



ANTARCTIC OCEAN LEGACY: PROTECTION FOR THE EAST ANTARCTIC COASTAL REGION







EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In October 2011, the Antarctic Ocean Alliance (AOA) proposed the creation of a network of marine protected areas (MPAs) and marine reserves in 19 specific areas in the Southern Ocean around Antarctica¹. This report, **Antarctic Ocean Legacy: Protection for the East Antarctic Coastal Region**, outlines a vision for marine protection in the East Antarctic, one of the key regions previously identified by the AOA.

Currently, only approximately 1% of the world's oceans are protected from human interference, yet international agreements on marine protection suggest that this number should be far higher^{2 3 4}.

The Commission for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (CCAMLR), the body that manages the marine living resources of the Southern Ocean (with the exception of whales and seals), has set a target date of 2012 for establishing the initial areas in a network of Antarctic MPAs.

One of the key places for which the AOA seeks protection is the East Antarctic coastal region. This remote area, while vastly understudied, is home to a significant proportion of the Southern Ocean's penguins seals and whales. The East Antarctic coastal region also contains large seafloor and oceanographic features found nowhere else on the planet.

The AOA offers this report to assist in designating marine reserves and MPAs in the East Antarctic coastal region. This is the third in a series of "Antarctic Ocean Legacy" proposals from the AOA⁵ ⁶.

This report describes the geography, oceanography and ecology of this area. The AOA acknowledges the scientists and governments that have studied the region and welcomes and gives support to the proposal that has been submitted for marine protection in the East Antarctic by Australia, France and the EU, but cautions that constant vigilance and additional marine reserves will be required to ensure that the conservation values of the proposal are not compromised in the future.

The AOA proposes that in addition to the seven areas referenced by Australia, France and the EU, four additional areas also be considered for protection in the coming years. A network MPAs and marine reserves encompassing these additional areas and those proposed by Australia, France and the EU would span approximately 2,550,000 square kilometres.

AOA indicative map of a representative network of marine protected areas and marine reserves in the Southern Ocean.



The remote East Antarctic coastal region is home to a significant proportion of the Southern Ocean's penguins, seals and whales and contains large seafloor and oceanographic features found nowhere else on the planet.

Image by John B. Weller.

Because the East Antarctic coastal region is "data-poor", the AOA plan is based on the application of the precautionary approach, one of the core concepts at the centre of CCAMLR's mandate.

This proposal includes:

- 1. A representative sample of biological features at the species, habitat and ecosystem scale to ensure broad scale protection.
- 2. Areas of protection large enough to encompass broad foraging areas for whales, seals, penguins and other seabirds.
- 3. Protection of many of the region's polynyas, which are sources of food for many species.
- 4. Protection of unique geomorphic features, including the Gunnerus Ridge, Bruce Rise, a trough mouth fan off Prydz Bay, various seamounts and representative areas of shelf, slope and abyssal ecoregions.
- 5. Full protection of Prydz Bay, an area that supports large numbers of seabirds and mammals as well as likely nursery grounds for krill and toothfish.
- 6. Protecting areas of scientific importance that may serve as climate reference areas.

Currently, only approximately 1% of the world's oceans are protected from human interference, yet international agreements on marine protection suggest that this number should be far higher.

The designation of a network of large-scale MPAs and marine reserves in the East Antarctic coastal region would be an important and inspirational step for marine protection in the Southern Ocean. CCAMLR Members have an unprecedented opportunity to establish a network of marine reserves and MPAs an order of magnitude greater than anything accomplished before. With such a network in place, key Southern Ocean habitats and wildlife, including those unique to the East Antarctic coastal region, would be protected from the impacts of human activities.

The AOA submits that with visionary political leadership, CCAMLR can grasp this opportunity and take meaningful steps to protect critical elements of the world's oceans that are essential for the lasting health of the planet.

ABOUT THE ANTARCTIC OCEAN ALLIANCE

The Antarctic Ocean Alliance is an international coalition of leading environmental and conservation organisations and philanthropists from around the world including the Antarctic and Southern Ocean Coalition (ASOC), Blue Marine Foundation (UK), Deepwave (Germany), ECO (NZ), Forest and Bird (NZ), Greenovation Hub (China), Greenpeace, Humane Society International, International Fund for Animal Welfare (IFAW), International Polar Foundation, International Programme on the State of the Ocean (IPSO), Korean Federation for Environmental Movement (KFEM), The Last Ocean, Mission Blue (US), Oceans 5 (US), Whale and **Dolphin Conservation Society** (WDCS) and WWF. Associate partners include Oceana, Natural Resources Defense Council (NRDC) and other groups worldwide.





Image © Greenpeace / Jiri Rezac.

Introduction	5
Definition of the East Antarctic Coastal Region	7
Birds and Mammals of the East Antarctic Coastal Region	8
Dronning Maud (West Indian) Region	10
Central Indian Region	12
 West Kerguelen Subregion 	12
– Prydz Bay Subregion	12
 East Kerguelen Subregion 	15
– Wilkes Subregion	15
Oates (East Indian) Region	16
Threats	18
Opportunity at CCAMLR	21
Proposals for Marine Protection	22
Acknowledgements	24
References	25



Adélie penguins on ice. Image © Greenpeace / Roger Grace.



THE EAST ANTARCTIC COASTAL REGION

The East Antarctic coastal region comprises an ecosystem that has been shaped by grand features and processes. The Eastern Antarctic Ice Sheet flows off the Antarctic continent into the Southern Ocean, an icy surface abruptly giving way to the marine environment. Coastal currents, like the Prydz Bay Gyre, mingle with the expansive fronts of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current, a clockwise current that circulates the continent. Coastal polynyas, areas of open water amidst the sea ice, form up and down the coast of East Antarctica. Further offshore is the Cosmonaut Polynya, one of only two major open ocean polynyas currently in the Southern Ocean.

Millennia of glacial streams have carved deep canyons into the continental shelf and slope all along the East Antarctic coastal region. In the eastern stretches of the region, the Gunnerus Ridge rises from the depths, with a seamount off its northern end. In the central region of the East Antarctic, the Bruce Rise forms one of only two marginal plateaus in the Southern Ocean. Off the continental shelf of Prydz Bay, a large trough mouth fan and a myriad of associated canyons form a unique habitat.

Along the shores of the East Antarctic, millions of seals and seabirds make their home, feeding mostly on Antarctic and crystal krill as well as silverfish. The East Antarctic supports many colonies of Adélie and emperor penguins, the latter of which have been rapidly decreasing in recent years⁷. Leopard and crabeater seals pup on the pack ice just offshore. Other birds, seals and whales come to feed in the region's waters, especially Prydz Bay. The bay also supports nursery grounds for krill and Antarctic toothfish, the top piscine predator in the Southern Ocean⁸⁹.

The region's unique oceanographic and seafloor features coupled with its biological value to seabirds, seals and other animals make the East Antarctic coastal region a prime area for protection.



Crabeater seal. Image by Cassandra Brooks.

East Antarctica is a large region and while some areas and features have been well studied, others remain enveloped in mystery. Scientists are still trying to understand the dynamics between the oceanography and the seafloor environment and define the species that live there. Because of the overall lack of information about the East Antarctic coastal region, scientists and managers consider it a "data-poor" region. Nonetheless, the region's unique oceanographic and seafloor features coupled with its biological value to seabirds, seals and other animals make the East Antarctic coastal region a prime area for protection.

CANDIDATE FOR MARINE PROTECTION

The marine life of the East Antarctic coastal region is managed by the Commission for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (CCAMLR)¹⁰. The Commission and the Convention that established it comprise a key marine-focused component of the Antarctic Treaty System. CCAMLR's objective is the conservation of marine living resources. Setting aside regions as MPAs and marine reserves is a key component of CCAMLR's management toolbox¹¹. In a region as large as the East Antarctic, a group of multiple marine reserves and MPAs is appropriate, and should be included in the larger Southern Ocean network of MPAs.

In this report, "MPA" is used to describe areas where certain activities are limited or prohibited to meet specific conservation, habitat protection, or fisheries management objectives. A marine reserve refers specifically to a highly protected area that is off limits to all extractive uses, including fishing. Marine reserves provide the highest level of protection to all elements of the ocean ecosystem.

To be effective, MPAs and marine reserves must be large enough to encompass and protect key ecological processes and the life cycle of the species living there¹². A group of large MPAs and reserves that connect ocean processes across space and over time in the East Antarctic is the most effective and powerful tool to ensure long-term resiliency of the region. Unique seafloor and pelagic features such as the Cosmonaut Polynya and Bruce Rise should be included, as well as known foraging grounds for seabirds and mammals. Reference areas that act as baselines for long-term climate research studies should also be included.

While some areas and features of the East Antarctic coastal region and have been well studied, others remain enveloped in mystery.

Because the East Antarctic coastal region is data-poor, it is appropriate for CCAMLR to employ the precautionary approach when designating protected areas. Areas that are less well known may be equally or even more ecologically important and should be included in the network. In areas where less biological data is available, seafloor and pelagic habitats can be used as proxies for biological diversity¹³. Including replicate features and habitats within the network of MPAs and marine reserves can help ensure that the region's biodiversity is conserved.



Penguins on the fast ice, Antarctica. Image by John B. Weller.



DEFINITION OF THE EAST ANTARCTIC COASTAL REGION

Image © Greenpeace / Jorge Gutman.

The East Antarctic coastal region spans the coast along the Eastern Antarctic Ice Sheet from Enderby Land to Terre Adélie – from 30°E to 150°E and from the coast out to 60°S – and is contained within the Eastern Antarctic planning domain adopted at CCAMLR in 2011. The western boundary extends to the eastern margins of the Weddell Gyre and encompasses most of the South Indian Ocean out to the east towards the western edge of the Ross Sea region planning domain. The East Antarctic coastal region can be divided into west, central and eastern regions of the South Indian Ocean based on ecological barriers likely caused by the influences of the Weddell and Ross Sea Gyres coupled with variations in wind and sea ice^{14 15}.

In this report, these regions will be further referred to as Dronning Maud (West Indian; from 0°E to 55°E), Central Indian (from 55°E to 137°E) and Oates (East Indian; from 137°E to 170°E). Moving from west to east, the Central Indian province can further be divided into the West Kerguelen subregion (from 55°E to 68°E), Prydz Bay subregion (from 68°E to 82°E), East Kerguelen subregion (from 82°E to 110°E) and the Wilkes subregion (from 110°E to 137°E)¹⁶. For the purposes of this report, the East Antarctic coastal region does not include BANZARE Bank, the Kerguelen Plateau or any of the related islands.

Key attributes of the East Antarctic coastal region include important climate change reference areas, particularly in the Oates region, and significant Adélie and emperor penguin colonies.



Emperor penguin chick. Image by John B. Weller.

Key attributes of the East Antarctic coastal region include:

- Important climate change reference areas, particularly in the Oates region;
- · Significant Adélie and emperor penguin colonies;
- Breeding and foraging grounds for many other seabird, seal and whale species;
- Nursery grounds for krill, toothfish and other fish species;
- One of the Southern Ocean's largest trough mouth fans, a unique benthic feature;
- Bruce Rise, one of only two marginal plateaus in the Southern Ocean;
- Cosmonaut Polynya, one of only two major open ocean polynyas in the Southern Ocean.

BIRDS AND MAMMALS OF THE EAST ANTARCTIC COASTAL REGION

Image by John B. Weller.

Though much of the icy East Antarctic coastal region is difficult for humans to access, it is heavily populated with marine mammals and birds that breed and feed there, including seals, whales, penguins and albatross. Several species of whale, including blue, fin, humpback and minke have all been recorded in the East Antarctic¹⁷, with minkes and humpbacks being the most abundant¹⁸.

Four species of seals breed in the region: crabeater, Weddell, Ross and leopard. Crabeater seals are by far the most numerous with about one million estimated to breed in the East Antarctic coastal region¹⁹. Ross seals, which are designated a "Specially Protected Species" under the Environment Protocol to the Antarctic Treaty, are distributed throughout the region, with an estimated population of approximately between 41,300 and 55,900²⁰, or as much as 42% of the total population²¹. At least 7,300 to 12,000 leopard seals are also found in the region²². Weddell seals are the only seals that breed on the fast ice of the Eastern Antarctic shelf, but often move to the pack ice after the breeding season. Their exact population estimates remain unknown. Additionally, elephant seals from sub-Antarctic islands visit the East Antarctic coastal region's rich waters to forage²³.



Ross seal. Image by Elliott Neep.

Significant numbers of emperor and Adélie penguins breed throughout the Eastern Antarctic, with an estimated 50,000 pairs of emperor penguins²⁴ and about 750,000 pairs of Adélie penguins distributed over more than 25 colonies²⁵. These represent approximately 17% and 27% of the world populations of emperors and Adélies, respectively. Emperors and Adélies forage over great distances, with emperors at times travelling up to 900 km from their colonies and Adélies more than 480 km²⁶ ²⁷.

Ross seals, which are designated a "Specially Protected Species" under the Environment Protocol to the Antarctic Treaty, are distributed throughout the region, with an estimated population of approximately between 41,300 and 55,900, or as much as 42% of the total population. The East Antarctic coastal region is home to a host of other seabirds as well. Like Adélies and emperors, snow petrels breed on the Antarctic continent, with roughly 50 colonies located in the Eastern Antarctic²⁸. Prydz Bay alone harbours at least one million breeding pairs of snow petrels²⁹. Southern giant petrels, southern fulmars, cape petrels, Antarctic petrels, Wilson's storm petrels and south polar skuas also breed in the Prydz Bay region³⁰. An even more impressive array of seabirds forage in the vicinity, including subantarctic skuas, Antarctic terns, Arctic terns, wandering albatross, black-browed albatross, grey-headed albatross, lightmantled sooty albatross, northern giant petrels, white-headed petrels, mottled petrels, Kerguelen petrels, blue petrels, a variety of prion species, white-chinned petrels, dark shearwaters and black-bellied storm petrels³¹.

Significant numbers of emperor and Adélie penguins breed throughout the Eastern Antarctic, with an estimated 50,000 pairs of emperor penguins and about 750,000 pairs of Adélie penguins distributed over more than 25 colonies.



Humpback whale in Southern Ocean. Image © Greenpeace / Jiri Rezac.

During the initial years of Patagonian toothfish fishing in the Southern Ocean, large numbers of white-chinned petrels were caught as bycatch by both legal and illegal toothfish longliners. Although mitigation measures have essentially eliminated seabird bycatch by legal fishers operating within the CCAMLR area, illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing continues to be a problem. White-chinned petrels are still listed as vulnerable on the IUCN Red List³². These petrels forage across a vast area of the Eastern Antarctic from Enderby Land to Queen Mary Land, including the coastal areas out to beyond 50°S. Wandering and black-browed albatrosses have also been listed as vulnerable and endangered on the IUCN Red List³³. These species are still at significant risk of being caught and killed by fishing vessels when they range outside of the CCAMLR area.

Overall, there is still much to learn about the East Antarctic's birds and mammals. Locations and sizes of penguin colonies are fairly well known for the entire region, though they may be underestimated³⁴. Information on other seabirds, seals and whales is less extensive and there is still a great deal of uncertainty about the size of their populations.



Snow petrel with icebergs. Image by John B. Weller.



DRONNING MAUD (WEST INDIAN) REGION

Image © Greenpeace / Jiri Rezac.

The Dronning Maud (West Indian) region encompasses the marine areas adjacent to the eastern portion of Dronning Maud Land and the western part of Enderby Land, intersecting the East Antarctic planning domain from 30°E to 55°E. The Weddell Gyre influences circulation between 30°E and 40°E, bringing in cooler and fresher water³⁵. Two major features of the West Indian sector are the Gunnerus Ridge, a unique continental margin ridge, and the Cosmonaut Polynya. The Gunnerus Ridge is a prominent marginal ridge rising in the eastern reaches of this region. The ridge rises from the continental slope to about 1,200 m depth, shallow enough to interfere with circulation³⁶ and cause upwelling which then enhances local primary productivity³⁷. The ridge is a unique feature, one of only two in the East Antarctic coastal region and by far the larger of the two. Just north of the ridge is a large seamount.



Pack ice in the East Antarctic coastal region. Image by John B. Weller.

While little is known about the Gunnerus ridge or its associated seamount, these features are generally isolated habitats that have evolved slowly over millions of years. While little is known about the ridge or its associated seamount, these features are generally isolated habitats that have evolved slowly over millions of years³⁸. Throughout the world's oceans, seamounts support diverse and unique species assemblages^{39 40 41}. As shallow uprisings in otherwise deep areas, seamounts can act as stopovers or connection grounds for species in disparate locations tens of hundreds of kilometres away from each other^{42 43}. They may also serve as a source population for neighbouring environments⁴⁴. Seamounts tend to have remarkably high levels of biomass when compared to surrounding waters⁴⁵. The Southern Ocean has relatively few and scattered seamounts, each of which likely has its own unique scientific value⁴⁶.

To the east of the Gunnerus Ridge, in the coastal areas adjacent to Enderby Land, the seafloor regions share some characteristics with the Gunnerus region, but also some unique seafloor habitats, including an extensive continental slope with a variety of canyons. The waters off Enderby Land also appear to have a distinct population of molluscs and have been identified as a "hotspot" of mollusc diversity⁴⁷.

The Cosmonaut Sea



The Cosmonaut Polynya, located in the Cosmonaut Sea, at roughly 65°S and 45°E off Enderby Land and near Cape Ann, is one of only two major, regularly recurring open-ocean polynyas currently in the Southern Ocean. Forming over depths of 3,000-4,000 m, the Cosmonaut Polynya is one of the most persistent polynyas in the Southern Ocean and has been observed every year since 1972 when scientists began collecting satellite data⁴⁸. The formation is at times more of an embayment than a distinct polynya⁴⁹, while other years it is actually two polynyas, the East and West Cosmonaut Polynya, which often merge over the winter season⁵⁰. During many years these are then joined by an eastward extending chain of polynyas that extends as far as 90°E⁵¹. The polynya opens and closes throughout the winter season, sometimes growing as large as 137,700 km² and persisting for days to weeks at a time^{52 53}. Like their coastal counterparts, open-ocean polynyas are highly productive. Krill aggregations have been found in correlation with upwellings associated with the Cosmonaut Polynya⁵⁴.



Antarctic krill. Image by Stephen W. Brookes, Australian Antarctic Division.

Much remains unknown about the ecology of this area. A few emperor penguin colonies have been documented and a variety of other seabirds have also been observed in the area, including Adélie penguins, Antarctic petrels, snow petrels, Wilson's storm petrels, light-mantled sooty albatrosses, prions, Southern giant petrels and Arctic terns⁵⁵. The upper ocean layers of the region appear to have substantial krill densities, however not nearly as significant as those found off the Antarctic Peninsula⁵⁶. Limited acoustic sampling has revealed the presence of sperm, fin, sei and humpback whales in the region⁵⁷.



The Central Indian region constitutes a large swath of the East Antarctic coastal region and covers a wide range of habitats and geomorphologic features. Stretching from MacRobertson Land to Wilkes Land (approximately 55°E -137°E), this region has a variety of seafloor habitats and is a rich feeding ground for marine birds and mammals. On the basis of seafloor features, the area can be roughly divided into four subregions – West Kerguelen, Prydz Bay, East Kerguelen and Wilkes⁵⁸.

WEST KERGUELEN SUBREGION

The West Kerguelen subregion lies off the coast of MacRobertson Land, between 55°E to 68°E. Above the narrow continental shelf, coastal polynyas form, driving local productivity. Deep underwater, canyons cut through the shelf and slope, while further offshore seamounts rise from the deep abyssal plains.

The region is important for mammals and seabirds. Emperor and Adélie penguins have several colonies in the region. The Adélie population is particularly large, with about 100,000 penguins aggregated into three colonies⁵⁹. One of these colonies is the site of long-term monitoring under the CCAMLR Ecosystem Monitoring Program (CEMP) and is one of two active CEMP monitoring sites in MacRobertson Land⁶⁰. A recent at-sea survey of seabirds indicates that the area is dominated by Antarctic petrels, prions, blue petrels, white-chinned petrels, Kerguelen petrels and light-mantled sooty albatrosses, among others⁶¹.

The West Kerguelen region is important for mammals and seabirds... The Adélie population is particularly large, with about 100,000 penguins aggregated into three colonies.

PRYDZ BAY SUBREGION

Prydz Bay, located roughly between 68°E to 82°E in the Cooperation Sea, is an incredible hotspot for marine life in the East Antarctic coastal region. The bay contains the largest area of high primary productivity of the entire East Antarctic region⁶². There are several coastal polynyas in Prydz Bay, including one of the most productive polynyas in the Antarctic⁶³ and north of the bay is the Prydz Gyre.



Elephant seal. Image © Greenpeace / Robin Culley.

At the head of Prydz Bay, the Amery Ice Shelf and Lambert Glacier form the largest glacial system in East Antarctica, draining roughly 16% of the East Antarctic Ice Sheet. As a result, they release large volumes of subglacial sediment, which flow down the Prydz Bay continental slope forming a large trough mouth fan that has been measured at 150 km wide and extending out over 90 km. This trough mouth fan is an unusual feature and one of the largest in the Southern Ocean⁶⁴. Large troughs and their associated canyons modify currents, potentially upwelling cold, nutrient rich waters to the sea surface^{65 66}. This mixing can enhance local primary productivity and provide rich foraging grounds for birds and mammals⁶⁷. Prydz Bay





South polar skua. Image by Elliot Neep.

These oceanographic features combined with unique bathymetry provide excellent foraging grounds for birds and mammals. All East Antarctic seals forage in Prydz Bay and the surrounding waters. Within Prydz Bay, nine seabirds breed, including emperor and Adélie penguins. Adélie penguins in the East Antarctic are highly dependent on the region's coastal polynyas with the size of the polynyas having a direct relationship to the size of Adélie colonies68. Southern giant petrels, southern fulmars, cape petrels, Antarctic petrels, snow petrels, Wilson's storm petrels and south polar skuas also breed in the area⁶⁹. At least 16 additional bird species visit the area, presumably to forage. These birds include the subantarctic skua, Antarctic tern, Arctic tern, wandering albatross, black-browed albatross, grey-headed albatross, light-mantled sooty albatross, northern giant petrel, white-headed petrel, mottled petrel, Kerguelen petrel, blue petrel, prion species, white-chinned petrel, dark shearwater and black-bellied storm petrel⁷⁰.

This region also provides foraging grounds for elephant, leopard and crabeater seals⁷¹. Sperm whale calls have been detected in the region as well but numbers are unknown⁷².

Moreover, Prydz Bay serves as a likely nursery ground for krill⁷³, perhaps due to the presence of coastal polynyas, which can facilitate early season phytoplankton growth⁷⁴. Their life cycle appears tightly linked to the circulation of the Prydz Gyre, with mature adult krill found in the outer regions of the gyre and less mature krill found towards the centre⁷⁵. Overall, Prydz Bay has some of the highest densities of adult krill in the East Antarctic, perhaps providing a source for krill for the greater region⁷⁶.

Bruce Rise





Weddell seal with Antarctic toothfish. Image by Jessica Meir.

Increasing evidence suggests that the Indian Ocean sector supports a unique population of Antarctic toothfish, which inhabit large expanses of the region throughout their life cycle^{77 78}. Data collected aboard fishing vessels in the East Antarctic indicate that small juvenile toothfish are often caught in the Prydz Bay and the West Kerguelen subregion⁷⁹. Meanwhile, large fish are found off the deeper continental slopes in the West Indian Region and Wilkes subregion. Further, almost exclusively large maturing fish are caught around the northern adjacent BANZARE Bank^{80 81}. These data suggest that Prydz Bay and adjacent waters might be the primary nursery grounds for this population of Antarctic toothfish. Other common fish species include Antarctic silverfish, Antarctic jonasfish, Antarctic lanternfish, while the most abundant squid is a species of glass squid⁸².

EAST KERGUELEN SUBREGION

The East Kerguelen subregion encompasses the area east of Prydz Bay, from 82°E to 110°E. Small polynyas litter the coast, forming over a narrow continental shelf and slope cut with canyons. This region, along with Prydz Bay, encompasses the southernmost reaches of BANZARE Bank. It also includes a portion of the Southern Ocean's only contourite drift, an expansive mound of mud that is highly influenced by currents coming off the slope out into the abyssal plain region. These distinctive features likely host unique seafloor communities⁸³.

Further east in the region, off the coast of Queen Mary Land and the expansive Shackleton Ice Shelf, lies the Bruce Rise. This underwater feature is one of only two marginal plateaus in the Southern Ocean⁸⁴. The rise, which extends from the continental margin, encompasses 1,100 km² at depths around 1,000 m⁸⁵. Similar to other elevated underwater features, marginal plateaus often influence local oceanography. The Maud Rise, the only other Antarctic marginal plateau, has a complex system of localized currents, jets and eddies which drive local upwelling. This upwelling then drives pelagic primary productivity, leading to high densities of krill, which can in turn support large numbers of predators⁸⁶. The seafloor below the Maud Rise is rich with invertebrates, such as molluscs, sponges and worms, many of which are unique to the Maud Rise⁸⁷.



Light sea sponge. Image by Michael Zupanc, Australian Antarctic Division.

East Kerguelen, including the area around Bruce Rice, has Adélie and emperor penguin colonies, which forage in the surrounding waters⁸⁸. In the areas adjacent to Prydz Bay, leopard, crabeater, Weddell and Ross seals forage⁸⁹.

WILKES SUBREGION

The Wilkes subregion encompasses the area off Wilkes Land, from 110°E to 137°E⁹⁰ and has largely been studied for its geological value. A hundred million years ago, the marine edge of Wilkes Land was joined to what is now Southern Australia as part of the supercontinent Gondwana⁹¹. But by 30 million years ago, they fully separated and have been slowly spreading: Antarctica to the south and Australia to the north. The Wilkes Land continental edge and adjacent seafloor has lent tremendous insight into the geological history of Antarctica⁹², including a record of the initial opening between Australia and Antarctica⁹³.

The Wilkes region has also proved an ideal site for studying historic, modern and future glacial conditions. It is the only place in the Antarctic where the onset of glaciation can be traced from the shelf to the abyssal plain. This allows researchers to better reconstruct the East Antarctic Ice Sheet's (EAIS) icy history, including how long ago it formed and providing insight for future predications in a changing climate⁹⁴. The EAIS, which is the largest ice sheet in the world, is typically grounded to the land above sea level. However, along the eastern continent-ocean margin of Wilkes Land the EAIS is grounded below sea level, which has made it more sensitive to climate change in the past and perhaps in the future⁹⁵.

Wilkes Land continental edge and adjacent seafloor has lent tremendous insight into the geological history of Antarctica, including a record of the initial opening between Australia and Antarctica.

As the location of a tremendous geological rift, the seafloor of the Wilkes region has very distinct habitats. The narrow continental shelf breaks into a slope riddled with an intricate network of submarine canyons and shallow valleys, all likely formed by historic glacial rivers. These canyons and valleys help transport sediment down the slope, forming a myriad of fan-shaped deposits over the continental rise⁹⁶

While much is known about the geology of the Wilkes region, for the most part biological data is sparse. Some seals forage in the region, particularly elephant, crabeater and Ross seals⁹⁸. Just inside the western edge of Wilkes region is an emperor penguin colony⁹⁹ and there are Adélie colonies nearby at the Windmill Islands¹⁰⁰.



OATES (EAST INDIAN) REGION

Image by Darci Lombard.

The Oates or East Indian region intersects the East Antarctic planning domain between 137 E and 150 E within the bounds of the D'Urville Sea, is the best-studied area of the East Antarctic coastal region. This area is incredibly important for its role in generating Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW), cold dense water that drives global ocean circulation¹⁰¹. Coastal polynyas drive productivity in the region, particularly the Mertz Glacier Polynya, a major and consistent polynya that persists from year to year¹⁰². The coastal region has a narrow continental shelf and slope heavily carved with canyons. Multiple vulnerable marine ecosystems have been identified on this slope¹⁰³. In the west, a shallow slope region capped by a unique ridge rises from the abyssal plains, while to the east the seafloor reveals a cluster of seamounts, called the d'Urville Sea-Mertz Seamounts. This region is also where the immense Mertz Glacier Tongue recently calved. Many birds and mammals live here and the region also has important nursery grounds for many fish species.



Larval icefish. Image by Uwe Kils / Wikimedia Commons.

A recent detailed study of the area by Australia, France and Japan (conducted as part of the worldwide Census of Marine Life) collected a significant amount of new information that will assist in developing an ecoregionalization of the area¹⁰⁴ ¹⁰⁵. The voyage, known as CEAMARC, or the Collaborative East Antarctic Marine Census, collected information on many aspects of the ecosystem, including benthic species and habitats, fish species, plankton and oceanography¹⁰⁶. Within this relatively small area, several distinct types of benthic communities were discovered. The distribution of these communities varies according to the different seafloor habitats, which are driven by seafloor geomorphology as well as currents and iceberg scour¹⁰⁷.

The East Indian region... is the best-studied area of the East Antarctic coastal region. This area is incredibly important for its role in generating Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW), cold dense water that drives global ocean circulation.

Numerous birds and mammals make their home in the East Indian region, likely feeding on swarms of crystal krill or groups of Antarctic silverfish¹⁰⁸¹⁰⁹. Ten seabird species breed here including Adélie and emperor penguins, snow and Antarctic petrels and Antarctic fulmars¹¹⁰¹¹¹. Adélie penguins have the largest population with more than 100,000 breeding pairs¹¹²¹¹³. The area also has a long-term monitoring program for marine mammals and birds¹¹⁴. Other studies confirmed that the area between Adélie Land and Mertz Glacier Tongue provides nursery grounds for many fish species, including Antarctic silverfish, the dusky notothen, crocodile icefish, Hunter's icefish and others¹¹⁵.

Seamounts



Given the depth of knowledge about this region and its importance in the formation of AABW, it is a prime reference area for monitoring the impacts of climate change on ocean processes¹¹⁶. For example, the recently calved Mertz Glacier, which released a 2,500 km² iceberg¹¹⁷, provides a unique opportunity to study the seafloor and oceanographic changes that follow this type of disturbance. The break up and subsequent glacial melting may be freshening the water in the area, changing the salinity and potentially slowing down the rate of AABW formation¹¹⁸, which could have global oceanographic consequences¹¹⁹.



The Mertz Glacier Tongue. Satellite image courtesy of NASA.



COMMERCIAL EXPLOITATION

Historic Mammal Harvesting

In line with the history of much of the Southern Ocean, 20th century whalers targeted the waters off the East Antarctic, particularly for blue and humpback whales¹²⁰. More than 10,000 humpback whales were taken between 1947 and 1973 with an unknown number taken in the years prior¹²¹. Despite a steady recovery of most humpback populations, they have yet to reach pre-exploitation levels¹²². Blue whales were also heavily targeted in the East Antarctic between the years of 1930 – 1963¹²³. Their current Southern Ocean population remains small, but appears to be increasing over the past few years, although still only a fraction of the original size¹²⁴.

Most industrial sealing occurred off the Kerguelen, Heard and McDonald Islands, to the north of the East Antarctic¹²⁶. These operations ceased in the late 19th century and seal populations have since been recovering.



Old whaling ship, Antarctica. Image by JD Andrews / earthxplorer.com.



Antarctic krill. Image by Lara Asato.

Krill Fishery

The East Antarctic coastal region supports significant Antarctic krill populations, which are estimated to be almost 39 million tonnes, though this is likely to be an underestimate¹²⁷ ¹²⁸ ¹²⁹. Krill fisheries began during the 1970s off the East Antarctic and peaked in the mid-1980s before declining and finally ceasing in the 1994/95 season¹³⁰ ¹³¹. A total of 750,000 tonnes of krill have been harvested from this area¹³².

The current krill catch limit is 892,000 tonnes for the East Antarctic¹³³ but at present krill fishers prefer to target the waters off the Antarctic Peninsula and the Scotia Sea rather than making the extended journey to the East Antarctic.

As demand for krill products increases, new countries are taking an interest in the fishery. Advances in harvesting technology have also increased the efficacy of fishing¹³⁴. Because krill is among the last of the global fisheries not exploited at full capacity, it has potential for expansion in the future¹³⁵ ¹³⁶, which could increase pressure on Southern Ocean ecosystems. Currently unexploited areas with large krill populations, like the East Antarctic coastal region, could soon be worth the voyage for increasingly motivated distant water fishing fleets.

Fin-Fishing History

Fin-fishing in the East Antarctic began in the area around the Kerguelen Islands as early as the late 1950s¹³⁷, but did not reach the coastal areas until 1982¹³⁸. A few fish species were harvested, including Antarctic silverfish, spiny icefish and rays, but catches were low and ceased by the late 1980s¹³⁹ ¹⁴⁰.

Ten years later, an experimental trawl fishery targeting multiple species, including Antarctic toothfish, was initiated in the western area of the East Antarctic (CCAMLR Area 58.4.2). By the 2001/02 season the fishery was changed to an exploratory longline fishery¹⁴¹. In 2003/04 a longline fishery also commenced in the eastern region of the East Antarctic (CCAMLR Area 58.4.1)¹⁴².

Multiple countries sporadically participated in the fishery. Catch rates in the west remained low, only filling a fraction of the 780 tonne catch limit. In the east, catch rates were more reliable, with vessels achieving the 600 tonne catch limit. Meanwhile IUU fishing vessels ravaged the area, at times accounting for an estimated 74% of the catch in the East Antarctic (including the nearby BANZARE Bank)¹⁴³. Moreover, the regional tagrecapture program was proving unreliable at obtaining adequate data for a toothfish stock assessment. Fisheries managers still do not have estimates of population dynamics, stock structure, productivity, recruitment or spawning for Antarctic toothfish in the East Antarctic¹⁴⁴ ¹⁴⁵.

Catch data suggest that these Antarctic toothfish are likely part of the BANZARE Bank population¹⁴⁶ and that collectively this stock is not highly productive. The combined catch quotas and excessive IUU fishing led to concerns that the East Antarctic populations had been over harvested¹⁴⁷. By the 2008/09 season these concerns led CCAMLR to cut catch rates to 70 tonnes in the west and 210 tonnes in the east.



Antarctic toothfish with diver. Image by Rob Robbins.

Indiscriminate Illegal Gillnets

Significant progress has been made in reducing the level of IUU catch through the cooperation of CCAMLR, its Member nations and legal fishers. However, a number of IUU fishers still operate primarily in the South Indian Ocean and directly off the East Antarctic coastal region. The conservative catch limits remain in place today, as IUU fishing remains a problem and is unlikely to further decline¹⁴⁸ ¹⁴⁹.

In recent years, IUU fishers have increasingly used deepwater gillnets in the area, making IUU estimates nearly impossible to calculate¹⁵⁰ ¹⁵¹ ¹⁵². Gillnets are banned by CCAMLR because they pose a significant environmental threat due to their high levels of bycatch and the risk of "ghost fishing," which refers to nets that have been cut loose or lost in the ocean and continue catching marine life for years¹⁵³. The amount of toothfish caught in IUU gillnets remains unknown, but is likely substantial. For example, gillnets found by Australian officials in 2009 spanned 130 km and had ensnared 29 tonnes of Antarctic toothfish¹⁵⁴.

IUU fishing and the uncertainty associated with toothfish populations severely compromise fisheries management and has led to the rapid decline of some toothfish stocks¹⁵⁵ ¹⁵⁶. Moreover, like many deep dwelling fish, toothfish live a long time, grow slowly as adults and mature late in life, all characteristics that make them vulnerable to overfishing¹⁵⁷. Local depletions of toothfish may easily occur, as has happened over BANZARE Bank¹⁵⁸ ¹⁵⁹. Scientists have yet to understand the Antarctic toothfish's life history in the East Antarctic, which further compromises management.

CLIMATE CHANGE AND OCEAN ACIDIFICATION

Rapid, human induced climate change, mainly from increased carbon dioxide (CO₂) and other greenhouse gas emissions, is affecting all parts of the Earth¹⁶⁰, and regions of the ice-dominated Antarctic are some of the most rapidly changing on the planet¹⁶¹¹⁶². However, the impacts of climate change are not uniform across the region. Wintertime warming along the western Antarctic Peninsula has increased 1.01°C per decade from 1950-2011¹⁶³, the most rapid rise in annual observed temperature anywhere on the planet. Yet other parts of the continent show little change or even a slight cooling¹⁶⁴. There is also strong evidence that the persistent seasonal ozone hole over Antarctica (which was first discovered in the early 1980s) may exacerbate the impacts of climate change, mainly by increasing the strength of the westerly winds that surround the continent¹⁶⁵.

In the East Antarctic, the climate trend is not clear. No major warming or cooling has taken place^{166 167}, yet changes in sea ice have been significant¹⁶⁸. Since the 1950s, sea ice extent has declined¹⁶⁹, but conversely, as of the 1970s, the sea ice season has increased by more than 40 days¹⁷⁰. These changes have had dramatic effects on the animals that live there, most notably seabirds. Warming waters and reductions in sea ice could be especially detrimental to emperor penguins off the East Antarctic. Over the past 50 years, Adélie Land emperor colonies have declined by 50%¹⁷¹. This current decline has been caused by extensive penguin mortality during an especially warm period over the 1970s. The associated reductions in sea ice likely reduced krill habitat, affecting the food web and leaving emperors with less food to eat¹⁷². Conversely, during years when the sea ice season was longer, emperor adults survived. But because of extended distances between the colonies and feeding grounds, many of their nests failed¹⁷³. Future projections paint an even grimmer picture for Adélie Land's emperors: their populations will likely decline by 81% or more by 2100¹⁷⁴.

Rapid, human induced climate change, mainly from increased carbon dioxide (CO_2) and other greenhouse gas emissions, is affecting all parts of the Earth, and regions of the icedominated Antarctic are some of the most rapidly changing on the planet.



Southern giant petrel. Image by Lara Asato.

Other seabirds are also feeling the effects of these sea ice changes. Nine types of seabirds, including emperor penguins, Adélies, southern fulmars, south polar skuas and five petrel species, are arriving to their colonies an average of 9.1 days later and laying their eggs 2.1 days later since the 1950s¹⁷⁵. The longer sea ice season may be the culprit since it can delay the birds' access to their colonies and to food resources¹⁷⁶.

Scientists are only beginning to unravel the contrasting effects of climate change in the East Antarctic. Protecting the foraging ranges of emperor penguins and other seabirds in a marine reserve will help scientists study the impacts of climate change without the interference of other stressors. In doing so, perhaps they can devise solutions.

Sea Ice

Every year sea ice forms around Antarctica, effectively doubling the size of the continent. The annual advance and retreat drives ecosystem processes, including primary productivity and provides habitat for a variety of species throughout their life history¹⁷⁷. The presence of ice is essential for the life history of krill, particularly for larval krill, which feed on microorganisms under the ice¹⁷⁸. A reduction in krill could have cascading effects throughout the ecosystem since krill are a critical part of the diet of many whales, seals, penguins and fish. Reductions in sea ice may also impact many marine animals, especially those, such as crabeater seals, which critically depend on sea ice during various stages in their life cycle¹⁷⁹ ¹⁸⁰.

Ocean Acidification

The world's oceans continuously absorb CO_2 from the atmosphere. There is, however, a cost to this natural carbon mitigation. Between 1751 and 2004, as CO_2 emissions increased, surface ocean pH decreased¹⁸¹, resulting in a 30% increase in ocean acidity¹⁸². As CO_2 dissolves in seawater it forms a weak (carbonic) acid, driving a decrease in ocean pH in a process known as ocean acidification. This change in pH has the potential to greatly affect many important marine biological and biogeochemical processes, including decreasing the amount of calcium carbonate in the ocean – a key building block for shell building animals¹⁸³.

The cold waters of the Southern Ocean are naturally lower in calcium carbonate than warmer waters and thus closer to the tipping points at which organisms will begin to suffer deleterious effects¹⁸⁴. Scientists predict that within the next two decades key planktonic species, such as pteropods (small marine snails), will no longer be able to build robust shells¹⁸⁵. In time, they may not be able to build shells at all. Krill embryos and larvae may also be at risk¹⁸⁶. If pteropods, krill and other shell-building animals perish, it will have adverse ramifications that will cascade throughout the Southern Ocean ecosystem.

Between 1751 and 2004, as CO₂ emissions increased, surface ocean pH decreased, resulting in a 30% increase in ocean acidity.



A growing body of scientific research has demonstrated that MPAs and marine reserves are effective tools for increasing the health and resilience of ocean ecosystems¹⁸⁷. In recognition of this, at the 2002 WSSD, countries around the world made commitments to establish representative networks of MPAs across the world's oceans by 2012¹⁸⁸. CCAMLR, the body responsible for the conservation and management of marine living resources in the Southern Ocean has responded to this call and committed to meeting the WSSD goal by designating a network of protected areas in the Southern Ocean, including in the East Antarctic¹⁸⁹.

CCAMLR applies a precautionary, ecosystem-based approach to managing marine life in the Southern Ocean. The application of these principles has made CCAMLR more progressive amongst bodies responsible for managing fishing in areas beyond national jurisdiction. Through its MPA process thus far, CCAMLR has shown that it has the capacity for leadership by setting a target date to create a network and designating the South Orkney Islands Southern Shelf as a marine reserve in 2010.



CCAMLR headquarters, Hobart, Australia. Image by Richard Williams.

There has been a concerted effort from a number of CCAMLR Members to advance work on other concrete MPA proposals, and a number of scientific workshops have been organised to analyse the best available science to identify additional areas for protection. CCAMLR's efforts are guided by several criteria for MPAs and marine reserves:

- Protection of representative examples of marine ecosystems, biodiversity and habitats at an appropriate scale to maintain their viability and integrity in the long term;
- 2. Protection of key ecosystem processes, habitats and species, including populations and life-history stages;
- Establishment of scientific reference areas for monitoring natural variability and long-term change or for monitoring the effects of harvesting and other human activities on Antarctic marine living resources and on the ecosystems of which they form part;
- 4. Protection of areas vulnerable to impact by human activities, including unique, rare or highly biodiverse habitats and features;
- 5. Protection of features critical to the function of local ecosystems;
- 6. Protection of areas to maintain resilience or the ability to adapt to the effects of climate change¹⁹⁰.

Members of CCAMLR have a major opportunity to ensure that a Southern Ocean network of marine reserves and MPAs meets these criteria, thus safeguarding these ecosystems for future generations. The East Antarctic coastal region is one of incredible biodiversity and will form a key part of the network. The AOA urges CCAMLR to fulfill all of these criteria in providing comprehensive protection for the remarkable East Antarctic coastal region.



CURRENT PROPOSALS

ge by John B. Weller.

Australia, France and the EU have submitted a proposal for a network of seven MPAs in the East Antarctic coastal region¹⁹¹. Some of these MPAs would protect only the seafloor environment while the others would encompass both seafloor and water column environments. From west to east, their proposed group of MPAs includes:

- the Gunnerus Ridge and associated seamount (seafloor only);
- an area off Enderby Land in the West Indian Region (seafloor only);
- a large marine reserve from the coast out to 60°S off eastern Enderby Land – west of Prydz Bay;
- the southernmost region of Prydz Bay;
- a large marine reserve east of Prydz Bay from the coast out to 60°S;
- the coast off Wilkes Land (seafloor only); and
- A large marine reserve from the coast out to 60°S off George V Land in the western Dumont D'Urville Sea in the East Indian Region.

Their proposal identifies MPAs that would encompass many of the different seafloor bioregions that have been identified thus far. It also includes foraging grounds for birds and mammals as well as potential nursery grounds for toothfish, krill and other species of icefish. The Australian, French and EU proposal is also designed to protect large areas encompassing ecosystem processes in order to act as reference areas to study the effects of fisheries and of environmental change such as the impacts of climate change and ocean acidification.

However no specific marine reserves have been included in the proposal and this will be an issue for future deliberation. The AOA urges that large scale marine reserves need to be included in the management plan to ensure that the conservation objectives of the MPAs are not compromised.

THE AOA PROPOSAL FOR MARINE PROTECTION IN THE EAST ANTARCTIC COASTAL REGION

The AOA welcomes Australia, France and the EU's proposal for a representative system of marine protected areas in the East Antarctic, but has identified four marine reserves that should be considered for inclusion in this network in coming years in order to be fully precautionary, increasing the levels of protection afforded large scale ecosystems process and key habitats. The AOA recommends that these should encompass key environments and ecosystems processes, including both pelagic and seafloor features.

No marine reserves have been included in the current proposal. This will be a major issue for future negotiations. The AOA urges that large scale marine reserves are included in the management plan of the current proposal to ensure that the conservation objectives of the MPAs are not compromised.

In the Dronning Maud (West Indian) region, the AOA proposes a large marine reserve from the coast out to 64°S that connects the MPAs over the Gunnerus Ridge and the seafloor habitats off Enderby Land proposed by Australia, France and the EU. This marine reserve would protect the Cosmonaut Polynya and its associated foraging grounds for seabirds, seals and whales and important seafloor habitats including a complex series of slope commencing canyons. The AOA further encourages that the level of protection afforded by the MPAs proposed by Australia, France and the EU over the Gunnerus Ridge and off Enderby Land be increased to that of full marine reserves to protect both habitats in the water column and the seafloor.

In the Central Indian region north of Prydz, the AOA proposes a marine reserve in the area from the coast out to 64°S. This would include extending the boundary of the marine reserve proposed by Australia, France and the EU in the Prydz Bay region further north, increasing protection of unique pelagic and seafloor features, such as the Prydz Gyre and one of the largest trough mouth fans. It will further protect foraging grounds for birds and seals and nursery grounds for krill and toothfish.

A further additional marine reserve is proposed by AOA to include the area north of the Shackleton Ice Shelf encompassing Bruce Rise. Protection should extend from the coast out to 63°S to include productivity and foraging associated with the Rise. The AOA advocates that the MPA off Wilkes Land in the Central Indian region proposed by Australia, France and the EU should be designated as a full marine reserve.

In the Oates (East Indian) region, the AOA proposes protection over seamounts in the waters adjacent to the large marine reserve north of George V Land proposed by Australia, France and the EU.

Marine Reserves as Precautionary Management

In regions of high uncertainty, marine reserves provide the greatest protection for marine life and ecosystems¹⁹² ¹⁹³ ¹⁹⁴ ¹⁹⁵. A marine reserve protects biodiversity, including the ecological structure and function at the genetic, species, habitat and ecosystem level¹⁹⁶. These reserves protect against the potentially negative impacts of human activity, conserving ecological integrity¹⁹⁷. They also provide control sites to help scientists understand ecological changes as well as the impacts of fishing elsewhere¹⁹⁸, and they can serve as important areas for long-term scientific research.

Marine reserves need to be large enough to avoid fragmenting the ecosystem, particularly in cases of high uncertainty¹⁹⁹. Species assemblages in the East Antarctic coastal region remain poorly understood, and scientists do not know how connected or restricted these communities are. For example, in other regions of the Antarctic, species assemblages may be unique according to depth or to a specific canyon or individual seamount, while in other areas these assemblages may be connected over grand scales^{200 201 202}. The group of marine reserves in the East Antarctic coastal region should include all known habitat types and replication of these habitats.

In the East Antarctic coastal region, some marine reserves, particularly in Prydz Bay, should extend north to fully accommodate ecosystem processes. In doing so, the foraging range of penguins will largely be protected as well as foraging ranges for other seabirds and seals. Because of its incredible productivity, Prydz Bay may be the region most important for fully protecting ecosystem processes. Within the bay alone, nine seabirds breed, including emperor and Adélie penguins, as well as petrels, fulmars and skuas²⁰³.

Current Antarctic MPAs Proposed



At least 16 additional bird species forage in the area²⁰⁴. Penguins and other seabirds forage to at least 60°S and potentially even further north^{205 206}. White-chinned petrels, a species classified as vulnerable on the IUCN Red List, forage extensively in areas immediately north of Prydz Bay²⁰⁷.

In regions of high uncertainty, marine reserves provide the greatest protection for marine life and ecosystems.

In data poor regions, large areas should remain free from exploitation until more knowledge is gained about the function and dynamics of the ecological system²⁰⁸. Juvenile Antarctic toothfish originating in Prydz Bay are likely part of a larger South Indian Ocean population. Protecting them, and making other areas off limits to fishing, will help supply the areas that are open to fishing²⁰⁹. Currently, the East Antarctic only supports a minor Antarctic toothfish fishery. While there is currently no krill fishing in the region, CCAMLR continues to set a quota for the East Antarctic in anticipation of a future fishery.

The East Antarctic coastal region is an essential part of a network of Southern Ocean marine protected areas. The region contains foraging hotspots for birds and mammals, nursery grounds for krill and fish and rich seafloor communities, many of which have yet to be described. The East Antarctic coastal region also contains unique features, including the Cosmonaut Polynya, Bruce Rise and the d'Urville Sea-Mertz Seamounts. The AOA welcomes Australia, France and the EU's proposal for a representative system of marine protected areas in the East Antarctic, but has identified additional marine reserves that should be considered for inclusion in this network in coming years. Given the fragile and unique nature of the ecosystem, and the uncertain future of the Antarctic, the AOA urges CCAMLR members to support fuller protection of the East Antarctic coastal region, including the areas identified in this report.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Antarctic Ocean Alliance acknowledges the many contributors to this report.

AOA Authors: Cassandra Brooks and Claire Christian.

Reference Group: Jim Barnes, Paul Gamblin, Richard Page, Veronica Frank, Sian Prior.

Reviewers: Michael Sparrow (Scott Polar Research Institute), Don Siniff (University of Minnesota).

AOA Reviewers: Stephen Campbell, Robert Nicoll, Blair Palese, and Amanda Sully.

Research Assistants: Songyuan Gu and Robert Berger.

Design: Metro Graphics Group.

Maps: Geomancia. Original research by WWF and CCG for the AOA "19 Areas Map" gratefully acknowledged with design by Arc Visual Communications.

The AOA would like to thank the following for their provision of data to develop the maps in this report:

O'Brien PE, AL Post and R Romeyn. 2009. Antarctic-wide Geomorphology as an aid to habitat mapping and locating Vulnerable Marine Ecosystems. Science Committee to the Commission of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (SC-CAMLR-XXVIII/10) Workshop on Vulnerable Marine Ecosystems. La Jolla, CA, USA 3-7th August 2009: GeoScience Australia. Conference paper: WS-VME-09/10.

Orsi AH, Whitworth III T, Nowlin Jr WD. 1995. On the meridional extent and fronts of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current. Deep-Sea Research I 42: 641-673.

Data and Analysis: The AOA respectfully acknowledges the work of the many scientists referred to in this report and the contributions of many CCAMLR member governments.

Photos: The majority of photos provided by John B. Weller with thanks. Additional photos by JD Andrews, Lara Asato, Stephen W. Brookes, Cassandra Brooks, Robin Culley, Jorge Gutman, Darci Lombard, Elliott Neep, Jessica Meir, Jiri Rezac, Rob Robbins, Richard Williams and Michael Zupanc.

Cover photographs all by Elliott Neep, Jiri Rezac and John B. Weller.

This report was printed on recycled paper.

©The Antarctic Ocean Alliance 2012.





Two Emperor penguins. Image by John B. Weller.

REFERENCES

- 1. Antarctic Ocean Alliance. 2012a. Antarctic Ocean Legacy: A Vision for Circumpolar Protection.
- World Summit on Sustainable Development. 2002. Agenda 21 Plan of Implementation, paragraph 32 (c).
- International Union for the Conservation of Nature. 2003. World Parks Congress Recommendation 22: Building a global system of marine and coastal protected area networks.
- Convention on Biological Diversity. 2004. Programme of Work on Protected Areas. Accessed 23 August 2012 from www.cbd.int/protected/pow/
- Antarctic Ocean Alliance. 2012b. Antarctic Ocean Legacy: A Vision for Circumpolar Protection.
- 6. Antarctic Ocean Alliance 2012a.
- Jenouvrier S, M Holland, J Stroeve, C Barbraud, H Weimerskirch, M Serreze and H Caswell. 2012. Effects of climate change on an emperor penguin population: analysis of coupled demographic and climate models. *Global Change Biology* doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2486.2012.02744.x
- Kawaguchi S, S Nicol, P Virtue, SR Davenport, R Casper, KM Swadling and GW Hosie. 2010. Krill demography and large-scale distribution in the Western Indian Ocean sector of the Southern Ocean (CCAMLR Division 58.4.2) in Austral summer of 2006. *Deep Sea Research II* 57: 934-947.
- Agnew DJ, C Edwards, R Hillary, R Mitchell and LJ López Abellán. 2009. Status of the coastal stocks of *Dissostichus spp*. in East Antarctica (Divisions 58.4.1 and 58.4.2). *CCAMLR Science* 16: 71-100.
- 10. CCAMLR manages the marine living resources of the Southern Ocean with the exception of whales and seals. Whales are managed by the International Whaling Commission (IWC) under the 1946 International Convention for the Regulation of Whaling. Seals are managed under the 1972 Convention for the Conservation of Antarctic Seals.
- 11. CCAMLR. 1980. The Convention on the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources.
- Gaines S, C White, M Carr and S Palumbi. 2010. Designing marine reserve networks for both conservation and fisheries management. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 107(43): 18286-18293.
- Douglass LL, J Turner, HS Grantham, S Kaiser, R Nicoll, A Post, A Brandt and D Beaver. In press. A hierarchical classification of benthic biodiversity and assessment of protected areas in the Southern Ocean. *PLoS One*.
- Linse K, HJ Griffiths, DKA Barnes and A Clarke. 2006. Biodiversity and biogeography of Antarctic and sub-Antarctic mollusca. Deep-Sea Research II 53: 985-1008.
- Clarke A, HJ Griffiths, K Linse, DKA Barnes and JA Crame. 2007. How well do we know the Antarctic marine fauna? A preliminary study of macroecological and biogeographical patterns in Southern Ocean gastropod and bivalve molluscs. *Diversity and Distributions* 13: 620-632.
- Douglass et al. In press. These ecoregions as defined by Douglass et al. extend beyond the CCAMLR planning domain boundaries for the East Antarctic.
- Matsuoka K, T Hakamada, H Kiwada, H Murase and S Nishiwaki. 2006. Distributions and standardized abundance estimates for humpback, fin and blue whales in the Antarctic Areas IIIE, IV, V and VIW (35°E 145°W), south of 60°S. Paper SC/D06/J7 presented to the IWC JARPA Review Meeting, December 2006 (unpublished). 33pp.

- Nicol S, T Pauly, NL Bindoff and PG Strutton. 2000. "BROKE" a biological/oceanographic survey off the coast of East Antarctica (80-150°E) carried out in January-March 1996. Deep-Sea Research II 47: 2281-2298.
- Southwell C, CGM Paxton, D Borchers, P Boveng and WK de la Mare. 2008a. Taking account of dependent species in management of the Southern Ocean krill fishery: estimating crabeater seal abundance off east Antarctica. *Journal of Applied Ecology* 45: 622-631.
- 20. Ibid
- Southwell C. 2008. Ommatophoca rossii. In: IUCN 2012. IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. Version 2012.1. Accessed on 25 July 2012 from www.iucnredlist.org.
- Southwell C, CGM Paxton, D Borchers, P Boveng, T Rogers and WK de la Mare. 2008b. Uncommon or cryptic? Challenges in estimating leopard seal abundance by conventional but state-of-the-art methods. *Deep-Sea Research I* 55: 519-531.
- Bailleul F, J-B Charrassin, P Monestiez, F Roquet, M Biuw and C Guinet. 2007. Successful foraging zones of southern elephant seals from the Kerguelen Islands in relation to oceanographic conditions. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B* 362: 2169-2181.
- Woehler EJ. 1993. The Distribution and Abundance of Antarctic and Subantarctic Penguins. Cambridge: Scientific Committee on Antarctic Research.
- 25. Ibid.
- Clark J, LM Emmerson and P Otahal. 2006. Environmental conditions and life history constraints determine foraging range in breeding Adélie penguins. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 310: 247-261.
- Ancel A, GL Kooyman, PJ Ponganis, J-P Gendner, J Lignon, X Mestre, N Huin, PH Thorson, P Robisson and Y Le Maho. 1992. Foraging Behaviour of Emperor Penguins as a Resource Detector in Winter and Summer. *Nature* 360: 336-339.
- Croxall JP, WK Steele, SJ McInnes and PA Prince. 1995. Breeding Distribution of the Snow Petrel Pagodroma Nivea. Marine Ornithology 23: 69-100.
- 29. Ibid.
- Woehler EJ, B Raymond and DJ Watts. 2003. Decadal-scale seabird assemblages in Prydz Bay, East Antarctica. *Marine Ecology Progress* Series 251: 299-310.
- 31. Ibid.
- BirdLife International 2012. Procellaria aequinoctialis. In: IUCN 2012. IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. Version 2012.1. Accessed on 25 July 2012 from www.iucnredlist.org.
- IUCN. 2012. IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. Version 2012.1. Accessed on 06 August 2012 from www.iucnredlist.org.
- Southwell CJ, CGM Paxton, DL Borchers, PL Boveng, ES Nordøy, AS Blix and WK de la Mare. 2008c. Estimating population status under conditions of uncertainty: the Ross seal in East Antarctica. Antarctic Science 20: 123-133.
- Meijers AJS, A Klocker, NL Bindoff, GD Williams and SJ Marsland. 2010. The circulation and water masses of the Antarctic shelf and continental slope between 30 and 80°E. *Deep Sea Research II* 57: 723-737.
- Williams GD, S Nicol, S Aoki, AJS Meijers, NL Bindoff, Y lijima, SJ Marsland and A Klocker.
 2010. Surface oceanography of BROKE-West, along the Antarctic margin of the south-west Indian Ocean (30-80°E). *Deep-Sea Research II* 57: 738-757.
- O'Brien PE, AL Post and R Romeyn. 2009. Antarctic-wide Geomorphology as an aid to habitat mapping and locating Vulnerable Marine Ecosystems. Science Committee to the Commission of Antarctic Marine Living

Resources (SC-CAMLR-XXVIII/10) Workshop on Vulnerable Marine Ecosystems. La Jolla, CA, USA 3-7th August 2009: GeoScience Australia. Conference paper: WS-VME-09/10.

- Harris PT and EK Baker. 2012. Seafloor geomorphology as benthic habitat. London: Elsevier.
- 39. Rogers AD. 1994. The biology of seamounts. Advances in Marine Biology 30: 305-351.
- Richer de Forges B, JA Koslow and GCB Poore. 2000. Diversity and endemism of the benthic seamount fauna in the southwest Pacific. *Nature* 405: 944–947.
- Rowden AA, JF Dower, TA Schlacher, M Consalvey and MR Clark. 2010. Paradigms in seamount ecology: fact, fiction, and future. *Marine Ecology* 31(1): 226–239.
- 42. Clark MR, AA Rowden, T Schlacher, A Williams, M Consalvey, KI Stocks, AD Rogers, TD O'Hara, M White, TM Shank and JM Hall-Spencer. 2010. The ecology of seamounts: structure, function, and human impacts. *Annual Review of Marine Science* 2: 253-278.
- Clark MR, TA Schlacher, AA Rowden, KI Stocks and M Consalvey. 2012. Science priorities for seamounts: Research links to conservation and management. *PLoS ONE* 7(1): e29232.
- McClain CR, L Lundsten, M Ream, J Barry and A De Vogelaere. 2009. Endemicity, biogeography, composition and community structure on a northeast Pacific seamount. *PLoS ONE* 4(1): e4141.
- 45. Rowden et al. 2010.
- 46. Harris and Baker, 2012.
- 47. Clarke et al. 2007.
- Comiso JC and AL Gordon. 1996. Cosmonaut polynya in the Southern Ocean: Structure and variability. *Journal of Geophysical Research* 101(C8): 18,297-18,313.
- Geddes JA and GWK Moore. 2007. A climatology of sea ice embayments in the Cosmonaut Sea, Antarctica. *Geophysical Research Letters* 34 (L02505): 1-5.
- 50. Comiso and Gordon, 1996.
- Takizawa T, KI Ohshima, S Ushio, T Kawamura and H Enomoto. 1994. Temperature structure and characteristics appearing on SSM/I images of the Cosmonaut Sea, Antarctica. *Annals of Glaciology* 20: 298-306.
- Comiso JC and AL Gordon. 1987. Recurring polynyas over the Cosmonaut Sea and the Maud Rise. *Journal of Geophysical Research* 92(C3): 2819-2834.
- Barber DG and RA Massom. 2007. The role of sea ice in Arctic and Antarctic polynyas. In *Polynyas: windows to the world*, Elsevier Oceanography Series, WO Smith and DG Barber, eds. Amsterdam: Elsevier. Pp 1-54.
- 54. Williams et al. 2010.
- Woehler EJ, B Raymond, A Boyle and A Stafford. 2010. Seabird assemblages observed during the BROKE-West survey of the Antarctic coastline (30E-80E), January – March 2006. Deep Sea Research II 57: 982-991.
- 56. Kawaguchi et al. 2010.
- Gedamke J and SM Robinson. 2010. Acoustic survey for marine mammal occurrence and distribution off East Antarctica (30-80°E) in January-February 2006. *Deep Sea Research II* 57: 968-981.
- 58. Douglass et al. In press.
- 59. Woehler 1993.
- CCAMLR Secretariat. CEMP data submitted in 2011/12. Personal communication from Dr David Ramm and Dr Keith Reid at the CCAMLR Secretariat.
- 61. Woehler et al. 2010.
- Anonymous. 2010. BROKE-West, a large ecosystem survey of the South West Indian Ocean sector of the Southern Ocean, 301E–801E (CCAMLR Division 58.4.2) Deep Sea Research II 57: 693-700.

- Arrigo KR and GL van Dijken. 2003. Phytoplankton dynamics within 37 Antarctic coastal polynya systems. *Journal of Geophysical Research* 108. doi:10.1029/2002JC001739.
- O'Brien PE, I Goodwin, CF Forsberg, AK Cooper and J Whitehead. 2007. Late Neogene ice drainage changes in Prydz Bay, East Antarctica and the interaction of Antarctic ice sheet evolution and climate. 2006. Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology 245: 390-410.
- Hickey BM. 1995. Coastal submarine canyons. *Topographic Effects in the Ocean: 'Aha Huliko 'a Hawaiian Winter Workshop*. University of Hawaii at Manoa, Honolulu, Hawaii. Pp 95-110.
- Sobarzo M, M Figueroa and L Djurfeldt. 2004. Upwelling of subsurface water into the rim of the Biobio submarine canyon as a response to surface winds. *Continental Shelf Research* 21: 279-299.
- 67. Hickey 1995.
- 68. Arrigo and van Dijken 2003.
- 69. Woehler et al. 2003.
- 70. Ibid.
- Green K and R Williams. 1986. Observations on food remains in faeces of elephant, leopard and crabeater seals. *Polar Biology* 6: 43-45.
- 72. Gedamke and Robinson, 2010.
- Hosie GW, 1994. Multivariate analyses of the macrozooplankton community and euphausiid larval ecology in the Prydz Bay region, Antarctica. ANARE Reports 137. Pp 209.
- 74. Kawaguchi et al. 2010.
- 75. Ibid.
- 76. Ibid.
- McKinlay JP, DC Welsford, AJ Constable and GB Nowara. 2008. An assessment of the exploratory fishery for *Dissostichus* spp. on BANZARE Bank (CCAMLR Division 58.4.3b) based on fine-scale catch and effort data. *CCAMLR Science* 15: 145-153.
- Taki K, M Kiyota, T Ichii and T Iwami. 2011. Distribution and population structure of Dissostichus eleginoides and D. mawsoni on the BANZARE Bank (CCAMLR Division 58.4.3b), Indian Ocean. CCAMLR Science 18: 145-153.
- 79. Agnew et al. 2009.
- 80. McKinlay et al. 2008.
- 81. Agnew et al. 2009.
- Van de Putte AP, GD Jackson, E Pakhomov, H Flores and FAM Volckaert. 2010. Distribution of squid and fish in the pelagic zone of the Cosmonaut Sea and Prydz Bay region during the BROKE-West campaign. *Deep-Sea Research II* 57: 956-967.
- 83. Douglass et al. In press.
- 84. Ibid.
- 85. O'Brien et al. 2009.
- Smith WO and DG Barber. 2007. *Polynyas:* Windows to the World. Elsevier Oceanography Series, 74. Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- 87. Brandt A, U Bathmann, S Brix, B Cisewski, H Flores, C Göcke, DJanussen, S Krägefsky, S Kruse, H Leach, K Linse, E Pakhomov, I Peeken, T Riehl, E Sauter, O Sachs, M Schuller, M Schrödl, E Schwabe, V Strass, JA van Franeker and E Wilmsen. 2011. Maud Rise – a snapshot through the water column. *Deep Sea Research Part II* 58(19–20): 1962-1982.
- 88. Woehler 1993
- 89. Southwell et al. 2008c.
- 90. Douglass et al. In press.
- Close DI, AB Watts and HMJ Stagg. 2009. A marine geophysical study of the Wilkes Land rifted continental margin, Antarctica. *Geophysical Journal International* 177: 430-450
- Australian Antarctic Division. 2012. Geology: Prehistory of Antarctica. Accessed on 23 August 2012 from www.antarctica.gov.au/aboutantarctica/fact-files/geology.

- Tikku AA and SC Cande. 1999. The oldest magnetic anomalies in the Australian-Antarctic Basin: are they isochrones? *Journal of Geophysical Research* 104(B1): 661-677.
- Escutia C, L De Santis, F Donda, RB Dunbar, AK Cooper, G Brancolini and SL Eittreim. 2005. Cenozoic ice sheet history from East Antarctic Wilkes Land continental margin sediments. *Global and Planetary Change* 45: 51-81.
 Ibid.
- 95. Ibic
- Escutia C, SL Eittreim, AK Cooper and CH Nelson. 2000. Morphology and acoustic character of the Antarctic Wilkes Land turbidite systems: ice-sheet sourced vs. river-sourced fans. *Journal of Sedimentary Research* 70(1): 84-93.
- Torbjörn ET, SR Wortman, ZRP Mateo, GA Milne and JB Swenson. 2006. Did the last sea level lowstand always lead to cross-shelf valley formation and source-to-sink sediment flux? *Journal of Geophysical Research* 111(F04002): 1-13.
- 98. Southwell et al. 2008c.
- Melick D and W Bremmers. 1995. A recently discovered breeding colony of emperor penguins (*Aptenodytes forsteri*) on the Budd Coast, Wilkes Land, East Antarctica. *Polar Record* 31(179): 426-427.
- 100. Woehler EJ, DJ Slip, LM Robertson, PJ Fullagar and HR Burton. 1991. The distribution, abundance and status of Adélie penguins *Pygoscelis Adellae* at the Windmill Islands, Wilkes Land, Antarctica. *Marine Ornithology* 19(1): 1-18.
- Orsi AH, GC Johnson and JL Bullister. 1999. Circulation, mixing and production of Antarctic Bottom Water. *Progress in Oceanography* 43: 55-109.
- 102. Smith MB, J-P Labat, AD Fraser, RA Massom and P Koubbi. 2011. A GIS approach to estimating interannual variability of sea ice concentration in the Dumont d'Urville Sea near Terre Adélie from 2003 to 2009. *Polar Science* 5(2): 104-117.
- CCAMLR. 2011. Fishery Reports, Appendix
 E: Report on Bottom Fisheries and Vulnerable Marine Ecosystems. CCAMLR: Hobart.
- 104. Koubbi P, M Moteki, G Duhamel, A Goarant, P-A Hulley, R O'Driscoll, T Ishimaru, P Pruvost, E Tavernier and G Hosie. 2011a. Ecoregionalization of myctophid fish in the Indian sector of the Southern Ocean: Results from generalized dissimilarity models. *Deep Sea Research II* 58: 170-180.
- 105. Post AL, RJ Beaman, PE O'Brien, M Eleaume and MJ Riddle. 2011. Community structure and benthic habitats across the George V Shelf, East Antarctica: Trends through space and time. *Deep-Sea Research II* 58: 105-118.
- 106. Hosie G, P Koubbi, M Riddle, C Ozouf-Costaz, M Moteki, M Fukuchi, N Ameziane, T Ishimaru and A Goffart. 2011 CEAMARC, the Collaborative East Antarctic Marine Census for the Census of Antarctic Marine Life (IPY # 53): An overview. *Polar Science* 5: 75-87.
- 107. Post et al. 2011.
- Amakasu K, A Ono, D Hirano, M Moteki and T Ishimaru. 2011. Distribution and density of Antarctic krill (*Euphausia superba*) and ice krill (*E. crystallorophias*) off Adelie Land in austral summer 2008 estimated by acoustical methods. *Polar Science* 5: 187-194.
- 109. Koubbi P, C O'Brien, C Loots, C Giraldo, M Smith, E Tavernier, M Vacchi, C Vallet, J Chevallier and M Moteki. 2011b. Spatial distribution and inter-annual variation in the size frequency distribution and abundances *Pleuragramma antarcticum* larvae in the Dumont d'Urville Sea from 2004 to 2010. *Polar Science* 5: 225-238.
- 110. Barbraud C, KC Delord, T Micol and P Jouventin. 1999. First census of breeding seabirds between Cap Bienvenue (Terre Adelie) and Moyes Islands (King George V Land), Antarctica: new records for Antarctic seabird populations. *Polar Biology* 21: 146-150.

- Micol T and P Jouventin. 2001. Long-term population trends in seven Antarctic seabirds at Pointe Geologie (Terre Adelie). *Polar Biology* 24: 175-185.
- 112. Barbraud et al. 1999.
- 113. Micol and Jouventin 2001.
- 114. Jenouvrier S, H Caswell, C Barbraud, M Holland, J Stroeve and H Weimerskirch. 2009. Demographic models and ipcc climate projections predict the decline of an emperor penguin population. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 106: 1844-1847.
- 115. Koubbi P, G Duhamel, J Hecq, C Beans, C Loots, P Pruvost, E Tavernier, M Vacchi and C Vallet. 2009. Ichthyoplankton in the neritic and coastal zone of Antarctica and Subantarctic islands: A review. *Journal of Marine Systems* 78: 547-556.
- Rintoul SR. 2007. Rapid freshening of Antarctic Bottom Water formed in the Indian and Pacific oceans. *Geophysical Research Letters* 34(L06606): doi:10.1029/2006GL028550.
- 117. Australian Antarctic Division. 2010. Massive iceberg calves from the Mertz Glacier. News.
- Australian Antarctic Division. 2011. Mertz Glacier calving provides scientific opportunities. *Australian Antarctic Magazine* 20: 1-4.
- Kusahara K, H Hasumi and GD Williams. 2011. Impact of the Mertz Glacier Tongue calving on dense water formation and export. *Nature Communications* 2: 159.
- 120. Clapham P, Y Mikhalev, W Franklin, D Paton, CS Baker, YV Ivashchenko and RL Brownell Jr. 2009. Catches of Humpback Whales, *Megaptera novaeangliae*, by the Soviet Union and Other Nations in the Southern Ocean, 1947-1973. *Marine Fisheries Review* 71(1): 39-43.
- 121. Ibid.
- 122. International Whaling Commission. 2012. Status of whales. Accessed on 24 August 2012 from www.iwcoffice.org/status#species.
- 123. Clapham et al. 2009.
- 124. International Whaling Commission 2012.
- Clapham P, S Young and R Brownell Jr. 1999. Baleen whales: conservation issues and the status of the most endangered populations. *Mammal Review* 29: 35-60.
- 126. Duhamel G and R Williams. 2011. History of whaling, sealing, fishery and aquaculture trials in the area of the Kerguelen Plateau. In *The Kerguelen Plateau: marine ecosystem and fisheries*, G Duhamel and D Welsford, eds. Société Française d'Ichtyologie. Pp 15-28.
- 127. Pauly T, S Nicol, I Higginbottom, G Hosie, and J Kitchener. 2000. Distribution and abundance of Antarctic krill (*Euphausia superba*) off East Antarctica (80-150°E) during the Austral summer of 1995/1996. *Deep Sea Research III* 47: 2465-2488.
- Nicol S and J Foster. 2003. Recent trends in the fishery for Antarctic krill. Aquatic Living Resources 16: 42-45.
- 129. Jarvis T, N Kelly, S Kawaguchi, E van Wijk and S Nicol. 2010. Acoustic characterisation of the broad-scale distribution and abundance of Antarctic krill (*Euphausia superba*) off East Antarctica (30-80°E) in January-March 2006. Deep-Sea Research II 57: 916-933.
- Kock KH, K Reid, J Croxall and S Nicol. 2007. Fisheries in the Southern Ocean: An ecosystem approach. *Philosophical Transaction of the Royal Society* 362: 2333-2349.
- 131. CCAMLR. 1990a. Statistical Bulletin Volume 1 (1970-1979). Hobart, Australia.
- 132. Kock et al. 2007.
- CCAMLR. 2012. Krill (*Euphausia superba*). Accessed on 10 July 2012 from www.ccamlr. org/pu/E/sc/fish-monit/hs-krill.htm.
- Nicol S, J Foster and S Kawaguchi. 2012. The fishery for Antarctic krill – recent developments. *Fish and Fisheries* 13: 30-40.
- 135. Kock et al. 2007.

- 136. Nicol et al. 2012.
- 137. Duhamel G, P Gasco and P Davaine. 2005. Poissons des l'ies Kerguelen et Crozet. Guide Re'gional de l'Oce'an Austral. Muse'um National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris.
- Kock KH. 1992. Antarctic Fish and Fisheries. Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press.
- 139. CCAMLR. 1990b. Statistical Bulletin Volume 2 (1980-1989). Hobart, Australia.
- 140. Kock 1992.
- 141. CCAMLR. 2012a. Fishery report: Exploratory fishery for *Dissostichus spp*. in Division 58.4.2. Appendix O. Hobart: CCAMLR.
- 142. CCAMLR. 2012b. Fishery report: Exploratory fishery for *Dissostichus spp*. in Division 58.4.1. Appendix N. Hobart: CCAMLR.
- 143. CCAMLR. 2006. Report of the Twenty-fifth Meeting of the Scientific Committee. Hobart.
- 144. Ibid.
- 145. Agnew et al. 2009.
- 146. CCAMLR. 2009. Report of the Twenty-eighth Meeting of the Scientific Committee. Hobart: Australia.
- 147. CCAMLR 2006.
- 148. Ibid.
- 149. CCAMLR. 2008. Report of the Twenty-seventh Meeting of the Scientific Committee. Hobart: Australia.
- 150. CCAMLR 2006.
- 151. Österblom H, UR Sumaila, Ö Bodin, HJ Sundberg and AJPress. 2010. Adapting to Regional Enforcement: Fishing Down the Governance Index. *PLoS ONE* 5(9): e12832.
- 152. CCAMLR. 2010. Report of the Twenty-ninth Meeting of the Scientific Committee. Hobart: Australia.
- 153. CCAMLR Conservation Measures 22-06 and 22-07.
- 154. TRAFFIC. 2009. Australia confiscates 130 km long deepwater gillnet. Accessed April 25 2012 from http://www.traffic.org/home/2009/11/6/ australia-confiscates-130-km-long-deepwatergillnet.html.
- 155. Agnew D, D Butterworth D, M Collins, I Everson, S Hanchet, KH Kock and L Prenski. 2002. Inclusion of Patagonian toothfish *Dissostichus eleginoides* and Antarctic toothfish *Dissostichus mawsoni* in Appendix II. Proponent: Australia. Ref. CoP 12 Prop. 39. TRAFFIC East Asia, TRAFFIC East/Southern Africa-South Africa. TRAFFIC Oceania, TRAFFIC South America.
- Croxall JP and S Nicol. 2004. Management of Southern Ocean fisheries: global forces and future sustainability. *Antarctic Science* 16(4): 569-584.
- 157. Norse EA, S Brooke, WWL Cheung, MR Clark, I Ekeland, R Froese, KM Gjerde, RL Haedrich, SS Heppell, T Morato, LE Morgan, D Pauly, R Sumaila and R Watson. 2012. Sustainability of deep-sea fisheries. *Marine Policy* 36: 307-320.
- 158. McKinlay et al. 2008.
- 159. Agnew et al. 2009.
- 160. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. 2007. The Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Meredith MP and JC King. 2005. Rapid climate change in the ocean west of the Antarctic Peninsula during the second half of the 20th century. *Geophysical Research Letters* 32: L19604.
- 162. Stammerjohn SE, DG Martinson, RC Smith, X Yuan and D Rind. 2008. Trends in Antarctic annual sea ice retreat and advance and their relation to El Nino–Southern Oscillation and Southern Annular Mode variability. *Journal of Geophysical Research* 113: C03S90.

- 163. Turner J, T Maksym, T Philips, GJ Marshall and MP Meredith. 2012. The impact of changes in sea ice advance on the large winter warming on the western Antarctic Peninsula. *International Journal of Climatology*. DOI: 10.1002/joc.3474.
- 164. Stammerjohn et al. 2008.
- 165. Thompson DWJ, S Solomon, PJ Kushner, MH England, KM Grise and DJ Karoly. 2011. Signatures of the Antarctic ozone hole in Southern Hemisphere surface climate change. *Nature Geoscience* 4: 741-749.
- Vaughan DG, GJ Marshall, WM Connolley, JC King and R Mulnavey. 2001. Devil in the Detail. *Science* 293 (5536): 1777-1779.
- 167. Houghton JT, Y Ding, DJ Griggs, M Noguer, PJ van der Linden and D Xiaosu. 2001. *Climate Change 2001: The Scientific Basis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Curran MAJ, TD van Ommen, VI Morgan, KL Phillips and AS Palmer. 2003. Ice core evidence for Antarctic sea ice decline since the 1950s. *Science* 302(5648): 1203-1206.
- 169. Ibid.
- Parkinson CL. 2002. Trends in the length of the Southern Ocean sea-ice season, 1979-1999. Annals of Glaciology 34(1): 435-440.
- Barbraud C and H Weimerskirch. 2001. Emperor penguins and climate change. *Nature* 411: 183-186.
- 172. Ibid.
- 173. Ibid.
- 174. Jenouvrier et al. 2012.
- 175. Barbraud C and H Weimerskirch. 2006. Antarctic birds breed later in response to climate change. *Proceedings of the National Academy* of Sciences 103(16): 6248-6251.
- 176. Ibid.
- 177. Parkinson CL and P Gloersen. 1993. Global sea ice coverage. In Atlas of satellite observations related to global change, RJ Gurney, JL Foster and CL Parkinson, eds. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Pp. 371–383.
- 178. Smetacek V, R Scharek and EM Nöthig. 1990. Seasonal and regional variation in the pelagial and its relationship to the life cycle of krill. In *Antarctic Ecosystems, Ecological Change and Conservation,* KR Kerry and G Hempel, eds. Berlin: Springer-Verlag. Pp 103-114.
- 179. Forcada J, PN Trathan, PL Boveng, JL Boyd, JM Burns, DP Costa, M Fedak, TL Rogers and CJ Southwell. 2012. Responses of Antarctic pack-ice seals to environmental change and increasing krill fishing. *Biological Conservation* 149(1): 40-50.
- Siniff DB, RA Garrott, JJ Rotella, WR Fraser and DG Ainley. 2008. Projecting the effects of environmental change on Antarctic Seals. *Antarctic Science* 20: 425-435.
- Jacobson MZ. 2005. Studying ocean acidification with conservative, stable numerical schemes for nonequilibrium air-ocean exchange and ocean equilibrium chemistry. Journal of Geophysical Research – Atmospheres 110: doi:10.1029/2004JD005220.
- 182. Anonymous. 2009. Report of the Ocean Acidification and Oxygen Working Group, International Council for Science's Scientific Committee on Ocean Research (SCOR) Biological Observatories Workshop. Accessed 5 September 2012 from: http://www.scor-int.org/ OBO2009/A&O_Report.pdf
- 183. Orr J, VJ Fabry, O Aumont, L Bopp, SC Doney, RA Feely, A Gnanadesikan, N Gruber, A Ishida, RM Key, K Lindsay, E Maier-Reimer, R Matear, P Monfray, A Mouchet, RG Najjar, GK Plattner, KB Rodgers, CL Sabine, JL Sarmiento, R Schlitzer, RD Slater, IJ Totterdell, MF Weirig, Y Yamanaka and A Yool. 2005. Anthropogenic ocean acidification over the twenty-first century and its impacts on calcifying organisms. *Nature* 437: 681-686.
- 184. Ibid.

- 185. Ibid.
- 186. Kawaguchi S, H Kurihara, R King, L Hale, T Berli, JP Robinson, A Ishida, M Wakita, P Virtue, S Nicol and A Ishimatsu. 2011. Will krill fare well under Southern Ocean acidification? *Biological Letters* 7(2): 288-291.
- 187. Lubchenco J, SR Palumbi, SD Gaines, and S Andelman. 2003. Plugging a Hole in the Ocean: the Emerging Science of Marine Reserves. *Ecological Applications* 13(1): S3-S7.
- 188. World Summit on Sustainable Development, 2002.
- 189. CCAMLR 2009.
- 190. CCAMLR Conservation Measure 91-04.
- 191. CCAMLR. 2011. Report of the Workshop on Marine Protected Areas. CCAMLR: Hobart.
- 192. Bohnsack JA. 1999. Incorporating no-take marine reserves into precautionary management and stock assessment. In *Providing scientific* advice to implement the precautionary approach under the Manguson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act, VR Restrepo, ed. NOAA Technical Memorandum NMFSF/SPO-40. Pp 8-16.
- 193. Novaczek I. 1995. Possible roles for marine protected areas in establishing sustainable fisheries in Canada. In *Marine protected* areas and sustainable fisheries, NL Shackell and JHM Willison, eds. Centre for Wildlife and Conservation Biology, Acadia University, Wolfville, Nova Scotia, Canada. Pp 31-36.
- 194. Lester SE, BS Halpern, K Grorud-Colvert, J Lubchenco, BI Ruttenberg, SD Gaines, S Airamé and RR Warner. 2009. Biological effects within marine reserves: a global synthesis. *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 384: 33-46.
- 195. Aburto-Oropeza O, B Erisman, GR Gallard, I Mascareñas-Osorio, E Sala and E Ezcurra. 2011. Large recovery of fish biomass in a notake marine reserve. *PLoS One* 6(8): e23601.
- National Research Council. 2001. Marine protected areas: tools for sustaining ocean ecosystems. National Academy Press, Washington, DC.
- 197. Bohnsack et al. 2004.
- 198. Ibid.
- 199. McLeod E, R Salm, A Green and J Almany. 2009. Designing marine protected area networks to address the impacts of climate change. Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment 7(7): 362-370.
- Schlacher TA, MA Schlacher-Hoenlinger, A Williams, F Althaus, JNA Hooper and R Kloser. 2007. Richness and distribution of sponge megabenthos in continental margin canyons off southeaster Australia. *Marine Ecology Progress* Series 340: 73-88.
- Brandt A, C De Broyer, I De Mesel, KE Ellingsen, AJ Gooday, B Hilbig, K Linse, MRA Thomson and PA Tyler. 2007. The biodiversity of the deep Southern Ocean benthos. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B-Biological Sciences* 362(1477): 39-66.
- 202. Clark et al. 2010.
- 203. Woehler et al. 2003.
- 204. Ibid.
- 205. Ibid.
- Zimmer I, RP Wilson, C Gilbert, M Beaulieu, A Ancel and J Plötz. 2007. Foraging movements of emperor penguins at Pointe Géologie, Antarctica. *Polar Biology* 31(2): 229-243.
- 207. Delord K, C Cotte, C Peron, C Marteau, P Pruvost, N Gasco, G Duhamel, Y Cherel and H Weimerskirch. 2010. At-sea distribution and diet of an endangered top predator: relationship between white-chinned petrels and commercial longline fisheries. *Endangered Species Research* 13: 1-16.
- 208. Bohnsack 1999.
- 209. Ibid.



WWW.ANTARCTICOCEAN.ORG

The following organisations make up the Antarctic Ocean Alliance:



