Barndoor Skate - Candidate Species

Barndoor skate is considered a candidate species under the ESA as a result of two petitions to list the species as endangered or threatened that were received in March and April 1999. In June 1999, the agency declared the petitioned actions to be warranted and requested additional information on whether or not to list the species under the ESA. At the 30th Stock Assessment Workshop (SAW 30) held in November 1999, the Stock Assessment Research Committee (SARC) reviewed the status of the barndoor skate stock relative to the five listing criteria of the ESA. The SARC provided their report to the NMFS in the SAW 30 document (NEFSC 2000). NMFS published a decision on the petitions on September 27, 2002 (67FR61055-61061) that the petitioned actions are not warranted at this time. However, NMFS is leaving barndoor skate on the agency's list of candidate species due to remaining uncertainties regarding the status and population structure of the species.

The barndoor skate occurs from Newfoundland, the Gulf of St. Lawrence, off Nova Scotia, the Gulf of Maine, and the northern sections of the Mid-Atlantic Bight down to North Carolina. It is one of the largest skates in the Northwest Atlantic and is presumed to be a long-lived, slow growing species. They inhabit mud and sand/gravel bottoms along the continental shelf, generally at depths greater than 150 meters. They are believed to feed on benthic invertebrates and fishes (Bigelow and Schroeder 1953).

The abundance of barndoor skate declined continuously through the 1960's. Since 1990, their abundance has increased slightly on Georges Bank, the western Scotian shelf, and in Southern New England, although the current NEFSC autumn survey biomass index is less than 5% of the peak observed in 1963. The species was identified as an overfished species at the SAW 30 (NEFSC 2000). Skates are sensitive to overutilization generally because of their limited reproductive capacity due to the characteristic of many larger fish species in the northeast that are relatively slow growing, long-lived, and late maturing.

7.3 Physical Environment

7.3.1 Introduction

A description of the affected environment was prepared for the Environmental Assessment (EA) that accompanied Amendment 11 to the Northeast Multispecies Fishery Management Plan, Amendment 9 to the Atlantic Sea Scallop Fishery Management Plan, Amendment 1 to the Monkfish FMP, Amendment 1 to the Atlantic Salmon FMP and Sections of the Atlantic Herring FMP (NEFMC 1998a) (heretofore referred to as the "Omnibus EFH Amendment"). Since the implementation of the Omnibus EFH Amendment, several reports have been published which add to our understanding of the physical and biological environment of the Northeast U.S. region. This description has therefore been up-dated in order to provide more complete information on the biological and physical components of the environment that could be affected by the actions proposed or under consideration in this DEIS. Additional information that describes recent changes in the status of exploited fishery resources, particularly the scallop resource, has also been included.

7.3.2 Physical Characteristics of Regional Systems

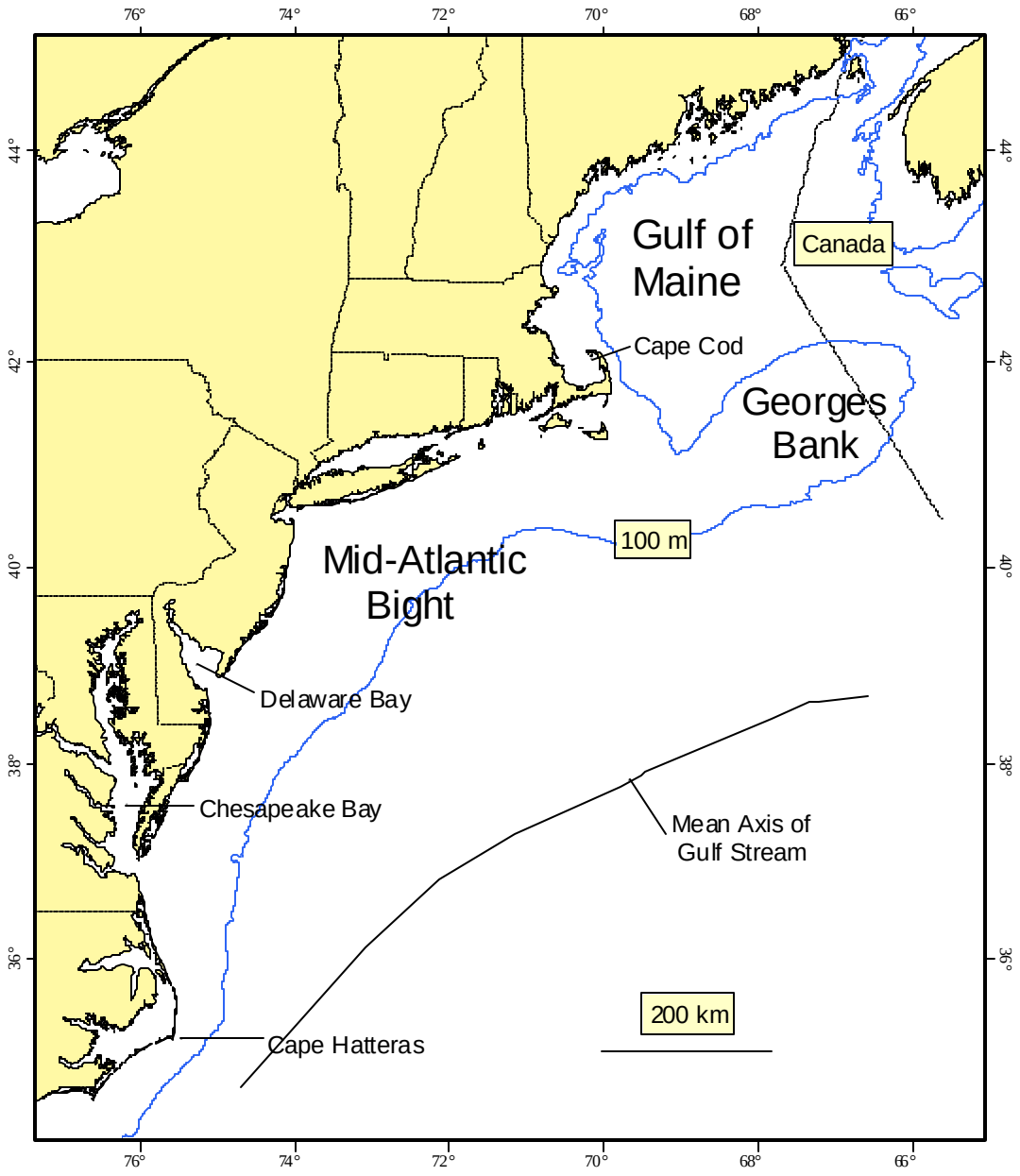
This section contains a description of the physical environment of the Scallop fishery, including oceanographic and physical habitat conditions in the Gulf of Maine, Georges Bank, Southern New England and the Mid-Atlantic regions. Some of the information presented in this section was originally included in the EA for the Omnibus EFH Amendment (NEFMC 1998a).

7.3.2.1 Introduction

The Northeast Shelf Ecosystem (Map 43) has been described as including the area from the Gulf of Maine south to North Carolina, extending from the coast seaward to the edge of the continental shelf, including the slope sea offshore to the Gulf Stream (Sherman *et al*. 1996). The continental slope of this region includes the area east of the shelf, out to a depth of 2000 m. A number of distinct sub-systems comprise the region, including the Gulf of Maine, Georges Bank, the Mid-Atlantic Bight, and the continental slope. Occasionally another subsystem, Southern New England, is described; however, we incorporated the distinctive features of this region into the descriptions of Georges Bank and the Mid-Atlantic Bight.

The Gulf of Maine is an enclosed coastal sea, characterized by relatively cold waters and deep basins, with a patchwork of various sediment types. Georges Bank is a relatively shallow coastal plateau that slopes gently from north to south and has steep submarine canyons on its eastern and southeastern edge. It is characterized by highly productive, well-mixed waters and strong currents. The Mid-Atlantic Bight is comprised of the sandy, relatively flat, gently sloping continental shelf from southern New England to Cape Hatteras, NC. The continental slope begins at the continental shelf break and continues eastward with increasing depth until it becomes the continental rise. It is fairly homogenous, with exceptions at the shelf break, some of the canyons, the Hudson Shelf Valley and in areas of glacially rafted hard bottom.

Pertinent aspects of the physical characteristics of each of these systems are described below. This review is based on several summary reviews (Abernathy 1989, Backus 1987, Beardsley *et al.* 1996, Brooks 1996, Cook 1988, Dorsey 1998, Kelley 1998, Wiebe et al. 1987, Mountain 1994, NEFMC 1998, Schmitz et al. 1987, Sherman *et al.* 1996, Steimle *et al.* 1999b, Stumpf and Biggs 1988, Townsend 1992, Tucholke 1987). Literature citations are not included for generally accepted concepts; however, new research and specific results of research findings are cited.



Map 43. U.S. Northeast shelf ecosystem.

7.3.2.2 Gulf of Maine

Although not obvious in appearance, the Gulf of Maine is actually an enclosed coastal sea, bounded on the east by Browns Bank, on the north by the Nova Scotian (Scotian) Shelf, on the west by the New England states and on the south by Cape Cod and Georges Bank (Map 43). The Gulf of Maine (GOM) was glacially derived, and is characterized by a system of deep basins, moraines and rocky protrusions with limited access to the open ocean. This geomorphology influences complex oceanographic processes which result in a rich biological community.

The Gulf of Maine is topographically unlike any other part of the continental border along the U.S. east coast. It contains 21 distinct basins separated by ridges, banks, and swells. The three largest basins are Wilkinson, Georges, and Jordan (Map 44). Depths in the basins exceed 250 m, with a maximum depth of 350 m in Georges Basin, just north of Georges Bank. The Northeast Channel between Georges Bank and Browns Bank, leads into Georges Basin, and is one of the primary avenues for exchange of water between the GOM and the North Atlantic Ocean.

High points within the gulf include irregular ridges, such as Cashes Ledge, which peaks at 9 m below the surface, as well as lower flat-topped banks and gentle swells. Some of these rises are remnants of the sedimentary shelf left after the glaciers removed most of it. Others are glacial moraines and a few, like Cashes Ledge, are out-croppings of bedrock. Very fine sediment particles created and eroded by the glaciers have collected in thick deposits over much of the Gulf of Maine, particularly in its deep basins (Map 44**)**. These mud deposits blanket and obscure the irregularities of the underlying bedrock, forming topographically smooth terrains. Some shallower basins are covered with mud as well, including some in coastal waters. In the rises between the basins, other materials are usually at the surface. Unsorted glacial till covers some morainal areas, as on Sewell Ridge to the north of Georges Basin and on Truxton Swell to the south of Jordan Basin. Sand predominates on some high areas and gravel, sometimes with boulders, predominates on others.

Coastal sediments exhibit a high degree of small-scale variability. Bedrock is the predominant substrate along the western edge of the Gulf of Maine north of Cape Cod in a narrow band out to a depth of about 60 m. Rocky areas become less common with increasing depth, but some rock outcrops poke through the mud covering the deeper sea floor. Mud is the second most common substrate on the inner continental shelf. Mud predominates in coastal valleys and basins that often border abruptly on rocky substrates. Many of these basins extend without interruption into deeper water. Gravel, often mixed with shell, is common adjacent to bedrock outcrops and in fractures in the rock. Large expanses of gravel are not common, but do occur near reworked glacial moraines and in areas where the seabed has been scoured by

Bottom currents. Gravel is most abundant at depths of 20-40 m, except in eastern Maine where a gravel-covered plain exists to depths of at least 100 m. Bottom currents are stronger in eastern Maine where the mean tidal range exceeds 5 m. Sandy areas are relatively rare along the inner shelf of the western Gulf of Maine, but are more common south of Casco Bay, especially offshore of sandy beaches.

An intense seasonal cycle of winter cooling and turnover, springtime freshwater runoff, and summer warming influences oceanographic and biologic processes in the Gulf of Maine. The Gulf has a general counterclockwise non-tidal surface current that flows around its coastal margin. It is primarily driven by fresh, cold Scotian Shelf water that enters over the Scotian Shelf and through the Northeast Channel, and freshwater river runoff, which is particularly important in the spring. Dense relatively warm and saline slope water entering through the bottom of the Northeast Channel from the continental slope also influences gyre formation. Counterclockwise gyres generally form in Jordan, Wilkinson, and

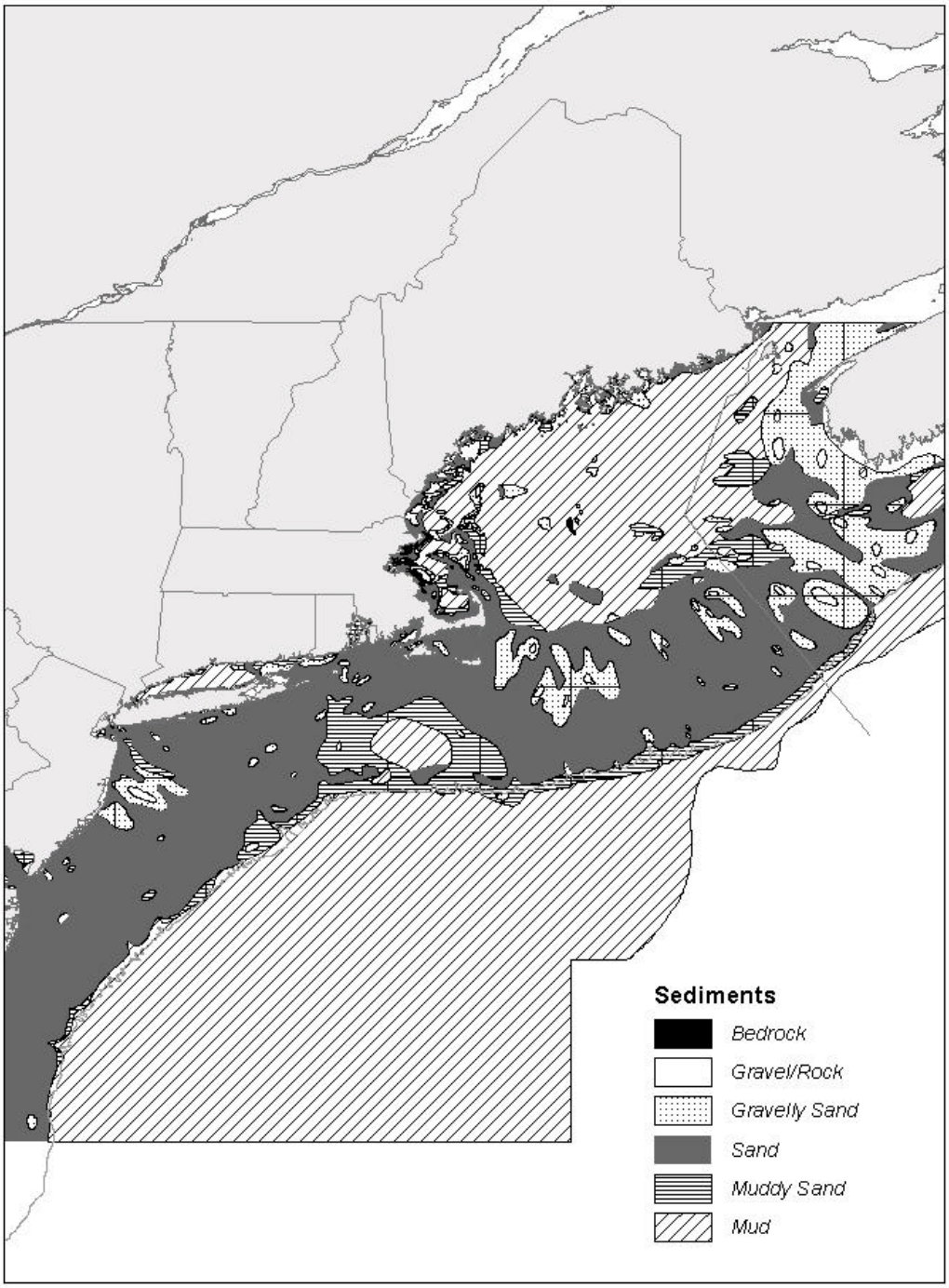
Georges Basins and the Northeast Channel as well. These surface gyres are more pronounced in spring and summer; with winter, they weaken and become more influenced by the wind.

Stratification of surface waters during spring and summer seals off a mid-depth layer of water that preserves winter salinity and temperatures. This cold layer of water is called "Maine intermediate water" (MIW) and is located between more saline Maine bottom water and the warmer, stratified Maine surface water. The stratified surface layer is most pronounced in the deep portions of the western GOM. Tidal mixing of shallow areas prevents thermal stratification and results in thermal fronts between the stratified areas and cooler mixed areas. Typically, mixed areas include Georges Bank, the southwest Scotian Shelf, eastern Maine coastal waters, and the narrow coastal band surrounding the remainder of the Gulf.

The Northeast Channel provides an exit for cold MIW and outgoing surface water while it allows warmer more saline slope water to move in along the bottom and spill into the deeper basins. The influx of water occurs in pulses, and appears to be seasonal, with lower flow in late winter and a maximum in early summer.

Gulf of Maine circulation and water properties can vary significantly from year to year. Notable episodic events include shelf-slope interactions such as the entrainment of shelf water by Gulf Stream rings (see *Gulf Stream and Associated Features*), and strong winds that can create currents as high as 1.1 meters/second over Georges Bank. Warm core Gulf Stream rings can also influence upwelling and nutrient exchange on the Scotian shelf, and affect the water masses entering the GOM. Annual and seasonal inflow variations also affect water circulation.

Internal waves are episodic and can greatly affect the biological properties of certain habitats. Internal waves can shift water layers vertically, so that habitats normally surrounded by cold MIW are temporarily bathed in warm, organic-rich surface water. On Cashes Ledge, it is thought that deeper nutrient rich water is driven into the photic zone, providing for increased productivity. Localized areas of upwelling interaction occur in numerous places throughout the Gulf.



Map 44. Map showing distribution of surficial sediments, Gulf of Maine, Georges Bank, and the Mid-Atlantic Bight (modified from original map by Poppe *et al*. 1989).

7.3.2.3 Georges Bank

Georges Bank is a shallow (3-150 m depth), elongate (161 km wide by 322 km long) extension of the continental shelf which was formed by the Wisconsinian glacial episode and is characterized by a steep slope on its northern edge and a broad, flat, gently sloping southern flank. The Great South Channel lies to the west. Natural processes continue to erode and rework the sediments on Georges Bank. It is anticipated that erosion and reworking of sediments will reduce the amount of sand available to the sand sheets, and cause an overall coarsening of the bottom sediments (Valentine *et al.* 1993).

Glacial retreat during the late Pleistocene deposited the bottom sediments currently observed on the eastern section of Georges Bank, and the sediments have been continuously reworked and redistributed by the action of rising sea level, and by tidal, storm and other currents. The strong, erosive currents affect the character of the biological community. Bottom topography on eastern Georges Bank is characterized by linear ridges in the western shoal areas; a relatively smooth, gently dipping sea floor on the deeper, easternmost part; a highly energetic peak in the north with sand ridges up to 30 m high and extensive gravel pavement, and steeper and smoother topography incised by submarine canyons on the southeastern margin (see *Continental Slope* for more on canyons). The nature of the seabed sediments varies widely, ranging from clay to gravel (Map 44). The gravel-sand mixture is usually a transition zone between coarse gravel and finer sediments.

The central region of the bank is shallow; shoals and troughs characterize the bottom, with sand dunes superimposed upon them. The two most prominent elevations on the ridge and trough area are Cultivator and Georges Shoals. This shoal and trough area is a region of strong currents, with average flood and ebb tidal currents greater than 4 km per hour, and as high as 7 km per hour. The dunes migrate at variable rates, and the ridges may move, also. In an area that lies between the central part and northeast peak, Almeida et al. (2000) identified high energy areas as between 35 – 65 m deep, where sand is transported on a daily basis by tidal currents; and a low energy area at depths > 65 m that is affected only by storm currents. The area west of the Great South Channel, known as Nantucket Shoals is similar in nature to the central region of the bank. Currents in these areas are strongest where water depth is shallower than 50 m. This type of traveling dune and swale morphology is also found in the mid-Atlantic bight, and further described in that section of the document.

The Great South Channel separates the main part of Georges Bank from Nantucket Shoals. Sediments in this region include gravel pavement and mounds, some scattered boulders, sand with storm generated ripples, scattered shell and mussel beds. Tidal and storm currents may range from moderate to strong, depending upon location and storm activity (Valentine, pers. comm.).

Oceanographic frontal systems occur between water masses from the Gulf of Maine and Georges Bank. These water masses differ in temperature, salinity, nutrient concentration, and planktonic communities, which influence productivity and may influence fish abundance and distribution. Currents on Georges Bank include a weak, persistent clockwise gyre around the bank, a strong semidiurnal tidal flow predominantly northwest and southeast, and very strong, intermittent storm-induced currents, which can all occur simultaneously. Tidal currents over the shallow top of Georges Bank can be very strong, and keep the waters over the bank well mixed vertically. This results in a tidal front that separates the cool waters of the well-mixed shallows of the central bank from the warmer, seasonally stratified shelf waters on the seaward and shoreward sides of the bank. The clockwise gyre is instrumental in distribution of the planktonic community, including larval fish. For example, Lough and Potter (1993) describe passive drift of Atlantic cod and haddock eggs and larvae in a southwest residual pattern around Georges Bank. Larval concentrations are found at varying depths along the southern edge between 60 – 100 m.

7.3.2.4 Mid Atlantic Bight

The Mid-Atlantic Bight includes the shelf and slope waters from Georges Bank south to Cape Hatteras, and east to the Gulf Stream (Map 45). Like the rest of the continental shelf, the topography of the Mid-Atlantic Bight was shaped largely by sea level fluctuations caused by past ice ages. The shelf's basic morphology and sediments derive from the retreat of the last ice sheet, and the subsequent rise in sea level. Since that time, currents and waves have modified this basic structure.

Shelf and slope waters of the Mid-Atlantic Bight have a slow southwestward flow that is occasionally interrupted by warm core rings or meanders from the Gulf Stream. On average, shelf water moves parallel to bathymetry isobars at speeds of 5-10 cm/second at the surface and 2 cm/second or less at the bottom. Storm events can cause much more energetic variations in flow. Tidal currents on the inner shelf have a higher flow rate of 20 cm/second that increases to 100 cm/second near inlets.

Slope water tends to be warmer than shelf water because of its proximity to the Gulf Stream, and also tends to be more saline. The abrupt gradient where these two water masses meet is called the shelf-slope front. This front is usually located at the edge of the shelf and touches bottom at about 75-100 m depth of water, and then slopes up to the east toward the surface. It reaches surface waters approximately 25-55 km further offshore. The position of the front is highly variable, and can be influenced by many physical factors. Vertical structure of temperature and salinity within the front can develop complex patterns because of the interleaving of shelf and slope waters – for example cold shelf waters can protrude offshore, or warmer slope water can intrude up onto the shelf.

The seasonal effects of warming and cooling increase in shallower, near shore waters. Stratification of the water column occurs over the shelf and the top layer of slope water during the spring-summer and is usually established by early June. Fall mixing results in homogenous shelf and upper slope waters by October in most years. A permanent thermocline exists in slope waters from 200-600 m deep. Temperatures decrease at the rate of about 0.02º C per meter and remain relatively constant except for occasional incursions of Gulf stream eddies or meanders. Below 600 m, temperature declines, and usually averages about 2.2º C at 4000 m. A warm, mixed layer approximately 40 m thick resides above the permanent thermocline.

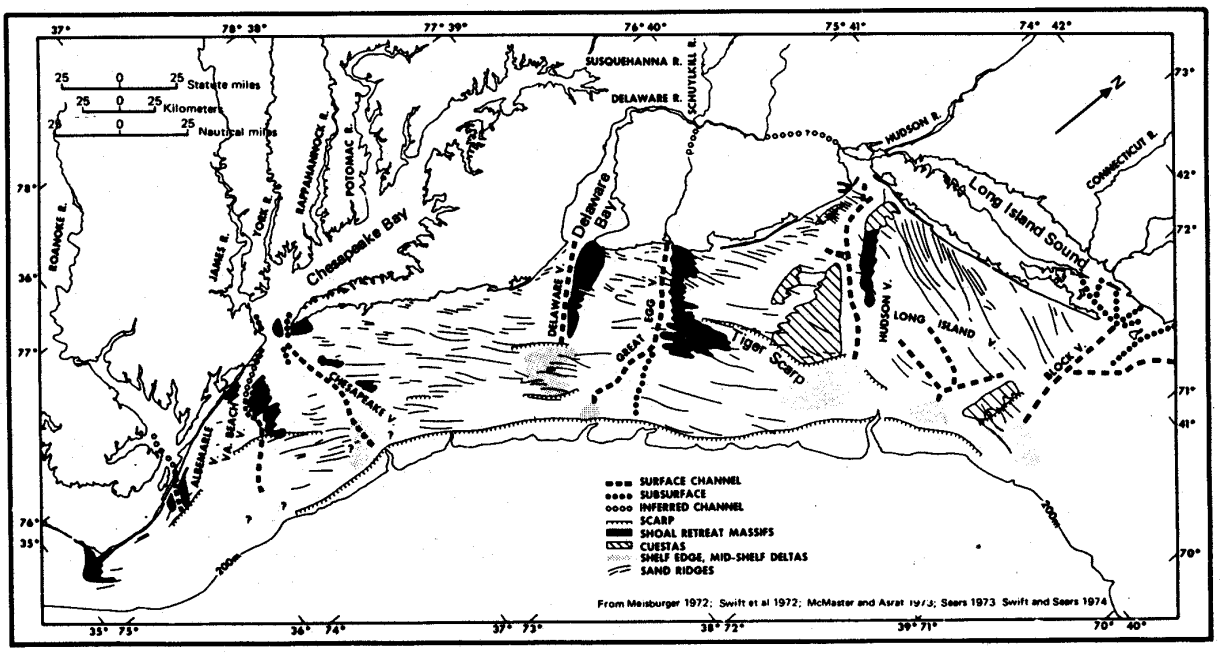
The "cold pool" is an annual phenomenon particularly important to the Mid-Atlantic Bight. It stretches from the Gulf of Maine along the outer edge of Georges Bank and then southwest to Cape Hatteras. It becomes identifiable with the onset of thermal stratification in the spring and lasts into early fall until normal seasonal mixing occurs. It usually exists along the bottom between the 40 m and 100 m isobaths and extends up into the water column for about 35 m, to the bottom of the seasonal thermocline. The cold pool usually represents about 30% of the volume of shelf water. Minimum temperatures for the cold pool occur in early spring and summer, and range from 1.1º C to 4.7º C.

The shelf slopes gently from shore out to between 100 and 200 km offshore where it transforms to the slope (100 – 200 m water depth) at the shelf break. In both the Mid-Atlantic and on Georges Bank, numerous canyons incise the slope, and some cut up onto the shelf itself (see section on *Continental Slope*). The primary morphological features of the shelf include shelf valleys and channels, shoal massifs, scarps, and sand ridges and swales (Map 45, Map 46).

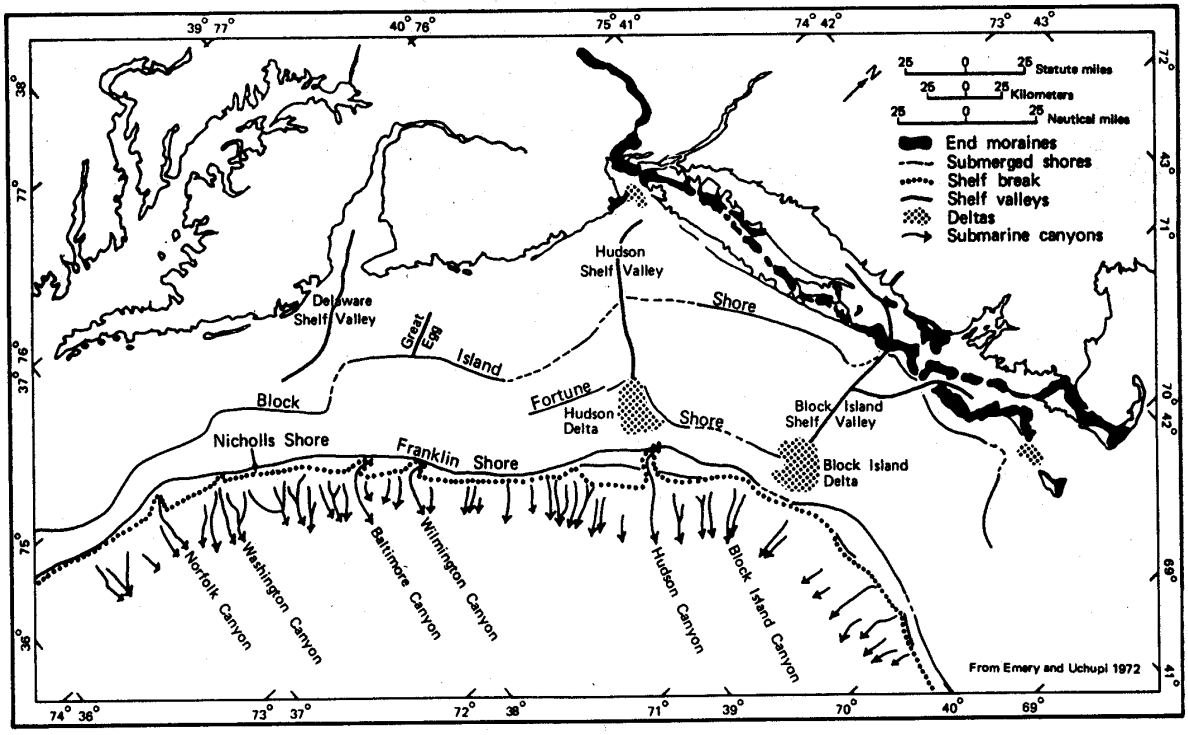
Most of these structures are relic except for some sand ridges and smaller sand-formed features. Shelf valleys and slope canyons were formed by rivers of melted glacier that deposited sediments on the outer shelf edge as they entered the ocean. Most valleys cut about 10 m into the shelf, with the exception of the Hudson Shelf Valley, which is about 35 m deep. The valleys were partially filled as the glacier

melted and egressed across the shelf. The glacier also left behind a lengthy scarp near the shelf break from Chesapeake Bay north to the eastern end of Long Island. Shoal retreat massifs were produced by extensive deposition at a cape or estuary mouth. Massifs were also formed as estuaries retreated across the shelf.

The sediment type covering most of the shelf in the Mid-Atlantic Bight is sand, with some relatively small, localized areas of gravel and gravelly sand (Map 44). On the slope, muddy sand and mud predominate. Sediments are fairly uniformly distributed over the shelf in this region. A sheet of sand and gravel varying in thickness from 0 to 10 m covers most of the shelf. The mean bottom flow from the constant southwesterly current is not fast enough to move sand, so sediment transport must be episodic. Net sediment movement is in the same southwesterly direction as the current. The sands are mostly medium to coarse grains, with finer sand in the Hudson Shelf Valley and on the outer shelf. Mud is rare over most of the shelf, but is common in the Hudson Shelf Valley. Occasionally relic estuarine mud deposits are re-exposed in the swales between sand ridges. Fine sediment content increases rapidly at the shelf break, which is sometimes called the "mud line," and sediments are 70-100% fines on the slope.



Map 45. Mid-Atlantic Bight submarine morphology. Source: Stumpf and Biggs (1988).



Map 46. Major features of the Mid-Atlantic and Southern New England continental shelf. Source: Stumpf and Biggs (1988).

In addition to sand ridges that were formed by the glaciers, some sand ridges have been formed since the end of the last ice age. Their formation is not well understood; however, they appear to develop from the sediments that erode from the shore face. They maintain their shape, so it is assumed that they are in equilibrium with modern current and storm regimes. They are usually grouped, with heights of about 10 m, lengths of 10-50 km and spacing of 2 km. Ridges are usually oriented at a slight angle towards shore, running in length from northeast to southwest. The seaward face usually has the steepest slope. Sand ridges are often covered with smaller similar forms such as sand waves, megaripples, and ripples. Swales occur between sand ridges. Since ridges are higher than the adjacent swales, they are exposed to more energy from water currents, and experience more sediment mobility than swales. Ridges tend to contain less fine sand, silt and clay while relatively sheltered swales contain more of the finer particles. Swales have greater benthic macrofaunal density, species richness and biomass, due in part to the increased abundance of detrital food and the physically less rigorous conditions.

Sand waves are usually found in patches of 5-10 with heights of about 2 m, lengths of 50-100 m and 1-2 km between patches. Sand waves are primarily found on the inner shelf, and often observed on sides of sand ridges. They may remain intact over several seasons. Megaripples occur on sand waves or separately on the inner or central shelf. During the winter storm season, they may cover as much as 15% of the inner shelf. They tend to form in large patches and usually have lengths of 3-5 m with heights of 0.5-1 m. Megaripples tend to survive for less than a season. They can form during a storm and reshape the upper 50-100 cm of the sediments within a few hours. Ripples are also found everywhere on the shelf, and appear or disappear within hours or days, depending upon storms and currents. Ripples usually have lengths of about 1-150 cm and heights of a few centimeters.

The northern portion of the mid-Atlantic bight is sometimes referred to as southern New England. Someof the features of this area were described earlier (see *Georges Bank*); however, one other formation

of this region that deserves note is the "mud patch" which is located just southwest of Nantucket Shoals and southeast of Long Island. Tidal currents in this area slow significantly, which allows silts and clays to settle out. The mud is mixed with sand, and is occasionally re-suspended by large storms. This habitat is an anomaly of the outer continental shelf.

Artificial reefs are another significant mid-Atlantic habitat, formed much more recently on the geologic time-scale than other regional habitat types. These localized areas of hard structure have been formed by shipwrecks, lost cargoes, disposed solid materials, shoreline jetties and groins, submerged pipelines, cables, and other materials (Steimle and Zetlin 2000). While some of materials have been deposited specifically for use as fish habitat, most have an alternative primary purpose; however, they have all become an integral part of the coastal and shelf ecosystem. It is expected that the increase in these materials has had an impact on living marine resources and fisheries, but these effects are not well known. In general, reefs are important for attachment sites, shelter, and food for many species, and fish predators such as tunas may be attracted by prey aggregations, or may be behaviorally attracted to the reef structure.

7.3.2.5 Continental Slope

The continental slope extends from the continental shelf break, at depths between 60 m and 200 m, eastward to a depth of 2000 m. The width of the slope varies from 10-50 km, with an average gradient of 3-6°; however, local gradients can be nearly vertical. The base of the slope is defined by a marked decrease in seafloor gradient where the continental rise begins.

The morphology of the present continental slope appears largely to be a result of sedimentary processes that occurred during the Pleistocene, including:

1) slope upbuilding and progradation by deltaic sedimentation principally during sea-level low-stands;
2) canyon-cutting by sediment mass movements during and following sea-level low-stands;
3) sediment slumping.

The slope is cut by at least 70 large canyons between Georges Bank and Cape Hatteras (Map 47) and numerous smaller canyons and gullies, many of which may feed into the larger canyon systems. The New England Seamount Chain including Bear, Mytilus, Balanus, etc. occurs on the slope southwest of Georges Bank. A smaller chain (Caryn, Knauss, etc.) occurs in the vicinity in deeper water.

A "mud line" occurs on the slope at a depth of 250 m – 300 m, below which fine silt and clay-size particles predominate (Map 47). Localized coarse sediments and rock outcrops are found in and near canyon walls, and occasional boulders occur on the slope as a result of glacial rafting. Sand pockets may also be formed as a result of downslope movements.

Gravity induced downslope movement is the dominant sedimentary process on the slope, and includes slumps, slides, debris flows, and turbidity currents, in order from thick cohesive movement to relatively non-viscous flow. Slumps are localized blocks of sediment that may involve short downslope movement. However, turbidity currents can transport sediments thousands of kilometers.

Submarine canyons are not spaced evenly along the slope, but tend to decrease in areas of increasing slope gradient. Canyons are typically "v"-shaped in cross section and often have steep walls and outcroppings of bedrock and clay. The canyons are continuous from the canyon heads to the base of the continental slope. Some canyons end at the base of the slope, but others continue as channels onto the

continental rise. Larger and more deeply incised canyons are generally significantly older than smaller ones, and there is also evidence that some older canyons have experienced several episodes of filling and re-excavation. Many, if not all, submarine canyons may first form by mass-wasting processes on the continental slope, although there is evidence that some canyons formed as a result of fluvial drainage (i.e., Hudson Canyon).

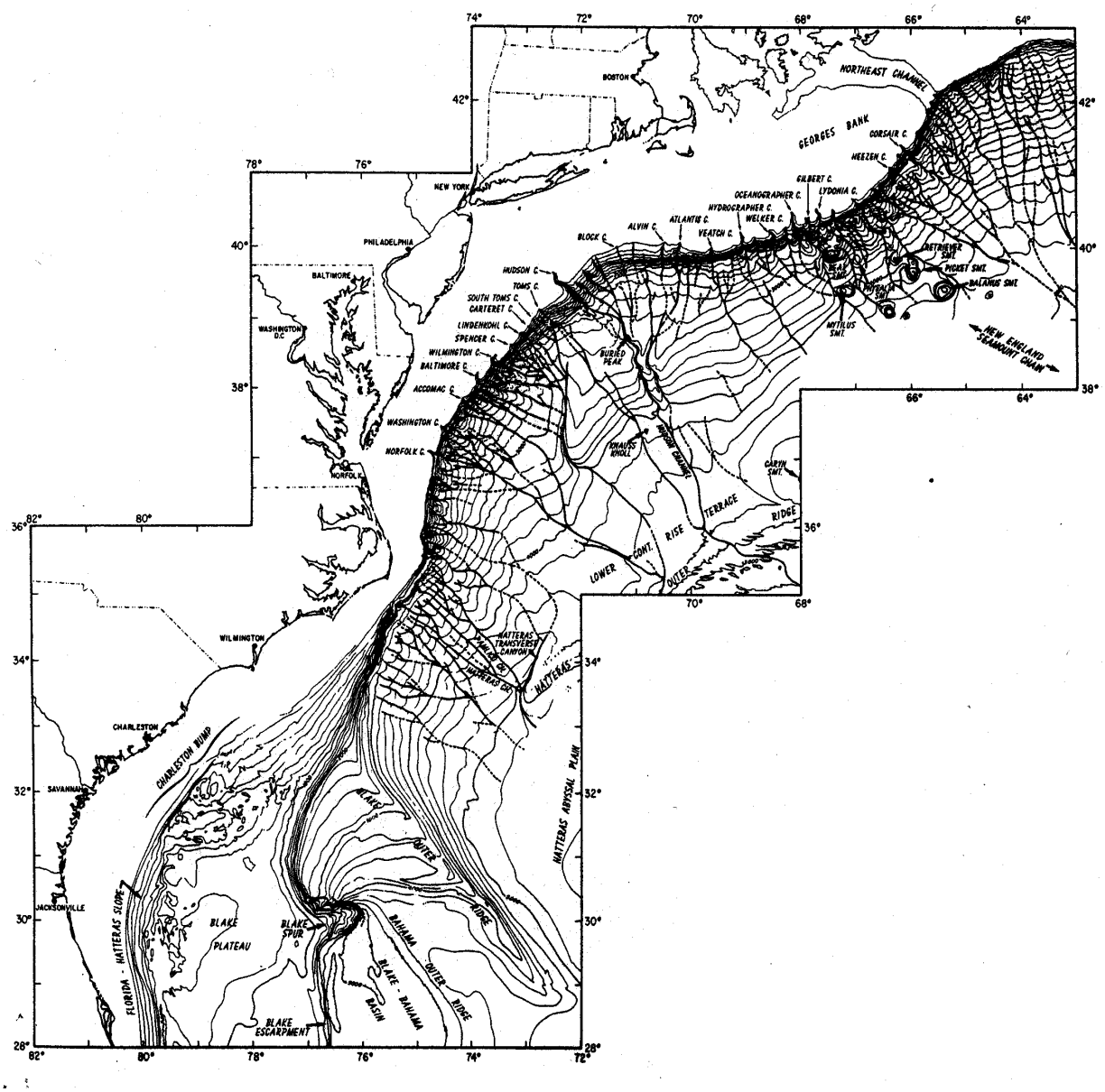
Canyons can alter the physical processes in the surrounding slope waters. Fluctuations in the velocities of the surface and internal tides can be large near the heads of the canyons, leading to enhanced mixing and sediment transport in the area. Shepard et al. (1979) concluded that the strong turbidity currents initiated in study canyons were responsible for enough sediment erosion and transport to maintain and modify those canyons. Since surface and internal tides are ubiquitous over the continental shelf and slope, it can be anticipated that these fluctuations are important for sedimentation processes in other canyons as well. In Lydonia Canyon, Butman et al. (1982) found that the dominant source of low-frequency current variability was related to passage of warm core Gulf Stream rings rather than the atmospheric events that predominate on the shelf.

The water masses of the Atlantic continental slope and rise are essentially the same as those of the North American Basin (defined in Wright and Worthington 1970). Worthington (1976) divided the water column of the slope into three vertical layers: deep water (colder than 4°C), the thermocline (4°-17°C), and warm water (warmer than 17°C). In the North American Basin the deep water accounts for two-thirds of all the water, the thermocline for about one quarter, and the warm water the remainder. In the slope water north of Cape Hatteras, the only warm water occurs in the Gulf Stream and seasonally influenced summer waters.

The principal cold-water mass in the region is the North Atlantic Deep Water. North Atlantic Deep Water is comprised of a mixture of five sources: Antarctic Bottom Water, Labrador Sea Water, Mediterranean Water, Denmark Strait Overflow Water, and Iceland-Scotland Overflow Water. The thermocline represents a fairly straightforward water mass compared with either the deep water or the surface water. Nearly 90% of all thermocline water comes from the water mass called the Western North Atlantic Water. This water mass is slightly less saline northeast of Cape Hatteras due to the influx of southward flowing Labrador Coastal Water.

Seasonal variability in slope waters penetrates only the upper 200 m of the water column. In the winter months, cold temperatures and storm activity create a well-mixed layer down to about 100-150 m, but summer warming creates a seasonal thermocline overlain by a surface layer of low-density water. The seasonal thermocline, in combination with reduced storm activity in the summer, inhibits vertical mixing and reduces the upward transfer of nutrients into the photic zone.

Two currents found on the slope, the Gulf Stream and Western Boundary Undercurrent, together represent one of the strongest low frequency horizontal flow systems in the world. Both currents have an important influence on slope waters. Warm and cold core rings that spin off the Gulf Stream are a persistent and ubiquitous feature of the Northwest Atlantic Ocean (see section on *Gulf Stream*). The Western Boundary Undercurrent flows to the southwest along the lower slope and continental rise in a stream about 50 km wide. The boundary current is associated with the spread of North Atlantic Deep Water, and it forms part of the generally westward flow found in slope water. North of Cape Hatteras it crosses under the Gulf Stream in a manner not yet completely understood.



Map 47. Bathymetry of the U.S. Atlantic continental margin. Contour interval is 200 m below 1000 m water depth and 100 m above 1000 m. Axes of principal canyons and channels are shown by solid lines (dashed where uncertain or approximate). Source: Tucholke (1987).

7.3.2.6 Gulf Stream and Associated Features

Shelf and slope waters of the Northeast are intermittently but intensely affected by the Gulf Stream. The Gulf Stream begins in the Gulf of Mexico and flows northeastward at an approximate rate of 1 m/second (2 knots), transporting warm waters north along the eastern coast of the United States, and then east towards the British Isles. Conditions and flow of the Gulf Stream are highly variable on time scales ranging from days to seasons. The principal sources of variability in slope waters off the northeastern shelf are intrusions from the Gulf Stream.

The location of the Gulf Stream's shoreward, western boundary is variable because of meanders and eddies. Gulf Stream eddies are formed when extended meanders enclose a parcel of seawater and pinch off. These eddies can be cyclonic, meaning they rotate counterclockwise and have a cold-core formed by enclosed slope water (cold core ring), or anticyclonic, meaning they rotate clockwise and have a warm core of Sargasso Sea water (warm core ring). The rings are shaped like a funnel, wider at the top and narrower at the bottom, and can have depths of over 2000 m. They range in size from approximately 150-230 m in diameter. There are 35% more rings and meanders in the vicinity of Georges Bank than in the Mid-Atlantic region. A net transfer of water on and off the shelf may result from the interaction of rings and shelf waters. These warm or cold core rings maintain their identity for several months until they are reabsorbed by the Gulf Stream. The rings and the Gulf Stream itself have a great influence over oceanographic conditions all along the continental shelf.

7.3.2.7 Coastal Features

Coastal and estuarine features such as salt marshes, mud flats, rocky intertidal zones, sand beaches, and submerged aquatic vegetation are critical to inshore and offshore habitats and fishery resources of the Northeast. For example, coastal areas and estuaries are important for nutrient recycling and primary production, and certain features serve as nursery areas for juvenile stages of economically important species. Salt marshes are found extensively throughout the region. Tidal and subtidal mud and sand flats are general salt marsh features and are also occur in other estuarine areas. Salt marshes provide nursery and spawning habitat for many finfish and shellfish species. Salt marsh vegetation can also be a large source of organic material that is important to the biological and chemical processes of the estuarine and marine environment.

Rocky intertidal zones are periodically submerged, high-energy environments found in the northern portion of the Northeast system. Sessile invertebrates and some fish inhabit rocky intertidal zones. A variety of algae, kelp, and rockweed are also important habitat features of rocky shores. Fishery resources may depend upon particular habitat features of the rocky intertidal that provide important levels of refuge and food.

Sandy beaches are most extensive along the Northeast coast. Different zones of the beach present suitable habitat conditions for a variety of marine and terrestrial organisms. For example, the intertidal zone presents suitable habitat conditions for many invertebrates, and transient fish find suitable conditions for foraging during high tide. Several invertebrate and fish species are adapted for living in the high-energy subtidal zone adjacent to sandy beaches.