

1 **Tracking the global reduction of marine traffic during**
2 **the COVID-19 pandemic**

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15 **Abstract**

16 The COVID-19 pandemic has resulted in unparalleled global impacts on human mobility. In the
17 ocean, ship-based activities are thought to have decreased due to severe restrictions and
18 changes in goods consumption, but little is known of the patterns of change, which sectors are
19 most affected, in which regions, and for how long. Here, we map global change of marine traffic
20 during the COVID-19 pandemic and assess its temporal variability at a fine-scale in one of the
21 most affected regions, the Mediterranean Sea. Nearly 44.3% of the global ocean and 77.5% of
22 national jurisdictions showed a decrease in traffic density during April 2020, when strictest
23 confinement measures took place, showing a clear disruption in comparison with previous trends
24 and future projections. Decreases mainly occurred in coastal areas and were more marked and
25 longer lasting in sectors other than cargo and tanker shipping. Our results provide guidance for
26 large-scale monitoring of the progress and potential effects of COVID-19, or other global shocks,
27 on the blue economy and ocean health.

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31 **Keywords:** COVID-19, Human mobility, Automatic Identification System (AIS), Vessel traffic,
32 Big data, Blue economy, Ocean health

33 Introduction

34 The coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pandemic has emerged as both a global health and socio-
35 economic crisis, with many countries implementing unparalleled mobility restrictions to control the
36 spread of the virus. This unprecedented event, which has been referred to as the “anthropause”,
37 a period of reduced human mobility¹, has led to sudden and often dramatic reductions in transport,
38 energy consumption and consumer demand resulting in significant changes in the scale and
39 extent of human stressors and their associated impacts on the natural environment²⁻⁶. To better
40 understand the potential effects on the environment and biodiversity, there is an urgent need to
41 quantify the magnitude and patterns of the changes in human activities.

42

43 In particular, the behaviour of human activities in the ocean have been radically altered by the
44 COVID-19 pandemic, with port restrictions and changes in consumption patterns impacting
45 multiple maritime sectors, most notably fisheries, passenger ferries and cruise ships⁷⁻¹⁰; sectors
46 which rely heavily on the movement of people and goods. As with previous economic
47 recessions^{11,12}, changes in vessel movement associated with COVID-19 are also likely to result
48 in significant short- and long-term effects on multiple anthropogenic pressures, such air
49 pollution¹²⁻¹⁵, the spread of invasive alien species^{16,17}, or collisions with marine animals^{18,19}.
50 Localised studies have already reported reductions in underwater noise²⁰, water turbidity²¹ and
51 fishing effort⁸ as a result of the reduction of the vessel activity during the COVID-19 outbreak.
52 However, as mobility restrictions vary among countries and maritime sectors, the effects of
53 COVID-19 on ship-based activities and their influence on the marine environment are still unclear
54 at a global scale.

55

56 Fortunately, recent technological advances associated with automatic identification system (AIS),
57 now means that ship-based mobility patterns can be monitored on a global scale²²⁻²⁴, thereby

58 providing a unique opportunity to monitor the location of large ocean-going ships, passenger
59 liners, and fishing vessels anywhere in the world at high temporal resolution^{25–27}. Consequently,
60 AIS can provide unparalleled insights into shipping-derived impacts and conservation planning at
61 multiple spatial and temporal scales^{4,27–31}. In view of COVID-19, AIS has recently been employed
62 to assess the potential spread of the virus^{10,32,33} and to describe the reductions in marine traffic at
63 local scale⁸.

64
65 Here, we use AIS data to conduct a comprehensive assessment of the short-term changes on
66 ship-based mobility patterns in response to COVID-19 across multiple sectors and at different
67 spatio-temporal scales. First, we illustrate our approach by conducting a global assessment using
68 monthly traffic density maps to evaluate changes in vessel activity across multiple regions and
69 maritime sectors. Then, we assess the high temporal variability (i.e. daily basis) in the Western
70 Mediterranean Sea, a key region for the global liner shipping network³⁴ and cruise tourism³⁵, which
71 includes three countries most impacted by the COVID-19 outbreak in Europe (i.e. Italy, Spain and
72 France). Our approach quantifies the magnitude and patterns of changes in ship-based activities,
73 providing guidance for large-scale monitoring of the potential socio-economic and environmental
74 effects of COVID-19 on the world's ocean.

75

76 **Results**

77 **Global changes in the spatial distribution of traffic density**

78 Lockdown measures across coastal countries (n = 133) reached their maximum levels (i.e.
79 strictest confinement measures) during the month of April (Stringency index = 79.5 ± 15.5 , mean
80 \pm SD; Fig 1a and 1b), though China, the reported source of the outbreak, had started to ease
81 lockdown restrictions (Fig 1c). Consequently, we analysed global changes in marine traffic using

82 monthly AIS data from April 2020 and quantified the absolute and relative changes in comparison
83 with April 2019, thus accounting for seasonal variability of ship-based activities. Global marine
84 traffic in April 2020 was present in nearly 76.9% of the ocean, with high traffic areas (i.e. 80th
85 percentile - equivalent to 42.9×10^{-3} vessels km^{-2}) concentrated in 15.4% of the ocean (Fig 2a).
86 In comparison with 2019, there were more areas of the ocean that experienced decreases
87 (44.3%) than those that showed increases (36.8%), with a general reduction of 1.4% in their
88 occupancy (1.6% in high traffic areas) (Table S1). Changes were unevenly distributed across the
89 globe (Fig 2b). Major changes in traffic density were mainly found in coastal areas from the
90 northern hemisphere (Fig S1). In Europe, there was an almost universal decrease in vessel traffic
91 (Fig 2c), whilst patterns in other regions (e.g. increases in China and decreases in South Korea,
92 Fig 2d), and around main shipping lanes (e.g. Arabian Sea; Fig 2e) showing a mixture of increased
93 and decreased vessel activity. Conversely, other regions showed overall increases in traffic
94 density (e.g. Indonesia; Fig 2f). At the local level, our analysis captured profound decreases
95 around marine protected areas (e.g. Galapagos islands in Ecuador, Fig 2g) or near the vicinity of
96 port areas (e.g. Port of Vancouver in Canada; Fig 2h).

97

98 Global marine traffic in April 2020 was present within 80.3% of the surface covered by Exclusive
99 Economic Zones (EEZs, national waters up to 200 nautical miles), showing a global average
100 decrease of 3.3% (equivalent to 2.9×10^{-3} vessels km^{-2}) in comparison with April 2019. There was
101 an overall decrease in traffic density in 75.7% of national jurisdictions ($n = 255$; Fig 3a;
102 Supplementary Data 1). The largest average decrease in absolute difference for all vessels was
103 in Singapore (734.0×10^{-3} vessels km^{-2} , 9.4% relative decrease), followed by small EEZs from
104 EU countries. On the contrary, the largest average increases were found in the northern Indian
105 Ocean and East Asia, with Bahrain (213.6×10^{-3} vessels km^{-2}) and China (145.2×10^{-3} vessels
106 km^{-2}), experiencing relative average increases of 35.0% and 8.7%, respectively. Outside EEZs,
107 global marine traffic was present in 73.9% of the surface covered by Areas Beyond National

108 Jurisdictions (ABNJ; Fig 3b; Supplementary Data 2). Whilst we found reductions in 11 (52%) of
109 the 21 ABNJ subregions, there was a global average increase in marine traffic of 2.4% (0.4×10^{-3}
110 vessels km^{-2}) on the high seas.

111
112 In the nearshore, 159 (73.3%) of the 217 marine ecoregions experienced overall decreases in
113 marine traffic (Fig 3c; Supplementary Data 3). The largest decrease in absolute difference for all
114 vessels was observed in the Puget Trough/Georgia Basin ($139.2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ vessels km}^{-2}$, 21.2%
115 relative decrease), followed by marine ecoregions from European Seas. Again, the largest
116 increases were observed in marine ecoregions in East Asia mirroring trends observed in vessel
117 activity within EEZs across this region. On the open ocean, 13 (68%) out of the 19 Food and
118 Agriculture Organization (FAO) major fishing areas presented reductions (Fig 3d; Supplementary
119 Data 4), with the Mediterranean and Black sea showing the highest absolute decrease (22.7×10^{-3}
120 vessels km^{-2} , 7.1% relative decrease).

121

122 **Spatial variation among sectors**

123 An important characteristic of the AIS data is their stratification according to ship categories, thus
124 allowing attribution of the spatial footprint of marine traffic to different maritime sectors. Merchant
125 vessels (i.e. cargo and tankers) were the most widespread categories, followed by fishing and
126 “other vessels” (e.g. service vessels, recreational), while passenger vessels presented a more
127 limited distribution (Table S1, Fig S2). Accordingly, the spatial variation of changes in traffic
128 density varied by vessel category (Fig 4, Fig S3). All categories apart from tankers, presented an
129 overall global decline, with these declines again more marked in the northern hemisphere (Fig
130 S1). Changes in merchant vessels were differentially distributed across the major shipping lanes
131 (Fig 4a and 4b). Passenger vessels were most negatively affected in both traffic density and
132 occupancy, especially in touristic hotspots like the Caribbean and the Mediterranean Seas (Fig

133 4c). Conversely, changes in fishing and “other” vessels were more diffusely spread across the
134 world's ocean (Fig 4d and 4e).

135
136 Average changes within national jurisdictions also reflected an uneven response among different
137 vessel categories (Fig S4, S5 and S6). Relative changes for merchant vessels were less marked
138 than those for other categories (Fig S4 and S5). However, they had large contributions in terms
139 of absolute changes to the variations across EEZs (Fig S6). Both passenger and “other” vessels
140 presented decreases in most EEZs. On the other hand, fishing vessels presented increases in
141 some national jurisdictions, mainly in lower income countries (Fig S4d and S5e). In the Areas
142 Beyond National Jurisdiction, the magnitude of changes was lower than within EEZs, with fishing
143 and “others” showing a slight increase of traffic density across multiple subregions (Fig S7).
144 Marine ecoregions presented a high variability of increases and decreases across multiple sectors
145 (Fig S8). Among the multiple FAO regions, which extended from the nearshore to the open ocean,
146 the Mediterranean Sea constituted one of the areas with the greatest decreases across most
147 sectors (Fig S9).

148

149 **Temporal changes in the Mediterranean Sea**

150 The Western Mediterranean Sea was found as one of the areas with the highest reduction in
151 shipping activities at a global scale (Fig 3c, Supplementary Data 3). To analyse the temporal
152 variability of marine traffic during 2020, we counted the number of vessels underway on a daily
153 basis. Moreover, we considered an additional ship category, recreational vessels, which
154 constitutes an important sector in one of the world's tourist hotspots. The multi-annual distribution
155 of the number of vessels in the Western Mediterranean was consistent through time for merchant
156 and fishing vessels (Fig S10). Conversely, temporal variation showed a marked seasonality in
157 passenger, recreational and “other” vessels, with a peak during the boreal summer, and a growing

158 trend in the number of vessels across years (Fig S10). In 2020, daily counts of the number of
159 vessels showed a significant reduction after the World Health Organization (WHO) declared a
160 pandemic on 11th March, a pattern that was consistent across all sectors (Fig 5). When compared
161 to pre-disturbance baselines (i.e. equivalent periods of 2019), the number of vessels sharply
162 decreased in the first days of mobility restriction. Maximal reductions ranged from 24.3% (tankers)
163 to 276.9% (recreational vessels), with an overall drop across all categories of 97.5% during mid-
164 April (Table S2). Similarly, we found an uneven recovery rate among sectors. Cargo, tanker and
165 fishing vessels showed a relatively swift recovery in vessel activity in the proceeding months, in
166 contrast to passenger and recreational vessels which remained at low levels for a longer period
167 (Fig S11). By 30th June, after easing of lockdown restrictions in Spain, France and Italy (Fig 1c),
168 merchant and fishing vessels were close to pre-lockdown values, and recreational vessels
169 exhibited a sharp recovery, but passenger vessels still remained at levels less than 50% of
170 expected (Table S2).

171

172 **Discussion**

173 Our oceans are responsible for the carriage of around 80% of world trade and are the lifeblood of
174 many national economies which rely heavily on fishing and tourism^{27,34,36,37}. Here, using electronic
175 vessel monitoring systems we quantify and map changes in ship-based activities to provide a
176 comprehensive overview of how multiple national lockdowns to counter COVID-19 have impacted
177 maritime traffic. Our data-driven approach shows that a global slump in demand for goods and
178 services has led to an unprecedented impact at global and regional scales across all sectors -
179 leading to a general decrease in vessel traffic, and varied changes in the operating behaviour of
180 different sectors of transport, fishing and recreational vessels. This is the first time that it has been
181 possible to monitor and map the response of shipping to such a global disruption in near real time.

182

183 At the global scale our analyses reveal a decline in global marine traffic during the pandemic, a
184 pattern mirrored across multiple maritime sectors at varying scales. The magnitude of change
185 was higher across EEZs and marine ecoregions, than in areas beyond national jurisdiction.
186 European Seas, and in particular the Mediterranean Sea, were regions dominated by the greatest
187 reductions in marine traffic highlighting the dramatic and rapid impact of lockdown measures had
188 on the movement of vessels. East Asia, however, evidenced a mixture of patterns and general
189 increase of marine traffic particularly within China's EEZ, which likely reflects an upturn in
190 economic activity associated with the general and earlier easing of lockdown measures relative
191 to other countries which suffered outbreaks later.

192

193 The global ocean has historically played a key role in transport of goods and services and more
194 recently oil and gas exploration and tourism. Prior to the COVID-19 outbreak, there was a long-
195 term acceleration of maritime activities in intensity and occupancy, including shipping and cruise
196 tourism among others^{35,36}, with increasing rates of shipping in 92% of the EEZs³⁰, and forecast
197 increases of the global shipping network of 240-1,209% by 2050¹⁷. Our analyses thus provide an
198 unparalleled opportunity to assess changes on the blue economy at global and regional scales.
199 Most notably, our findings reveal that the COVID-19 outbreak has led to significant disruptions
200 and regional slowdown in vessel activity that was sustained for several weeks along established
201 transport routes across Asia, Africa and Europe. This was particularly evident along the main
202 trade corridors of the China's Maritime Silk Road Initiative (MSRI; e.g. ³⁸), including key areas like
203 the Strait of Malacca. However, the impact on the maritime transport sector (i.e. cargo vessels
204 and tankers) was lower in comparison to other sectors directly influenced by the lockdown
205 measures and restrictions on travel; with the demand for oil tankers in particular rising due to a
206 fall in oil prices³⁹. In contrast, the most heavily impacted sectors were the tourism and recreation
207 industry, with major declines and slower recovery rates in vessel activity at global and regional
208 scale. Such disruptions have the potential to turn into far reaching and significant social and

209 economic impacts on tourism dependent economies for several years to come. For fisheries, we
210 reveal that the impact of the outbreak has been uneven across different fishing fleets, with notable
211 declines in coastal areas. Regional analyses in the Western Mediterranean, however, reveal that
212 fishing vessel activity is closer to pre-lockdown levels, suggesting that the industrial fisheries
213 sector, which is often well-resourced and heavily subsidised in some countries⁴⁰, is less likely to
214 be affected than the more vulnerable small-scale fisheries sector that dominates fisheries in many
215 lower-income countries^{7,41}. Further work is needed to ascertain the impact of the COVID-19
216 outbreak on the behaviour of small-scale fisheries sector.

217

218 Changes in maritime activities can be driven by multiple factors such as regulations (e.g. marine
219 protected areas, speed limits, traffic separation schemes), socio-economic changes, piracy,
220 environmental changes or by cultural and political events^{26,27,42,43}. Moreover, these drivers can
221 affect single or multiple sectors, and span across multiple spatial and temporal scales. Previous
222 economic recessions, for instance, have shown long-term changes in maritime traffic (e.g. as a
223 consequence of fuel prices⁴³). Our temporal assessment in the Mediterranean is consistent with
224 the changes in confinement measures in EU countries. Similarly, universal decreases in marine
225 traffic across regions and countries with a high degree of lockdown measures during April 2020
226 (e.g. EU countries, India) can also be associated to COVID-19 as well as increases after easing
227 of lockdown measures. However, not all changes observed in our global assessment were
228 necessarily related to COVID-19. For example, large increases of fishing vessels in Indonesia
229 could be attributed to a recent regulation that entered into force in August 2019 on AIS usage.
230 Moreover, the shape of displacements in fishing vessels intensity suggests several shifts in the
231 fishing grounds (e.g. in high seas near Peru). In addition, increases in tanker density in some
232 areas are likely due to the fall in oil price supporting crude oil exports. Determining whether
233 observed changes were driven by COVID-19 or other factors will require further regional and local
234 assessments.

235

236 Monitoring the movements of marine traffic in near real-time at a global scale is now possible as
237 a result of unprecedented technological advances in the domains of big data and nano-satellite
238 communication systems leading to global AIS coverage. It is noteworthy that during the most
239 recent comparable global shock, the 2008 financial crisis and associated recession, such a study
240 as ours would not have been possible. Despite issues and limitations of AIS data (e.g. small
241 vessels not included, errors in vessel's characteristics), there is much further work that can be
242 done. In this study, we used gridded density maps at the finest data resolution (0.25 degrees)
243 available at global scale and provided on an operational basis. Such resolution was larger than
244 several EEZs, hence limiting analysis at finer scales. There are additional characteristics that
245 could be derived from raw AIS data (e.g. port calls, individual vessel trajectories) that warrant
246 further attention. Furthermore, changes in the properties of the global shipping network are
247 essential to better understand the effects of COVID-19 on world trade, assess the risk of biological
248 invasions^{17,34} or the transmission of future diseases^{32,33}. Moreover, using trajectory information to
249 quantify changes in vessel behaviour would allow the mapping of changes of multiple human
250 pressures (e.g. underwater noise, fishing effort, boat anchoring, air pollution), assess their
251 interactions and potential effects on wildlife^{1,31} and quantify their cumulative impacts on marine
252 ecosystems^{30,44}. While there are open-source datasets at supraregional areas at higher
253 resolutions (e.g. EMODnet Human activities) there is, as yet, no international body providing open
254 access to shipping tracking data at a global level. Such data products will prove essential to allow
255 large-scale monitoring of the progress and potential effects of COVID-19 and other future shocks.

256

257 The spatial and temporal heterogeneity found in this study is highly relevant for further studies
258 aiming to assess the effects of COVID-19 on marine ecosystems. Whilst the COVID-19 pandemic
259 has brought a dramatic global health and socio-economic crisis, the reduction of maritime
260 activities in affected regions and locations may provide some positive outcomes for the marine

261 environment⁵. Commercial fishing and shipping, in fact, contribute significantly to overall
262 cumulative human impacts on the ocean⁴⁴ and information about their spatial patterns is of
263 paramount importance for conservation planning^{45,46}. Previous economic crises have shown
264 positive effects on fisheries¹¹, or air pollution¹², and have contributed to reduce vessel speeds (i.e.
265 due to fuel price⁴³), one of the most effective measures for achieving lower CO₂ and air pollutant
266 emissions, risk of collisions with cetaceans, and to lessen ocean noise⁴⁷. The unprecedented
267 disruption during COVID-19 offers new opportunities for research¹. Our global assessment is
268 congruent with recent focal studies that have reported reductions of marine traffic in the Port of
269 Vancouver and Venice during COVID-19, resulting in improvements in underwater sound²⁰ and
270 water turbidity²¹, respectively. Such agreement suggests that our global dataset could be used to
271 identify impacted and control locations for comparison in other environmental studies. Our results
272 also suggest that marine protected areas from coastal areas could benefit from a decrease in
273 marine traffic. Equally, an associated reduction of surveillance effort presents a higher risk for
274 potential increases of illicit activities (e.g. illegal fishing, trafficking of drugs), especially in lower-
275 income countries^{41,48}. In fact, our results show there were increases in fishing activity in the
276 national waters of low-income countries.

277

278 Changes in marine traffic have been shaped by policy actions related to COVID-19 restrictions
279 on human mobility and reductions of consumer's demand on food and trade. Response of marine
280 ecosystems to COVID-19 will depend on the intensity and duration of the reduction of human
281 pressures. In the northern hemisphere, marine traffic intensity is higher during the boreal summer
282 and AIS data will allow us to monitor the recovery during the coming months. There is, however,
283 a degree of uncertainty around future scenarios and long-lasting impacts. The scientific
284 community needs empirical observations in order to better understand the socioeconomic impacts
285 on maritime sectors and the environmental consequences of COVID-19 on marine ecosystems.
286 The pandemic has also constrained the capacities of research institutions to pursue monitoring

287 programs (e.g. on research cruises) underscoring the need to advance implementation of real-
288 time autonomous monitoring systems to survey the ocean, including anthropogenic impacts.
289 Future AIS studies should address temporal variability of spatial patterns at a global level and our
290 global assessment can be extended forward and backwards in time to facilitate insights into the
291 longer-term impacts of COVID-19. Such assessments will prove essential to allow large-scale
292 monitoring and insights into the effects of the current pandemic, or other global shocks, on the
293 blue economy and ocean health.

294

295 **Methods**

296 **Stringency Index**

297 The Oxford COVID-19 Government Response Tracker (OxCGRT) provides a transparent, real-
298 time monitoring system that allows comparison of government measures between countries⁴⁹. In
299 order to account for the variation in containment and closure policies at national level, we used
300 the Stringency Index (Index methodology version 3.1). This index is an additive score of nine
301 policy decision indicators, rescaled to vary from 0 to 100, which records the strictness of the
302 lockdown measures per country. A global average of the Stringency Index indicated that April was
303 the month with the strictest measures experienced across all available coastal countries (n = 133).

304 **AIS data**

305 The automated identification system (AIS) is a vessel identification system that transmits real-
306 time information on routes of vessels via a VHF transceiver. AIS is required on all ships of 300
307 gross tonnage or more engaged on international voyages, all cargo ships of 500 gross tonnage
308 or more, and all passenger ships irrespective of size. In addition, individual countries may require
309 further AIS usage. For example, AIS is required for EU fishing vessels >15 meters in length.

310 Moreover, AIS is also increasingly used on a voluntary basis by many other vessels, including
311 smaller leisure and fishing vessels. AIS signals can be detected by nearby vessels, terrestrial
312 antennas (T-AIS) or satellite stations (S-AIS). Land-based antennas have a horizontal range of
313 about 40 nautical miles, while S-AIS has global coverage.

314

315 For global analyses, satellite AIS (S-AIS) data for April 2019 and 2020 were obtained from
316 exactEarth Ltd (<http://www.exactearth.com/>), a space-based data service provider which operates
317 a constellation of 65 microsattellites to provide global AIS coverage at a highly frequency rate (<
318 5 min average update rate). The latest upgrade in the constellation entered into production in
319 February 2019, thus S-AIS coverage was equivalent for both periods (exactEarth Ltd. pers
320 comm.). Values represented the monthly number of unique vessels within grid cells of 0.25 x 0.25
321 degrees. Vessels were classified into five categories: cargo, tanker, passenger, fishing, and
322 “other”. The category “other” included any other vessel not covered by the preceding explicit
323 categories (e.g. vessels conducting surveys and logistic services for industry, research vessels,
324 recreational vessels). We calculated the vessel density as the number of vessels per unit area,
325 considering the difference of cell size across the latitudinal gradient²⁵. Grid cells from the Caspian
326 Sea and with <10% ocean area were removed from the analysis, based on the GADM Database
327 of Global Administrative Areas (version 3.6, <https://gadm.org/>). Further quality control procedures
328 included the removal of grid cells with speed values above a given threshold (i.e. 99th percentile)
329 and small clumps of isolated cells (i.e. < 100 cells). Finally, marine traffic density maps were
330 converted to the Mollweide projection with a WGS84 datum as it is an accurate single global
331 projection that preserves geographic area and allows data transfer and analysis among operating
332 systems and software.

333

334 Terrestrial AIS (T-AIS) data from the Western Mediterranean (map inset Fig 5a) were collated by
335 the Balearic Islands Coastal and Forecasting System (SOCIB⁵⁰) using a real-time operational

336 system connected to a web-service provided by Marine Traffic (<https://www.marinetraffic.com/>).

337 The database used in this study contained AIS data from 1st January 2016 until 30th June 2020

338 at 5-minute intervals (> 545 million AIS messages). In addition to the vessel tracks, the database

339 also included information associated with each vessel, such as the vessel type or length. A first

340 pre-processing of the raw data included the removal of duplicates, invalid identification numbers

341 (i.e. Maritime Mobile Service Identity -MMSI- codes without 9 digits) and codes outside the correct

342 numerical range (i.e. MMSI codes with first digits between 2 and 7 are those intended for individual

343 ships). In order to address inconsistencies in the vessel and MMSI combinations (e.g., changes

344 of MMSI across years), we selected the more frequent combination of MMSI and vessel

345 characteristics (e.g. vessel name and vessel type) for each calendar year. We used a similar

346 vessel categorization as the S-AIS dataset, but were able to derive a sixth category from the AIS

347 metadata, separating “recreational” vessels from “other” vessels. Therefore, vessels were

348 classified into six categories: cargo, tanker, passenger (included high speed crafts and passenger

349 vessels), fishing, recreational (included sailing vessels and pleasure crafts), and others (included

350 all other ship types). We excluded ship type codes 20 to 29 (i.e. wing-in-ground-effect and search

351 and rescue aircraft), as well as codes that had an invalid value (i.e. empty or null) or the value

352 was not listed in the previous type codes. We calculated the number of vessels per day

353 considering only those that were underway, thus removing moored vessels inside ports that were

354 inactive. T-AIS coverage was not homogenous in the study area⁵¹ due to a non-uniformly

355 distribution of antennas (i.e. few antennas in north Africa, see www.marinetraffic.com).

356 Consequently, we filtered vessels within the coastal zone (44.4 km, ~24 nautical miles) of EU

357 countries (i.e. a total area of 164,318.2 km² comprised by Spain, France and Italy), thus reducing

358 potential bias due to temporal gaps in signal reception.

359

360 **Changes in response to COVID-19 at global level**

361 We calculated the change in traffic density between April 2019 and April 2020 on a grid cell basis
362 to assess the absolute and relative differences in a spatial context. In order to achieve greater
363 symmetry between relative increases and decreases, we calculated relative differences using
364 logarithmic percentage change (L%)⁵². We assessed the changes across multiple regions and
365 maritime boundaries that are typically used to divide the global ocean into management or
366 reporting units and used to define the unique ecosystems that comprise the global ocean. We
367 summarized the differences of traffic density by exclusive economic zones (EEZ)⁵³, areas beyond
368 national jurisdiction (ABJN)⁵⁴, marine ecoregions⁵⁵, and Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)
369 major fishing areas⁵⁶. We averaged per-pixel values, allowing direct comparison among regions
370 despite large differences in size⁴⁴. We filtered out EEZs from Caspian Sea and joint regimes and
371 obtained information on income levels per country from the World Bank. Despite several EEZs
372 being smaller than the grid size (0.25 degrees), we included them in the analysis. The rationale
373 for this is the diffuse nature of various environmental pressures (i.e. air pollution, underwater
374 noise).

375

376 **Changes in response to COVID-19 at regional level**

377 We compared the unique number of vessels on a daily basis. Our dataset showed a marked
378 annual cycle, reducing in the boreal winter and year on year increasing annual trend for some
379 sectors (Fig S8), hence we compared the 2020 values (since 1st January to account for pre-
380 quarantine period) with the same periods of 2019. In order to take into account the dynamics of
381 ship-based activities through time, the comparison between the datasets of the two years was
382 adjusted so the same days of the week were being compared and to allow for the extra day in
383 2020, being a leap year. We calculated a 7-day moving average and then computed the log
384 percentage change (L%)⁵².

385

386 **Data and code availability**

387 Stringency index data is available from the Oxford COVID-19 Government Response Tracker

388 (www.bsg.ox.ac.uk/covidtracker). Raw AIS data are available from SOCIB and Exact Earth.

389 Anonymized and aggregated data from terrestrial AIS are available

390 (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12667256>). Density maps on satellite AIS were purchased

391 from Exact Earth, are used under license and cannot be publicly shared by the authors. We

392 provide the global difference maps publicly available

393 (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.12676070>). All analyses were coded in R. Code which is

394 available from Github (<https://github.com/dmarch/covid19-ais>).

395

396 **Supplementary Information**

397

398 Supplementary Information

399

400 Supplementary Data 1. Average difference in marine traffic density between April 2020 and April

401 2019 for each EEZ.

402

403 Supplementary Data 2. Average difference in marine traffic density between April 2020 and April

404 2019 for each High Seas

405

406 Supplementary Data 3. Average difference in marine traffic density between April 2020 and April

407 2019 for each marine ecoregion.

408

409 Supplementary Data 4. Average difference in marine traffic density between April 2020 and April
410 2019 for each FAO area.

411

412

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418 Author contribution

419 D.M. and B.J.G. conceived and designed the study. D.M. performed the analysis. D.M. and
420 B.J.G. wrote the manuscript with input from all authors. All authors gave approval to the final
421 version of the manuscript.

422

423 Competing interests

424 The authors declare no competing interests.

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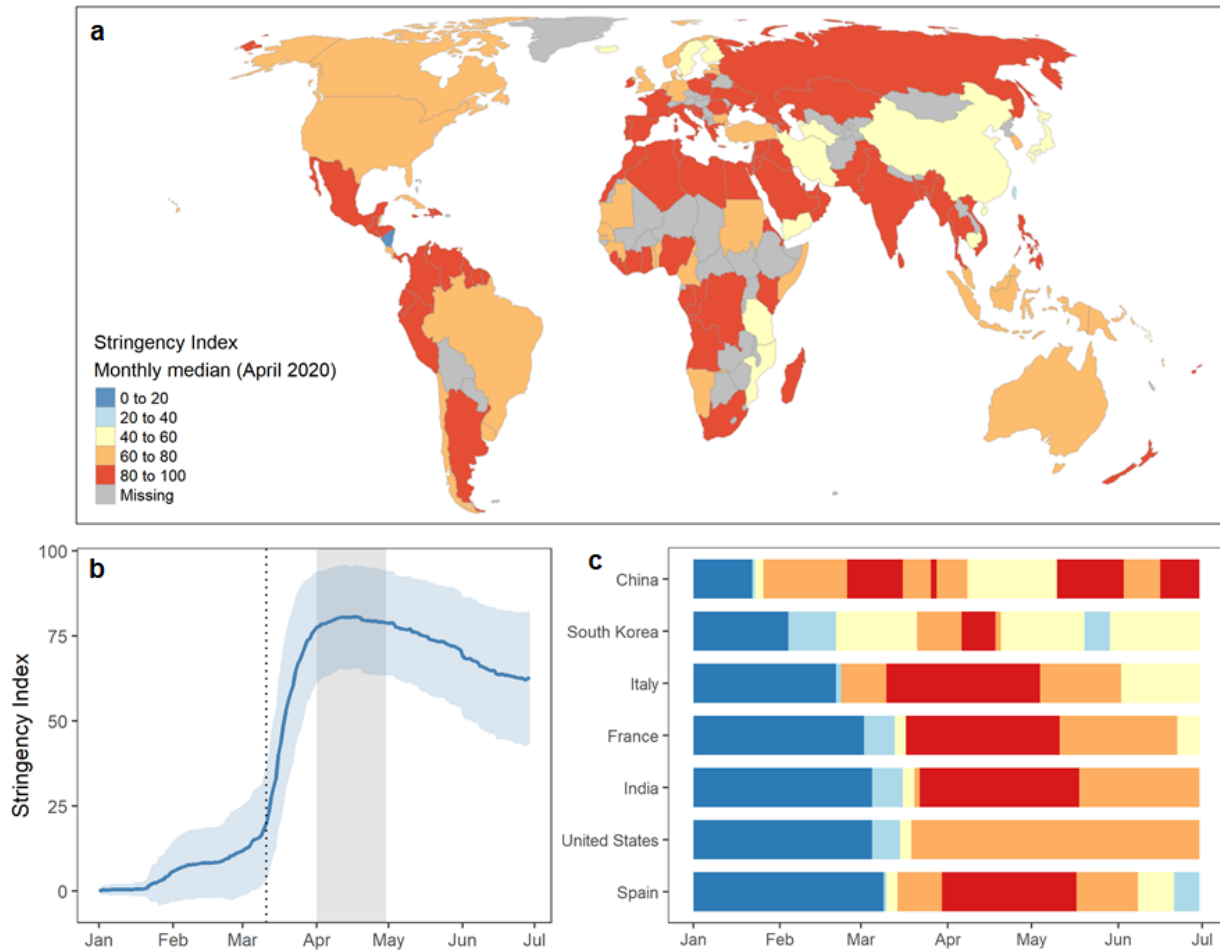
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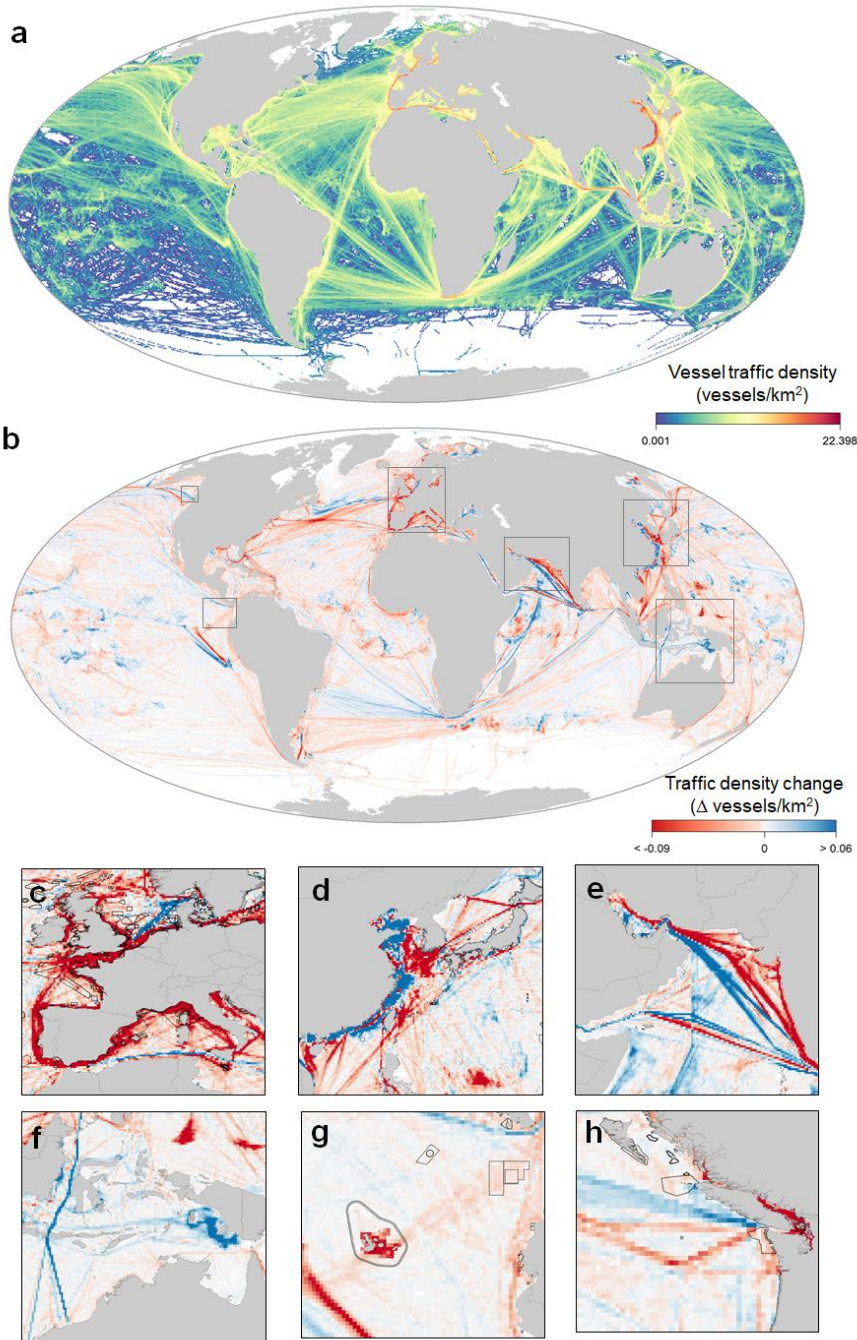
560 **Figures**

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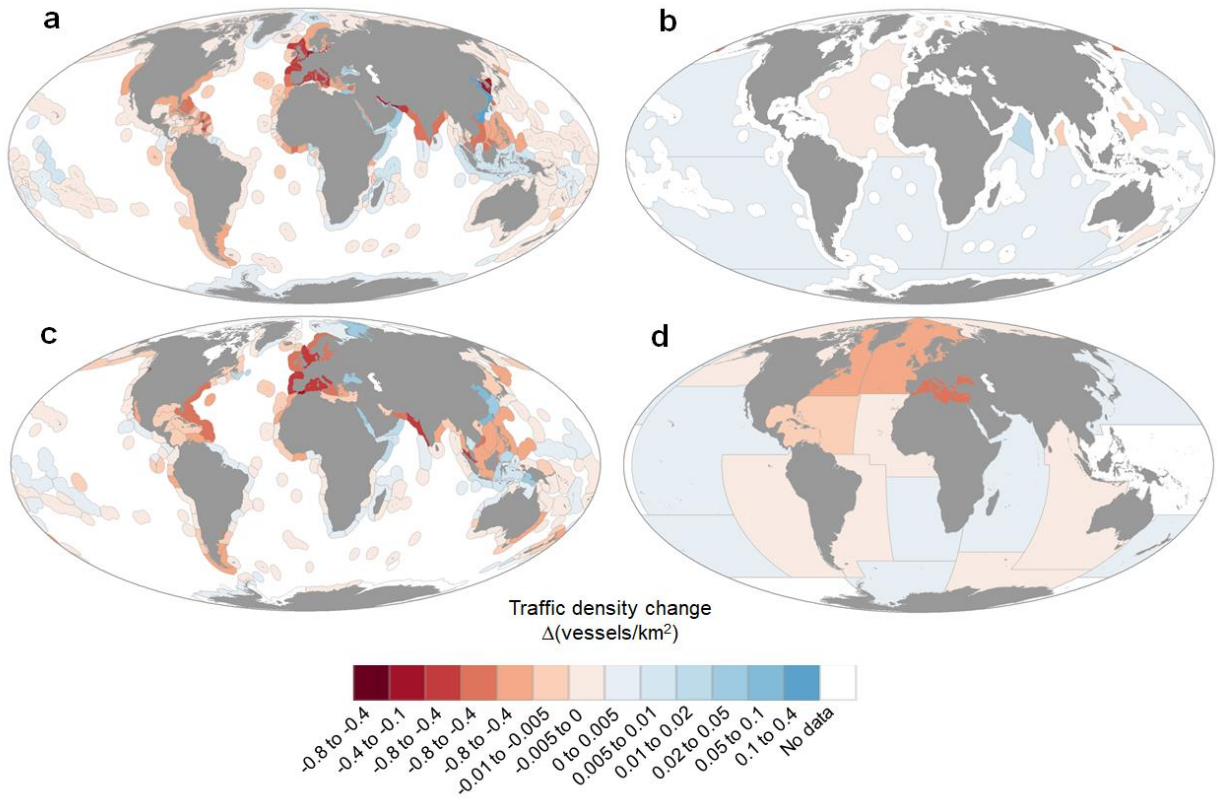
Fig 1. Spatial and temporal variation of the confinement measures in coastal countries. We use the Stringency Index (100 = strictest response) as an indicator of confinement measures for all available coastal countries (n = 133). **(a)** Monthly median per country for April 2020. **(b)** Global daily average and standard deviation from 1st January 2020 until 30th June 2020. The shaded area in grey highlights the month of April, as used for the large-scale assessment. Vertical dotted line represents the World Health Organization pandemic declaration on the 11th March 2020. **(c)** Individual series for selected countries, ordered according to the first date when the Stringency Index was above the first quintile. Colors represent the same Stringency Index classes used in panel a. Note that data was not available for all coastal countries.



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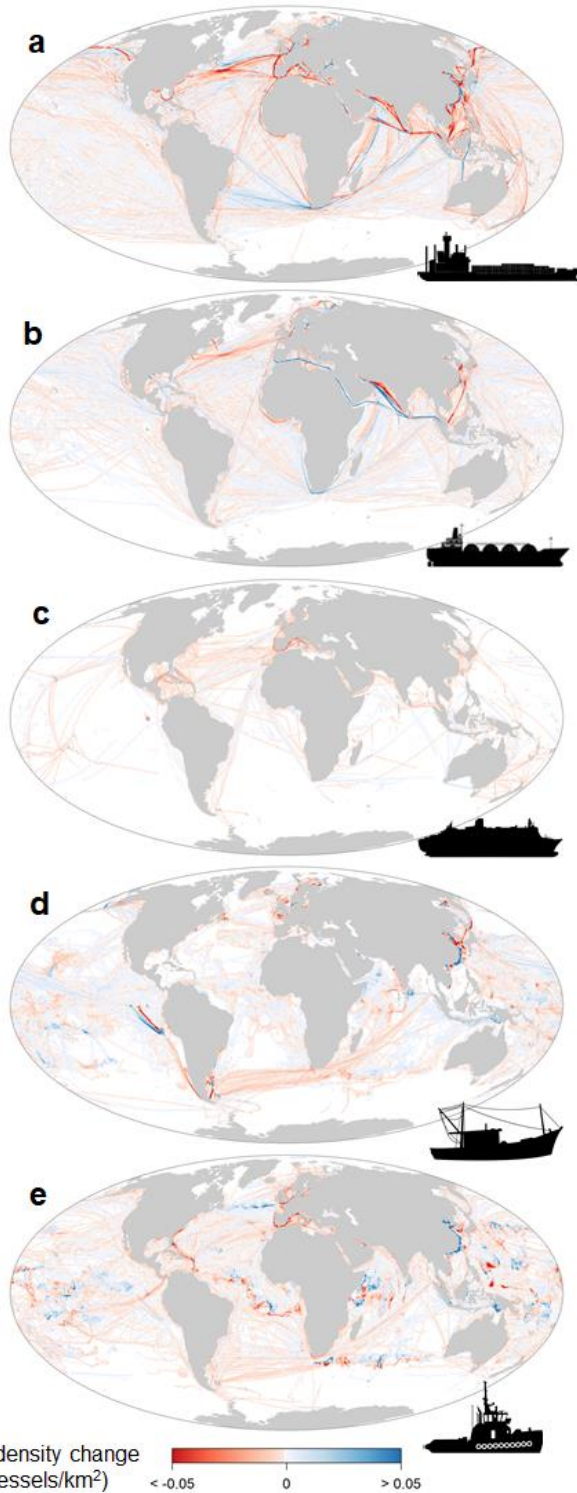
Figure 2. Global changes in vessel traffic density during COVID-19 pandemic. (a) Monthly traffic density in April 2020. Note a logarithmic color scale is used to highlight main shipping lanes. (b) Absolute difference in traffic density in relation to April 2019, derived using cell-by-cell subtraction. Negative (red) cells indicate a reduction in April 2020. Scale values reflect min and max raster 99th quantile values (-0.09 and 0.06). (Insets) Regional changes in Europe (c), East China Sea (d), Arabian Sea (e) and Indonesia (f). Local changes in Galapagos Islands marine protected area (g), and Port of Vancouver (h). Black lines in insets represent the boundaries of marine protected areas. Scales values are the same from panel b.

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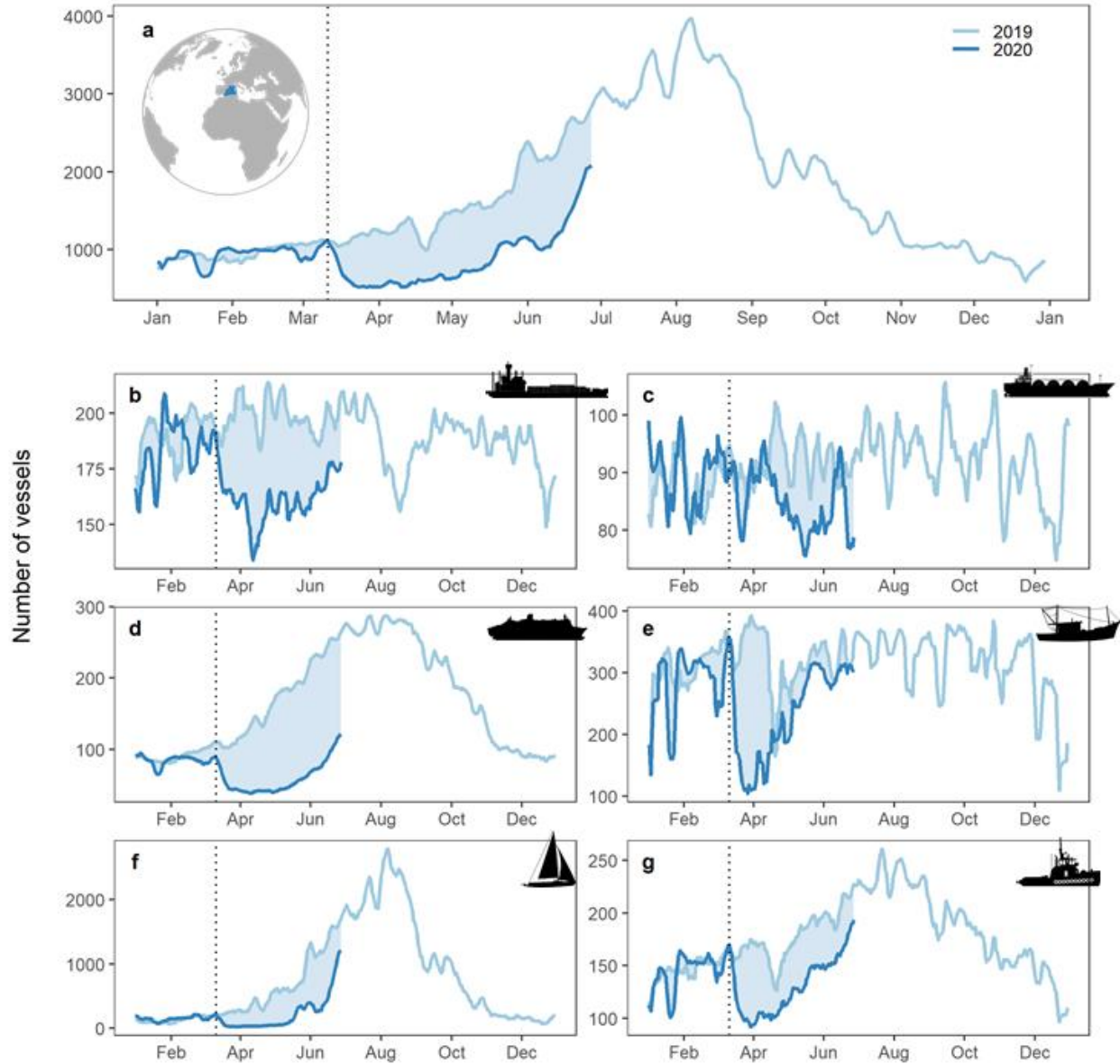


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Fig 3. Global changes in vessel traffic density across multiple regions of the ocean. (a) Exclusive Economic Zones (EEZ; n = 255), (b) Areas beyond national jurisdiction (ABJN; n = 21), (c) marine ecoregions (n = 217), (d) Food and Agriculture Organization major fishing areas (n = 19).



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 592 **Figure 4. Global changes in vessel traffic density per vessel categories.** Absolute
 593 difference in traffic density between April 2020 and April 2019, derived using cell-by-cell
 594 subtraction. Negative (red) cells indicate a reduction in April 2020. Vessel categories: (a) cargo,
 595 (b) tanker, (c) passenger, (d) fishing, (e) other vessels.



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598 **Figure 5. Temporal variation of vessels in the Western Mediterranean during COVID-19.**

599 Daily data of vessels underway within the coastal zone (24 nautical miles) of EU countries present
 600 in the study area (i.e., Spain, France, Italy) per vessel category: (a) All vessel types, (b) cargo,
 601 (c) tanker, (d) passenger, (e) fishing, (f) recreational, and (g) others. Daily estimates using 7-day
 602 moving average. Shaded area represents the difference between 2019 and 2020 (until 30th
 603 June). Vertical dotted line represents the World Health Organization pandemic declaration on the
 604 11th March 2020. Blue area in the map inset on part (a) represents the spatial extent of the regional
 605 AIS dataset.