

2. Blonde ray (*Raja brachyura*)

Irish name: Roc fionn

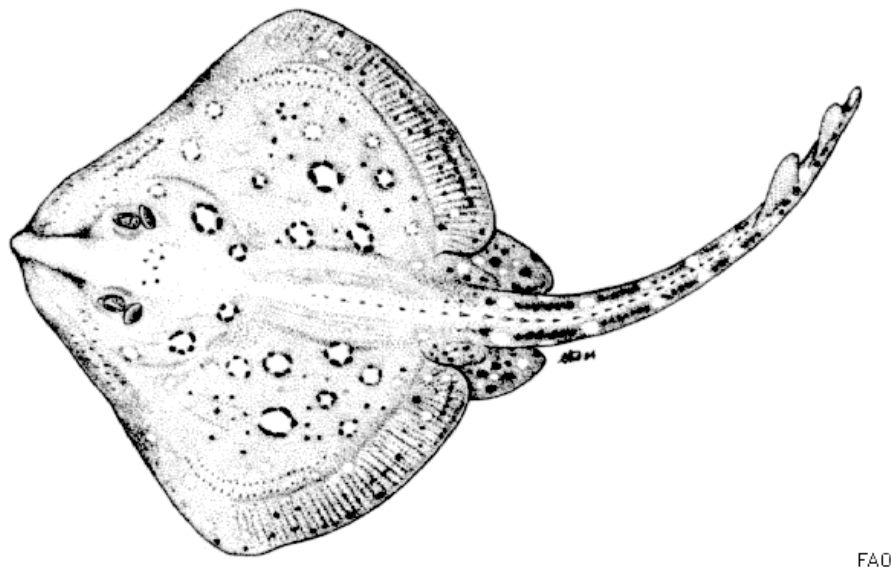


Figure A10.2.1. Blonde ray (*Raja brachyura*) from Bauchot (1987) (CC BY-NC 4.0).

This case report has been updated from the western Irish Sea case report published in 2023. A new Web of Science literature review was conducted to assess whether any new research on the species had been conducted since the western Irish Sea report was published and used to inform both the report and the sensitivity analysis.

Background

The Blonde ray is a medium-sized skate species in the Class Chondrichthyes. Blonde rays are demersal, and are commonly seen inshore and in shelf waters at 14-146 m, though they may occur deeper in the southern parts of their range (Ellis et al., 2005). Blonde rays prefer sandbanks and soft sediments (Ellis et al., 2005; Martin et al., 2010). Juveniles are thought to feed on small crustaceans, and larger individuals feed on fishes (Ellis et al., 1996). The Blonde ray has a maximum size of approximately 120 cm total length (Stehmann & Burkel, 1984), making it the largest skate species commercially caught in Irish waters. Blonde rays have a maximum age of 15 years (Gallagher et al., 2005). In the Irish Sea, the length and age at maturity (for 50% of fish) was reported as 82 cm total length and 4.6 years for males, and 84 cm total length and 5.5 years for males (Gallagher et al., 2005). Blonde rays are thought to reproduce between February and August (Ebert & Stehmann, 2013), and produce approximately 30 egg cases per year that take seven months to hatch (Holden et al., 1971; Ebert & Stehmann, 2013). Blonde rays are distributed in the Northeast Atlantic and Mediterranean Sea (Ebert & Stehmann, 2013). ICES considers blonde rays distributed in the Irish Sea,

Celtic Seas and the Bristol Channel to be a single stock (ICES, 2020). Species-specific studies on the movement of blonde rays are limited. Studies of skate species in the UK and worldwide suggest high site fidelity and short dispersal distances (Steven, 1936; Templemen, 1984; Walker et al., 1997; Ellis et al., 2010; King & McFarlane, 2010). However, two studies have identified broadscale movements in the range of 2340 km from mark-recapture tagging (King & McFarlane, 2010; Bird et al., 2020), and The Marine Sportfish Tagging Programme has identified blonde ray movements of more than 100 km by individuals tagged in Irish waters (734 individuals, tagged between 1971 and 2009).

Rationale for spatial protection in the southern Celtic Sea

Blonde rays were nominated for inclusion with particular reference to their conservation listing under OSPAR and/or listing as Near Threatened in Ireland, Europe, and globally. Since 2008, European countries are required to record most skate and ray landings by species to help generate a better picture of current population trends. There is potential to misidentify blonde rays with the spotted ray (*Raja montagui*), which has led to misreported landings in several countries (ICES, 2021). ICES reports that the Celtic Sea's total catch and bycatch are not currently quantified, and the population size is unknown (ICES, 2022). According to Clarke et al. (2016), existing data suggest the juvenile population in the Irish Sea is increasing over time; however, available evidence for adults suggests probable overexploitation. Blonde rays are currently managed under a generic total allowable catch (TAC). Given that population size and discard quantity cannot be quantified (ICES, 2022) and it has a Near Threatened conservation status, we recommend that a precautionary approach is applied and that spatial protection of this species is considered.

Based on current knowledge, blonde rays are amenable to spatial protection. Blonde rays are thought to have high site fidelity and residency, but may perform some long-ranging movements. Blonde ray egg-laying and nursery sites have yet to be identified in the southern Celtic Sea. Egg case records suggest that the south coast from Tralee Bay to Waterford constitutes nurseries (Clarke et al., 2016). It is likely that, similar to other rays, shallow coastal waters are used as nursery grounds (Shark Trust, 2009).

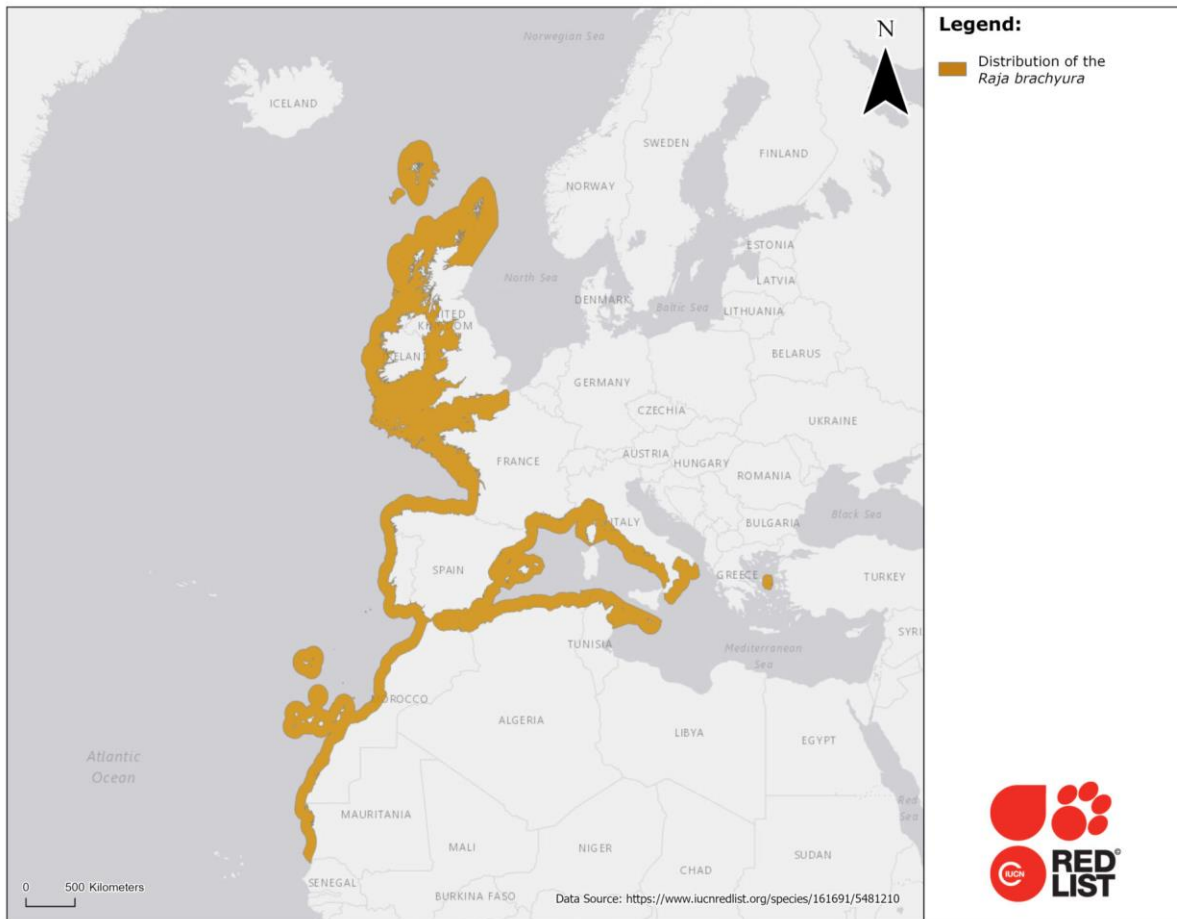


Figure A10.2.2. Geographic distribution of blonde ray (*Raja brachyura*) in the northeast Atlantic.

Figure from Ellis et al. (2009). <https://www.iucnredlist.org/species/161691/5481210>

Sensitivity assessment

The highest associated sensitivity scoring for blonde ray was in relation to its targeted and non-targeted removal (bycatch) by fishing (high confidence). Blonde rays are commercially important and are targeted by trawl, gill nets, trammel nets, and longlines across much of their range. They are also caught as bycatch (ICES, 2009; ICES, 2022; Thys et al., 2023). BIM (2019) found blonde rays caught in an Irish otter trawl fishery had the lowest injury scores and performed best in reflex assessments post-trawl (compared to other elasmobranch species) tentatively suggesting high survivability in bycatch. In contrast, McCully Phillips et al. (2015) identified blonde ray as the most vulnerable member of the 'skate and ray' group based on existing fishery type, management, monitoring or assessment of stock and value of the fishery. Blonde rays are currently managed under a generic total allowable catch (TAC) with other named ray species. The group TAC applies to rays including thornback (*Raja clavata*), painted (*Raja microocellata*), spotted (*Raja montagui*), cuckoo (*Leucoraja naevus*) (S.I. No. 125/2016). In the Celtic Seas ecoregion, blonde ray was identified as the most vulnerable of the generic TAC rays to gillnet and otter trawl fisheries owing to its life history and ecology (McCully Phillips et al., 2015). Following a precautionary approach, blonde rays were deemed sensitive to transition elements and organo-metal contamination (low confidence), hydrocarbon and PAH contamination (low confidence). Blonde rays were deemed moderately sensitive to heavy smothering and siltation changes linked to fisheries activities (low confidence). This perceived sensitivity is due to their benthic nature and the laying of slow-maturing, sessile egg cases, which likely require well-aerated water for survival.

Following a precautionary principle, blonde rays were identified as sensitive to some shipping-related pressures, including contaminants (low confidence). While evidence for this species was limited, it is thought that elasmobranchs are vulnerable to environmental pollutants such as transition elements given they are long-lived and consume a range of lower trophic level prey (Dulvy et al., 2017). Elasmobranchs are thought to tolerate high metal levels in their tissues, however, a precautionary approach is applied and blonde rays were deemed sensitive to this pressure. Elasmobranchs lack a swim bladder and specialised hearing structures, and therefore are considered to only detect particle motion, and not the pressure component of sound (Banner, 1967; Mickle et al., 2020; Popper & Hawkins, 2021). The impacts of vessel noise on elasmobranch species are poorly understood. Lab-based studies suggest noise can increase swimming activity (de Vincenzi et al., 2021), whereas research in the wild indicates an unclear response to boat traffic (Rider et al., 2021). Hearing ability in demersal and benthopelagic elasmobranch species is thought to be most sensitive to low frequencies (Casper et al., 2006; Nieder et al., 2023). However, hearing range varies depending on the species (Popper & Fay, 1999). A low frequency range is within the operational

range of both wind turbines and shipping activities (Tougaard et al., 2020). Whether sensitivity translates to turbine and boat avoidance is yet to be determined, but owing to the mobile nature of this species, operational noise is unlikely to result in mortality. Ship strike is deemed not to be a significant pressure owing to the benthic nature of this species.

Offshore energy impacts on elasmobranchs are poorly understood, however, blonde rays were deemed moderately sensitive or sensitive to several offshore energy impacts. Pressures, including physical loss of marine habitat and physical change to another seabed type, were deemed moderately sensitive (low confidence) owing to limited mobility of early life stages. Blonde rays were deemed moderately sensitive to heavy smothering and siltation changes (low confidence) due to their sessile and slow-maturing egg cases, which likely require well-aerated water for survival. Given the nursery areas for egg-laying have not been delineated in the southern Celtic Sea, a precautionary approach is recommended. Construction activities may displace some elasmobranch species, although quantitative data are absent. Electromagnetic fields from high-voltage cables are likely to affect the behaviour of some species (Gill et al., 2009; Hutchison et al., 2020). However, long-term impacts are unknown at present. Post-construction wind farms may provide refugia and artificial reef communities which could benefit some elasmobranch species.

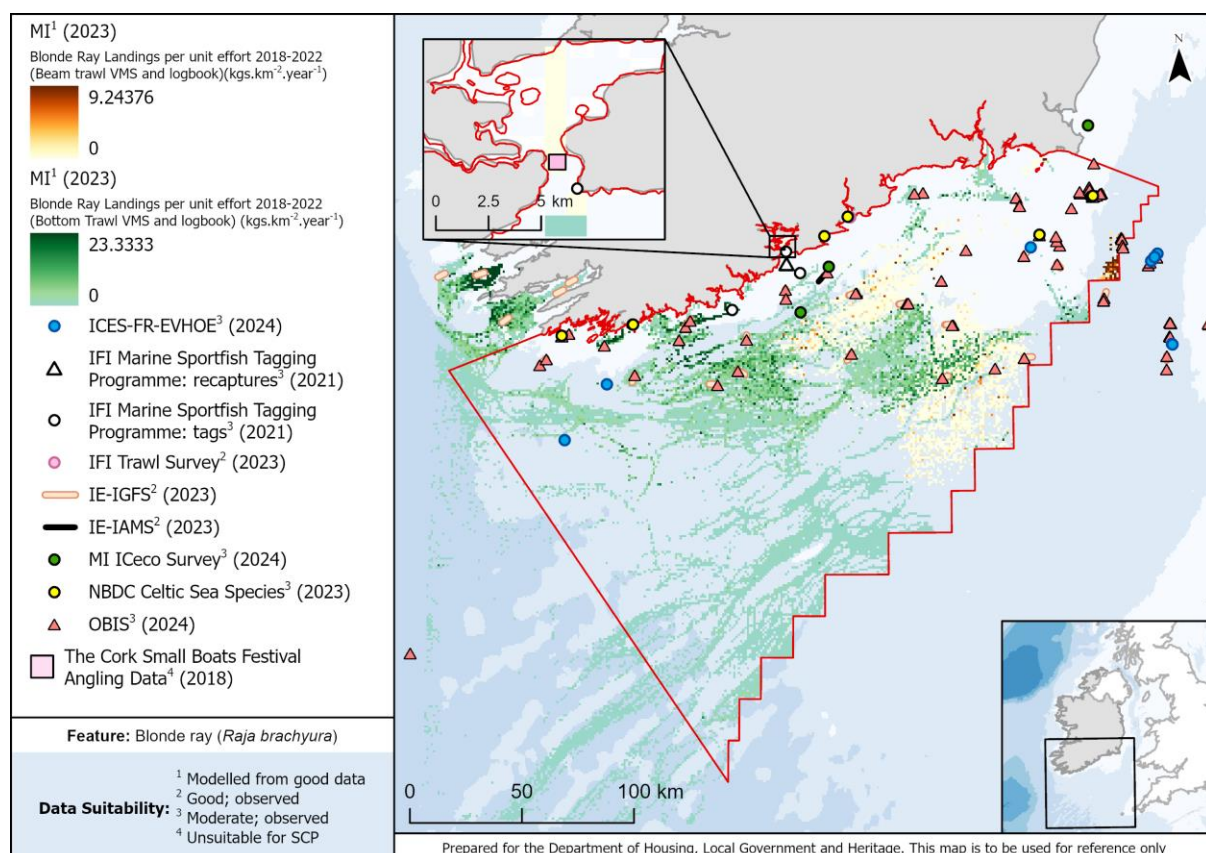


Figure A10.2.3. Data available for blonde ray (*Raja brachyura*) in the Celtic Sea

Data sources available

Data for blonde rays were available from a variety of sources (Figure A10.2.3), including landings data, fisheries surveys, the Marine Sportfish Tagging programme. Data on a notable former angling hotspot for blonde ray on the Turbot Bank (Cork Harbour) were supplied by a stakeholder. For explanation of data suitability, refer to Table 3.2.1 Main Report. For information on how data were prepared for use in prioritization analyses, and for visualisation of layer used, see Appendix 5e, section 5e.4.

Further research needs

Further work is required to identify population size, trends, migrations and movements, essential habitats, spawning and nursery areas. Equally, total discard quantity and post-release survival rates require further investigation. In addition, evidence to identify the potential effect of multiple pressures was insufficient to form an assessment and relied heavily on expert judgement. These pressures included the effects of changes in suspended solids (water clarity), smothering and siltation changes (light and medium), electromagnetic energy, death or injury by collision, transition elements and organo-metal contamination, hydrocarbon and PAH contamination, synthetic compound contamination, introduction of other substances and the introduction or spread of invasive non-indigenous species.

References

- Amelot, M., Batsleer, J., Foucher, E., Girardin, R., Marchal, P., Poos, J.J., & Sys, K. (2021). Evidence of difference in landings and discards patterns in the English Channel and North Sea Rajidae complex fishery. *Fisheries Research*, 242, 106028. <https://doi:10.1016/j.fishres.2021.106028>
- Banner, A. (1967). Evidence of sensitivity to acoustic displacements in the lemon shark, *Negaprion brevirostris* (Poey). pp. 265-273 in Cahn, P. (ed) *Lateral Line Detectors*. Indiana University Press, New York.
- Bauchot, M.L. (1987). Raies et autres batoides. pp. 845-886 in Fischer, W., Bauchot, M.L., & Schneider, M (eds.) *Fiches FAO d'identification pour les besoins de la pêche. (rev. 1). Méditerranée et mer Noire. Zone de pêche 37. Vol. II*. Commission des Communautés Européennes and FAO, Rome.
- BIM (2019) Post-capture condition of cuckoo ray in an Irish otter trawl fishery. Fisheries Conservation Report. Dublin. 12 pp. Available from <https://bim.ie>.

Bird, C., Burt, G., Hampton, N., Phillips, S.M., & Ellis, J. (2020). Fifty years of tagging skates (Rajidae): using mark–recapture data to evaluate stock units. *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom*, 100, 121–131. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0025315419000997>

Casper, B. (2006). The hearing abilities of elasmobranch fishes. Unpublished PhD Thesis. 146 pp. University of South Florida, Tampa Graduate Theses and Dissertations. Available from: <https://digitalcommons.usf.edu/etd/2476>

Clarke, M., Farrell, E.D., Roche, W., Murray, T.E., Foster, S., & Marnell, F. (2016) Ireland Red List No. 11: Cartilaginous fish [sharks, skates, rays and chimaeras]. National Parks and Wildlife Service, Department of Arts, Heritage, Regional, Rural and Gaeltacht Affairs. Dublin, Ireland. 142 pp.

de Vincenzi, G., Micarelli, P., Viola, S., Buffa, G., Sciacca, V., Maccarrone, V., Corrias, V., Reinero, F.R., Giacomini, C., & Filiciotto, F. (2021) Biological sound vs. anthropogenic noise: Assessment of behavioural changes in *Scyliorhinus canicula* exposed to boat noise. *Animals*, 11, 174. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ani11010174>.

Dulvy, N., Simpfendorfer, C., Davison, L., Fordham, S., Brautigam, A., Sant, G., & Welch, D. (2017) Challenges and priorities in shark and ray conservation. *Current Biology*, 27, R565–R572. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2017.04.038>

Ebert, D.A., & Stehmann, M.F.W. (2013) Sharks, batoids, and chimaeras of the North Atlantic FAO Species Catalogue for Fishery Purposes. No. 7. FAO, Rome. 523 pp.

Ellis, J.R., Pawson, M.G., & Shackley, S.E. (1996). The comparative feeding ecology of six species of shark and four species of ray (Elasmobranchii) in the North-East Atlantic. *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom*, 76, 89–106. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0025315400029039>

Ellis, J.R., Cruz-Martinez, A., Rackham, B.D., & Rogers, S.I. (2005). The distribution of chondrichthyan fishes around the British Isles and implications for conservation. *Journal of Northwest Atlantic Fisheries Science*, 35, 195–213. <https://doi.org/10.2960/J.v35.m485>

Ellis, J., Ungaro, N., Serena, F., Dulvy, N.K., Tinti, F., Bertozzi, M., Pasolini, P., Mancusi, C., & Noarbartolo di Sciarra, G. (2009). *Raja brachyura*. The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species 2009: e.T161691A5481210. <https://dx.doi.org/10.2305/IUCN.UK.2009-2.RLTS.T161691A5481210.en>.

Ellis, J., Morel, G., Burt, G., & Bossy, S. (2010). Preliminary observations on the life history and movements of skates (Rajidae) around the Island of Jersey, western English Channel. *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom*, 91, 1185–1192.

Gallagher, M.J., Nolan, C.P., & Jeal, F. (2005) Age, growth and maturity of the commercial ray species from the Irish Sea. *Journal of Northwest Atlantic Fishery Science*, 35, 47-66.

<https://doi.org/10.2960/J.v35.m527>.

Gill, A., Huang, Y., Gloyne-Philips, I., Metcalfe, J., Quayle, V., Spencer, J., & Wearmouth, V., (2009). COWRIE 2.0 Electromagnetic Fields (EMF) Phase 2: EMF-sensitive fish response to EM emissions from sub-sea electricity cables of the type used by the offshore renewable energy industry. Commissioned by Cowrie Ltd (project reference COWRIE-EMF-1-06). 128 pp.

Hutchison, Z.L., Gill, A.B., Sigra, P., He, H., & King, J.W. (2020). Anthropogenic electromagnetic fields (EMF) influence the behaviour of bottom-dwelling marine species. *Scientific Reports*, 10(1), 4219.

<https://doi.org/10.1038/S41598-020-60793-X>.

Holden, M.J., Rout, D.W., & Humphreys, C.N. (1971). The rate of egg laying by three species of ray. *ICES Journal of Marine Science*, 33, 335–339. <https://doi.org/10.1093/>

ICES (2009). Report of the Joint Meeting between ICES Working Group on Elasmobranch Fishes (WGEF) and ICCAT Shark Subgroup, 22–29 June 2009. ICES CM 2009/ACOM:16. International Council for the Exploration of the Sea, Copenhagen. 424 pp.

ICES (2020). Blonde ray (*Raja brachyura*) in divisions 7.a and 7.f–g (Irish Sea, Bristol Channel, Celtic Sea North). In: Report of the ICES Advisory Committee 2020. ICES Advice 2020, rjh.27.7afg.

<https://doi.org/10.17895/ices.advice.5793>.

ICES (2021). Workshop on the use of surveys for stock assessment and reference points for rays and skates (WKS KATE; outputs from 2020 meeting). *ICES Scientific Reports*, 3(23), 177 pp.

<https://doi.org/10.17895/ices.pub.7948>

ICES (2022). Blonde ray (*Raja brachyura*) in divisions 7.a and 7.f–g (Irish Sea, Bristol Channel, Celtic Sea North). In Report of the ICES Advisory Committee, 2022. ICES Advice 2022, rjh.27.7afg.

<https://doi.org/10.17895/ices.advice.19754446>

King, J.R., & McFarlane, G.A. (2010). Movement patterns and growth estimates of big skate (*Raja binoculata*) based on tag–recapture data. *Fisheries Research*, 101, 50–59.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fishres.2009.09.006>

Martin, C.S., Vaz, S., Ellis, J.R., Coppin, F., Le Roy, D., Carpentier, A. (2010). Spatio-temporal patterns in demersal elasmobranchs from trawl surveys in the eastern English Channel (1988–2008). *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 417, 211-228.

<https://doi.org/10.3354/meps08802>

Mickle, M.F., Pieniazek R.H., & Higgs, D.M. (2020). Field assessment of behavioural responses of southern stingrays (*Hypanus americanus*) to acoustic stimuli. *Royal Society Open Science* 7, 191544. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1098/rsos.191544>

McCully Phillips, R.S., Scott F., & Ellis J.R. (2015). Having confidence in productivity susceptibility analyses: A method for underpinning scientific advice on skate stocks?. *Fisheries Research*, 171, 87–100. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.fishres.2015.01.005>.

Nieder, C., Rapson, J., Montgomery, J.C., & Radford, C.A. (2023). Comparison of auditory evoked potential thresholds in three shark species. *Journal of Experimental Biology*, 226, jeb245973. <https://doi.org/10.1242/jeb.245973>

Popper, A.N., & Hawkins, A.D. (2021). Fish hearing and how it is best determined. *ICES Journal of Marine Science*, 78, 2325–2336. <https://doi.org/10.1093/icesjms/fsab115>

Popper, A.N., & Fay, R.R. (1999). The Auditory Periphery in Fishes. In: Fay, R.R., & Popper, A.N. (eds) *Comparative Hearing: Fish and Amphibians*. Springer Handbook of Auditory Research, vol 11. Springer, New York, NY. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4612-0533-3_3

Rider, M.J., Kirsebom, O.S., Gallagher, A.J., Staatterman, E., Ault, J.S., Sasso, C.R., Jackson, T., Browder, J.A., & Hammerschlag, N. (2021) Space use patterns of sharks in relation to boat activity in an urbanized coastal waterway. *Marine Environmental Research*, 172, 105489. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marenvres.2021.105489>

Shark Trust (2009). An Illustrated Compendium of Sharks, Skates, Rays and Chimaera. Chapter 1: The British Isles. Part 1: Skates and Rays.

S.I. No. 125/2016 - European Union (Common Fisheries Policy) (Point System) Regulations 2016.

Stehmann, M., & Burkell, D.L. (1984). Rajidae. In P.J.P. Whitehead, M.-L. Bauchot, J.-C. Hureau, J. Nielsen & E. Tortonese (eds) *Fishes of the North-eastern Atlantic and Mediterranean*. Vol. 1. pp: 163–196. UNESCO, Paris.-51. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpol.2016.03.022>

Steven, G. (1936). Migrations and growth of the thornback ray (*Raia clavata* L.). *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom*, 20, 605–614. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0025315400058173>

Templeman, W. (1984). Migrations of thorny skate, *Raja radiata*, tagged in the Newfoundland area. *Journal of Northwest Atlantic Fishery Science*, 5, 55–63. <https://doi.org/10.2960/J.v5.a6>

Thys, K.J.M., Lemey, L., & Van Bogaert, N. (2023). Blondes do it better? A comparative study on the morphometry and life-history traits of commercially important skates blonde ray *Raja brachyura*, thornback ray *Raja clavata*, and spotted ray *Raja montagui*, with management implications. *Fisheries Research*, 263, 106679. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fishres.2023.106679>

Tougaard, J., Hermannsen, L., & Madsen, P.T. (2020). How loud is the underwater noise from operating offshore wind turbines? *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, 148, 2885–2893. <https://doi.org/10.1121/10.0002453>

Walker, P., Howlett, G., & Millner, R. (1997). Distribution, movement and stock structure of three ray species in the North Sea and eastern English Channel. *ICES Journal of Marine Science*, 54, 797–808. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jmsc.1997.0223>