

IDENTIFICATION, DISTRIBUTION, AND
CONSERVATION OF DEEP-SEA CORALS IN
CANADA'S NORTHWEST ATLANTIC

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**IDENTIFICATION, DISTRIBUTION, AND
CONSERVATION OF DEEP-SEA CORALS IN
CANADA'S NORTHWEST ATLANTIC**

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ABSTRACT

Deep-sea corals are long-lived, slow-growing benthic animals and are generally considered important for deep-sea biodiversity. Deep-sea corals in Newfoundland, Labrador, and eastern Canadian Arctic waters were mapped using incidental-by-catch from multispecies scientific surveys and fisheries observations. To date (2004-2009), 44 deep-sea coral species have been documented, including 33 octocorals, eight scleractinians and three antipatharians. Coral distributions were highly clustered, with most species co-occurring in fishing sets. Five coral species diversity and abundance hotspots were delineated: Hudson Strait region, Labrador shelf edge and slope, Orphan Spur-Tobin's Point, Flemish Pass and southwest Grand Bank shelf edge and slope. Corals are under threat from bottom trawling fishing. Impacts from mobile and fixed gears can include dislodgement, breakage, and complete removal. Although several protected areas have been established and other candidates have been identified, protective measures for deep-sea coral in Newfoundland and Labrador are insufficient.

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Dedicated to
my Aunt Elaine (1947-1998),
my role model and inspiration in life

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

Bedford Institute of Oceanography

Centre of Expertise for Aquatic Habitat Research

Canadian Broadcasting Corporation

Canadian Coast Guard Ship

Centre of Expertise

Committee On Status Of Endangered Wildlife In Canada

Department of Fisheries and Oceans Canada

Ecologically and Biologically Significant Areas

Environmental Non-government Organization

Ecosystem Research Initiative

Fisheries and Aquaculture Management

Groundfish Enterprise Allocation Council

General Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans

International Council for the Exploration of the Sea

International Governance Program

International Governance Strategy

Integrated Taxonomic Information System

Local Ecological Knowledge

Large Ocean Management Area

Memorandum of Understanding

Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization

NAFO Potential Vulnerable Marine Ecosystems Impacts of Deep-sea

Newfoundland and Labrador's Expanded Research on Ecosystem-
relevant but Under-surveyed Splicers

Non-government Organization

Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization Regulatory Area

National Science Engineering Research Council

Regional Fisheries Management Organization

Remotely Operated Platform for Ocean Science

Remotely Operated Vehicle

Significant Adverse Impact

United Nations General Assembly

UNESCO-IOC Register of Marine Organisms

Vulnerable Marine Ecosystem

Vessel Monitoring System

Working Group on Ecosystem Approach to Fisheries Management

World Register of Marine Species

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1 INTRODUCTION TO DEEP-SEA CORAL IN THE NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR REGION, NORTHWEST ATLANTIC OCEAN

Deep-sea corals (Phylum: Cnidaria), also known as cold-water corals, are vibrantly coloured animals that look like plants and come in various shapes and sizes. First discovered by deep-sea expeditions in the late 1700s (Pontoppidan, 1755) they are dredged from the sea floor from all over the world at all depths (Freiwald et al., 2004). The study of deep-sea corals is costly and time-consuming due to the great depths of the environment they inhabit and the associated logistics of conducting research in the

increasing due to the functional role(s) they play in providing habitat for other species and contributing towards habitat complexity (Robertson et al., 2009). Until recently, little was known about the distribution of deep-sea corals in the northwest Atlantic with the exception of sporadic occurrences from pioneering expeditions (Moseley, 1881; Verrill, 1885; Agassiz, 1888; Jourdan, 1895; Pax, 1932; Kramp, 1942; Litvin & Rvachev, 1963; Nesis, 1963a; Nesis, 1963b) with few exploring Newfoundland and Labrador waters (Jourdan, 1895; Litvin & Rvachev, 1963; Nesis, 1963a; Nesis, 1963b). The purpose of this thesis is to help fill information gaps on corals from the northwest Atlantic by fulfilling three primary goals

1. To identify deep-sea coral species and frequencies of occurrence;
2. To map the distribution of coral off the coast of Newfoundland, Labrador, and

iii. To discuss potential conservation strategies and recommend alternative actions for national and regional resource managers

Chapter 1 introduces the thesis and includes; what are deep-sea corals, where they are found, why they are important, and threats to their existence. In addition, background information on historical occurrences will be described. Subsequent chapters focus on basic biology of deep-sea corals, threats to deep-sea corals, and previous coral

Chapter 2 addresses two goals:

- i. To identify deep-sea corals; and

This chapter was presented at the 3^d International Deep-Sea Corals Symposium in Miami, Florida in 2005 and is published in a special edition of the Bulletin of Marine Science (Wareham & Edinger, 2007)

Chapter 3 provides an update on the ongoing process of identifying and mapping deep-sea corals in the northwest Atlantic, building on the existing dataset developed by Wareham and Edinger (2007). Collectively, it will be used to identify and highlight areas for protection within the Newfoundland, Labrador, and eastern Canadian Arctic regions Chapter 3 was published as Wareham (2009a) as part of Department of Fisheries and Oceans Canada (DFO) Technical Report summarizing research conducted in the Newfoundland and Labrador Region titled "*The Ecology of Deep-sea Corals of Newfoundland and Labrador Waters: Biogeography, Life History, Biogeochemistry, and Role of Critical Habitat*" (Gilkinson & Edinger, 2009)

Finally, Chapter 4 highlights progress on coral conservation to date, discusses management strategies to identify priority areas for future protection, and outlines

challenges the Newfoundland and Labrador Region faces. This chapter concludes with recommendations for addressing these challenges in order to successfully protect corals

Four Appendices follow the thesis. Appendix 1 provides a Systematic List of Phylum

Baffin Island, Canada emphasised in bold. Appendix 2 is a "user-friendly" Identification Guide to Deep-Sea Corals Newfoundland, Labrador, and Baffin Island, Canada, in poster format (Wareham, 2009b). I developed the poster, and it was reproduced by

the poster is included on a compact disk in Appendix 3. The compact disk also includes Adobe PDFs of maps and data used in mapping of deep-sea corals published in Chapter 2 (Wareham & Edinger, 2007) and Chapter 3 (Wareham, 2009a). Appendix 4, Collection Protocols for Corals and Sponges for Newfoundland, Labrador, and Baffin Island, Canada, contains two examples of standard deep-sea coral collection protocols created for this thesis and utilized by DFO staff, and regional fisheries observers (SeaWatch

There are several limitations regarding data interpretation pertaining to Chapters 2 and 3. Data used in this thesis were collected by DFO and by the Fisheries Observer Program (FOP). Both sources sample from a variety of substrates using different gear types. For example, DFO research vessels sample with a Campelen Trawl used on relatively level sea floors and are limited to depths < 1,500m. Each DFO survey set is standardized by depth and tow duration (see McCallum & Walsh, 1996). The need for consistent tow speed and distance leads to a bias that favours level sea floor

environments, excluding steeper slopes and canyons. On the other hand, data from the **Fisheries Observer Program** are derived from commercial vessels using a variety of gear types, representing preferred fishing areas based on past catch rates and past experience of individual skippers. Observer data incorporates many fisheries from a variety of depths, gear classes (i.e. mobile and fixed), gear types (e.g. shrimp trawl, twin trawl), marine habitats (e.g. steep canyons), and seafloor substrates (e.g. boulders, fields, mud, or sand). In short, DFO research data are biased towards 'trawlable' substrates and observer data are biased towards preferred fishing grounds.

The geographic scope of this thesis incorporates a large portion of the northwest Atlantic off the coasts of Newfoundland, Labrador, and southeast Baffin Island (Fig. 1.1). It encompasses the Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization (NAFO) fisheries regulatory area divisions; 3KLMNOP (Newfoundland), 2GHJK (Labrador), and OAB (eastern Baffin Island). Data for this thesis was gathered from DFO research surveys (2003-2008), as well as from a partnership with industry (Northern Shrimp Survey). A third important data source was from fisheries observers on board commercial fishing vessels operating within the NAFO regulatory areas within Canadian jurisdiction.

All coral taxa recorded during the study were incorporated into the database. Based on the Integrated Taxonomic Information System (ITIS), taxa were documented from three subclasses: Octocorallia (Alcyonaria), Hexacorallia (Zoantharia), and Cerianthipatharia (see Appendix 1). Octocorals included two orders; pennatulaceans (sea pens) and alcyonaceans (soft corals and gorgonians). Hexacorals included scleractinians (stony cup corals); and Cerianthipatharia included antipatharians (black wire corals). There were no hydracorals recorded.

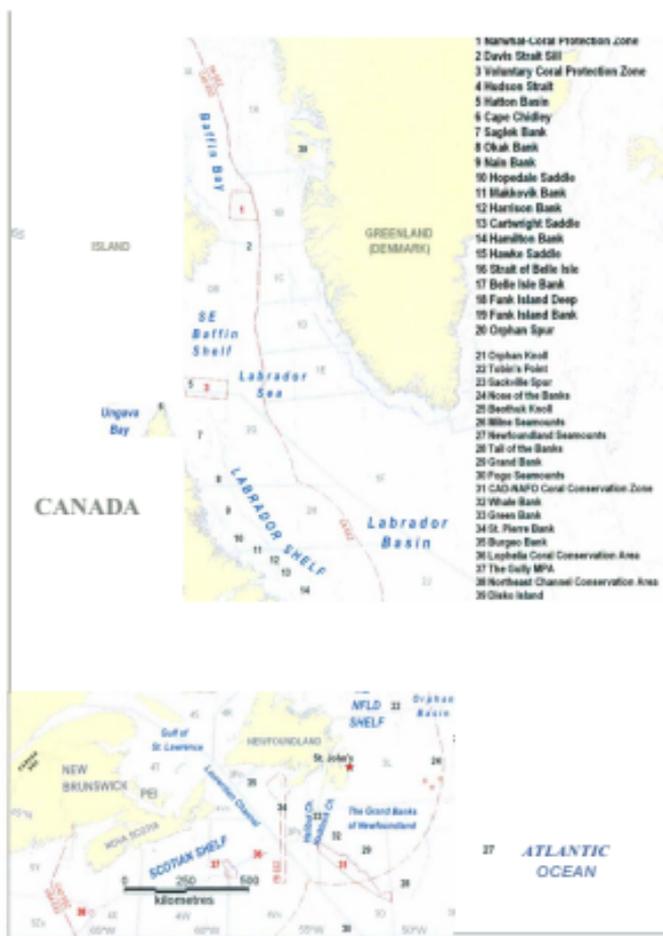


Figure 1.1. Map of study area highlighting bathymetric features off eastern Canada

There are various other papers on deep-sea corals to which I have contributed, but are not included in this thesis. We have described methods for working with fisheries observers (Wareham et al., 2007), and coral distributions in the NAFO region (Fuller et al., 2008). We have analysed the densities of corals and sponges with associated fishing efforts in proximity to Hanon Basin in NAFO divisions 2G-CB (Kenchington et al., 2010; Wareham et al., 2010). We have documented the ecological importance of corals in Newfoundland and Labrador waters to fisheries species (Edinger et al., 2007b), and fisheries impacts upon corals (Edinger et al., 2007a). We have described Adenosine triphosphate and lipid biochemistry of several species of corals (Hamoutene et al., 2008a, b), and tissue stable isotope geochemistry of 11 species of deep-sea corals from Atlantic Canadian waters (Sherwood et al., 2008).

Corals are simple animals, referred to individually as polyps (Birkeland, 1996; Ruppert et al., 2004; Hopley, in press). Each polyp is composed of a ring (s) of tentacles used for capturing food, a mouth for eating, and a tube (actinopharynx or stomodaeum) leading to a central gastrovascular cavity (coelenteron) for digesting food. Corals can be solitary,

known tropical reef-building varieties are found in shallower warmer equatorial waters. They are restricted to the photic zone because they have endo-symbiotic relationships with algae and are referred to as zooxanthellate corals. The coral colony (corallum) provides the substrate for algae to live in while they photosynthesize energy from the sun and convert it to food. In exchange, the algae excrete metabolic waste which is recycled as food by coral polyps (Muscatine & Porter, 1977; Hallock & Muller-Karger,

In contrast, deep-sea corals are not as well-known because they are rarely seen (Robertsetal., 2009). Most species are found below the photic zone. Deep-sea corals are referred to as azooxanthellate corals, which are strictly suspension feeders. They depend entirely on currents and other oceanographic processes to transport food to them, like zooplankton and detritus, which has been imported from the water column near the water surface (Freiwald, 2002; Sherwood et al., 2008). Currents not only carry food but also prevent accumulation of silt, which can smother the polyp (Robertsetal., 2009)

Based on anatomy deep-sea corals can be divided into several main groups: octocorals, scleractinians, and antipatharians. Stylasteridae and Zoanthidae are two additional groups (Cairns, 1992; Ocaña & Brito, 2004) but were not found within the study area, therefore are not covered. Octocorals (Class Anthozoa: Subclass Octocorallia) include the 90r90nians, soft corals, and pennatulids (sea pens). This group is easily distinguishable. Each polyp consists of eight tentacles all containing sc/erites-special internal structures constructed of calcitic calcium carbonate (Robertsetal., 2009)

Almost all species in this group are colonial with the exception of one gorgonian (Bayer & Muzik, 1976). Gorgonians have a hard or consolidated internal skeleton which is constructed of either proteinaceous gorgonin, calcium carbonate (calcite or aragonite) or a mixture of the two (Bayer, 1973). Soft corals have a hydroskeleton and rely on water and hydrostatic pressure to maintain their shape (Fabricius & Alderslade, 2001)

Similarly, sea pens maintain their shape using hydrostatic pressure but benefit from a central internal calcareous axial rachis, for added support and movement (Williams,

Scleractinians (Class Anthozoa: Subclass Hexacorallia), also known as the stony corals, can be found as colonial 'reef-builders' or solitary cup corals. Most deep-sea species

are the latter with few exceptions (Cairns, 2007). Stony corals are easily identified by their skeletons constructed of aragonitic calcium carbonate

The final group are the Antipatharians (Class Anthozoa: Subclass Ceriantipatharia), also known as the black-wire corals. Members of this group are all colonial. Polyps are simple, containing six tentacles and lacking sclerites. They have a unique internal chitinous skeleton for strength and support, while maintaining flexibility. The skeleton is covered with tiny spines. Taxonomic identification of this group is difficult. Species identification requires close inspection of polyps (size and structure), spines and skeleton morphology (Goldsberg et al., 1994; Opresko, 2002; Molodtsova & Budaeva, 2007)

Corals may be the longest living animals on Earth with some species reaching several thousand years in age (Roark et al., 2006; Robert et al., 2009). Growth rates for many deep-sea corals are unknown, however some species have been investigated (Table 1.1); *Primnoa resedaeformis* Gunnerus, 1763 (Risk et al., 2002; Sherwood et al., 2006), *Keratoisis ornata* Verrill, 1878 (Roark et al., 2005; Sherwood & Edinger, 2009), *Desmophyllum dianthus* Ehrenberg, 1834 (Risk et al., 2002), *Haptiteris willemoesi* (Kbllicker, 1870; Wilson et al., 2002), *Chrysogorgia agassizii* (Verrill, 1883; Vinogradov, 2000) and *Stauropathes sarctica* Lütken, 1871 (Sherwood & Edinger, 2009). All have extremely slow growth rates and some species can surpass 100-500 years in age (Sherwood et al., 2006; Sherwood & Edinger, 2009)

Table 1.1. Summary of growth rates and associated studies for some deep-sea coral species. RG=Radial Growth; AC=Axial Growth; EA=Estimated Age; TL=Total Length

Coral Species	Growth Rates & Estimated Longevity	References
<i>Primoaresedebiformis</i> (gorgonian)	RG = 83 ± 6 to 125 ± 37 $\mu\text{m yr}^{-1}$	Sherwood & Edinger, 2009; Sherwood et al., 2006
	'AG = 1.00 ± 0.09 to 2.61 ± 0.09 cm yr^{-1}	
	'EA = 18 to 100 yr (2009)	
<i>Acanellaarbuscula</i> (gorgonian)	RG = > 20 $\mu\text{m yr}^{-1}$	Sherwood & Edinger, 2009
	'AG = > 0.30 cm yr^{-1}	
	'EA = 30 yr (growth ring counts)	
<i>Keralosis, Isidella, or Acanella</i> sp. (gorgonians)	RGR = 50-160 $\mu\text{m yr}^{-1}$ (Alaska, USA)	Sherwood & Edinger, 2009
	RG = 53 ± 9 to 75 ± 11 $\mu\text{m yr}^{-1}$	
	'AG = 0.93 ± 0.08 cm yr^{-1}	
<i>Keratoisomata</i> (gorgonian)	'EA = 94 ± 7 to 200 ± 30 yr	Sherwood & Edinger, 2009
	RG = 50-110 $\mu\text{m yr}^{-1}$ (Davidson Seamount, off California, USA)	
	RG = 111 $\mu\text{m yr}^{-1}$ (Tasmania)	
<i>Paragorgiaarborescens</i> (gorgonian)	RG = 130-290 $\mu\text{m yr}^{-1}$ (New Zealand)	Tracey et al., 2007
	AG = 0.8-4 cm yr^{-1} (New Zealand & Norway)	Tracey et al., 2003; Mortensen & Buhl-Mortensen, 2005
	RG = 92 ± 18 $\mu\text{m yr}^{-1}$ to 205 ± 20 $\mu\text{m yr}^{-1}$	Sherwood & Edinger, 2009
<i>Paramuricea</i> sp. (gorgonian)	'AG = 0.56 ± 0.05 $\mu\text{m yr}^{-1}$ to 0.58 ± 0.08 cm yr^{-1}	Sherwood & Edinger, 2009
	AG = 1 cm yr^{-1} (rate based on optimal growth)	
<i>Chrysogorgiaagassizii</i> (gorgonian)	Small colonies: TL = 25-29 cm AG = 3.9 ± 0.2 cm yr^{-1} EA = 7.1-0.7 yr	Vinogradov, 2000
	Medium colonies: TL = 97-130 cm AG = 6.1 ± 0.3 cm yr^{-1} EA = 19.3 ± 0.5 yrs	
	Large colonies: TL = 152-167 cm AG = 3.6 ± 0.1 cm yr^{-1} EA = 44.3 ± 2.0 yr	
<i>Halpteria willemoesi</i> (sea pen)	RG = 33 ± 11 to 66 ± 11 $\mu\text{m yr}^{-1}$	Sherwood & Edinger, 2009
	'AG = 1.22 ± 1.48 to 1.36 ± 0.20 cm yr^{-1}	
	'EA = 55 ± 8 to 82 ± 31 yr	
<i>Siauropalhesarctica</i> (antipatharian)	RG = 0.0145 mm yr^{-1}	Sherwood & Edinger, 2009
	EA = 200 yr (Florida, USA)	
	RG < 10 $\mu\text{m yr}^{-1}$	

Investigations into the histology of soft corals indicated that they too may exhibit slow growth rates especially in early stages of recruitment (Cordes et al., 2001; Sun et al., 2010). For example, newly settled *Drifa* sp. reached only 5 mm linear length in 7 months, while *Duva florida* exhibited no branching of polyps in 11 months, and *Gersemia fruticosareachedonly* 10 mm linear length in 7 months (Sun et al., 2010)

1.1.5 Reproduction

Most knowledge of coral reproduction is from tropical species with very little known about deep-sea species. Sexual reproduction can be either hermaphroditic with male (spermatocysts) and female (oocytes) gametes located on the same colony, or gonochoristic with male and female gametes located on different colonies. Gonochoristic species, also known as unisexual, produce planula larvae which can develop from internal or external fertilization. Internal fertilization results in eggs being fertilized and developed within the maternal colony, known as brooding (Richmond & Hunter, 1990). External fertilization results in eggs being fertilized and developed within the water column, known as broadcast spawning (Richmond & Hunter, 1990).

Hermaphroditic species produce planula larvae as well, but spermatocysts and oocytes can develop on different locations within the same colony (i.e. mesentery, polyp, or colony), or may develop at different time periods within the same colony (Rinkevich & Loya, 1979). This development of gametes can occur simultaneously or sequentially with oocytes developing first followed by the development of spermatocysts (Rinkevich & Loya, 1979). Once fully developed, planula larvae are released into the water column from the parent as mature planulae (Richmond & Hunter, 1990; Fabricius & Alderslade, 2001).

In Newfoundland waters reproductive biology of four species of soft corals (nephtheids) has been investigated (Sun et al., 2010). *Drifa* sp. was found to be a hermaphroditic internal brooder. *Drifa glomerata* was found to be an internal brooder but it is undetermined whether it is gonochoristic or hermaphroditic. Method of reproduction of two other species, *D. florida* and *G. frulicosa*, was not determined (Sun et al., 2010).

Many gaps in our understanding of the general biology of deep-sea corals remain. There is little information available on age of maturity, fecundity, reproduction and recruitment, resilience and resistance to damage, and rates of recovery (Robert et al., 2009).

1.1.6 Where Do Deep-Sea Corals Live?

Deep-sea corals are usually found in areas with pronounced bathymetric relief such as deep-sea canyons, seamounts, and along the continental edge, slope and rise (Deichmann, 1936; Nesis, 1963b; Tendal, 1992; Breeze et al., 1997; Macisaac et al., 2001; Mortensen & Buhl-Mortensen, 2004; Gass & Willison, 2005; Bryan & Metaxas, 2006; Wareham & Edinger, 2007; Wareham, 2009a). In Newfoundland and Labrador, deep-sea corals can be found on the continental shelf and edge < 200 m, and on the continental slope between 200-2,000 m deep (Nesis, 1963ab; Gass & Willison, 2005; Mortensen et al., 2005; Wareham & Edinger, 2007; Wareham, 2009a), with some species documented on the continental rise at depths of 2,200 m (Baker et al., 2008).

Substrate preferences are species-specific based on availability of hard substrates as well as the physiology of individual species. Substrates can vary from abiotic (e.g. boulders, cobbles, pebbles, and mud), to biotic (e.g. other corals, bryozoans, sponges, and living gastropods), to even anthropogenic such as abandoned fishing gear, and plastics (Wareham & Edinger, 2007; Baker et al., 2008).



ROPOS DiveR 1072). Other corals such as solitary scleractinian cup corals (e.g. *Flabellum* spp.) simply recline on the sea floor (Fig. 1.3) with no attachment or anchored appendage (Mortensen et al., 2006; Wareham & Edinger, 2007; Baker et al., 2008)



Figure 1.2. Photo of several gorgonian corals with calcified holdfasts: (left) *Acanella arbuscula*, and (right) *Radicipes gracilis*. Photos courtesy of DFO Canada



Figure 1.3. Photo of several solitary scleractinian cup corals: (left) *Flabellum macandrewii* (Gray, 1849) taken at 361 m in Desbarres Canyon, and (right) *Flabellum alabastrum* (Mosley 1876) taken at 946 m in Halibut Channel. Photos courtesy of DFO

Most corals in Newfoundland and Labrador waters were found at depths greater than 200 m (see Chapter 2, Table 2.1). It has been postulated that this possible restriction to deeper water may be due to several environmental factors such as strong currents along the edge of the continental slope, suitable substrates, and constant temperature ranges

Most corals dependent on ocean currents and other oceanographic processes (e.g. upwelling, and gyres) to deliver particulate organic matter suspended in the water column (Moore & Bullis, 1960; Tendal, 1992; Bryan & Metaxas, 2007), and winnow away fine sediments (Wainwright & Dillon, 1969). Most species need suitable hard substrates for attachment (Mortensen & Buhl-Mortensen, 2005). On the Scotian Shelf, deep-sea corals prefer temperatures that range between 3.5-13°C with high temperatures most likely limiting distribution (Mortensen et al., 2006), although it has been found that some species of soft corals can tolerate temperatures as low as -1°C (Cimberget al., 1981; Freiwald, 2002). However, the general distribution (i.e. on banks vs. edge and slope) of deep-sea corals in the Newfoundland and Labrador region may be limited largely by cold water temperatures. The cold intermediate layer is a function of the Labrador Current and brings sub-zero waters to the Newfoundland and Labrador Shelves down to 200 m (Dunbar, 1965; Petrie et al., 1992). As a result, this may restrict distributions to deeper waters on the continental slope where temperatures are more stable and often warmer, compared to bank tops where temperatures can fluctuate (Nesio 1963b). Some gorgonians in the Newfoundland and Labrador region, like *Primnoa resedaeformis* have been found as shallow as 162 m on Saglek Bank off northern Labrador (Wareham & Edinger, 2007). This area in particular is known for strong currents which drain from Arctic waters via the Hudson Strait and Davis Strait (Piper, 2005). Such large influxes of cold water not only provide suitable substrates but deliver food and oxygen as well. More importantly, they maintain a constant temperature of cold water at much shallower depths than other areas within the region.

Bryan and Metaxas (2006) observed that *Primnoa resedaeformis* and *Paragorgia*

where optimal water temperatures ranged 5.1 - 9.0 °C, along with other environmental

factors. Other studies from the Scotian Shelf suggest that high temperatures are a limiting factor for deep-sea coral distributions (Mortensen et al., 2006). However, both studies may not fit the Newfoundland and Labrador region where low temperatures are more likely to be a limiting factor for coral distributions, particularly on bank tops < 200 m; Edinger et al., 2007b)

There is an on-going debate over the relative importance of substrate versus oceanographic influences (e.g. current strength, temperature) in governing the distributions of deep-sea corals (Nesis, 1963b; Bryan & Metaxas, 2006; Mortensen et al., 2006). Cinberg et al. (1981) used annual mean temperature and substrate as predictors of coral distributions. Nesis (1963b) linked a change in sea temperature with changes in species assemblages, while Mortensen et al. (2006) found that substrate and temperature are the most important variables influencing corals distributions. To what degree specific environmental factors such as temperature, slope, substrate, salinity, and chlorophyll *a* influence the presence or absence of corals is not truly understood. Bryan and Metaxas (2007) used known coral locations and several environmental parameters to develop a predictive model for coral distribution. However, the inappropriate bathymetric scale used in their model precluded definitive conclusions (Etnoyer & Morgan, 2007). As more environmental information becomes available and better predictive models are developed, key factors influencing the distribution of corals can be incorporated into predictive models and tested in terms of their relative

1.1.7 Ecological Importance

Deep-sea corals not only live in benthic ecosystems, they are important functional components of these ecosystems. Their presence provides structure, adds structural and

biological complexity to the deep-sea, and create micro-habitats for other species (Auster et al., 2005; Buhl-Mortensen & Mortensen, 2005; Auster, 2007; Etnoyer & Warrenchuk, 2007; Moore et al., 2008; Baker et al., 2008). Species like *Paragorgia arborea* are considered to be one of the most important habitat-forming deep-sea coral species because of its large size, reaching up to 30 m in height off eastern Canada (Mortensen & Buhl-Mortensen, 2005) and up to 10 m off New Zealand (Smith, 2001). Dense concentrations of corals have been referred to as 'coral-gardens' off the Aleutian Islands (Cimber et al., 1981; Krieger & Wing, 2002; Stone, 2006), 'gorgonian forests' on the Scotian Shelf (Lees, 2002; Mortensen & Buhl-Mortensen, 2005), and 'sea pen fields' off Newfoundland and Labrador (Wareham, 2009a). 'Gardens', 'forests', and 'fields' refer to large concentrations of corals with high species diversity or biomass abundance (Breeze et al., 1997; Watling & Norse, 1998; Kreiger, 2001; Lees, 2002; Freiwald et al., 2004; Mortensen & Buhl-Mortensen, 2005). High by-catch rates and fisheries observer photos indicate 'gorgonian forests' may exist off Cape Chidley, Labrador in close proximity to Hatton Basin (Macisaac et al., 2001; Gass & Willison, 2005; Wareham & Edinger, 2007; Wareham, 2009a; Wareham et al., 2010; Fig. 1.4)



Figure 1.4. Photos of coral by-catch from the Hatton Basin area: (left) *Primnoa resedaeformis* entangled in a trawl net in 2007, (right) *Paragorgia arborea* from the Northern Shrimp Survey in 2006. Photos courtesy of DFO Canada.

Fish utilization of such 'forests' as well as other coral habitats is analogous to the interaction between trees and birds. The physical structure (=corallum) of a large gorgonian coral can dissipate energy from localized near-bottom currents (Zedel & Fowler, 2009), providing rest areas for smaller marine life (Auster et al., 2005; Costello et al., 2005). Corals also create forage areas, act as barriers between predator and prey and provide safe havens for juveniles and egg masses (Etnoyer & Warrenchuk, 2007b; Moore et al., 2008; Roberts et al., 2009). *In situ* examples of coral-structured habitats from the southwest Grand Banks are illustrated in Figure 1.5.

When groundfish diversity and abundance were compared with deep-sea coral distributions off Newfoundland and Labrador, weak but statistically significant correlations indicate groundfish utilize some corals, but relationships may not be obligate (Edinger et al., 2007b). Results may be skewed by the large scale of the study area

combined with relatively small dataset (2 years). Other studies have shown stronger results due to direct observations using gillnets (Husebø et al., 2002) and video observations (Auster et al., 2005; Costello et al., 2005; Mortensen et al., 2005)

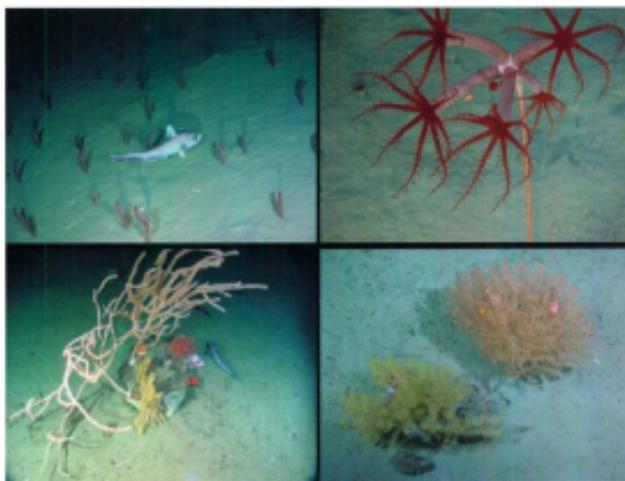


Figure 1.5. Photos of *in situ* coral habitats documented on the Southwest Grand Banks (top left) grenadier swimming within a *Pennatulacea* penfield in Desbarres Canyon at 900 m; (top right) close-up of *Umbellula encrinurus* (Linnaeus, 1758) colony in Desbarres Canyon at 1657m. Note the small mysids hovering between the polyps; (bottom right) *Acanthogorgia armata* colony with a shrimp resting within an *Acanella arborea* colony; (bottom left) redfish and spotted wolfish, listed as threatened (COSEWIC, 2001) resting around a small boulder covered with corals, including: *Keratoisornata*, *Anthomastus* spp., *Acanthogorgia armata* (Verrill, 1878), nephtheids, and sponges. Note initial curled around the base of the *K. ornata* colony. Photos courtesy of DFO Canada

1.2.1 Bottom Fishing Practices

There are many anthropogenic threats to corals but the most prevalent are bottom fishing practices and fishing gear that come in contact with the sea floor (Probert, 1997; Watling & Norse, 1998; Fossa et al., 2001; Hall-Spenser et al., 2002; Grehan et al.,

following section will describe bottom fishing gear types used in the Newfoundland and Labrador region and discuss how each impacts deep-sea corals. Other threats are discussed as well, but to a lesser degree.

Bottom fishing gear can be divided into mobile and fixed-gear classes. Mobile fisheries actively pursue the target species and can involve trawling, dredging, or seining (Figs 1.6 & 1.7). Fixed gear fisheries use a sit-and-wait strategy, where the gear is positioned in one location with the purpose of entanglement, entrapment, or hooking the target species. Deep water fixed gear fisheries in Newfoundland and Labrador use eel traps, longlines, and gillnets (Figs. 1.9-1.11)

Trawling, also referred to as dragging, is the most widely-used fishing method in the northwest Atlantic (Fuller et al., 2008). There are several types of trawls used in the Newfoundland and Labrador region; otter (Fig. 1.6), twin (Fig. 1.7), triple, and shrimp. Trawling involves the dragging of a large net across the sea floor. The mouth of the net is held open by the forward motion of the vessel combined with the spreading action of the trawl doors as well as floats positioned along the headline (Fig. 1.7). While the basic principle of trawling has not changed since its inception in the 14th century (March,

1953), technological advances have improved catch efficiency and adaptability of trawls to operate in a variety of habitats

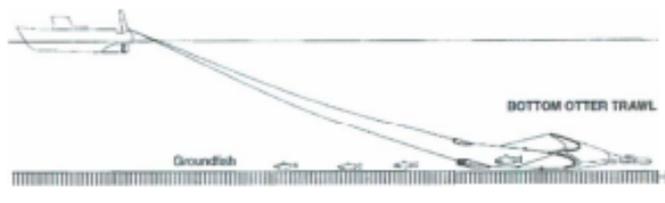


Figure 1.6. Illustration of an otter trawl used in the Newfoundland and Labrador region (DFO, 1997)

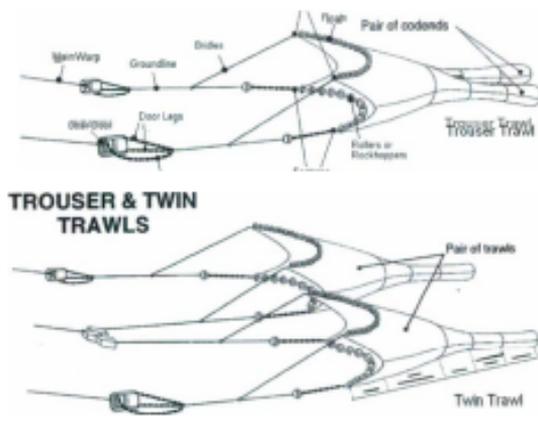
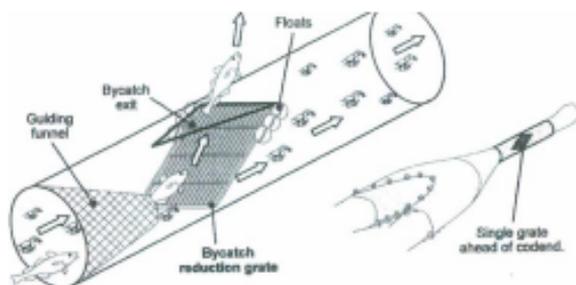


Figure 1.7. Illustration of trouser trawl, twin trawl, and components used in the Newfoundland and Labrador region (DFO, 1997)



SEPARATOR GRATE SYSTEMS

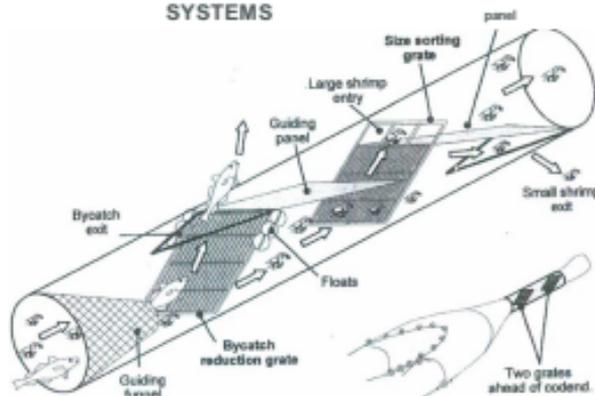


Figure 1.8. Illustrations of separator grates and components (DFO, 1997)

Trawling has been compared to ploughing a field or clear-cutting a forest (Watling & Norse, 1998; Anderson & Clark, 2003). Once trawled impacted areas becomes more homogeneous through mortalities and removal of biotic components such as large benthic megafauna (e.g. corals, hydroids, sponges). Trawling also alters abiotic

components such as boulders, sand and mud-dominated environments (Auster & Langton, 1999; Hall-Spenser, 2002; Mortensen et al., 2005; Edinger et al., 2007a). Trawl doors can weigh in excess of one ton each and create deep furrows in soft substrates as they are dragged during normal use (Roberts, 2002; Watling, 2005). It has been shown that trawl doors can impact and destroy certain infaunal taxa (Gilkinson et al., 1998). Experimental studies carried out in eastern Canada have shown that the combined effects of trawling can cause damage and mortality to epifauna and infauna (Prena et al., 1999; Kenchington et al., 2001; Gordon et al., 2003) and change sediment structural properties (Schwinghamer et al., 1998).

Commercial trawling is carried out on a large spatial scale with preferred fishing areas repeatedly fished as seen on the Grand Banks of Newfoundland (Kulka & Pitcher, 2002; DFO, 2006). Individual tows can be conducted over 1-10 hrs. The overall footprint can be vast, particularly on an accumulative basis. However, the degree of impact will vary depending on the biota present in the area being trawled. For example, in structurally complex coral habitats, the initial pass is the most damaging (Kriger & Wing, 2002; Anderson & Clarke, 2003; Rice, 2006) resulting in large quantities of coral by-catch (Probert et al., 1997; Kreiger, 2001).

Other mobile gear types such as dredges can have similar effects on the sea floor as trawling. Dredges target soft sediment habitats and can damage infaunal communities (Gilkinson et al., 2003) as well as megafauna communities (Veale et al., 2000; Thrush & Dayton, 2002).

Fixed gear fisheries (e.g. crab pots, gillnets, longlines) have also been shown to capture and damage deep-sea corals (Husebø et al., 2002; Mortensen et al., 2005; Wareham &

Edinger, 2007). Although fixed gears are stationary, spatial coverage can still be significant because these gears are often linked. In the Newfoundland and Labrador region, crab pots are linked together as a string of baited traps, called 'strings' or 'fleets', with up to 50 pots per fleet (Fig. 1.9). Impacts occur when the fleet is retrieved, causing the crab pots to be dragged across the sea floor where they can ensnare and entangle

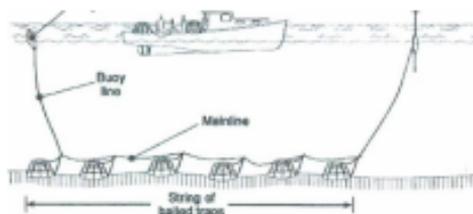


Figure 1.9. Illustration of crab pot gear configuration used in the Newfoundland and Labrador region (DFO, 1997)

Bottom gillnets operate under the same principle, and can be comprised of many panels (91.6 m per panel) strung together with up to 70 panels per fishing set (Benjamin et al., 2008). How the net is positioned in the water column depends on the targeted species. For semi-pelagic fishes, the gillnet hangs in the water column like a giant wall near the sea floor (Fig. 1.10). The top of each gillnet panel is outfitted with floats (float line) and the bottom with lead-rope (lead line). In Newfoundland and Labrador groundfish fisheries, some fishers set bottom gillnets with no floats, which allows the panels to bunch together vertically for purposes of entangling the target species (W. DeGruchy, SeaWatch Ltd., personal communication, Sept. 5, 2007)-this method is not illustrated in Figure 1.10. Regardless of how the net is positioned, gillnets have been shown to

capture and damage corals (Mortensen et al., 2005; Gass & Willison, 2005; Wareham & Edinger, 2007)

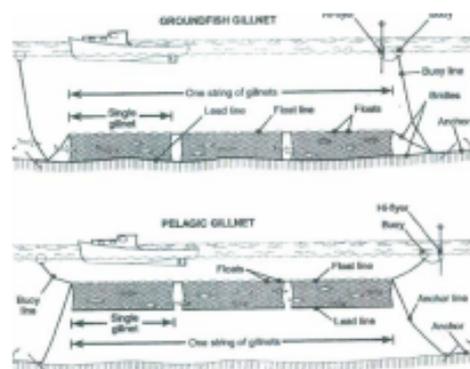


Figure 1.10. Illustrations of gillnet configurations and components (DFO, 1997)

Longline is another type of fixed gear used to target either pelagic or benthic species. Bottom longlines are set on the sea floor with a mainline consisting of hundreds of baited hooks, called gangions. Each end of the mainline is anchored to the bottom, and marked at the surface with buoys and 'hi-fyers' (Fig. 1.11). As a longline is retrieved the mainline becomes taut creating a 'clothes-line' effect across the bottom. Corals in the path of the longline will most likely be tilted, entangled, removed, or damaged during the retrieval process (Mortensen et al., 2005). This is particularly significant for large gorgonian coral that need to maintain an upright position. If a colony is damaged (e.g. branches severed) it may become more susceptible to parasitic organisms such as hydroids, or

colonial sea anemones (Fig. 1.12), which has been observed in Atlantic Canada (Mortensen et al., 2005; Wareham & Edinger, 2007)

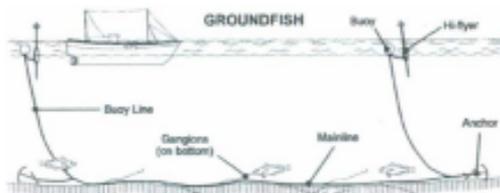


Figure 1.11. Illustration of longline gear configuration and components (DFO, 1997)



Figure 1.12. Photo of *Primnoa sedaeformis* skeleton encrusted with colonial sea anemones, hydroids and other organisms

It was surprising to find how frequently corals were captured by fixed gears in the Newfoundland and Labrador region (Wareham & Edinger, 2007). This is most likely due to a higher catchability of corals in certain areas that are targeted by fixed gear fishers. Fixed gear fisheries operating on the southwest Grand Bank target areas that are considered 'untrawlable' such as steep canyon walls and areas with rocky substrates. These areas have not been impacted to the same degree as 'trawlable' areas, and as a result, will most likely have a greater abundance of corals and a greater chance of catching them.

While both mobile and fixed bottom gears catch corals, the impacts of trawling pose the

benthic populations, community structure, and habitats by removing large megafauna and altering physical components resulting in a loss of biodiversity and habitat complexity on a large scale (DFO, 2006).

In addition to bottom fishing practices, there are other threats to deep-sea corals, including: hydrocarbon exploration, bio-prospecting, scientific research surveys, ocean acidification, submarine cables, and aquaculture activities.

1.2.2.1 Hydrocarbon Exploration

Hydrocarbon exploration has expanded since the 1980's in the Newfoundland and Labrador region with three production fields operating on Grand Bank; Hibernia (1979), Terra Nova (1984), and White Rose (1984) oil exploration platforms (see oil fields in Fig 1.1). Exploration continues to expand with several projects under development.

(Hebron/Ben Nevis, White Rose Extensions, Hibernia South Extensions and Garden Hill South; Newfoundland and Labrador, 2010). Hydrocarbon exploration is considered a threat to deep-sea corals through the discarding of fine drill mud, a by-product of the drilling process (Raimondi et al., 1997; Colman et al., 2005). These muds can accumulate near the platform or be transported further away (e.g. up to 1 km) before settling (Neff, 1987) and are considered detrimental to suspension-feeders like corals because it can accumulate on polyps and inhibit feeding (Dodge et al., 1974; Dodge & Vaisnys, 1977; Dodge & Lang, 1983). While most research has been carried out on tropical corals, more recently *Lophelia pertusa* has been observed growing on oil platforms in the North Sea (Bell & Smith, 1999; Roberts, 2002; Gass & Roberts, 2006), which would indicate that some species tolerate some degree of exposure to drill muds. However, the North Sea platforms were not fixed to the ocean floor, therefore, colonies were most likely isolated from drill cuttings which would have accumulated on the sea floor. On the other hand, platforms like Hibernia are fixed to the sea floor, therefore may impact soft corals which are found on Grand Bank in the vicinity of the oil fields (Wareham & Edinger, 2007). The long-term effect of discarded drill cuttings on corals is

1.2.2.2 Bio-prospecting

Bio-prospecting is the harvesting of biological organisms for scientific and commercial purposes with the latter including; production of pharmaceutical drugs (e.g. anti-cancer), cosmetics (e.g. face creams), nutritional supplements (S. Pomponi, Florida Atlantic University, personal communication, Dec. 5, 2005), and materials used in bone reconstruction (Ehrlich et al., 2006). Bio-prospecting poses a threat to deep-sea corals because it physically removes whole or parts of coral colonies from the sea floor: but more importantly there are no legal management regimes in place to regulate or police it

in the deep-sea. Currently, there is no official bio-prospecting occurring within the Newfoundland and Labrador region, which I am aware of

1.2.2.3 Research Surveys

A less-recognized threat to deep-sea corals is the destructive nature of bottom trawls, and dredges (Jennings & Kaiser, 1998) currently being used by DFO multispecies surveys. Duration of scientific trawls is relatively short (15 minutes) compared to commercial trawl sets (1-10 hrs) but continue to impact benthic environments. Modern soft-touch exploration technologies are available such as ROVs and have been used in Canada (Haedrich & Gagnon, 1991; Mortensen et al., 2000; Wareham, 2009a). Unfortunately, soft-touch research tools are costly (i.e. operational costs, expertise), and funds are not readily available.

Department of Fisheries and Oceans Science Branches in Atlantic Canada have funded and continue to fund unique research opportunities utilizing a specialized deep-sea ROV, called Remotely Operated Platform for Ocean Science (ROPOS). Carrying out such scientific endeavours takes years to plan, but the outcomes are beneficial, with the ability to carry out diverse research in a variety of habitats in the deep-sea (Baker et al.,

1.2.2.4 Climate Change

Climate change includes global warming and ocean acidification. Global warming is caused by greenhouse gases released into the atmosphere. These gasses create a blanket effect, which cause global surface temperatures to rise including mean-sea temperatures. Tropical corals are affected when sea temperatures rise to a point at which algae die off or 'bail out' from their coral host; this is known as coral bleaching. In

the absence of the algae, corals are no longer able to sustain themselves resulting in the eventual death of the coral colony (see Wilkinson, 2000). For deep-sea corals that require stable temperatures within specific ranges, even a slight change in temperature at depth could pose a serious threat. It has been shown that such changes have begun and temperatures have risen at depths down to 700 m (Barnett et al., 2005). Tolerances of deep-sea corals to such temperature fluctuations are unknown.

Ocean acidification is another threat to calcareous marine organisms such as corals (Guinotte et al., 2006; Turley et al., 2007). It is triggered by the release of fossil fuel by-products (e.g. CO_2 , SO_2 and NO_x) and volcanic ash (CO_2) into the atmosphere, which bond with water particles to form carbonic acid (H_2CO_3), sulphuric acid (H_2SO_4) and nitric acid (HNO_3). These acids eventually precipitate out into the ocean causing pH levels to decrease and acidity to increase. Ocean acidity has already increased approximately 30% since the Industrial Revolution as a result of anthropogenic carbon released into the atmosphere (Caldeira & Wickett, 2003; Feely et al., 2008). A decrease in pH causes calcareous skeletons to erode and weaken, and as a result compromises the integrity of these structures (Feely et al., 2004; Orr et al., 2005; Hall-Spencer et al., 2008).

Composition by decreasing the occurrence of calcareous organisms like scleractinian corals and increasing sea-grass production (Hall-Spencer et al., 2008). If ocean acidification continues or is the long-term consequences; though unknown, are likely to amplify physiological stress's on deep-sea corals with similar effects as seen in shallow

Submarine cables are used for telecommunication purposes and are spread worldwide

a threat to deep-sea corals because of the direct damage caused during cable laying operations. However, few peer-reviewed scientific studies have been written to determine the degree of impact these cables have on the deep-sea. One study has shown that submarine cables have a minor effect on deep-sea organisms and can provide a suitable hard substrate for attachment for some species such as sea anemones and soft corals (Koganezawa et al., 2006). Most old cables are heavily colonized by sessile invertebrates and may be considered positive (Duncan, 1877; Wilson, 1979). Other studies are needed to determine how submarine cables impact other species of

1.2.2.6 Aquaculture

Newfoundland aquaculture operations use open-pen systems and are primarily based in Notre Dame Bay, Bay d'Espoir and Fortune Bay (Fisheries and Aquaculture Newfoundland and Labrador, 2009). The aquaculture industry is expanding in Newfoundland and Labrador Region (e.g. salmon, shellfish) and may be a potential

Newfoundland fiords (Haedrich & Gagnon, 1991). Aquaculture operations can impact benthic marine environments in several ways, from the pollution released into the sea as organic waste (Grant & Briggs, 1998; Ackefors & Enell, 1990; Hargrave et al., 1993), to the antifouling agents used on the cages which can leach toxic chemicals into the sea (Katranitsas et al., 2003). Accumulation of organic waste (e.g. fecal waste, and unconsumed medicated feed pellets) directly below the pen can create anoxic

conditions, and as a result reduce species diversity and biomass of benthic macrofauna (Ritz et al., 1989; Weston, 1990). Unconsumed medicated feed pellets can be hazardous as well when consumed by other benthic organisms (Grant & Briggs, 1998). Aquaculture in this region impacts primarily shallow coastal waters; therefore it is only considered a threat to soft corals that are found in close proximity to the aquaculture

Historically, deep-sea coral distributions in the northwest Atlantic were documented in the 1800s at the time of the *Blake* (Agassiz, 1888), *Challenger* (Moseley, 1881), *Albatross* (Verrill, 1885), and *Prince Albert of Monaco* (Jourdan, 1895) expeditions. The *Blake* expedition surveyed the northeast United States, while the *Challenger* and *Albatross* expeditions surveyed as far north as the Scotian Shelf (Verrill, 1885; Agassiz, 1888). Only the *Prince Albert of Monaco* expedition (1887) sampled off Newfoundland (Jourdan, 1895). During this expedition benthic samples were taken at two locations on

documented at a depth of 1267 m: *Caryophyllia communis*, *Vaughanella margaritata* (Jourdan, 1895), *F. abastrum*, *Anthomastus agaricus* (= *A. grandiflorus*?), *Acanella normani* (= *A. arbuscula*?). At Station 162 (46°50'6" N, 50°11'45" W) one scleractinian species, *Desmophyllum dianthus*, was recorded at a depth of 1155 m (Jourdan, 1895).

Refer to Figure 1.1 for map illustrating bathymetric features

On the Scotian Shelf off Banquereau Bank significant coral concentrations were noted by Captain Collins (1884), a prominent fishing skipper. He would name the area 'The

In the early 1900s, the *Godthaab Expedition* (Kramp, 1942) documented alcyonarians, antipatharians, pennatulaceans, and scleractinians in the Labrador Sea-Baffin Basin area from 54°00' N - 79°00' N. Most species were documented off southwest Greenland, with some species from Baffin Bay (e.g. sea pens and soft corals), and one soft coral was documented in the vicinity of Harrison Bank, off central Labrador (see Kamp, 1932)

Pax (1932) mapped five occurrences of *Stauropathes arctica* (*Bathypathes*); one south

During the 1950s, corals were documented at several localities on the Grand Banks by a group of Russian scientists (Litvin & Rvachev, 1963; Nesis, 1963a; Nesis, 1963b). The first study generated maps of seabed topography and substrates of the Newfoundland-Labrador fishing areas (Litvin & Rvachev, 1963). Results mapped corals at the Stone Flemish Cap, and southwest Beothuck Knoll (see Litvin & Rvachev, 1963)

The second study of the Russian expedition mapped the bathyal amphiboreal fauna of the Newfoundland-Labrador fishing area (Nesis, 1963a). Amphiboreal fauna are defined as species found in the Pacific and Atlantic boreal regions but not in the Arctic. Three deep-sea coral species were documented along the continental shelf break off Newfoundland and Labrador, with other records from the Flemish Cap. Three species were documented; two large gorgonians (i.e. *Paragorgia borea*, *Primnoa resedaeformis*), and one large sea pen (i.e. *Halipteris finmarchica*). *Paragorgia borea* were mapped off Hawke Saddle, nose of the Grand Bank, Flemish Cap, and mouth of

Channel and on the southwest part of Flemish Cap. *Halopteris finmarchica* were documented on Flemish Cap, and on the southwest Grand Banks near Desbarres Canyon (see Nesis, 1963a). Samples consisted of by-catch from commercial trawls (n=539), Sigsbitrawls (n=99) and bottom grabs (n=164) from Atlantic Canada (Nesis,

The final study of the Russian expedition (Nesis, 1963b) produced maps of the benthos of the Newfoundland-Labrador fishing area. *Paragorgia arborea* and *P. resedaeformis* were documented between 300-500 m on the northern part of "Grand Newfoundland Bank" and the adjacent shelf break and slope. Many species of pennatulaceans (i.e. *Anthoptilum grandiflorum* Verrill, 187g; *Pennatula aculeata* Danielssen, 1860; and *P. grandis* Ehrenberg, 1834) and one scleractinian cup coral (i.e. *F. alabastrum*) were documented between 250-500 m in Laurentian Channel. Sea pens (i.e. *Halopteris finmarchica* [= *Pavonaria*] Sars, 1851; and *A. grandiflorum*), gorgonians (i.e. *P. arborea*, *K. ornata* [= *Ceratoisis*], and *R. gracilis*), cerianthipatharians (i.e. *S. arctica* [= *Bathypathes*]), and hexacorals (i.e. *F. alabastrum*) were documented between 300-350 m on the Flemish Cap, break and slope (Nesis, 1963b)

In more recent years Tendal (1992) mapped new and existing records of *P. arborea* in the North Atlantic. Two new records were mapped on continental edge of Grand Bank, 14 on the Scotian Shelf, and 12 along the coast of Norway. Existing distributions were mapped off the southwestern (n=7) and southern (n=4) portions of Greenland, as well as along the Reykjanes Ridge (n=2), Faeroe Islands (n=5), and Norway (n=1; Tendal, 1992). Over a decade later, Tendal (2004) mapped the distribution of *Stauropathes arctica* (= *Bathypathes*), an antipatharian coral found off southwest Greenland adjacent to southeast Baffin Island, Canada. In total, he mapped 18 known occurrences; off

In Canada, advocacy for deep-sea coral protection began in the 1990s in southern Nova Scotia when two local longline fishermen, Sanford Atwood and Derek Jones, rallied to protect corals in an area known as 'Hell Hole', located between Browns Bank, in Canadian waters and Georges Bank, in United States waters (Breeze et al., 1997; Lees, 2002). It was known as an excellent fishing area with large underwater 'trees' and 'strawberry fields', later identified as gorgonians and soft corals. Together, the two fishermen formed the Canadian Ocean Habitat Protection Society, the first non-profit organization dedicated to conserving corals in Canada. Subsequently, they joined a team of scientists equipped with a ROV, leading the research team to the location of the first documented coral gardens in Canada (Lee, 2002)

Breeze et al. (1997) documented local fishers' knowledge on coral occurrences on the Scotian Shelf, along with distribution information from museum and scientific collections. This information was compiled into the first map of coral distributions in Canada. Majority of coral occurrences were mapped along the edge and slope of the Scotian Shelf extending from Georges Bank to the Laurentian Channel

Macisaac et al. (2001) mapped the approximate locations of coral by-catch from opportunistic benthic surveys and experimental sites, as well as data collected from groundfish trawl surveys. Data was gathered primarily from the Scotian Shelf with sporadic occurrences mapped on the edge and slope of the Labrador Shelf (i.e. Saglek Bank, Okak Bank), Funk Island Bank, and on the nose of Grand Bank

Gass (2002) mapped coral distributions in the northwest Atlantic using data from DFO research surveys, fisheries observers and Local Ecological Knowledge (LEK) from Nova Scotia and Newfoundland and Labrador fishermen. The majority of her findings were from the Scotian Shelf, with significant contributions from Newfoundland and Labrador

region (Gass & Willison, 2005). Coral occurrences were mapped along the edge and slope of the continental shelf extending from Davis Strait to the southeast Baffin Island, along the Labrador Shelf (i.e. Saglek Bank, Okak Bank, Makkovik Bank, Hamilton Bank), Northeast Newfoundland Shelf (i.e. Belle Isle Bank, Orphan Spur, Tobin's Point), Grand Banks (i.e. nose, tail, southwest Grand Banks, Halibut and Haddock Channels), and Scotian Shelf (e.g. Stone Fence, The Gully, Misaine Holes, Northeast Channel, Jordan Basin). Wareham and Edinger (2007) used a similar methodology. However, a more systematic approach was used and more complete fisheries observer data was available, resulting in a greater number of samples collected and used in this thesis (see Wareham & Edinger, 2007; Wareham, 2009a)

Mortensen et al. (2006) mapped the distribution of deep-water corals in Atlantic Canada using overlapping data sources similar to Gass and Willison (2005) but added; video surveys (see Mortensen et al., 2006), distribution data from previous studies (Gass, 2002), data from literature sources (i.e. Zibrowius, 1980; Kramp, 1942; Madsen, 1994) and museum collections (e.g. Smithsonian, Atlantic Reference Centre, Nova Scotia Natural History Museums). The majority of occurrences were mapped on the Scotian Shelf with sporadic occurrences from Newfoundland, Labrador, and southeast Baffin

Deep-sea corals are long-lived, slow-growing animals (Roark et al., 2006). The largest species resemble underwater trees that can reach heights of several metres (Mortensen & Buhl-Mortensen, 2005). Fish utilize large corals as well as other coral habitats as feeding areas, rest areas, juvenile fish habitats, and refuges from predation (Auster, 2005; Costello et al., 2005). In Newfoundland and Labrador, deep-sea corals are

primarily found in areas of steep bathymetric relief primarily on the edge and slope of the continental shelf at depths > 200m (Nesis, 1963ab; Gass & Willison, 2005; Mortensen et al., 2005; Wareham & Edinger, 2007; Wareham, 2009a). A suite of environmental variables influence coral distributions: temperature, strong currents, and suitable substrates (Nesis, 1963b; Cinber et al., 1981; Bryan & Metaxas, 2006; Mortensen et al., 2006). Many questions still remain unanswered concerning the relative importance of

Deep-sea corals are ecologically important because they create habitats for other marine organisms as large individuals or as large concentrations (Auster et al., 2005; Buhl-Mortensen & Mortensen, 2005; Auster, 2007; Etnoyer & Warrenchuk, 2007; Moore et al., 2008; Baker et al., 2008). While there are numerous threats to deep-sea corals, the impact of bottom fishing gears, particularly trawling, is considered to be the greatest threat (Probert, 1997; Watling & Norse, 1998; Fossa et al., 2001; Hall-Spenser et al., 2005; Stone, 2006). However, changes in oceanic systems from global warming and ocean acidification are now being documented and potentially have significant consequences to corals and other marine life (Feely et al., 2004; Orret et al., 2005; Hall-

Explorations conducted in the late 1800's provided reports on deep-sea coral distributions in the northwest Atlantic. Observation advQcacy by local fishers from Nova Scotia provided the impetus for scientific studies of corals (Lee S, 2002), leading to well-studied distributions on the Scotian Shelf (Breeze et al., 1997; MacIsaac et al., 2001; Gass & Willison, 2005). A significant outcome of this research has been the establishment of three important areas for deep-sea coral protection; *The Gully Marine Protected Area* (DFO, 2004a), *Northeast Channel Coral Conservation Area* (DFO,

2002), and *Lophelia* (Stone Fence) Coral Conservation Area (DFO, 2004b). These protection zones will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4

In the case of Newfoundland and Labrador region, distributions of deep-sea corals have been documented by early exploratory expeditions (1800's), and by preceding studies (1963-2006). The next two chapters present geographic and bathymetric distributions (2003-2007) of deep-sea corals within the northwest Atlantic focusing on Newfoundland,

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2 DISTRIBUTION OF DEEP-SEA CORALS IN THE NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR REGION, NORTHWEST ATLANTIC OCEAN

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Deep-sea corals were mapped using incidental by-catch samples from stock assessment surveys and fisheries observations. Thirteen alcyonaceans, two antipatharians, four solitary scleractinians, and 11 pennatulaceans were recorded. Corals were broadly distributed along the continental shelf edge and slope, with most species found deeper than 200 m; only nephtheid soft corals were found on the shelf. Large branching corals with robust skeletons included *Paragorgia borealis* (L., 1758), *Primnoa sedaeformis* (Gunnerus, 1763), *Keratoisisornata* (Verrill, 1878), *Acanthogorgia armata* (Verrill, 1878), *Paramuricea* spp., and two antipatharians. Coral distributions were highly clustered, with most co-occurring with other species. Scientific survey data delineated two broad coral species richness hotspots: southwest Grand Bank (16 spp.) and an area of the Labrador slope between Makkovik Bank and Belle Isle Bank (14 spp.). Fisheries observations indicated abundant and diverse corals off southeast Baffin Island, Cape Chidley, Labrador, Tobin's Point, and the Flemish Cap. Corals on the Flemish Cap comprised exclusively soft coral, sea pens, and solitary scleractinians. Most coral-rich areas were suggested in earlier research based on stock

assessment surveys or Local Environmental Knowledge (LEK). Currently there are no

Deep-sea corals can be found worldwide (Freiwald & Roberts, 2005), but until recently data on their distributions in the Atlantic Ocean were limited (Collins, 1884; Deichmann, al., 2001; Gass & Willson, 2005; Watling & Auster, 2005; Mortensen et al. 2006). Within the last decade, knowledge of corals in eastern Canada has increased dramatically, with attention being primarily focused on the Scotian Shelf (Breeze et al., 1997; MacIsaac et al., 2001). The continental shelf and slope of Newfoundland and Labrador have received very little attention (Nesic, 1963; Tendal, 1992; Gass & Willson, 2005). This study presents deep-sea coral distribution patterns and diversity data in an area that has, up to now, received only exploratory treatment

In Atlantic Canada deep-sea corals have been found at depths >200m primarily along the continental shelf edge and continental slope, particularly near submarine canyons or saddles where the shelf has been incised (Breeze et al., 1997; MacIsaac et al., 2001; Gass & Willson, 2005; Mortensen & Buhl-Mortensen, 2005b). Such bathymetric features are considered good habitat for corals because they are associated with strong currents that winnow away fine sediment, exposing harder substrates, and provide a reliable source of fine particulate organic matter for suspension feeding corals (Hecker et al., 1980; Harding, 1998). Conversely, increased sedimentation can be hazardous to corals, congesting polyps and inhibiting feeding processes (Hecker et al., 1980). Hard substrates are believed to be important especially to larger gorgonian corals such as *P. resedaeformis* and *P. arborea*; two species that are typically found attached to

al., 2006). Other corals have a calcareous holdfast for anchoring in soft sediment (e.g., *Acanella arbuscula* Johnson, 1862). Many solitary scleractinians such as *Flabellum a/bastrum* (Moseley, 1873) simply lay on the ocean floor, while others (e.g., *Desmophyllum dianthus* Esper, 1794) usually retain a holdfast.

Deep-sea corals are slow growing and long lived (Lazier et al., 1999; Andrew et al., 2002; Risk et al., 2002; Roark et al., 2005; Sherwood et al., 2006), and can reach heights up to 3 m (Miner, 1950; Tendal, 1992; Breeze et al., 1997; Mortensen & Buhl-Mortensen, 2005). Large corals increase complexity of benthic environments through their arboreal growth and robust skeletons (Krieger & Wing, 2002); in turn these structures can create habitat for other benthic organisms during some stages of their life history (Ausler, 2005). Large sessile organisms, however, are more susceptible to anthropogenic disturbances, especially fishing gear in contact with the ocean floor (Waring & Norse, 1998; Krieger, 2001; Fossae et al., 2002; Hall-Spencer et al., 2002; Thrush & Dayton, 2002; Anderson & Clark, 2003). The Northeast Newfoundland Shelf, southern Labrador trawling, (Kulka & Pöcher, 2002). As shelf stocks were depleted, fishing effort shifted to deeper waters on the slope, with potentially severe consequences for deep-water ecosystems (Koslow et al., 2000).

The goal of this chapter is to map the distribution and diversity of deep-sea corals off the coast of Newfoundland, Labrador, and southeast Baffin Island using incidental by-catch from scientific surveys and fisheries observations aboard commercial vessels. General information on the distribution patterns of deep-sea corals and their diversity in the region is limited, and the extent to which they have been impacted by fishing activities in the Newfoundland and Labrador region is unknown. This study presents distributions

and depth ranges of individual coral species and highlights areas with high diversity and

The study area in question encompasses the continental shelf and slope of the Grand Banks of Newfoundland, Northeast Newfoundland Shelf, Flemish Cap, Labrador Shelf, Davis Strait, and Baffin Basin. It is our hope that this work will add to the growing information on deep-sea corals (Cairns & Chapman, 2001; Gass & Willison, 2005; Mortensen et al., 2006) and provide necessary data to help conserve coral habitat in the

Coral data was gathered opportunistically from three sources, commencing in 2002 up to and including May 2006. The Canadian Department of Fisheries and Oceans (DFO) Multispecies Stock Assessment Surveys covered central and southern Labrador as well

Northern Shrimp Stock Assessment Survey, co-sponsored by the Northern Shrimp

Labrador. Observations from the Fisheries Observer Program (FOP) were the third source of data, and covered a broader area, extending from Baffin Basin to the Grand Banks and Flemish Cap. Each data source encompassed different management zones and incorporated slightly different sampling techniques. Therefore, each source is

2.3.1 Multispecies Stock Assessment Surveys and the Northern Shrimp survey

Department of Fisheries and Oceans multispecies stock assessment surveys (2002-2006) consisted of an annual spring and fall survey aboard the Canadian Coast Guard Ship (CCGS) *Wilfred Templeman*, and the CCGS *Teleost*. Survey tows followed a

random stratified survey design and covered NAFO (Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization) divisions 2HJ (southern Labrador), and 3KLMNOP (northeast-southern Newfoundland, and The Grand Banks) (see McCallum & Walsh, 1996). The CCGS conducted both shallow and deep water tows < 1,500 m. Research Vessels (RV) used in the study were equipped with a Campelen 1800 shrimp trawl with rockhopper footgear, tight rubber disks (102 x 35 cm diameter) with spacers along the footrope. The 16.9 m wide net had four panels constructed of polyethylene twine: wing panel 80 mm mesh size with a 12.7 mm liner in the cod end (cf. McCallum & Walsh, 1996). Tow duration was 15 min. at 3 kt (± 1 kt); average tow length was 1.4 km (0.79 n.m.), and tows were conducted along a consistent depth contour. The area swept was calculated by multiplying net wing span by tow distance for an average swept area per tow of 0.025 km² (0.0073 n.m.²). The total area that can be surveyed by DFO per year for all NAFO divisions in the region was 690,676 km². However, not all NAFO divisions were surveyed each year: divisions 2J and 3KLMNOP were surveyed in each year from 2002-2005, but not consistently; divisions 0B and 2G were surveyed in 2005; division 2H was surveyed in 2004. Each catch was sampled for fish species, and sub-sampled for invertebrate by-catch. Individual coral species were assigned a numerical code with the exception of pennatulaceans, which were grouped. All suspected corals were assigned a species code, bagged, labeled with location number, and frozen. Department of Fisheries and Oceans technicians and scientific crew were provided with coral identification guides produced by the Bedford Institute of Oceanography and the authors. Training workshops for DFO crew and fisheries observers were organized by in 2004 and 2005 by the author. All specimens were forwarded to Memorial University (MUN) and identified by the authors using gross morphology (shape, size, hardness, colour, and



Figure 2.1. Deep-sea coral specimens collected off Newfoundland, Labrador, and Baffin Island. Order Pennatulacea: A.) *Distichoptilum gracile*; B.) *Pennatulaphosphora*; C.) *Isaia pensp. 6(?)*; D.) *Pennatulasp. (?)*; E.) *Pennatula grandis*; F.) *Umbellula lindahlii*; G.) *Halpterus finnarchica*; H.) *Anthoptilum grandiflorum*; I.) *Funiculina quadrangularis*. Order Alcyonacea: J.) *Radicipes gracilis*; K.) *Acanthogorgia armata*; M.) *Acanella arbuscula*; N.) *Paramuricea sp. (?)*; P.) *Primnoa sedaeformis*; Q.) *Keratoisis ornata*; L.) *Anlhotheia grandiflora*; O.) *Paragorgia arborea*; W.) *Anthomastus grandiflorus*; X.) *Gersemia rubiformis*; Y.) *Capnella florida*. R.) Order Anlpatharia (?). Order Scleractinia S.) *Desmophyllum dianthus*; T.) *Flabellum alabastrum*; U.) *Desmosmitia Iymanii*; V.) *Vaughanella margaritata*. Note: (?) = species not confirmed

2.3.2 Fisheries Observer Program

Fisheries observers are deployed aboard Canadian and foreign fishing vessels and are responsible for monitoring compliance to fisheries regulations and for the collection of scientific and technical data related to fishing operations (Kulka & Firth, 1987). Fisheries managers and scientists use these data to manage and study fisheries. Observers are deployed in most fisheries in the region covering a broad array of depths extending from Baffin Basin to southern Newfoundland and Flemish Cap. Prior to collecting corals, all observers were equipped with the same identification guides as the RV technicians, and participated in coral identification workshops in 2004 and 2005 organized by the authors. Coral data were collected between April 2004 and May 2006. Observer coverage at sea varied between 0-100% depending on the fishery, quota allocation, gear type and NAFO division. Sampling protocol required each observer to submit at least one sample of each coral species encountered on each trip, and to record all other occurrences of each coral species on set/catch data sheets. Samples and records were tracked to assess accuracy of data from each observer. Coral distribution data from fisheries observers presented here include identified samples and records that could be compared with an identified sample previously submitted by the individual observer reporting the record. Data from fisheries observers had several limitations. First, distribution data from observers were biased by fishing effort. Second, unlike the RV surveys, observer coral data were not standardized for variations in tow length, gear type, and search time. Finally, observers may not have had sufficient search time to locate all corals within a catch, especially in high volume fisheries such as shrimp. Given these limitations, observer data were treated as presence, but not absence, of coral

2.3.3 Definition of Coral Species Richness Hotspots and Abundance Peaks

Coral species richness hotspots were identified qualitatively in the scientific survey data as areas with higher species richness per tow than surrounding sets. **Observer data** were not used to identify coral species richness hotspots, but were used to describe the range of individual species, and to characterize coral distributions in areas not covered by the scientific surveys

2.3.4 Mapping of Deep-sea Coral

Data from research surveys (Multispecies and Northern Shrimp Surveys), and samples and records from observers were combined into a **master database and mapped** in MapInfo Professional 8.0 Software. Bathymetry data was provided by General Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans (GEBCO, 2003). Distribution maps were verified visually for accuracy and crosschecked with data points plotted on Canadian Hydrographic Service bathymetry charts. Any discrepancies were investigated and adjusted appropriately

2.4.1 Multispecies stock Assessments surveys and Northern shrimp survey

Thirty-five research surveys carried out between December 2002 and January 2006 were explored: 2002(1), 2003(2), 2004(10), 2005(19), and 2006(3). Thirty-four multispecies surveys yielded 1,968 tows from NAFO divisions 2HJ and 3KLMNOP. One Northern Shrimp Survey yielded 227 tows from NAFO divisions 08 and 2G. The total area swept was 52.75 km², or approximately 0.00685% of the survey area. NAFO divisions 3Pn (2002 only) and 3Ps (2005 only) were the only divisions within the region in which surveys covered > 0.01 % of area within the time frame of this study. One area

was not adequately surveyed, a small area adjacent to Hudson Strait in the Labrador Sea (61°20'N, 63°00'W). It was excluded because of the high probability of gear damage due to rough substrates and the reported concentrations of large gorgonians (e.g., *P. arborea*, *P. resedæformis*) found in this particular area (D. Orr, DFO, personal communication, Oct. 2006). In total, 976 coral specimens were collected from 622 scientific survey sets that captured at least one coral specimen per set. See Table 2.1 for a summary of each species frequency, mean depth and range: Not a nephtheid soft corals are represented by *Capnella florida*, *Gersemia rubiformis*, and at least one other form of nephtheid, which has yet to be identified. *Paramuricea placomus* and *P. grandis* may both be represented, spicule mounts suggest presence of both species, but some specimens are not yet determined. *Stauropathes arctica* is confirmed, but the identity of a second growth form of an lipatharian assigned *Bathypathes* sp., has not yet been determined, partly due to uncertainty in the taxonomy of this group. Sea pens 4, 6, and 12 are three distinct forms yet to be identified; sea pen spp. refers to pennatulaceans too poorly preserved to be identifiable beyond order.

Order	Family	Species	RV	Coreal Frequencies (RF)	Total	RV	Mean Depth & Heights (m)	RCOF	
Alcyonacea	Alcyoniidae	<i>Capsula foeda</i> (Cass.)	264	116	37	490	444 (43 - 1404)	415 (230 - 1317)	502 (266 - 1087)
		<i>Leptotheca rubra</i>	166	31	111	308	174 (41 - 721)	266 (11 - 1248)	547 (54 - 1248)
		<i>Megotheca</i> sp.	88	3	-	91	255 (97 - 1396)	717 (399 - 1135)	-
		<i>Antromastax grandiflora</i>	43	15	1	65	913 (171 - 1434)	834 (302 - 1277)	821
		<i>Percnassa maculiflora</i>	8	6	11	25	402 (162 - 676)	559 (337 - 1157)	613 (381 - 861)
		<i>Antrochelis albiflora</i>	6	13	9	27	975 (329 - 846)	719 (448 - 1277)	481 (432 - 638)
		<i>Antrochelis grandiflora</i>	2	2	-	4	723 (528 - 916)	-	-
		<i>Antrochelis sp.</i>	2	2	16	20	368 (202 - 534)	368 (302 - 1000)	890 (483 - 1382)
		<i>Arachnospira arachnoides</i>	61	65	189	255	827 (144 - 1431)	477 (344 - 1177)	801 (502 - 1244)
		<i>Arachnospira anemala</i>	30	19	26	74	853 (171 - 1431)	919 (276 - 1261)	815 (582 - 1207)
Alcyonacea	Chrysogonidae	<i>Melobesia gracilis</i>	11	4	13	26	1052 (765 - 1337)	997 (384 - 1491)	981 (419 - 1207)
		<i>Paranuncius gracilis</i>	22	16	11	49	810 (192 - 1415)	800 (487 - 1193)	584 (482 - 771)
Alcyonacea	Sclerogonidae	<i>Staurigaster arcticus</i>	2	14	21	37	1095 (193 - 1136)	1027 (248 - 1284)	1068 (872 - 1228)
		<i>Staurigaster</i> sp.	53	18	89	141	119 (218 - 1431)	429 (333 - 1135)	833 (336 - 1300)
Scleractinia	Calypteliidae	<i>Filicium aeneum</i>	1	-	-	1	417	-	-
		<i>Leucodonta juncata</i>	1	2	-	3	-	-	-
		<i>Unguisia marginata</i>	1	3	-	4	1320	881 (713 - 1091)	-
		<i>Unguisia formosa</i>	25	11	-	36	148 (113 - 1431)	745 (344 - 1252)	-
		<i>Acrocladia domata</i> (Agardh)	16	16	-	32	838 (488 - 1464)	633 (320 - 1158)	-
		<i>Acrocladia sp.</i>	36	9	-	45	825 (666 - 1345)	713 (546 - 1121)	-
		<i>Pennatulia arctica</i>	1	-	-	1	229	-	-
		<i>Acrocladia polyzona</i>	18	-	-	18	3016 (246 - 1431)	-	-
		<i>Pennatulia quadrangula</i>	18	-	-	18	483 (225 - 800)	1154	-
		<i>Kopeliammon piliferum</i>	1	3	336	338	801 (661 - 1000)	676 (300 - 1000)	669 (162 - 1244)
Pennatulacea	Pennatulidae	<i>Utriculothrix</i> sp.	3	2	-	5	901 (744 - 1041)	761 (328 - 1154)	-
		<i>Utriculothrix</i> sp.	3	2	-	5	796 (174 - 1431)	833 (320 - 1171)	-
		<i>Arthropeltes grandiflora</i>	47	19	-	66	647 (460 - 801)	-	-
		Sea pen sp. 4 (unidentified)	2	-	-	2	1264 (1135 - 1511)	-	-
		Sea pen sp. 1 (unidentified)	2	-	-	2	775 (212 - 1205)	897 (277 - 1261)	-
		Sea pen sp. 6 (unidentified)	3	16	-	19	-	-	-
Total coral specimens			970	377	907	2201	RV = DFO Multiplexes Research Surveys (2002-2006) & Northern Shrimp Research Survey (2005)		
	Total sets sampled		2162	45	506	4778	RCOFs = F-panels observations, samples submitted (2004-2006)		
	Total sets with at least one coral specimen		822	641	844	1417	F-CPs = F-panels observations, records with no samples (2004-2006)		
			1961	44792	48781				

From January 2004 to May 2006 fisheries observers documented 1,304 coral occurrences from nine of the 25 directed fisheries operating in the region: 397 occurrences were from submitted samples and 907 were from records only (Table 2.1)

The Greenland halibut (turbot; *Reinhardtius hippoglossoides* Walbaum, 1792) fishery had the highest frequency of coral by-catch (n = 677) and fished the deepest depths (average depths 889-1070 m depending on gear type) on the continental slope (Table 2.2). Fishing effort was concentrated in deep waters off the south-eastern slope of the Baffin Island Shelf, southeast Labrador slope, the Northeast Newfoundland Shelf, and in a deep water trough on the Northeast Newfoundland Shelf called Funk Island Deep (see Chapter 1, Fig. 1.1 for bathymetric features). Mobile gear used in this fishery included Otter trawls (1 net) and twin trawls (2 nets), with the main difference between these being the number of nets hauled per vessel. Fixed gear was also used, bottom longline and gillnet, but mainly off the southwest Grand Bank, in areas unsuitable for trawling

The northern shrimp (*Pandalus borealis* Kroyer, 1838 and *P. monlagui* Leach, 1814) fishery had the second highest frequency of coral by-catch (n = 226) with effort concentrated on the Labrador Shelf edge (average depths 349-415 m depending on gear type; Table 2.2). Three trawl types were utilized: shrimp, twin, and triple trawls. Mandatory Nordmore Grate by-catch reduction devices (22 mm - 28 mm bar spacing) were used in conjunction with each gear type to help reduce by-catch of mobile species. The grate allows shrimp to pass through and into the net, while oversized by-catch are redirected out through an exit door in the top panel of the net.

Both the shrimp and Greenland halibut fisheries deployed multiple gear types but only the latter used both mobile and fixed gear classes. Overall, mobile gear captured 943 coral occurrences (samples and records), compared to 3630 occurrences by fixed gear (Table 2.3). The Otter Trawl had the highest frequency of coral by-catch (n:636) of all gear types. Other fisheries in the region captured corals as well and are summarized in Table 2.2. Further analysis of coral by-catch patterns among directed fisheries and gear types will be published separately.

Table 2.2. Summary of coral frequencies by target fishery, gear type, and average depths fished; data from fisheries observations documented between April 2004 and January 2006. Note: GN: gillnet, LL: longline, CP = crab pot, OT = Otter trawl, ST;

Target Species	Fixed	Average Depth Fished (m)	Corals Captured (#)
Skate (<i>Raja</i> spp.)	GN	439	2
White hake (<i>Urophycis tenuis</i>)	GN	218	6
Redfish (<i>Sebastes</i> spp.)	OT	447	189
Yellowtail flounder (<i>Limanda ferruginea</i>)	OT	165	18
Atlantic halibut (<i>Hippoglossus hippoglossus</i>)	LL	867	56
Snow crab (<i>Chionoecetes opilio</i>)	CP	399	128
Angler, monkfish (<i>Lophius americanus</i>)	GN	331	2
		891	429
Greenland halibut (<i>Reinhardtius hippoglossoides</i>)	GN	995	140
	LL	1070	27
	TT	889	81
Shrimp (<i>Pandalus borealis</i> , <i>P. montagui</i>)	ST	415	102
	TT	349	111
	TTT	365	13
			1304

Table 2.3. Summary of coral frequencies by species, targetfishery, gearclass, and gear type; data from fisheries observations documented between April 2004 and January 2006. Note: GN = gillnet, LL = longline, CP = crab pot, OT = Otter trawl, 5T = shrimp

	Gear		Types per coral		frequency			
	Fixed					Mobile		
<i>Capnella florida</i>	32	4	2	74	63	40	-	215
<i>Gersemia rubiformis</i>	72	21	1	26	16	6	-	142
<i>Neptheids</i>	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	3
<i>Anthomastus grandiflorus</i>	-	2	8	4	1	1	-	16
<i>Primnoa resedaeformis</i>	-	1	-	2	14	-	-	17
<i>Paragorgia arborea</i>	-	2	1	10	6	-	-	19
<i>Keratoisis ornata</i>	-	-	21	3	-	-	-	24
<hr/>								
<i>Acanthogorgia armata</i>	2	3	12	27				44
<i>Radicipes gracilis</i>		6	9	2				17
<i>Paramuricea spp</i>		1	1	18				27
<i>Antipatharia</i>	-	14	1	17	-	3	-	35
<i>Elabellum alabastrum</i>	-	6	3	56	-	22	1	88
<i>Desmophyllum dianthus</i>		1	1					2
<i>Vaughaneella margaritata</i>		3						3
<i>Pennatulaceae</i>	1	41	16	296	1	48	12	415
Subtotal	128	150	85	636	102	192	13	1304
		363				843		

2.4.3 Deep-Sea Coral Distribution and Diversity Patterns

Twenty-eight deep-sea coral species were identified in the region, with two additional forms represented that have not been identified to species level. In total there were 13 alcyonaceans, two antipatharians, four solitary scleractinians, and 11 pennatulaceans (Table 2.1; Figs. 2.1 & 2.3)

The order Alcyonacea was subdivided into three informal groups: soft corals with polyps contained in massive bodies, gorgonians with a consolidated axis, and gorgonians without a consolidated axis (Bayer, 1981). See Figure 2.2 for alcyonacean distributions

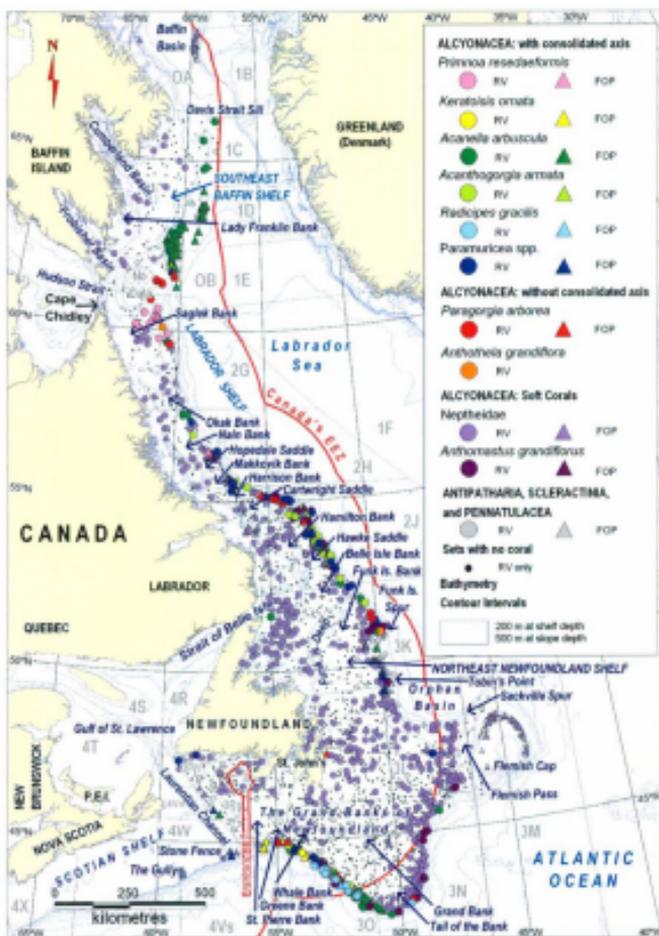


Figure 22. Distribution of alcyonaceans in scientific surveys (RV) 2003-2006 and fisheries observer data (FOP) 2004-2006

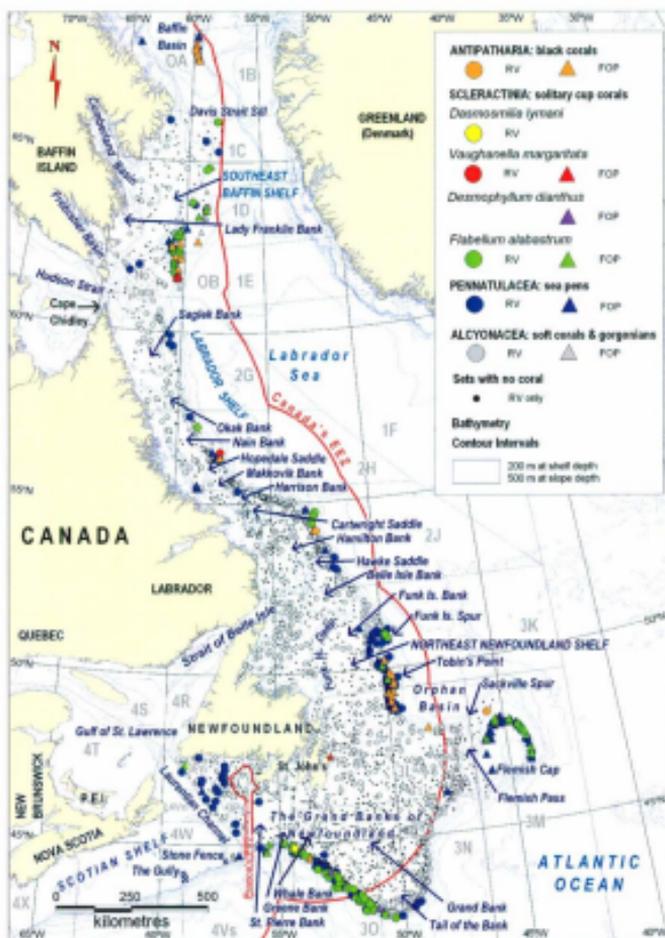


Figure 2.3. Distribution of pennatulaceans, solitary scleractinians, and antipatharians in scientific surveys (RV)2003-2006 and fisheries observer data (FOP)2004-2006

Soft corals consisted of one alcyoniid (*Anthomastus grandiflorus* Verrill, 1878) and at least two nephtheids (*Gersemia rubiformis* Ehrenberg, 1834; *Capnella florida* Verrill, 1869), however, a third nephtheid species was suspected. Because of uncertainty in identifying nephtheid coral species, all nephtheids were mapped as a single group. Nephtheids (n= 896) had the highest frequency of all species documented. *Gersemia rubiformis* (Fig. 2.1X), was the only species in the study that was consistently distributed on the continental shelf (n =308). Depth for this species ranged between 47-1,249m with average depths < 174 m. Individual colonies were < 5 cm high (when frozen and contracted), had a wider range of colour variations, and were frequently observed attached to pebbles, broken shells, and live gastropods.

Capnella florida (Fig. 2.1Y) was mostly found in deeper waters on the continental shelf edge and slope (n = 499). However some samples were captured in shallower waters on the shelf. Depth for this species ranged between 47-1,404m with average depths > 444 m. Individual samples were massive bodied colonies < 15 cm high, with multiple branches that terminated in clusters of non-retractable polyps. Colonies were mostly black with some variations of brown and beige. Attached substrates consisted of mostly rock and gravel, but some colonies were observed attached to live gastropods and

Anthomastus grandiflorus (Fig. 2.1W) was found only on the shelf edge and slope of the Newfoundland (n=65). The depth of this species ranged between 171-1,404m with average depths > 821 m. Most individual colonies, when contracted, were < 5 cm high characterised by a capitulum that had long polyp tubes and large polyps extended from the cap. Individual colonies were supported by a sterile basal stalk that was observed

attached to pebble and cobble substrates. One juvenile specimen was observed

Seven species of gorgonians with a consolidated axis were recorded: ***Acanella arbuscula***, *Acanthogorgia armata*, *Paramuricea* spp. (*P. placomus* L. and *P. grandis* Verrill 1884), *Primnoa resedaeformis*, *Keralois ornata*, and *Radicipes gracilis* (Verrill, 1883). Most of these species have large (>30 cm) fan-like skeletons with the exception of *A. arbuscula* and *R. gracilis*, which were usually smaller

Acanella arbuscula (Fig. 2.1M) had the highest frequency of all gorgonians (n=318) with concentrations on the shelf edge and slope of southeast Baffin Island, Hawke Channel, Funk Island Spur, and southwest Grand Bank (Fig. 2.2). Depth of this species ranged between 154 - 1,433 m with average depths > 822 m. Individual colonies were usually < 15 cm high, red, bush-like, and supported by a distinctly banded stem with calcareous root-like base. Polyps were located at opposite angles on brittle segmented branches. Colonies were usually damaged and captured in multiples with several tows acquiring 50-100 individual colonies per tow

Acanthogorgia armata (Fig. 2.1K) had the second highest frequency of this group (n=74) with concentrations off: southeast Baffin Island, Hawke Channel, Tobin's Point, and southwest Grand Bank. Depth for this species ranged between 171-1,415 m with average depths > 513 m. Individual colonies were < 50 cm in height, characterised by dense yellow-beige branches with long narrow polyps that have crown like tips. Many samples were covered with juvenile gooseneck barnacles, and seallops. As well, two samples were attached to two separate *K. armata* colonies

Paramuricea samples are believed to be *P. grandis* based on spicule analysis, but *P. placomus* may also be present (Fig. 2.1N). When grouped, *Paramuricea* spp. had the

third highest occurrence of this group (n=49), with most of these concentrated on the continental slope off the Labrador Shelf- Northeast Newfoundland Shelf, and the continental slope off the southwest Grand Bank. One sample was captured as far north as the Hudson Strait and a second sample was captured as far south as the tail of the Bank. Depth for this genus ranged between 152 - 1,415 m, with most samples recovered at average depths > 594 m. Individual colonies were flexible and fan shaped in one plane, and ranged from 20-85 cm in height. Polyps were short, round, and compressed to the branch. All specimens were black with the exception of one **vivid orange sample** photographed 1 hr. after capture (Fig. 2.1N). Samples were seldom observed with a substrate attached even though holdfasts were present. Several samples were reattached to cobbles and one sample (50 cm tall fan) was firmly attached to a large subfossil *K. ornata* base. The age of this *K. ornata* colony was likely to be several centuries, based on known growth rates of *Keratoisis* sp. from the family Isidiidae (Roark et al., 2005)

Primnoa resedaeformis (Fig. 2.1P), for the most part, were not widely distributed (n = 28). Most were found off Saglek Bank, with five other samples documented on the north

162 - 1,157 m with average depths > 402 m. Two specimens on Saglek Bank were captured at depths of 162 and 165 m; the remaining colonies occurred at slope depths down to 1,157 m. Individual colonies were < 35 cm in height and were characterized by dense downward-directed yellow or pink polyps covering a rigid dark brown skeleton. Cross sections of the stem revealed concentric growth rings alternating between calcite and gorgonin (Andrew et al., 2002; Sherwood et al. 2005). Four subfossil *P. resedaeformis* skeletons were not mapped, the largest being ~ 35 cm from the base to the truncated tips of the branches

Keratoisisornata (Fig. 2.1Q) was only found on the southwest Grand Bank (n=30)

between 195 - 1,262 m with average depths > 491 m. Individual colonies were < 50 cm with the majority of the samples submitted being either fragments of the original colony or large masses that were severely damaged in trawls. The skeletons are rigid and characterized by thick white calcified branches with proteinaceous internodes. Polyps ranged in density from thick mats to sparse polyps on a predominantly bare skeleton. One rare intact sample, captured by longline gear, had many associated species encrusted on the axis or attached among the branches. Most notable species were the solitary scleractinian *D. dianthus*, gorgonian *A. armata*, and numerous juvenile Iceland

Radicipes gracilis (Fig. 2.1J) were distributed on the southwest Grand Bank only (n=28). Depth of this species ranged between 384-1,419 m with average depths > 981 m. Individual colonies were < 80 cm in height and consisted of a single coiled or twisted iridescent axis. Polyps were sparse but evenly spaced on the stem and the entire colony was supported by a calcareous root-like holdfast.

The final group belonging to the alcyonaceans is the gorgonians that lack a consolidated axis. **TWO species were documented: *Paragorgia arborea* and *Anthothela grandiflora*** (Sars, 1856). *Paragorgia arborea* (Fig. 2.10) (n = 27) were clustered in an area adjacent

sporadically distributed off Cape Chidley, Funk Island Spur, and the Grand Bank slope. Depth of this species ranged between 370-1,277 m with average depths > 481 m. Most samples were small, fragmented pieces (< 25 cm); no whole intact colonies were collected. Polyps were usually retracted inside bulbous branch tips. Samples were red, yellow-beige or salmon coloured. One particular set from the northern shrimp survey

captured 50 kg of *P. arborea* from an area adjacent to the Hudson Strait (61°22'N, 61°10'W). The subsample was forwarded to DFO and consisted of a large laterally compressed midsection of the main stem (25 cm in length and 11 cm in diameter) and several branch tips. *Anothoa grandiflora* (Fig. 2.1L) had only two small samples submitted from RV surveys; one sample from off Cape Chidley, Labrador at 528 m and a second sample from the Funk Island Spur at 918 m. Both samples were identified using polyp morphology and sclerite descriptions (cf. Verseveldt, 1940; Miner, 1950).

The order Antipatharia (Fig. 2.1R1) was represented by two species, *Stauropathes arctica* (Lütken 1871), and probably *Bathypathes* sp. (S. France, University of Louisiana, personal communication, Dec. 2006). The majority of the samples were from observers with only two samples from scientific surveys (Fig. 2.3). Antipatharians were widely distributed on the continental slope in deep waters from Baffin Basin to southwest Grand Bank (n= 37). Three clusters emerged: southeast Baffin Basin (north of Davis Strait Sill), southeast Baffin Shelf (south of Davis Strait Sill), and on the southwest slope of the Orphan Basin (Tobin's Point area). Depth of this species ranged between 745-1,287 m with average depths > 1027 m. Two growth forms were observed among samples: *S. arctica* (Pax, 1932; Opreško, 2002) with an open-branched skeleton (Fig. 2.1R2), and a compressed 'tumbleweed-like' form referred to as *Bathypathes* sp. (Fig. 2.1R). The largest antipatharian recorded was 45 cm long x 30 cm wide x 15 cm high specimen of the tumbleweed form, captured at 1,013 m off Flemish Cap.

The order Scleractinia was represented by four solitary cup corals: *Flabellum alabastrum*, *Desmophyllum dianthus*, *Vaughanella margaritata* (Jordan, 1895), and *Dasmomilia lymani* (Pourtalès, 1871). Cup corals were distributed along the continental shelf edge and slope with concentrations off the southwest Grand Bank and southeast Baffin Island (Fig. 2.3).

Flabellum alabastrum (Fig. 2.1T) distributions were clustered off the Southeast Baffin Shelf, Flemish Cap, and southwest Grand Bank (n = 141). To a lesser extent, other Shelf. Depth ranged between 218-1,433 m with average depths > 629 m. *Flabellum alabastrum* samples were identified by the corallum and compressed calice (cf. Cairns, 1981). *Vaughaneilla margaritatus* samples (n = 4) were documented off the Southeast Baffin Shelf and east of the Hopedale Saddle. Depth of this species ranged between 1,163 - 1,320 m with average depths > 1,199 m. Three samples with multiple specimens of living and subfossil *V. margaritatus* per sample, were captured by bottom gillnets targeting Greenland halibut off the Southeast Baffin Shelf. One specimen, missing a holdfast, was captured in a *RF* survey east of the Hopedale Saddle (Fig. 2.1V)

Desmophyllum dianthus (Fig. 2.1S) samples were submitted only by observers (n = 2). Both samples were from the southeast Grand Bank; one sample was captured at 1,052 m by bottom gillnet gear and the second sample, which was attached to a *K. ornata* colony, was captured at 713 m by longline gear. In addition one subfossil specimen, not included in the dataset, was captured by a gillnet at 1,125 m off the Southeast Baffin Shelf. *Dasmosmia lymani* (Fig. 2.1U) was only documented once off the southwest slope of Grand Bank (44°52'N, 54°23'W) at 457 m. All scleractinians were identified by gross morphology of the corallum, and confirmed by Dr. Steven Cairns, of the

The order Pennatulacea (Fig. 2.1A-I) was represented by 11 species of sea pens. Nine were identified; two have yet to be identified to the species level. Pennatulaceans were distributed along the edge of the continental shelf east of Baffin Basin, off southeast Baffin Island, Tobin's Point, Flemish Cap, and the southwest Grand Bank (n = 577; Fig. 2.3). The greatest diversity of sea pens was found near southwest Grand Bank. Species

were found at depths between 96-1,433m. Individual colonies varied in size between 10-80cm. Specimens were identified by peduncle, rachis, and polyp morphology (cf Williams, 1995; 1999). *Anthoptilum grandiflorum* (Verrill, 1879; Fig. 1H), and *Pennatulaphosphora* (L.; Fig. 2.1B) were the most abundant followed by *Halopteris finmarchia* (Sars, 1851), *Funiculina quadrangularis* (Pallas, 1766), and *Pennatulagrandis* (Ehrenberg, 1834; Table 1). Numerous samples of *H. finmarchia* were observed with commensal sea anemones *Stephanaugenexiis* (Verrill, 1883) firmly attached to the rachis (cf Miner, 1950). Samples that were damaged beyond identification to genus, were grouped as "sea pen spp.", as were observer records of sea pens

Based on maps of scientific survey data, two coral species richness hotspots were identified (Fig. 2.4-2.6). The first hotspot (Fig. 2.5) was situated on the Labrador continental slope between Makkovik Bank (55°30'N, 57°05'W) and Belle Isle Bank (52°00'N, 51°00'W). The second hotspot (Fig. 2.6) was located off southwest Grand Bank and tail of the Bank (-42°50' -45°10'N, 49°00' -55°00'W). Both areas had higher species richness per tow than sets surrounding them and higher frequencies of scientific survey stations containing corals than surrounding areas. Southwest Grand Bank and tail of the Bank had the greatest species richness (16 spp.), with nine alcyonaceans, five pennatulaceans, and two scleractinians recorded. Makkovik Bank-Belle Isle Bank hotspot (14 spp.) had seven alcyonaceans, four pennatulaceans, two scleractinians, and one antipatharian recorded. Species richness per tow based on scientific survey data ranged between zero and 11 species per set with only two sets capturing nine or more

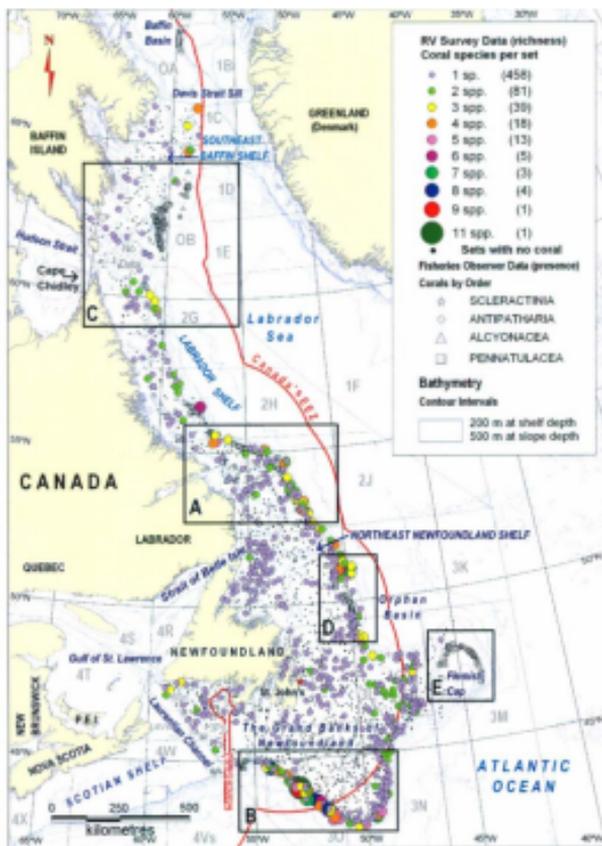


Figure 2.4. Coral species richness per set in scientific survey data. Most species rich areas were; A) Makkovik Bank-Belle Isle Bank, and B.) southwest Grand Bank. Distribution of coral rich areas from DFO survey data and fisheries observer data: C.) Southeast Baffin Shelf-CapeChidley, D.) Funk Island-Spur-Tobin's Point, and E.) Flemish Cap

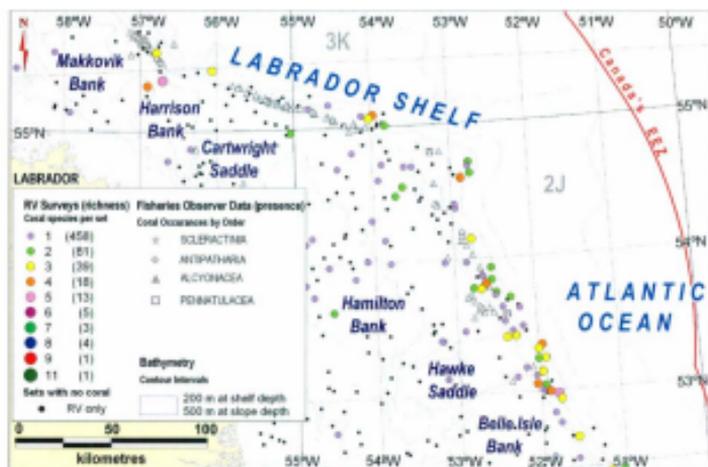


Figure 2.5. Coral species richness per set in scientific survey data and coral occurrences by Order from fisheries observer data for Makkovik Bank-Belle Isle Bank Hotspot

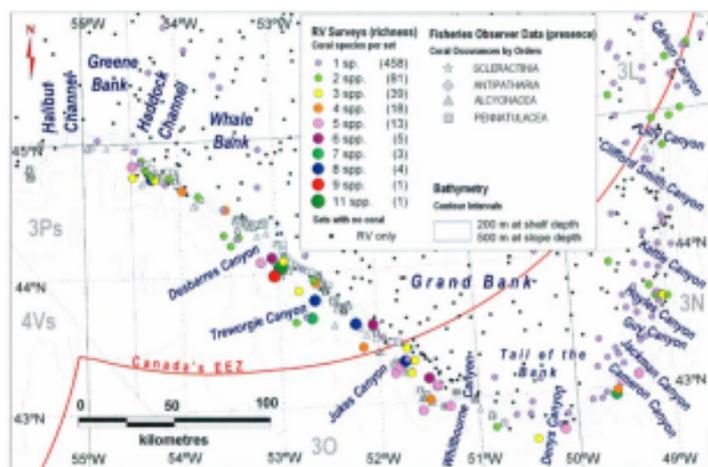


Figure 2.6. Coral species richness per set in scientific survey data and coral occurrences by Order from fisheries observer data for southwest Grand Bank and tail of the Bank

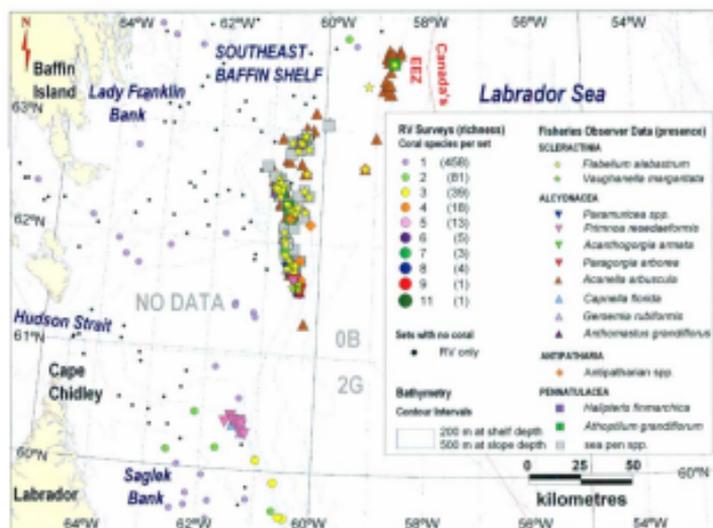


Figure 2.7. Coral species richness per set in scientific survey data and coral occurrences by species from fisheries observer data for Southeast Baffin Shelf - Cape Chidley

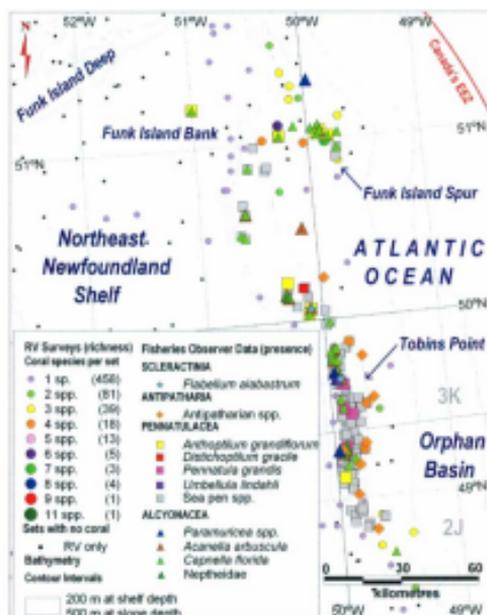


Figure 2.8. Coral species richness per set in scientific survey data and coral occurrences by species from fisheries observer data for Funk Island Spur-Tobin's Point

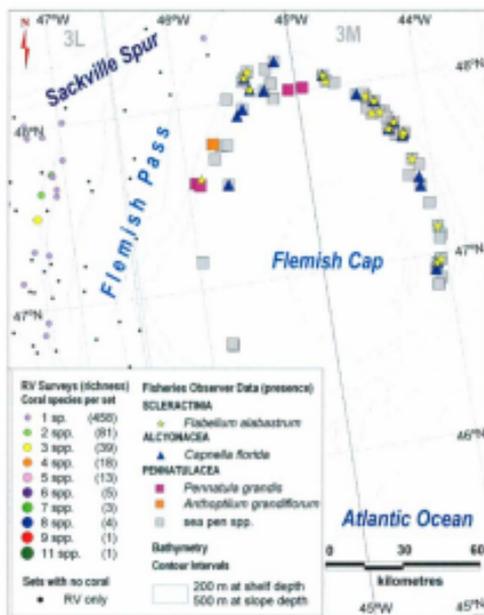


Figure 2.9. Coral species richness per set in scientific survey data and coral occurrences by species from fisheries observer data for Flemish Cap

Distribution maps presented contribute to the growing knowledge of deep-sea coral distribution and diversity off Newfoundland, Labrador, and southeast Baffin Island. Thirteen alcyonaceans, two antipatharians, four solitary scleractinians, and 11 pennatulaceans were documented. Corals were more widely distributed on the continental edge and slope than previously thought, but only nephtheids were found on

top of the shelf. Only ahermatic corals were identified with no occurrence of the reef building *Lopheliapertusa*(L.), as reported at the Stone Fence, Scotian margin (Gass & Willison, 2005; Mortensen et al., 2006). This study documented hundreds more unique records than previously known, and with much more complete and systematic data coverage than was previously available. Many of the coral-rich areas in this study were identified previously by Gass and Willison (2005). Their results partially overlapped with the findings presented in this study off Cape Chidley, Northeast Newfoundland Shelf,

2.5.1 Distribution of Hotspots

Coral species richness hotspots were identified in two distinct locations (Figs. 2.5 & 2.6). The hotspot on the southwest Grand Bank and tail of the Bank had the greatest species richness with 16 coral species documented. The topography of this area is complex with steep slopes, and numerous canyons. The area is most likely influenced by warm Labrador slope water (Haedrich & Gagnon, 1991). Previous reports from fisheries observers and local fishers indicated the presence of corals in this region, but very little data from scientific surveys had been documented (Gass & Willison, 2005; Mortensen et al., 2006). The second hotspot extended along the continental shelf edge and slope of the Labrador Shelf from Makkovik Bank to Belle Isle Bank. It spanned the greatest area and included 14 coral species. Most corals were concentrated on the shelf edge and slope with some neptheid soft corals on the bank tops. *Acanella arbuscula* and soft corals were the most abundant species, as both dominated the Funk Island Spur along with several species of sea pens (Le., *A. grandiflora*, *P. phosphorea*, and *P. grandis*). Rare species were documented in this area, with one occurrence of *A. grandiflora* off the Funk Island Spur at 918m and one occurrence of *V. margaritata* at 1,320m off Hopedale Saddle. Jordan (1895) reported that *V. margaritata*

Cape Chidley, based on only one year of survey data. This area was not identified as a biodiversity hotspot in the current analysis, but recent unpublished data and past reports suggest high coral abundance and intermediate coral biodiversity. High densities of *P. resedaeformis* were documented off Cape Chidley by Macisaac et al. (2001) and Gass and Willison (2005). The area immediately east of Hudson Strait (-61°20'N, 62°30'W), was not surveyed, nor was observer data available. Nonetheless, the largest samples submitted for this study were collected from the outer edges of this area with many large gorgonians documented, primarily *Primnoa resedaeformis* and *Paragorgia arborea* (Gass & Willison, 2005). Sets from the 2006 Northern Shrimp Survey 2006 captured up to 500 kg of coral, mostly *P. resedaeformis* and *P. arborea* in a single tow within this area (Wareham et al., 2010). The Hudson Strait region is influenced by strong currents and high nutrient flows from both the Labrador Current and Arctic waters draining from the Hudson Strait (Drinkwater & Harding, 2001). Observer samples and records of *A. arbuscula* were most numerous off Southeast Baffin Shelf. This area is intensively fished and fishers' LEK were previously documented off southeast Baffin Island (Davis Strait) and Cape Chidley (Macisaac et al., 2001; Gass & Willison, 2005).

Tobin's Point, off the Northeast Newfoundland Shelf is intensively fished for Greenland halibut, shrimp, and snow crab (*Chionectes opilio* Fabricius, 1788). The coral species reported there were dominated by *Capnella florida*, sea pens, and antipatharians. Flemish Cap had mostly the nephtheid *C. florida*, sea pens, the scleractinian *F. alabastrum*, and one antipatharian. Numerous *A. grandiflorus* (n=541), possible juveniles, were documented on the northeast side of the Flemish Cap (Wareham, 2009) but were not documented within the time frame of this study. Flemish Cap was not covered by Canadian scientific surveys, so coral distributions were derived from

observer data only. The clustering of corals on the north side of Flemish Cap may be an artefact of fishing effort, which was concentrated on its smooth north side. The south side is deeply incised by canyons, making it difficult terrain for trawling; the south side of the cap may contain suitable habitat for a variety of corals, but has had relatively little sampling effort to date. In general the top of banks had the lowest coral diversity with only nephroids present. Most corals are probably incapable of colonizing the top of banks due to limited hard substrates and cold temperatures at shallow depths in this location (cf. Mortensen et al., 2006)

2.5.3 Substrates of Coral Biodiversity Hotspots and Other Areas of Interest

Information on surficial geology has been sparse and limited to Soviet fishing investigations by Litvin and Rvachev (1963), and highly generalized maps of surficial geology of the continental margin of eastern Canada focusing on the bank-tops (Fader & Miller, 1986; Piper et al., 1988). Substrates for each hotspot and other areas of interest

The Grand Banks of Newfoundland (Grand, Whale, Green, & St. Pierre Banks) are relatively shallow and are heavily influenced by wave action. Sand dominates the bank top, with gravel, shell beds and muddy-sand patches throughout (Fader & Miller, 1986). The edge and slope areas are veneers of Adolphous Sands and Gravels. Substrates on the slope progressively change with depth from sand-mud to mud (Litvin & Rvachev, 1963;

Flemish Cap and Flemish Pass are located in international waters just east of Grand Bank. Flemish Cap is a dome shaped plateau ranging from 150-350m deep. Cap mud and boulders on the slope; mud is predominant at slope depths > 1000 m (Litvin &

Rvachev, 1963). Flemish Pass is a 1,200 m deep trough that separates the Flemish Cap from the Grand Bank. Flemish Pass is strongly influenced by the Labrador Current. Substrates in Flemish Pass consist mostly of sandy mud with some pebbles and stones (Litvin & Rvachev, 1963). The Northeast Newfoundland Shelf includes Funk Island Bank, Funk Island Spur, and Tobin's Point. Substrates abruptly change from sand on top of Funk Island Bank at 300 m, to sandy-mud on the slope at 500 m, to mud off Funk Island Spur at >1000 m (Litvin & Rvachev, 1963). The Labrador Shelf extends along the troughs up to 600 m deep and divides the shelf into banks (Piper et al., 1988). Sand substrates dominate southern bank tops with scattered pebbles and gravel; slope composition changes rapidly with depth from muddy-sand to sandy-mud to mud. Hawke sandy-mud on the saddle slope towards the shelf edge (Litvin & Rvachev, 1963). There is little information available on slope substrates north of Harrison Bank on the Labrador

2.5.4 Comparison with Local Ecological Knowledge

Many of the coral areas identified by fishers' LEK (Gass & Willison, 2005) were confirmed with scientific survey and observer data in the current study. Nonetheless, several important differences emerged. First, current data suggest there are much more continuous coral habitat along the southern Labrador slope, with a greater variety of corals than indicated from LEK. Second, the southwest Grand Bank and tail of the Bank hotspot, identified in the current study as an area of high species richness and coral record density, was much less prominent in LEK data or in previously available scientific survey data. These discrepancies between studies may largely be a result of more complete scientific survey sampling efforts throughout the Newfoundland and Labrador

region. In the current study the lack of large gorgonian records in the southeast Grand Bank, and the relative scarcity of P. arborea samples may reflect loss of corals due to trawling impacts. Evidence of deleterious effects on deep-sea corals by mobile fishing gear (e.g., trawls) has been published in detail (Watling & Norse, 1995; Auster & Langton, 1999; Fossa et al., 2002; Hall-Spencer et al., 2002; Anderson & Clark, 2003), mostly focusing on the effects of trawling on deep-sea scleractinians, with limited attention to impacts on deep-sea gorgonians (Krieger, 2001; Mortensen et al., 2005; Stone, 2006). In the current study, mobile gears captured more corals than fixed gears and, in general, covered larger areas. The duration of trawl tows ranged between one and 10 hr. / tow, thus making the precision of coral localities from observer data highly variable. Although the deep-sea coral clusters recognized by fishers have persisted despite a long history of intensive deep-water trawl fishing in the region (see Kulka & Pitcher, 2002), there is little information on changes in abundances of deep-sea corals through time (Gass & Willison, 2005).

A variety of sessile invertebrates were observed growing commensally on deep-sea

invertebrate diversity of corals (Buhl-Mortensen & Mortensen, 2005), samples from fixed gear (e.g., longline and gillnet) have contributed many intact coral assemblages, or groups of coral living together. For example, two colonies of *A. ornata* were found to be attached to two separate *K. ornata* colonies, one of which also included the scleractinian *D. dianthus*. Another *K. ornata* sample had juvenile colonies of *A. grandiforus* and *A. armata* attached. Many observations of gooseneck barnacles, scallops, sea anemones, and echinoderms, all in juvenile stages, were attached to *K. ornata*. Many nephtheid soft corals were observed attached to living gastropods. These observations suggest that

hard substrates may be limited in some areas, and emphasize the important contribution that large corals can make towards creating and structuring deep-sea habitat, including habitat for other deep-sea corals. The nature of associations between corals and fish are difficult to determine in trawl survey data because fish and corals may have co-occurred in the same habitat without any direct biological interaction (Edinger et al., 2001)

The findings reported here complement earlier work (Gass & Willison, 2005), and provide specific information on deep-sea coral distribution and diversity in the region. However, caution must be exercised when interpreting these results for two reasons. First, the data resulted from only three years of sampling, with only one year of scientific sampling in northern Labrador and the Davis Strait, with sampling gaps in scientific data. Second, the distribution data from fisheries observers were biased by fishing effort. Coral conservation is a fairly new concept in eastern Canada. Three areas with unique features including very high densities of corals or unique species occurrences were established on the Scotian margin to help protect corals: the Northeast Channel Coral Conservation Area (2002), the Stone Fence Lophelia reef fisheries closure (2004), and The Gully Marine Protected Area (2004; Breeze & Fenton, 2007). Corals in Newfoundland and Labrador waters are generally widespread along the continental edge and slope. Hence a network of representative areas would be the most appropriate conservation approach (cf. Fernandes et al., 2005)

Twenty-six ahermatypic deep-sea corals were identified off Newfoundland, Labrador, and southeast Baffin Island; four coral species, mostly seapens, are yet to be identified. Corals were widespread along the continental edge and slope, with only nephtheids

occurring at shelf depths. Two regions of coral hotspots with high species richness were identified using scientific survey data. When fisheries observer data were used in conjunction with survey data, other areas with high coral occurrences emerged, but may have been biased by distribution of fishing effort. All areas identified in this study, with the exception of Flemish Cap, were previously identified by fishers' LEK, but species composition and diversity results differed between current survey data and LEK. Results emphasize the validity and value of fishers' LEK in identifying areas with high concentrations of corals (cf. Breeze et al., 1997; Gass & Willison, 2005). Currently there

Labrador, and Baffin Island regions. Based on widespread coral distributions, a representative areas approach should be applied toward conservation of corals and

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3 UPDATES ON DEEP-SEA CORAL DISTRIBUTION IN THE NEWFOUNDLAND, LABRADOR, AND ARCTIC REGIONS, NORTHWEST ATLANTIC

Published as Wareham, V.E. (2009). Updates on deep-sea coral distributions in the Newfoundland Labrador and Arctic regions, northwest Atlantic. In K. Gilkinson, & E. Edinger (Eds.), *The ecology of deep-sea corals of Newfoundland and Labrador waters: biogeography, life history, biogeochemistry, and relation to fishes*. (pp. 4-22). *Canadian*

New data collected by the Department of Fisheries and Oceans from Newfoundland, Labrador, and eastern Arctic partially filled data gaps on deep-sea coral distributions identified in Wareham and Edinger (2007). All coral frequencies increased with 36 species mapped: 14 alcyonaceans, two antipatharians, six solitary scleractinians, and 14 pennatulaceans. In situ observations collected by Remotely Operated Vehicle (ROV) documented new records, unique habitats consisting of high coral abundances, and provided evidence of coral damage caused by fishing. There are three interim protection

Fisheries Organization Coral Protection Zone on southwest Grand Banks, Narwhal-Coral Protection Zone in Canada's eastern Arctic, and a Voluntary Coral Protection Zone in Hatton Basin off northern Labrador. Newly established closures are a good first step but permanent designation is needed to provide long-term protection and to protect unique

In Canada, distributions of deep-sea corals have now been extensively mapped in the northwest Atlantic (Gass & Willison, 2005; Wareham & Edinger, 2007) although only a small fraction of the seabed has been surveyed and mapped. Understanding corals and their inter-relationships with other species in deep-sea ecosystems is crucial in order for the Department of Fisheries and Oceans Canada (DFO) to meet conservation objectives under the *Fisheries Act* and *Oceans Act*. Coral data played a key role in the establishment of Sable Gully as Atlantic Canada's first Marine Protected Area (MPA; DFO, 2004a) under the *Oceans Act*. Additional fisheries closures in the Maritimes region were established on the basis of coral hotspots in the Northeast Channel (DFO, 2002) and Stone Fence (DFO, 2004b).

In Newfoundland and Labrador no official protection exists for corals (e.g. MPAs), **however several preliminary measures have been taken. There are two interim closures** in the Newfoundland and Labrador region, and one in the Arctic. The first is an industry led Voluntary Coral Protection Zone, a 12,500 km² area in NAFO division 2G-OB off Cape Chidley, Labrador (MPA News, 2007). It was initiated and implemented by industry comprised of the Groundfish Enterprise Allocation Council (GEAC), Canadian Association of Prawn Producers (CAPP) and Northern Coalition (NC). The purpose of the closure is to conserve specified species of large corals (e.g. *Primnoa resedaeiformis* Gunnerus, 1763, *Paragorgia borealis* Unnaeus, 1758, *Paramuricea placomus* Linnaeus, 1758 and *P. grandis* Verriil, 1883, and antipatharians spp.) in significant concentrations that are known to exist in the area (B. Chapman, Canadian Association of Prawn Producers, personal communication, Sept. 2005). The second, CAD-NAFO Coral Protection Zone, is a mandatory closure on the slope of the Grand Bank in NAFO division 3O between 800 - 2000 m (NAFO, 2007). It was initiated by the Canadian-NAFO

Working Group and implemented by NAFO. The purpose of the closure is to protect corals found in the area and 'freeze the footprint' of fishing activities in deeper waters

OA (DFO, 2007). It was initiated and implemented by DFO in April 2006, in order to protect Narwhal over-wintering grounds and deep-sea corals

This chapter provides an update on the ongoing process of identifying and mapping deep-sea corals in the northwest Atlantic, building on the existing dataset initiated by Wareham and Edinger (2007) in order to help identify and highlight areas for protection within the Newfoundland, Labrador, and Arctic regions. The update focuses on the time period covered by the International Governance Program (IGP; 2005-2007)

3.3.1 Study Area

The study encompasses the continental shelf, edge, and slope of the Grand Banks of Newfoundland (NAFO divisions 3LNOP), Flemish Pass (NAFO division 3L), Flemish Cap (NAFO division 3M), Northeast Newfoundland Shelf (NAFO division 3K), Labrador Shelf (NAFO divisions 2GHJ), Southeast Baffin Shelf (NAFO division OB), and Baffin Bay (NAFO division OA). See Figure 3.1 for overview of study area

Data was collected opportunistically from two primary sources; (i) annual multispecies research surveys conducted by the Science Branch Newfoundland and Labrador Region (2006-2007), DFO, and (ii) fisheries observer data collected on board commercial fishing vessels operating within the NAFO Convention Area (2006-2007)

In addition, DFO Central and Arctic Region began contributing coral distribution data in 2006 from multispecies research surveys conducted in the Arctic (NAFOdivisionsOAB). All data (2006-2007), including representative coral samples, were forwarded to the DFO Newfoundland and Labrador Region and incorporated into the existing database.

Multispecies research surveys conducted by DFO Newfoundland and Labrador in 2000 (one survey in NAFOdivision 3L) and 2004 (two surveys in NAFOdivisions 2J, 3KLN) collected corals from the Newfoundland and Labrador region but samples were originally sent to Bedford Institute of Oceanography, DFO Maritimes Region. All samples were returned to DFO Newfoundland and Labrador Region and the data are now incorporated

The dataset contains only one research survey from the Northern Shrimp Stock Assessment Survey (2005): a five year annual survey in progress for the Arctic region (2005-2010), co-sponsored by the Northern Shrimp Research Foundation and DFO Newfoundland and Labrador. Two additional research surveys were conducted in 2006 and 2007; however this data was not available during this time.

Research survey vessels follow a standardized stratified random sampling protocol. In Newfoundland and Labrador, surveys use a Campelen 1800 shrimp trawl with rockhopper footgear (McCallum & Walsh, 1996). For arctic surveys two gear types with rockhopper footgear are used; Cosmos 2600 shrimp trawl for shallow water tows (100-800 m) and Alfredo otter trawl for deep water tows (400 - 1500 m) (T. Siferd, DFO Central and Arctic Region, personal communication, May, 23, 2008). Fisheries observer data was collected from a variety of mobile and fixed gear types. For further details on sampling gear, and methodologies see Chapter 2 (Wareham and Edinger, 2007).

In July 2007, high resolution video collected by a deepwater ROV (ROPOS) provided *in situ* observations of corals at three deep water sites in Newfoundland and Labrador: Halibut Channel, Haddock Channel, and Desbarres Canyon. Data consists of high resolution video, frame grabs, and still images that are currently being processed (Baker et al., 2008)

fisheries observers) as well as the type of habitats from which the data was collected. For example, survey trawls can only sample relatively level sea beds leading to a bias in favour of certain types of sea floors - favouring level grounds and excluding steeper slopes and canyons (e.g. Grand Bank continental slope and edge). On the other hand, 'fishing grounds' based on past catch rates and the level of experience of the vessel's skipper. Observer data incorporates many fisheries using different gear classes (mobile and fixed), gear types (shrimp trawl, twin trawl), and fish in all types of marine habitats (canyons) on a variety of substrates (e.g. boulder fields, mud, or sand). In short, research data can be biased towards 'trawlable' bottom types, whereas observer data can be biased towards 'fishing effort'

Results are presented as coral distribution maps building on baseline data compiled by Wareham and Edinger (2007). New data includes: coral samples from 2000-2005 (Newfoundland and Labrador) that were not originally included in Wareham and Edinger (2007), multispecies survey data from 2006-2007 (Newfoundland, Labrador, and Arctic regions), fisheries observer data from 2006-2007 (Newfoundland, Labrador, and Arctic

regions), and preliminary results from ROPOS Discovery Cruise 2007 (Newfoundland and Labrador). Maps are broken down by overall sampling effort (Fig. 3.1) followed by coral distributions based on sub-groups; antipatharians (Fig. 3.2), alcyonaceans [large gorgonians (Fig. 3.3), small gorgonians (Fig. 3.4), and soft corals (Fig. 3.5)], scleractinians (Fig. 3.6), pennatulaceans (Fig. 3.7), and ROPOS highlights (Fig. 3.8). Voucher specimens of all pennatulaceans were sent to and verified by Dr. G. Williams of the California Academy of Sciences. Scleractinians were identified by Dr. Stephen Cairns of the Smithsonian Institute (Cairns, 1981). *Chrysogorgia agassizii* (Verrill, 1883) was identified using Cairns (2001). See Table 3.1 for a summary of data frequencies documented and mapped during the course of the project.

Table 3.1. Summary of coral frequencies used in distribution maps

Group		Wareham and Edinger (2007)		
		134	78	212
Alcyonacea	small gorgonians	422	502	924
	soft corals	963	1481	2444
		148	130	278
Pennatulacea		577	1060	1637
Total		2281	3315	5596

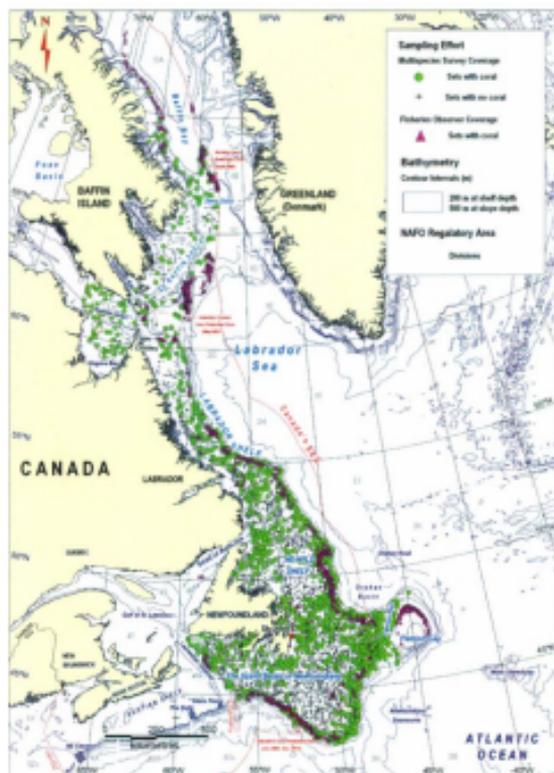


Figure 3.1. Study area and sampling effort with distribution of deep-seacorals highlighted. Data was collected from; Northern Shrimp Survey (2005), Newfoundland and Labrador Multispecies Surveys (2000-2007), Arctic Multispecies Surveys (2006-2007), and from fisheries observers aboard commercial fishing vessels (2004-2007)

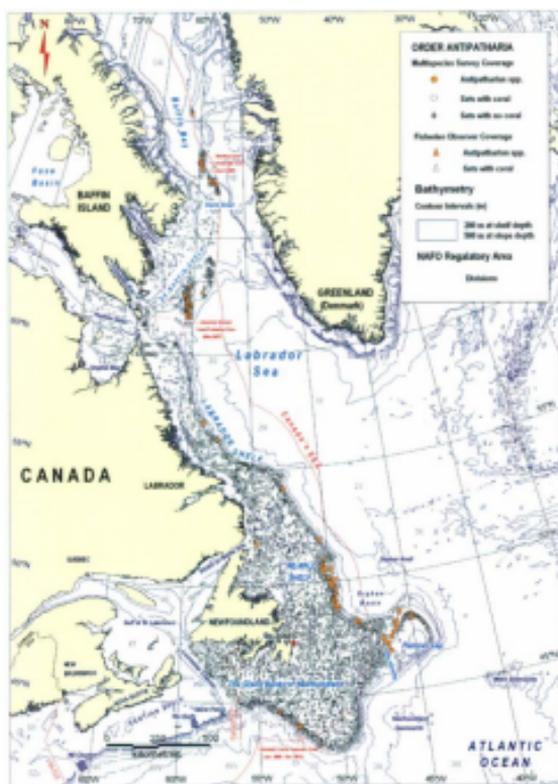


Figure 3.2. Distribution of deep-sea corals from the Order Antipatharia (includes *Stauropathes arctica* Lutken, 1871, and *Bathypathes* spp.). Data was collected from: Northern Shrimp Survey (2005), Newfoundland and Labrador Multispecies Surveys (2000-2007), Arctic Multispecies Surveys (2006-2007), and from fisheries observers aboard commercial fishing vessels (2004-2007)

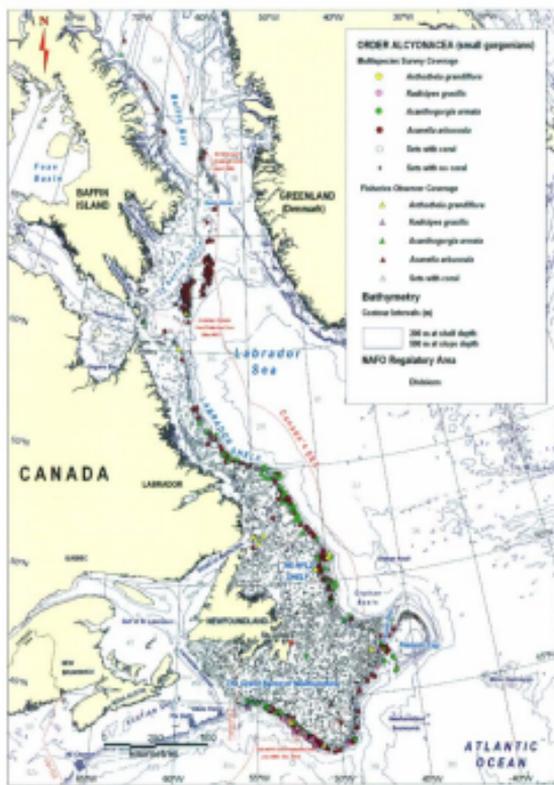


Figure 3.4. Distribution of deep-sea corals from the Order Alcyonacea (small gorgonians). Data was collected from; Northern Shrimp Survey (2005), Newfoundland Labrador Multispecies Surveys (2000-2007), Arctic Multispecies Surveys (2006-2007), and from fisheries observers aboard commercial fishing vessels (2004-2007)

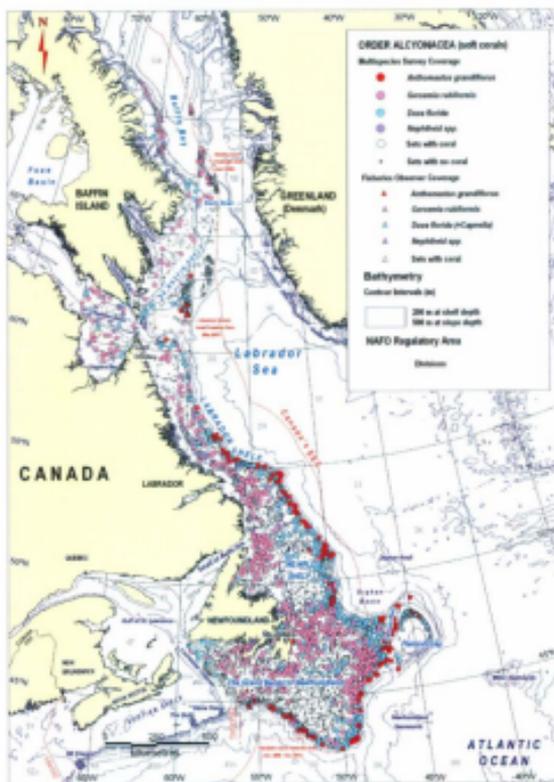


Figure 3.5. Distribution of deep-sea corals from the Order Alcyonacea (soft corals). Data was collected from; Northern Shrimp Survey (2005), Newfoundland and Labrador Multispecies Surveys (2000-2007), Arctic Multispecies Surveys (2006-2007), and from fisheries observers aboard commercial fishing vessels (2004-2007)

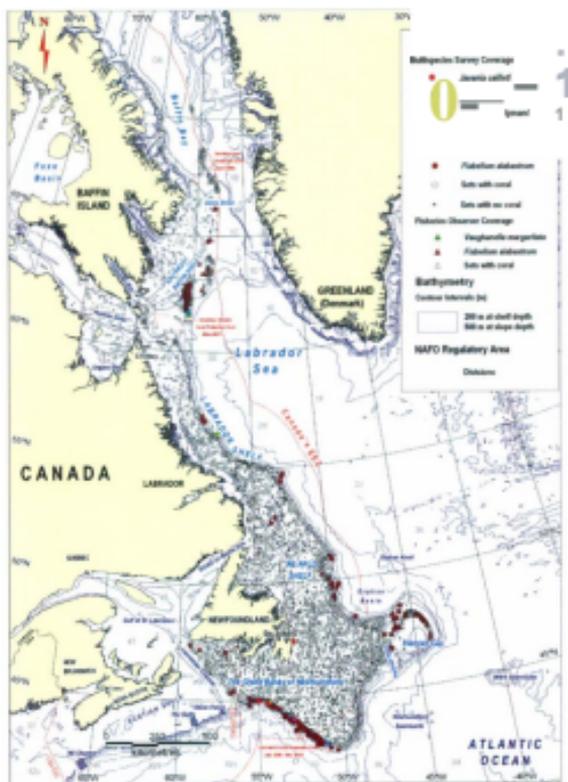


Figure 3.6. Distribution of deep-sea corals from the Order Scleractinia (solitary stony corals). Data was collected from; Northern Shrimp Survey (2005), Newfoundland and Labrador Multispecies Surveys (2000-2007), Arctic Multispecies Surveys (2006-2007), and from fisheries observers aboard commercial fishing vessels (2004-2007)

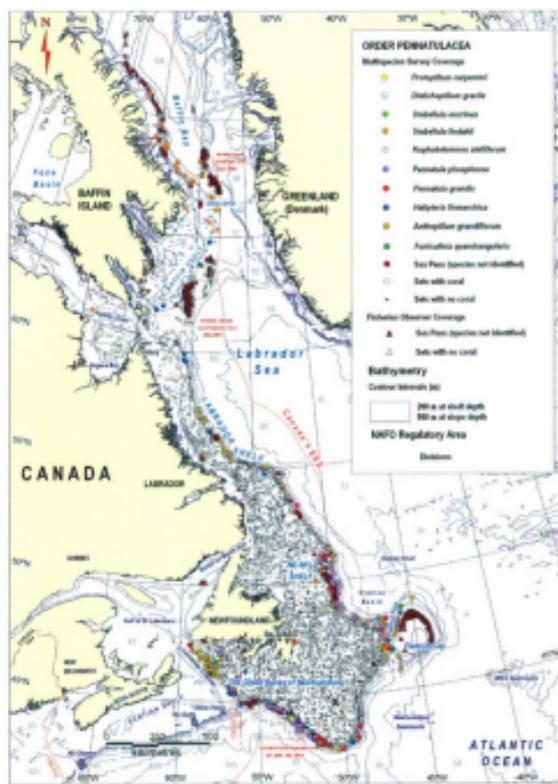


Figure 3.7. Distribution of deep-sea corals from the Order Pennatulacea (sea pens) Data was collected from; Northern Shrimp Survey (2005), Newfoundland and Labrador Multispecies Surveys (2000-2007), Arctic Multispecies Surveys (2006-2007), and from fisheries observers aboard commercial fishing vessels (2004-2007)

Preliminary Results ROPOS Discovery Cruise 2007

Preliminary results from the 2007 ROPOS Discovery Cruise include the locations of unique coral habitats (Fig. 3.8) and five species not previously documented in this region. New species records include two pennatulaceans (*Umbelfula encrinurus* Linnaeus, 1758; *Protopilum carpenteri* K&Fiker, 1872), one gorgonian (*Chrysogorgia agassizii* Verrill, 1883), and two scleractinians (*Flabellum macandrewi* Gray, 1849; *Javaniacaillet*; Duchassaing and Michelotti, 1864; Fig. 3.9)



Figure 3.9. Deep-sea coral species documented in Newfoundland and Labrador during the 2007 ROPOS Discovery Cruise; A.) *Umbellula encrinus*; B.) *Protophlium carpenleri*; C.) *Chrysogorgia agassizii*; D.) *Flabellum macandrewi*, and E.) *Javaniacailletii*

In total 36 species of coral have now been documented in the Newfoundland, Labrador, and Arctic regions including: 14 alcyonaceans, two antipatharianS, six scleractinians, and 14 pennatulaceans

Newfoundland, Labrador and Arctic deep-sea coral distribution data presented here have contributed to filling in data-gaps identified by Wareham and Edinger (2007). Areas such as the continental edge and slope of Northeast Newfoundland Shelf, Orphan Basin, and Flemish Pass are now represented. Arctic data from DFO Central and Arctic Region represents a valuable contribution by extending sampling coverage into far northern regions, which include frontier areas, including Baffin Bay, Davis Strait, Hudson Strait, and Ungava Bay. However, a significant gap still exists on the boundary line between NAFO divisions 2G-OB. This area remains insufficiently sampled based on only one year of research data (Wareham & Edinger, 2007). It is noted that an additional two years of data exist but were unavailable for analyses (Northern Shrimp Survey 2006-2007). This area, Hudson Strait-Cape Chidley (also known as Hatton Basin), has been identified in previous studies as an important area for corals, notably *Paragorgia borealis* Linnaeus, 1758 and *Primnoa resedaeformis* Gunnerus, 1763 (MacIsaac et al., 2001; Gass & Willison, 2005; Mortensen et al., 2006; Edinger et al., 2007; Wareham & Edinger, 2007), two species not found in any great abundance within the study area. Part of the Hudson Strait-Cape Chidley area has temporary protection within the industry initiated Voluntary Coral Protection Zone (MPA News, 2007)

The 2007 ROPOS cruise provided unique non-destructive sampling opportunities including extensive video footage and photographs of corals, and unique coral habitats in Haddock Channel, Halibut Channel, and DeBarres Canyon (Fig. 3.8). Healthy and damaged coral colonies, notably the long-lived species *K. ornata* (Sherwood & Edinger, 2009) were recorded on video in Haddock and Halibut Channels. This cruise also provided insight into other unique habitats not previously seen in these regions such as *K. ornata* thickets, sea pen fields, and *A. arbuscula* fields

In general, major patterns of deep-sea coral distributions recorded by Wareham and Edinger (2007) still hold true with the majority of corals distributed along the continental edge and slope except for a few oddities

Antipatharia was documented all the way from the mouth of Strait of Belle Isle and on the north side of Flemish Cap (Fig. 3.2)

Keratoisis ornata was documented in Flemish Pass with a high abundance of juvenile samples in both sets. Subfossilized samples of *K. ornata* were

Primoa resedaeformis occurrences (juvenile samples only), were documented on top of the Labrador Shelf and Grand Bank (Fig. 3.3)

Overall, there was an increase in frequencies of occurrence for all species (Table 3.1)

Notably, antipatharians, a deep water group usually found at depths > 1000m (Wareham & Edinger, 2007), appear to be more widely distributed than originally recorded (Tendal, 2004; Gass & Willison, 2005; Wareham & Edinger, 2007). This is most likely a result of sampling effort from multispecies surveys carried out in 2007, which focused on deep-water areas in Flemish Pass and the Northeast Newfoundland Shelf. Fisheries observer data also recorded higher occurrences as well, most likely due to commercial fishing effort targeting deeper waters where the chances of encountering corals would be higher.

The newly established interim closures, described in the introduction, are a good first step but stronger permanent legislation is urgently needed to fully protect corals from anthropogenic disturbances. The urgency is due to the fact that corals are highly sensitive to bottom fishing disturbances, and are impacted even on the first initial tow (Kreiger, 2001). This was especially evident on May 23, 2007 when a fisheries observer

documented 500 kg *Primnoa resedaeformis* and 25 kg of *Paragorgia arborea* from one set conducted within the recently established Voluntary Coral Protection Zone. Based on the quantity of coral by-catch, the area appears to be relatively unfished. The crew was driven southwards due to pack ice and was unaware of the newly designated voluntary closure (H. Mercer, SeaWatch Ltd., personal communication, March 12, 2006). Once damaged, slow growth rates in species like *P. resedaeformis* (-0.17 mm yr^{-1} ; Mortensen & Buhl-Mortensen, 2005), *K. ornata* (-0.06 mm yr^{-1}), and antipatharians (-0.07 mm yr^{-1} ; (Sherwood & Edinger, 2009) suggest that recovery may take centuries to recover (Andrews et al., 2002; Sherwood & Edinger, 2009)

Keratoisis ornata thickets, documented by ROPOS video in Haddock and Halibut Channels (NAFO division 3Ps) were not documented within the newly established CAD-NAFO Corals Protection Zone (NAFO division 30), therefore are not protected even though they are among the longest lived species of coral found in the region (Sherwood & Edinger, 2009)

Results of this IGP funded project have significantly expanded our knowledge of coral distributions in the Newfoundland and Labrador region and have identified key areas for coral protection. The 2007 ROPOS cruise demonstrated alternative non-intrusive sampling methods not previously used in this region although used off Nova Scotia (Mortensen et al., 2000; Mortensen et al., 2006). Results delivered provide a broad overview of coral distributions with 36 species documented and mapped. **Not all areas** have been surveyed sufficiently (**Halton Basin**) and other data sources could be considered in order to help fill data-poor areas further north (Le. NAFO divisions OB-2G). Currently, the dataset consists primarily of deep-sea corals with sponges now being identified; however, other significant structure forming megafauna (Le. **hydrozoans** and

bryozoans) should be considered and incorporated in future sampling collection protocols used by DFO multispecies surveys and fisheries observers

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4 CONSERVATION OF DEEP-SEA CORALS IN THE NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR REGION, NORTHWEST ATLANTIC OCEAN

In the Northwest Atlantic, distributions of deep-sea corals are now well mapped and conservation has improved with three interim protection zones now established off Newfoundland, Labrador, and eastern Arctic, Canada: Narwhal-Coral Protection Zone, Voluntary Coral Protection Zone, and Canadian-Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization (NAFO) Coral Protection Zone. In addition, five seasonal and 11 areas in international waters are closed temporarily by NAFO, to help protect Vulnerable Marine Ecosystems (VME) from Serious Adverse Impacts caused by bottom fishing. Corals are now recognized as one key component of VMEs and in order to identify candidates and protect known concentrations within the Newfoundland and Labrador region five priority areas are recommended for future research; Hatton Basin, Labrador Shelf, Orphan Spur - Tobin's Point, Flemish Pass, and southwest Grand Banks. Many of these areas are under threat from encroaching fishing pressures and are in need of urgent legislative protection, particularly Hatton Basin in the Labrador Sea where abundant long-lived corals continue to be caught as by-catch by commercial fishing practices.

The United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) Resolution 61/105 has called upon member states and Regional Fisheries Management Organizations (RFMO) to adopt measures to identify and protect Vulnerable Marine Ecosystems (VME) from Serious Adverse Impacts (SAI) caused by fishing activities (UNGA, 2005, 2006, 2007; FAO, 2008). Deep-sea corals (Cnidaria), and sponges (Porifera), are now considered to be key components of VMEs because of their vulnerability, fragility and their contribution towards habitat complexity (OSPAR, 2004; UNGA, 2005, 2006; 2007; FAO, 2008; Rogers et al., 2008; ICES, 2008). Corals are vulnerable because they are long-lived (Roark et al., 2006) sessile animals with arboreal structures, often extending high off the seabed (Mortensen & Buhl-Mortensen, 2005). Their structures make them susceptible to damage caused by anthropogenic activities, primarily bottom fishing (Watling & Norse, 1998; Krieger, 2001; Hall-Spenser et al., 2002; Stone, 2006). Once damaged, most will require decades or centuries to recover to their original state due to extremely slow growth rates (Risk et al., 2002; Mortensen & Buhl-Mortensen, 2005; Roark et al., 2005; Tracey et al., 2007; Sherwood & Edinger, 2009).

Originally, only 'hard' corals with a calcium carbonate and/or proteinaceous skeleton (i.e. gorgonians, antipatharians, and reef-forming scleractinians) were considered part of VMEs, but now sea pen fields and sponge meadows are also recognized because of the specific habitats they create when found in large concentrations (ESSIM, 2006; ICES, 2008). As part of the efforts to identify and protect concentrations of corals, the focus of this chapter will be to identify important areas for coral conservation within the **Newfoundland, Labrador, and Arctic regions**, including areas located in international waters. In addition, the objectives will highlight coral conservation progress to date, and

discuss challenges the Newfoundland and Labrador Region faces. This chapter concludes with **recommendations on how to meet these challenges in order to successfully protect corals in the Newfoundland, Labrador, and Arctic regions**

4.2.1 Scope of Research

The geographic scope represents the northwest Atlantic extending north from the southern Grand Banks (Fig. 4.1) and encompasses North Atlantic Fisheries Organization (NAFO) divisions; 3KLMNOP (Northeast Newfoundland Shelf, Grand Banks, Flemish Pass, and Flemish Cap), 2GHJ (Labrador Shelf), and OAB (Hudson Strait, Southeast Baffin Shelf, and Baffin Bay). Information used in this chapter is taken from previous chapters, as well as new findings and experiences gained throughout the course of the Newfoundland and Labrador Deep-Sea Coral Project; a program sponsored by the Department of Fisheries and Oceans Canada (DFO) in partnership with Memorial University (MUN)

The structure of this chapter will begin with background information describing why corals are important, followed by conservation progress on the east coast of Canada including international waters located within Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization Regulatory Area (NRA). Next will follow a brief overview of strategies used to protect corals as well as emerging legislative tools that could be utilized. **Priority areas for coral protection will be identified followed by challenges Newfoundland, Labrador, and Central and Arctic Regions face in terms of marine conservation. The chapter will conclude with recommendations on how to help protect corals and their habitats within the Newfoundland, Labrador, and Arctic regions, an essential step for Canada to achieve its global obligations set forth under the UNGA Resolution 61/105 (UNGA, 2006)**



Figure 4.1. Map of study area highlighting important bathymetric features off the coast of

4.3.1 Why Are Corals Important?

As coastal resources are depleted (Jackson et al., 2001), fishing efforts now target the deep-sea and are expanding north into arctic waters targeting Greenland halibut and northern shrimp (Murawski et al., 1997; Casey & Myers, 1998; Koslow et al., 2000;

this is the "deep-sea", or bathyal zone, extends from the continental shelf break to 2000 m, but not including the abyssal plains. These deep-sea areas have low rates of natural disturbance, and are fragile due to the sensitive benthic communities that exist there. These communities are comprised of K-strategist species that exhibit conservative life-history traits such as: long life spans, slow growth rates, low fecundity, late maturation periods, and discontinuous recruitment periods (Merrett & Haedrich, 1997; Koslow et al., 2000; Roberts, 2002)

Deep-sea habitats are composed of relatively stable physical (e.g. bathymetric features) and biological (e.g. megafauna) features. Megafauna such as corals are known as 'sea-trees' because of their arborescent shapes, and not only inhabit the benthos but are fundamental components of it as well. The corallium, the entire coral colony, provides a three-dimensional structure constructed of either calcium carbonate (aragonitic or calcitic) and/or proteinaceous gorgonin, a complex protein. Groups of coral colonies provide vertical relief on the sea floor, and create microhabitats within and in-between colonies (Tissot et al., 2006). A terrestrial analogy is like birds utilization of trees, with the complexity of tree branches providing important nesting and foraging areas. In the case of corals, colonies act as refugia for juvenile fish (Etnoyer & Warrenchuk, 2007; Moore et al., 2008) and other invertebrates (Buhl-Mortensen & Mortensen, 2005). It has been

shown that large bamboo corals (*Keratoisis ornata* Verrill 1878) can dissipate benthic boundary layer energy from local current regimes, potentially providing refugia for demersal fish (Zedler & Fowler, 2009). Even after a coral colony has perished, the skeleton can persist for an extended period (Edinger & Sherwood, 2009), continuing to provide habitat structure in deep-sea ecosystems (Opresko, 2005; Yoklavich & Love, 2005; Love et al., 2007). Nonetheless, these deep-sea structures are fragile and are easily disturbed and broken. It is well documented that global deep-sea bottom fisheries, particularly bottom trawling, are damaging and destructive to corals, and is the leading threat to their existence (Probert et al., 1997; Watling & Norse, 1998; Fossa et al., 2001; Hall-Spenser et al., 2002; Grehan et al., 2005; Mortensen et al., 2005; Wheeler et al., 2005; Stone, 2006; Reed et al., 2007). Originally, mobile bottom fishing gear (e.g. dragging or trawling) was considered to be the primary cause (Krieger, 2001; Hall-Spenser et al., 2002; Stone, 2006; Clark & Koslow, 2007). However, other studies have shown that fixed gear types (i.e. longlines, gillnets, and crab pots) can also damage corals but to a lesser spatial extent (Mortensen et al., 2005; Wareham & Edinger, 2007; Edinger et al., 2007a, b).

4.4.1 Maritimes Region

Deep-sea corals are considered an excellent 'flagship' species for marine conservation. More importantly, they can act as 'umbrella species', meaning that if one protected, other marine species that live on, between, or amongst them will also be protected (see Lambrecht, 1997). Researcher uses and opportunistic data collections on corals played a key role in the establishment of *The Gully Marine Protected Area* (Fig. 4.2) on the Scotian Shelf. The Gully was Atlantic Canada's first Marine Protected Area (MPA) under

the Oceans Act (DFO, 2004a). It is a large underwater canyon encompassing 2,364 km² and is subdivided into three zones with varying degrees of protection. Zone 1 represents the deepest section and is fully protected; no human activities are permitted with the exception of authorized scientific research. Zone 2 represents the canyon head, feeder canyons, and continental slope. Zone 3 represents the adjacent sandbanks. Zones 2 and 3 have strict protection with limited fishing permitted: longline gear is permitted but not trawl gear. As a result of this closure, endangered species that also inhabit The Gully MPA (e.g. Northern Bottlenose whale, *Hyperoodon ampullatus*) are also protected (COSEWIC, 2002). The main objectives for The Gully MPA are to conserve and protect the natural biological diversity, and ensure its long-term health, notably the unique deep-sea corals and endangered bottlenose whales that are known to inhabit the canyon (DFO, 2004a).

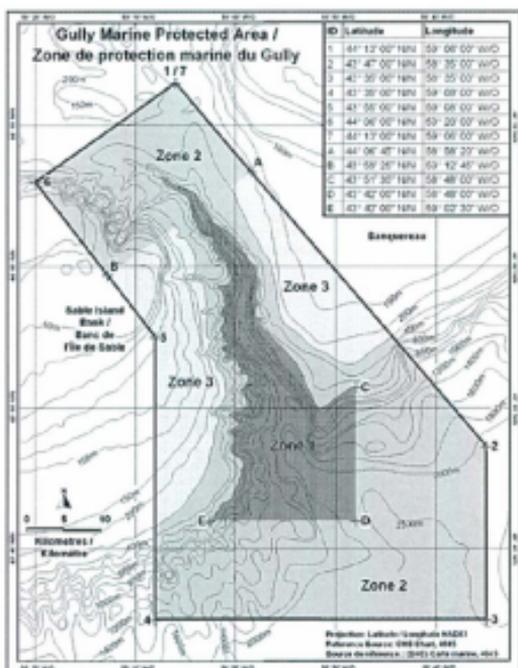


Figure 4.2. Map of The Gully Marine Protected Area (DFO, 2004a). Map courtesy of

Other areas on the Scotian Shelf protected under the *Fisheries Act* include the *Northeast Channel Coral Conservation Area* (2002), and *Lophelia* [Stone Fence] *Coral Conservation Area* (2004). These areas were protected in order to prevent further damage to large gorgonians and framework-forming scleractinians from bottom fishing activities (DFO, 2002; DFO, 2004b)

The *Northeast Channel Coral Conservation Area* (Fig. 4.3) is 424 km² in area. It is located between Georges Bank (United States) and Browns Bank (Canada) on the southern tip of the Scotian Shelf. Initially, it was identified by fishers as an important area for corals based on unusually high by-catch rates (Breeze et al., 1997). Now protected, it

the overall area and is fully-protected with no human activities permitted. The second, *Limited Bottom Fisheries Zone*, represents the remaining 10% and is restricted to longline fisheries targeting groundfish with all vessels required to have a fisheries observer onboard. The main objectives of this conservation area are to conserve and protect the biological diversity of large deep-sea gorgonian corals found within its boundaries (DFO, 2002)

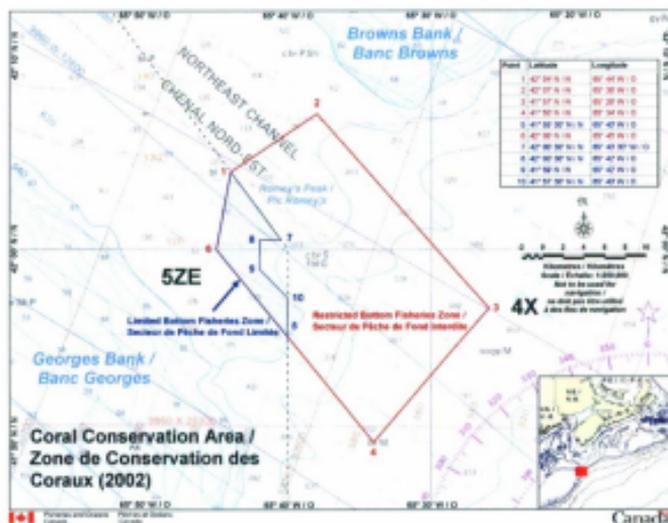


Figure 4.3. Map of the Northeast Channel Coral Conservation Area (DFO, 2002). Map courtesy of DFO Canada

The *Lophelia* Coral/Conservation Area (Fig. 4.4) is 15 km² in area and is located on the most northeasterly corner of the Scotian Shelf. Known as the Stone Fence, it was first identified as a unique area for corals by Captain Collins (Collins, 1884). Currently, no fishing activities are permitted within the area. The objectives of this conservation area are to prevent further impacts to the already badly-damaged *Lophelia pertusa* (Linnaeus, 1758) coral reef complex and to allow for its recovery (DFO, 2004b). It is noted that at the time of its designation as a conservation area, Stone Fence was the only known occurrence of *Lophelia pertusa* in Canadian waters. Since then, live colonies have been documented in The Gully MPA during the 2007 ROPOS (Remotely Operated Platform for Ocean Science) expedition (Gilkinson & Edinger, 2009) and dead fragments have

been documented on the Flemish Cap during the 2009 Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Organization Potential Vulnerable Marine Ecosystems Impacts of Deep-sea Fisheries (NEREIDA) expedition (K. Macisaac, Bedford Institute of Oceanography, personal communication, July 5, 2009)

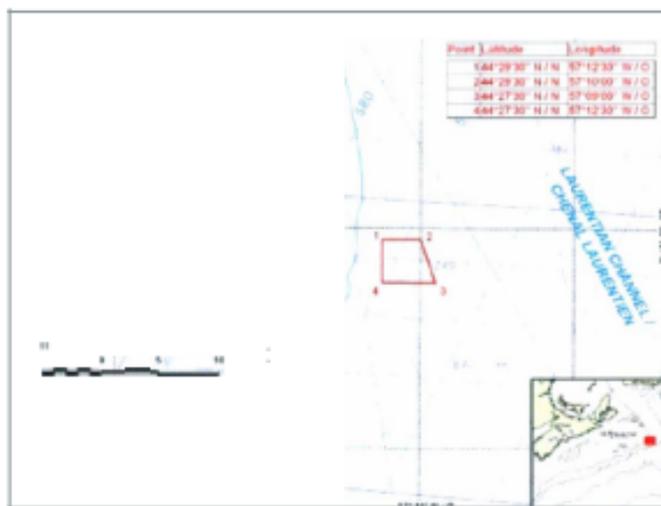


Figure 4.4. Map of *Lophelia* Coral Conservation Area (DFO, 2004b). Map courtesy of

4.4.2 Newfoundland and Labrador Region

There are no deep-sea coral MPAs established in Newfoundland, Labrador, or Arctic regions. Several areas have been identified as coral diversity hotspots (Gilkinson & Edinger, 2009), and, as a result, three have been granted interim protection. The first two were closed under the *Fisheries Act* by DFO Canada (CAD): the CAD-NAFO Coral Protection Zone and the *Narwhal-Coral Protection Zone*. The third, the *Voluntary Coral*

Protection Zone, is a voluntary closure initiated by three fishing industry organizations; Groundfish Enterprise Allocation Council (GEAC), Canadian Association of Prawn Producers (CAPP), and the Northern Coalition (NC)

The *CAD-NAFO Coral Protection Zone* (Fig. 4.5), a mandatory interim closure that will be revisited in 2012, is located on the southwest slope of Grand Bank and straddles national and international waters. It is 14,040 km² in size and falls within NAFO division 30 (NAFO, 2007). It was initiated by Canadian fisheries managers based loosely on known coral distributions, and implemented by NAFO contracting parties (Gilkinson & Edinger, 2009). The purpose of the closure is to protect corals found within its boundaries but more importantly freeze the footprint of fishing activities, and exclude fishing in deep waters between 800-2000m (NAFO, 2007). As illustrated in Figure 4.5, many of the most diverse sets are found in waters shallower than the coral protection boundaries. Furthermore the coral protection zone does not include the abundant K. Channels (NAFO division 3Ps; see Chapter 3, Fig. 3.8)

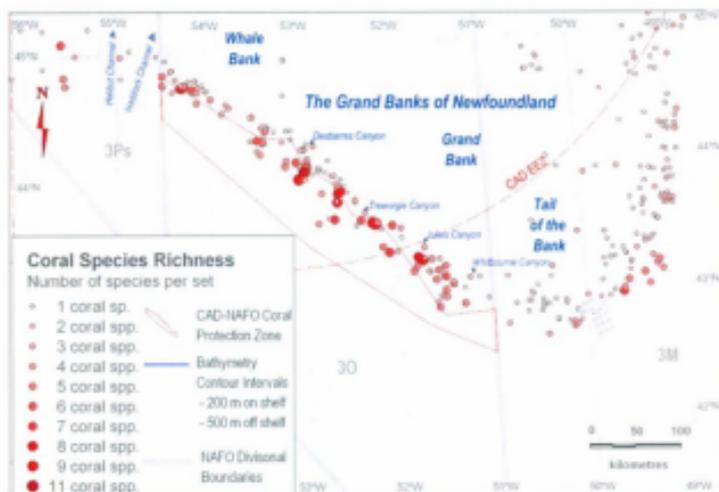


Figure 4.5. Map of CAD-NAFO Coral Protection Zone (NAFO, 2007) with coral species richness. Richness was determined by the number of coral species documented per set from DFO Multispecies Surveys and fisheries observers from 2002 to 2007

4.4.3 Central and Arctic Region

The *Narwhal-Coral Protection Zone* (Fig. 4.6) is relatively small compared to the other areas described, at 1-8,000 km² in size. It is located north of the Davis Strait Sill in

help protect Narwhals from entanglement in gillnets while in their over-wintering grounds, and also protect their primary food source, Greenland halibut (*Reinhardtius hippoglossoides* Walbaum, 1792; DFO, 2007a). Gear loss is inevitable in this area due to strong currents and the annual fluctuation of ice moving through the narrow passage of Davis Strait (Jordan & Neu, 1982). From 2004-2006, 600 gillnets constructed of

durable microfilament material were lost in NAFO division OA, the equivalent of 54 km of net (DFO, 2007a)

The closure applies only to the deepwater Greenland halibut fishery, and excludes the shrimp fishery which target shallower depths < 500 m). Vessels are restricted to four fishing days per year within the protection zone regardless of gear types used (i.e. trawls, gillnet or longline). In 2006, corals were added to the overall conservation objectives. However, progress to strengthen conservation and protection measures has been slow to materialize due to a lack of political will (e.g. support, monitoring, and funding) and disputed by industry. As a result, the area is somewhat inconsistently managed as a protection zone and violations are reported yearly (M. Treble, DFO Central and Arctic Region, personal communication, May 6, 2009)

During a DFO fall survey in October 1999, a large catch of corals was documented within the same area as the existing closure (see Fig. 4.6). The catch was estimated at 2-3 tons and tore most of the trawl net clear from the footgear. When retrieved, only shredded pieces of net intertwined with broken coral fragments remained (D. Pittman, DFO Newfoundland and Labrador Region, personal communication, July 2, 2009)

Samples with live tissue were later identified as *Keratopsis* sp. by Dr. Ole Tendal from the Zoological Museum, University of Copenhagen (M. Treble, DFO Central and Arctic Region, personal communication, May 20, 2008); as well, I inspected a small skeletal fragment from this set and concur with initial identification

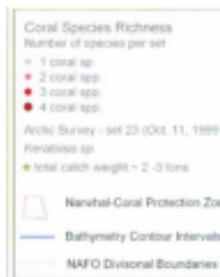


Figure 4.6. Map of *Narwhal-Coral Protection Zone* (DFO, 2007a) with coral species richness. Richness was determined by the number of coral species documented per set from DFO Multispecies Surveys and fisheries observers from 2002 to 2007. Note the large catch of *Keratois* sp. documented in October 1999 within the existing closure

The *Voluntary Coral Protection Zone* (Fig. 4.7.) encompasses an area 12,500 km², located immediately adjacent to Hudson Strait in an area known as Hatton Basin; it falls on the boundary between NAFO divisions 2G and 0B (MPA News, 2007). It was initiated and implemented by three fishing industry organizations: Groundfish Enterprise Allocation Council (GEAC), Canadian Association of Prawn Producers (CAPP), and the Northern Coalition (NC). The purpose of the closure is to avoid fishing-related damage to five species of corals, which include; *Primnoa resedaeformis* Gunnerus 1763,

Paragorgia arborea Unnaeus 1758, *Paramuricea placomus* Linnaeus 1758, *P. grandis*

of conduct has been developed by industry for its members operating in the area. The code requires operators to halt fishing activities when significant concentrations of any of the five coral species are encountered. However 'significant' is not defined, and is applied subjectively based on the operator's judgement. It is the operator's responsibility to report each significant encounter and move elsewhere to resume fishing. As well, the code only applies to members of the three organizations stated above, and exempts the participation of Aboriginal groups and small boat operators. The closure and code of conduct employ the honour system; therefore, there are no legal ramifications or enforcement measures against non-compliant resource users. Most members abide by the closure but some fishing still occurs within the boundaries of the voluntary closure (Wareham et al., 2010). Regardless of its flaws, the closure is a "good first step" towards protecting corals and sponges (MPA News, 2007). However, to fully protect corals found in this area, the existing closure must be extended based on new information that was not previously available (Wareham et al., 2010)

These findings document species richness (Fig. 4.7.) and; more importantly, document large catches (> 500 kgs) of corals particularly *Paragorgia arborea* and *Primnoa resedaeformis* (Fig. 4.8.), two large long-lived species not found frequently anywhere else within the Newfoundland, Labrador and Baffin Island regions (Wareham & Edinger, 2007; Wareham, 2009). The Voluntary Closure is an interim measure that will be revisited in 2012 by the fishing industry and could be revoked if members do not



Figure 4.7. Map illustrating the Voluntary Coral Protection Zone with coral species richness. Richness was determined by the number of coral species observed per set from DFO Multispecies Surveys and fisheries observers from 2002 to 2007

NAFORegulatoryAreasontheHighSeas

Efforts to protect VMEs, namely corals and sponges, are also being made in international waters within the **NRA** with five seamounts closed to bottom fishing (NAFO, 2006; 2008d). Seamount closures were announced shortly after UNGA Resolution 61/105 (2006), but will be reviewed in 2010. The provisional fishing ban includes the New England, Corner, Fogo, and Newfoundland Seamounts, and Orphan Knoll (Fig 4.9). These closures are interim measures that also permit small-scale exploratory

area is currently undefined. Seamounts are unique ecosystems because they provide genetic connectivity in the deep-sea, host endemic species, and **provide areas of refugia** (Parinetal., 1997; Richerde Forgesetal., 2000; Smithetal., 2004; Stocks & Hart, 2007; Robertsetal., 2009). Similar to other deep-sea environments, seamounts are **extremely vulnerable to anthropogenic disturbances with lasting effects**, as evidenced on the Corner Seamounts by trawl door scars left from fishing activities conducted in the 1960s (Walleretal., 2007)



Figure 4.9. Map of seamounts closed to bottom fishing within the NAFO Regulatory Area

In Canada, several key legislative tools are used to manage and protect Canada's marine resources (see Campbell & Simms, 2009), most notably the *Oceans Act (1997)* which includes Canada's *Oceans Strategy (2002)*, Canada's *Oceans Action Plan*

(2005), *Marine Protected Areas Strategy* (2005), *Health of the Oceans Initiative* (2007), and *Fisheries Act* (1985)

Canada's Oceans Act is an important management tool designed to help conserve, protect, and develop marine resources. The *Act* is based on three guiding principles: sustainable development, the precautionary approach, and integrated management. The *Act* promotes sustainable development using a precautionary approach—which purports that government should err on the side of caution when lack of scientific data exists. It also promotes an integrated management approach to help bring together all interested parties (e.g. governments and stakeholders) in order to work towards common goals. Ultimately, the *Act* assigns the Minister of Fisheries and Oceans Canada the responsibility for leading and facilitating the management of Canada's ocean resources.

Canada's Oceans Strategy is contained within the Oceans Act and outlines the policy statement for a national direction: "to ensure healthy, safe, and prosperous oceans for the benefit of present and future generations of Canadians". The strategy applies to estuaries, coastal waters, and deep-sea ecosystems within national boundaries.

Canada's *Oceans Action Plan* communicates a national approach for sustainable and security; 2.) Integrated oceans management for sustainable development; 3.) Health of the oceans; and 4.) Ocean science and technology. Large Ocean Management Areas (LOMAs) fall under the *Oceans Action Plan*, and are management areas identified within the oceans bordering Canada. Currently there are five LOMAs designated, including:

undertaken for each LOMAsuch as the identification of Ecologically andBiologically

Significant Areas (EBSAs). These are unique areas that are considered relatively more important than surrounding areas based on three primary criteria (**uniqueness**, aggregation and fitness consequences) and two secondary ones (resilience and naturalness). Currently DFO Newfoundland and Labrador Region is moving forward on developing key marine ecosystem components and/or properties for the Placentia Bay/Grand Bank LOMA to help with risk analysis, assessments, and recommendations for conservation. Both LOMA and EBSA assessments will be used to develop future

Canada's *Marine Protected Areas Strategy* provides federal departments and agencies (DFO, Environment Canada, and Parks Canada Agency) with guidelines to help develop a cohesive and complementary network of MPAs (DFO, 2005a). These new MPAs will be established under the *Oceans Act* using an integrated oceans management framework, and will promote healthy oceans and marine environments (DFO, 2005b)

Marine Protected Areas provide legal protection to commercial and non-commercial species and their habitats, endangered and threatened marine species and their habitats, unique habitats, and unique areas of high biodiversity (i.e. EBSAs)

The *Health of the Oceans Initiatives (HOTO)* is the latest government programme that will take the necessary steps to protect fragile marine environments through the creation of nine new MPAs (DFO, 2005b). It also includes a commitment for Newfoundland and Labrador Region to develop a coral conservation strategy by 2012 (Campbell & Simms, 2009), and continue collaborations with World Wildlife Fund (WWF) Canada and other ocean interests. It will strengthen prevention measures for pollution, invest in scientific research to support and advice on MPA networks, and expand on and develop future collaborations - or amongst domestic and international institutions (e.g. NEREIDA 2009-2010 Expeditions)

Canada's *Fisheries Act* (amended 1985) is the most powerful management tool for marine conservation. It was implemented to help prevent harmful alteration, disruption or destruction (HADD) of fish habitats, and to help prevent the deposition of substances deleterious to fish (*Fisheries Act* s.34-36). Based on the *Fisheries Act*, the definition of "fish" includes "marine animals and any parts of marine animals", and therefore can be interpreted to include corals. The *Act* defines fish habitat as:

"fish habitat[s]" spawning grounds and nursery, rearing, food supply and migration areas on which fish depend directly or indirectly in order to carry

It has been shown that corals provide habitat for fish (Auster, 2005; Costello et al., 2005; Roberts et al., 2006) and act as nurseries (Etnoyer & Warrenchuk, 2007); therefore,

apply to fishing because "fishing cannot be considered a work or undertaking" (s. 35(1) *Fisheries Act*). The *Fisheries Act* does provide resource managers with the legal power to reduce, limit, and restrict fishing activities in any manner deemed necessary to protect

Protection Zone, and *Lophelia Coral Conservation Area* are all examples of marine areas established and protected under the *Act*. The *Act* allows closures to be established instantaneously but protection is not permanent and can be reversed as

Canada's national efforts toward marine conservation are also being driven by international agreements such as the United Nations (UN) *Oceans and Law of the Sea Convention* (1982), the *Convention on Biological Diversity* (Convention, 1992), UN Fish

Stocks Agreement (1995), and the Food and Agricultural Organization Code of Conduct for Responsible Fishing (2005)

The UN Fish Stocks Agreement puts forth several important guiding principles and approaches such as Article 5 (sustainable fisheries ecosystem approach), Article 6 (precautionary approach), and Article 7 (compatibility principle). However, more recently the UNGA Resolution 61/105 (2006) has been the most influential catalyst for recent conservation efforts in Canada as well as within NRA (NAFO 2006; 2007; 2008a, b;

The UNGA Resolution 61/105 (paragraph 83a-d) applies regulations pertaining to high seas bottom fisheries. High seas are defined under the Convention on the High Seas (2005) as oceans, seas, and waters outside of national jurisdictions. This means that nations conducting bottom fishing on the high seas can now be held accountable for their actions or lack thereof, and must manage these areas in order to prevent significant adverse impacts to VMEs. Nations actively fishing the northwest Atlantic include European Union (EU) countries (Spain, Portugal, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland), the Russian Federation, Iceland, Norway, Denmark (Faroe Islands and Greenland), Republic of Korea, Ukraine, Cuba, United States, Japan, France (Saint Pierre et Miquelon), and Canada (NAFO, 2009c)

Section 83a of UNGA Resolution 61/105 calls for impact assessments of high seas fisheries to determine how these impact VMEs and how to prevent significant adverse impacts to VMEs. This section has not been addressed but will likely be the next focus of

Section 83b of the resolution calls for the long-term sustainability of deep-sea fish stocks. This can be achieved using fishery quotas, gear restrictions and effort limitations

UnderNAFO, mostdirectedspecies(Greenlandhalibut,redfish, northernprawn, and skate),with the exception of grenadiers, are regulated through the allocation of quotas Areas already under protection (CAD-NAFO Coral Protection Zone) have gear restrictionsandlimitedeffortthroughclosures. Suchactions will contribute to long-term sustainabilitybut may not be enough with most deep-sea fish species considered over-exploited (Merrett &Haedrich, 1997; Haedrichetal., 2001; Devineetal., 2006)

to occur, such as, concentrations of corals and sponges, and seamounts. In 2006 several seamounts were closed to bottom fishing (see Fig. 4.9; NAFO, 2006), with Fogo Seamountsaddedtothelistin2008(NAFO, 2008d). Twentypercentofeachseamount can besubjectedtoexploratoryfishing(NAFO, 2006)whichwill be determined in later years based on whether substrates are suitable to conductfishing (e.g. trawlable)

In 2008, the Working Group on Ecosystem Approach to Fisheries Management (WGEAFM) was formed as a subsidiary to NAFO Scientific Council (SC) to help address information, seven candidateVMEswere identified (Fig. 4.10; in green) and put forth to NAFO from the WGEAFM (NAFO 2008c). From the original candidates, number seven, southern Grand Bank, was previously closed in 2007. The WGEAFM has recommended

present 800 m boundaryintoshallowerwaters, in order for this c10sureto be more effectiveinprotectingcorals(NAFO, 2008c;seeFig.4.5)

As of January 1, 2010, based on the recommended VME candidates, 11 areas were closed(Fig. 4.10; inred)onaninterimbasis(Jan.1, 2010-Dec. 31, 2011)toallbottom fishing(NAFO, 2010)



Figure 4.10. Location of candidate VMEs (in green) identified and recommended to NAFO by the Working Group On Ecosystem Approach To Fisheries Management (NAFO, 2008e), and actual areas designated as interim coral protection zones (in red) by NAFO, based on candidate VMEs (NAFO, 2010)

Section 83d of the resolution requests encounter protocols be developed and implemented on the high seas. Such protocols would require fishing vessels to “cease fishing” in areas where VMEs are encountered, NAFO developed an encounter protocol for its contracting parties in 2008, which classifies the NRAAs either historically fished

On a national level, Canada has developed the *Fisheries Renewal Program*, which includes several policies that will guide fisheries management and help protect VMEs as well as align national policies with current international agreements (e.g. UN Agreement on Straddling and Highly Migratory Fish Stocks). The *Fisheries Renewal Program* includes; the *Sustainable Fisheries Framework* (DFO, 2009b), *Managing the Impacts on Sensitive Benthic Areas Policy* (DFO, 2009a), and *the Ecological Risk Analysis* (DFO, 2009a). These policies and strategies Outline a national direction towards sustainable development, and integrated management, while exercising the precautionary and

The *Sustainable Fisheries Framework* (SFF) was developed to promote environmentally sustainable fisheries while supporting economic prosperity. It is comprised of four elements: conservation and sustainable use policies; economic policies; governance policies and principles; and planning and monitoring tools (DFO, 2009b). Under conservation and sustainable use policies, three new policies have been introduced; *Managing Impacts of Fishing on Sensitive Benthic Areas* (Habitat, Community, and Species), *A Fishery Decision-Making Framework Incorporating the Precautionary Approach*, and *New Fisheries for Forage Species*

Managing the Impacts on Sensitive Benthic Areas Policy is a highly anticipated legislative tool developed by DFO. The purpose is to:

- *Help DFO manage fisheries to mitigate impacts of fishing in sensitive benthic areas or avoid impacts of fishing that are likely to cause serious or
- applies to all commercial, recreational, and Aboriginal marine fishing

economic zone" (DFO, 2009a)

The policy will support data collection and identification of sensitive areas. Potential impacts on sensitive areas (e.g. habitat, communities, and species) from fishing activities will be determined through the *Ecological Risk Analysis Framework* developed by DFO Fisheries and Aquaculture Management (FAM). Deep-sea corals and sponge concentrations will be the first areas identified (DFO, 2009a). Management decisions made under this Policy are guided by the Precautionary Approach and Ecosystem Approach. Its intention is to exercise a higher level of risk aversion for: frontier areas (e.g. new fishing areas), historically fished areas that have not been fished in a number of years, and areas where specific gear types have not been previously used.

The *Policy for Managing the Impacts of Fishing on Sensitive Benthic Areas* could be a large step forward for Canada, directing how the nation manages and protects its ocean resources. However, the definition of Frontier Areas needs to be revised. Currently, the

"without a history of fishing in Canadian waters. This is interpreted to mean of fishing and little if any information is available concerning the benthic features (habitat, communities and species) and the impacts of fishing on these features" (DFO, 2009a)

The policy identifies two types of frontier areas: waters deeper than 2000 m, and the high Arctic. Unfortunately, the definition excludes patches of 'virgin' areas within historically-fished grounds (e.g. parts of Hatton Basin) where sensitive benthic species (e.g. corals, sponges) are suspected but little or no information is available (Wareham &

Edinger, 2007; Gilkinson&Edinger, 2009; Wareham et al., 2010). These potential 'patches' could be much larger in area than those areas actually fished. As a result, the 'patches' of virgin grounds that are considered 'frontiers' by the scientific community but are not defined under the current policy

Under the *Health of the Oceans Initiative* (2007), the Canadian Federal Government plans to protect fragile, ecologically-significant marine areas by establishing nine new MPAs. The process of MPA selection is time-consuming. It starts with a list of candidate several Areas Of Interest (AOI) and then subjected to public consultation. It is the intent that one of these sites chosen as an AOI will be formally designated a MPA by 2012 (N Templeman, DFO, personal communication, Oct. 20, 2009). However, the entire process can take years to complete and does not always end with success (e.g. Leading Tackles, NL). Within the Placentia Bay/Grand Banks LOMA, 11 EBSAs have been identified, with the Southwest Shelf Edge and Slope ranked high for unique coral concentrations and biodiversity (DFO, 2007b). In the spring of 2009, DFO completed internal and external consultations on five priority EBSAs (Southeast Shoal and tail of the Banks, the Southwest Shelf Edge and Slope, Laurentian Channel and Slope, St. Pierre Bank, and Northeast Shelf and Slope), as a key step in the process of identifying a potential AOI in the Newfoundland and Labrador region (N. Templeman, DFO, personal communication, Oct. 20, 2009)

documented and information on the Arctic region is increasing. When data on corals are

compiled into distribution maps; patterns of coral frequencies emerge. Based on these maps, five areas are highlighted as potential candidates for marine protection and future scientific research. The areas of interest are described below from north to south (Fig 411)

and Labrador (Haedrich & Gagnon, 1991) but are not described here because they are not sampled by DFO multispecies surveys or by fisheries from which samples were collected for this thesis. Examples of such inshore areas of importance include Bayd'

observed on submersible dives (Haedrich & Gagnon, 1991). These and other inshore areas merit further study



Figure 4.11. Priority areas for future deep-sea coral research are highlighted in green.

4.6.1 Hatton Basin (National Waters)

The Hatton Basin is located between southeast Baffin Island and the northern tip of Labrador. The area is influenced by cold waters originating from the high arctic via the Hudson Strait and Labrador Current flowing from Baffin Bay (Drinkwater & Harding, 2001). The Hatton Basin and surrounding areas are important fishing areas for Greenland halibut and northern shrimp (Wareham et al., 2010), and are known for strong currents (Griffiths et al., 1981; Piper, 2005), rough substrates (D. Orr, DFO Newfoundland and Labrador Region, personal communication, Sept. 2005; Wareham et al., 2010) and high coral by-catch (MacIsaac et al., 2001; Gass & Willison, 2005; Wareham, 2009; Wareham et al., 2010). Trawl by-catch rates of coral from the Hatton Basin are comparable to rates documented from 'virgin' waters off Alaska (Kreiger, 2001) and Tasmanian Seamounts (Anderson & Clarke, 2003).

Scientific survey data and observations from fisheries observers from the area have documented high diversity (Fig. 4.12) and abundance (Fig. 4.8) of large gorgonians (e.g. *P. resedaeformis* and *P. arborea*) not previously observed in the Newfoundland and Labrador region (Wareham & Edinger, 2007; Wareham, 2009; Wareham et al., 2010). As well some fisheries observers have noted a temporal change in the average size of corals, particularly *P. resedaeformis* and *P. arborea*, which appear to have declined compared to the original "Glory Hole Days" in the early 1990s when commercial fisheries first expanded into this region (R. Beazley, SeaWatch Ltd* personal communication, March 16, 2007).

for corals. Also known as Cape Chidley, it has been highlighted in earlier studies as a coral 'hotspot' (MacIsaac et al., 2001; Gass & Willison, 2005). Currently, the only

protection offered for Hatlon Basin and the surrounding areas is the industry-led Voluntary Coral Protection Zone and associated code-of-conduct. Based on commercial log book data, the centre of Hatlon Basin is largely avoided, and a majority of fishing effort is concentrated on the outer edges and continental slope (Wareham et al., 2010). The voluntary closure protects a portion of Hatlon Basin, which has reduced fishing within its boundaries, but has not halted all fishing activities (Wareham et al., 2010)

Concentrations of large gorgonian corals still continue to be captured as by-catch in the vicinity as well as within the closure (see Figs. 4.7, 4.8, 4.12, & 4.13) indicating that the present voluntary closure is insufficient in size and location (Wareham et al., 2010)

Legislative measures are needed to adequately protect concentrations of corals. As well, further in situ research is needed to properly assess and delineate the full extent of coral concentrations within this unique area (Edinger et al., 2007a; Wareham & Edinger, 2007; Gilkinson & Edinger, 2009; Wareham, 2009; Wareham et al., 2010). Other voluntary closures off British Columbia, Canada have not sufficiently protected sponges due to the 'year factor', where fishing intensifies prior to a closure and/or within the vicinity of the proposed closure (Ardron et al., 2007; Robert et al., 2009)

Large catches of corals (see Fig. 4.8); and the long-lived species encountered (see Chapter 3, Fig. 3.3); combined with high species richness (see Fig. 4.12); indicate that portions of the Hatlon Basin area have never been impacted by bottom fishing practices. **This WDuld suggest that remnant pockets of frontier or virgin sea floor exist within and around the Hatlon Basin, and if so, are currently not protected under DFO's 'Frontier Areas Policy' based on the current definition of 'frontier' (see section 4.5.3; DFO, 2009a)**

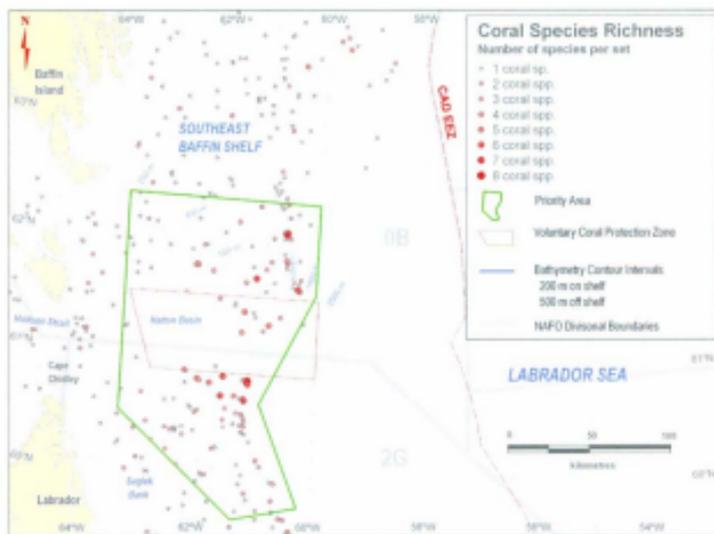


Figure. 4.12. Map of Hatton Basin, priority area for future deep-sea coral research. Map illustrates the current Voluntary Coral Protection Zone with coral species richness. Richness was determined by the number of coral species observed per set from DFO Multispecies Surveys and fisheries observers from 2002 to 2007



Figure. 4.13. Coral by-catches from Hatton Basin: (left) *Paragorgia arborea* by-catch on trawl deck from Northern Shrimp Research Survey, and (right) *Primnoa resedaeformis* fragments entangled in a commercial gill net. Photo courtesy of DFO

4.6.2 Labrador Shelf Edge and Upper Slope (National Waters)

The Labrador Shelf extends parallel to the Labrador coast and includes numerous banks incised with shelf-crossing troughs. The outer edge of the shelf is influenced by the cold Labrador Current flowing southward. The southeast portion, along the edge and slope

diversity of all the priority areas; surpassed only by the Southwest Grand Banks (Wareham & Edinger, 2007). It also had the highest occurrence of 10 straws (Hughes, 2009) indicating rougher substrates. Sensitive VME species include large gorgonians; *Paramuricea* spp., *Paragorgia arborea*, and *Primnoa resedaeformis*. This area is recommended as a priority area (Fig. 4.14) for further research based on the diversity of corals, and the presence of rare and sensitive species

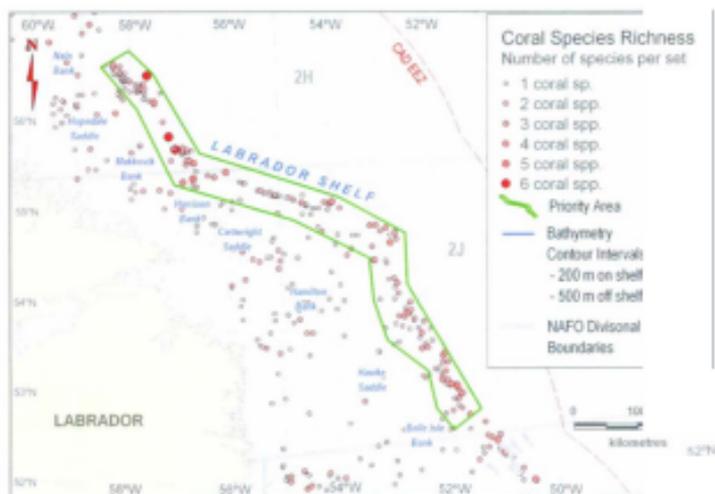


Figure 4.14. Map of the Labrador Shelf, priority area for future deep-sea coral research. Map illustrates coral species richness which was determined by the number of coral species observed per set from DFO Multispecies Surveys and fisheries observers from

4.6.3 Orphan Spur and Tobin's Point (National Waters)

and is located northeast of the island of Newfoundland. Historically, this shelf was an important fishing area. Today, fishing efforts are now more focused on the edge and slope in deeper waters targeting Greenland halibut using otter trawls, longlines and gillnets than past decades (Hughes, 2009). On the Northeast Newfoundland Shelf two areas important for corals have been identified: Orphan Spur (Piper, 2005), previously

areas are located on the outer edge of the continental shelf

These areas were first identified from observer data as coral diversity hotspots and further supported by DFO survey data (Wareham & Edinger, 2007; Wareham, 2009)

Gear loss by gear type documented by observers (2006-2008) indicates a greater loss of trawl gear around Tobin's Point (Hughes, 2009) compared to Orphan Spur. This would indicate rougher substrates in this area. However, coral species composition, such as

In general, coral frequencies-of-occurrence are high with relatively moderate diversity compared to other priority areas. Sensitive species documented in this area include several rare, large gorgonians (Fig. 4.15; e.g. *P. arborea*, *P. resedaeformis*, and *Paramuricea* spp.), and numerous antipatharians, all of which require hard substrates for



Figure 4.15. A large intact *Paragorgia arborea* colony collected just north of Tobin's Point during the 2006 DFO fall survey. Samples of this species and size, are relatively infrequent

To date, Tobin's Point and Orphan Spur areas (Fig. 4.16) have had the highest frequency of antipatharians within the Newfoundland, Labrador, and Arctic regions (Tendal, 2004; Gass & Willison, 2005; Wareham & Edinger, 2007; Gilkinson & Edinger, 2009). Based on this information, the edge and slope of the Northeast Newfoundland Shelf is identified as a priority area in need of *in situ* research and urgent protection due to the intensity of fishing effort presently conducted in this area

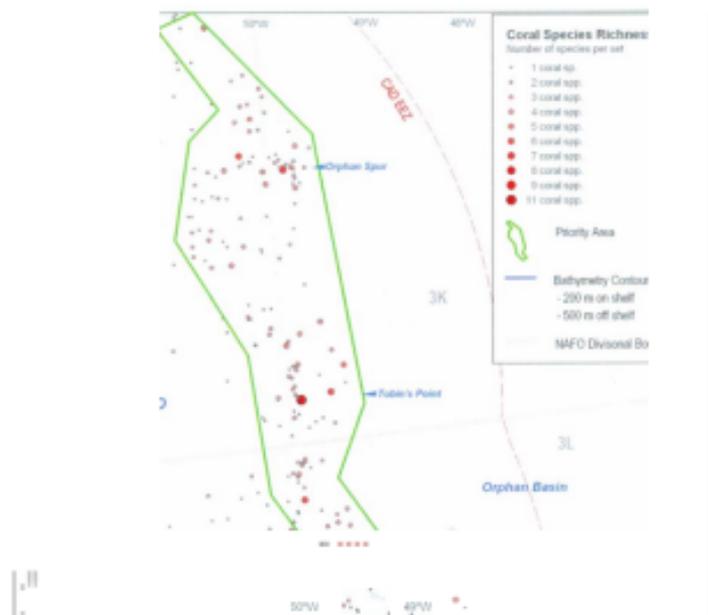


Figure 4.16. Map of Orphan Spur-Tobin's Point, priority area for future deep-sea coral research. Map illustrates coral species richness which was determined by the number of coral species observed per set from DFO Multispecies Surveys and fisheries observers

4.8.4 Flemish Pass (International Waters)

Flemish Pass is a deep underwater trough that separates the Canadian continental shelf from Flemish Cap and is heavily influenced by the cold Labrador Current. Multispecies surveys conducted by Canada and groundfish surveys conducted by Spain (EU) have documented frequent occurrences of antipatharians in this area, most notably

Stauropathes arctica (Lutken, 1871). Several significant concentrations of the gorgonian *K. ornata*, which were thoroughly mixed with *Asconema foliata* (Friedstedt, 1887), a fibreglass-like sponge (Wareham & Edinger, 2007; NAFO, 2008c; Fuller et al., 2008a; Gilkinson & Edinger, 2009; Murillo et al., 2009) were also mapped. Sherwood and Edinger (2009) have shown that both *K. ornata* and *S. arctica* exhibit slow growth rates and are long-lived and, if damaged, recovery for these K-strategist species may take

Located in international waters, the Flemish Pass is heavily-fished by many countries (Canada, EU, Japan, Russia, and United States) but effort appears to be focused on the upper (northeast and northwest) and lower (southeast and southwest) edges of Flemish Pass based on Vessel Monitoring System (VMS) data (Murillo et al., 2008). The centre of Flemish Pass, along with the western side of Flemish Cap where it protrudes out into it, is avoided by fishers. The slope in this particular area is steep and heavily-incised with submarine canyons and is considered untrawlable (Antonio Vázquez, NAFO, personal communication, Sept. 10, 2008). In areas where fishing is negligible, corals (*K. ornata*, *S. arctica*, and a diversity of seapens) were mapped using research survey data. Portions of Flemish Pass (Fig. 4.10 & 4.17) have been granted interim protection by NAFO, based on the significant concentrations of long-lived gorgonians and antipatharians, and sponges (NAFO, 2008c; Fuller et al., 2008a; Gilkinson & Edinger, 2009; NAFO, 2010). Further research is needed to evaluate the effectiveness of current closures, to see if they are sufficient in size and location

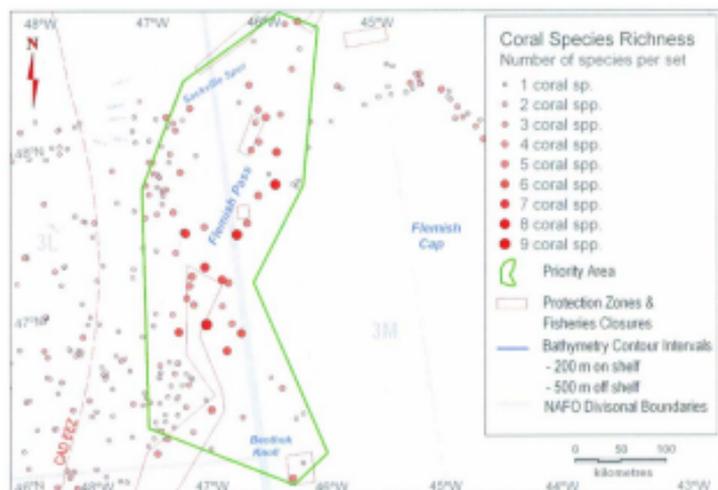


Figure 4.17. Map of Flemish Pass, priority area for future deep-sea coral research. Map illustrates coral species richness which was determined by the number of coral species observed per set from DFO Multispecies Surveys and fisheries observers from 2002 to

4.6.5 Southwest Grand Banks (National and International Waters)

The Southwest Grand Banks encompass the edge and slope of the Canadian continental shelf of the Grand Banks of Newfoundland including Halibut and Haddock

influenced by warm slope water from the Gulf Stream as it moves across the North Atlantic. It is an important area for a variety of directed fisheries using primarily fixed-gear types. Most recently, it has been identified as a coral diversity hotspot (Edinger et al.

2007a; Wareham & Edinger, 2007). *In situ* observations from the 2007 DFO ROPOS

expedition showed large concentrations of *K. ornata* between 800-1000m depths, in colonies (~1 m height x 1 m width) occurred in patches on isolated boulders with other coral species (*Anthomastus* spp., *Acanthogorgia armata* Verrill 1878, and nephroids). The surrounding area around each patch was predominantly mud substrate and devoid of sessile megafauna. Other unique habitats were observed such as vast sea pen and *Acanella arbuscula* (Johnson, 1862) fields that spanned 100s of metres. Quantification of corals and sea pens from video collected during the 2007 ROPOS cruise are currently ongoing (Baker et al., 2008).

division between depths of 800-2000 m but, unfortunately, does not include unique coral habitats found at shallower depths during the 2007 ROPOS cruise, nor the *Keratoisis* thickets located in NAFO division 3Ps to the west of the closure. On a regional level, the identified EBSAs by DFO for Placentia Bay/Grand Banks LOMA was expanded to

thickets were found (Templeman, 2007). The southwest Grand Banks is the only priority area already under partial protection (Fig. 4.18). However, several issues should be re-examined, such as the extension of the current boundary to include shallower coral habitats identified previously (Wareham & Edinger, 2007) but not included in current

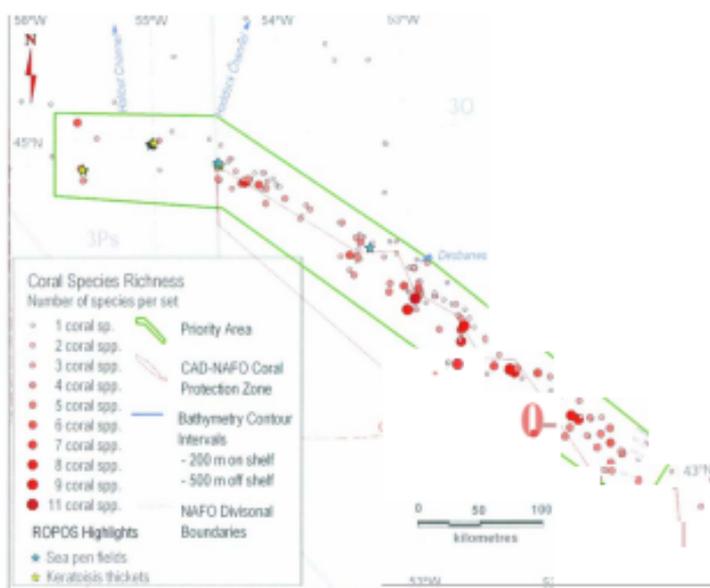


Figure 4.18. Map of southwest Grand Banks, priority area for future deep-sea coral research. Map illustrates the current CAD-NAFO Coral Protection Zone overlaid with coral species richness. Richness was determined by the number of coral species observed per set from DFO Multispecies Surveys and fisheries observers from 2002 to

Since the late 1990s, the Maritimes Region of DFO has made great progress with coral research. This region has documented coral distributions; established several protected

areas; perform annual benthic research surveys; and developed a **Coral Conservation Plan**(2006-2010; DFO, 2006b)

Research on corals in the Newfoundland and Labrador Region began in 2003. In this relatively short time, coral biodiversity and biogeographic patterns have been documented and mapped, and novel research focusing on life histories, ecology, biogeochemistry, and relationships to fish has been initiated (see Gilkinson & Edinger, 2009). Priority areas for protection and further research are now identified but, so far, only interim measures have been taken. The next steps are to **continue with dedicated research programmes** in order to fill information gaps on recruitment, reproduction, and recovery rates; and to assist in the designation of important areas for immediate long-

Compared to other regions in Canada, DFO Newfoundland and Labrador Region face unique challenges regarding marine conservation, including a general lack of understanding and public awareness of environmental issues and **processes, and** traditional approaches to fisheries management

4.7.1 Public Awareness and Understanding

One challenge for Newfoundland and Labrador Region is the lack of understanding and public awareness on environmental issues and processes related to marine conservation. The economy of Newfoundland and Labrador was/is developed on natural resources such as fishing, mining, forestry, and more recently oil **exploration**

Educational programmes are needed to inform the public about environmental processes to link nature with the processes of ecosystem functions. **This approach would promote conservation awareness, but more importantly build acceptance of the steps required to ensure marine conservation and protection** (e.g. MPA process)

The first step would be to assess the level of understanding the public has on conservation issues and determine at what educational level (primary, secondary, etc.)

levels, such as through the school curriculum, government-led programmes (e.g. Hunter Education Courses), or through local media outlets (e.g. Fisheries Broadcast, Land and Sea, and VOXM Open Line). For example, at the provincial intermediate school level a marine component was introduced to the Grade Eight science curriculum in 2008. At the high school level an optional Environmental Science Programme has been incorporated into the 2009 curriculum (M. McKeon, Newfoundland and Labrador Regional School District, personal communication, Nov. 19, 2009; Eastern School District, 2009a)

Scientists from DFO were involved in writing sections for the new high school environmental sciences text book (K. Gilkinson, DFO, personal communication, Nov. 3, 2009), which has been updated to reflect current issues relevant to this province (Eastern School District, 2009b)

For resource users like fishers, educational awareness programmes could be incorporated into licence agreements or as dockside educational programmes (Lien, 1994). In addition, short educational programmes could be developed to help promote environmental issues via local media such as Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC) Land and Sea programme. Material to produce such programmes could be provided by Science Branch generated from local research (e.g. ROPOS Discovery Expeditions). To increase public awareness on local environmental issues and processes related to marine conservation within Newfoundland and Labrador, government-led education programmes are key

Information on global policies (i.e. UNGA Resolution 61/105) that affect national and regional issues and actions need to be interpreted and disseminated to the public. The

terminology used in these policies is often foreign to most readers and events influencing such policies may not be well known. This is where NGOs (Non-Government Organizations), ENGOs (Environmental Non-Government Organizations) and conservation groups can help. Other regions in Canada have well-established conservation groups (e.g. SIERRA Club, David Suzuki Foundation) and environmental advocacy organizations (e.g. World Wildlife Fund, Ecology Action Centre) that play an important role as environmental watchdogs, public educators, and policy translators. Such groups bridge the knowledge gap between convoluted legislation, policies and environmental issues. The number of advocacy groups (e.g. Canadian Parks and Wilderness Society, Conservation Corps, MUN Project Green) is growing within Newfoundland and Labrador. Recently World Wildlife Fund (WWF) established a local chapter in St. John's, as well as entered into a Collaborative Agreement with OFO Newfoundland and Labrador Region to promote a better working relationship and fund future research collaborations (DFO, 2009c). Department of Fisheries and Oceans is also working more closely with other environmental NGOs on conservation issues, as evident by signing a Memorandum of Understanding with members of the coalition of national and regional non-governmental conservation organizations (DFO, 2007c).

However, public perception of environmental activists still remains tainted by historical conflicts between the public and international animal rights groups (e.g. seal hunt protesters). As a result many Newfoundlanders and Labradorians distrust all environmental groups and view them as extremist. Awareness through education and a more "practical" presentation of environmental issues is slowly changing local attitudes. For example when whale entrapments were presented to fishers as a fisheries problem and not only as an environmental one, the approach helped provide DFO scientists with the cooperation needed to resolve the issue (G. Stenson, DFO Newfoundland and

Labrador Region, personal communication, Dec. 8, 2009). This same approach could be used for by-catch issues related to corals

As 'front line' workers, fishers can also play the role of the environmental advocate voicing concerns related to the sea. A good example of this was seen in the Maritimes where, in Nova Scotia, deep-sea coral activism originated with long-line fishers. These fishers shared their knowledge on deep-sea coral distributions and directed scientists to the first reported coral gardens in Canada now protected within the Northeast Channel Conservation Area (Lees, 2002). In Newfoundland and Labrador some fishers (and observers) have stepped forward, voicing concerns about the destruction of 'sea-trees' (w. Bartlett, Newfoundland and Labrador fisherman, personal communication, Oct. 10, 2005). Fishers promote deep-sea conservation awareness by displaying magnificent specimens of large corals caught as by-catch (see Fig. 4.19 & 4.20). Information fishers provide give scientist invaluable information on historic distributions of deep-sea corals, albeit a snapshot in time (Gass & Willison, 2005; Colpron et al. 2010)

Distributions of corals are being systematically studied in Newfoundland and Labrador, and eastern Canadian Arctic; however, we know very little about baseline information of anthropogenic impacts on corals; past concentrations of large gorgonians which are now limited to only a few areas; as well as maximum size of individual colonies. Local Ecological Knowledge (LEK) has been utilized in previous deep-sea coral studies (Gass & Willison, 2005; Colpron et al., 2010) but needs to be investigated in greater detail (see Coward et al., 2000; Neis & Felt, 2000). Retired fishers, whom have spent their entire changes of coral by-catch and may be less reluctant to withhold information, which may

ostracize them from others in the community (S. Fuller, EcologyActionCentre, Feb. 8, 2009, personal communication)

"Out-of-sight, out-of-mind" holds true when it comes to protection of deep-sea habitats. For Newfoundland and Labrador fishers who have spent their entire life on the sea, the only concept they have of these deep-water ecosystems is derived from the intact, or more typically, fragmented pieces of coral brought up in their fishing gear (Figs. 4.19 & 4.20). For the few fishers who have been fortunate enough to see these systems in their natural state, in situ images of these seafloors ensure 1.) a better appreciation of deep-sea habitat and associated marine life (e.g. corals), 2.) demonstrate the potential role of these species in benthic ecosystems, and 3.) most importantly, provide an understanding of why they should be protected. This information is critical. Most fishers are unaware of the role that corals play in benthic habitats. To ask a fisher to give up a primary fishing area in order to protect corals must appear unrealistic, and difficult to accept, when encumbered with the pressures of bills to pay, quotas to meet, and



Figure 4.1g. Examples of coral samples caught as by-catch by local Newfoundland and Labrador gillnet fisher; (L-R) *Primnoa sedaeformis*, *Paraborgia arborea*, and *Desmophyllum dianthus* from Makkovik Bank, Labrador Shelf



Figure 4.20. Examples of coral samples caught as by-catch by local Newfoundland and Labrador fishers; (L-R) *Paramuricea* sp. acquired off southern Newfoundland, and *Keratoisornata* from the northern tip of St. Pierre Bank

4.7.2 Traditional Management Styles and Advancements

Another challenge for marine conservation has been the traditional management style and views of DFO. The focus for DFO Newfoundland and Labrador Region, like most

regions, was managing fisheries as individual components (i.e. single species stock assessment), and not viewing the ecosystem as a network of intricate links between hierarchical levels. As a result science priorities focused on groundfish surveys, and available resources for research were reallocated accordingly. Unlike other regions, the Maritimes shifted towards an ecosystem-based approach, including the investment and development of dedicated benthic surveys to complement traditional survey data

As for Newfoundland and Labrador, with the collapse of the cod fishery, effort was placed on developing new fisheries utilizing traditional gear types (Roberts, 2007; B Wareham, Newfoundland and Labrador Government, personal communication, Sept. 11, 2008). Fisheries expanded into deeper waters as well as into Canada's eastern Arctic (DFO, 2008a). The proximity of this province to international waters means local issues

necessary, adding additional challenges to managing resources in this region

Nonetheless, we have entered into a new era and management views are slowly changing as efforts are being made to align the region with a national direction (DFO, 2009d). Funding provided through the International Governance Programme (IGP) supported a three-year research project titled the *Newfoundland and Labrador Deep-Sea Coral Project*. The project focused on deep-sea coral distributions and biodiversity, and explored coral biology and ecology, and associated species (see Gilkinson & Edinger, 2009). The project concluded in 2007 with the Discovery Cruise using the latest deep-sea technology, ROPOS (see www.ropos.com). Additional funding has been provided for further deep-sea research on corals, sponges, and VMES, through the International Governance Strategy (IGS), under Health of the Oceans Strategy

Re-allocation of limited resources into essential research areas within the region will take time. One of the greatest challenges relate to region size, in that Newfoundland and Labrador region is significantly larger than any others in Canada. Another is acquiring proper research tools to carry out 'non-destructive or low impact' sampling techniques that will have minimal impact on benthic communities (e.g. ROVs, deep-sea cameras). An initial investment in a Remotely Operated Vehicle (ROV) would be costly but highly beneficial because it has the capability to conduct benthic surveys, map habitats, monitor changes, document impacts, educate the public through video footage, and collect samples whether it be biological, physical, or electronic data (Roberts, 2007, Koslow, 2007, Robert et al., 2009). These deep-sea ROV cruises are infrequent and are jointly funded through DFO and other agencies (e.g. NSERC). In 2010, ROPOS will be deployed off Newfoundland and the Orphan Knoll, Flemish Cap, and Tobin's Point.

Other research options include investing in deep-sea camera systems that can document *in situ* observations in combination with traditional surveys. The Newfoundland and Labrador Deep-sea Corals Project has acquired such a camera system that can document habitat to a depth of 1000m but lacks the operational funds and dedicated platforms needed to launch it. As funds become available, the project team anticipates using the system, along with other tools, to ground-truth candidate VMEs. Acquiring modern sampling tools and reliable platforms are basic necessities for deep-sea research. However, these tools can be used in many different environments, not just the deep-sea. This is especially important in Newfoundland and Labrador; to replace traditional methods of trawl surveys currently being used.

Recently, DFO Newfoundland and Labrador has made advances in adopting an ecosystem approach through broadening research areas and methodologies. Research

surveys, which have traditionally targeted commercial species, have been expanded to include non-commercial species including megafauna such as corals and sponges (e.g. NEREUS Programme; Appendix 4). Newfoundland and Labrador's Expanded Research on Ecosystem-relevant but Under-surveyed Splicers (NEREUS) was implemented in the fall of 2007, and is a new Ecosystem Research Initiative (ERI) for the Newfoundland and Labrador Region. This programme will contribute data, promote the ecosystem approach, and help answer important questions about energy flows, and pathways in shelf marine ecosystems in the region.

Deep-sea coral by-catch data are regularly collected in most Canadian waters and were used to map distributions (Wareham & Edinger, 2007; Wareham, 2009) and areas of high concentrations of corals off eastern Canada (Wareham, 2010). The Newfoundland and Labrador Deep-sea Corals Programme has expanded in 2008 to include the collection of deep-sea sponge data and is investing in local taxonomic expertise on sponges. In addition, digital cameras have been issued to all Newfoundland and Labrador fisheries observers to aid with species identification and documentation of sponge by-catch at sea. Similar sponge datasets have been developed and utilized in the Atlantic Canada (Kenchington et al., 2010; Wareham et al., 2010), and others could be easily developed in a similar manner (e.g. bryozoans and hydroids). Once developed, datasets on coral, sponge and other megafauna could be combined in order to help scientist identify important areas of high biological diversity, as well as assist resource managers in delineating areas for protection.

Scientists in the region are involved in inter-regional, national and international working groups related to identifying VMEs within Canada's EEZ and the NRA; developing national coral-sponge encounter protocols, and drafting a Newfoundland, Labrador and Arctic coral-sponge conservation strategy for the northwest Atlantic. As well, the region

is now home for two new national centres: Centre of Expertise (CoE) in Aquatic Habitat Research (CAHR; DFO, 2009f), and the CoE in Cold Water Corals and Sponge Reefs (DFO, 2009e). The CoE in Cold Water Corals and Sponge Reefs has released the Status Report on Coral and Sponge Conservation in Canada (Campbell & Simms, 2009), which will be used to help develop the conservation strategy for the northwest Atlantic. Currently, the Maritimes Region has a strategy in place which will be revised in 2010 and it is anticipated that there will be strong similarities between the two strategies

immediate urgency to protect important areas and VMEs that are currently under threat from bottom fishing. Marine Protected Areas offer the highest level of protection but the process of establishing MPAs is complex and time-consuming. Immediate closures are needed and can be implemented under the *Fisheries Act*. Management decisions should be based primarily on scientific data with socio-economic considerations coming second

Another challenge with traditional management styles is how we conduct business; namely, how we fish. Trawling, also referred to as dredging, is generally viewed by the scientific community as one of the most destructive methods of fishing (Morgan & Chuenpagdee, 2003; Fuller et al., 2008b; Robert et al., 2009). It is indiscriminate; targets all species found in the trawls' path, and threatens whole habitats and ecosystems in the area swept (DFO, 2006d; Rice, 2006; Gordon et al., 2006). There are parts of the world where trawling is now banned (WWF, 2005a, 2005b; Associated Press, 2005; Penny et al., 2009). However, the government of Canada still permits trawling but is working with industry to better understand the environmental impacts of such fishing gear (DFO, 2006c)

In the Newfoundland and Labrador and Arctic regions, trawling continues to be the most-frequent fishing method (Fuller et al., 2008b). The basic principle of trawling has not changed since its introduction in the early 1900s. Slight gear modifications have been made to increase its versatility and effectiveness (e.g. rock hopper gear) as well as adaptations to reduce by-catch (e.g. Nordmore Grate, Turtle Exclusion Devices)

However, no modifications have been implemented to reduce the impact on the sea floor and the organisms that inhabit it (e.g. deep-sea corals and sponges). There is ongoing research at the Marine Institute (MUN) to reduce bottom contact of trawl nets by flying

marketed (P. Winger, Marine Institute, personal communication, Nov. 12, 2008). Roberts (2007) states it best: "bottom trawl nets will always crush and sever bottom-living species like corals. The only solution for this gear is to ban it completely, or greatly restrict where it can be used". The latter may be the best hope for protecting and conserving deep-sea corals in the Newfoundland and Labrador region, especially as fisheries utilizing trawl gear expand into Canada's arctic. In New Zealand, fisheries managers have been successful in controlling where bottom gear is used, with trawls restricted to areas previously fished while virgin areas are off-limits (Penny et al., 2009)

Fixed gears (e.g. longline, gillnets, and crab pots) used in this region have been shown to capture corals (Wareham & Edinger, 2007; Edinger et al., 2007ab), but this type of by-catch could be reduced with minor gear modifications. For example, if crab pots were singularly deployed, as in the Alaska crab fishery (Alaska Department of Fish & Game, 2009), it would reduce the drag of the gear across the sea floor during both deployment and entanglements in fixed gear (Volgenau et al., 1994; Lien, 1994) reported by crabfishers

This is just one example of how by-catch can be reduced by altering how we fish. Further research is needed to investigate additional options.

With the establishment of MPAs in eastern Canada, progress has been made to protect deep-sea corals. Strategies used for each area were discussed. As well, priority areas within Newfoundland and Labrador were identified. Unique challenges were reviewed and recommendations were suggested as potential solutions. To reiterate, several

First, even with these protection efforts, there is still an urgent need to identify and protect VMEs in Newfoundland, Labrador and Arctic regions. Coral distributions are now being consistently documented, and several locations identified for *in situ* research have been explored. Nevertheless, this region continues to lag behind others when it comes to permanent protective measures (i.e. MPAs). The process of MPA selection and designation is lengthy and complex. However, for highly-disputed areas the *Fisheries Act* may be the best conservation tool to prevent further damage, especially prior to an MPA designation, as seen in the Darwin Mounds Closure (see Robertse et al., 2009). Several candidate VMEs (e.g. Hatton Basin) could be closed immediately with minimal socio-economic impacts due to the lack of fishing in these areas. For the Hatton Basin, the voluntary closure is a good first step, but legislation is urgently needed to fully protect long-lived species found inside and outside the present closure. These coral species are highly sensitive to bottom fishing disturbances (Kreiger, 2001), and are among the 10 longest-lived species of coral found in the region (Sherwood & Edinger, 2009).

Second, is the importance of DFO investing in dedicated benthic research programmes (e.g. corals, sponges, habitat mapping using multibeam). The region has made

substantial progress with the Newfoundland and Labrador Deep-sea Corals, and NEREUS Programmes. However, these programmes are largely dependant on short-term funding (albeit long-term objectives) and opportunistic sampling on other dedicated surveys. Information gaps on recruitment, recovery rates, historic abundances and diversity of deep-sea corals are key areas of research. To fill such gaps, long-term studies are required with dedicated support and resources. Research is needed on gear modification to reduce or eliminate impacts on the seafloor. Department of Fisheries and Oceans Canada is providing ongoing funding for VMEs and coral research via IGS but additional capital investments toward modern technologies (e.g. ROVs, drop camera good science

Third, is the importance of collaborations and/or integrated management amongst institutions; nationally and internationally. The cost of deep-sea research may be more than one organization or institution has the capacity to carry. Therefore, it is

example, DFO is currently engaged in a two-year international collaboration on the high seas to map the sea floor using multibeam sonar, combined with ground-truthing (i.e. benthic sampling using box cores and dredges). The objectives of this project are to identify potential VMEs and to assess impacts of deep-sea fisheries within the NRA focusing on Flemish Cap, Flemish Pass, Beothuk Knoll, and the nose and tail of the Grand Banks (DFO, 2009g). In 2010, DFO (Newfoundland and Labrador, and Maritimes Regions) will collaborate again with MUN on a deep-sea expedition to Orphan Knoll, off northeast Newfoundland to compare physical and biological characteristics of this unique seamount with the adjacent continental shelf slope habitats (e.g. Orphan Spur)

Other projects and collaborations are being developed, which will include ENGOs such as WWF (DFO, 2007c, 2009c)

For policy planning, collaborations within DFO will be important. For example, the Newfoundland and Labrador Coral and Sponge Strategy, with support by Ecological Risk Analysis Framework will be key in future conservation measures for corals and sponges. Another important collaboration is the Canada Newfoundland and Labrador Offshore Petroleum Board and DFO Habitat Management, to help protect corals and identify candidate VMEs from non-fishing activities (e.g. oil and gas exploration)

The final step necessary to successfully achieve coral protection in Newfoundland and Labrador is a paradigm-shift of how the public perceives DFO and its role as managers of the ocean. Getting the public and industry onside will be the most difficult, but crucial part. It will require hard work and diligence through education programmes, transparency in management agendas, and communication campaigns to promote collaborative deep-

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APPENDIX 1: SYSTEMATIC LIST OF THE PHYLUM CNIDARIA: CLASS

ANTHOZOA NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR, AND BAFFIN ISLAND, CANADA

Systematic list of the Phylum Cnidaria: Class Anthozoa for all species documented off Newfoundland, Labrador, and southeast Baffin Island regions: species documented are in **bold**. Species documented more recently but not mentioned in this body of work are highlighted with **†**. Lists based on Integrated Taxonomic Information System (ITIS) for the exceptions of *Parasolenia atlantica* listed under the UNESCO-IOC Register of Marine Organisms (URMO), and *Heleuropopyrus* sp. listed under World Register of Marine Species (WoRMS)

Phylum Cnidaria Hatschek, 1888

Order Scleractinia Bourne, 1900 - stoney corals

Suborder Caryophyllina Vaughan and Wells, 1943

Superfamily Caryophylliacea

Family Caryophylliidae Dana, 1846

Desmosmilia ymani Pourtales, 1890

Desmophyllum dianthus (Esper, 1794)

Lophelia pertusa (Linnaeus, 1758)

Vaughanella margaritata (Jourdan, 1885)

Family Flabellidae (Bourne, 1905)

Flabellum alabastrum Moseley, 1876

Flabellum angulare Moseley, 1876

Flabellum macandrewi Gray, 1849

Javania cailletii (Duchassaing & Michelotti, 1864)

Subclass Ceriantipatharia Van Beneden, 1869

Order Antipatharia Milne-Edwards and Haime, 1857 - black and thorny corals

Family Antipathidae Ehrenberg, 1834

Stichopathes sp.

Bathypathes sp.

Family Schizopathidae Brook, 1889

Stauropathes arctica (Lutken, 1871)

Subclass Octocorallia Haeckel. 1866

Order Alcyonacea Lamouroux. 1816-soft corals

Suborder Alcyoniina-true softcorals

Family Alcyoniidae Lamouroux. 1812

Anthomastus grandiflorus Verrill

**Anthomastus cf. purpureus*

**Anthomastus agaricus*

**Heteropolypus* sp.

**Drifaglomerata* (Verrill. 1869)

Duva florida (Rathke, 1806)

Duva multiflora Verrill

**Gersemia fruticosa*

Gersemia rubiformis (Ehrenber9. 1834)

Suborder Calcaxonia

Family Isididae Lamouroux. 1812

Acanella arbuscula (Johnson. 1862)

Keratoisis ornata (Verrill. 1878)

Family Primnoidae

Primnoa resedaeformis (Gunnerus. 1763)

**Parastenella atlantica* Cairns. 2007(see URMO)

Suborder Holaxonia Studer. 1887

Family Acanthogorgiidae Gray. 1859

Acanthogorgia armata Verrill. 1878

Family Chrysogorgiidae Verrill, 1883

Chrysogorgia agassizii Verrill, 1883

Radicipes gracilis Verrill, 1884

Family Plexauridae Gray, 1859

Paramuricea grandis Verrill, 1883

Paramuricea placomus (Linnaeus. 1758)

Suborder Scleraxonia Studer. 1887

Family Anthothelidae Broch. 1916

Anthothela grandiflora (Sars. 1856)

Family Paragorgiidae

Paragorgia arborea (Linnaeus. 1758)

**Paragorgia johnsli*

Order Pennatulacea Verrill, 1865-seapens

Suborder Sessiliflorae Kükenthal, 1915

Family Anthoptilidae Kükener, 1880

Anthoptilum grandiflorum (Verrill, 1879)

Family Funiculinidae Lamarck, 1816

Funiculina quadrangularis (Pallas, 1766)

Family Kophobelemnidae Asbjørnsen, 1856

Kophobelemnion stelliferum (Müller, 1776)

Family Umbellulidae Williams, 1995

Umbellulalindahli (Kükener, 1875) (= *Umbellula*)

Umbellula encrinus (Linnaeus, 1758) (= *Umbellula*)

Family Protoptilidae Kükener, 1872

Distichoptilum gracile (Verrill, 1882)

Protoptilum carpenteri Kükener, 1872

Suborder Subsessiliflorae Kükenthal, 1915

Family Halipteridae Williams, 1995

Halipteris finmarchica (Sars, 1851)

Family Pennatulidae Ehrenberg, 1828

Pennatula aculeata Danielssen, 1860

Pennatulaborealis M. Sars, 1846 (= *P. grandis*)

Pennatula phosphorea Linnaeus, 1758

Family Virgulariidae Verrill, 1868

**Virgularia mirabilis* (Müller, 1776)

Caims, S.D. (2007). Studies on Western Atlantic Octocorallia (Octocorallia Primnoidae). Part 8 : New records of Primnoidae from the New England and Corner Rise Seamounts. Proceedings of the Biological Society of Washington, 119(2), 243-

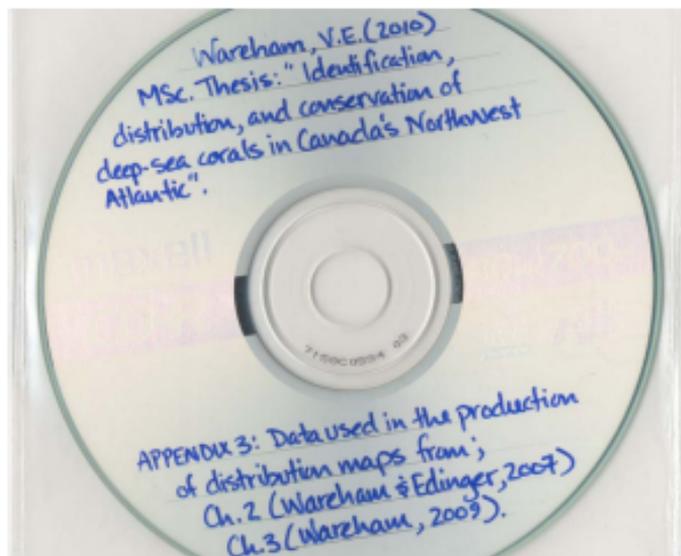
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World Register of Marine Species (2010). URL: <http://www.marinespecies.org/index.php>

APPENDIX 3: DISTRIBUTION MAPS AND DATA USED IN THE PRODUCTION OF MAPS FROM CHAPTER 2 (WAREHAM & EDINGER, 2007) AND CHAPTER 3 (WAREHAM, 2009)



Compact Disk includes; distribution maps (PDF format), data used in maps (Microsoft Excel format), and identification guide to deep-sea corals (PDF format)

NEWFOUNDLAND, LABRADOR, AND BAFFIN ISLAND, CANADA

Department of Fisheries and Oceans Deep-sea Coral Collection Protocol

Deep-Sea Coral Collections:

The following is a general collection protocol for all corals encountered during all DFO and partnerships surveys

Note: coral data (weights and species codes) are to be entered into the FFS database at sea

- Identify all corals to species level and assign a DFO species code with the aid of the *Newfoundland Labrador Deep-sea Coral Identification Guide*. If a sample is unidentified or uncertain, code as '8900'
- Record total weight of corals by species
- Place individual coral species in separate bag along with a labeled waterproof tag, and freeze. When writing labels use only a ballpoint pen or pencil in order to prevent smudging of ink on label when wet

Protocol for unique circumstances:

- For large corals take a picture of the entire sample with a scale (i.e. ruler, hand, coin, etc.), and a label which must be placed in the photo. Always review photos to ensure clarity of each label in each photo. There will be a coral sponge camera assigned to every survey trip (see the Chief Scientist/Technician for access of the camera)
 - If freezer space is available freeze entire specimen
 - If freezer space is limited or the coral is too large for the chute, record total weight, then cut a subsample (>20cm) from both the base and tip of the specimen and bag, tag & freeze: it would be desirable to store the remainder of the specimen somewhere on the vessel if possible
- If a set has numerous small pieces of one species (i.e. cauliflower coral), separate out to the best of your ability, and record total weight. Freeze only a small subsample (~2-3 pieces) of the total catch

Department of Fisheries and Oceans
Sponge Collection Protocols (NEW)

Sponge Collections:

Sponges along with corals are now considered important components of Vulnerable Marine Ecosystems (VME) and are of particular interest to DFO, especially quantifying levels of abundance and determining species diversity. Sponges are now collected afloat on all multi-species surveys. However, sponge identification is difficult, therefore species identification is required at sea. Instead all sponges will be *separated by visual differences only* and representative samples of each type will be kept and frozen.

To help determine abundance levels of sponge, a camera will be assigned to each survey vessel for the purpose of photographing large catches of sponges, especially when large sponge catches are disposed of on deck and not processed in the wet lab.

Each camera will be the responsibility of the Chief Scientist/Technician in charge of each trip, and it is their responsibility to return each camera to either Bill Brodie or Vonda Wareham at the end of each trip. If a trip is terminated in another port besides St. John's it is the responsibility of the Chief Scientist/Technician to assign the camera to the next person in charge, or ensure the camera is returned to either Bill or Vonda.

The following is a general collection protocol for all sponges encountered during all DFO and partnership surveys. Please follow steps in sequence to ensure appropriate information is gathered for species identification.

1. **Normal Sets:** separate all sponges by *visual differences only* into separate baskets; combine all sub-weight lots to determine total catch of all sponge and record in FFS database.
2. **Normal Sets:** bag separately 1 representative sample of each sponge type in order to document sponge diversity.
 - o Label each *sponge type* as A, B, or C and place all representative samples of each *sponge type* from the same set together in a secondary bag with trip/set number.
 - o Note on catch/set sheet if only 1 species was captured in total catch.
 - o *If space is limiting a subsample of the representative sample can be taken. However, subsamples must consist of a cross-section of the sponge in order to adequately sample tissue from the core and the external part of the sponge, which can differ.*

Sponge Collection Protocol continued:

3. **Large Sponge sets:** For large sponge sets that are shovelled off the trawl deck and not processed below in the well lab, the following steps must be taken:

- o *Estimate the total weight of the sponge catch using the actual weight of at least 1 representative sample*
- o *Record total weight on set Vialch decks sheel and make note of the number of species*
- o **Photography total catch on deck WITH;**
 - *label (trip/set written large and clearly on cardboard)*
 - *scale (i.e. person, law door, etc.)*
 - *subsample (identify by placing in basket)*

NOTE: *label must be placed in the photos (i.e. use a large piece of cardboard with trip/set #) and writing must be large enough to see from a distance. Preview each photo to ensure readability of label*

Tips for success: for consistency assign 1 individual per shift to cover sponges including responsibility of camera. When photographing sponges on deck use the following guidelines:

- ✓ Notify deck crew of sponge protocol especially with large catches
- ✓ Be familiar with the camera as head of time
- ✓ Be prepared and have cardboard labels ready with marker on deck
- ✓ Labels must be large enough to see from a distance and include trip/set number
- ✓ Use as scale in each photo (i.e. person holding the label)
- ✓ Most importantly preview all photos for clarity especially legibility of label

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