# 1 The impact of trawling on the epibenthic megafauna of 2 the West Greenland shelf

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- 4 Yesson C.<sup>1\*</sup>, Fisher J.<sup>1</sup>, Gorham T.<sup>1</sup>, Turner C. J.<sup>1</sup>, Hammeken Arboe N.<sup>2</sup>, Blicher M. E.<sup>2</sup> &

5 Kemp K. M.<sup>1</sup>

- <sup>6</sup> <sup>1</sup>Institute of Zoology, Regent's Park, London NW14RY, UK, <sup>2</sup>Greenland Institute of Natural
- 7 Resources, Box 570, Kivioq 2, 3900 Nuuk, Greenland
- 8 \*Corresponding author: tel +44 20 7449 6267; email: chris.yesson@ioz.ac.uk

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# 10 Abstract

Benthic habitats are important elements of polar marine environments. They provide valuable ecosystem functions, but can be vulnerable to anthropogenic influences such as the direct impacts of bottom trawl fisheries. Trawling can reduce diversity and dramatically alter communities, although some habitats, notably those exposed to natural disturbance, have shown considerable resilience.

The shrimp trawl fishery of West Greenland has been in operation since the 1950s, using otter trawls to catch the northern shrimp (*Pandalus borealis*). It is a significant part of the Greenlandic economy, accounting for 50% of exports. It operates along the west coast from the narrow, rockier shelf of the south, up to deeper, muddy areas around Disko Bay. Here we use a benthic drop camera to sample 201 sites subject to a wide range of bottom trawling intensity between latitudes 60-72°N and depths 61-725m. Epibenthic taxa were recorded at the taxonomic rank of class. Measures of environmental conditions (depth,
temperature, current speed, iceberg concentration) were collected at all sites. Linear
models were used to determine the relationships of environment and trawling intensity with
taxon abundance and diversity.

26 Bottom trawling intensity is the most important factor determining the overall abundance of 27 benthic organisms, accounting for 12-16% of variance on hard and soft substrates. Sessile 28 erect organisms, such as corals, show statistically significant negative response to fishing 29 pressure. Environmental conditions, including temperature at the seabed and natural 30 disturbance from iceberg scouring, also show significant associations with the abundance 31 of individual taxonomic classes. Soft sediment communities show more resilience than 32 rocky areas. Overall abundance is lower for recently trawled sites. On soft sediments we 33 can find significantly lower abundance at sites trawled less than five years ago, but for 34 hard/mixed ground the effect is more persistent and reduced abundance is seen on all 35 sites trawled up to a decade ago. Continued monitoring of benthic habitats is an essential 36 part of evaluating ongoing impacts of trawl fisheries.

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# 38 Keywords

Fishing impact, benthos, epibenthic invertebrates, iceberg concentration, recovery,trawling

# 41 Introduction

42 Seafloor communities are an integral part of marine ecosystems. Benthic habitats in deep 43 and cold water provide a diverse set of ecosystem services including water filtration, 44 nutrient cycling, and carbon storage (Danovaro et al., 2008; Kahn et al., 2015). Epibenthic 45 organisms provide structures where other organisms settle, shelter or breed. Organisms 46 with complex structures such as corals, tube-forming polychaetes, bryozoans and 47 sponges, create biogenic habitats that are crucial for the preservation of biodiversity in the 48 deep sea (Buhl-Mortensen et al., 2010). These potentially vulnerable groups can have 49 narrow environmental affinities related to properties of the sea floor, which makes them 50 effective as indicator groups to assess the health and quality of the environment 51 (McConnaughey et al., 2000).

#### 52 The effects of trawling

53 Anthropogenic impacts on the seafloor are widespread, and bottom trawling is, perhaps, 54 the greatest of these, affecting approximately 75% of continental shelf area globally 55 (Kaiser et al., 2002). Benthic habitats subject to intensive trawling have been found to 56 exhibit reduced diversity, degraded sedimentary habitats, and impaired ecosystem 57 functionality (Hiddink et al., 2006; Hinz et al., 2009; Jennings & Kaiser, 1998; Kaiser et al., 58 2006). Trawling (and other activities such as dredging) can remove emergent sessile 59 epifauna, many of which are habitat forming ecosystem engineers (Clark et al., 2016; 60 Collie et al., 2000; Danovaro et al., 2008; Pusceddu et al., 2014). A review of trawling 61 impacts in Northeast Atlantic deepwater ecosystems showed that corals and sponges 62 incur negative effects, attributed to slow growth rates, sedentary motility, and emergent 63 structures inhibiting post-impact recovery rates (Curtis et al., 2013). Conversely, highly 64 mobile taxa that are able to escape trawls are more dominant in highly disturbed

communities (Hixon & Tissot, 2006). High levels of disturbance selects for short life-cycles
and fast growth-rates, including mobile species and rapid colonists (Thrush and Dayton
2002). Initially disturbance can bring scavengers that feed on damaged or dead animals
(Ramsay *et al.*, 1996). Post disturbance, communities may be dominated by fast-growing
motile dispersers such as polychaete worms (Burd *et al.*, 2002; Jones, 1992).

70 The effects of trawling are not uniformly negative or impactful (Jennings & Kaiser, 1998). In 71 some systems with high levels of natural disturbance changes in macrofaunal community 72 structure are not detectable (Simpson & Watling 2006; McConnaughey et al., 2000; 73 Kenchington et al., 2001). The intermediate disturbance hypothesis suggests that low 74 levels of perturbations increase biodiversity through recolonisation and recruitment 75 (Blanchard et al., 2004). Although the majority of studies show benthic invertebrate 76 community responses to trawling conform to a pattern of large and slow-growing species 77 becoming rarer, with overall species diversity and evenness decreasing (Hall, 1999; 78 Hiddink et al., 2006; Jennings & Kaiser, 1998).

The majority of studies investigating trawling impacts have been focussed on the shallower waters of northern Europe or eastern North America (e.g. Bolam *et al.*, 2014; Collie *et al.*, 2000; Hinz *et al.*, 2009). However, it may be difficult generalising from these studies (predominantly focussed on the relatively shallow, wave disturbed environments of the North Sea) given that the impact of trawling may be dependent on regionally variable factors such as gear types, fishing intensity, spatial scale of the fishery, connectivity of animal populations, productivity and substrate type (Bolam *et al.*, 2014).

#### 86 The environment of the West Greenland continental shelf

87 Trawling is one of many factors that can influence benthic diversity and community
88 composition. Environmental conditions including geology and currents impact substrate

variability, grain size, and nutrient supply, affecting the composition of certain communities
(Buch *et al.*, 2004). Studies indicate substantial differences in community composition of
Arctic benthic habitats dependent on environmental conditions including temperature,

depth and substrate (Yesson et al., 2015; Sejr et al., 2010; Jørgensen et al., 2015).

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93 The continental shelf of west Greenland extends from the high Arctic (85°N) to subarctic 94 (60°N). Further south there is a relatively narrow and clearly defined shelf breaking at less 95 than 50km from the shore. Here the West Greenland current is relatively strong and runs 96 over a rocky seabed. Moving north the seabed becomes less consolidated, the currents 97 weaker and the shelf is less clearly defined (Myers et al., 2007; Boertmann and Mosbech, 98 2011; Yesson et al., 2015). South of 70°N the West Greenland shelf consists of a mix of 99 deep troughs that are natural extensions of numerous fjord systems, and several shallow 100 off-shore banks. The community composition of epibenthic fauna varies over a latitudinal 101 gradient. The communities in the south are characterised by a more diverse group of 102 hard-substrate specialist taxa, while further north (extending up to c. 72°N) there are more 103 soft-sediment specialists and more of the commercially exploited shrimp species Pandalus borealis (Yesson et al., 2015). 104

105 Western Greenland is subject to a natural disturbance regimen through the mechanism of 106 iceberg scouring, which has been observed at depths up to 600m in the region (Gutt 107 2001). Grounding ice can plough sediments and break, crush or displace seabed fauna 108 (Conlan et al., 1998). Disturbance of iceberg scouring has been likened to that of 109 anthropogenic disturbances (Lenihan & Oliver, 1995). The typical size of observed impact 110 from iceberg scouring (admittedly in NE Atlantic) was shown to be a similar size to the 111 width of an otter trawl (Robert et al., 2014). It is important that any assessment of trawling 112 impact in West Greenland should seek to incorporate the impact of iceberg scouring.

#### 113 West Greenland shrimp fishery

114 Trawling on the continental shelf of West Greenland began in the 1950s. The intensity of 115 trawling picked up in the mid 1970s as the shrimp fishery took predominance in the 116 economy of Greenland. The fishery uses otter trawls to target the northern shrimp 117 *Pandalus borealis*, operating from the southern end of the continental shelf to 74°N at 118 depths of 150-600 m, and constitutes the main anthropogenic impact on the seabed of 119 much of western Greenland. Today it constitutes around 50% of Greenland's total exports 120 and 89,000 tonnes of shrimp were caught in 2014, down from a high of c.150,000 in 2005 121 (Buch et al., 2004; Lassen et al., 2013; Hammeken Arboe, 2015). Regulations require the 122 use of rolling rockhopper ground gear and toggle chains of at least 72 mm to keep trawl 123 netting off the seabed. Additional requirements include a cod-end mesh size of at least 40 124 mm stretched and 22-mm bar spacing on sorting grids to reduce bycatch (Hammeken 125 Arboe 2014). The fishery was certified as sustainable by the Marine Stewardship Council in 2013, although with conditions for improved performance in fishery management and 126 127 environmental impacts mitigation (Lassen et al., 2013).

A movement towards Ecosystem-Based Fishery Management requires careful assessment
of benthic habitats and an understanding of the relationship between fishing and
biodiversity (Hiddink et al 2007; FAO 2003; Sinclair & Valdimarsson 2003). From a
management perspective, it is useful for habitat assessments to be done on the scale of
the fishery in order to describe the full range of potential impacts on different habitat types
(Lambert et al 2011). This is perhaps even more important in under-sampled areas such
as Western Greenland.

#### 136 **Aims**

This study uses a geographically extensive survey and three decades of fishing effort data to test the hypothesis that bottom trawling has a significant negative impact on the abundance and community composition of benthic macro-invertebrates. The exceptionally long trawl history is used to investigate recovery potential with a focus on vulnerable taxa and functional groups.

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# 143 Methods

Benthic images were collected aboard the R/V Paamiut during the five summers of 2011-2015. Ten images, each covering approximately 0.3m<sup>2</sup>, were taken at each site, with a 1 minute interval between images (average drift 20-50m). Sites were selected to reflect a balance of geography, depth, and fishing impact over the range of the shrimp fishery of West Greenland. A detailed description of survey methods is provided in Yesson *et al.* (2015), although it is noted that the present study incorporates an additional two years of surveys (2014-15).

151 Taxa were identified in each image to the level of taxonomic class following methods 152 described in Yesson et al. (2015). Abundance of each taxon was counted for each site. 153 Colonial organisms were tallied by colony (or distinct patch), and no measure of biomass 154 was attempted. Taxonomic groups were aggregated into functional groups detailed in Supplementary Appendix 1. In brief these are MFS – Mobile Free Swimming taxa, MC – 155 156 Mobile Crawling, MSM – Mobile Slow Moving, SEF – Sessile Epifauna, demersal or Flat, 157 SEP – Sessile Epifauna, Protruding. Due to variable guality of images (i.e. sediment 158 disturbance or deployment failure), not every station had 10 analysable images. All 159 images with a clear and standard view of the seabed (i.e. camera perpendicular to the

160 seabed) were analysed. A minimum of five images were required for a station to be 161 included in the analysis, and summed taxon counts for five images were used to represent 162 each station. Where more than five images were available for a station, a station 'average' 163 was constructed by calculating taxon totals for all possible combinations of 5 images, with 164 median values used to represent the station. Diversity measures, number of taxonomic 165 classes, simpson diversity, shannon index and taxonomic evenness were calculated on 166 the final station data using the vegan package of R (Oksanen *et al.,* 2013).

Stations were classified as either 'hard' or 'soft' substratum sites by visual inspection of the images (Yesson *et al.*, 2015). Sites were classified as 'hard' where some evidence of rocky surfaces were present (including sites with substantial rocky components located on soft substratum). Hard and mixed substrata can support an abundance of emergent epifauna, while soft substrata are normally characterised by burrowing or motile infauna (Watling and Norse, 1998).

#### 173 Fishing data

174 Data on trawling effort for all fisheries has been collected by the Greenland Institute of 175 Natural Resources until 1999, and since then by the Greenland Fishery and License 176 Control. The fleet is required to keep log books of the time, position and depth of seabed 177 at the start and end of every commercial trawl. This requirement was introduced for 178 vessels of more than 50 gross register tonnage in 1986 and applied to all vessels since 1997. Trawls were represented as straight lines and overlaid on a 3.5km x 3.5km grid. 179 180 Cumulative time trawled was calculated for each grid cell by summing the duration of the 181 trawls overlapping the cell, proportionate with the length of the trawl overlapping that cell 182 (i.e. if a trawl starts in the middle of one 3.5 x 3.5 km cell and finishes in the middle of the adjacent cell then 50% of the trawl duration will be assigned to each cell's total). The 1<sup>st</sup> 183

and 99<sup>th</sup> percentile of trawls were discarded based on duration of trawl in an effort to
remove outliers and erroneous data (a small number of trawls were reported to last zero
minutes or in excess of one day). Annual grids of cumulative minutes trawled were
constructed for the period 1986-2013.

A metric of 'recovery' time was calculated by counting the number of years since a station had been trawled (e.g. recovery of 0 was assigned if the area was trawled in the previous year). Additionally, total cumulative minutes trawled was calculated by summing the annual cumulative trawl minutes at each station for the 10 years prior to sampling.

#### 192 Environmental data

193 The TOPAZ4 Arctic Ocean Reanalysis three dimensional oceanographic model

194 (http://marine.copernicus.eu/documents/PUM/CMEMS-ARC-PUM-002-ALL.pdf) was used to estimate environmental conditions for each station. This is a 2.5D grid of with data for 195 196 depth tiers of 5, 30, 50,100, 200, 400, 700m in our study area, each tier has a resolution of 197 12.25km x 12.25km. Measures of temperature, salinity, current speed and sea ice 198 coverage were extracted based on the location and depth of each station. A 2 stage 199 interpolation was carried out: first depth tiers above and below the station depth were 200 extracted using the 'extract' tool from the 'raster' library of the statistical software R 201 (Hijmans, 2015) using the bilinear interpolation method. Subsequently a linear 202 interpolation between the depth tiers above and below the reported station depth was used 203 to assign a value to the station.

Other (2 dimensional) environmental variables were selected for analysis. The topographic environment metrics of slope and rugosity were calculated from the IBCAO v4 bathymetry grid using the gdaldem software. Finally, the SAR sea iceberg concentration dataset (<u>http://marine.copernicus.eu/documents/pum/cmems-osi-pum-011-007.pdf</u>) was used as a

measure of potential iceberg scouring (referred to in the text as iceberg concentration).
These data record the number of icebergs per 10 x 10 km grid cell. Tiles representing
sweeps of satellites were stitched together and normalised based on the number of
observations and annualised.

## 212 Modelling

213 Linear regression models are a widely used tool for investigating associations between a 214 response variable and independent explanatory variables. Model formulas followed the 215 form: diversity (response) ~ environmental variables + trawling impact (explanatory) and 216 were performed for each diversity measure using the 'Im' function in the statistics package 217 R version 3.1.3 (R Core Team, 2015). Abundance values (counts of number of individuals 218 observed at each station) were log transformed prior to analysis. The environmental 219 variables slope, current speed, iceberg concentration and cumulative minutes trawled 220 were log transformed to normalise their distribution profiles. Correlation between 221 explanatory variables was assessed by an iterative process of variance inflation factor 222 (VIF) calculation and removal of the variable with the highest correlation (VIF score) until 223 all variables showed low correlation (VIF<5) (Heiberger and Holland 2004). VIF 224 calculations were performed using the R library HH (Heiberger 2015). The variables 225 temperature, current speed, depth, slope, iceberg concentration, cumulative minutes 226 trawled and recovery time were selected for the final model process. These were chosen 227 to represent a set of ecologically meaningful, uncorrelated set of environmental 228 descriptors. In Greenland we see significant differences in community composition and 229 abundance of organisms on different types of seabed, soft sediment areas are inhabited by more burrowing organisms, and areas with more rocks include more potentially 230 231 vulnerable, attached, erect organisms (Yesson et al., 2015). Therefore models were run 232 separately for sites on soft/hard seabed to investigate whether response to fishing

233 pressure differed on hard and soft ground.

Linear models based on all variables were subjected to stepwise deletion of insignificant
variables (R Core Team, 2015). The calc.relimp function in the package 'relaimpo'
(Grömping, 2006) was used to calculate the relative importance of each variable
(measured as the proportion of variance explained).

238 Linear models carry assumptions about the data to be analysed, and violating these 239 assumptions can result in erroneous or misleading results. Checking the validity of model 240 assumptions is a useful way of examining the guality and reliability of models (Peña and 241 Slate, 2012). The 'gvlma' R library was used to test assumptions of skewness, kurtosis, 242 heteroscedascity, validity of link function and a global validity of model assumptions (Peña and Slate, 2014). The 'car' package (Fox and Weisberg, 2011) was used to test constancy 243 244 of error variance (ncvTest function), and residual autocorrelation (DurbinWatsonTest 245 function). Finally spatial autocorrelation of residuals was checked with the Im.morantest 246 function from the R package 'spdep' (Bivand and Piras, 2015). These tests of model 247 assumptions were measured as failed if p<0.01 after Bonferroni correction of p-values (to 248 correct for multiple comparisons).

249 The study area covers a wide latitudinal gradient (60-72°N), with stations up to 1,400km 250 apart. The environment varies greatly over this area. Factors such as depth and 251 temperature are known to influence diversity patterns, so it is important to disentangle the 252 effect of environmental variation from site comparisons. A direct comparison of diversity 253 and fishing will be confounded by the environmental variation over this area. One 254 approach, to remove potential confounding factors from the analysis, is to compare the 255 target explanatory variable (i.e. fishing effort) with the component of the response variable 256 (i.e. abundance) not explained by environment, by examining the residuals of a linear 257 model of abundance~environment (Fox & Weisburg, 2011).

258 A measure of abundance corrected for environmental biases was constructed by 259 extracting the residuals of linear models of the form: abundance ~ temperature + current + 260 icebergs + depth + slope. This residual abundance variable was highly correlated with the 261 raw abundance measure but removed the information component of the underlying 262 environmental gradient. This variable was treated as a 'corrected' abundance measure, 263 with high (positive) values signifying greater abundance and low (negative) values 264 indicating low abundance. A direct assessment of trawling impact was made by comparing residual abundance with the presence/absence of trawling in the past 10 years (termed 265 266 recently trawled / recently untrawled), an analysis of variance was performed to test for 267 significant difference between the recently trawled and recently untrawled groups using R version 3.13 (R Core Team, 2015). Box plots of residual abundance by recently trawled / 268 269 untrawled groups were examined to visualise the spread of data within these groups.

270 An investigation of temporal trends was performed by changing the duration of time used to define "recently trawled" and "recently untrawled" groups. Every possible time period 271 was trested, starting with defining the "recently trawled" group as sites fished only in the 272 273 previous year, and ending with sites classified as "recently trawled" if they had been 274 impacted any time in the past 25 years. Sites were divided into "recently trawled" and 275 "recently untrawled" groups using each possible temporal definition, and abundance and 276 diversity of each group were compared using boxplots and associated statistics. The 277 median and confidence intervals generated by the boxplot stats function were used to plot 278 temporal trends for the recently trawled / untrawled groups (Chambers et al., 1983).

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# 281 **Results**

282 A total of 201 stations were analysed (Table 1). These incorporated 113 soft sediment sites 283 and 88 on hard substrata. More than 92,000 taxon observations were made at these sites. 284 The most abundant site included 2,951 taxonomic observations, whilst only 6 observations were made at the least abundant site. More than half of taxonomic observations were of 285 286 class Polychaeta. The next most frequent class was Ophiuroidea representing just over 287 10% of observations. A full taxonomic profile of these data is presented in Yesson et al. (2015). Typically, more diversity and abundance was seen at sites on hard substrata. 288 289 There is a significant negative correlation of diversity and latitude (Pearson's r = -0.38, 290 p<0.001), but high-diversity sites are found over the full range of the study area (Figure 1). 291 The compilation of fishing impact data required the examination of more than 1 million 292 trawls spanning 1986-2013. Average trawl duration was 238 minutes. Trawling is most 293 widespread in the area surrounding Disko Bay (Figure 1). Since 1986 82% of our study 294 area has been subject to some trawling impact (study area as Figure 1, limited to 200-500m depth zone). 174 (87%) of our sampling sites are in areas with some trawling 295 296 activity. If we consider only the past decade then 121 (60%) stations are in trawl-impacted 297 areas, and 62 of these were trawled in the last year (zero recovery time). Total cumulative 298 trawling times range from negligible (~1 minute) to 3600 hours (more than 100 hours per 299 year). Fishing impact is linked with environmental conditions; more trawling occurs on 300 soft sediment sites (median trawl time of 110 hours, compared to 40 hours on hard 301 sediments), and environmental conditions vary significantly over hard and soft ground (e.g. 302 current speed is faster on hard ground – Supplementary Appendix 2). Furthermore, 303 recently-trawled sites are environmentally distinct on both hard and soft substrates, for 304 example icebergs are more common in fished areas on soft sediment, but less common in 305 fished areas on hard ground (Supplementary Appendix 2).

306 Diversity and abundance are correlated with many environmental factors (Supplementary 307 Appendix 3). Notably overall abundance is significantly negatively correlated with cumulative trawling time, and positively correlated with recovery time. The study region 308 309 covers a wide latitudinal and environmental gradient, but the effect of trawling can still be 310 seen in multivariate analysis that incorporates environmental factors (Table 2, 311 Supplementary Appendix 4). Trawling intensity explains 12/16% of variance in overall 312 abundance on hard/soft substrata and is the most important factor. The functional group 313 of sessile flat (SEF) organisms (i.e. encrusting sponges or encrusting bryozoa) are not impacted by measures of trawling effort. In contrast the abundance of sessile protruding 314 315 taxa (SEP – including cold water corals and large sponges) show significant relationships 316 with trawling intensity. Temperature, depth and iceberg concentration are important factors 317 for predicting taxon abundance.

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319 The complex picture of multiple environmental drivers to diversity and abundance was 320 simplified by examining the influence of trawling pressure on a 'corrected' measure of 321 abundance that removes the influence of environmental biases. This 'residual abundance' 322 measure is highly correlated with abundance (Pearson correlation coefficient 0.92 323 (p<0.001) on hard substrate and 0.89 (p<0.001) on soft substrate), but strips out 324 potentially confounding environmental correlates from the analysis. A simplified picture of 325 trawling impact on residual abundance is presented in Figure 2. Overall this corrected 326 (residual) abundance measure is significantly different between recently trawled and 327 untrawled sites (recently trawled means some trawling in the past 10 years). Residual 328 abundance is significantly higher in untrawled areas (this pattern is repeated for raw 329 abundance values), and this is driven by patterns observed for taxonomic classes 330 Anthozoa and Ophiuroidea. These were the only common classes showing significant

331 differences (p<0.01).

332 The 10 year cut-off for classifying sites as trawled or untrawled is a somewhat arbitrary 333 choice. A choice of 5 years rather than 10, creates a more marked difference in abundance 334 levels between "recently trawled" and "recently untrawled" sites (Figure 3 a). Conversely, if 335 we change the definition of "recently untrawled" to no activity for the past 20 years then we 336 cannot distinguish abundance between recently trawled and untrawled groups (Figure 3 337 a). Investigating the choice of time period to define recently trawled/untrawled sites creates 338 a time series that gives insight into potential recovery (Figure 3). If we separate our sites 339 by hard/mixed and soft substrata (Figure 4), there is a strong signal of longer-lasting impact on hard/mixed ground and a relatively short-term impact on soft sediments, but it is 340 341 noted that the confidence intervals are wider on these reduced sample sizes.

342

# 343 **Discussion**

#### 344 Trawling & environment

345 Trawling impact is a significant factor determining abundance, diversity and community 346 composition on both muddy and rocky seabeds in West Greenland. Temperature, depth, 347 current speed and substrata are also important factors influencing abundance (notably 348 temperature is the most important factor for many groups in rocky areas). Iceberg 349 concentration (a proxy for iceberg scouring events) is a natural (but temporally irregular) 350 disturbance regime that influences abundance of some groups. Iceberg concentration is 351 focussed towards the coastline of West Greenland (Figure 1) and will primarily impact the 352 Disko area of this study. Many environmental parameters are known to influence the 353 distributions of many benthic taxa (i.e. global cold water coral distributions Yesson et al., 354 2012) and our findings are in keeping with previous studies in Greenland (Yesson et al.,

355 2015, Piepenburg & Schmid, 1996). Although trawling is found to be the most significant 356 factor, the proportion of variance explained by trawling in the models is relatively low (12-357 16% for overall abundance). Other studies, using a variety of different approaches, report 358 higher variance explained by trawling, for example Hinz et al. (2009) report r<sup>2</sup> of 0.46 for 359 models of infauna and epifauna abundance based on fishing intensity, but this example 360 followed a strict experimental design to keep environmental variables constant.

#### 361 Taxonomic & functional groups

362 Taxonomic groups expected to be vulnerable to the effects of trawling show cumulative 363 impact and recovery time as significant influencing factors. For example Anthozoa, 364 Porifera and other fixed organisms that live erect in the water column (sessile protruding taxa) show a significant response to cumulative trawling time. This is in line with studies 365 366 showing some arborescent and emergent growth forms as vulnerable to trawling (Asch & 367 Collie, 2008; Buhl-Mortensen et al., 2016; Jørgensen et al., 2016). However, the soft 368 corals observed in the area are predominantly Octocorallia from the family Nephtheidae, 369 and this group were not considered to be sensitive taxa in the benthic impact assessment of the Gulf of St Lawrence shrimp trawl fishery (DFO, 2012), and Nephtheidae show a 370 371 positive correlation with fishing intensity in the Barents Sea (Buhl-Mortensen et al., 2016). 372 Nephtheidae have been shown to recover quickly from experimental crushing impacts (Henry et al., 2003). 373

In contrast, the sessile prostrate/encrusting groups (such as encrusting sponges and
bryozoa) are not influenced by our measures of trawling intensity. These groups are less
likely to be caught by trawl nets and are expected to be more resilient to trawling impact
(Jørgensen *et al.*, 2016). Indeed, encrusting bryozoans are one of the few immobile
benthic fauna shown to benefit from trawling disturbance due to rapid colonisation speed

in post-disturbed habitat (Asch & Collie, 2008), although this study was from the shallows
(40-90m) of the temperate (40°N) Georges Bank. No significant impact was found for
Bryozoa in the Barents (Buhl-Mortensen *et al.*, 2016). However, we do see a significant
negative response in these groups to high iceberg concentration, suggesting a negative
effect of natural disturbance on abundance. Despite their fast growth rates, encrusting
bryozoans are susceptible to smothering by suspended sediment, which may be evident at
sites with prolonged repeat disturbance (Jones, 1992).

386 Some groups are expected to benefit from trawling, such as scavenging members of the 387 brittle star class Ophiuroidea (Engel & Kvitek, 1998), or at least be low risk from negative impacts (Jørgensen et al., 2016). In contrast, our study shows a significant negative 388 389 response to trawling for this group. The coarse temporal scale of our dataset 390 (annual/decadal measures of trawling) may not be able to detect the short-term, transient 391 scavenging response to disturbance (Bergmann et al., 2002). Furthermore, brittle stars are 392 also susceptible to physical damage from trawling and have been found to decrease in 393 abundance in highly impacted study sites (Freese et al., 1999), and an insignificant 394 negative response to fishing pressure is reported for Ophiuroids in the Barents (Buhl-395 Mortensen et al., 2016).

One notable positive response to trawling impact is the abundance of class Maxillopoda (mostly observations of barnacles). These are most abundant in rocky areas that have been recently trawled with abundance peaking for sites with intermediate levels of cumulative trawling. This may be an example of the intermediate disturbance hypothesis (Dial and Roughgarden, 1988).

#### 401 Time & Recovery

402 The majority of the western Greenland shelf (below 72°N) has been trawled at some point

403 in the past quarter century, which is in line with global trends (Kaiser et al., 2002). In such 404 circumstances it is difficult to find comparable sets of trawled and untrawled locations, so examining a gradient of fishing impact may be the best alternative (see Kaiser et al., 405 406 2006). Many studies of fishing impact focus on cumulative or average trawling area over recent years (e.g. Bolam et al., 2014; Pusceddu et al., 2014). This focus on recent impact 407 408 may be due to the availability of fishing data, but if the negative impacts are felt most 409 strongly by slow-growing, long-lived (and often habitat-forming) organisms (Clark et al., 410 2016), then longer-term fishing impacts should be considered. The guarter-century of data 411 available for the Greenlandic shrimp fishing fleet is an unusually detailed and lengthy time 412 series that provides an opportunity to examine longer term patterns (see also Moritz et al., 2016). However, even this extensive dataset does not cover half the duration of the 413 414 fisheries' operation and decades of trawling activity (pre-1986) are unaccounted for in this 415 study. If the first impact has a significant and potentially long-lasting negative effect on the 416 most vulnerable benthic fauna (i.e. Cook et al., 2013) and longer-term impacts have no 417 significant additional influence (Moritz et al., 2016) then we may expect a limited signal 418 from our analysis of trawling effort.

419 This study shows an immediate negative impact of trawling, followed by a period of 420 recovery (at least for total abundance). There appears to be greater resilience in soft 421 sediment communities, which is in line with many previous findings (reviewed in Clark et 422 al., 2015). However, these analyses are focussed on recovery in overall abundance 423 levels, but peak abundance of organisms may occur during successional phases of habitat 424 restoration, and climax communities may be characterised by a smaller number of larger 425 organisms. Furthermore, post-disturbance communities of small mobile infaunal species 426 may constitute an alternate stable state with no potential for recovery to the previous 427 complex community (Kaiser et al., 2002).

#### 428 Methodology

429 The abundance measure used in these analyses favours a large number of small 430 organisms, which may favour organisms expected to benefit from disturbance (Thrush and 431 Dayton 2002). However, overall biomass is an important measure, particularly for habitat 432 forming and colonial organisms, where climax communities may be represented as a small 433 number of larger individuals/colonies. The relatively small size of our images may not 434 sample larger, more sparsely distributed organisms, which may be more sensitive to 435 disturbance. Conclusions about the impact of trawling on some taxa regarded as most 436 vulnerable to trawling are limited by the fact that these are generally not well represented 437 in this dataset. For example, we have never observed the large (>1m) seapen Umbellula 438 in our images although this is seen as regular bycatch in some areas in West Greenland 439 (Jørgensen et al., 2013). Such large seapens can have multi-decadal lifespans and are 440 vulnerable to trawling (de Moura Neves et al., 2015). However, despite the bias away from 441 potentially more vulnerable organisms, there is a signal of negative impact of trawling in 442 our data. The fact that we are able to document a statistically significant negative impacts 443 on groups of less vulnerable organisms, seems to indicate that the composition of the 444 entire community is altered. Increasing sampling by taking more images per site may help 445 to pick up these rarer taxa in future studies. Alternative methods such as physical sampling 446 (e.g. analysis of bycatch as in Buhl-Mortensen et al., 2016 and Jørgensen et al., 2016, or 447 beam trawling surveys), should complement the present study and potentially sample 448 these vulnerable organisms.

Benthic impact assessments are commonly confounded by interference from effects other
than trawling, and this problem is exacerbated as spatial scale increases (Jennings *et al.,*2005). There are strong environmental gradients over the West Greenland shelf, and this
has a significant impact on diversity and abundance (Yesson *et al.,* 2015). The present

study seeks to account for potentially confounding environmental factors by employing a
multivariate linear modelling approach. The variable importance of trawling metrics in our
models is relatively small but significant, as found in other studies (Buhl-Mortensen *et al.*,
2015). Additional environmental variables may give greater insight (and better fitting
models) in future studies, but relatively low importance values should not negate the
impacts of anthropogenic disturbance, which may be transformative in some areas.

### 459 **Conclusions**

460 Bottom trawling is one of the most widespread human impacts on the sea floor, and has 461 the potential to inflict significant damage on benthic habitats and ecosystems, as has been 462 shown in this study along with numerous others (see reviews Clark et al., 2016; Kaiser et al., 2002). More detailed and comprehensive assessment of benthic habitats is necessary 463 464 to improve management of anthropogenic impacts of all kinds, especially in deep water 465 (Martin et al., 2015). However, a historical baseline and ongoing monitoring data are missing for many parts of the world, placing limitations on the ability of fisheries to fully 466 understand and effectively mitigate their impacts (Jennings et al 2005, Grieve et al 2015). 467 468 This study represents a valuable first step in documenting the effects of bottom trawling on 469 the West Greenland shelf, and has shown a significant negative impact on the overall 470 abundance of epibenthic organisms on the West Greenland shelf. The trawl impact signal 471 is strong for some taxa and functional groups, while environmental factors, including natural disturbance from icebergs, are more important than trawling pressure in 472 473 determining overall taxon composition and abundance for some groups. Soft sediment 474 communities appear to be more resilient, while the effect on hard substrate can be seen in 475 places trawled a decade ago. This study provides an example of how seabed imaging and 476 analysis at higher taxonomic levels and functional groups can be used to assess the

- 477 impacts of fishing in a hitherto understudied location, and at a scale that is relevant to
- 478 fisheries management.

# **Tables**

**Table 1.** Station summary statistics.

	Hard	Soft	Total
Number of stations	88	113	201
Observations	54,435	38,037	92,472
Classes	29	29	29
Station details			
Abundance			
Min	48	6	6
Median	480	104	258
Max	2460	2945	2945
Classes			
Min	3	1	1
Median	4	4	4
Max	5	5	5
Simpson Diversity			
Min	0.022	0.000	0.000
Median	0.564	0.362	0.486
Max	0.712	0.685	0.712
Trawl Minutes			
Min	0	0	0
Median	145	320	195
Max	99,690	128,600	128,600
Recovery Years			
Min	0	0	0
Median	7	3	6
Max	28	28	28
Depth (m)			
Min	61	68	61
Median	218	230	260
Max	484	725	725

483 Table 2. Results of multivariate generalised linear models for a series of response variables. All response variables (except Simpson diversity and Number of classes) are 484 485 log-transformed abundance data for the named group. Functional groups defined in 486 Supplementary Appendix 1. The numbers below the explanatory variables are variable 487 importance (proportion of variance explained by this variable), with variable significance of the linear model denoted by \* notation (\*\*\* p<0.001, \*\* p<0.01, \* p<0.05). Tests column 488 489 indicate results of checking model assumptions for 8 measures (skewness, kurtosis, 490 heteroscedascity, constancy of error variance, residual autocorrelation, validity of link 491 function, global validity of model assumptions and spatial autocorrelation of residuals).

Llovel/Miscoel

Hard/Mixed Substrate	Variable importance and significance									
Response	R <sup>2</sup>	Temp- erature	Current Speed	Iceberg Concentration	Depth	Slope	Recovery Years	Cumulative Fishing	Fishing X Icebergs	Tests
Abundance	0.24		0.10**	0.01	0.04**			0.12***		8/8
Number of Classes	0.08					0.07*	0.03*	0.01		8/8
Simpson Diversity	0.33 (	0.24***		0.06*	0.03*		0.03*			7/8
Abundance of Functional Groups										
SEP	0.45 (	0.44***		0.01				0.02*		8/8
SEF	0.25	0.09**		0.10**	0.08**					8/8
MC	0.07		0.05*				0.04*			8/8
MSM	0.21		0.03*	0.08**	0.01	0.03*		0.11***		6/8
Abundance of Taxonomic Groups										
Anthozoa	0.25			0.11**		0.11***		0.06*		8/8
Ascidiacea	0.52	0.50***		0.03**						8/8
Bryozoa (encrusting)	0.15			0.07*	0.10**					8/8
Bryozoa (soft)	0.52	0.21**	0.21	0.01**	0.06**		0.02	0.01	0.03*	8/8
Bryozoa (stony)	0.33 (	0.31***						0.04*		8/8
Hydrozoa	0.54	0.24*	0.30***				0.01*	0.01		8/8
Maxillopoda	0.34	0.17***		0.01	0.06*		0.13***			8/8
Ophiuroidea	0.33 (	0.22***			0.09**			0.03		8/8
Polychaeta	0.19			0.14***	0.02*			0.05**		8/8
Porifera (encrusting)	0.20	0.12**		0.09**				0.02		8/8
Porifera (massive)	0.30	0.22***		0.01	0.08**			0.02*	0.01	8/8

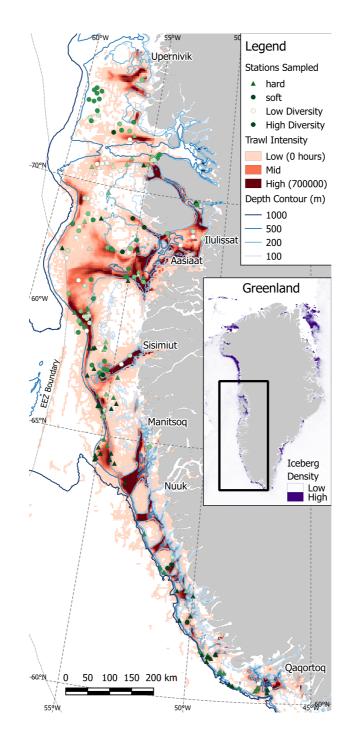
Soft Substrate	Variable importance and significance								
Response	R <sup>2</sup> Temp- erature		Iceberg Concentration	Depth	Slope	Recovery Years	Cumulative Fishing	Fishing X Icebergs	Tests
Abundance	0.28		0.00**			0.07	0.16***	0.08***	7/8
Number of Classes	0.08		0.02				0.07**		8/8
Simpson Diversity	0.07		0.02		0.03*		0.00	0.05*	8/8
Abundance of Functional Groups									
SEP	0.33 0.07*	0.02	0.07***	0.06**			0.15**		8/8
SEF	0.07		0.07**	0.01					8/8
MC	0.22		0.13**		0.07*	0.02*	0.02*		8/8
MSM	0.21 0.06		0.00*				0.11***	0.06**	7/8
Abundance of Taxonomic Groups									
Anthozoa	0.21		0.01	0.14***			0.08*		8/8
Ascidiacea	0.36	0.03*	0.08***	0.07***	0.05		0.12***	0.04**	8/8

Bryozoa (encrusting)	0.05								7/8
Bryozoa (soft)	0.36 0.14***		0.03*	0.05*		0.16***			8/8
Bryozoa (stony)	0.18 0.04		0.06***	0.02		0.02*	0.04**	0.03*	8/8
Hydrozoa	0.11	0.02		0.11***					6/8
Maxillopoda	0.27 0.06			0.15***			0.07		8/8
Ophiuroidea	0.12 0.06*			0.04**	0.02*		0.04*		7/8
Polychaeta	0.07		0.00	0.02			0.03*	0.04*	5/8
Porifera (encrusting)	0.05		0.03*	0.03*			0.01	0.02	8/8
Porifera (massive)	0.10		0.03**			0.04**	0.03***	0.03*	8/8

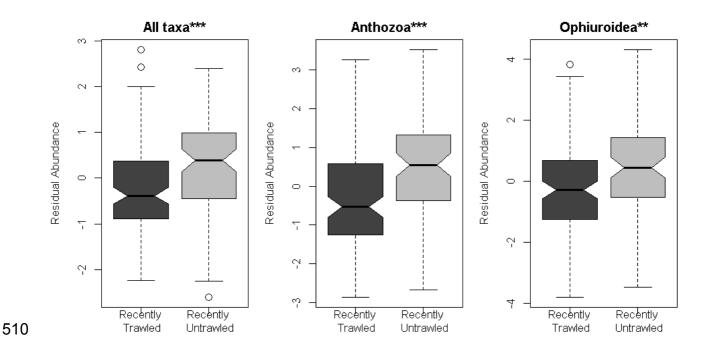
# 493 Figures

Figure 1. Map showing stations analysed for this study. Stations on hard substrate are
shown as triangles, soft sediment sites are circles. All stations are coloured relative to
diversity (White = Simpson diversity of 0, Darkest green = Simpson diversity 0.7). Trawling
intensity is based on cumulative hours trawled for all records (1986-2013).

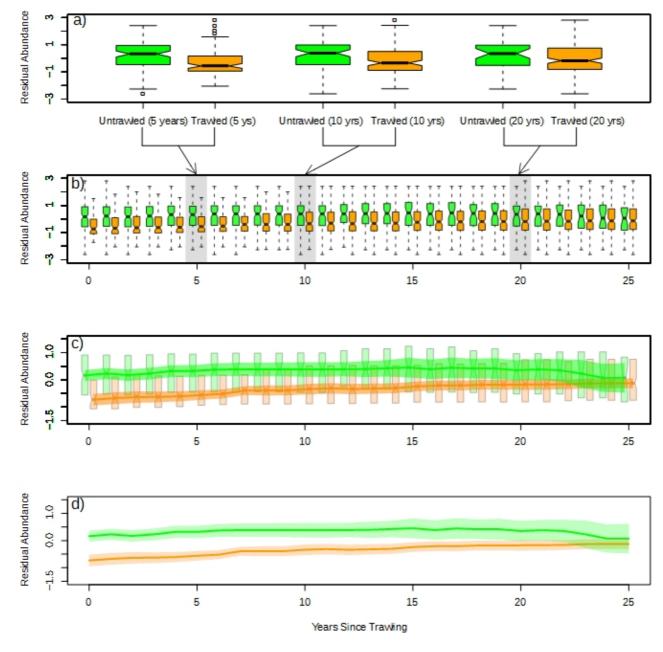
498



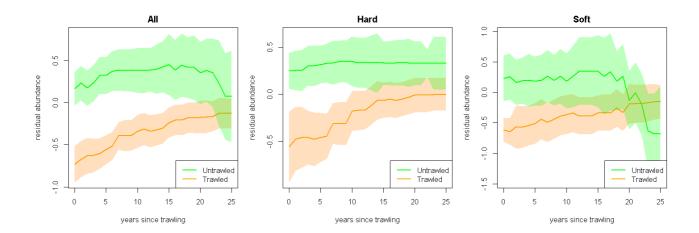
500 Figure 2. Box plots of residual abundance for recently trawled and recently untrawled 501 sites. Residual abundance is the component of abundance that is not explained by the 502 environment (using residuals of a linear model, diversity~environment (excluding trawling 503 effort), removes the influence of different environments from the comparison of trawled and 504 untrawled sites). Plots show the range of data (lines), with outliers represented as dots, 505 the main box is approximately the first and third quartile, and the black line shows the 506 median, the 'notch' around the black line shows an approximate 95% confidence interval 507 for the median. Recently trawled sites are defined as those areas with any non-zero level 508 of trawling recorded in the 10 years prior to sampling. Star notation indicates significance 509 level of an analysis of variance: \*\*\* p<0.001; \*\* p<0.01.



511 Figure 3. Investigation of the influence of the time period used to define recently trawled / 512 untrawled sites. a) Box plots comparing residual abundance of sites that have been 513 trawled/untrawled in the past 5/10/20 years. Using a 5 year definition, we see a significant 514 difference in abundance levels for trawled and untrawled sites (box notches do not 515 overlap). However, there is no significant difference between trawled/untrawled sites using 516 the 20 year definition (notches overlap). b) Plotting all possible definitions of recently 517 trawled and untrawled sites allows us to generate a time series. c) Focussing on the 518 notches of the box plots shows that the notches overlap at the 20 year period. d) 519 Removing the original boxplots simplifies the figure to highlight group means and 520 confidence intervals.



**Figure 4.** Time series showing the difference in abundance between recently trawled and recently untrawled sites. The time series shows the effect of changing the definition of 'recently', where recently trawled sites are any site that has some trawling activity in the past X years and recently untrawled sites are those which have had none in that same time period. Lines show median values and confidence intervals (based on boxplot statistics). All, hard and soft refer to substrate classification of stations. Note there is a very small sample size of soft sediment stations recently untrawled for X=23-25 years.



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