# Next Generation Planning - Structuring and

# Sharing Environmental Drivers Data for the

# St. Lawrence

- David Beauchesne<sup>1,2,\*</sup>, Rémi M. Daigle<sup>2</sup>, Steve Vissault<sup>3</sup>, Dominique
- <sup>5</sup> Gravel<sup>3</sup>, Andréane Bastien<sup>4</sup>, Simon Bélanger<sup>5</sup>, Pascal Bernatchez<sup>5</sup>,
- 6 Marjolaine Blais <sup>6</sup>, Hugo Bourdages <sup>6</sup>, Clément Chion <sup>7</sup>, Peter S. Galbraith <sup>6</sup>,
- $^{7}$  Benjamin Halpern $^{8,9}$ , Camille Lavoie $^{2}$ , Christopher W. McKindsey $^{6}$ ,
- <sup>8</sup> Alfonso Mucci<sup>10</sup>, Simon Pineault<sup>11</sup>, Michel Starr<sup>6</sup>, Anne-Sophie Ste-Marie<sup>4</sup>,
  - $Philippe\ Archambault^2$

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- <sup>11</sup> Institut des sciences de la mer, Université du Québec à Rimouski, Rimouski, QC, Canada
- <sup>2</sup>Québec Océan, Département de biologie, Université Laval, Québec, QC, Canada
- <sup>3</sup>Département de biologie, Université de Sherbrooke, Sherbrooke, QC, Canada
- <sup>4</sup>St. Lawrence Global Observatory, Rimouski, QC, Canada
- <sup>15</sup> Département de Biologie, Chimie et Géographie, Université du Québec à Rimouski,
- 16 Rimouski, QC, Canada
- <sup>17</sup> <sup>6</sup>Département des Sciences naturelles, Université du Québec en Outaouais, Gatineau, QC,
- 18 Canada

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- <sup>19</sup> Fisheries and Oceans Canada, Maurice Lamontagne Institute, Mont-Joli, QC, Canada
- <sup>20</sup> National Center for Ecological Analysis and Synthesis, University of California, Santa
- 21 Barbara, CA, United States
- <sup>9</sup>Bren School of Environmental Science and Management, University of California, Santa
- 23 Barbara, CA, United States
- <sup>24</sup> Department of Earth & Planetary Sciences, McGill University, Montréal, QC, Canada
- <sup>25</sup> <sup>11</sup>Ministère Environnement et Lutte contre les changements climatiques, Québec, QC,
- 26 Canada

27

### Correspondence:

29 David Beauchesne

 $_{30}$  david.beauchesne@uqar.com

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## 5 1 Abstract

The St. Lawrence System is a vast and complex social-ecological system providing a wealth of ecosystem services sustaining numerous economic sectors. Related human pressures combine 37 with climate driven environmental changes to produce intricate exposure regimes of overlapping and potentially interacting environmental drivers (e.g. hypoxia and fisheries) threatening ecosystems. There is a critical need to systematically characterize the distribution, intensity and overlap between drivers to support integrative initiatives such as ecosystembased management. While portals providing knowledge on individual drivers exist, platforms collating comparable and interoperable knowledges on multiple drivers remain conspicuously 43 missing. This paper presents two distinct, but related objectives. The first is to characterize the distribution and intensity of drivers in the St. Lawrence System. The second is to launch eDrivers, an open knowledge platform gathering experts committed to structuring, standardizing and sharing knowledges on drivers in support of science and management. We gathered data on 22 coastal, climate, fisheries and marine traffic drivers through collaborations, existing environmental initiatives and open data portals. We show that few areas of the St. Lawrence are free of cumulative exposure. The Estuary, the Anticosti Gyre and coastal 50 areas are particularly exposed, especially in the vicinity of urban centers. We identified 6 51 areas of distinct cumulative exposure regime that show that certain drivers typically cooccur in different regions of the St. Lawrence and that coastal areas are exposed to all driver types. Of particular concern are two threat complexes capturing most exposure hotspots that show the convergence of contrasting exposure regimes at the head of the Laurentian Channel. These observations are destined to improve as *eDrivers* evolves through time to address knowledge gaps and refine current driver layers. In an effort to share the knowl-57 edge acquired and to ensure the lasting relevance of the description of drivers presented in this manuscript, eDrivers was built on a series of guiding principles upholding existing data management and open science standards. Ultimately, we believe that eDrivers represents a much needed solution that could radically influence broad scale research and management practices by increasing data accessibility and interoperability and by increasing research and decision-making efficiency.

# <sup>54</sup> 2 Introduction

The St. Lawrence System, formed by one of the largest estuaries in the world and a vast interior sea, is a complex social-ecological system characterized by highly variable environ-

mental conditions and oceanographic processes, both in space and time (Dufour and Ouellet, 2007; El-Sabh and Silverberg, 1990; White and Johns, 1997). It thus offers a unique and heterogeneous array of habitats suited for the establishment of diverse and productive ecological communities (Savenkoff et al., 2000). As a result, the St. Lawrence System provides a wealth of ecosystem services that have historically and contemporarily benefited the Canadian economy. It sustains a rich fisheries industry targeting more than 50 species, serves as the gateway to eastern North-America by granting access to more than 40 ports and the most densely populated Canadian region, hosts a booming tourism industry and an expanding aquaculture production, fosters emerging activities and boasts a yet untapped hydrocarbon potential (Beauchesne et al., 2016; Schloss et al., 2017 @archambault2017). With major investments recently made and more forthcoming in economic and infrastructure development and research (e.g. Québec, 2015; RQM, 2018), an intensification of the human footprint is expected in the St. Lawrence System.

As elsewhere in the world (see Halpern et al., 2015b), this intensifying human footprint will likely result in increasingly intricate environmental exposure regimes, *i.e.* suites of overlapping and potentially interacting environmental drivers threatening ecosystems, habitats or ecological communities. Drivers, often referred to as stressors or pressures, are any externalities that affect environmental processes and disturb natural systems. Drivers may originate from natural or human-induced biophysical processes (*e.g.* sea surface temperature anomalies and hypoxia) or directly from anthropogenic activities (*e.g.* fisheries and marine pollution). The potential for complex interactions between drivers is the largest uncertainty when studying or predicting environmental change (Côté et al., 2016; Darling and Côté, 2008). The effects of multiple drivers can combine non-linearly and result in effects that are greater (synergistic effect) or lower (antagonistic effect) than the sum of individual effects (Côté et al., 2016; Crain et al., 2008; Darling and Côté, 2008).

The uncertainty associated with complex driver interactions must therefore be taken into account when investigating environmental impacts (Côté et al., 2016), yet most research on driver effects in marine environments remains overwhelmingly focused on single driver assessments (O'Brien et al., 2019). Arising from the expected increase in environmental exposure and the experiences of past and current ecological tragedies such as the collapse of cod fisheries (Dempsey et al., 2018; Frank et al., 2005) and the decline of the beluga and right whale populations (???) is a need to characterize the distribution, intensity and overlap between drivers in the St. Lawrence System. This will provide critical information on areas most exposed to cumulative drivers and on the interaction potential of drivers in the St. Lawrence. It is also a necessary step towards the holistic and integrated management

of the St. Lawrence System.

Gathering environmental data for large scale, systematic initiatives can, however, be a very challenging and time consuming - not to say painful - process. On one hand, there is 104 an overwhelming and expanding wealth of data available. Such information overload may 105 inhibit our ability to make decisions based on scientific information, promote massive effort 106 duplication, disproportionately appropriate research funds to certain sectors, and obscure 107 knowledge gaps amid a sea of information (Eppler and Mengis, 2004). On the other hand, crucial data are lacking and remain largely unavailable or inaccessible for a variety of reasons, 109 including proprietary rights, lack of organizational time, capacity and training, and in some 110 rare cases unwillingness to share, curtailing our ability for appropriate decision-making. 111

The current digital infrastructure is highly decentralized and the data management and 112 sharing practices are highly heterogeneous, preventing us from maximizing benefits from 113 research investments (Wilkinson et al., 2016). Yet there now exists multiple initiatives that address this issue by assembling, organizing and sharing vast arrays of environmental data. 115 Biotic data can be accessed through web portals such as the Ocean Biogeographic Infor-116 mation System (OBIS; OBIS, 2018), the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF; 117 GBIF, 2018), the Global Biotic Interactions platform (GloBI; Poelen et al., 2014), and the 118 World Register of Marine Species (WoRMS; WoRMS Editorial Board, 2017). Abiotic data 119 can also be accessed through WorldClim (Hijmans et al., 2005), Bio-ORACLE (Tyberghein 120 et al., 2012), and MARSPEC (Sbrocco and Barber, 2013). Initiatives focused on sharing 121 environmental data for specific areas also exist, such as the St. Lawrence Global Observatory 122 (SLGO; https://ogsl.ca/en), the European Marine Observation and Data Network (EMODnet; http://www.emodnet.eu/) and the U.S. Integrated Ocean Observing System (IOOS; 124 https://ioos.noaa.gov/). Essential environmental parameters are also organized, coordinated 125 and acquired through global initiatives like the Group on Earth Observations Biodiversity 126 Observation Network (GEO BON; Scholes et al., 2012), the Census of Marine Life (CoML; 127 CoML, 2010) and the Global Ocean Observing System (GOOS; http://www.goosocean.org). 128 However, equivalent platforms for environmental drivers have largely focused on single drivers (e.g. Global Fishing Watch) and platforms collating data and knowledge on multiple drivers 130 in a comparable and interoperable way remain conspicuously missing (but see Halpern et 131 al., 2015b). This is in spite of integerated management and assessment approaches needing 132 efficient data reporting, standardized data management practices and tools tailored to the 133 study of the effects of multiple drivers (Dafforn et al., 2016; Stock et al., 2018). An additional objective thus emerged in the process of addressing our initial goals: sharing the knowledge 135 gathered through the description of drivers in the St. Lawrence. 136

This manuscript thus has two distinct, but related, goals. The first is to characterize the distribution and intensity of drivers in the St. Lawrence System in order to: 1) identify areas of high cumulative exposure, 2) characterize areas with similar cumulative exposure regimes, dubbed threat complexes (Bowler et al., 2019) and 3) identify drivers that are likely to interact in the St. Lawrence. The second goal is to present how we are sharing the knowledge acquired by launching an open knowledge platform, eDrivers, and use this paper as a call for collaboration to any person, group or organization that might be interested in contributing to this initiative.

## 3 Materials and Methods

### 3.1 Drivers

The list of drivers for which we sought data was informed by a global cumulative impact assessment initiative (Halpern et al., 2015b, 2008), regional holistic evaluations of the state of the St. Lawrence (Benoît et al., 2012; Dufour and Ouellet, 2007), and communications with 149 regional experts. Through the data gathering process, we developed and continue to develop 150 collaborations with regional experts and data holders. We also use global data from the 151 global cumulative impact assessment initiative (Halpern et al., 2015b, 2008) available from the National Center for Ecological Analysis and Synthesis (NCEAS) online data repository 153 (Table 1; Halpern et al., 2015a). We selected global data that were unavailable at the regional 154 scale and that were available at a resolution adequate for use at the scale of the St. Lawrence 155 (e.g. marine pollution). 156

We were able to characterize the intensity and distribution of 22 drivers (Table 1;) and we are actively working on updating or developing additional driver layers. Drivers incorporated in the analyses are varied in origin, *i.e.* from terrestrial (*e.g.* nutrient input) to marine (*e.g.* shipping), and from large scale biophysical processes (*e.g.* temperature anomalies) to localized anthropogenic activities (*e.g.* fisheries). Drivers were divided into 4 groups: coastal, climate, fisheries and marine traffic (Table 1). All data layers and methodologies are described in the supplementary materials.

Drivers with non-normal frequency distributions were log-transformed (Figure S1) and all drivers were scaled between 0 and 1 to allow driver comparisons. The 99th quantile of individual driver distribution was used as the upper bound for scaling to control for extreme values and produce maps of individual drivers (Figure S2). All drivers were embedded in

a regular grid composed of  $245604 \ 1km^2$  exagonal cells to construct the integrated dataset used for the analyses.

### 170 3.2 Cumulative exposure

Areas with high cumulative exposure (objective 1) were identified by evaluating the cumulative footprint of combined drivers and by identifying hotspots of cumulative footprint.

Cumulative footprint (F) was defined as the sum of the scaled intensity of all drivers in each grid cell:

$$F_x = \sum_{i=1}^n D_{i,x}$$

where x is a grid cell, i is a driver and D is the scaled intensity of driver i.

Cumulative hotspots (H) were defined as the number of drivers in each grid cell with scaled intensity contained over their respective 80th percentile:

$$H_x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}(D_{i,x} \in P_{80,D_i})$$

where, x is a grid cell, i is a driver and D is the scaled intensity of driver i and  $P_{80,D_i}$  is the 80th percentile of driver i. Hotspots thus identify areas where drivers are co-occurring at high relative intensities.

#### 3.3 Driver interactions

The distribution of driver interactions was investigated through the spatial overlap of combinations of drivers using the cumulative footprint (F) equation with pairs of drivers. The intensity at which pairs of drivers co-occur was evaluated using a two-dimensional kernel density estimate. As there are 231 pairwise combinations between 22 drivers, we focus on a single example using hypoxia and demersal destructive fisheries, two drivers known to occur mainly in deeper areas of the St. Lawrence and, hence, an interaction between the effects of the two drivers could be anticipated. Note, however, that *eDrivers* will provide the capacity to compare any combinations of drivers.

### 190 3.4 Threat complexes

Natural systems are likely to host multiple overlapping drivers. The dimensionality of the problem can quickly rise as additional drivers are considered. In order to decrease the dimensionality of the integrated dataset, we identify threat complexes, *i.e.* regions with similar cumulative exposure regimes, using a clustering approach (*e.g.* see Bowler et al., 2019).

#### 196 3.4.1 Clustering

Threat complexes were identified using a partial k-medoids clustering algorithm, CLARA 197 (CLustering for Large Applications; Kaufman and Rousseeuw, 1990), which was designed for 198 large datasets. The CLARA algorithm uses the PAM (Partition Around Medoids) algorithm 199 on a sample from the original dataset to identify a set of k objects that are representative of all other objects, i.e. medoids and that are central to the cluster they represent. The goal of 201 the algorithm is to iteratively minimize intra-cluster dissimilarity. Iterations are compared 202 on the basis of the average dissimilarity between cluster objects and representative medoid 203 to select the optimal set of k medoids that minimizes average dissimilarity. We used 100 204 iterations using samples of 10000 observations (i.e.  $\sim$ 5% of observations) to identify clusters. Analyses were performed using the *cluster* R package (Maechler et al., 2018). 206

Partitional clustering algorithms require a user-defined number of clusters. Values of k ranging from 2 to 10 were tested and validated by selecting the number of clusters that maximized the average silhouette width (Kaufman and Rousseeuw, 1990) and minimized the total within-cluster sum of squares (Figure S3).

We also validated the clustering by comparing k-medoids clustering with k-means clustering with the Lloyd algorithm (Lloyd, 1982). The k-means approach is similar to the k-medoids, but identifies observations belonging to a cluster iteratively by minimizing the mean intracluster squared distance until it converges to an optimal solution. We used 25 random sets and set a maximum of 1000 iterations for the analysis. Analyses were performed using the stats R package (R Core Team, 2018). We used the same validation procedure to select the optimal number of clusters k than with the k-medoids clustering (Figure S3).

While k-means algorithms are more efficient since they do not compute pairwise dissimilarities, it is more sensitive to outliers through the use of the mean rather than a centroid.
We therefore favored the use of the k-medoids algorithm, but used the k-means to validate
clusters.

#### 222 3.4.2 Inter-cluster dissimilarity

The difference between clusters was explored by measuring the total inter-cluster dissimilarity and the contribution of each driver to the total inter-cluster dissimilarity using a similarity percentage analysis (SIMPER) with Bray-Curtis dissimilarity (Figure S4; Clarke, 1993). As the drivers dataset is too large, we used a bootstrap procedure for the SIMPER analysis, randomly selecting 5% of each cluster to run the analysis and repeating the process over 300 iterations. We also compared the mean intensity of each driver within each cluster to better capture the inter-cluster dissimilarity. Analyses were performed using the *vegan* R package (Oksanen et al., 2018).

#### 3.4.3 Intra-cluster similarity

Intra-cluster similarity was evaluated using the Bray-Curtis similarity index (Figure S5).
As with the inter-cluster dissimilarity, we used a bootstrap procedure for the intra-cluster similarity, randomly selecting 5% of each cluster observation to run the analysis and repeating the process over 300 iterations. We however did not use the bootstraping procedure for clusters with less than 10000 observations since computation time was manageable.

### 237 4 Results and discussion

# 238 4.1 Cumulative exposure

Apart from the northeastern Gulf, the cumulative footprint of drivers is ubiquitous in the
St. Lawrence (Figure 1). Cumulative exposure is generally highest along the coast (Figure
1), with hotposts located in the vicinity of coastal cities (Figure ??). In general, offshore
areas are less exposed to cumulative drivers, with the Estuary and the Anticosti Gyre being
notable exceptions (Figures 1 and ??). This is not to say that offshore areas are free of
exposure, as most of the St. Lawrence is exposed to multiple overlapping drivers (Figures 1
and ??). For example, it is worthy to note high cumulative footprint observed at the heads
of the Anticosti and Esquiman Channels (Figure 1).

These results are consistent with observations elsewhere in the world, where cumulative driver exposure conspicuously arises from and markedly intensifies close to coastal cities and at the mouth of rivers draining highly populated areas (e.g. Halpern et al., 2015b; Feist and Levin, 2016; Mach et al., 2017; Stock et al., 2018). These are areas where human

activities (e.g. coastal development and shipping) and footprint (e.g. pollution runoff) are
the most intense (Feist and Levin, 2016), and on which is overlaid a background of natural
disturbances (Micheli et al., 2016). They are also the areas in which the most dramatic
increases in exposure are expected, with populations increasing more rapidly along the coast
than inland (Feist and Levin, 2016). In the St. Lawrence, large coastal cities are mostly
located along the Estuary and the southwestern Gulf, while the northeastern Gulf is largely
uninhabited or home to small coastal communities.

As for offshore exposure, the Estuary, along with the St. Lawrence River, provide access to and serve as the primary drainage outflow of the Great Lakes Basin, the most densely populated region in Canada (Canada, 2017). Most marine traffic thus converges to the Estuary.

While we cannot ascertain that high exposure areas are the most impacted, we can safely predict that these are the areas where studying ecosystem state will be the most complex due to the uncertainty associated with driver interactions, an uncertainty bound to increase rapidly with the number of interacting drivers (Côté et al., 2016).

#### 266 4.2 Driver interactions

Hypoxia is mainly distributed in the Laurentian, Anticosti and Esquiman Channels, with the head of the Channels most exposed to hypoxia (Figure 2A). Demersal destructive fisheries are located along the Laurentian Channel, the heads of the Anticosti and Esquiman Channels and around the Magdalen Islands (Figure 2B). By combining both drivers, we can observe that hypoxia and demersal destructive fisheries overlap mostly at high relative intensity (Figure 2D) in the vicinity of the Anticosti Gyre and the heads of the Esquiman and Anticosti Channels (Figure 2C). The ease with which this figure can be created using *eDrivers* is demonstrated in box 1.

Fisheries in the St. Lawrence have historically affected biodiversity distribution and habitat 275 quality (Moritz et al., 2015). Concurrently, hypoxia decreases overall habitat quality, but triggers species-dependent responses ranging from adaptation (e.g. northern shrimp Pan-277 dalus borealis and Greenland halibut Reinhardtius hippoglossoides; Pillet et al., 2016) to 278 reduced growth rates (Dupont-Prinet et al., 2013) and avoidance of oxygen-depleted habi-279 tats (e.q. Atlantic cod Gadus morhua; Chabot and Claireaux, 2008) to increased mortality 280 (e.g. sessile benthic invertebrates; Eby et al., 2005; Belley et al., 2010; Gilbert et al., 2007). 281 Certain species may thus be adversely affected by fisheries and withstand hypoxia but still 282 experience a decrease in prey availability, while others may be deleteriously affected by the 283

compounded effect of both drivers (De Leo et al., 2017).

### 285 4.3 Threat complexes

While informative, the hypoxia-fisheries example focuses on a single pair of drivers and falls short of the number of drivers overlapping at high intensities throughout the St. Lawrence (Figure ??). The number of drivers overlapping in the St. Lawrence increases with cumulative exposure (Figure S3). Areas with high exposure such as the Estuary, the Anticosti Gyre and the southwestern Gulf coastline (Figure 1 and ??) are thus areas where driver interactions are most likely, and where they can arise between a host of different drivers.

The identification of threat complexes provides a crucial tool to simplify the multidimensional complexity of overlapping drivers to areas exposed to similar suites of drivers (Bowler et al., 2019). This may prove critical for a better understanding the state of species, habitats and ecosystems located within or moving through threat complexes and exposed to the combined effects of all drivers typical to those areas.

Six distinct threat complexes were identified in the St. Lawrence using the k-medoids and 297 k-means algorithms (Figures S4, S5). Based on their distribution and representative drivers, threat complexes can be divided into 3 offshore and 3 coastal complexes (Figures 3, S6 and 299 S7). Coastal threat complexes (1 to 3; Figure 3) include all types of drivers besides hypoxia 300 and are the most exposed threat complexes, both in terms of driver overlap and intensity. 301 Threat complex 2 is differentiated from other complexes by the presence of aquaculture sites. 302 Threat complex 1 encompasses the coastline and is characterized by higher direct human impact (i.e. population density). Threat complex 3 is the most exposed complex and has 304 a distribution similar to the most exposed coastal hotspots (Figure ??). This complex is 305 characterized by high intensities of land-based drivers (e.g. nutrient input), demersal non-306 destructive high-bycath fisheries (e.g. trap fishing), climate drivers and marine traffic drivers 307 in the vicinity of ports.

Offshore threat complexes (4 to 6; Figure 3) are generally characterized by high intensity climate and marine traffic drivers. Threat complex 4 is differentiated by demersal non-destructive high-bycath fisherie, higher marine traffic drivers compared to complex 5 and generally corresponds to the whole Southern Gulf. Threat complex 5 is characterized by more fisheries types (i.e. demersal destructive and pelagic high-bycatch), generally lower intensity marine traffic drivers and is located almost exclusively in the Northern Gulf. Finally, threat complex 6 corresponds primarily to the Laurentian Channel, a deep (250-500 m) and long (1250 km) submerged valley connecting the Estuary to the Atlantic. It also incorporates

parts of the Esquiman and Anticosti Channels, two deep channels that branch off from the the Laurential Channel to the north towards the Arctic and the north of Anticosti Island, respectively. This threat complex is the most exposed offshore threat complex and includes all offshore hotspots (Figure ??). This complex is characterized by high intensity hypoxia, marine traffic and pollution, as well as demersal destructive and pelagic highbycatch fisheries.

Of particular concern are threat complexes 3 and 6, which are the two most exposed complexes in the St. Lawrence and are characterized by distinct cumulative exposure regimes Between them, they capture most of the coastal and offshore hotspots identified in the St. Lawrence and discussed above.

They also offer some insight into the potential importance of considering spatial dynamics 327 in areas intersecting multiple threat complexes. For example, threat complexes 3 and 6 328 meet at the mouth of the River Saguenay. This area is particularly dynamic, with deep Atlantic waters advected through estuarine circulation mixing with surface waters from the 330 Great Lakes Basin and the Saguenay River (Dufour and Ouellet, 2007). This results in 331 the convergence of climate drivers from the bottom of the Laurentian Channel and marine 332 traffic drivers (threat complex 6) with terrestrial run-off from river outflows and direct human 333 impacts (threat complex 3). This dynamic area is also highly productive and hosts large 334 aggregations of krill exploited by numerous fish, marine mammal and marine bird species 335 (???; ???). It might therefore be reasonable to expect highly unpredictable environmental 336 effects in this area. 337

# <sup>338</sup> 5 Open Knowledge Platform: *eDrivers*

Sharing the knowledge acquired through the description of drivers in the St. Lawrence quickly
emerged as a priority to curtail the need to reach dozens of experts across multiple organizations and over extensive periods of time to assemble the data needed to apply integrated
research and management. It is also a requirement to ensure that this manuscript will not
become a quickly outdated snapshot of drivers distribution and intensity in the St. Lawrence
System, but rather serve as a stepping stone towards an adaptive and ever-improving collection of knowledges.

As such, we are launching eDrivers, an open knowledge platform focused on sharing knowledge on the distribution and intensity of drivers and on gathering a community of experts committed to structuring, standardizing and sharing knowledge on drivers in support of

science and management. In launching this intiative, our objective is to uphold the highest existing standards of data management and open science. We identified four guiding principles to meet this objective and that guide the structure of the platform (Figure 4).

### 5.1 Unity and inclusiveness

Why: Operating over such large scales in time, space and subject matter requires a vast and diverse expertise that cannot possibly be possessed by any one individual or organization.
Consequently, we envision an initiative that seeks to mobilize all individuals and entities with relevant expertise.

**How**: By promoting, consolidating and working with experts involved in existing and highly 357 valuable environmental initiatives already in place in the St. Lawrence. Notable examples of 358 environmental initiatives are the annual review of physical (Galbraith et al., 2018), chemical, 359 and biological (Blais et al., 2018) oceanographic conditions in the St. Lawrence, the fisheries 360 monitoring program (DFO, 2016), the annual groundfish and shrimp multidisciplinary survey 361 (Bourdages et al., 2018), the characterisation of benthic (Dutil et al., 2011), epipelagic and coastal (Dutil et al., 2012) habitats of the St. Lawrence, and Canada's shoreline classification 363 (ECCC, 2018). There are also nascent efforts to share information on several human activities 364 in the St. Lawrence such as the Marine Spatial Data Infrastructure portal, which provides 365 data on zoning, shipping, port activities, and other human activities in Canadian waters, 366 including the St. Lawrence system (Canada, 2016).

By working with existing data portals whose objective is to share environmental data. We are thus collaborating actively with the St. Lawrence Global Observatory (SLGO) to develop 369 the initiative and to host the platform on their web portal (https://ogsl.ca/en). The mission 370 of SLGO is to promote and facilitate the accessibility, dissemination and exchange of official 371 and quality data and information on the St. Lawrence ecosystem through the networking of 372 organisations and data holders to meet their needs and those of users, to improve knowledge and to assist decision-making in areas such as public safety, climate change, transportation, 374 resources and biodiversity conservation. The SLGO is also one of three regional association 375 spearheading the Canadian Integrated Ocean Observing System (CIOOS; http://meopar. 376 ca/research/cioos-call-for-proposals/), which will focus on integrating oceanographic data 377 from multiple sources to make them accessible to end-users and to enable the national coordination of ocean observing efforts by integrating isolated or inaccessible data, and by 379 identifying gaps or duplications in observations and research efforts. We are also developing 380 collaborations with the Portal on water knowledge (http://www.environnement.gouv.qc.ca/

eau/portail/), an initiative from the Québec provincial government. This portal aims at collecting and sharing accurate, complete and updated ressources on water and aquatic ecosystems to support the mandate of relevant actors and stakeholders working in water and aquatic ecosystems management.

By actively inviting, seeking, and developing collaborations as well as encouraging constructive criticism from the inception and throughout the lifetime of the platform.

By inviting external community contributions (Figure 4). External researchers or entities wishing to submit marine data will be able to do so through the SLGO web portal (https: //ogsl.ca/en). Submissions through other data portals will also be accepted either through the development of data sharing agreements or with the caveat that shared data are under an open source license and that they adhere to the platform data standards.

### 5.2 Findability, accessibility, interoperability and reusability

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Why: Open data has been propelled to the forefront of scientific research in an era of open, collaborative and reproducible science. By moving towards large scale, cross-disciplinary research and management projects, there is a growing need to increase the efficiency of data discovery, access, interoperability and analysis (Reichman et al., 2011; Wilkinson et al., 2016). Our goal is to foster efficient and functional open science by creating a fully open, transparent and replicable open knowledge platform.

How: By building an infrastructure adhering to the FAIR Data Principles, which states that data and metadata must be Findable, Accessible, Interoperable and Reusable. These principles focus on the ability of humans and machines to automatically find and (re)use data and knowledge (Wilkinson et al., 2016).

By making data and associated tools accessible through a variety of ways: the SLGO web por-404 tal (https://ogsl.ca/en), two R packages called *eDrivers* (https://github.com/orgs/eDrivers/ 405 eDrivers) and eDriversEx (https://github.com/orgs/eDrivers/eDriversEx) to access the data 406 through SLGO's API and to provide analytical tools to explore data, respectively, and a 407 Shiny application (https://david-beauchesne.shinyapps.io/eDriversApp/) to explore drivers data interactively (Figure 4). Note that the data are currently contained within and ac-409 cessible through the eDrivers R package only, as we are actively working to allow users to 410 download selected layers from SLGO's web portal and geoserver. The functions available in 411 eDrivers to access the data have however been developed to ensure forward compatibility 412 once the data migrate to SLGO's geoserver.

By defining clear data and metadata standards and specifications to support the regional standardization of current and future protocols and practices and to favour interoperability with national and international initiatives like the Essential Ocean Variables (EOV) identified by the Global Ocean Observing System [GOOS; http://www.goosocean.org]. As such, we will adopt the metadata standard currently targetted for the upcoming CIOOS, *i.e.* the North American Profile of ISO 19115:2014 - Geographic information - Metadata, a schema favoured for geospatial data in Canada and the United-States.

By providing version control and code access to the workflows set up to generate driver layers from raw data, the R packages and the Shiny application through a GitHub organization called *eDrivers* (https://github.com/orgs/eDrivers/).

## 424 5.3 Adaptiveness

Why: In the face of uncertainty and in an effort to address impending environmental 425 changes, adaptive management has been identified as the chief strategy to guide efficient 426 decision-making (e.q. Costanza et al., 1998; Jones, 2016; Keith et al., 2011; Margules and Pressey, 2000) and has already been discussed in the context of multi-drivers and cumula-428 tive impact assessments (Beauchesne et al., 2016; Côté et al., 2016; Halpern et al., 2015b; 429 Schloss et al., 2017). Adaptive management can only be truly achieved through a com-430 mitment to adaptive monitoring and data reporting (Halpern et al., 2012; Lubchenco and 431 Grorud-Colvert, 2015; Margules and Pressey, 2000). We further contend that adaptive management requires the development of adaptive monitoring tools and infrastructures, which 433 we seek to address through a continuously-evolving platform. 434

How: By setting up mechanisms structuring cyclic reviews of platform content, for the integration of new material (e.g. data and methods) as it becomes available or accessible, and by striving to provide time-series data that are crucial to assess temporal trends and potentially early-warning signals of ecosystem change (Figure 4).

# 439 5.4 Recognition

Why: Like peer-reviewed publications, data must also be given its due importance in scientific endeavors and thus be considered as legitimate citable products contributing to the overall scientific output of data providers (Data Citation Standards and PractOut of Mind: The Current Sices, 2013; FORCE11, 2014). Appropriate citations should therefore be provided for all data layers used and shared by the platform.

445 **How**: By adhering to the Data Citation Principles (FORCE11, 2014), which focus on citation practices that provide appropriate credit to data products.

# 447 6 Perspectives

Understanding how ecosystem state will be affected by global change requires a comprehen-448 sive understanding of how threats are distributed and interact in space and time, which in 449 turn hinges on appropriate data tailored to multi-driver studies (Bowler et al., 2019; Dafforn 450 et al., 2016; Stock et al., 2018). In the St. Lawrence, we found that few areas are free of 451 cumulative exposure and that the whole Estuary, the Anticosti Gyre and coastal southwestern Gulf are particularly exposed to cumulative drivers, especially close to urban areas. We 453 also identified six geographically distinct threat complexes that display similar cumulative 454 exposure regimes. These complexes reveal that coastal areas are particularly exposed to all 455 types of drivers and that multiple drivers typically co-occur in space. These resuts allow us 456 to efficiently identify areas in need of heightened scrutiny from a science and management 457 perspective. 458

Through *eDrivers*, these observations will be iteratively improved towards an increasingly robust assessment of cumulative exposure and threat complexes as gaps in knowledge are addressed or approaches to describe drivers are refined. Arguably, the most meaningful benefit anticipated from *eDrivers* will be the gain in efficient access to comparable data-based knowledge on the exposure of ecosystems to multiple threats. This could pay quick scientific and management dividends by drawing on the knowledge and efforts of a wide range of contributors, by expanding avenues of scientific inquiry, by decreasing overall effort duplication and research costs, and by increasing research efficiency (Franzoni and Sauermann, 2014).

Critically - and we emphasize this point - eDrivers will allow the scientific and governmental 467 communities to identify key knowledge gaps that will assist in prioritizing and optimizing 468 research efforts. Ultimately, we believe that *eDrivers* will operationalize evidence-based 469 decision-making by streamlining data management and research, allowing science output to 470 be available and interpretable on a time scale relevant to management (see Reichman et 471 al., 2011). The platform will thus greatly facilitate the application of broad scale, holistic 472 research and management approaches such as ecosystem-based management, strategic envi-473 ronmental assessments and social-ecological metanetworks (e.g. Halpern et al., 2015b; Dee 474 et al., 2017; Jones, 2016). 475

Significant effort is still needed to bring our vision to fruition. Foremost is to maintain our

efforts to foster collaborations, develop platform content and identify key knowledge gaps. A
fair and efficient organizational structure will be developed in order to manage *eDrivers* as
a community and appropriate funding must be secured to continue building this community
and ensure the long-term viability of the initiative, although the partnership with SLGO
partly addresses this issue.

Finally, terrestrial and coastal environments must be incorporated, as sources of stress within those habitats extend to the marine environments. Moreover, despite coastal areas being recognized as the most exposed to environmental threats, we continue to delineate terrestrial and marine realms, considering coastlines as an impermeable barrier. While there is a sensible rationale for this division, we must strive to eliminate it if we are to appropriately study and predict the impacts of global change (e.g. see Bowler et al., 2019).

Despite the challenges and work ahead, we are hopeful that this initiative will be very successful. Ultimately, eDrivers represents a much needed solution to address important issues in data management that could radically shift broad scale research and management practices towards efficient, adaptive and holistic ecosystem-based management in the St. Lawrence and elsewhere in the world. All it requires to be successful is for the scientific and political communities to fully commit to open knowledge, adaptive monitoring and, most of all, an integrated vision of ecosystem management.

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# <sub>502</sub> 8 Author contributions statement

503 TO WRITE

# 9 Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare that the submitted work was carried out in the absence of any personal,

professional or financial relationships that could potentially be construed as a conflict of

507 interest.

#### 

Box 1. Code snippet demonstrating how to use the eDrivers to reproduce figure 2 in R.

```
510
511
   # Install and load eDrivers package
512
   devtools::install_github('eDrivers/eDrivers')
513
   library(eDrivers)
514
515
   # Load data
516
   drivers <- fetchDrivers(drivers = c('hypoxia','fishDD'))</pre>
517
518
   # Get data from `eDrivers` class object
519
   driverData <- getData(drivers)</pre>
520
521
   # Normalize data
522
   driverData <- driverData / cellStats(driverData, 'max')</pre>
523
   # Visualize data and combination
525
   plot(driverData$fishDD)
                                # Demersal destructive fisheries
   plot(driverData$hypoxia) # Hypoxia
527
   plot(sum(driverData))
                                # Combination
528
   # Identify values > 0 and not NAs
530
   driverData$fishDD[driverData$fishDD < 0] <- NA</pre>
531
   driverData$fishDNH[driverData$hypoxia < 0] <- NA</pre>
532
   idO <- !is.na(values(driverData$fishDD)) &
533
           !is.na(values(driverData$hypoxia))
535
   # 2D kernel for driver co-intensity
536
   library(MASS)
          <- kde2d(x = values(driverData$fishDD)[id0],
538
                     y = values(driverData$hypoxia)[id0],
539
                     n = 500, lims = c(0, 1, 0, 1))
540
   image(coInt, zlim = c(0,max(coInt$z)))
541
542
   # Driver density distribution
543
   plot(density(driverData$fishDD[id0]))
                                                # Demersal destructive
544
   plot(density(driverData$hypoxia[id0]))
                                                # Hypoxia
```

# 547 11 Figures

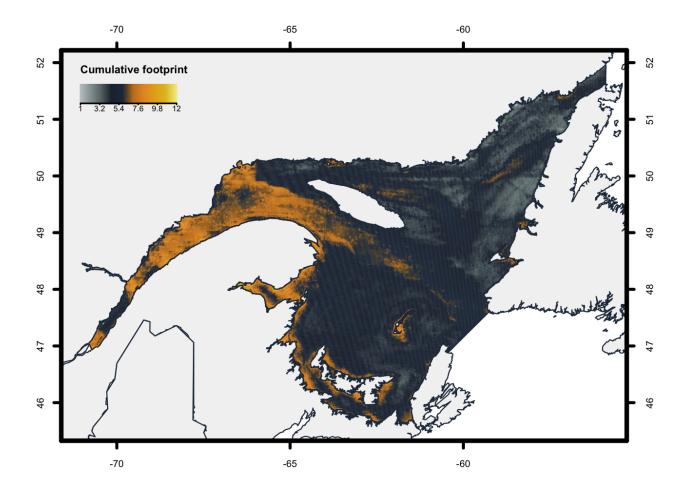


Figure 1: Distribution of driver footprint in the Estuary and Gulf of St. Lawrence. The footprint is measured by summing the relative intensity of all drivers for each grid cell:  $F_d = \sum_{i=1}^n D_i$ . Driver layers were also log-transformed when their frequency distribution was non-normal. All driver layers were also normalized between 0 and 1 using the 99th quantile to allow for direct comparison of relative intensities between drivers and control for extreme values.

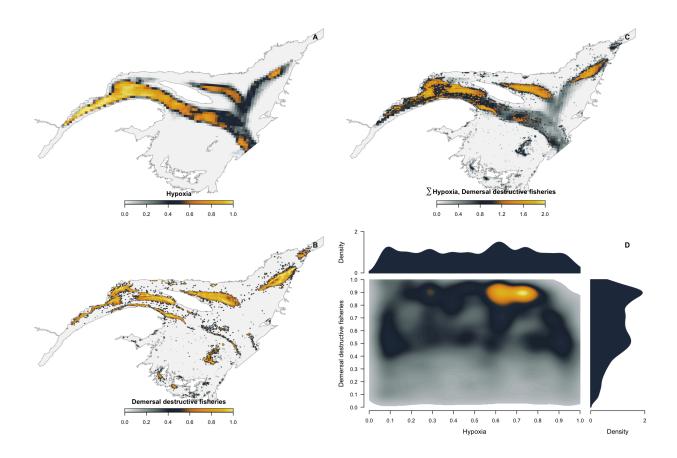


Figure 2: Example of platform content using the spatial distribution and the intensity of hypoxia and demersal destructive fisheries in the St. Lawrence. An index of hypoxia (\*\*A\*\*) was created using bottom-water dissolved oxygen between 2013 and 2017 [@blais2018]. Demersal destructive fisheries (\*i.e.\* trawl and dredges) (\*\*B\*\*) intensity was evaluated from fisheries catch data collected between 2010 and 2015 used to measure annual area weighted total biomass (kg) in i  $km^2$  grid cells [@dfo2016]. See supplementary materials for more information on specific methodologies. Relative hypoxic stress and demersal destructive fisheries intensity was summed (\*\*C\*\*) to visualize their combined spatial distribution and intensity. Finally, individual density and the co-intensity of hypoxia and demersal destructive fisheries was investigated with a two-dimensional kernel analysis (\*\*D\*\*).

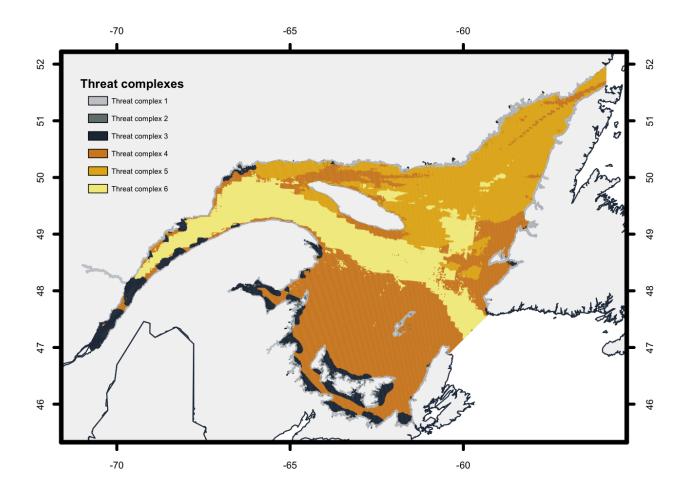


Figure 3: Distribution of threat complexes in the Estuary and Gulf of St. Lawrence. Threat complexes [a term coined by @bowler2019] are areas with similar cumulative driver exposure regimes. Threat complexes were identified using a partitional clustering algorithm [@kauf-man1990]. The appropriate number of clusters (k) was tested using a range of values and validated by selecting the number of clusters that maximized the average silhouette width [@kaufman1990] and minimized the total within-cluster sum of squares (WSS). Six distinct threat complexes were identified in the St. Lawrence. The partitional clustering algorithm analysis were performed using the \*cluster\* R packages [@maechler2018]. Refer to the Supplementary Materials for more details.

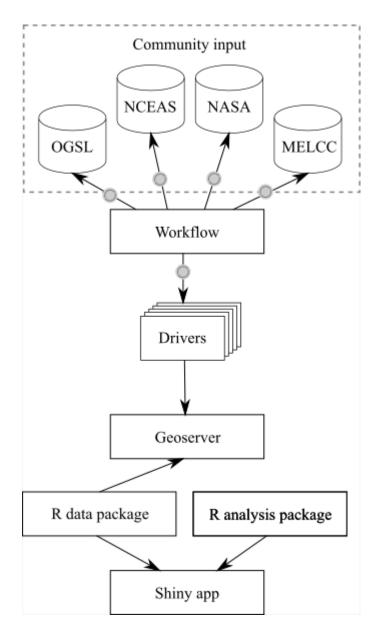


Figure 4: Diagram of the platform structure. Community input in the form of raw data is accessed through the St. Lawrence Global Observatory (SLGO); https://ogsl.ca/en) repository - the platform host - or through open access repositories (\*e.g.\* NASA data). The raw data are then processed through a workflow hosted on the \*eDrivers\* GitHub organization (https://github.com/orgs/eDrivers/). Data processing may be as simple as data rescaling (\*e.g.\* night lights) or make use of more complex methodologies (\*e.g.\* acidification). All data is then hosted on SLGO's geoserver and accessible through their API. We developed a R package called \*eDrivers\* to access the driver layers through R and we are actively developing a second R package called \*eDriversEx\* that includes analytical tools to explore drivers data. Finally, we have developed a Shiny application that allows users to explore drivers data interactively (https://david-beauchesne.shinyapps.io/eDriversApp/). All R components of the project are hosted and available on the \*eDrivers\* GitHub organization.

24

548 12 Tables

Table 1. List of drivers currently available on *eDrivers* and used for the analyses presented in this paper.

		Spatial	Temporal			
Groups	Drivers	resolution	resolution	Years	Units	Source
Climate	Aragonite	Lat/long	August-	2018	$\Omega$ Aragonite	(Starr, 2019)
			September			
Climate	Hypoxia	Lat/long	August-	2018	$ml L^{-1}$	(Starr, 2019)
			September			
Climate	Sea bottom	$\sim 2~km^2$	Monthly	1981-2010	n negative	(Galbraith et al., 2018)
	temperature			vs. 2013-	anomalies	
				2017		
Climate	Sea bottom	$\sim 2 \ km^2$	Monthly	1981-2010	n positie	(Galbraith et al., 2018)
	temperature			vs. 2013-	anomalies	
				2017		
Climate	Sea surface	$\sim 2~km^2$	Monthly	1981-2010	n negative	(Galbraith et al., 2018)
	temperature			vs. 2013-	anomalies	
				2017		
Climate	Sea surface	$\sim 2 \ km^2$	Monthly	1981-2010	n positive	(Galbraith et al., 2018)
	temperature			vs. 2013-	anomalies	
				2017		
Climate	Sea water level	Modeled	10 days	1992-2012	mm	(Halpern et al., 2015a)
		$0.25  \mathrm{degree}$				

25

		Spatial	Temporal			
Groups	Drivers	resolution	resolution	Years	Units	Source
Coastal	Aquaculture	Lat/long	ı	Variable, between 1990-2016	presence – absence	TBD
Coastal	Coastal development	15 arc-second	Annual	2015-2016	nanoWatts $cm^{-2} sr^{-1}$	(Group, 2019)
Coastal	Direct human impact	Modeled 1 $km^2$	Annual	2011	$population \\ 10 km^{-2}$	(Halpern et al., 2015a)
Coastal	Inorganic pollution	Modeled 1 $km^2$	Annual	2000-2001	TBD	(Halpern et al., 2015a)
Coastal	Nutrient import	Modeled 1 $km^2$	Annual	2007-2010	t fertilizer	(Halpern et al., 2015a)
Coastal	Organic pollution	Modeled 1 $km^2$	Annual	2007-2010	t pesticide	(Halpern et al., 2015a)
Coastal	Toxic algae	1	1	1	Expert based	(Bates, 2019)
Fisheries	Demersal, destructive	Lat/long	Event based	2010-2015	kg	(DFO, 2016)
Fisheries	Demersal, non-destructive, high-bycatch	Lat/long	Event based	2010-2015	kg	(DFO, 2016)
Fisheries	Demersal, non-destructive, low-bycatch	Lat/long	Event based	2010-2015	kg	(DFO, 2016)

		Spatial	Temporal			
Groups	Drivers	resolution	resolution	Years	Units	Source
Fisheries	Pelagic, high-bycatch	$\mathrm{Lat/long}$	Event based	2010-2015	kg	(DFO, 2016)
Fisheries	Pelagic, low-bycatch	$\mathrm{Lat/long}$	Event based	2010-2015	kg	(DFO, 2016)
Marine traffic	Invasive species	Modeled 1 $km^2$	Annual	2011	t port volume	(Halpern et al., 2015a)
Marine traffic	Marine pollution	Modeled 1 $km^2$	Event based $\&$ annual	2003-2011 & 2011	n  lanes + t port volume	(Halpern et al., 2015a)
Marine traffic	Shipping	0.1 degree	Event based	2003-2011	n lanes	(Halpern et al., 2015a)

## $_{50}$ 13 References

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