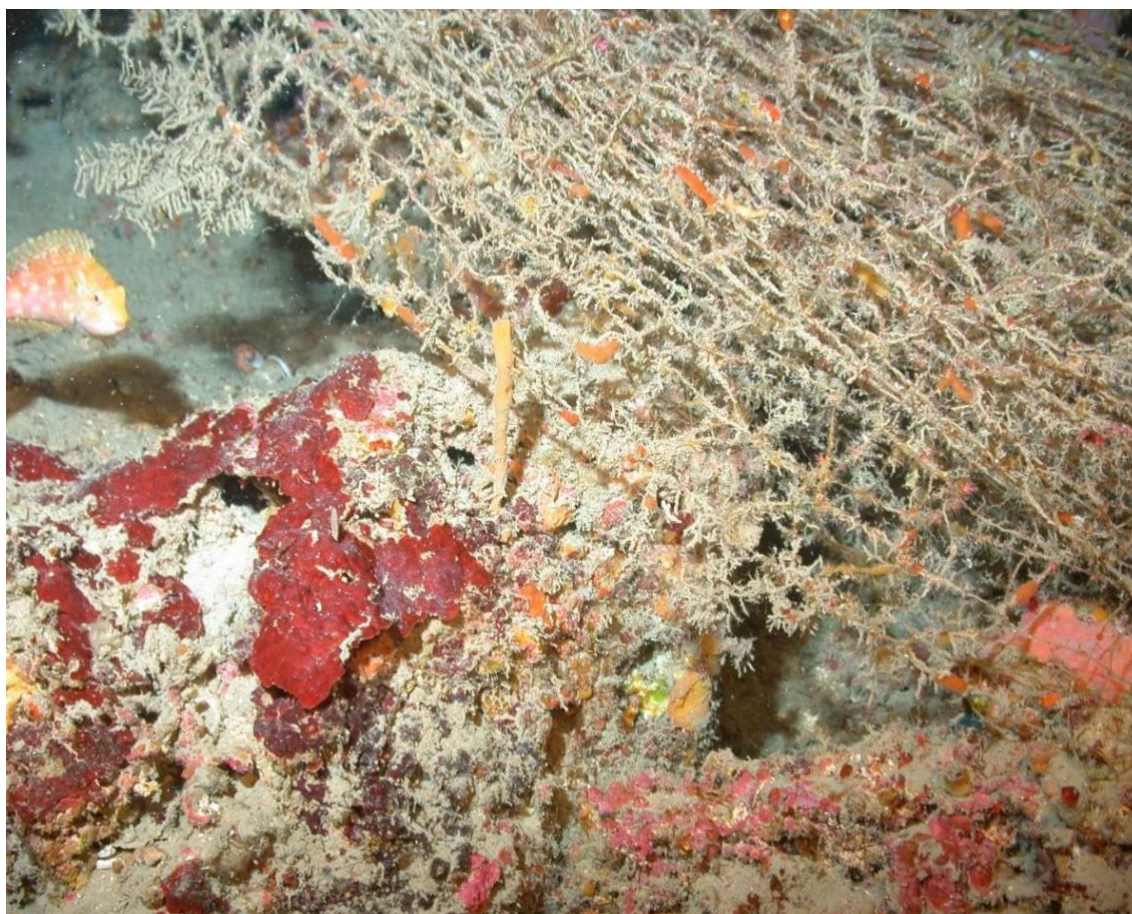




# Marine Debris on Reefs and Banks in the Vicinity of Flower Garden Banks National Marine Sanctuary



U.S. Department of Commerce  
Gina Raimondo, Secretary

National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration  
Richard W. Spinrad, Ph.D., Under Secretary of Commerce for Oceans and Atmosphere and  
NOAA Administrator

National Ocean Service  
Nicole LeBoeuf, Assistant Administrator

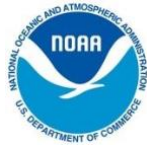
Office of National Marine Sanctuaries  
John Armor, Director

Report Authors:

Kelly O'Connell<sup>1,2</sup>, Marissa F. Nuttall<sup>1,2</sup>, Raven D. Blakeway<sup>1,2</sup>, Emma L. Hickerson<sup>2</sup>, and G.P. Schmahl<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Cardinal Point Captains, Inc., Galveston, TX

<sup>2</sup>Flower Garden Banks National Marine Sanctuary, Galveston, TX



**NATIONAL  
MARINE  
SANCTUARIES**

Suggested citation: O'Connell, K., Nuttall, M. F., Blakeway, R. D., Hickerson, E. L., & Schmahl, G. P. (2023). *Marine debris on reefs and banks in the vicinity of Flower Garden Banks National Marine Sanctuary*. National Marine Sanctuaries Conservation Series ONMS-23-02. U.S. Department of Commerce, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Ocean Service, Office of National Marine Sanctuaries.

Cover photo: A greenblotch parrotfish (*Sparisoma atomarium*) near a derelict fishing net at a depth of 83 meters on West Flower Garden Bank. Photo: NOAA/University of North Carolina at Wilmington Underwater Vehicle Program

---

## About the National Marine Sanctuaries Conservation Series

The Office of National Marine Sanctuaries, part of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, serves as the trustee for a system of underwater parks encompassing more than 620,000 square miles of ocean and Great Lakes waters. The 15 national marine sanctuaries and two marine national monuments within the National Marine Sanctuary System represent areas of America's ocean and Great Lakes environment that are of special national significance. Within their waters, giant humpback whales breed and calve their young, coral colonies flourish, and shipwrecks tell stories of our nation's maritime history. Habitats include beautiful coral reefs, lush kelp forests, whale migration corridors, spectacular deep-sea canyons, and underwater archaeological sites. These special places also provide homes to thousands of unique or endangered species and are important to America's cultural heritage. Sites range in size from less than one square mile to almost 583,000 square miles. They serve as natural classrooms and cherished recreational spots, and are home to valuable commercial industries.

Because of considerable differences in settings, resources, and threats, each national marine sanctuary has a tailored management plan. Conservation, education, research, monitoring, and enforcement programs vary accordingly. The integration of these programs is fundamental to marine protected area management. The National Marine Sanctuaries Conservation Series reflects and supports this integration by providing a forum for publication and discussion of the complex issues currently facing the National Marine Sanctuary System. Topics of published reports vary substantially and may include descriptions of educational programs, discussions on resource management issues, and results of scientific research and monitoring projects. The series facilitates integration of natural sciences, socioeconomic and cultural sciences, education, and policy development to accomplish the diverse needs of NOAA's resource protection mandate. All publications are available on the [Office of National Marine Sanctuaries website](#).



## Disclaimer

The scientific results and conclusions, as well as any views or opinions expressed herein, are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of NOAA or the Department of Commerce. The mention of trade names or commercial products does not constitute endorsement or recommendation for use.

## Report Availability

Electronic copies of this report may be downloaded from the [Office of National Marine Sanctuaries website](#).

## Contact

Kelly K. O'Connell  
Research Operations Specialist  
Cardinal Point Captains, Inc., contracted to  
NOAA Flower Garden Banks National Marine Sanctuary  
4700 Avenue U, Bldg. 216  
Galveston, TX 77551  
(409) 356-0387  
Kelly.OConnell@noaa.gov



## Table of Contents

<b>About the National Marine Sanctuaries Conservation Series.....</b>	<b>i</b>
<b>Disclaimer .....</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>Report Availability .....</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>Contact.....</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>Table of Contents.....</b>	<b>iii</b>
<b>Abstract .....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>Key Words .....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>Chapter 1: Introduction.....</b>	<b>2</b>
Background .....	3
Study Area .....	4
<b>Chapter 2: Methods .....</b>	<b>6</b>
Field Methods.....	7
Data Analysis.....	7
<b>Chapter 3: Results .....</b>	<b>10</b>
Marine Debris Maps.....	17
<b>Chapter 4: Discussion.....</b>	<b>32</b>
<b>Acknowledgements .....</b>	<b>41</b>
<b>Literature Cited .....</b>	<b>42</b>
<b>Appendix A: Photo Gallery .....</b>	<b>46</b>
<b>Appendix B: Supplementary Tables .....</b>	<b>64</b>



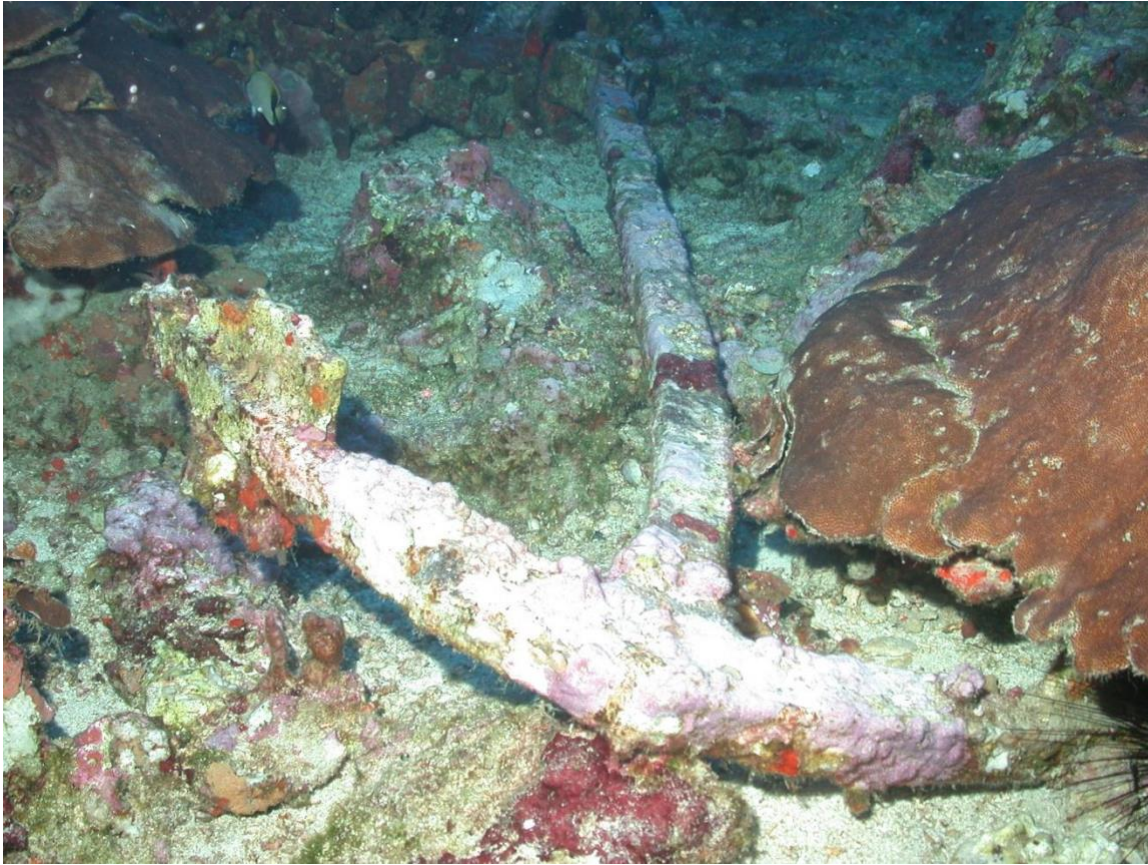
## Abstract

This report assesses marine debris in and around the recently expanded Flower Garden Banks National Marine Sanctuary by determining the spatial distribution, abundance, and composition of litter. Data were primarily compiled from exploratory dives in mesophotic depths (34–150 m) carried out by a remotely operated vehicle over the course of two decades. A total of 485 debris items were identified and binned into categories based on type. The composition of benthic marine debris reflected the heavy influence of local fishing activities, with derelict fishing gear the predominant debris type in the study area, comprising 63.7% of all litter. Anchoring produced the second largest contribution of benthic debris, representing 18.2% of observations. Marine debris in sensitive benthic habitats contributes to the vulnerability of these ecosystems via ingestion by and entanglement of motile species, and smothering and physical damage to sessile organisms. This report serves as a baseline evaluation of benthic marine debris in the sanctuary and provides a spatial and quantitative assessment that can be used in future efforts to target debris removal and research.

## Key Words

marine debris, Flower Garden Banks National Marine Sanctuary, Gulf of Mexico, expansion, mesophotic

## Chapter 1: Introduction



An admiralty-style 19<sup>th</sup> century anchor covered in crustose coralline algae lays next to a live colony of *Stephanocoenia intersepta* at 50 m depth at McGrail Bank. Photo: NOAA/University of North Carolina at Wilmington Underwater Vehicle Program

## Background

Marine debris is a growing issue worldwide. It is one of the most incessant global threats to the health of the world's coastal areas and ocean ecosystems (Bergmann et al., 2015). Marine debris is defined as “any persistent solid material that is manufactured or processed and directly or indirectly, intentionally or unintentionally, disposed of or abandoned into the marine environment or Great Lakes” (33 U.S.C. 1951 *et seq.*, as amended in 2012 by Title VI of Pub. L. 112-213 and in 2018 by Pub. L. 115-265). Typically introduced to the marine environment by natural disasters, improper disposal, or accidental loss, debris often accumulates on the seafloor and has the ability to be transported long distances by ocean currents and tides. The increasing use of single-use products, disposal of litter with inadequate waste management, and poor recycling practices are the principal reasons for the accumulation of litter in the sea (Bergmann et al., 2015). In 2014 alone, Eriksen et al. (2014) estimated a minimum of 5.25 trillion plastic particles weighing 268,940 tons were afloat in the ocean. This is a major concern for resource managers because the debris can injure marine life, interfere with navigation safety, pollute beaches, damage and degrade habitats, and pose a threat to human health. While land-based pollution is a considerable source of marine debris, the discard and loss of synthetic material and plastics by the maritime industry is also a significant burden (NOAA Marine Debris Program, 2014).

Anthropogenic litter causes harm to a wide range of marine biota. Marine debris research has emphasized two fundamental types of biological interactions: (1) ingestion, whereby debris items are intentionally or accidentally eaten and enter the organism's digestive tract; and (2) entanglement, whereby the loops and openings of various types of debris entangle animal appendages or entrap animals (Laist, 1997). Plastic ingestion leads to loss of nutrition, internal injury, intestinal blockage, starvation, and often death in wildlife (Kühn & Andries van Franeker, 2020). However, the detection of ingestion effects is difficult and typically requires necropsy. The implications of abandoned fishing nets, often referred to as “ghost nets,” are far reaching, as they create increased fishing pressure through entanglement of already-exploited populations. Such information is not captured in commercial and recreational fishing landings data, reducing the accuracy and utility of stock assessments (Macfadyen et al., 2009).

Although floating debris is a primary focus in marine debris research, litter accumulating on the seafloor can significantly impact benthic habitats and organisms. Surveys using drop cameras and more advanced technology, such as remotely and autonomously operated vehicles, have revealed that marine debris began accumulating in the deep sea long before the era of science exploration, illustrating how the seafloor serves as the ultimate sink for marine litter (Pham et al., 2014). But its accumulation and movement make these habitats vulnerable to physical damage and smothering, resulting in economic losses to fishing and disrupting ecological interactions in seafloor communities.

As part of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), the Office of National Marine Sanctuaries serves as the trustee for 14 national marine sanctuaries and two marine national monuments, all of special national significance in the United States. Flower Garden Banks National Marine Sanctuary (FGBNMS) was designated in 1992 under the authority of the National Marine Sanctuaries Act (56 Fed. Reg. 63634) to protect East and West Flower Garden



Banks. A third bank, Stetson Bank, was added to the sanctuary in 1996. In 2021, the sanctuary expanded again to include 14 additional features, primarily mesophotic in nature (86 Fed. Reg. 4937). This report serves as a baseline for estimates of marine debris in the sanctuary, and will enable future assessments of resource status and trends.

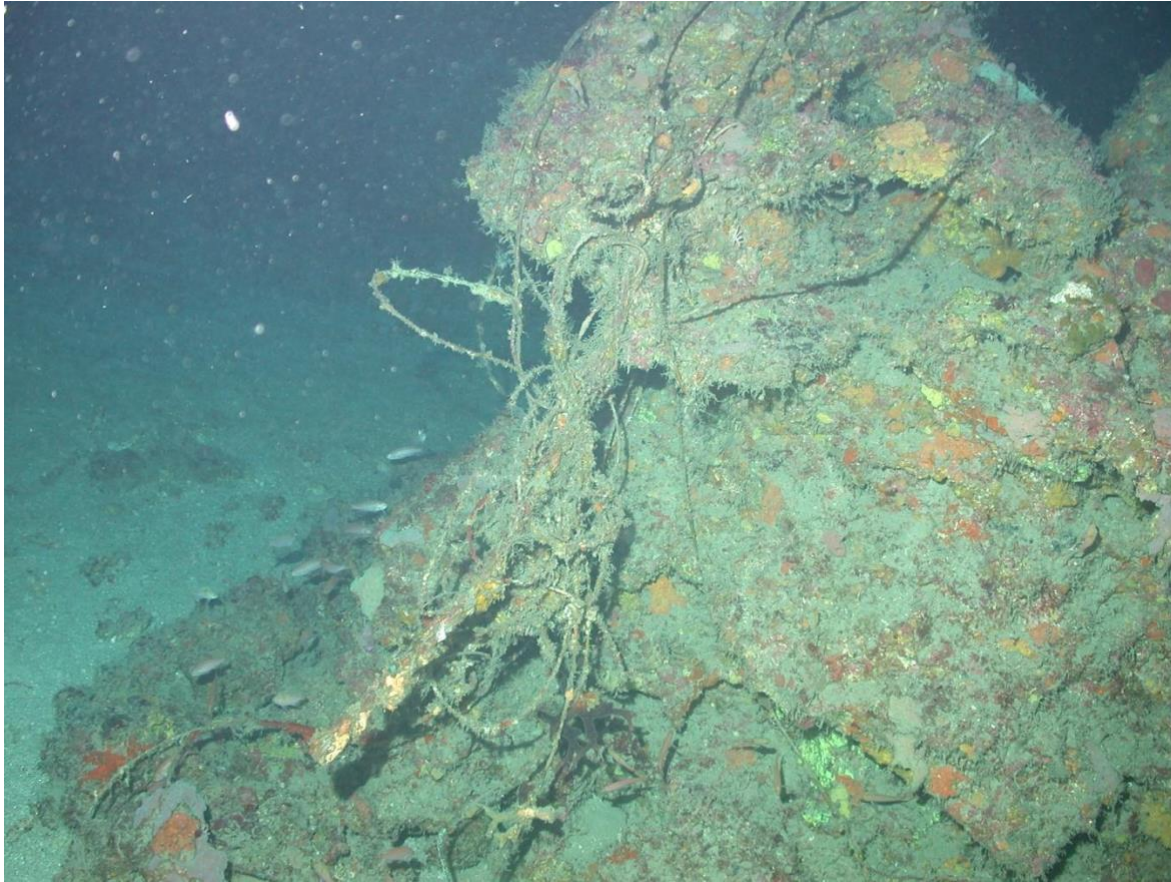


Figure 1. Fishing line entangled on an East Flower Garden Bank mesophotic feature at 81 meters. Photo: NOAA/University of North Carolina at Wilmington Underwater Vehicle Program

## Study Area

Located in the Gulf of Mexico, 70 to 190 miles (110 to 304 km) from Galveston, Texas. FGBNMS encompasses 160 square miles and includes 17 underwater features, or banks. These banks are part of a discontinuous arc of reef environments along the outer continental shelf in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico (Bright et al., 1985; Figure 2). The majority of the reefs are built upon salt domes and contain several distinct habitats ranging in depth from 16–220 m (Bright & Rezak, 1976; Schmahl et al., 2008). The reefs and banks provide a wide range of habitats that support distinct biological communities, including the northernmost coral reefs in the continental United States (Schmahl et al., 2008) and much more extensive mesophotic and deep-sea coral habitats. They provide important habitat for recreationally and commercially important fish, as well as threatened and endangered corals and sea turtles, whale sharks, and manta rays.

FGBNMS recently finalized a boundary expansion that increased the number of protected areas from three to 17 banks and expanded the size of sanctuary from 56 square miles to approximately 160 square miles. The expansion extended protections to these new boundaries and aims to limit the impact of activities related to fishing with bottom-tending gear, ship anchoring, and salvaging. Additional protections are designed to limit future marine debris in these locations and protect sensitive biological resources.

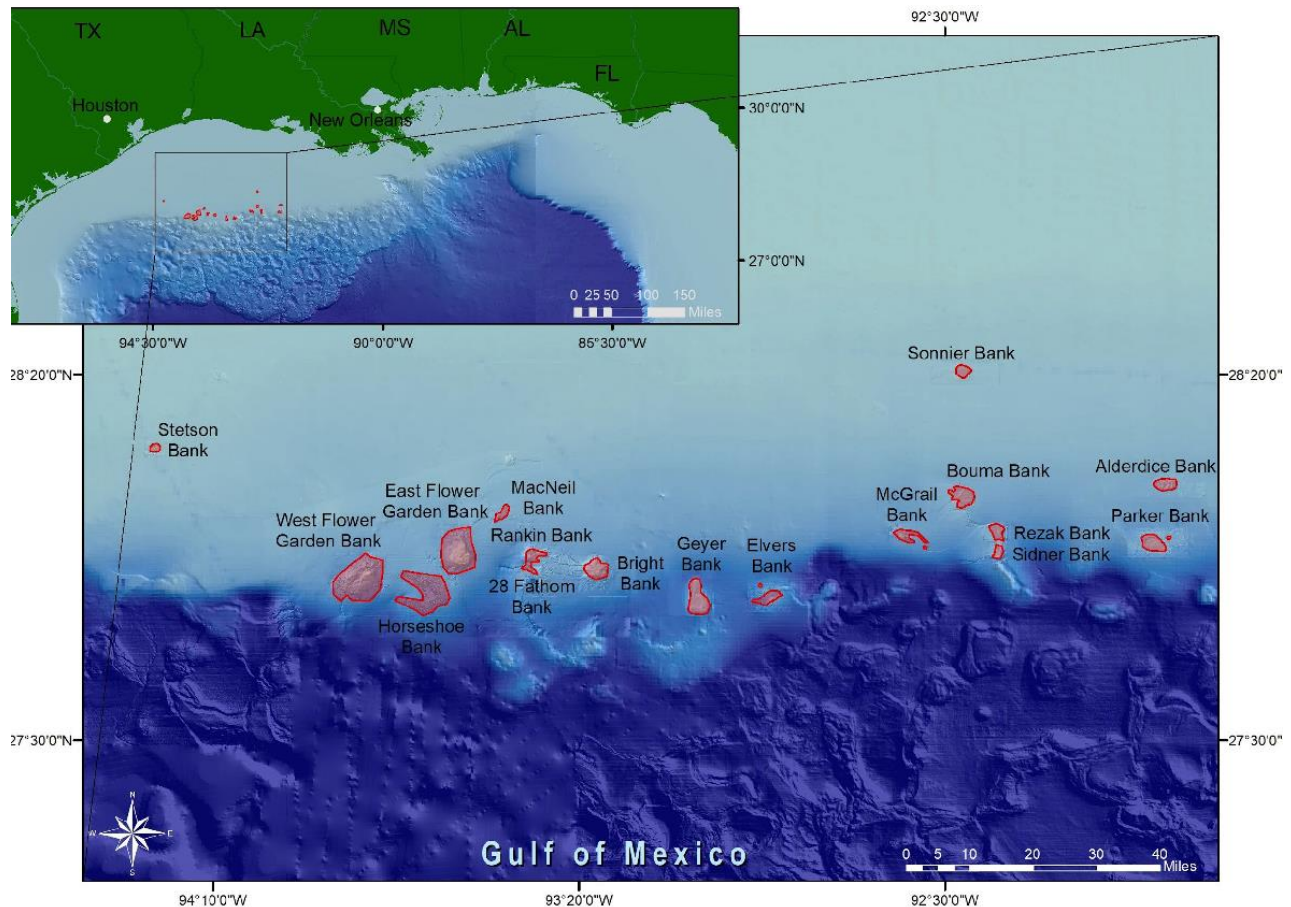
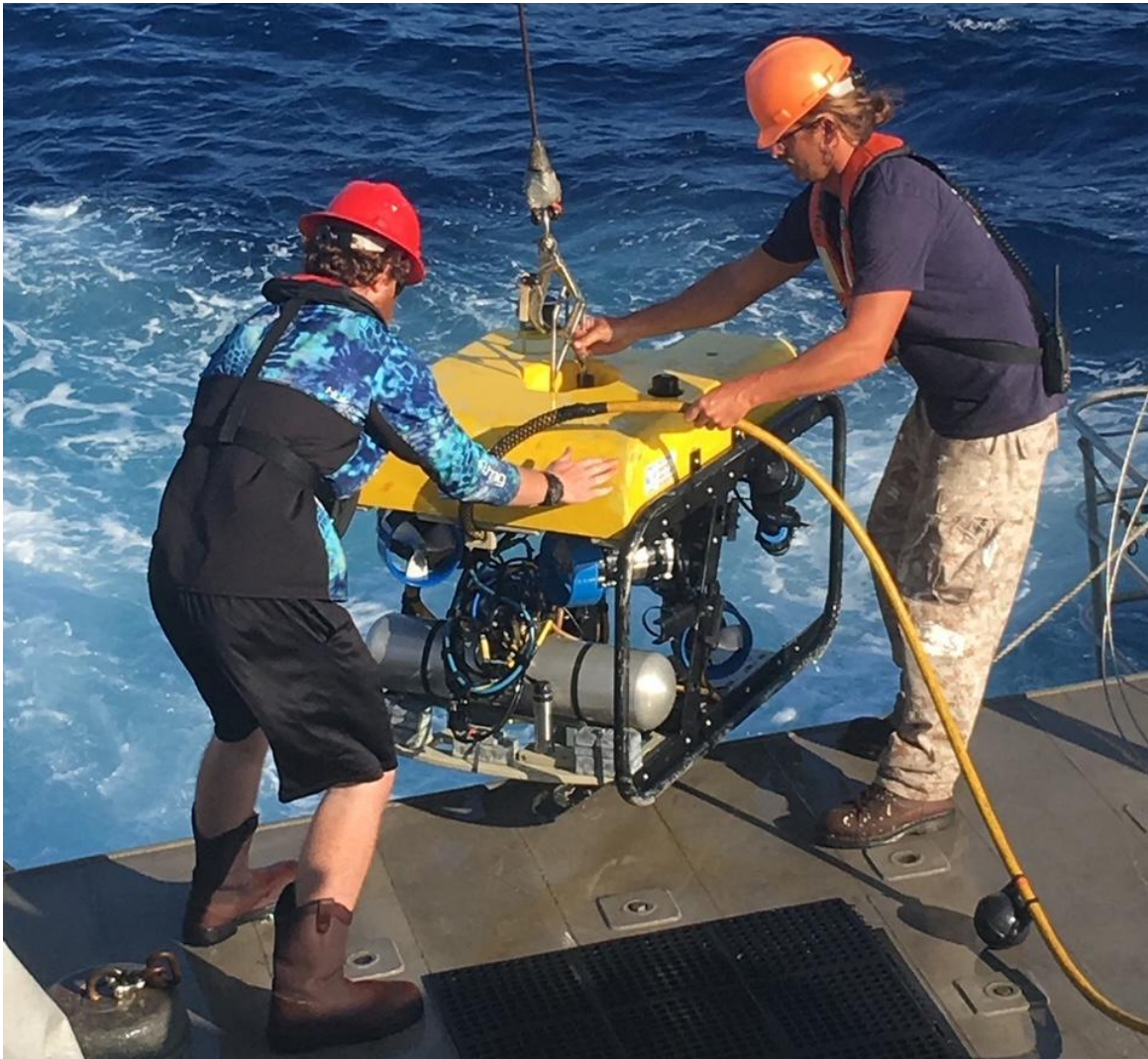


Figure 2. FGBNMS boundaries following the 2021 sanctuary expansion. Image: NOAA

As anthropogenic stressors (e.g., shipping activity, oil and gas exploration) continue to increase along the outer continental shelf of the U.S. in the Gulf of Mexico, the hazards of increased marine debris from both marine and land-based operations become more severe (Katsanevakis & Maravelias, 2008). Because of the growing concern regarding marine debris in the sanctuary, this analysis assessed the extent and composition of benthic debris located in and near sanctuary boundaries, as well as on Bryant Bank, an area considered but ultimately not selected for expansion. The objectives of this report were to identify marine debris items and their likely source, as well as describe the spatial distribution and abundance of debris among mesophotic and deep benthic habitats. These data, collected along remotely operated vehicle (ROV) tracks, provide a snapshot of the seafloor conditions and serve as a baseline for benthic marine debris in newly protected areas of the sanctuary.

## Chapter 2: Methods



University of North Carolina at Wilmington Underwater Vehicle Program ROV pilot Jason White and FGBNMS volunteer Hawkins Williams, launch the Mohawk ROV aboard FGBNMS's R/V *Manta*. Photo: Kelly O'Connell/NOAA

## Field Methods

Marine debris data were gathered opportunistically during research cruises and surveys. ROV surveys were conducted primarily aboard R/V *Manta*, an 82-foot catamaran dedicated to research and monitoring in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico. The vessel is equipped with an A-frame and winch configured for ROV operations. Debris items were recorded and annotated during exploration and characterization surveys. FGBNMS collected marine debris data alongside biological data during 38 research cruises and over 570 ROV dives since 2001. Depth within the survey area ranged from 22 to 150 meters. These data were part of a larger annotated dataset collected throughout the entirety of each dive to document time, location, events, fish and benthic biological occurrence with relative abundance, habitat type, and items of note. Time codes synced to georeferenced dive tracks, still and video imagery, and annotations were reviewed to characterize debris type and location. The ability to identify and access debris depended on visibility, degree of seafloor relief, and condition of the items (e.g., degree of degradation and overgrowth).

Surveys between 2001 and 2013 were completed using the ROV *Phantom S2*, owned and operated by the University of North Carolina at Wilmington Underwater Vehicle Program. This system was equipped with a Pacific Scorpio digital still camera, a TrackPoint II navigation system, and two parallel spot lasers set at 10 centimeters in both the video and the still camera frames for scale. Surveys after 2013 utilized the SubAtlantic ROV *Mohawk 18*, owned by the National Marine Sanctuary Foundation and operated and maintained by the University of North Carolina at Wilmington Underwater Vehicle Program. The ROV was equipped with an Insite Pacific Mini Zeus II HD video camera with two Deep Sea Power and Light 3100 LED lights, a tool skid with an ECA Robotics five-function all-electric manipulator, two parallel spot lasers set at 10 centimeters in both the video and the still camera frames for scale, and a LinkQuest Tracklink navigation system.

## Data Analysis

ROV cruise data were analyzed to determine the date, time, location, and depth of marine debris. By common practice, debris items were photographed during field operations for archiving. Notes on the date and time of marine debris encounters were used to locate still images captured from video footage to determine the composition, type, and likely source of each item.

Debris items were identified on video and still images and binned into seven categories based on their likely source: anchoring, fishing, human, oil and gas, research, salvage, and vessel. Marine debris was recorded at 28 Fathom, Alderdice, Bouma, Bryant, Elvers, Geyer, Horseshoe, MacNeil, McGrail, Parker, Rankin, Rezak, Sidner, Sonnier, and Stetson banks, as well as East Flower Garden Bank (EFGB) and West Flower Garden Bank (WFGB). Debris was not collected, and the selection of categories reflects FGBNMS's ultimate goal of managing littering behavior rather than fully documenting specific objects based on criteria such as composition or size. In addition to its practical utility, classification by source is an approach considered feasible and appropriate when debris is documented remotely (Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission, 2009). Using this approach, miscellaneous human-made items such as aluminum

cans or bottles are lumped together regardless of composition. Rope with an associated chain was assumed to result from anchoring. Although salvage activities occur exclusively on Bright Bank, this category was included to bring awareness to the destruction of habitat that may result from treasure hunting activities. The impact of this activity on the marine environment is limited in scale compared to other sources of debris. Table 1 provides more examples of common debris in each category.

Table 1. Marine debris source categories with examples of common types of debris that fall within each category.

Category	Common Examples
Anchoring	Ropes, anchors, dragline, cables
Fishing	Line, tackle, nets, longlines, trawling gear, turtle exclusion devices
Human	Bottles, cans, plastic, tires, miscellaneous human-made debris
Oil and gas	Pipeline, seismic cable
Research	Weather buoys, materials from old research stations
Salvage	Scaffolding gear, rigging tools
Vessel	Batteries, ship materials, ladders, fire hoses, flanges

Some observations lend themselves to further investigation. Photos containing anchors, for example, were analyzed by a historian to determine their style and age, and could reveal insights about historical use of the sanctuary (H. Van Tilburg/NOAA, personal communication, 2021).

The number of items observed was calculated by category and bank. To standardize for differences in sampling effort on each bank (Table 2), item encounter rate was calculated by dividing the number of items by the number of ROV dives performed on each bank. Category encounter rate was calculated by dividing the total number of items per category by the total number of ROV dives. Depth was recorded from annotations when available and obtained from the ROV navigation file when absent.

It should be noted that standardization by number of dives does not fully adjust for effort, as surveys differed in length and covered different distances across various habitats. Average bottom distance traveled was 2,480 meters, but ranged from 50 to 96,500 meters. Time and distance were not used in this analysis to adjust for effort.

Table 2. Survey details describing the years marine debris were surveyed and the number of dives completed at each bank.

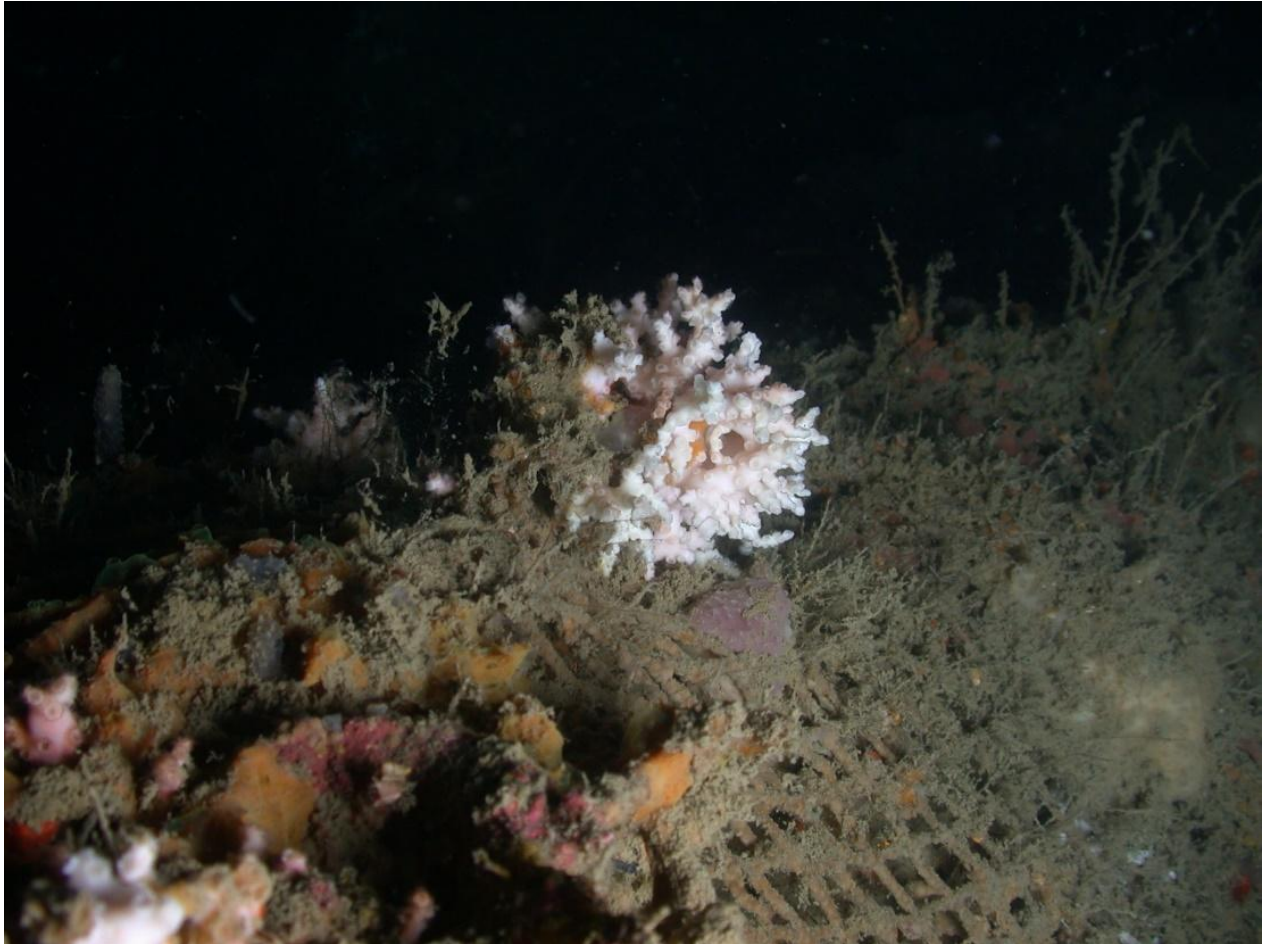
Bank	Years Surveyed	Number of Dives
28 Fathom	2003, 2012, 2017, 2018	14
Alderdice	2002, 2003, 2013, 2015, 2017, 2018	25
Bouma	2013, 2015, 2016, 2018	15
Bright	2003, 2012, 2015, 2017, 2018	21
Bryant	2015, 2016	7
EFGB	2002, 2003, 2004, 2005 2010, 2011, 2013, 2015, 2016, 2018, 2019	105
Elvers	2013, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018	32
Geyer	2004, 2012, 2018	15
Horseshoe	2004, 2005, 2011, 2015	14
MacNeil	2009, 2017	8
McGrail	2002, 2003, 2004, 2009, 2013, 2017	42
Parker	2013, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018	39
Rankin	2012, 2015	15
Rezak	2013, 2015, 2016, 2018	18
Sidner	2013, 2015, 2016, 2018	15
Sonnier	2002, 2013, 2017	13
Stetson	2003, 2004, 2005, 2009, 2013, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019	73
WFGB	2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2010, 2011, 2012	99

ANOVA assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were assessed with the Kolmogorov test. Because data failed the assumptions of normal distribution, nonparametric tests were used for the statistical analyses of the two types of data, count and encounter rate. Debris data were examined to evaluate how the presence and abundance of debris varied among debris types and banks.

Due to the frequency of zero counts (i.e., no debris observed) and overdispersion in variance, count data were analyzed using a zero-altered negative binomial (hurdle) model that is often used for zero-inflated data and does not follow a Poisson distribution (Cunningham & Lindenmayer, 2005). The Vuong test for non-nested models confirmed that the excess of zeros resulted in the rejection of a standard negative binomial model (in favor of a zero-altered model;  $z = 3.43$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). The zero-inflated model was a better fit for debris count data because it separately calculated the probability of being in a “perfect state” (zero marine debris) and in a “disturbed state” (non-zero values). In the first step, the debris was scored as present or absent, and the presence/absence data were modeled using a binomial distribution and a log link. At sites where debris was present, the number of debris items was modeled with a truncated negative binomial model with log link.

Marine debris encounter rate was compared among sites using the Kruskal–Wallis test. A pairwise post-hoc Dunn test was then performed to determine which debris categories were driving differences. The statistical analyses were performed using R Version 4.1.1 (R Core Team, 2021) and R software package ‘pscl’ (Zeileis et al., 2010).

## Chapter 3: Results



A branching *Oculina* spp. coral growing on top of a derelict fishing net on Stetson Bank at a depth of 41 m. Photo: NOAA/University of North Carolina at Wilmington Underwater Vehicle Program

A total of 485 marine debris items were documented during ROV surveys, with 478 items found on or near protected banks (Table 3). The most common category was fishing debris (303 items, representing 63.4% of all observations). Fishing debris included monofilament line, longline, trawling gear, nets, turtle exclusion devices, and miscellaneous items used for commercial or recreational fishing. The second most common type of debris was from anchoring (87 items, representing 18.2% of observations). This included dragline, rope, chain, and anchors. The remaining categories, in decreasing order, were human, oil and gas, vessel, research, and salvage. The total number of items and percent composition of each debris category is displayed in Table 3.

Table 3: Number of debris items by bank and category and percent composition by category.

Bank	Anchoring	Fishing	Human	Oil and Gas	Research	Salvage	Vessel	Total (by Bank)
28 Fathom	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	4
Alderdice	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	6
Bouma	2	1	1	0	0	0	1	5
Bright	4	14	1	2	0	3	0	24
Bryant	1	3	1	0	0	0	0	5
EFGB	14	21	11	4	1	0	4	55
Elvers	3	6	1	0	0	0	1	11
Geyer	0	4	1	0	0	0	0	5
Horseshoe	1	18	2	0	0	0	0	21
MacNeil	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
McGrail	6	11	19	1	0	0	0	37
Parker	3	12	1	1	0	0	0	17
Rankin	3	10	0	0	0	0	0	13
Rezak	1	7	0	0	0	0	0	8
Sidner	4	13	3	1	0	0	0	21
Sonnier	2	18	0	0	2	0	0	22
Stetson	25	110	9	3	1	0	3	151
WFGB	15	50	2	6	0	0	0	73
Total (by Category)	87	303	54	18	4	3	9	478
Percent of All Debris	18.2	63.4	11.3	3.8	0.8	0.6	1.9	



To adjust for differing dive effort at each bank, results are presented as encounter rate  $\pm$  standard error. Fishing debris had the highest encounter rate, with  $0.53 \pm 0.11$  items observed per dive. Anchoring debris was second, with  $0.15 \pm 0.02$  items per dive. Results for these and other categories are shown in Figure 3.

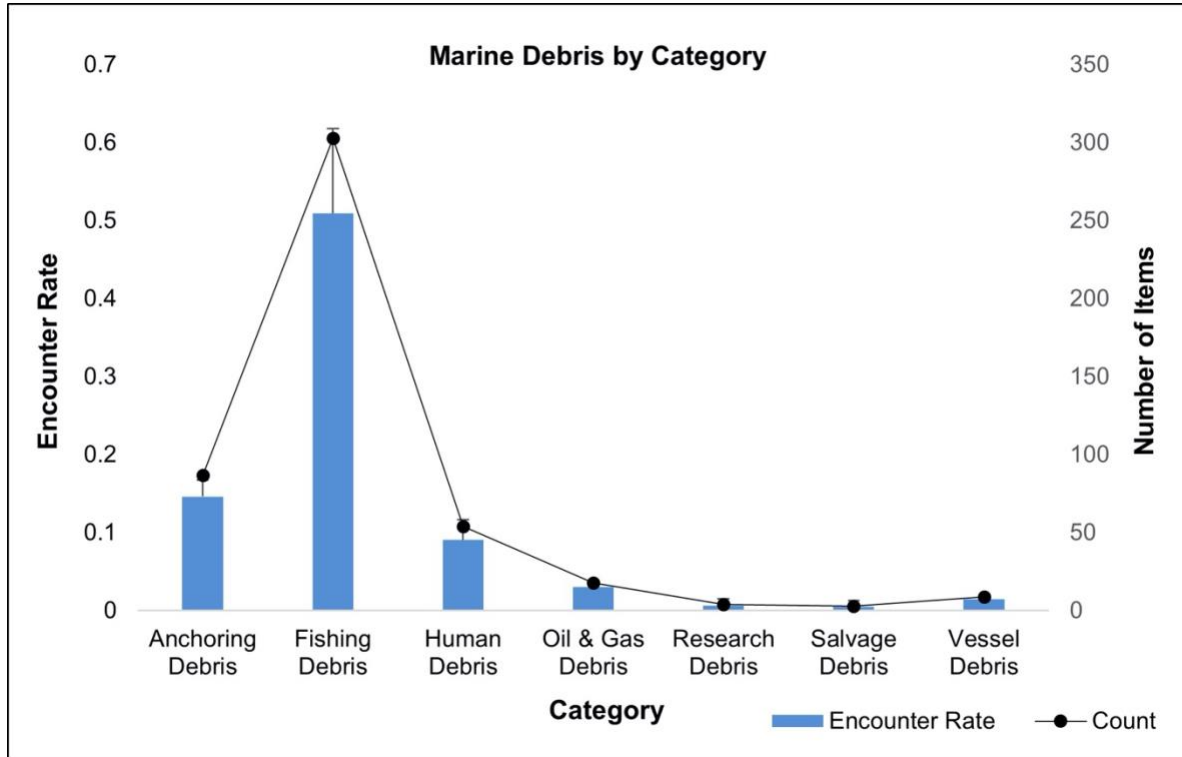


Figure 3. Encounter rate and debris count in each debris category found in the study area.

Stetson Bank had the highest marine debris encounter rate at 2.1 items per dive. Sonnier and Horseshoe banks had the second and third highest rates, with 1.7 and 1.5 items encountered per dive, respectively. Encounter rates are shown for each bank in Figure 4.

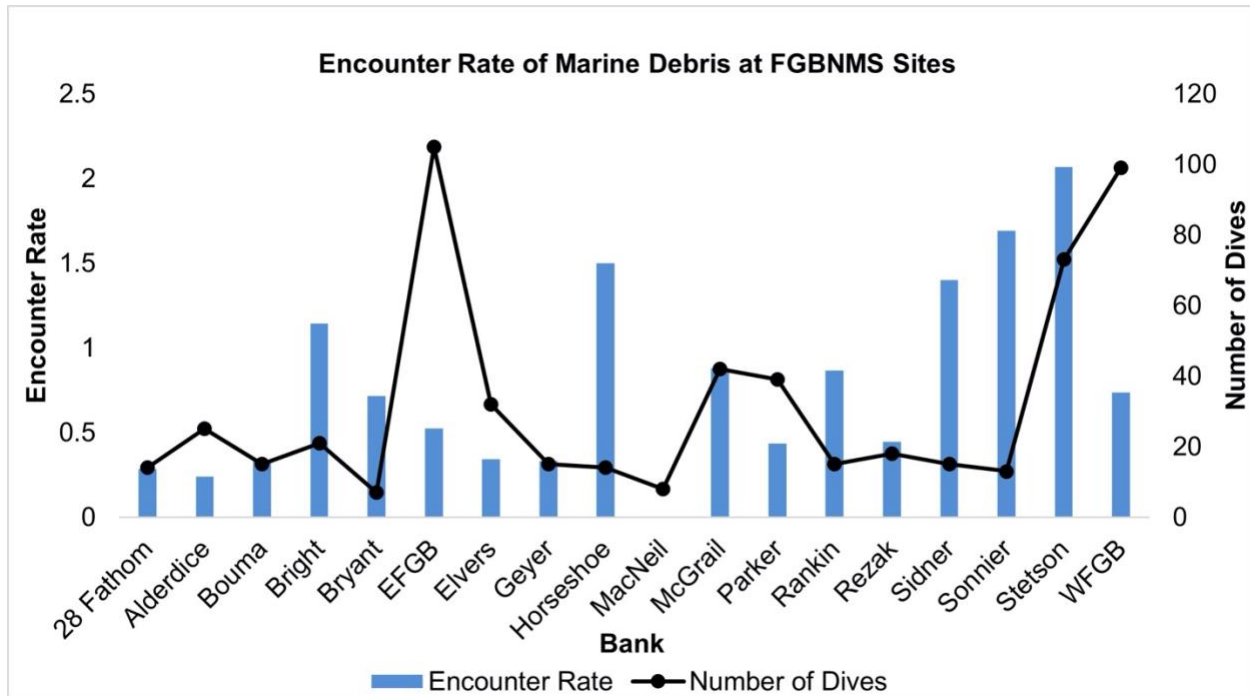


Figure 4. Encounter rate of marine debris in surveys at each bank.

When marine debris was categorized by type and by bank (Figure 5), it was apparent that the majority of marine debris found among the reefs and banks was fishing gear. Stetson Bank had the highest occurrence rate with 1.5 fishing items per dive followed by Sonnier Bank and Horseshoe Bank with 1.4 and 1.3 items per dive, respectively. Next was anchoring, with 0.3 items per dive at Stetson Bank and 0.3 and 0.2 items per dive at Sidner Bank and Rankin Bank, respectively. Tables with more detailed information can be found in Appendix B.

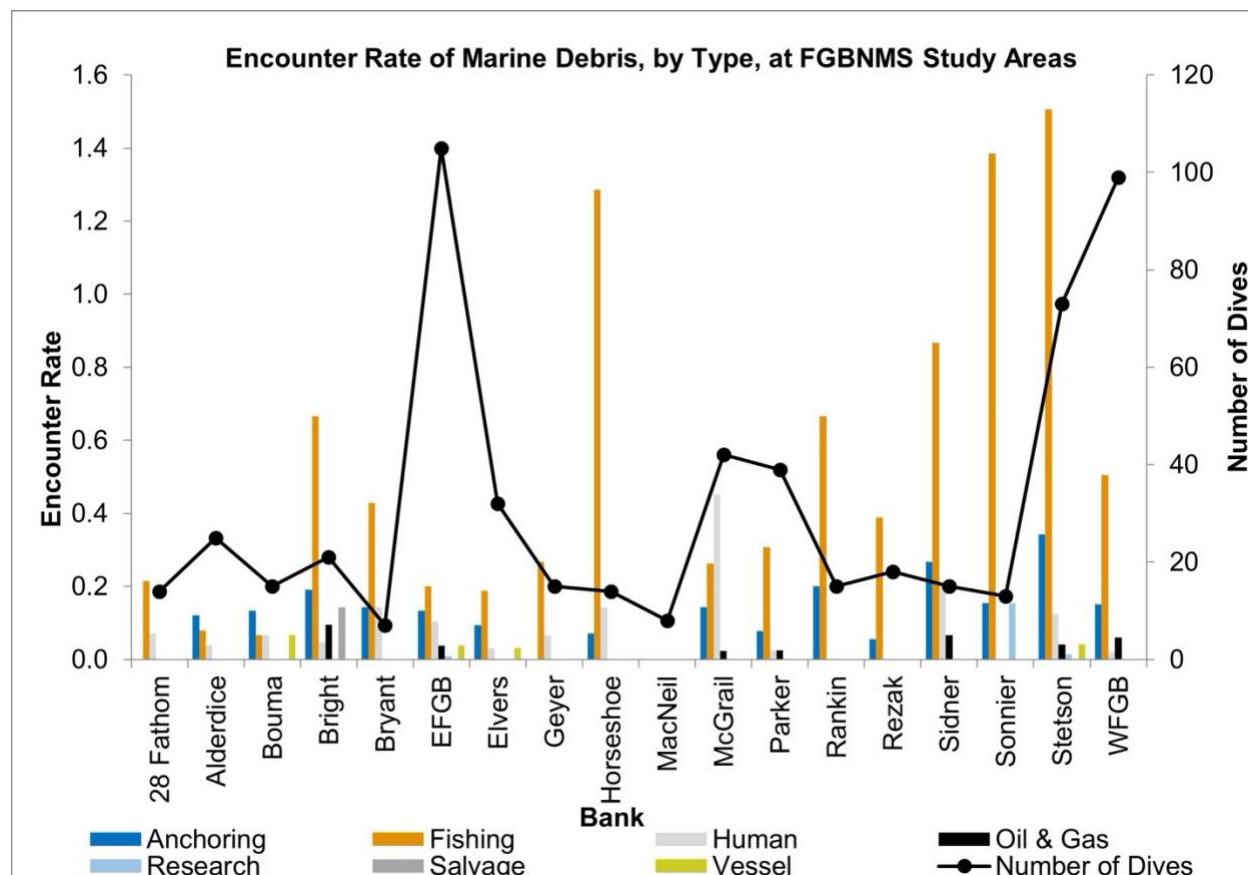


Figure 5. Number of items observed per dive at individual banks for each category of marine debris.

Debris count data were assessed with the hurdle model in two parts. The results from the zero-distribution model indicated that the debris count varied significantly by bank and debris type. Debris was more likely to be present at Bouma, Bright, EFGB, Elvers, McGrail, Parker, Stetson, and WFGB. Oil and gas, research, and vessel debris were statistically less likely to be encountered within the study sites (Table 4).

Results from the positive count distribution model indicate that bank and debris type significantly influence the abundance of debris when present. Debris was more likely to be abundant at Bright, EFGB, Horseshoe, McGrail, Sidner, Sonnier, Stetson, and WFGB. Fishing debris was significantly more likely to be abundant than any other type of debris and oil and gas, research, and vessel debris were significantly less likely to be abundant than other types of debris (Table 5).

Table 4. Part one of the zero hurdle binomial model with logit link, modeling presence/absence of debris. Significant values are presented with asterisks (\* $p = 0.05$ , \*\* $p = 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ ).

Factor Type	Category	Coefficient	P-value
Overall	Intercept	0.32	0.847
Bank	Alderdice	2.33	0.310
Bank	Bouma	4.55	0.046*
Bank	Bright	6.05	0.008**
Bank	Bryant	2.33	0.311
Bank	EFGB	7.63	0.002**

Factor Type	Category	Coefficient	P-value
Bank	Elvers	4.56	0.045*
Bank	Geyer	3.64e-09	1.000
Bank	Horseshoe	2.33	0.311
Bank	McGrail	4.56	0.046*
Bank	Parker	4.56	0.046*
Bank	Rankin	3.64e-09	1.000
Bank	Rezak	3.64e-09	1.000
Bank	Sidner	4.56	0.046*
Bank	Sonnier	2.33	0.311
Bank	Stetson	7.63	0.002**
Bank	WFGB	4.56	0.046*
Debris type	Fishing	17.51	0.996
Debris type	Human	-0.72	0.556
Debris type	Oil and gas	-4.49	0.004**
Debris type	Research	-6.62	0.000***
Debris type	Salvage	-8.51	0.000***
Debris type	Vessel	-5.98	0.001***

Table 5. Part two, truncated negative binomial model with log link, modeling debris abundance. Significant values are presented with asterisks (\* $p = 0.05$ , \*\* $p = 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ ).

Factor Type	Category	Coefficient	P-value
Overall	Intercept	-0.47	0.549
Bank	Alderdice	0.31	0.751
Bank	Bouma	-0.72	0.566
Bank	Bright	1.69	0.041*
Bank	Bryant	-0.18	0.865
Bank	EFGB	2.98	0.000***
Bank	Elvers	0.93	0.289
Bank	Geyer	0.34	0.729
Bank	Horseshoe	1.66	0.045*
Bank	McGrail	2.73	0.001***
Bank	Parker	1.39	0.097
Bank	Rankin	1.45	0.092
Bank	Rezak	0.85	0.347
Bank	Sidner	1.72	0.038*
Bank	Sonnier	1.92	0.023*
Bank	Stetson	3.50	0.000***
Bank	WFGB	3.03	0.000***
Debris type	Fishing	1.32	0.000***
Debris type	Human	-0.45	0.113
Debris type	Oil & Gas	-1.48	0.000***
Debris type	Research	-3.08	0.003**
Debris type	Salvage	-0.23	0.788
Debris type	Vessel	-1.65	0.002**
Overall	Log (theta)	1.96	0.000***

Conversely, marine debris encounter rate did not differ significantly among the banks, suggesting that the differences found in the count data were likely an artifact of effort (Kruskal-Wallis test;  $\chi^2 = 9.732$ ,  $df = 16$ ,  $p = 0.88$ ). However, the encounter rate of different types of debris differed significantly ( $\chi^2 = 77.947$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). A pairwise post-hoc Dunn test

showed significant differences between some categories, with fishing debris driving most of those differences; fishing debris encounter rates were significantly greater than all other categories (Table 6).

Table 6. Results of a pairwise post-hoc Dunn test. Significant values are presented with asterisks (\* $p = 0.05$ , \*\* $p = 0.01$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ ).

	Anchoring	Fishing	Human	Oil and Gas	Research	Salvage
Fishing	$Z = -1.9881$ $p = 0.0234^*$	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Human	$Z = 1.1289$ $p = 0.1295$	$Z = 3.1170$ $p = 0.0009$	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Oil and Gas	$Z = 3.4210$ $p = 0.0003^*$	$Z = 5.4091$ $p = 0.0000^*$	$Z = 2.2921$ $p = 0.0109^*$	N/A	N/A	N/A
Research	$Z = 4.2934$ $p = 0.0000^*$	$Z = 6.2815$ $p = 0.0000^*$	$Z = 3.1646$ $p = 0.0008^*$	$Z = 0.8724$ $p = 0.1915$	N/A	N/A
Vessel	$Z = 4.1110$ $p = 0.0000^*$	$Z = 6.0991$ $p = 0.0000^*$	$Z = 2.9821$ $p = 0.0014^*$	$Z = 0.6900$ $p = 0.2451$	$Z = -0.1824$ $p = 0.4276$	$Z = -0.5235$ $p = 0.3003$

## ***Marine Debris Maps***

Maps were generated to show location and type of marine debris encountered at each bank explored in the study area. Additionally, images are included on each map to provide an example of the debris observed at that location. ROV survey tracks are included to show the locations at which marine debris was not observed. The caption on each map includes a description of the dominant forms of marine debris observed.

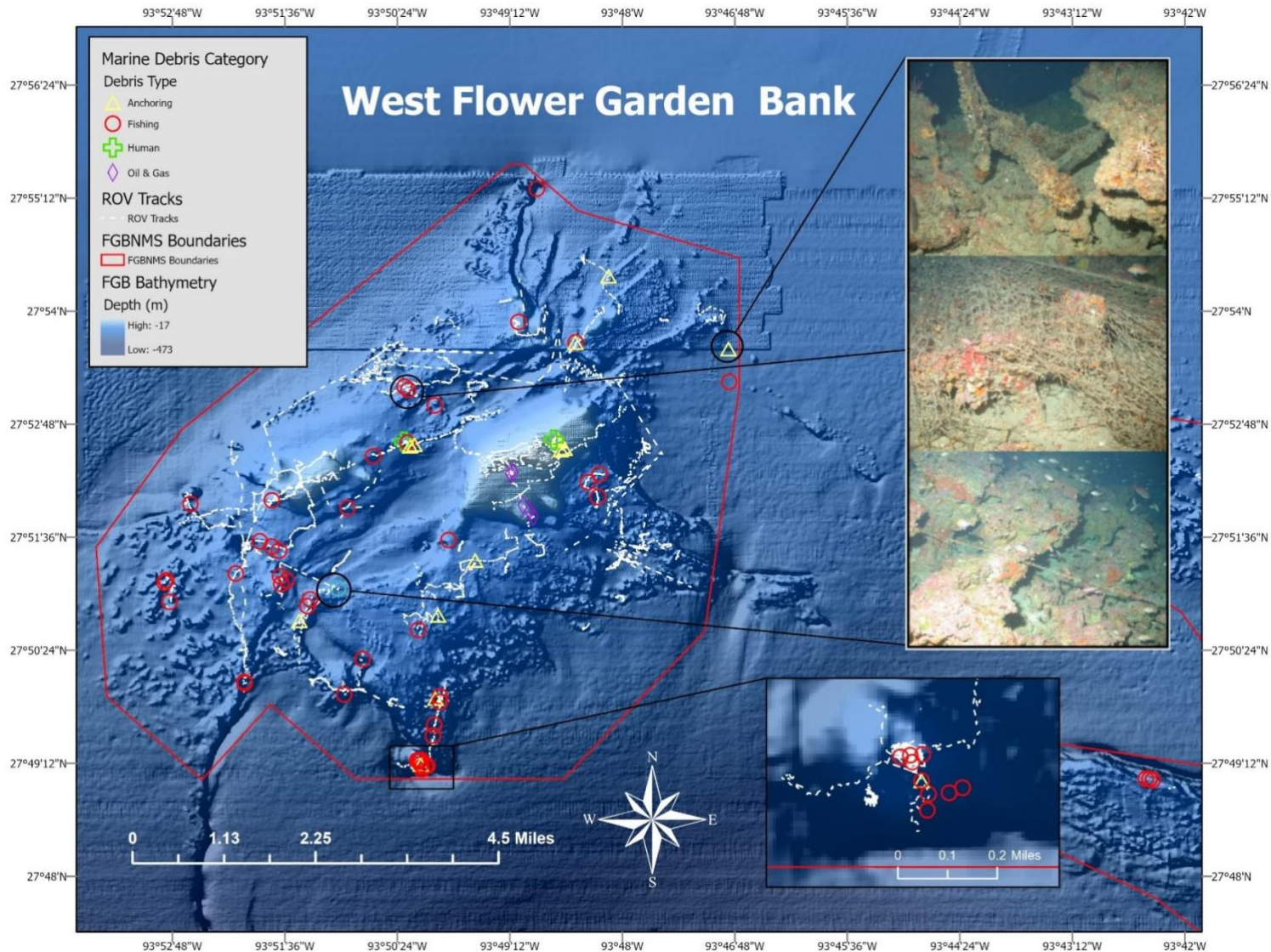


Figure 6. Marine debris at WFGB. Fishing debris, primarily monofilament line and fishing nets, accounted for 69% of marine litter recorded at WFGB. The majority of debris was in areas of higher topography, with fewer items in deeper regions and on soft bottom. Image: Kelly O'Connell/NOAA

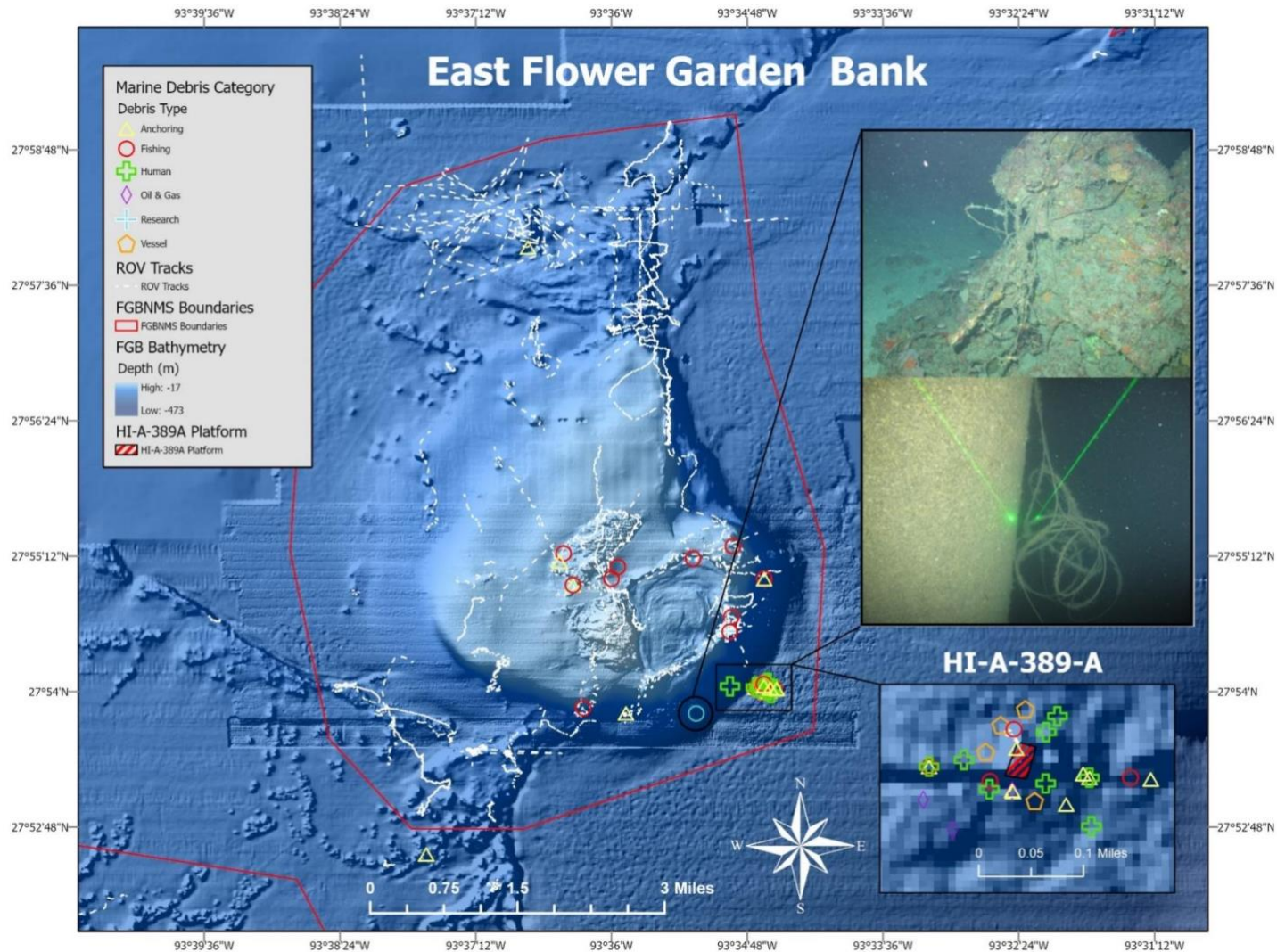


Figure 7. Marine debris at EFGB. Anchoring and fishing debris accounted for 25% and 38% of marine litter recorded at EFGB, respectively. The majority of fishing debris appeared to be in areas of higher topography on the southeastern edge of the bank. The debris near the oil and gas platform HI-A-389-A had higher concentrations of human, oil and gas, and vessel debris than those observed on the shallower features. Image: Kelly O'Connell/NOAA



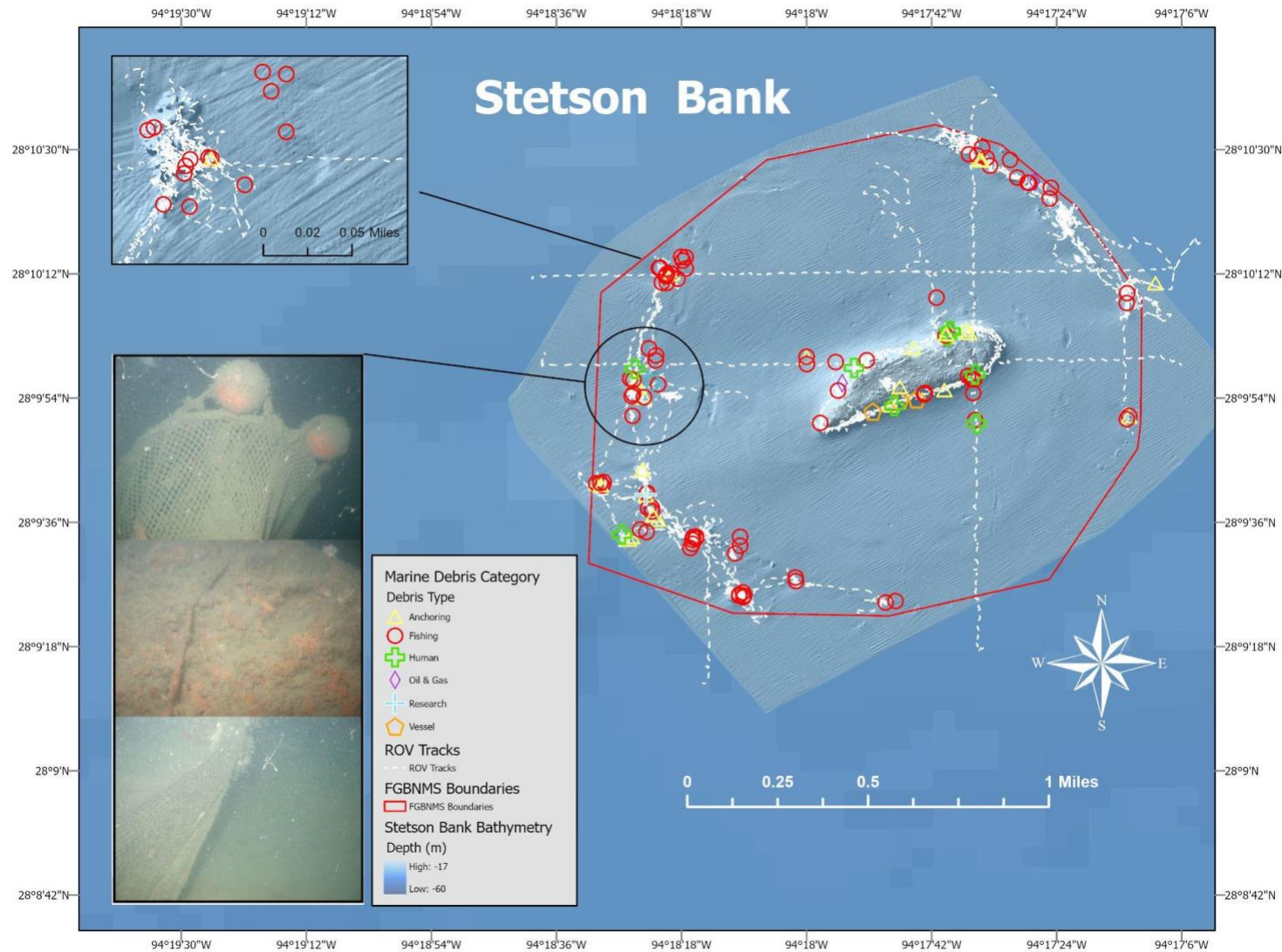


Figure 8. Marine debris at Stetson Bank, which had the highest debris encounter rate of any bank. Fishing debris made up 73% of items found at this mid-shelf bank. The majority was concentrated along the edge of the central feature and along the outer ring surrounding the bank, where the majority of survey effort occurred. Image: Kelly O'Connell/NOAA

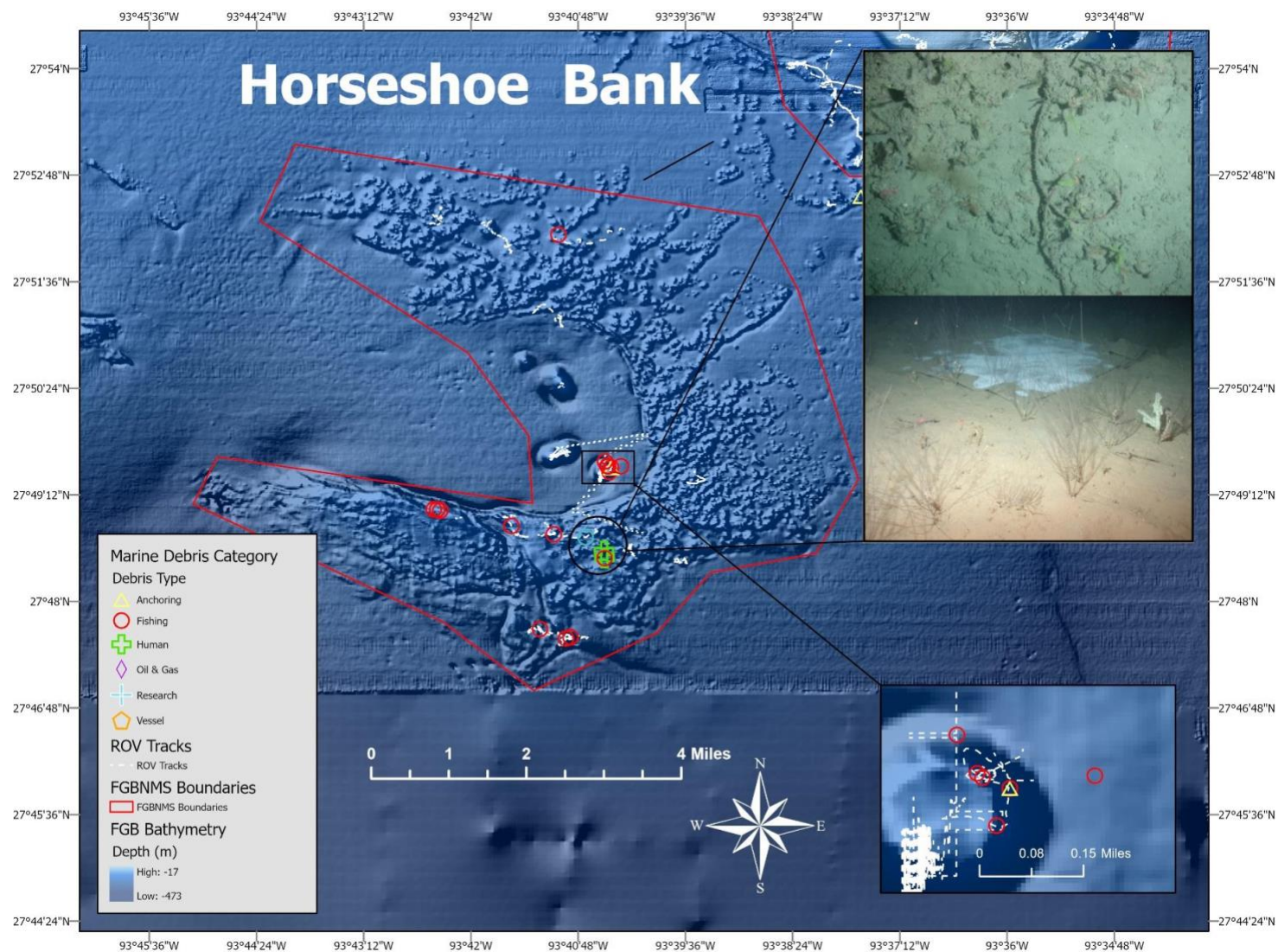


Figure 9. Marine debris at Horseshoe Bank, which had the third highest encounter among the banks surveyed. Fishing debris made up 86% of items at Horseshoe Bank, and all items were found within sanctuary boundaries. The majority of items were concentrated along topographical ledges in the center of the bank; however, human debris was concentrated in one area rather than spread across the bank. Image: Kelly O'Connell/NOAA

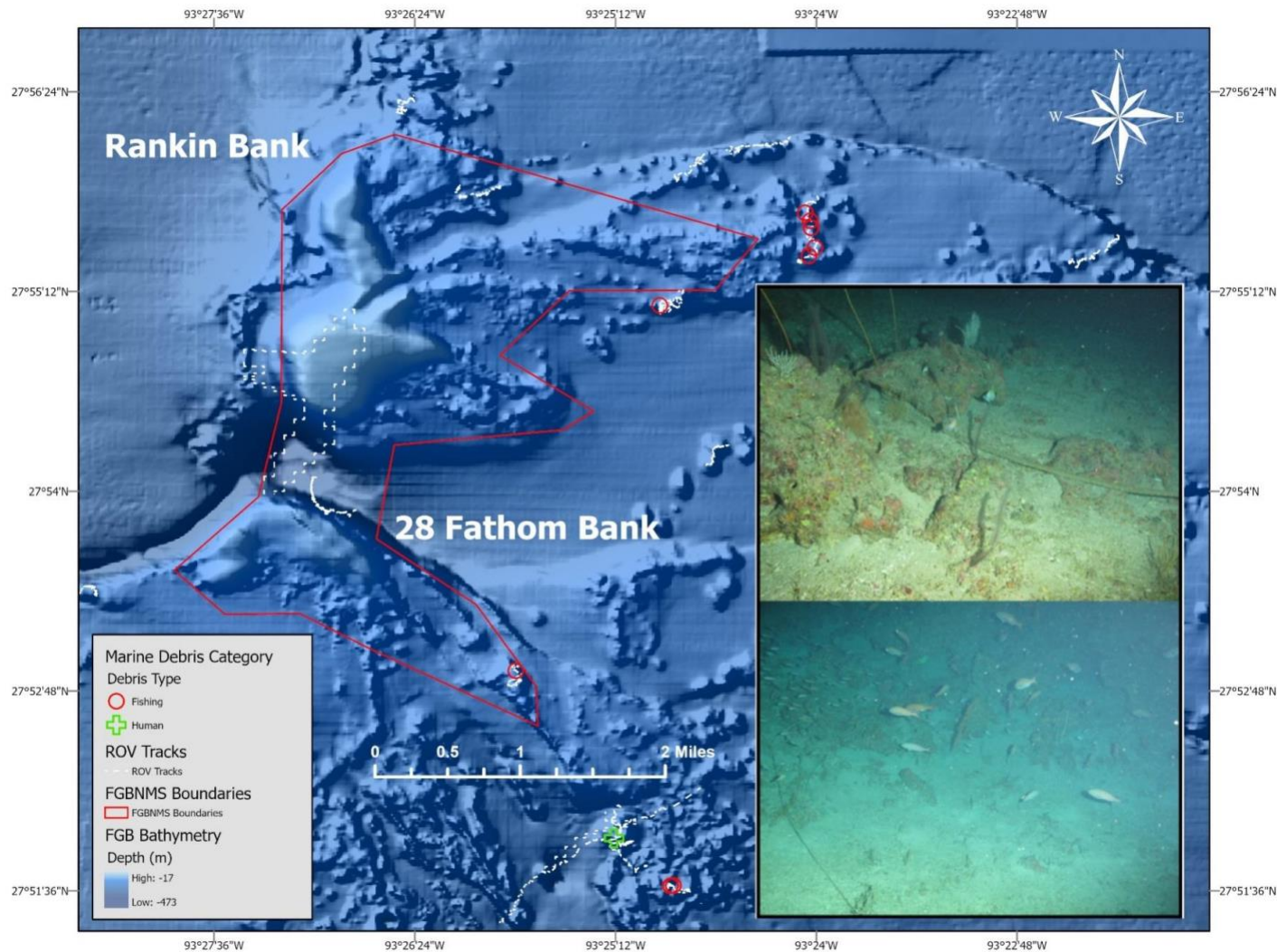


Figure 10. Marine debris at Rankin Bank and 28 Fathom Bank. All but one debris item was located outside the sanctuary boundaries at Rankin and 28 Fathom banks. This was not due to a lack of surveys, as ROV dives were conducted within sanctuary boundaries. Some items are not pictured as they were scattered in the deep reefs surrounding the banks. The majority of debris was related to fishing and anchoring, but encounter rates were comparatively low. Image: Kelly O'Connell/NOAA

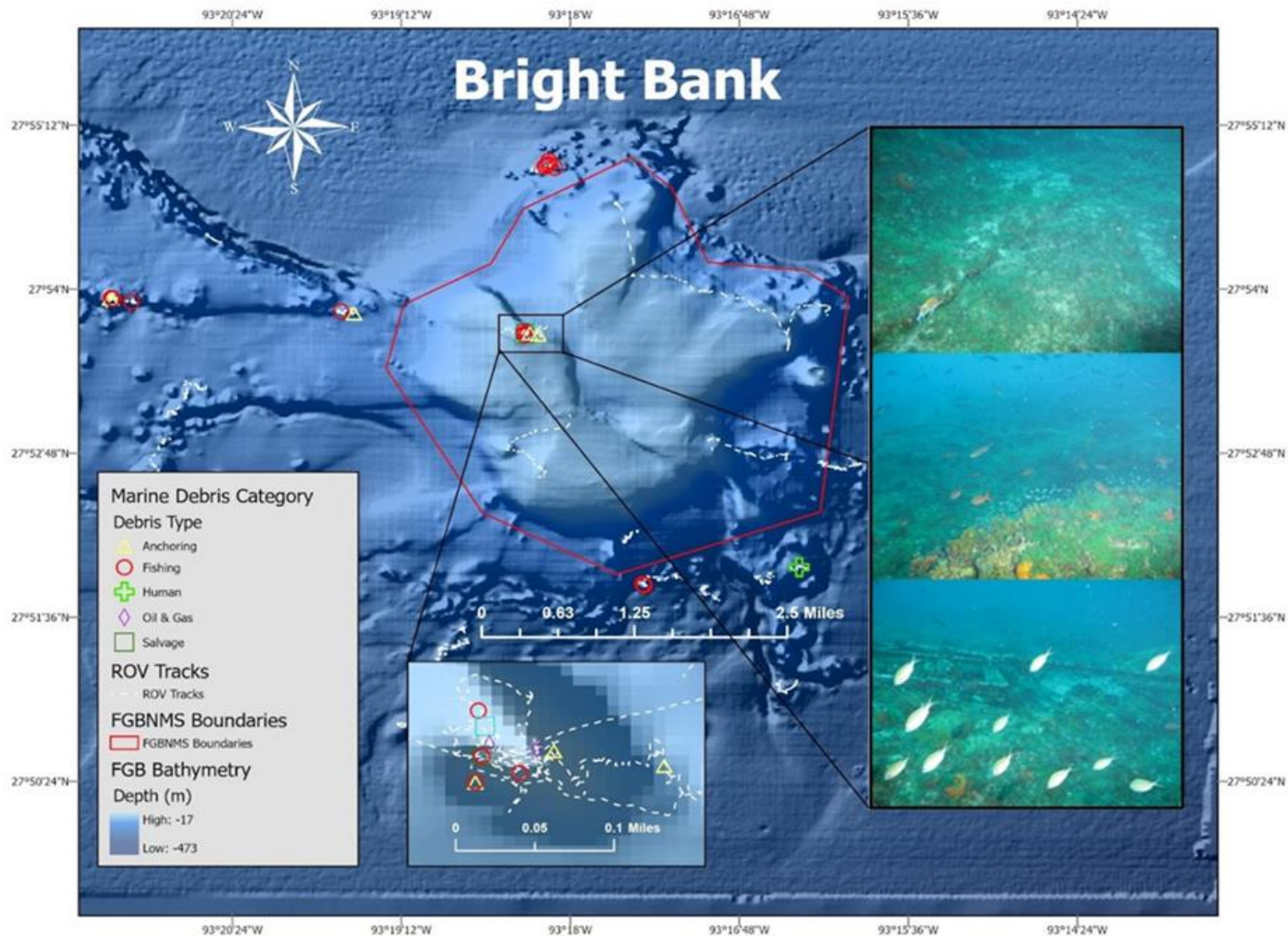


Figure 11. Marine debris at Bright Bank. Items were scattered both within and outside sanctuary boundaries. There were higher concentrations in clusters in higher topographical areas and along ridgelines. Anchoring and fishing debris tended to be clustered together, suggesting that fishing on the bank may be conducted from anchored vessels. Image: Kelly O'Connell/NOAA

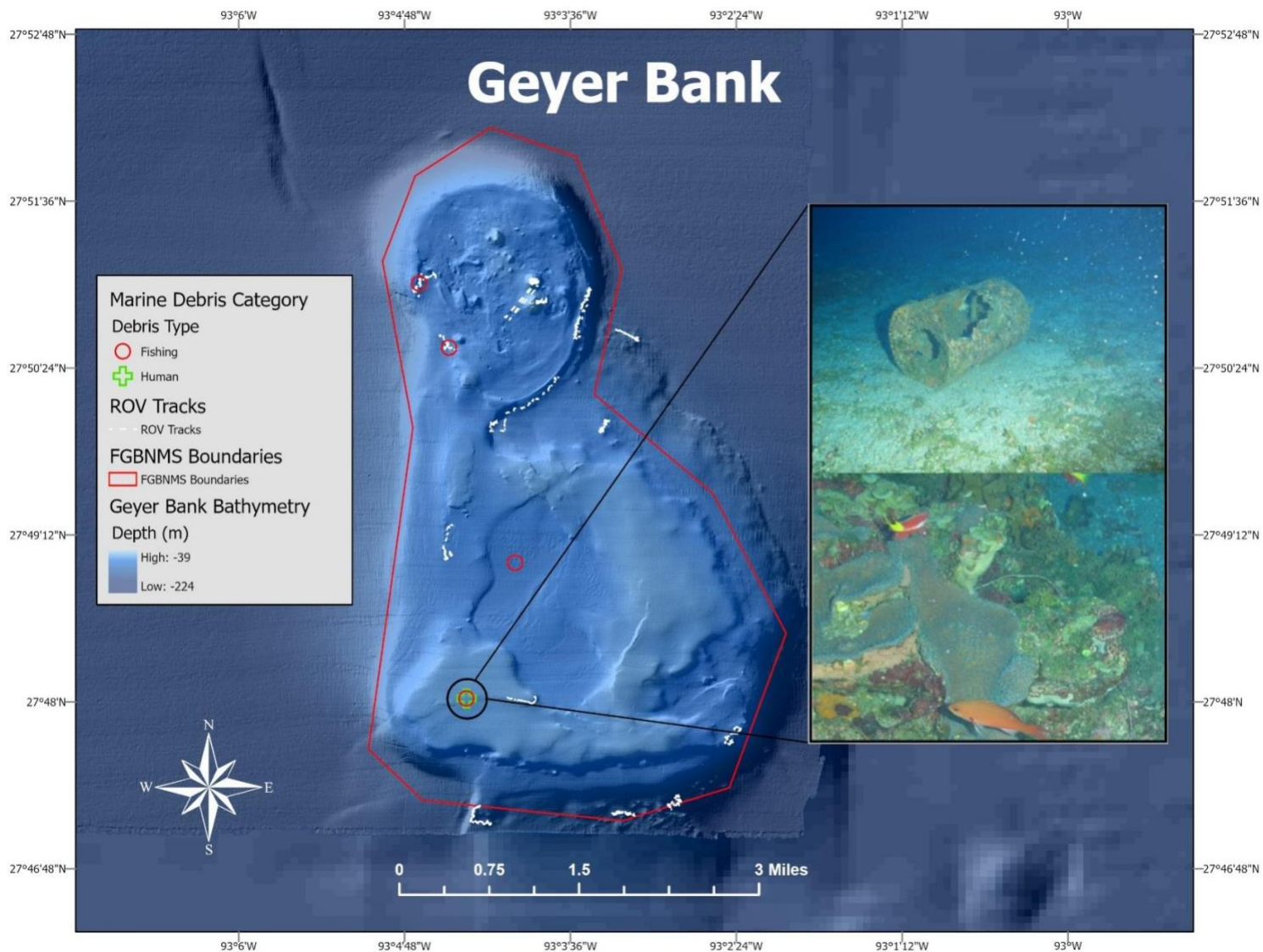


Figure 12. Marine debris at Geyer Bank. The only debris found at Geyer Bank was within sanctuary boundaries and consisted of fishing and human debris. Debris was concentrated on the highest topographical features near areas of the bank with stony corals. Image: Kelly O'Connell/NOAA

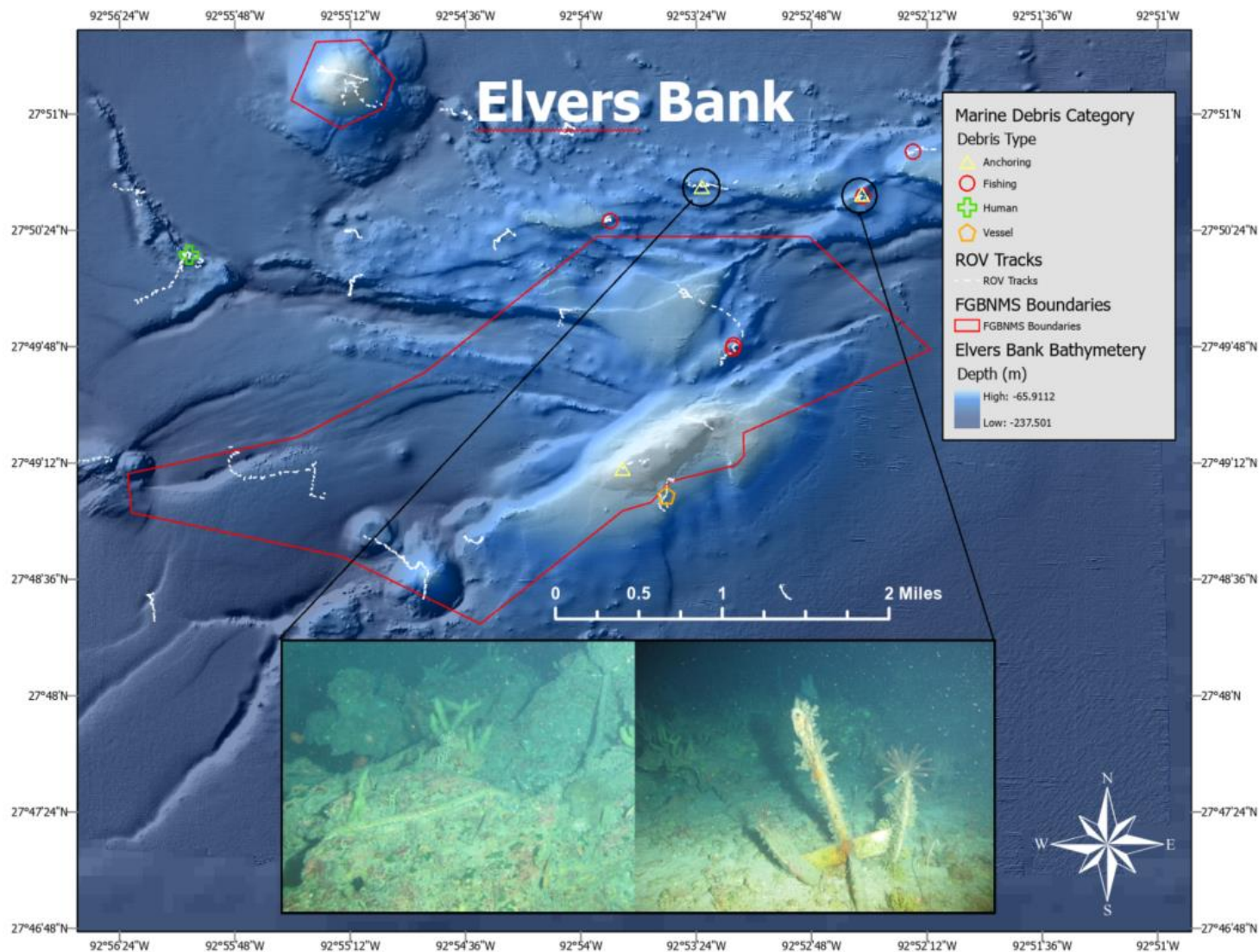


Figure 13. Marine debris at Elvers Bank. The bank had debris scattered within sanctuary boundaries and outside sanctuary boundaries, on surrounding features. Unlike many other banks, few items were found on the shallowest part of the reef. The anchors found on Elvers Bank were of modern design. Image: Kelly O'Connell/NOAA

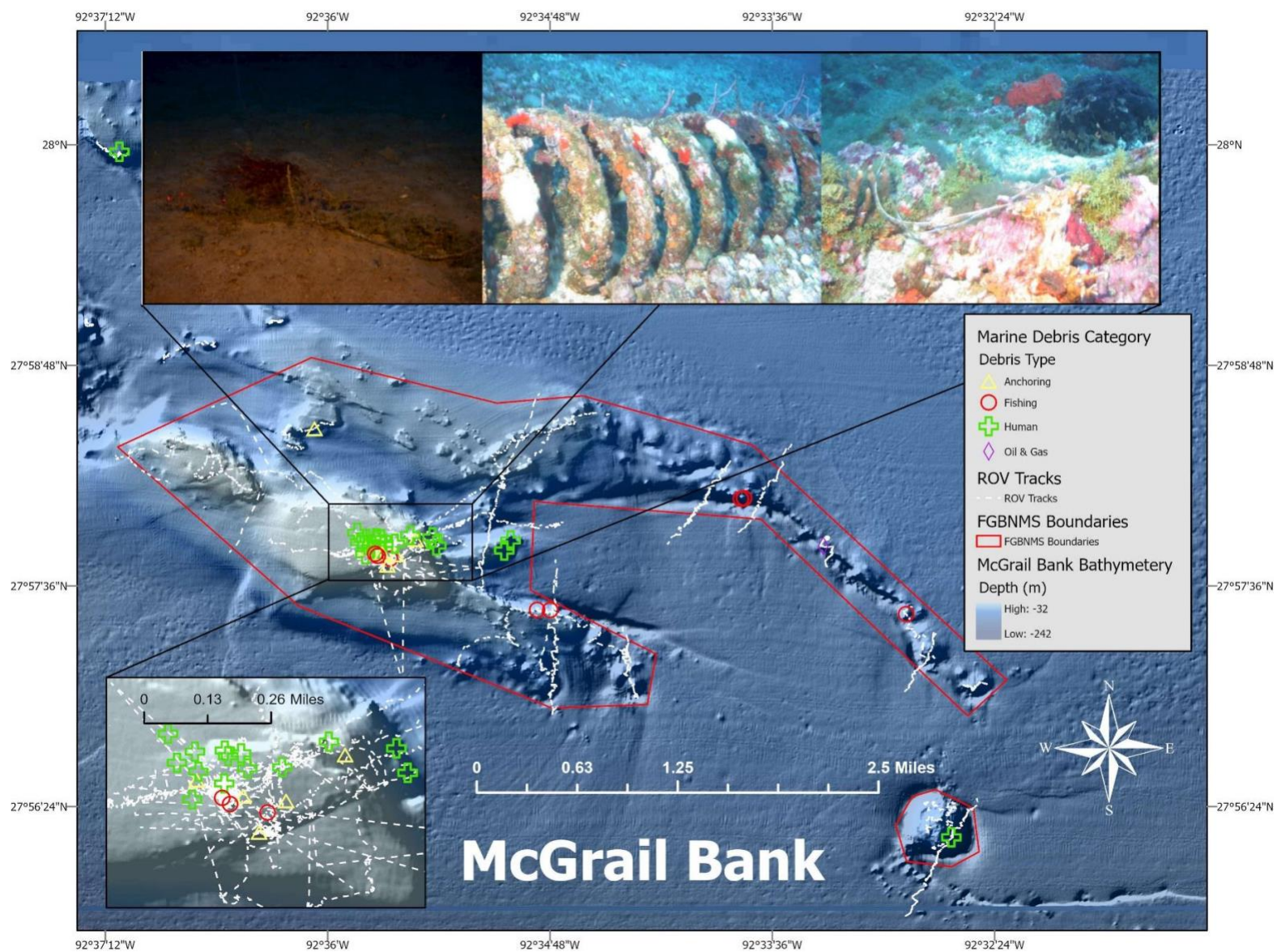


Figure 14. Marine debris at McGrail Bank. McGrail Bank had the largest proportion of observations of human debris (38%) of all banks. It was primarily concentrated in one area on the bank. Few items were found outside of sanctuary boundaries. Image: Kelly O'Connell/NOAA

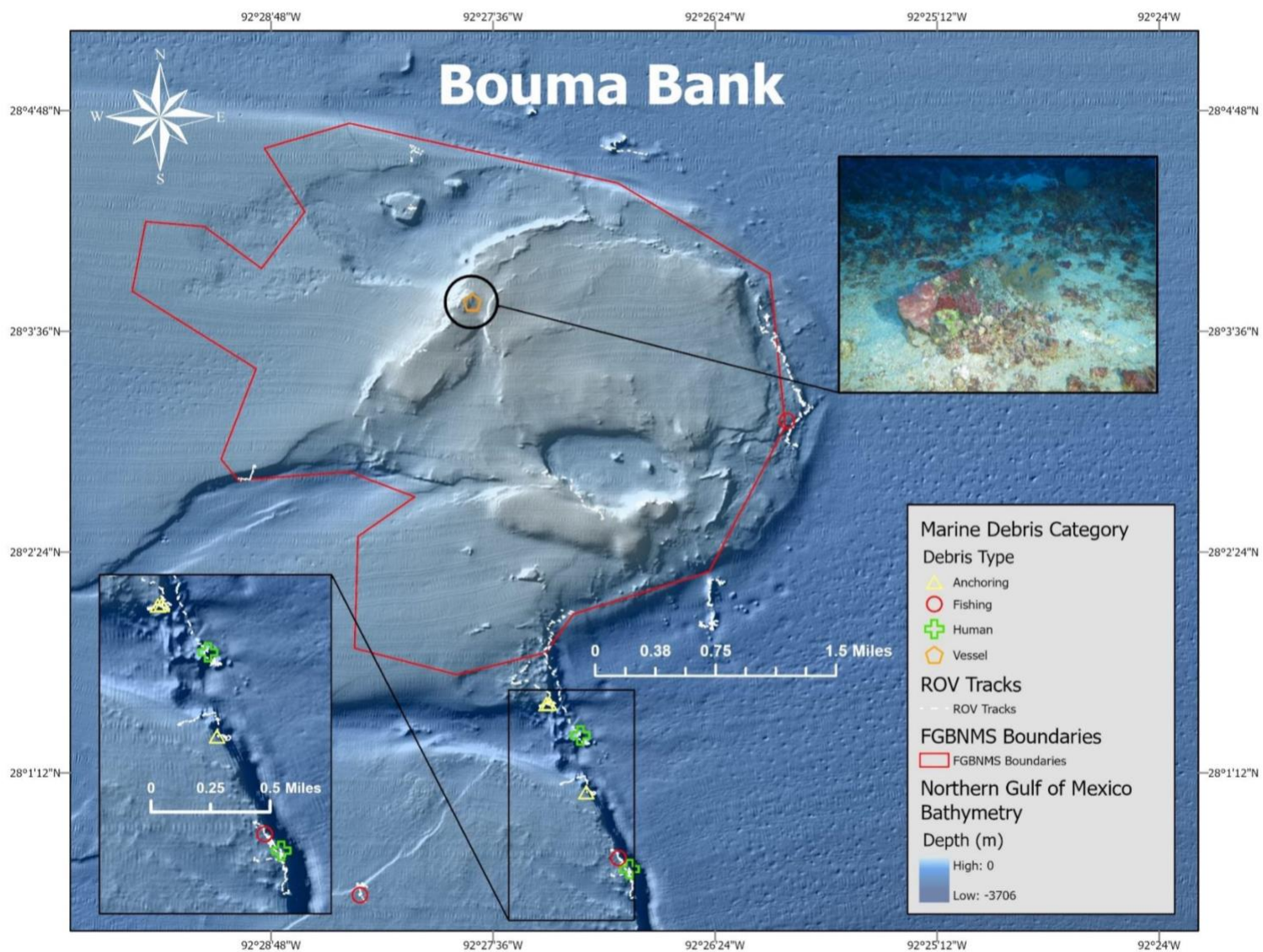


Figure 15. Marine debris at Bouma Bank, which had the third lowest debris encounter rate of all banks. The majority of debris was found south of the sanctuary boundary. Very few items were found in the coral habitats on the shallowest portion of Bouma Bank. Image: Kelly O'Connell/NOAA



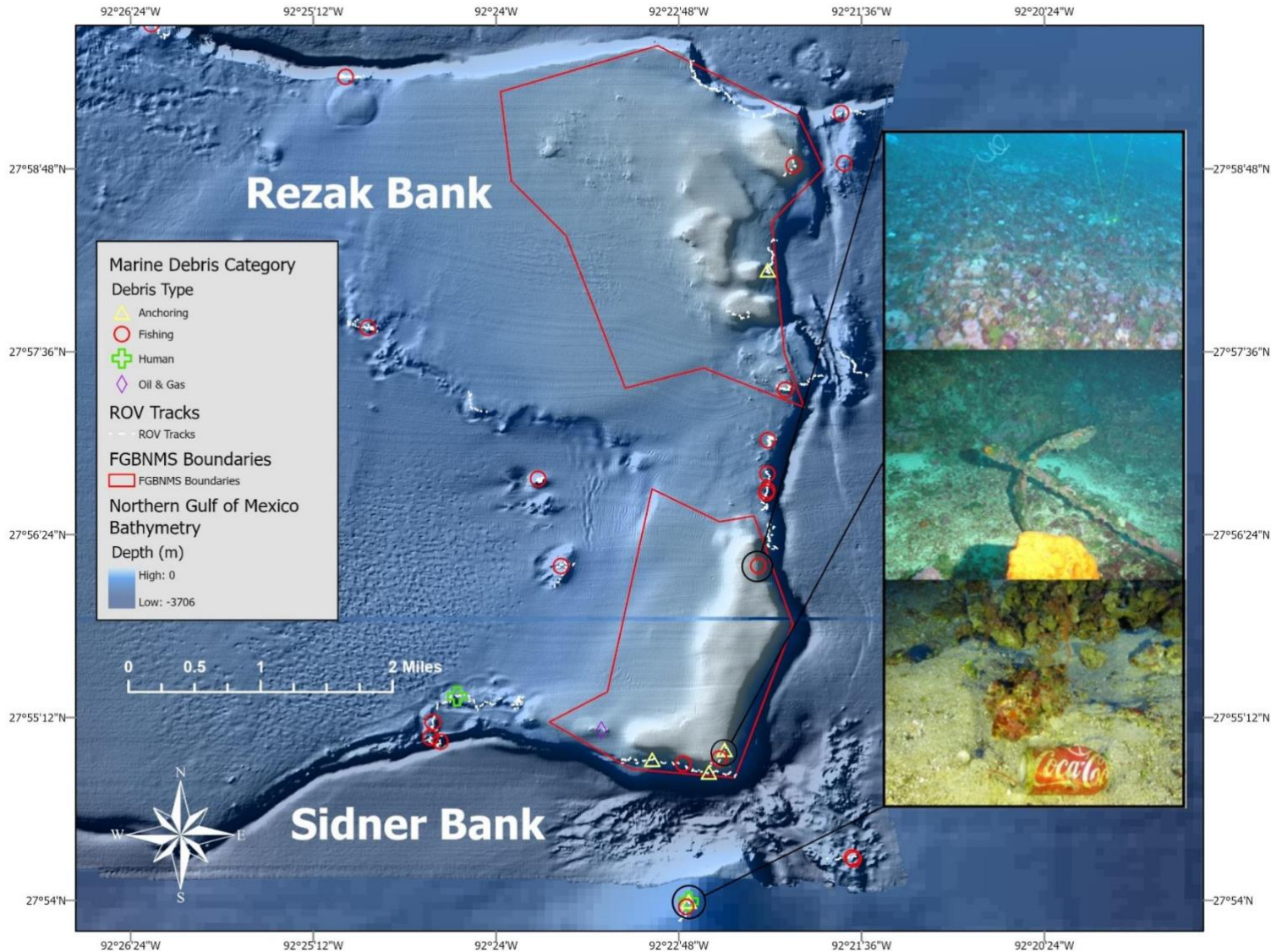


Figure 16. Marine debris at Rezak Bank and Sidner Bank. Debris appeared to accumulate along the eastern ridgeline of the banks. Fishing debris made up 88% and 62% of items observed at the banks, respectively. Image: Kelly O'Connell/NOAA

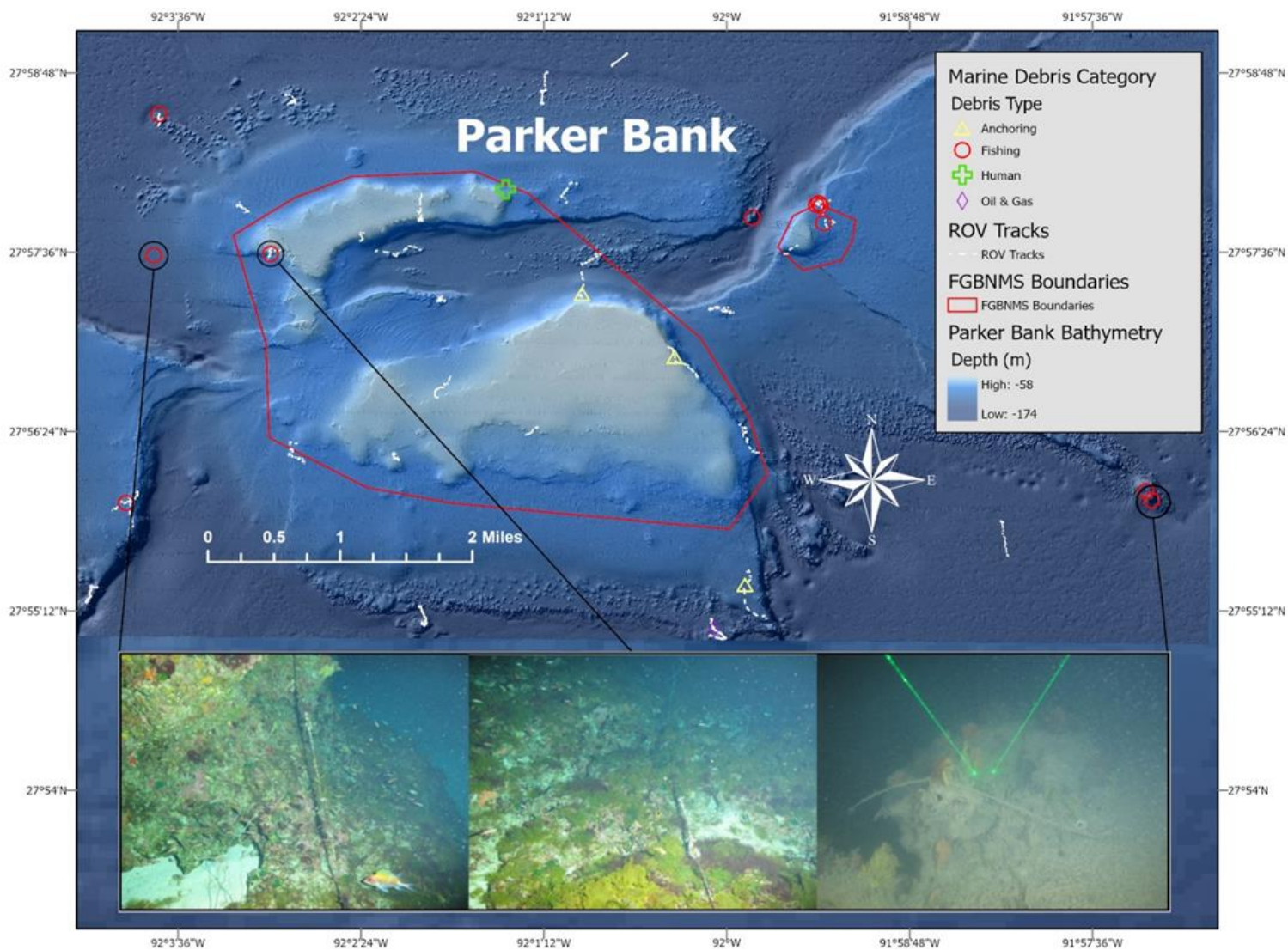


Figure 17. Marine debris at Parker Bank. Debris accumulation at Parker Bank did not exhibit clear patterns of distribution or concentration. It appeared to be scattered along the corners of the bank, throughout deeper water outside sanctuary boundaries and along ridges. Fishing was the most common debris type at 71% of all items observed, but with comparatively low encounter rates compared to most other banks. Image: Kelly O'Connell/NOAA

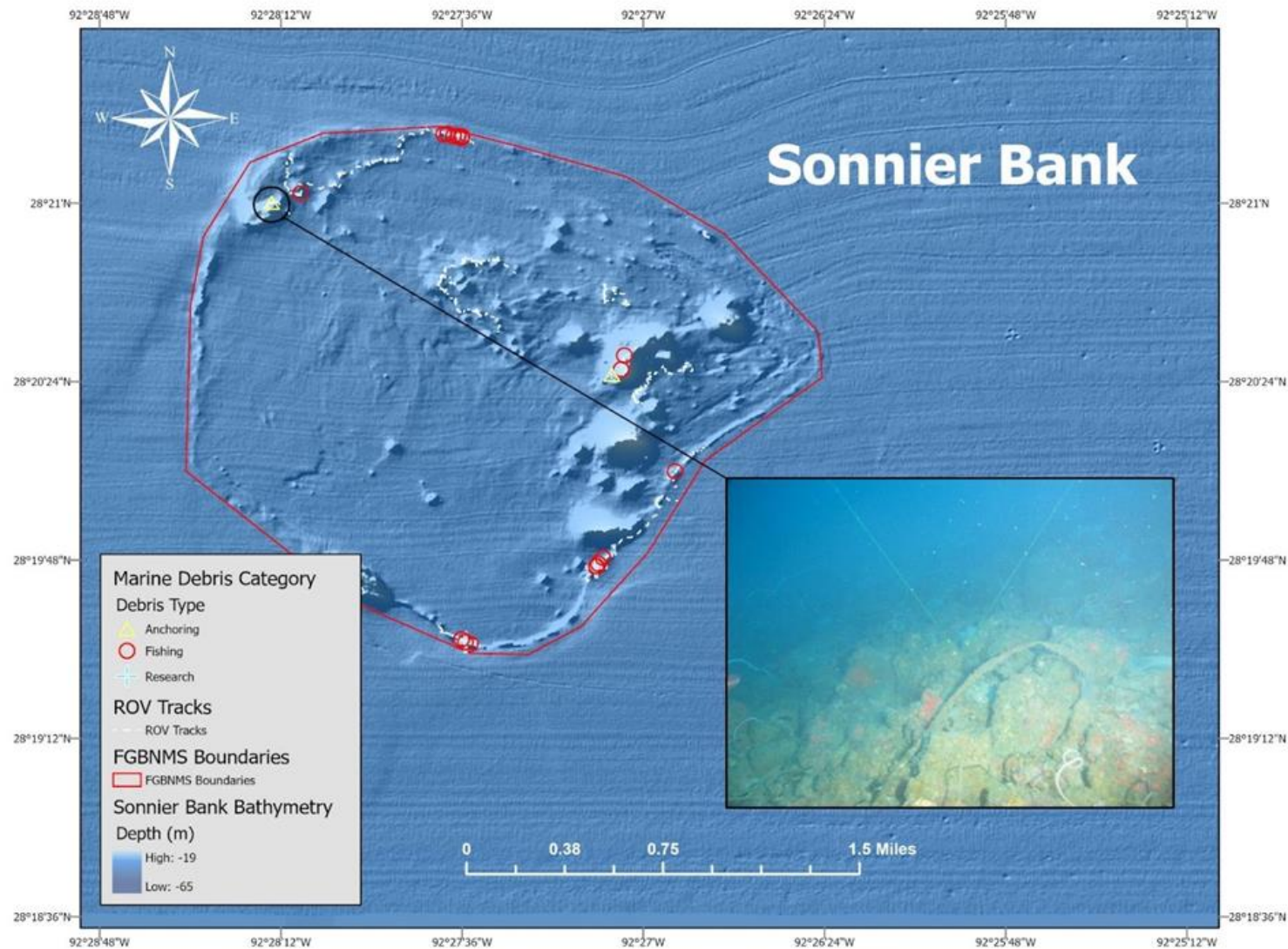


Figure 18. Marine debris at Sonnier Bank. Debris at this mid-shelf bank was concentrated along the outer ridge ring near the sanctuary boundary. With the second highest encounter rate of all banks, fishing contributed 73% of debris, and debris was concentrated around areas of high topographic relief. Image: Kelly O'Connell/NOAA

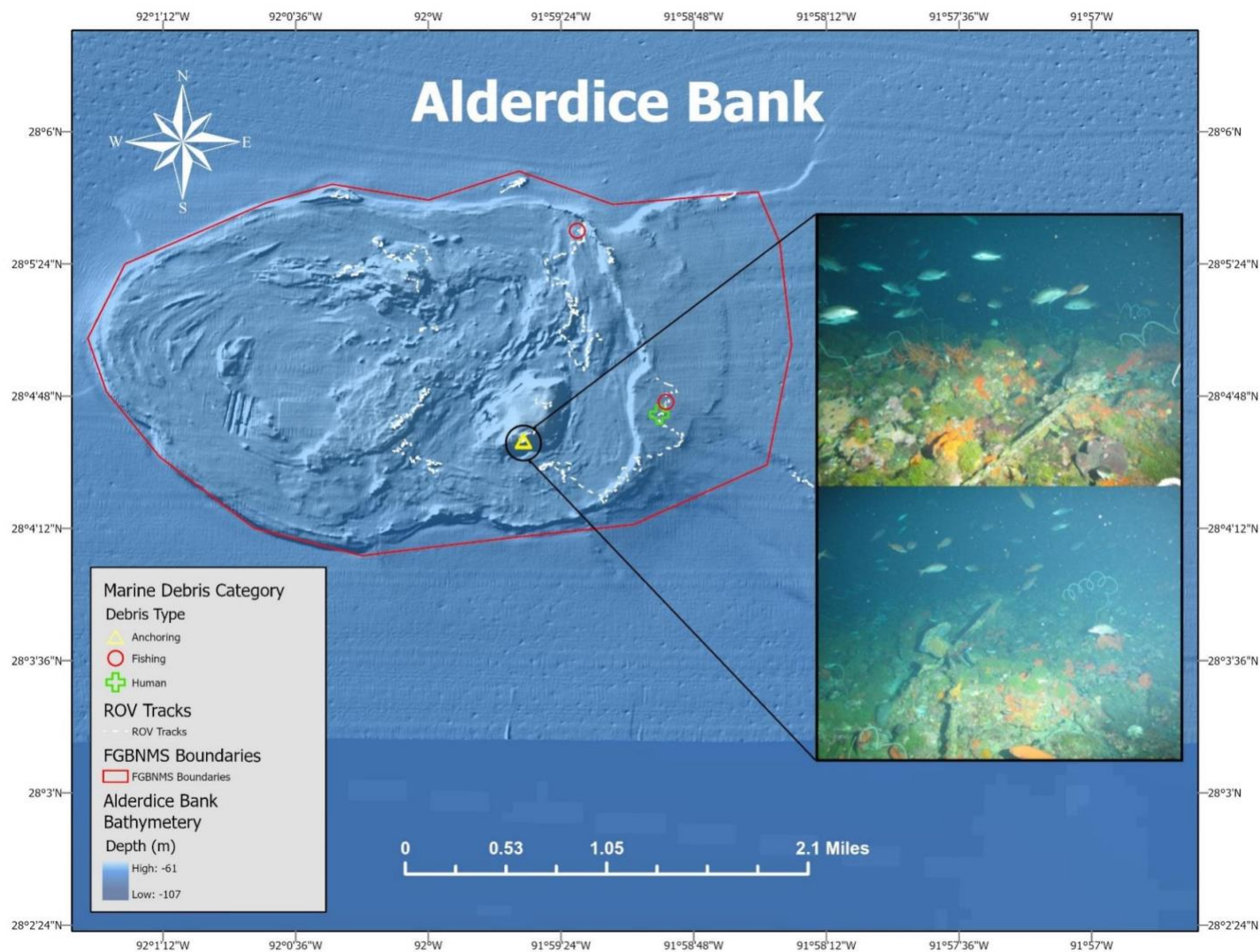
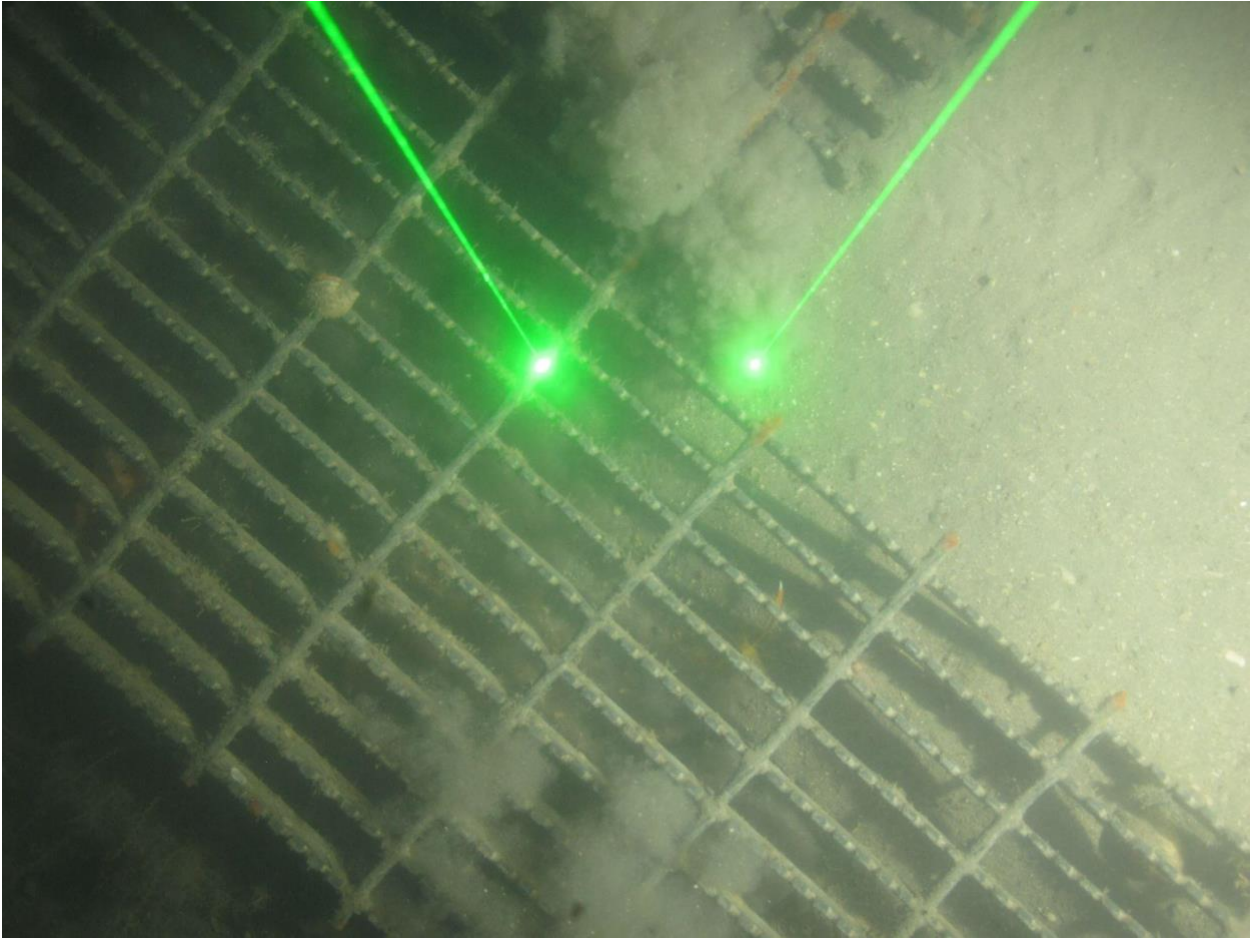


Figure 19. Marine debris at Alderdice Bank, which had one of the lowest debris encounter rates of all banks. All debris observed at Alderdice Bank was within sanctuary boundaries. Anchoring debris accounted for half the items and was concentrated in one area on the bank. Image: Kelly O'Connell/NOAA

## Chapter 4: Discussion



Metal grating found at WFGB. This type of grating is typically used on oil and gas platforms. Photo: NOAA/University of North Carolina at Wilmington Underwater Vehicle Program

The ocean floor is an accumulation site for marine debris. Debris can physically and chemically alter benthic habitats; kill organisms through smothering, entanglement, or ingestion; and affect community structure and ecosystem integrity. Most debris observed in this study in and around FGBNMS appeared to have been present for some time, with evidence of encrusting algae, sponges, and other invertebrates growing on debris items or using them for shelter. Although there are many short-term studies on the effects of marine debris (Chiappone et al., 2005; Watters et al., 2010; Amon et al., 2020), a long-term monitoring approach is necessary to determine the full range of impacts to ecosystems in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico and prioritize response actions for the resource management community.

Our observations were consistent with those of other studies in the region, finding that marine debris consisted mostly of lost fishing gear, anchors, ground tackle, and discarded trash, with some debris associated with oil and gas activities (Miller et al., 1995; Ribic et al., 2011). By comparison, debris in the U.S. Caribbean (waters around Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, Navassa Island, and Guantanamo Bay Naval Base) is dominated by miscellaneous human-made items (Ribic et al., 2011). Debris was widespread in and around FGBNMS, with concentrations in areas of heaviest use or areas with high relief. Concentrations of small debris items related to oil and gas activities (e.g., tools) were typically near platforms, such as the former production platform at EFGB. Geophysical and exploratory survey cables were more concentrated in areas of relief, where they may have inadvertently snagged on the bottom during surveys. Furthermore, unlike others who generate debris, when leases or pipeline right-of-ways are abandoned, oil and gas operators are required to clear the seafloor of all obstructions, including debris created, used, deposited, or accumulated (Bureau of Safety and Environmental Enforcement, 2019).

In this report, debris count varied significantly by bank, but much of the variation was due to differences in sampling effort. When adjusted for effort, there was no statistical difference in the encounter rates for debris (all categories combined) among the banks. There were, however, differences in encounter rates among banks for particular types of debris, which reflected hotspots of certain activities, particularly fishing.

Georeferenced information on marine debris maps suggests debris items are more likely to be found along ledges and shallow peaks. This may reflect concentrations of effort by recreational or commercial fishers, and the higher likelihood of fishing gear becoming caught on structurally complex habitats (Watters et al., 2010). It also suggests that unsurveyed areas of the banks with similar habitats may have comparable concentrations of debris.

While some debris may drift from other locations (Hess et al., 1999) before catching on bottom features of the banks, our impression based on observations of human activities on some banks is that most items originated from localized activities. This could enable strategic selection of sites for future surveys and removal efforts by FGBNMS staff.

Marine debris photographed during this study included derelict fishing lines, nets, and salvage gear covering structurally complex biota such as sponges, branching stony corals, octocorals, and antipatharians. Nets cause entanglement problems in the water column, and, when they accumulate on a reef, can smother organisms or, in the case of corals, block sunlight needed by symbiotic algae for photosynthesis (Pastorok & Bilyard, 1985). Injured organisms become

susceptible to infections and may eventually die, as shown in shallow-water hard and soft corals and deep octocorals (Bavestrello et al., 1997; Schleyer & Tomalin, 2000; Asoh et al., 2004; Yoshikawa & Asoh, 2004; Chiappone et al., 2005; Bergmann et al., 2015). Additionally, constant or repeated contact with soft plastic litter, such as miscellaneous wrappers, bottles, and other human-made debris, can cause necrosis, as observed in the cold-water coral *Lophelia pertusa* (Fabri et al., 2014). However, necrosis was not observed in the present study.

Most physical damage to habitats and living resources caused by fishing gear, anchors, and other human-made items occurs either during their use or when they initially become tangled or settle to the bottom. When lost, these items often become immobile, which may prevent further damage, and the affected resources may even recover. The longer the gear remains in place, the harder it is to determine its impacts.

An iron admiralty style anchor without a stock (Figure 20) was found at a depth of 88 meters on WFGB. It is a 19<sup>th</sup>-century design, and may have been used into the early 20<sup>th</sup> century (H. Van Tilburg/NOAA, personal communication, 2021). The anchor illustrates the fact that damage to mesophotic habitats from anchors and chains has been a reality for many years on these banks, as it has been elsewhere (Goenaga, 1991). But the lack of evidence of recent nearby damage from this and other anchors shows that heavy objects that become immobile on the bottom can become virtually harmless over time. Some have questioned the need for removal of such objects because they pose no continuing threat, and because the removal can cause unnecessary damage.



Figure 20. An anchor found at a depth of 88 m on WFGB, with details that suggest it was designed in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Photo: NOAA/University of North Carolina at Wilmington Underwater Vehicle Program

Fishing-related activities contributed more to marine debris abundance in the study area than any other category. The specific items, which were primarily fishing line and lost nets, originate from the active hook-and-line, longline, and shrimp fisheries in the region. Similar observations have been made in other parts of the world (Walker et al., 1997; Cunningham & Wilson, 2003; Ribic et al., 2010; Ribic et al., 2011). But unlike anchors, lost nets often remain unstable when entangled on a reef, and can move with currents and surge. Thus, impacts can continue for a longer period of time. Sites impacted by nets often exhibit higher cover of abraded substrate, sand, and crustose coralline algae, as well as low coral and macroalgae cover (Suka et al., 2020).

Stetson Bank in particular has a large amount of shrimp nets and associated gear among the features of the siltstone/claystone ring surrounding the bank. Some of the nets are recent, others older, and they have directly impacted the biology of these sensitive habitats. Though there was no obvious decrease in fishing debris with distance from Galveston, the high encounter rate at Stetson Bank may be attributed to its accessibility to the fishing community. It is only about 130 kilometers from shore; most other banks are at least 175 kilometers from the nearest ports.





Figure 21. An abandoned shrimp net found among sponges on a feature at a depth of 59 m at Stetson Bank. Photo: NOAA/University of North Carolina at Wilmington Underwater Vehicle Program

Mortality from fishing gear has been well documented for mammals and marine birds (Majluf et al., 2002; Read et al., 2006; Good et al., 2009, 2010; Jacobsen et al., 2010; Senko et al., 2020), but no estimates are available for the number of animals affected (Bergmann et al., 2015). Fish can also die from entanglement, as they are prevented from eating, taking up oxygen, and avoiding predators. Though FGBNMS staff did not witness entanglement during ROV surveys, it may have been because the animals had already been preyed on (Laist, 1997; Ryan et al., 2009; Allen et al., 2012). Observations of entangled animals are typically opportunistic.

While the impacts of lost nets are fairly well documented, impacts from other gear are less well understood. Chiappone et al. (2005) found that less than 0.2% of invertebrates were affected by lost hook-and-line fishing gear. However, this gear caused 84% of the documented impacts (primarily tissue abrasion) to sponges and cnidarians, leading to partial or complete mortality. Amon et al. (2020) found that deep-sea fauna directly interacted with over a third of the debris observed (e.g., via sheltering, encrustation, entanglement). Edward et al. (2020) found that corals in contact with derelict fishing gear exhibited a high prevalence of tissue loss (34%) and fragmentation (48%). Further investigations are needed to determine what other impacts may occur, such as increased susceptibility to predation, competitive overgrowth, and disease.

Human-sourced debris, primarily plastic wrappers, plastic bottles, cans, and tires, was an important contributor to the marine debris on the seafloor, making up 11.3% of all observations. Finding a large quantity of household items was not unexpected, as these are the primary

components of the well-known and worldwide problem of trash accumulation in the global ocean (Goldberg, 1997; Derraik, 2002; Moore, 2008; Barnes et al., 2009; Gregory, 2009; Andrady, 2011). While solar radiation and thermal oxidation often degrade floating plastics and other materials, they don't affect sunken debris, making the rate of degradation in deep ocean environments extremely low (Watters et al., 2010; Andrady, 2011). Within this category, plastic debris poses a demonstrable and substantial threat to wildlife. It can cause choking, clogging, and starvation; act as a vector for exotic or invasive species; expose animals to toxic chemicals; and break down to smaller and smaller pieces, exposing ever-smaller animals to its impacts (Barnes et al., 2009). Studies have shown that plastic items of all sizes are reaching some of the most remote and deepest parts of the globe (Chiba et al., 2018). Unfortunately, the difficulty of sampling mesophotic and deep-sea ecosystems make it difficult to understand their full threats and impacts.

In the 1980s, dynamite was used for excavation on the crest of Bright Bank in a failed hunt for a purported treasure-laden galleon. The salvage activities created deep holes and destroyed corals on the bank, damage that remains evident four decades later, along with scattered equipment and tools from the operation. It was the only bank at which salvage debris was observed.

Debris from oil and gas activities was observed at seven of the 18 banks. It included lost seismic cables used during exploration as well as discarded equipment such as pipes. The cables tended to accumulate near the edges of the banks, where rapid depth changes and high relief snagged cables as survey ships approached the banks in the years before operators became familiar with the terrain. In recent decades, much loose debris has been removed from dive sites at the Flower Garden Banks. What remains is embedded in the coral reef around the flanks of EFGB and WFGB (Figure 22) and in deeper habitats.



Figure 22. Diver observation of abandoned seismic cables on the coral reef cap. Photo: G.P. Schmahl/NOAA

Extreme weather, such as hurricanes, often damages monitoring and research equipment on the seafloor and detaches data buoys, resulting in loss of data, gaps in time series, interruptions in activities, and considerable expenses. An ocean acidification station deployed at EFGB was extensively damaged during the 2020 hurricane season, the most active storm season in the history of FGBNMS (Figure 23). Although the instrument package was recovered near its installation site, the associated science buoy was lost and was not found until it reached the coast near Louisiana in 2022. FGBNMS staff often see evidence of impacts from various hurricanes and other storms in which substantial sediment movement in the sand patches buries moored instruments and affects data collection. Storm activity is likely the cause of many lost research debris items in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico.

Additionally, 12 sanctuary mooring and marker buoys, which facilitate access to research and monitoring sites, were lost between 2020 and 2021. These seldom become debris in the sanctuary because they drift away. Thus, these were not included in the categories described in this report.

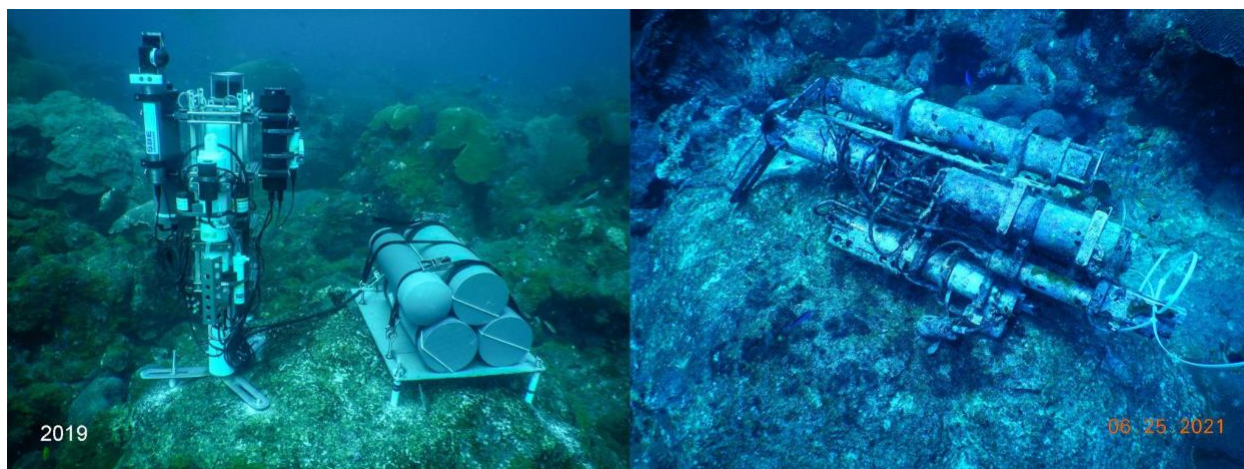


Figure 23. Ocean acidification benthic instrument package just after installation in 2019 (left) and in pieces after 2020 hurricanes passed through the area (right). Photo: G.P. Schmahl/NOAA

Despite the many known negative impacts of marine debris, the objects themselves can be useful to deep-sea fauna such as corals, hydroids, crinoids, sponges, and anemones. Though debris inevitably alters the seafloor, it acts as artificial habitat that provides shelter for motile organisms and attachment surfaces for sessile organisms (Watters et al., 2010; Miyake et al., 2011; Schlining et al., 2013; Amon et al., 2020). But such ecological benefits are frequently debated, both philosophically (no alteration is desirable) and because artificial habitats are typically unstable and transitory. They are prone to movement during storms, likely to degrade, can enable the proliferation of nuisance and non-native species, and continue to entangle more debris. Even in relatively deep water, artificial habitats can be affected by storm energy, which can reach over 90 meters (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration [NOAA], 2017). The generally preferred action in national marine sanctuaries is to remove debris when the removal is unlikely to cause more harm than it prevents.

Understanding the sources and impacts of marine debris is crucial to guide mitigation policies and management practices (NOAA Marine Debris Program, 2014). Based on knowledge about fishing and debris impacts, many recommendations have been made to understand and mitigate the problem including: document and monitor entanglement rates; recover lost or abandoned gear; urge or incentivize fishers to report lost or abandoned gear; keep marine debris on board if brought up during fishing operations; develop new technology for fishing gear, such as float releases to aid retrieval and degradable gear; gear marking; inspection of gear by port authorities; onshore collection/recycling facilities and payment incentives for old/retrieved gear; reduction in fishing effort; spatial management of fishing; and awareness programs (Laist, 1997; Laist et al., 1999; MacFadyen et al., 2009).

The problem of human debris is a much more complex one to address. A large component of this category consists of plastic, which is an immense and growing global issue. A range of new solutions are needed to reduce plastic waste, remove all sizes of plastic debris, including microplastics, and improve waste management and recycling practices, particularly in coastal areas. Incentives are needed for producers of consumer products to minimize the unnecessary use of plastic, promote recycling and reusable packaging (Moore, 2008), explore biodegradable options, and develop reusable packaging. Both products and packaging contribute significantly

to the problem. Some European countries are benefiting from initiatives that support packaging reductions and place direct responsibility for waste reduction on manufacturers, importers, and distributors.

While trends in technology and human activities will largely determine the future of marine debris accumulation on the seafloor, protected marine areas like FGBNMS are focal points for protection, response, and awareness about marine debris. They often conduct removals and cleanups, characterize and monitor debris, and engage in public education and outreach efforts to spread awareness. Some, like FGBNMS, also install mooring buoys not only to protect habitats but to reduce the loss of anchors.

This report demonstrates the utility of archived survey records to produce baseline information on marine debris and the status of resources affected by it. Future monitoring will enable assessments of the effectiveness of management actions and changing levels of lost gear and trash debris as human activity levels change. Of course, other stressors are also affecting shallow and mesophotic reef ecosystems, including many related to human activities, such as climate change, pollution, overuse, invasive species, and coral disease, in addition to natural events like hurricanes activity (NOAA Marine Debris Program, 2014). Monitoring and research in marine protected areas enable comparison of the relative impacts of marine debris amid these many other factors that affect ecosystem integrity.

## Acknowledgements

FGBNMS would like to acknowledge the many groups and individuals that provided invaluable support during this study, including Bureau of Ocean Energy Management, Cardinal Point Captains, University of North Carolina Wilmington-Undersea Vehicles Program, the National Marine Sanctuary Foundation, and the R/V *Manta* crew.

## Literature Cited

- Allen, R., Jarvis, D., Sayer, S., & Mills, C. (2012). Entanglement of grey seals *Halichoerus grypus* at a haul out site in Cornwall, UK. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 64(12), 2815–2819. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2012.09.005>
- Amon, D. J., Kennedy, B. R., Cantwell, K., Suhre, K., Glickson, D., Shank, T. M., & Rotjan, R. D. (2020). Deep-sea debris in the central and western Pacific Ocean. *Frontiers in Marine Science*, 7, 369. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2020.00369>
- Andrady, A. L. (2011). Microplastics in the marine environment. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 62(8), 1596–1605. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2011.05.030>
- Asoh, K., Yoshikawa, R. K., Kosaki, R., & Marschall, E. A. (2004). Damage to cauliflower coral by monofilament fishing lines in Hawaii. *Conservation Biology*, 18(6), 1645–1650. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-1739.2004.00122.x>
- Barnes, K. A., Galgani, F., Thompson, R. C., & Barlaz, M. (2009). Accumulation and fragmentation of plastic debris in global environments. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 364, 1985–1998. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2008.0205>
- Bavestrello, G., Cerrano, C., Zanzi, D., & Cattaneo-Vietti, R. (1997). Damage by fishing activities to the Gorgonian coral *Paramuricea clavata* in the Ligurian Sea. *Aquatic Conservation: Marine and Freshwater Ecosystems*, 7, 253–262. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1099-0755\(199709\)7:3<253::AID-AQC243>3.0.CO;2-1](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-0755(199709)7:3<253::AID-AQC243>3.0.CO;2-1)
- Bergmann, M., Gutrow, L., & Klages, M. (2015). *Marine anthropogenic litter*. Heidelberg, Germany: Springer Cham. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-16510-3>
- Bright, T. J., McGrail, D. W., Rezak, R., Boland, G. S., & Trippett, A. R. (1985). *The Flower Gardens: A compendium of information*. OCS Study MMS 85-0024. Prepared for U.S. Department of the Interior, Minerals Management Service, Gulf of Mexico OCS Region. <https://espis.boem.gov/final%20reports/3815.pdf>
- Bright, T. J., & Rezak R. (1976). *A biological and geological reconnaissance of selected topographical features on the Texas continental shelf*. Contract No. 08550-CT5-4. Final report to U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Land Management. <http://hdl.handle.net/1969.3/18672>
- Bureau of Safety and Environmental Enforcement. (2019). *Notice to lessees and operators of federal oil and gas leases and pipeline right-of-way holders, outer continental shelf, Gulf of Mexico region: Site clearance and verification for decommissioned wells, platforms, and other facilities*. NTL 2019-G05. U.S. Department of the Interior. <https://www.bsee.gov/sites/bsee.gov/files/notices-to-lessees-ntl/ntl-2019-g05.pdf>
- Chiappone, M., Dienes, H., Swanson, D. W., & Miller, S. L. (2005). Impacts of lost fishing gear on coral reef sessile invertebrates in the Florida Keys National Marine Sanctuary. *Biological Conservation*, 121(2), 221–230. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2004.04.023>
- Chiba, S., Saito, H., Fletcher, R., Yogi, T., Kayo, M., Miyagi, S., Ogido, M., & Fujikura, K. (2018). Human footprint in the abyss: 30 year records of deep-sea plastic debris. *Marine Policy*, 96, 204–212. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpol.2018.03.022>
- Cunningham, R. B., & Lindenmayer, D. B. (2005). Modeling count data of rare species: some statistical issues. *Ecology*, 86(5), 1135–1142.

- Cunningham, D. J., & Wilson, S. P. (2003). Marine debris on beaches of the Greater Sydney Region. *Journal of Coastal Research*, 19(2), 421–430. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/4299182>
- Derraik, J. G. (2002). The pollution of the marine environment by plastic debris: A review. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 44(9), 842–852. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-326X\(02\)00220-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-326X(02)00220-5)
- Edward, J. K., Matthews, G., Diraviya Raj, K., Laju, R. L., Bharath, M., Kumar, P., Arasamuthu, A., & Grimsditch, G. (2020). Marine debris—An emerging threat to the reef areas of Gulf of Mannar, India. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 151, 110793. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2019.110793>
- Eriksen, M., Lebreton, L. C., Carson, H. S., Thiel, M., Moore, C. J., Borerro, J. C., Galgani, F., Ryan, P. G., & Reisser, J. (2014). Plastic pollution in the world's oceans: More than 5 trillion plastic pieces weighing over 250,000 tons afloat at sea. *PLoS ONE*, 9(12), e111913. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0111913>
- Fabri, M. C., Pedel, L., Beuck, L., Galgani, F., Hebbeln, D., & Freiwald, A. (2014). Megafauna of vulnerable marine ecosystems in French Mediterranean submarine canyons: Spatial distribution and anthropogenic impacts. *Deep Sea Research Part II: Topical Studies in Oceanography*, 104, 184–207. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr2.2013.06.016>
- Goenaga, C. (1991). The state of coral reefs in the wider Caribbean. *Interciencia*, 16, 12–20. [https://hero.epa.gov/hero/index.cfm/reference/details/reference\\_id/6661076](https://hero.epa.gov/hero/index.cfm/reference/details/reference_id/6661076)
- Goldberg, E. D. (1997). Plasticizing the seafloor: An overview. *Environmental Technology*, 18(2), 195–201. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09593331808616527>
- Good, T. P., June, J. A., Etnier, M. A., & Broadhurst, G. (2009). Ghosts of the Salish Sea: Threats to marine birds in Puget Sound and the Northwest Straits from derelict fishing gear. *Marine Ornithology*, 37, 67–76.
- Good, T. P., June, J. A., Etnier, M. A., & Broadhurst, G. (2010). Derelict fishing nets in Puget Sound and the Northwest Straits: Patterns and threats to marine fauna. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 60(1), 39–50. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2009.09.005>
- Gregory, M. R. (2009). Environmental implications of plastic debris in marine settings—entanglement, ingestion, smothering, hangers-on, hitch-hiking and alien invasions. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 364(1526), 2013–2025. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2008.0265>
- Hess, N. A., Ribic, C. A., & Vining, I. (1999). Benthic marine debris, with an emphasis on fishery-related items, surrounding Kodiak Island, Alaska, 1994–1996. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 38(10), 885–890. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-326X\(99\)00087-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-326X(99)00087-9)
- Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission. (2009). *UNEP/IOC guidelines on survey and monitoring of marine litter*. United Nations Environment Programme. <https://www.unep.org/resources/report/unepioc-guidelines-survey-and-monitoring-marine-litter>
- Jacobsen, J. K., Massey, L., & Gulland, F. (2010). Fatal ingestion of floating net debris by two sperm whales (*Physeter macrocephalus*). *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 60(5), 765–767. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2010.03.008>
- Katsanevakis, S., & Maravelias, C. D. (2008). Modelling fish growth: Multi-model inference as a better alternative to a priori using von Bertalanffy equation. *Fish and Fisheries*, 9(2), 178–187. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-2979.2008.00279.x>
- Kühn, S., Andries van Franeker, J. (2020). Quantitative overview of marine debris ingested by marine megafauna. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 151, 110858. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2019.110858>



- Laist, D. W. (1997). Impacts of marine debris: Entanglement of marine life in marine debris including a comprehensive list of species with entanglement and ingestion records. In J. M. Coe & D. B. Rogers (Eds.), *Marine debris: Sources, impacts, and solutions* (pp. 99–139). New York, NY: Springer.  
<https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4613-8486-1>
- Laist, D. W., Coe, J. M., & O'Hara, K. J. (1999). Marine debris pollution. In J. R. Twiss, Jr. & R. R. Reeves (Eds.), *Conservation and management of marine mammals*. Washington, DC: Smithsonian Institution Press.
- Macfadyen, G., Huntington, T., & Cappell, R. (2009). *Abandoned, lost or otherwise discarded fishing gear*. UNEP Regional Seas Reports and Studies 185. FAO Fisheries and Aquaculture Technical Paper 523. Rome, Italy: United Nations Environment Programme and Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. <https://www.fao.org/3/i0620e/i0620e.pdf>
- Majluf, P., Babcock, E. A., Riveros, J. C., Schreiber, M. A., & Alderete, W. (2002). Catch and bycatch of sea birds and marine mammals in the small-scale fishery of Punta San Juan, Peru. *Conservation Biology*, 16(5), 1333–1343. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1523-1739.2002.00564.x>
- Miller, J. E., & Echols, D. L. (1996). *Marine debris point source investigations 1994–1995 Padre Island National Seashore*. OCS Study MMS 96-0023. U. S. Department of the Interior, Minerals Management Service, Gulf of Mexico OCS Region and National Park Service, Padre Island National Seashore.
- Miyake, H., Shibata, H., & Furushima, Y. (2011). Deep-sea litter study using deep-sea observation tools. In K. Omori, X. Guo, N. Yoshie, N. Fujii, I. C. Handoh, A. Isobe, & S. Tanabe (Eds.), *Interdisciplinary studies on environmental chemistry—marine environmental modeling and analysis* (pp. 261–269). Terrapub.
- Moore, C. J. (2008). Synthetic polymers in the marine environment: A rapidly increasing, long-term threat. *Environmental Research*, 108(2), 131–139. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2008.07.025>
- National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. (2017). *How do hurricanes affect sea life?* U.S. Department of Commerce. <https://oceanservice.noaa.gov/facts/hurricanes-sea-life.html>
- NOAA Marine Debris Program. (2014). *Entanglement: Entanglement of marine species in marine debris with an emphasis on species in the United States*. U.S. Department of Commerce, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, National Ocean Service.  
[https://marinedebris.noaa.gov/sites/default/files/mdp\\_entanglement.pdf](https://marinedebris.noaa.gov/sites/default/files/mdp_entanglement.pdf)
- Pastorok, R. A., & Bilyard, G. R. (1985). Effects of sewage pollution on coral-reef communities. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 21, 175–189. <https://doi.org/10.3354/meps021175>
- Pham, C., Diogo, H., Menezes, G., Porteiro, F., Braga-Henriques, A., Vandeperre, F., & Morato, T. (2014). Deep-water longline fishing has reduced impact on vulnerable marine ecosystems. *Scientific Reports*, 4, 4837. <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep04837>
- R Core Team. (2021). *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing. <http://www.R-project.org/>
- Read, A., Drinker, P., & Northridge, S. (2006). Bycatch of marine mammals in U.S. and global fisheries. *Conservation Biology*, 20(1), 163–169. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-1739.2006.00338.x>
- Reed, J. K., Koenig, C. C., & Shepard, A. N. (2007). Impacts of Bottom Trawling on a Deep-Water Oculina Coral Ecosystem off Florida. *Bulletin of Marine Science*, 81(3), 481–496.
- Ribic, C. A., Sheavly, S. B., Rugg, D. J., & Erdmann, E. S. (2010). Trends and drivers of marine debris on the Atlantic coast of the United States 1997–2007. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 60(8), 1231–1242.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2010.03.021>

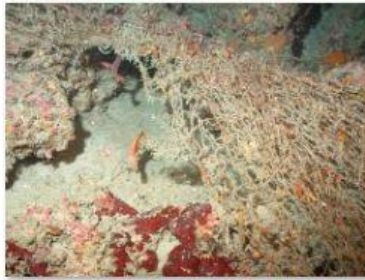
- Ribic, C. A., Sheavly, S. B., & Rugg, D. J. (2011). Trends in marine debris in the U.S. Caribbean and the Gulf of Mexico 1996–2003. *Revista de Gestão Costeira Integrada: Journal of Integrated Coastal Zone Management*, 11(1), 7–19. <https://doi.org/10.5894/rgci181>
- Ryan P. G., Moore, C. J., Van Franeker, J. A., & Moloney, C. (2009). Monitoring the abundance of plastic debris in the marine environment. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 364, 1999–2012. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2008.0207>
- Schleyer, M. H., & Tomalin, B. J. (2000). Damage on South African coral reefs and an assessment of Their sustainable diving capacity using a fisheries approach. *Bulletin of Marine Science*, 67(3), 1025–1042.
- Schlining, K., Von Thun, S., Kuhnz, L., Schlining, B., Lundsten, L., Stout, N. J., Chaney, L., & Connor, J. (2013). Debris in the deep: Using a 22-year video annotation database to survey marine litter in Monterey Canyon, central California, USA. *Deep Sea Research Part I: Oceanographic Research Papers*, 79, 96–105. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dsr.2013.05.006>
- Schmahl, G. P., Hickerson, E. L., & Precht, W. F. (2008). Biology and ecology of coral reefs and coral communities in the Flower Garden Banks region, northwestern Gulf of Mexico. In B. Riegl & R. Dodge (Eds.), *Coral reefs of the USA* (pp. 221–261). Heidelberg, Germany: Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-6847-8\\_6](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-6847-8_6)
- Senko, J. F., Nelms, S. E., Reavis, J. L., Witherington, B., Godley, B. J., & Wallace, B. P. (2020). Understanding individual and population-level effects of plastic pollution on marine megafauna. *Endangered Species Research*, 43, 234–252. <https://doi.org/10.3354/esr01064>
- Stewart, J.D., Nuttall, M., Hickerson, E.L., Johnston, M.A. (2018). Important juvenile manta ray habitat at Flower Garden Banks National Marine Sanctuary in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico. *Marine Biology*, 165(111). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00227-018-3364-5>
- Suka, R., Huntington, B., Morioka, J., O'Brien, K., & Tomoko, A. (2020). Successful application of novel technique to quantify negative impacts of derelict fishing nets on Northwestern Hawaiian Island Reefs. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 157, 111312. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2020.111312>
- Walker, T. R., Reid, K., Arnould, J. P., & Croxall, J. P. (1997). Marine debris surveys at Bird Island, South Georgia 1990–1995. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 34(1), 61–65. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-326X\(96\)00053-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-326X(96)00053-7)
- Watters, D. L., Yoklavich, M. M., Love, M. S., & Schroeder, D. M. (2010). Assessing marine debris in deep seafloor habitats off California. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 60(1), 131–138. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2009.08.019>
- Yoshikawa, T., & Asoh, K. (2004). Entanglement of monofilament fishing lines and coral death. *Biological Conservation*, 117, 557–560. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2003.09.025>
- Zeileis, A., Kleiber, C., & Jackman, S. (2008). Regression models for count data in R. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 27(8), 1–25. <https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v027.i08>

## Appendix A: Photo Gallery

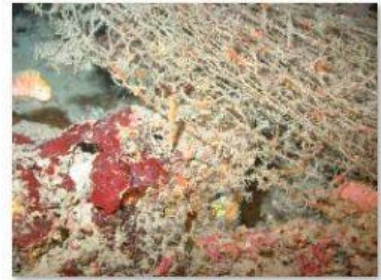
Fishing debris found throughout study areas in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico.



Dive 15156 19 38 12



Dive 15157 19 38 17



Dive 15158 19 38 22



Dive 15159 19 38 28



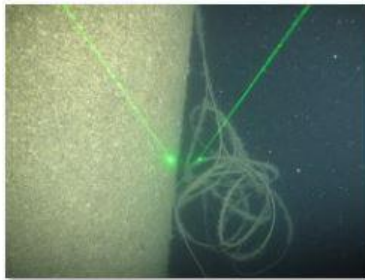
Dive 18081 16 31 38



Dive 23024 18 40 40



Dive 23060 19 03 46



Dive 256057 17 48 23



Dive01026 14 36 49



Dive 3130 21 07 26



Dive 9130 14 38 46



Dive 9131 14 39 05



Dive 9132 14 41 41



Dive 9133 14 41 51



Dive 9134 14 42 07



Dive 9152 13 47 06



Dive 10073 17 59 44



Dive 10074 17 59 50



Dive04005 16 25 19



Dive04012 09 08 18



Dive04014 09 09 31



Dive04032 09 29 00



Dive04039 09 54 00



Dive04052 18 00 15



Dive04054 18 01 19



Dive04058 10 02 49



Dive04059 10 03 03



Dive04060 10 03 08



Dive04062 10 03 31



Dive04063 10 03 35



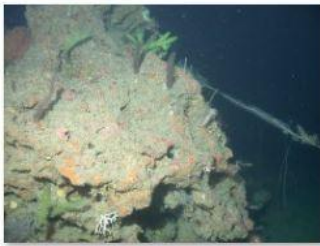
Dive04064 10 14 53



Dive04065 10 15 00



Dive04074 10 22 30



Dive13003 10 55 47



Dive14004 10 43 28



Dive14010 11 59 07



Dive14012 11 16 08



Dive14013 11 16 16



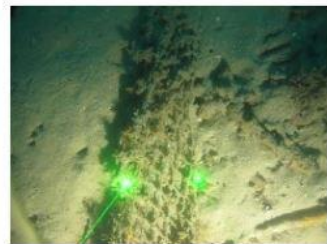
Dive14014 11 16 37



Dive14015 11 16 59



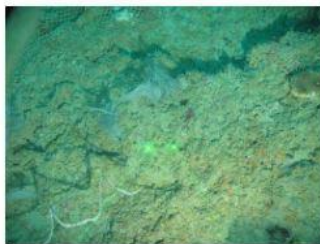
Dive14016 11 17 34



Dive208003 11 43 15



Dive209037 13 18 39



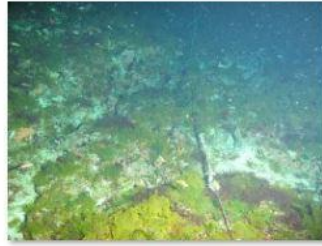
Dive209073 13 53 29



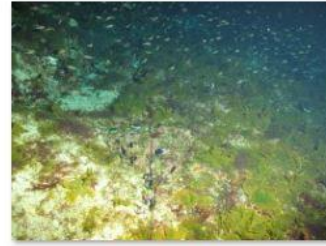
Dive209074 13 53 57



Dive232046 16 51 25



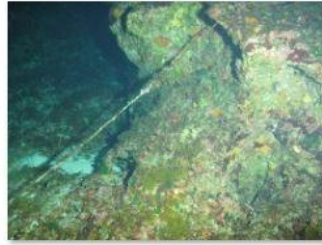
Dive244040 17 32 56



Dive244041 17 33 37



Dive244043 17 34 42



Dive244044 17 35 06



Dive244045 17 35 14



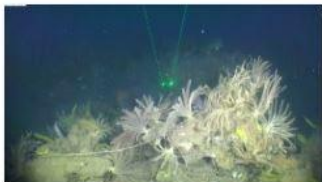
Dive366051 09 24 28



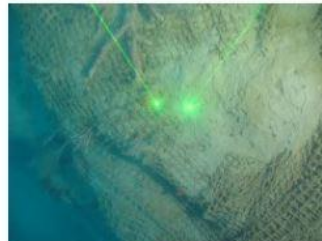
Dive367199 11 26 02



Dive377192 14 16 24



Dive378068 15 19 19



Dive383130 12 20 09



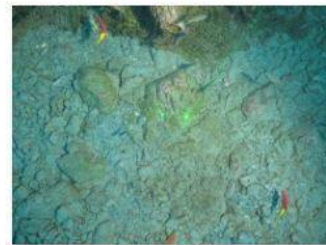
Dive383131 12 20 38



Dive383132 12 21 08



Dive384066 14 56 58



Dive384099 15 15 34



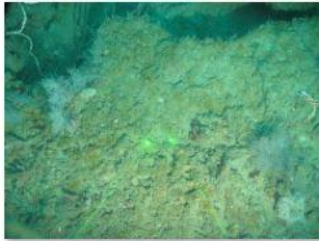
Dive384100 15 16 01



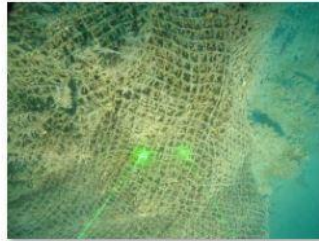
Dive384101 15 16 31



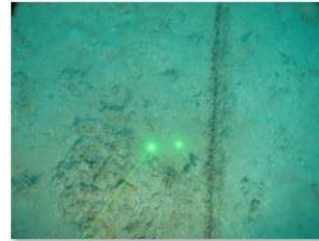
Dive385032 08 03 04



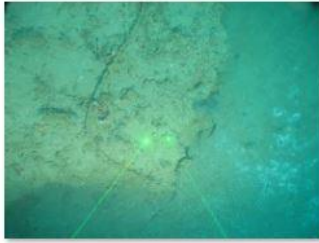
Dive209075 13 54 28



Dive209112 14 30 17



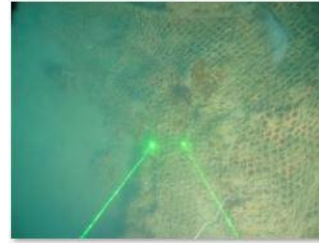
Dive209113 14 30 39



Dive209114 14 31 10



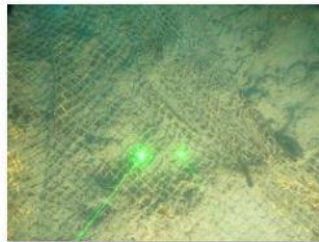
Dive209121 14 34 39



Dive209131 14 54 12



Dive209164 15 24 41



Dive209165 15 24 53



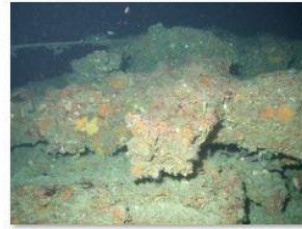
Dive209189 15 49 51



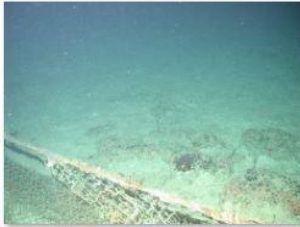
Dive 10078 18 02 32



Dive 13097 10 28 22



Dive 15134 19 29 10



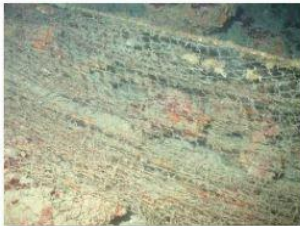
Dive 15150 19 36 54



Dive 15151 19 36 59



Dive 15152 19 37 20



Dive 15153 19 37 56



Dive 15154 19 38 03



Dive 15155 19 38 04



2#4



2#8



Dive 04 052 17 42 42



Dive 11 355 09 56 20



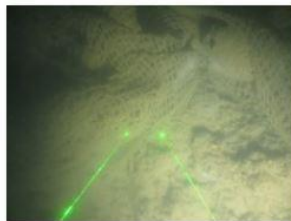
Dive 567 020 104901



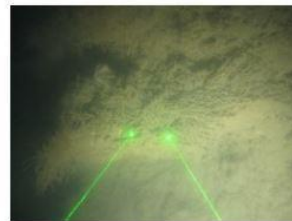
Dive 567 021 075513



Dive 567 043 080627

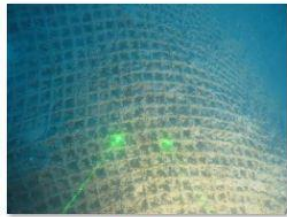


Dive 567 051 083012



Dive 567 052 083035





Dive 567 176 111324



Dive 568 055 135859



Dive 642\_0023\_102022



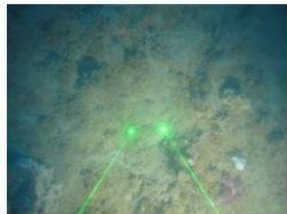
Dive 642\_0029\_105239



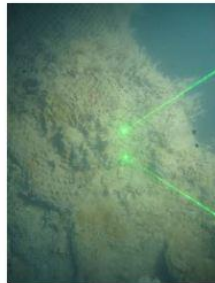
Dive 643\_0020\_160923



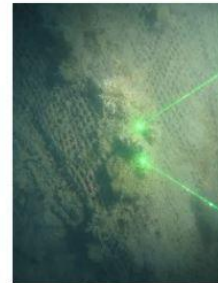
Dive 643\_0044\_153601



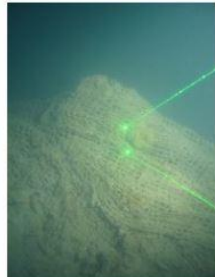
Dive 643\_0081\_162304



Dive 643\_0099\_172843



Dive 643\_0100\_172943



Dive 643\_0101\_173017



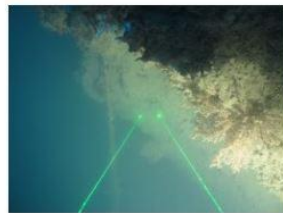
Dive 644 0034 085629



Dive 644 0064 093923



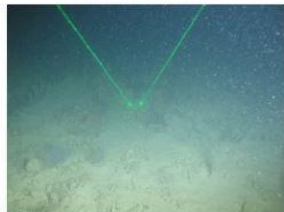
Dive 648\_0051\_152306



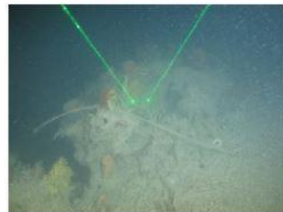
Dive 648\_0052\_152333



Dive 657\_0273\_095054



Dive 660\_0068\_143431



Dive 660\_0116\_145811



Dive 664\_0232\_110107



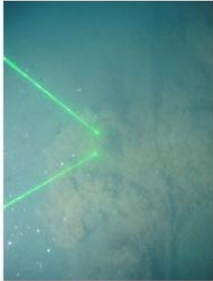
Dive 664\_0233\_110110



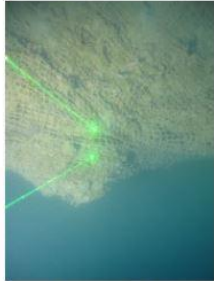
Dive 665\_0113\_115408



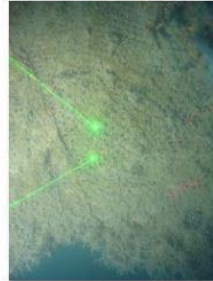
Dive 791\_0024\_100655



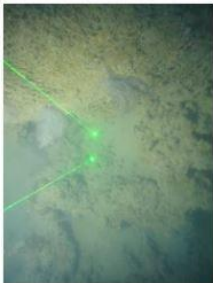
Dive 794\_0124\_102212



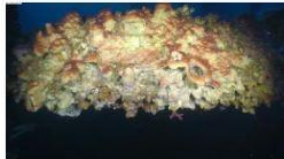
Dive 794\_0128\_102407



Dive 794\_0129\_102439



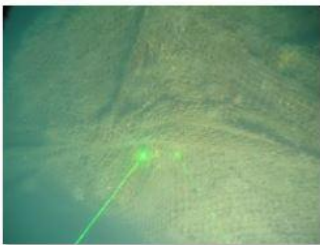
Dive 794\_0130\_102507



Dive 798\_0011\_090710



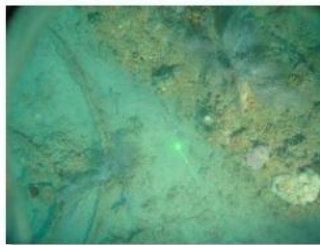
Dive 798\_0012\_090736



Dive209190 15 50 20



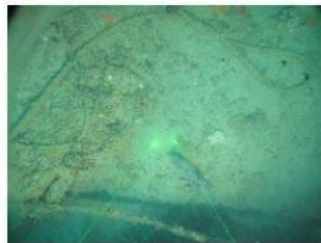
Dive209192 15 54 33



Dive209202 15 59 32



Dive209203 16 00 02



Dive209205 16 01 03



Dive209211 16 04 02



Dive232043 16 50 53



Dive232044 16 50 59



Dive232045 16 51 13

Anchoring debris found throughout study areas in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico.



Dive 13109 10 37 16



Dive 16070 11 07 00



Dive 16071 11 07 04



Dive 16072 11 07 12



Dive 248056 12 17 27



Dive 535012 11 41 21



Dive29 004 18 21 18



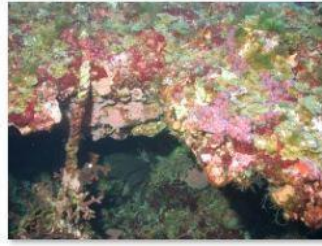
Dive01043 11 11 10



Dive01044 11 11 25



Dive01045 11 11 39



Dive03031 10 50 42



Dive232031 16 48 41



Dive232033 16 48 59



Dive239006 11 24 04



Dive239015 11 25 48



Dive239016 11 25 54



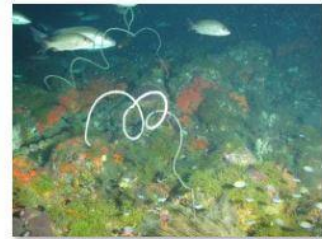
Dive239017 11 26 02



Dive239018 11 26 19



Dive239019 11 26 30



Dive239022 11 26 58



Dive239024 11 27 22



Dive239027 11 46 39



Dive239028 11 46 47



Dive377163 14 09 45



Dive377164 14 09 52



Dive377165 14 10 00

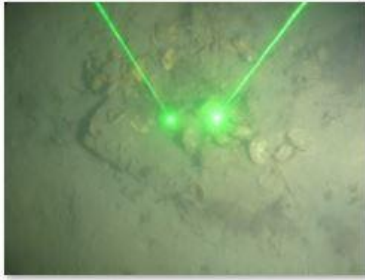


Dive529047 14 57 23

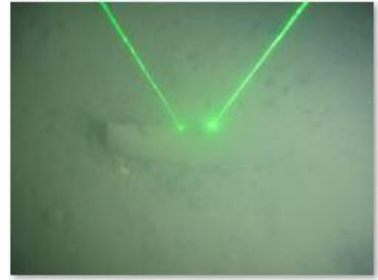
Likely oil and gas debris found throughout study areas in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico.



Dive 256001 16 46 27



Dive 259001 16 44 52



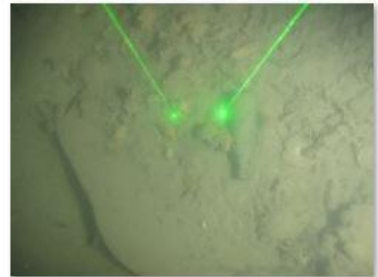
Dive 259003 16 44 52



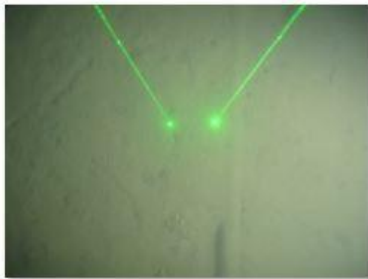
Dive 259007 16 44 46



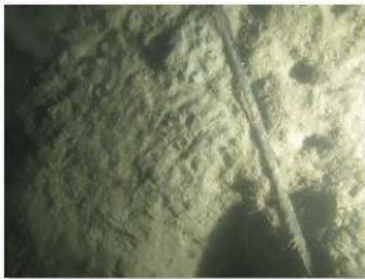
Dive 259037 16 44 46



Dive 259039 16 44 46



Dive 259040 16 44 46



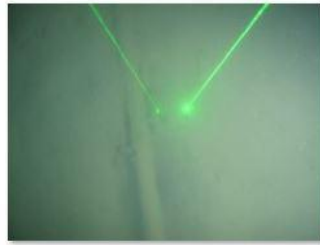
Dive 259041 16 44 46



Dive 259042 16 44 46



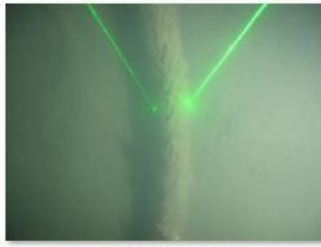
Dive 259044 16 44 46



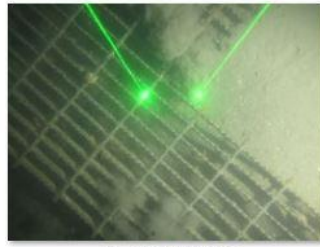
Dive 259045 16 44 46



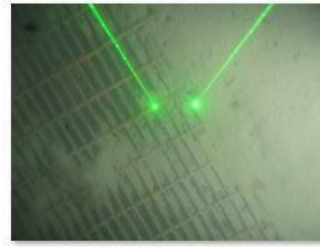
Dive 259046 16 44 46



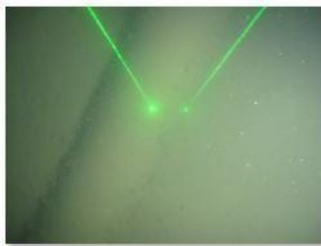
Dive 259047 16 44 46



Dive 259117 16 44 48



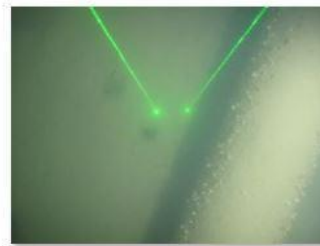
Dive 259118 16 44 48



Dive 259167 16 44 49



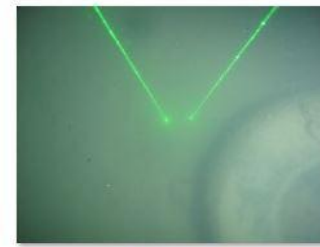
Dive 259168 16 44 49



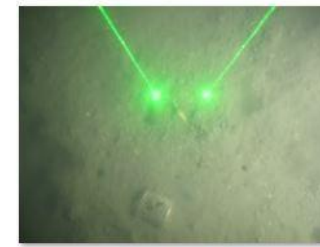
Dive 259171 16 44 49



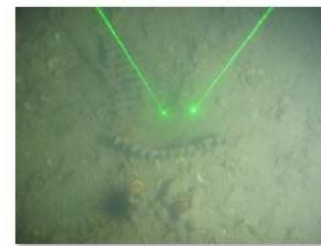
Dive 259173 16 44 49



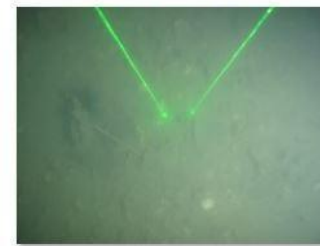
Dive 259176 16 44 50



Dive 259177 16 44 50



Dive 259197 16 44 50



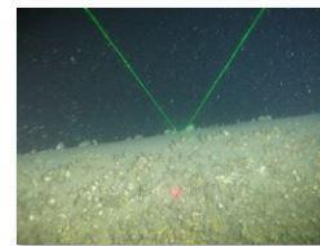
Dive 259199 16 44 50



Dive 259203 16 44 50



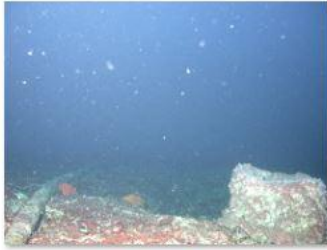
Dive 259236 16 44 51



Dive 516034 08 02 10



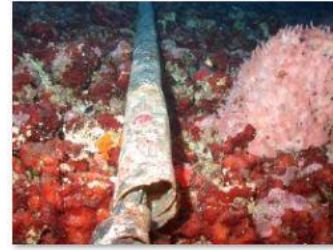
Dive22008 17 45 37



Dive22009 17 47 07



Dive22010 17 47 18



Dive22011 17 52 48



Dive22012 17 53 21



Dive22013 17 53 41



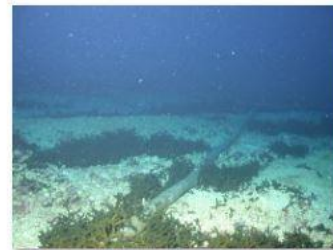
Dive22014 17 54 15



Dive22015 17 54 45



Dive22022 18 11 56



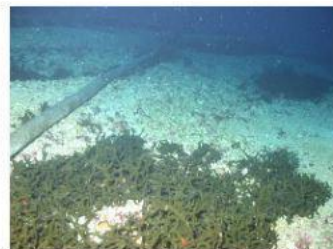
Dive22023 18 12 27



Dive22024 18 12 55



Dive22025 18 13 10



Dive22026 18 13 32



Dive22027 18 13 53



Dive22031 18 17 41



Dive22032 18 18 20



Salvage debris found throughout study areas in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico.



Dive254002 09 53 10



Dive254039 10 00 06



Dive254086 10 13 46



Dive254098 10 15 58



Research debris found throughout study areas in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico.



Dive02001 15 42 27



Dive02002 15 43 57



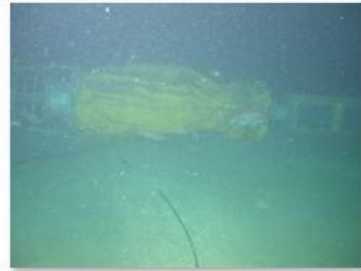
Dive02003 15 45 22



Dive02007 15 49 19



Dive02009 15 50 55



Dive02010 15 52 25



Dive02011 15 52 33



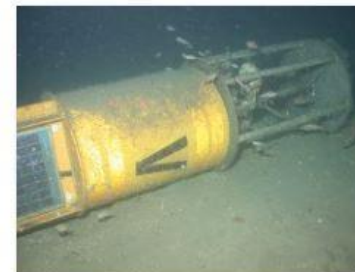
Dive02012 15 52 53



Dive02013 15 53 00



Dive02014 15 53 21



Dive02015 15 53 29



Dive02016 15 53 51

Shipwreck debris found outside of FGBNMS in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico



Dive237034 08 44 29



Dive237041 08 45 19



Dive237076 08 56 43



Dive237079 08 57 02



Dive237080 08 57 10

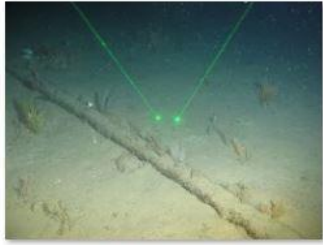


Dive237084 08 57 39

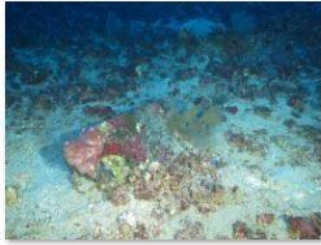


Dive237087 08 58 04

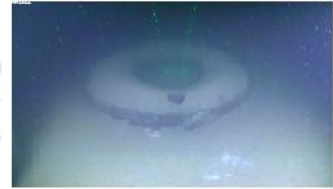
Miscellaneous debris found throughout study areas in the northwestern Gulf of Mexico



Dive 545\_022\_141030



Dive 671\_0042\_102637



Dive 797\_0004\_143944



Dive 797\_0018\_154716



Dive 798\_0001\_082948



Dive 798\_0022\_092655



Dive 4047\_09\_30\_02



Dive 4120\_09\_56\_28



Dive 9150\_13\_45\_50



Dive 9151\_13\_45\_58



Dive 504043\_09\_49\_58



Dive 523199\_17\_33\_43



Dive33\_097\_21\_00\_43



Dive33\_098\_21\_00\_59



Dive01074\_11\_40\_42



Dive01078\_11\_45\_55



Dive01080\_11\_46\_46



Dive02001\_12\_57\_05



Dive02002 12 57 14



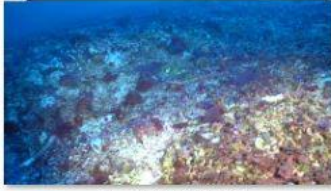
Dive02119 16 46 05



Dive02144 17 04 15



Dive02197 18 08 13



Dive356002 16 59 45



Dive377162 14 08 12



Dive380022 17 48 22



Dive380023 17 48 27



Dive406227 11 49 57



Dive 633\_0147\_180516



Dive 633\_0148\_180531



Dive 633\_0149\_180543

## Appendix B: Supplementary Tables

Table App.1. Total number of debris items found at each location in the study area.

Bank	Anchoring	Fishing	Human	Oil and Gas	Research	Salvage	Vessel	Total	Number of Dives
28 Fathom	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	4	14
Alderdice	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	6	25
Bouma	2	1	1	0	0	0	1	5	15
Bright	4	14	1	2	0	3	0	24	21
Bryant	1	3	1	0	0	0	0	5	7
EFGB	14	21	11	4	1	0	4	55	105
Elvers	3	6	1	0	0	0	1	11	32
Geyer	0	4	1	0	0	0	0	5	15
Horseshoe	1	18	2	0	0	0	0	21	14
MacNeil	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8
McGrail	6	11	19	1	0	0	0	37	42
Parker	3	12	1	1	0	0	0	17	39
Rankin	3	10	0	0	0	0	0	13	15
Rezak	1	7	0	0	0	0	0	8	18
Sidner	4	13	3	1	0	0	0	21	15
Sonnier	2	18	0	0	2	0	0	22	13
Stetson	25	110	9	3	1	0	3	151	73
WFGB	15	50	2	6	0	0	0	73	99
Total	87	303	54	18	4	3	9	478	570

Table App.2. Items per dive for each bank and each debris category.

Bank	Anchoring	Fishing	Human	Oil and Gas	Research	Salvage	Vessel	Occurrence Rate by Bank
28 Fathom	0.00	0.21	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.29
Alderdice	0.12	0.08	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.24
Bouma	0.13	0.07	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.33
Bright	0.19	0.67	0.05	0.10	0.00	0.14	0.00	1.14
Bryant	0.14	0.43	0.14	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.71
EFGB	0.13	0.20	0.10	0.04	0.01	0.00	0.04	0.52
Elvers	0.09	0.19	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.34
Geyer	0.00	0.27	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.33
Horseshoe	0.07	1.29	0.14	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.50
MacNeil	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
McGrail	0.14	0.26	0.45	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.88
Parker	0.08	0.31	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.44
Rankin	0.20	0.67	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.87
Rezak	0.06	0.39	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.44
Sidner	0.27	0.87	0.20	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.40
Sonnier	0.15	1.38	0.00	0.00	0.15	0.00	0.00	1.69
Stetson	0.34	1.51	0.12	0.04	0.01	0.00	0.04	2.07
WFGB	0.15	0.51	0.02	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.74
Occurrence Rate by Category	0.15	0.53	0.10	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.02	N/A



NATIONAL MARINE  
**SANCTUARIES**

AMERICA'S UNDERWATER TREASURES