea) onboard
70 the research vessel *Thalassa*, which sample long transects perpendicular to the coast over the shelf every year

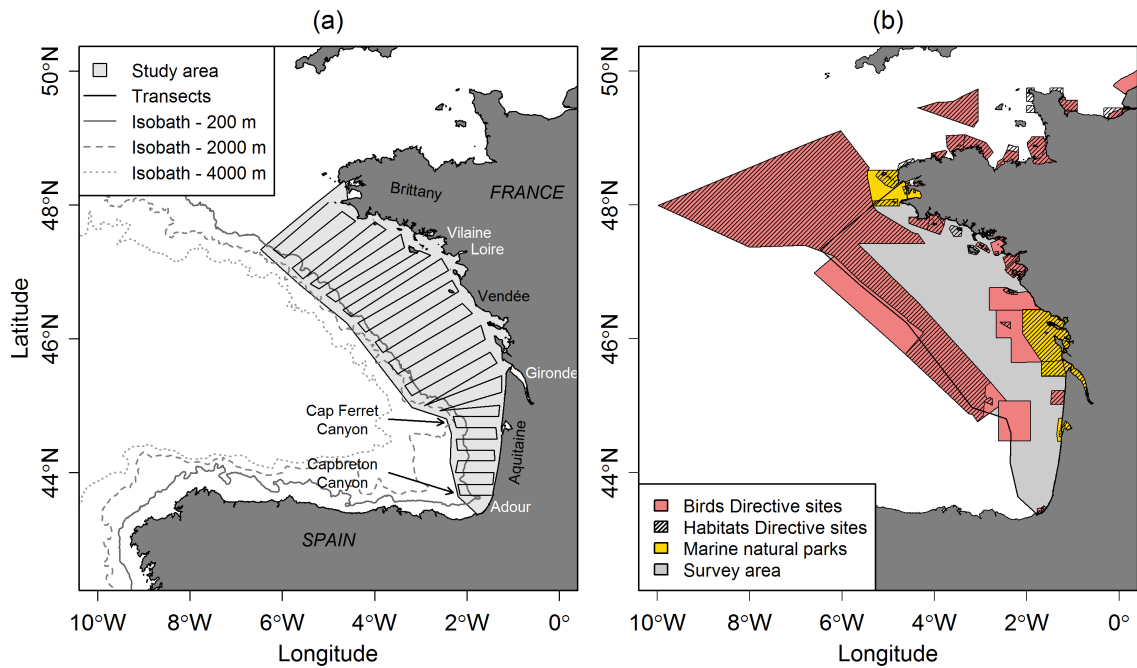


Figure 1. (a) Study area and theoretical sampling design of PELGAS survey. Names of four main estuaries in white, names of other geographical localities and main canyons in black; (b) French Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) in the Bay of Biscay and English Channel. This study considered only sites overlapping the survey area. Birds Directive sites were assessed only for seabirds, Habitats Directive sites only for cetaceans.

71 in May/June (Figure 1a; Doray et al., 2018). Top predator observations were collected following a line transect
72 protocol (Buckland et al., 2001) over the period 2004–2017. In-situ environmental variables were routinely
73 collected along transects: surface and bottom temperatures, salinity, mixed layer depth and surface chlorophyll
74 a concentration (Doray et al., 2018).

75 Our analysis builds from the habitat models produced by and described in (Lambert et al., 2018). The
76 habitat modelling procedure mostly used environmental variables collected *in-situ* during the oceanographic
77 cruises, but also some environmental variables derived from remote-sensing sources and from bathymetric grid
78 of the ocean (Appendix A). The procedure takes into account the variability of habitat preferences across
79 years by selecting between a global model (considering the relationship with environmental variables similar
80 over years) and an interaction model (integrating the interaction between variables and years, allowing the
81 relationship to change between years). The habitat modelling procedure is detailed in the Appendix A, along
82 with maps of predicted densities in individual per square kilometres for each studied years (2004–2017) for the
83 eight taxa.

84 Here, we discarded the common dolphin from the set of studied species from (Lambert et al., 2018) as habitat
85 modelling failed to predict correctly their distributions, but considered three more taxa, whose distribution were
86 predicted following the same procedure. During at-sea data collection, some individuals are impossible to tell
87 apart between closely related species exhibiting close morphology and behaviour. As a result, we focused on
88 a set of individual species and taxa composed of several closely related species: bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops*
89 *truncatus*); northern fulmar (*Fulmarus glacialis*); small-sized shearwaters (Manx *Puffinus puffinus* and Balearic
90 *P. mauretanicus* shearwaters); storm petrels (European *Hydrobates pelagicus*, Leach's *H. leucorhous* and band-

91 rumped *Hydrobates castro* storm-petrels); northern gannets (*Morus bassanus*); great skua (*Catharacta skua*);
92 auks (common guillemot *Uria aalge* and razorbill *Alca torda*); black-legged kittiwake (*Rissa tridactyla*).

93 **2.2 Distribution patterns**

94 **2.2.1 Aggregation level**

95 We first transformed density maps from habitat models to abundance maps by multiplying predicted density
96 by cell surface. The abundance maps were then transformed into proportion maps, *i.e.* the abundance of each
97 cell was related to the total abundance predicted within the study area (sum all cells within the PELGAS
98 stratum). For each species and each year, all cells were sorted by decreasing predicted proportions and the
99 cumulative sum was computed. We explored the aggregation level of each species distribution by plotting the
100 cumulative sum of abundance proportion against the corresponding cumulative sum of surface for each species
101 and year. Aggregated species were identified as species with high proportions of population concentrated into
102 small surface *versus* larger surface for broadly distributed species (relationship closer to linearity).

103 **2.2.2 Core areas of distribution and their persistence**

104 The smallest spatial extent including 75% of the population identified the core areas of distribution of studied
105 taxa. Based on the cumulative sum of abundance proportion, the set of cells containing 75% of the population
106 was assigned the value of "1", all remaining cells were assigned "0".

107 The persistence of core areas was calculated as the number of years each cell belonged to the core area
108 (category 1). Habitat models being built on *in-situ* variables, some cells have no prediction for years during
109 which they were not sampled. To take into account this variation, the number of years a cell belonged to the
110 core area was divided by the number of years each cell was sampled. The persistence was thus expressed as the
111 proportion of sampled years a cell was included in the core area of distribution.

112 **2.3 MPA relevance within the Bay of Biscay**

113 The proportions of core areas of distributions actually falling within MPAs for each studied year was quantified
114 to assess the relevance of MPAs within the Bay of Biscay: we considered all cells of the core area whose centre
115 was inside an MPA as included in that MPA. We quantified as well the proportions of persistent cells (*i.e.*
116 belonging to the core area at least 50% of surveyed years) whose centres fall within MPAs.

117 We assessed Bird Directive sites for seabirds, and Habitats Directive sites for bottlenose dolphin (Figure 1b).
118 The Bird Directive sites target the protection of bird species, while the Habitats Directive sites aim at protecting,
119 among other species, the bottlenose dolphin habitat. We only considered sites overlapping with the study area.

120 3 Results

121 3.1 Habitat modelling

122 The interaction model was selected for most species (all but bottlenose dolphins and storm petrels; Appendix A),
123 indicating their relationship to their habitat might vary to some extent across years. Selected models resulted
124 in reasonably good explain deviances (from 21.7% for storm petrels to 58.9% for black-legged kittiwakes, with
125 an average of 40.5%) and fitted well the observed distribution of species across years.

126 The seven studied taxa exhibited different predicted distribution patterns (Figure 2; see Appendix A for
127 yearly predicted distributions). Bottlenose dolphins exhibited the less variable and most aggregated spatial
128 distribution, with a very clear preference for the shelf edge (Appendix A3). Kittiwakes also exhibited an
129 aggregated distribution, with highest predicted densities along the coast of northern BoB (Appendix A4). Auks
130 were the third most aggregated taxon, occurring mostly along the coast during the fourteen years, especially
131 within river plumes (Appendix A5). Storm petrels were predicted over the whole northern BoB shelf and offshore
132 Basque country (Appendix A6). The northern fulmars were mostly predicted over the slope and outer shelf
133 of the BoB, avoiding coastal areas, during the fourteen years (Appendix A7). The distribution of small-sized
134 shearwaters varied more between years, but they remained mostly predicted in inner and central shelf areas of
135 the northern BoB (Appendix A8). Northern gannets were distributed over the whole BoB, with higher densities
136 in the northern part (Appendix A9).

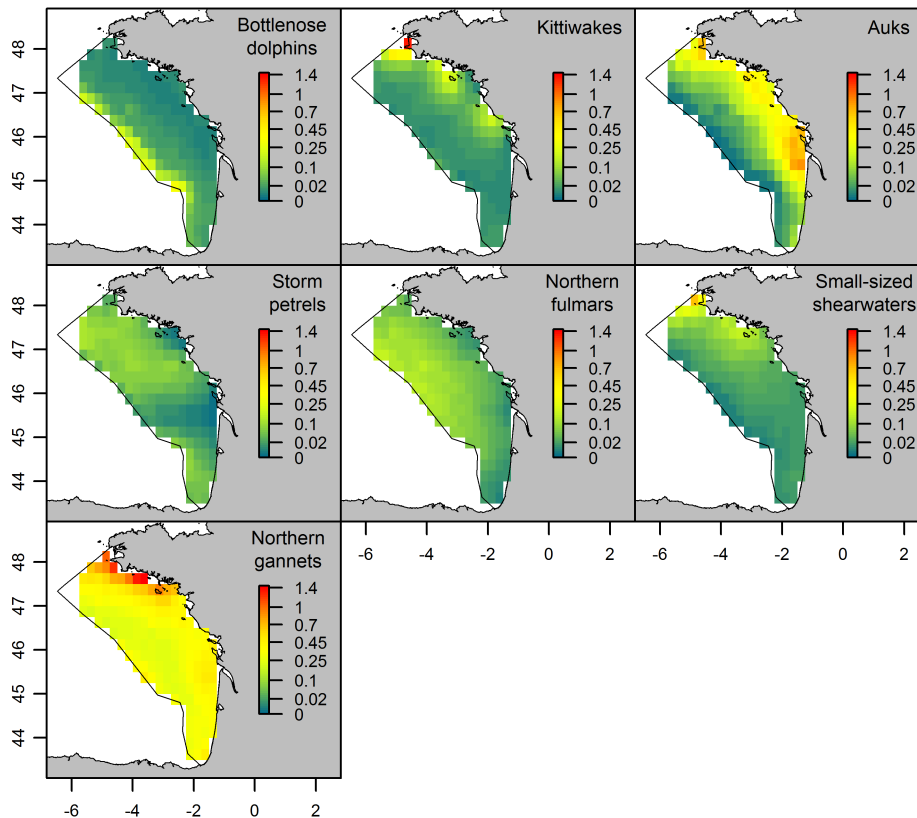


Figure 2. Predicted densities (individual/km²) averaged over the fourteen studied years for the seven studied taxa.

137 3.2 Aggregation levels

138 We expected species with an aggregated distribution to have high proportions of population in small surface
139 compared to species with a loose distribution.

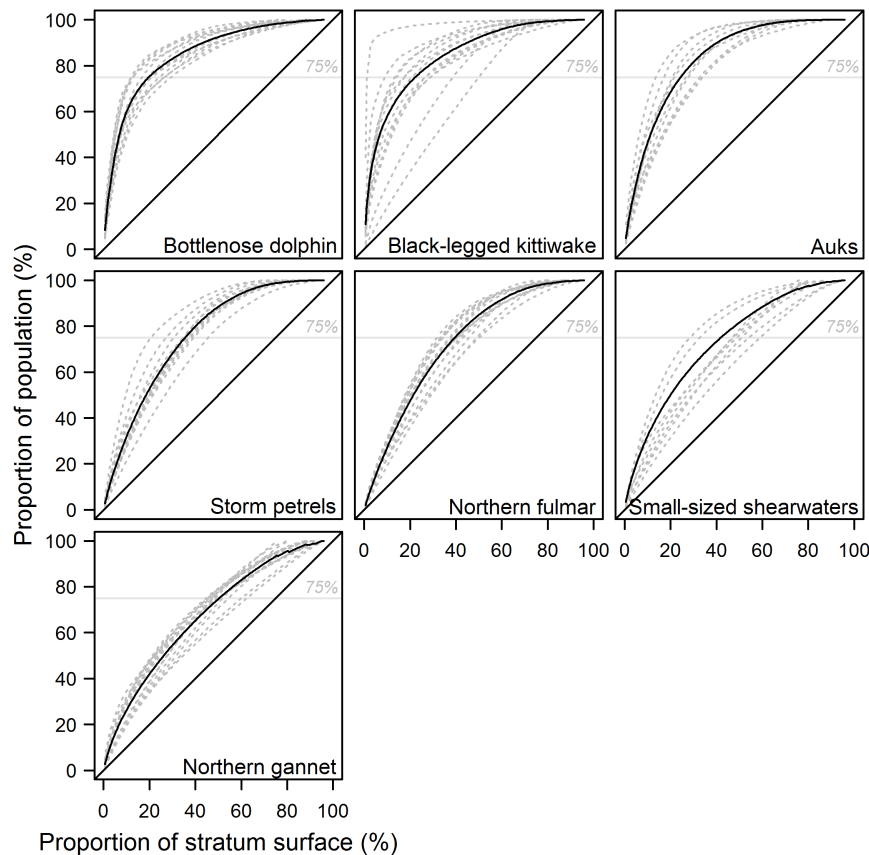


Figure 3. Relationships between the proportions of population covered and the corresponding proportions of stratum surface for the seven studied taxa. Annual relationships are dotted grey lines, the averages over the fourteen years are plain black lines. The 75% of population threshold used to determine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

140 Bottlenose dolphins, black-legged kittiwakes and auks presented the highest aggregation levels among the
141 studied species, their core areas showing the smallest spatial extent (Figure 3). In average, 75% of the population
142 was encompassed within 20, 23 and 25% of the study area, respectively. The curves rapidly reached this value,
143 then the proportion of population levelled off with the increase of stratum surface proportion. The aggregation
144 level varied somehow across years for bottlenose dolphins and auks, but the overall relationship remained the
145 same throughout the studied years (Figure 3). Bottlenose dolphins core areas were restricted to the shelf edge
146 during all the studied years (Appendix B1), while auks were mostly aggregated over river plumes from the
147 Vilaine to Gironde estuaries, with some years core areas occurring within the Adour river plume (2004–2009;
148 Appendix B3 ; see Figure 1 for location of these estuaries). However, the black-legged kittiwake distribution
149 showed different pattern of aggregation during three of the studied years, being highly aggregated in a few cells
150 in some years (2017), but broadly distributed in two others (relationships tending toward linearity, 2005–2006;
151 Figure 3). Overall, black-legged kittiwakes were mainly aggregated in southern Brittany, with an extension
152 down to the Gironde estuary during some years (Appendix B2).

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

163 Northern gannets exhibited broad distribution with reduced aggregation level (Figure 3; Appendix B7).
164 Their relationships between population and surface was almost linear, with very few variations across years. In
165 average, 75% of the population occupied 45–60% of the study area.

166 3.3 Persistence of core areas

167 Bottlenose dolphins exhibited the largest spatial consistency across years, and their core area of distribution
168 was strongly persistent (Figure 4a): the bottlenose dolphin core area of distribution (representing only 21% of
169 the study area; Figure 4b) was located over the shelf edge 100% of surveyed years, and the vast majority of
170 the BoB was never encompassed within the species core areas. Kittiwakes had the lowest core areas persistence
171 due to the spatial variation of its core area across years (Figure 4a). Kittiwakes were nevertheless located off
172 Brittany and along the Vendée coast during more than 50% of the studied years, which represented 21% of
173 the study area (Figure 4b). The extreme north of the BoB had a persistence larger than 80% of years, but
174 those cells were sampled during less than 10 of the studied years. Auks' core areas had strong persistence, with
175 estuaries being included in a core areas more than 50% of surveyed years (Figure 4a), resulting in a persistent
176 area (*i.e.* more than 50% of surveyed years) representing 29% of the study area (Figure 4b). The rest of the
177 shelf was never used by auks. The storm petrels' core area located in the northern BoB was persistent across
178 years (>80% of surveyed years; Figure 4a). The second core area, located in the southern BoB, was a bit less
179 persistent (about 50% of surveyed years). The persistence of northern fulmar core areas was high, with a large
180 area over the outer shelf being included in core areas more than 90% of years the cells were surveyed (Figure 4a).
181 The same occurred for small-sized shearwaters, for which a large amount of cells was persistent more than 80%
182 of surveyed years, from the southern Brittany to the Gironde estuary (Figure 4a). For those three species, 45,
183 45, 48% of the survey area was persistently included in core areas (*i.e.* more than 50% of surveyed years; Figure
184 4b). The northern gannets were widely distributed over the BoB across all the years, and all cells were included
185 in a core area at least during one year (Figure 4a). The most persistent areas were located off Brittany and
186 off the Gironde estuary. 65% of the Bay of Biscay belonged to a core area for at least 50% of surveyed years
187 (Figure 4b).

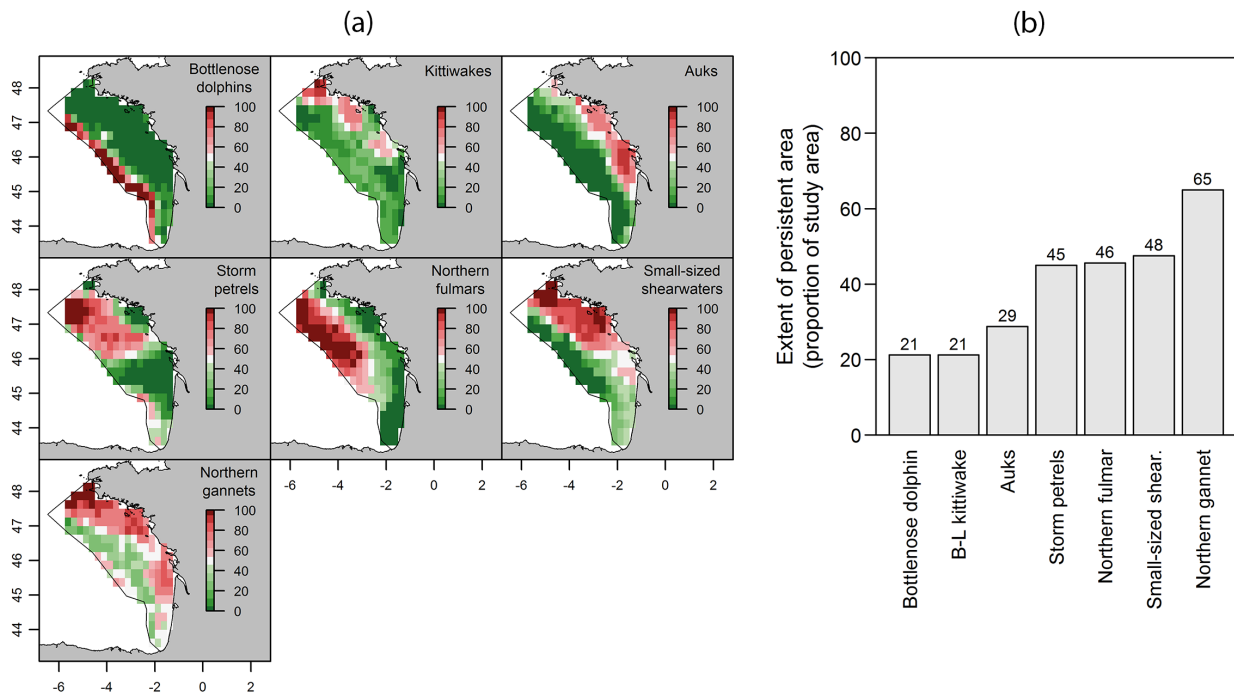


Figure 4. (a) Persistence of core areas of distributions by species. The persistence is expressed as the proportion of surveyed year a cell was included in species' core area of distribution (in percent). (b) Spatial extent of persistent area by species, expressed as the proportions of the study area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

3.4 MPA relevance within the Bay of Biscay

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

Thanks to their aggregated and persistent distribution over years, the proportion of bottlenose dolphin core areas within MPAs did not vary much, but was quite high thanks to the new offshore Habitats Directive site covering the shelf edge (42–67%; Figure 5). The proportion of core areas of black-legged kittiwakes in MPAs were highly variable across years, from 21% to 80% (100% in 2017 when the core area was made of only 1 cell; Figure 5), as a result of their core areas being poorly persistent. Auks were among species with aggregated distribution persistent over time, resulting in fairly high proportion of core areas in MPAs, from 35 to 68% (Figure 5). Storm petrels, northern fulmars, small-sized shearwaters were more widespread, their larger core areas being well persistent. As a result the proportion of their core areas in MPAs were medium, and showed low variation across years (24–35% for storm petrels, 33–51% for northern fulmars, 19–37% for small-sized shearwaters; Figure 5). Northern gannets were widespread, with large core areas, but these showed some variations in distribution across years, leading to variable proportions of core areas covered by MPAs, from 25 to 59% in MPAs (Figure 5).

The proportions of persistent area (*i.e.* area included in core areas more than 50% of the studied years)

206 included in MPAs varied across species (Figure 6). Thanks to the strong persistence and aggregation of their
 207 core area over the shelf edge, 59% of the bottlenose dolphin persistent area was included in MPA (the largest
 208 proportions among studied species; Figure 6). Black-legged kittiwakes, auks, northern fulmars, small-sized
 209 shearwaters and northern gannets showed similar medium proportions of persistent area in MPAs (34–49%,
 210 Figure 6). Storm petrels persistent areas were the least covered by MPAs, with only 32% (Figure 6).

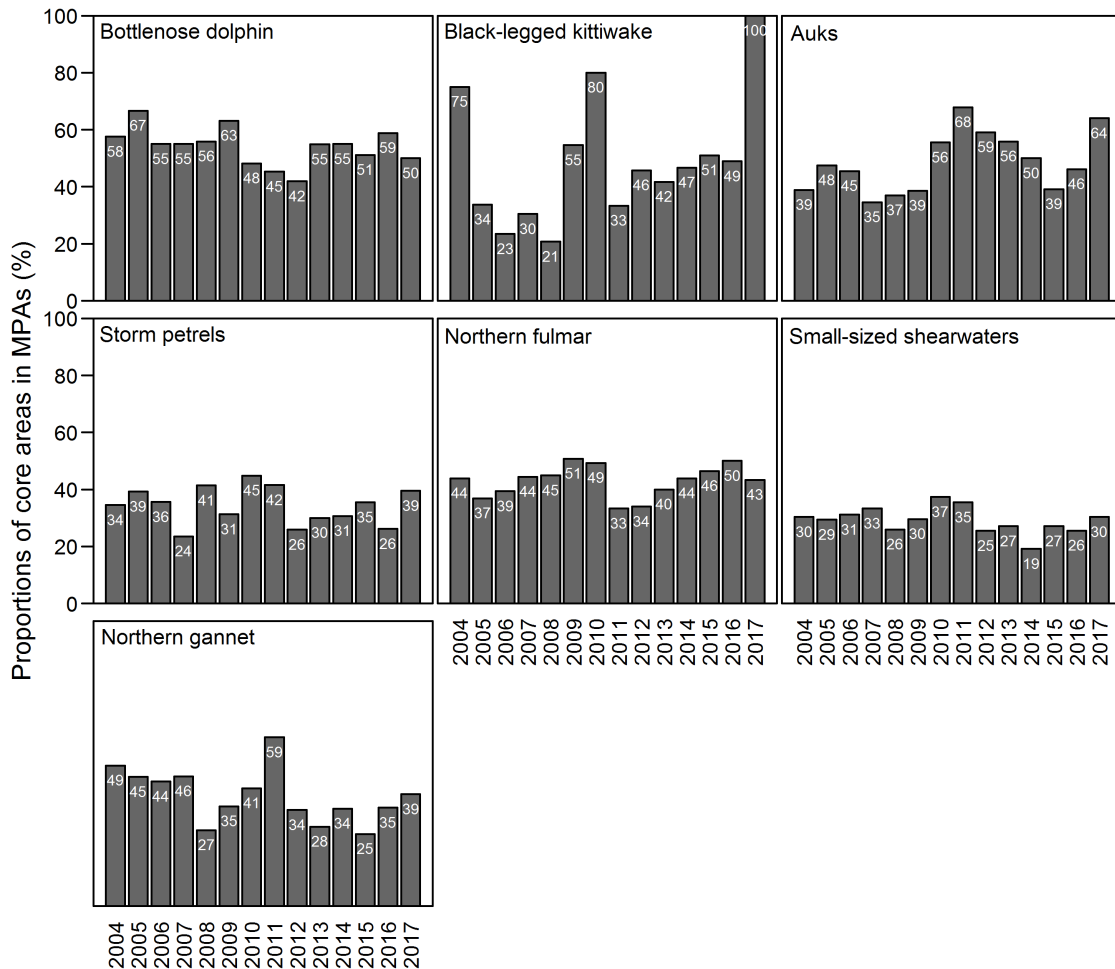


Figure 5. Proportions of core areas encompassed within existing MPAs (Marine Natural Parks and Bird Directive sites for seabirds; Marine Natural Park and Habitat Directive sites for bottlenose dolphins) along the fourteen years for the eight studied groups of species, in percent. The proportion is indicated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

211 4 Discussion

212 The Bay of Biscay is a rather small area compared to some offshore MPAs implemented worldwide, such as the
 213 Pelagos Marine Sanctuary or the Coral Sea Commonwealth Marine Reserve, but the surveys conducted annually
 214 since 2004 were a unique opportunity to investigate some of the main limitations of zonal conservation strategies
 215 for mobile species (Game et al., 2009; Wilson, 2016). Those limitations are linked to the mobility of animals,
 216 in terms of movements and relationships to habitat, but also to the variability of pelagic habitats, which are
 217 hard to characterise and highly dynamic in space and time. These combined factors lead to the conclusion that
 218 for such species, a relevant protection would necessitate larger areas as movement rates increase (Hooker &

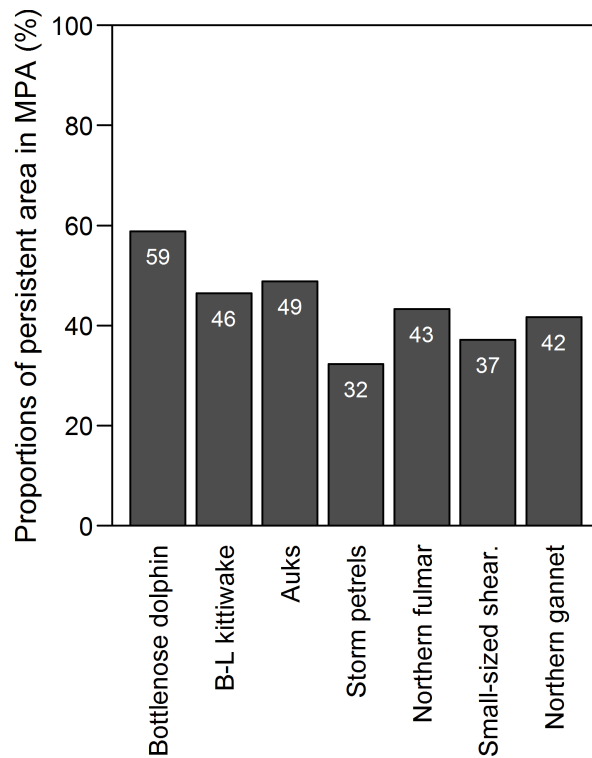


Figure 6. Proportions of persistent areas (cells included in core areas more than 50% of the studied years) encompassed within existing MPAs (Marine Natural Parks and Bird Directive sites for seabirds; Marine Natural Parks and Habitat Directive sites for bottlenose dolphins) for the eight studied species,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

219 Gerber, 2004; Lewison et al., 2015). However, marine predators represent a wide range of species with various
220 distributional patterns, and many species are known to target discrete and predictable oceanographic features
221 (Ballance et al., 2006; Weimerskirch, 2007). Such aggregated species might well benefit from zonal conservation
222 approaches (Oppel et al., 2018). In addition, some species might be more vulnerable within a small proportion
223 of their range. All these elements make possible to meet conservation objectives by focusing on a few critical
224 areas (Game et al., 2009).

225 Here, we aimed at investigating the effect of temporal variability in distribution for a set of marine top
226 predators on the potential protection by static MPAs. First, we were successful in characterising the habi-
227 tats available within our study region thanks to the use of a PCA based on *in-situ* environmental conditions
228 monitored simultaneously to the megafauna survey (Lambert et al., 2018). The quality of models was reason-
229 able to fairly good regarding the standard of habitat modelling for these organisms (good deviances and good
230 predictions–sightings adequacy; see for comparison: Vilchis et al., 2006; Becker et al., 2014; Breen et al., 2017;
231 Lambert et al., 2017a). The habitat modelling highlighted a range of habitat strategies based on the specificity
232 and inter-annual stability of species preferences. Species exhibiting narrower habitat preferences also exhibited
233 stronger stability in their preferences among years (*e.g.* bottlenose dolphins and auks) while the species with
234 wider habitat preferences exhibited higher variability among years (*e.g.* northern gannets; see Lambert et al.,
235 2018). This variability of preferences might either originate in species being flexible in their preferences or in
236 the actual seasonal timing of the pelagic ecosystem varying in some extent across years, ultimately driving some
237 differences in relationships of species to their habitat. Yet, despite this possible variation in seasonal timing,

238 the oceanographic cruise always occur during the reproductive period of studied species. As such, we are con-
239 fident that the conclusion presented here regarding the impact of the persistence of distributional pattern on
240 zonal conservation are reliable for adjusting conservation measures during this highly critical period that is the
241 breeding period.

242 Of course the results presented would benefit from a similar study to be implemented over the rest of the
243 year. Indeed, previous study highlighted seasonal variations of habitat preferences and distribution of cetaceans
244 and seabirds in the Bay of Biscay (Lambert et al., 2017a; Laran et al., 2017; Pettex et al., 2017), showing
245 limited seasonal differences in distribution for bottlenose dolphins and northern fulmars, but large differences in
246 distribution for black-legged kittiwakes, auks and northern gannets between summer and winter. The small-sized
247 shearwaters are completely absent from the study region during winter. An extension of the present study to
248 other seasons would mostly benefit to black-legged kittiwakes, auks and northern gannets, as their difference in
249 distribution is in part due to the individuals present in the study area during winter being of different population
250 than during summer. Unfortunately however, we still lack dataset with sufficient temporal depth to replicate
251 the present study during other seasons.

252 Given the observed range of habitat strategies exhibited by taxa studied during their breeding period, we
253 found various levels of temporal variability in aggregation and location of core areas according to the species. The
254 relationship between the proportion of population and surface clearly identified several species with aggregated
255 distributions on small areas, such as bottlenose dolphins, kittiwakes and auks (75% of the population was
256 concentrated over 22% of the area, in average), and other species with broader distributions, such as northern
257 gannet (75% of the population was spread over 50% of the area, in average). As such, we confirm that for zonal
258 conservation to be effective for a target species, the latter needs to have an aggregated distribution (Oppel
259 et al., 2018), but these areas of higher density must also be persistent in time. Our results showed varying
260 patterns depending on species, highlighting that aggregation and persistence do not always covary: bottlenose
261 dolphins and auks exhibited aggregated distribution with strong persistence over the decade; storm petrels,
262 northern fulmars and northern gannets were widespread species with medium to high persistence but black-
263 legged kittiwakes were an aggregated species with low persistence.

264 Theoretically, species with more persistent distributions should be the easiest to protect with zonal con-
265 servation strategy, and the more the distribution is aggregated, the smaller the required protected area would
266 have to be. In our case, it would be possible to design MPAs based on the persistent distributional patterns for
267 bottlenose dolphins, auks, storm petrels, northern fulmars, small-sized shearwaters and northern gannets. The
268 resulting MPA would be fairly small for bottlenose dolphin and auks, thanks to their aggregated distribution,
269 but would be larger for storm petrels, northern fulmars and small-sized shearwaters (50% of the study area).
270 In case of aggregated species with lower persistence (black-legged kittiwakes) and species loosely distributed
271 with important persistence area (northern gannets) in contrast, the establishment of a zonal conservation would
272 necessitate a large MPA, to encompass all the observed temporal variability in core area distributions in one
273 case, to encompass the whole persistent area in the other case. Those species might benefit more from non-zonal
274 conservation approaches, such as national or international regulation of incidental mortalities linked to fisheries

275 bycatches, or extraction of foraging resources at a larger scale for example. In the Bay of Biscay in particular,
276 all species benefit from a generic national and european-level protection from direct destruction, in addition to
277 the particular conservation measures implemented in MPAs.

278 Here, our goal was not to propose new sites, since many MPAs already exists which currently cover 68% of
279 the study area for the Bird Directive sites, 52% for the Habitats Directive sites. The investigation of the overlap
280 between species core areas and these MPAs showed that bottlenose dolphins and auks, the two most aggregated
281 taxa with strong persistence, had the highest coverage by MPA with reduced temporal variability. This was
282 achieved through the important coastal network of MPA for auks. The boundaries for Habitats Directive and
283 Bird Directive sites were historically proposed mostly based on expert's knowledge of coastal distributions, with
284 poor information on their temporal variability, and *a fortiori* on the target species at-sea distributions leading
285 to a succession of small and large sites along the BoB coast, ensuring a good coverage of the auks distribution.
286 The important coverage of bottlenose dolphin distribution (59% of its core area) was largely ensured by the
287 new offshore Habitats Directive site (see Figure 1) that has recently been designated, along with an equivalent
288 Bird Directive site, based on dedicated large-scale surveys (SAMM surveys; Lambert et al., 2017a; Laran et al.,
289 2017; Pettex et al., 2017) within French waters to compensate for the previous absence of any protected sites
290 within offshore waters (Delavenne et al., 2017).

291 Our results demonstrate the interest of these new sites for the bottlenose dolphin, as they included most of its
292 range, but also for northern fulmars and storm petrels. Those two latter taxa were more broadly distributed than
293 the bottlenose dolphin, with larger core areas strongly persistent over the outer shelf. Prior to the designation
294 of the offshore sites, they were as poorly covered by the coastal network of MPAs as the bottlenose dolphin
295 (Lambert et al., 2017b), but here, we demonstrated that the offshore sites contain an important proportion of
296 their persistent core areas (32% of storm petrels, 43% of northern fulmars). The BoB slope has recently been
297 identified as an area with important densities of marine species whose distributional range up to now poorly
298 overlapped with any MPAs (Klein et al., 2015). Among marine species, mammals are the species group with the
299 lowest proportions of species range overlapping with MPAs. Our results demonstrated that the designation of
300 the two new large offshore sites was a crucial advance toward the protection of species with offshore distribution
301 (both mammals and seabirds), but remains to be confirmed by the establishment of an efficient management
302 plan, a work in progress at present.

303 Despite these positive points, we showed that fairly large proportions of the core persistent areas (more
304 than half) fell outside MPAs in our study area for all species but bottlenose dolphins. Yet, the BoB belongs
305 to the ocean's most impacted areas by cumulative human impacts (Halpern et al., 2008, 2015). We can thus
306 wonder whether these medium to low levels of protection represent a brake to the effectiveness of conservation
307 strategies implemented within the BoB. In his recent editorial, Wilson (2016) argue that the lag between the
308 identification and the designation of MPAs would inevitably lead to a drop of densities within MPAs, due to
309 the dynamic drivers of species distributions and to their mobility inducing temporally varying distributional
310 patterns, as shown here. However, the protection of half of a species core area is surely better than providing
311 no protection at all, especially if the protected areas cover core area with higher threats or species vulnerability

312 (Game et al., 2009): several case studies have shown that protecting critical habitats or reducing area-specific
313 threats can strongly reduce overall mortality rates in spite of the mitigation action taking part on a small part
314 of the species ranges (e.g. Hyrenbach et al., 2006; Alpine & Hobday, 2007). Therefore, despite the intermediate
315 to limited proportions of core and persistent areas of species distributions within MPAs in the BoB, the target
316 species should theoretically benefit from the implemented zonal conservation strategies. This is particularly
317 true for offshore distributed species that had very low level of zonal protection before the establishment of the
318 two offshore sites (Lambert et al., 2017b). Obviously, the assessment of the actual efficiency of those boundaries
319 would be completely dependent on the relevance and efficiency of the management plans to be defined and
320 implemented within each single MPAs (Edgar et al., 2014) and remains to be addressed at the BoB scale.

321 5 Conclusion

322 Our results showed varying levels of temporal persistence in distributional patterns according to predator species
323 combined with various levels of aggregation in distribution. The important result here was that these two factors
324 did not necessarily covary, since strong persistence was shown in both aggregated and loosely distributed species,
325 while some species with aggregated distributions also showed limited year-to-year persistence in their patterns.
326 As a consequence, we have demonstrated that these two factors have potential impact on the amount of spatio-
327 temporal distributional variability encompassed within static MPAs implemented over the study area. Our
328 results exemplified the need to have access to a minimal temporal depth in the species distribution data when
329 aiming at designating new site boundaries for the conservation of mobile species, as this would be the only way
330 to minimize the bias linked to the species and environment mobility (as discussed by Game et al., 2009; Wilson,
331 2016).

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340 Data accessibility

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

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