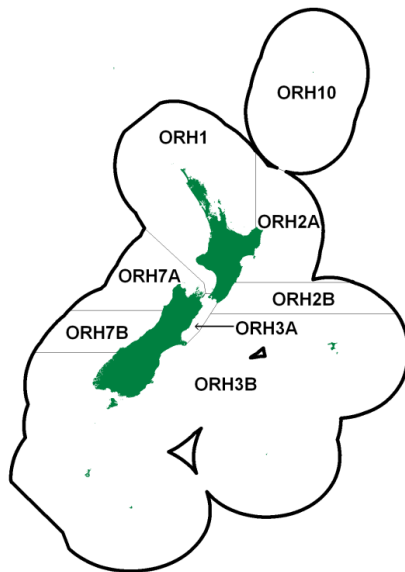


INTRODUCTION – ORANGE ROUGHY (ORH)

(*Hoplostethus atlanticus*)



1

1. INTRODUCTION

Orange roughy was introduced into the Quota Management System (QMS) on 1 October 1986. The main orange roughy fisheries have been treated separately for assessment and management purposes, and individual reports have been produced for each of six areas consisting of one or more stocks as follows.

1. Northern North Island (ORH 1)
 - Mercury-Colville stock
 - Other stocks
2. Cape Runaway to Banks Peninsula (ORH 2A, 2B, & 3A)
 - East Cape stock
 - Mid-East Coast stock
3. Chatham Rise and Puysegur (ORH 3B)
 - Northwest Chatham Rise stock
 - East and South Chatham Rise stock
 - Puysegur stock
 - Other stocks or subareas
4. Challenger Plateau (ORH 7A)
5. West coast South Island (ORH 7B)
6. Outside the EEZ
 - Lord Howe
 - Northwest Challenger
 - North, Central, and Southern Louisville stocks
 - West Norfolk
 - South Tasman

Recent orange roughy stock assessments have been conducted for the Mid-East Coast (2022), East and South Chatham Rise (2020), Northwest Chatham Rise (2018) and Puysegur (2017), Challenger Plateau (2019), and West coast South Island (a preliminary assessment in 2020). These assessments used a generally similar approach, with the preferred method for monitoring stock biomass being acoustic surveys of spawning plumes. The methods common to these assessments are described later in this introduction.

¹ Image: Terry Hann

2. BIOLOGY

Orange roughy inhabit depths between about 700 m and 1500 m within the New Zealand EEZ. They are most abundant between about 800 m and 1200 m. Their maximum depth range is less well known. Knowledge of orange roughy biology and fisheries was most recently reviewed by Tingley & Dunn (2018).

Orange roughy are slow-growing, long-lived fish. On the basis of otolith ring counts and radiometric isotope studies, orange roughy can live to at least 100 years. Age determination from otolith rings has been validated by length-mode analysis for juveniles up to four years of age (Mace et al 1990), and adult ages have been validated using radiometric techniques in several studies, most recently by Andrews et al (2009).

Orange roughy otoliths have a marked transition zone in banding which is believed to be associated with the onset of maturity (Francis & Horn 1997). The estimates of transition-zone maturity range from 23 to 31.5 years for fish from various New Zealand fishing grounds (Horn et al 1998). However, some stock assessment models fitted to age frequency data collected from spawning aggregations have estimated the age of spawning to be older than transition zone maturity. Orange roughy in New Zealand waters reach a maximum size of about 50 cm standard length (SL), and 3.6 kg in weight, but the maximum size varies among assumed stocks. Average size is around 35 cm SL, although there is variation between areas.

Spawning occurs between June and early August in several areas within the New Zealand EEZ, from the northwest coast of the North Island and Bay of Plenty in the north, to the Auckland Islands in the south. Spawning occurs in dense aggregations at depths of 700–1000 m and may be associated with both flat seabeds, and also bottom features such as pinnacles and canyons. Spawning fish are also found outside the EEZ on the Challenger Plateau, Lord Howe Rise, and Norfolk Ridge to the west, and the Louisville Ridge to the east. It is known that not all fish spawn in every year, but understanding of skipped spawning is lacking.

Fecundity is relatively low, with females carrying on average about 40 000–60 000 eggs. The eggs are large (2–3 mm in diameter), are fertilised in the water column, and then drift upwards towards the surface and remain planktonic until they hatch close to the bottom after about 10 days. Details of larval biology are poorly known.

Orange roughy juveniles are first available to bottom trawls at age about 6 months, when they exhibit a mean length of about 2 cm. Early juveniles have been found in relatively large numbers in only one area to date, at a depth of 800–900 m about 150 km east of the main spawning ground on the north Chatham Rise. Larger juveniles are widespread and have been caught by bottom trawls around most of New Zealand (Dunn et al 2009).

Orange roughy also form aggregations outside the spawning period, presumably for feeding. Their main prey species include mesopelagic and benthopelagic prawns, fish, and squid, with other organisms such as mysids, amphipods, and euphausiids occasionally being important.

Intrinsic productivity is categorised as very low for this species. The default value of natural mortality (M) is assumed to be 0.045 yr^{-1} . This was based on otolith age data from a 1984 research survey of the Chatham Rise that used an estimation technique based on mean age. An estimate of 0.037 yr^{-1} was obtained from a lightly fished population in the Bay of Plenty in 1996.

Biological parameters used in the following assessments (Tables 1 and 2) were estimated by Doonan (1994) with modifications of A_r , A_m , S_r , and S_m for the 1998 stock assessment meetings by Francis & Horn (1997), Horn et al (1998), and Doonan et al (1998), and further modifications by Hicks (2006), and for the Mid-East Coast 2022 assessment (Dunn et al 2022).

Biases in reading ages from otoliths were identified, leading to a recommendation by reviewers of orange roughy workshops in October 2005 and February 2006 that no age data should be used in

assessments until the biases were quantified and corrected. Stemming from this recommendation, a new ageing methodology was developed for orange roughy in 2007, associated with an international ageing workshop for this species (Tracey et al 2007, Horn et al 2016). In stock assessments since 2014, age-frequency data were only used if the otoliths had been read using the new ageing protocol. Despite improvements in ageing methodology, substantial unexplained between-sample variability remains in orange roughy age frequencies (Dunn 2024).

The single-sex growth curve, the length-weight parameters, and the maturity ogive based on transition zones, which are all based on ageing using the old-protocol data, are still believed to be valid. The estimates of these biological parameters (Table 1) were used for both the East Chatham Rise and the Northwest Chatham Rise stock assessments, although the otoliths used were collected from the East Chatham Rise only (of which most were from the Spawning Box).

Table 1: Biological parameters used for orange roughy assessments. -, not estimated. Fish length is standard length.

Parameter	Symbol	Male	Female	Both sexes
Natural mortality	M	–	–	0.045 yr ⁻¹
Age of recruitment	$A_r(a_{50})$	–	–	= A_m
Gradual recruitment	$S_r(a_{1095})$	–	–	= S_m
Age at maturity	$A_m(a_{50})$	–	–	Table 2
Gradual maturity	$S_m(a_{1095})$	–	–	Table 2
von Bertalanffy parameters				
- Chatham Rise (default)	L_∞	36.4 cm	38.0 cm	–
- Northwest Chatham Rise	L_∞	–	–	37.78 cm
- East Chatham Rise	L_∞	–	–	37.78 cm
- Mid-East Coast	L_∞	36.8 cm	39.0 cm	37.63 cm
- Challenger Plateau	L_∞	33.4 cm	35.0 cm	–
- All areas (default)	k	0.070 yr ⁻¹	0.061 yr ⁻¹	–
- Northwest Chatham Rise	k	–	–	0.059 yr ⁻¹
- East Chatham Rise	k	–	–	0.059 yr ⁻¹
- Mid-East Coast	k	0.059	0.053	0.065 yr ⁻¹
- All areas (default)	t_0	-0.4 yr	-0.6 yr	–
- East Chatham Rise	t_0	–	–	-0.491 yr
- Northwest Chatham Rise	t_0	–	–	-0.491 yr
- Mid-East Coast	t_0	-0.5 yr	-0.5 yr	-0.5 yr
Length-weight parameters				
- default	a	–	–	0.0921
- East and Northwest Chatham Rise	a	–	–	0.0800
- Mid-East Coast	a	0.064	0.049	–
- default	b	–	–	2.71
- East and Northwest Chatham Rise	b	–	–	2.75
- Mid-East Coast	b	2.81	2.89	–
Recruitment steepness	h	–	–	0.75

Table 2: Estimates of A_m and S_m by area for New Zealand orange roughy from transition zone observations.

Area	A_m			S_m		
	M	F	Both sexes	M	F	Both sexes
Chatham Rise (default)	–	–	29	–	–	3
Northwest Chatham Rise	–	–	28.51	–	–	4.56
East Chatham Rise	–	–	28.51	–	–	4.56
Ritchie Bank	–	–	31.5	–	–	7.11
Challenger Plateau	–	–	23	–	–	3
Puysegur Bank	–	–	27	–	–	3
Bay of Plenty	26	27	–	4	5	–

3. ENVIRONMENTAL AND ECOSYSTEM CONSIDERATIONS

The figures and tables in this section were updated and additional text included for the May 2025 Fishery Assessment Plenary. This summary is from the perspective of the orange roughy, oreo, and cardinalfish trawl fishery; a more detailed summary from an issue-by-issue perspective is available in the Aquatic Environment and Biodiversity Annual Review where the consequences are also discussed ([Aquatic environment and biodiversity annual review \(AEBAR\) | NZ Government \(mpi.govt.nz\)](#)).

3.1 Role in the ecosystem

Orange roughy are the dominant bottom trawl-caught demersal fish at depths of 750–1100 m on the north and east Chatham Rise, off the east coast of the North Island south of about East Cape, and the

Challenger Plateau (Clark et al 2000, Doonan & Dunn 2011, Tracey et al 1990). An analysis of New Zealand demersal fish assemblages using research trawl data showed that orange roughy was the most frequently occurring species (found in more than 40% of tows) in the mid-slope assemblage (Francis et al 2002). Fishing has reduced the abundance of orange roughy since the 1980s, and the effects of removing, for example, an average of about 18 000 t per year from ORH 3B between 1979–80 and 2009–10 are largely unknown. There are likely to have been ecosystem implications (Tracey et al 2012).

3.1.1 Trophic interactions

The main prey species of orange roughy include mesopelagic and benthopelagic prawns, fish, and squid, with other organisms such as mysids, amphipods, and euphausiids occasionally being important (Rosecchi et al 1988). Koslow (1997) showed that orange roughy have a faster metabolism than deepwater fishes that are typically dispersed over the flat seafloor, and their food consumption is higher. Ontogenetic shifts occur in their feeding preferences with the smaller fish (up to 20 cm) feeding on crustaceans, and larger fish (31 cm and above) feeding on teleosts and cephalopods (Stevens et al 2011). Relative proportions of the three prey groups were similar between areas. Bulman & Koslow (1992) found that teleosts were more important than crustaceans by weight in the prey of Australian orange roughy, and that this dominance increased in adult-sized fish. Dunn & Forman (2011) inferred from diet analysis that juveniles feed more on the benthos compared with the benthopelagic foraging of adults. Where they co-occur, orange roughy and black oreo may compete for teleost and crustacean prey.

Predators of orange roughy are likely to change with fish size. Larger smooth oreo, black oreo, and orange roughy were observed with healed soft flesh wounds, typically in the dorso-posterior region. Wound shape and size suggest they may be caused by one of the deepwater dogfishes (Dunn et al 2010). Giant squid and sperm whales are also thought to prey on orange roughy but evidence is scarce, e.g., a summary of diet in *Architeuthis sanctipauli* lists *Hoplostethus atlanticus* as a prey item but the data source is unclear (Jereb & Roper 2010); and four individual *Hoplostethus* sp. were reported in the stomach of one of ten sperm whales (about 1% of the prey; Gaskin & Cawthorn 1967).

3.1.2 Ecosystem indicators

Tuck et al (2009, 2014) used data from the Sub-Antarctic and Chatham Rise middle-depth trawl surveys to derive indicators of fish diversity, size, and trophic level. However, fishing for orange roughy occurs mostly deeper than the depth range of these surveys and is only a small component of fishing in the areas considered by Tuck et al (2009, 2014).

3.2 Non-target fish and invertebrate catch

Anderson & Finucci (2022) summarised the bycatch of orange roughy and oreo trawl fisheries from 2002–03 to 2019–20. Total non-target catch in the orange roughy fishery ranged from a low of 535 t in 2012–13 to a high of 4834 t in 2003–04. Levels dropped sharply for a few years after 2009–10, then increased thereafter, but with a declining trend overall. Total non-target catch was strongly correlated with effort, with effort also having generally decreased over time. During the period 2015–16 to 2019–2020, orange roughy accounted for approximately 80% of the total observed catch and the remainder comprised mainly smooth oreo (4.8%), rattails (1.7%), shovelnose dogfish (1.3%), and ribaldo (1.0%). More than 700 species or species groups were recorded by observers, including various deepwater dogfishes (2%), morid cods (1%), rattails (<1%), and slickheads (0.5%). Total estimated annual discards of non-target QMS species were very low, ranging from only 1 t in 2007–08 to 46 t in 2015–16, while discards of non-QMS species ranged from 108 t in 2013–14 to 1504 t in 2017–18; both showed no obvious trend over time.

Invertebrate species are caught in low numbers in the orange roughy fishery (Anderson & Finucci 2022) with squid (0.3%; mostly warty squid, *Onykia* spp., 0.22%) being the largest component of invertebrate catch followed by various echinoderms (0.3%) and cnidarians (0.2%). Tracey et al (2011) analysed the distribution of nine groups of protected corals based on bycatch records from observed trawl effort from 2007–08 to 2009–10, primarily from 800–1000 m depth. For the orange roughy target fishery, about 10% of observed tows in FMAs 4 and 6 included coral bycatch, but a higher proportion of tows in northern waters included coral (28% in FMA 1, 53% in FMA 9; Tracey et al 2011).

Finucci et al (2019) analysed bycatch trends in deepwater fisheries, including orange roughy trawl, from 1990–91 until 2016–17. They found that the most common bycatch species by weight (t) were smooth oreo (*Pseudocyttus maculatus*, SSO), black oreo (*Allocyttus niger*, BOE), and unspecified sharks (SHA). Moreover, among the 557 bycatch species examined, 94 showed a decrease in catch over time (29 were statistically significant) and 62 showed an increase (14 were significant). The species showing the greatest decline were dark ghost shark (*Hydrolagus novaezealandiae*, GSH), black oreo (BOE), and lanternshark (*Etmopterus* sp., ETM), while the greatest increases were found for longnose velvet dogfish (*Centroscymnus crepidater*, CYP), Portuguese dogfish (*Centroscymnus coelolepis*, CYL), and Owston’s dogfish (*Centroscymnus owstonii*, CYO).

3.3 Incidental capture of protected species (seabirds, mammals, and protected fish)

For protected species, capture estimates presented here include all animals recovered to the deck (alive, injured or dead) of fishing vessels but do not include any cryptic mortality (e.g., seabirds struck by a warp but not brought on board the vessel, Middleton & Abraham 2007, Brothers et al 2010).

3.3.1 Marine mammal captures

Trawlers targeting orange roughy, oreo, and black cardinalfish occasionally catch New Zealand fur seal (which were classified as “Not Threatened” under the New Zealand Threat Classification System in 2010, Baker et al 2016; Baker et al 2019). Between 2002–03 and 2007–08, there were 15 observed captures of New Zealand fur seal in orange roughy, oreo, and black cardinalfish trawl fisheries. There have been two observed captures in the period between 2008–09 and 2019–20, during which time the average level of annual observer coverage was 26.2% (Table 3). Corresponding mean annual estimated captures in this period ranged 0–3 (mean 1.25) based on statistical capture models (Thompson et al 2013; Abraham et al 2016). All observed fur seal captures occurred in the Sub-Antarctic region.

Table 3: Number of tows by fishing year and observed and estimated New Zealand fur seal captures in orange roughy, oreo, and cardinalfish trawl fisheries. No. obs, number of observed tows; % obs, percentage of tows observed; Rate, number of captures per 100 observed tows. Estimates are based on methods described by Abraham & Richard (2020) and are available online at <https://protectedspeciescaptures.nz/PSCv9/released/>.

Fishing year	Fishing effort			Observed captures		Estimated captures	
	Tows	Observed tows	% observed	Number	Rate	Mean	95% c.i.
2002–03	8 870	1 380	15.6	0	0.00	6	1–13
2003–04	8 008	1 262	15.8	2	0.16	8	3–17
2004–05	8 424	1 618	19.2	4	0.25	10	5–18
2005–06	8 291	1 357	16.4	2	0.15	8	3–16
2006–07	7 369	2 322	31.5	2	0.09	4	2–9
2007–08	6 730	2 811	41.8	5	0.18	7	5–11
2008–09	6 133	2 372	38.7	0	0.00	4	0–9
2009–10	6 013	2 136	35.5	0	0.00	4	0–9
2010–11	4 177	1 205	28.8	0	0.00	2	0–7
2011–12	3 655	922	25.2	0	0.00	1	0–4
2012–13	3 099	346	11.2	0	0.00	1	0–3
2013–14	3 606	434	12.0	0	0.00	1	0–3
2014–15	3 812	978	25.7	1	0.10	1	1–3
2015–16	4 083	1 421	34.8	0	0.00	1	0–3
2016–17	3 971	1 226	30.9	0	0.00	0	0–2
2017–18	3 752	903	24.1	0	0.00	0	0–2
2018–19	3 906	1 189	30.4	1	0.08	1	1–3
2019–20	3 944	1 171	29.7	0	0.00	0	0–3
2020–21	4 072	1 322	32.5	0	0.00	0	0–2
2021–22	3 527	1 273	36.1	0	0.00	0	0–2
2022–23	3 316	1 326	40.0	0	0.00	0	0–2

3.3.2 Seabird captures

Annual observed seabird capture rates in the orange roughy, oreo and cardinalfish trawl fisheries have ranged from 0 to 1.02 per 100 tows between 2002–03 and 2022–23 (Table 4). The average observed capture rate in deepwater trawl fisheries (including orange roughy, oreo, and cardinalfish) for the period from 2002–03 to 2022–23 is about 0.41 birds per 100 tows, a very low rate relative to other New Zealand trawl fisheries, e.g., for scampi (3.8 birds per 100 tows) and squid (12 birds per 100 tows) over the same years.

Table 4: Number of tows by fishing year and observed and estimated seabird captures in orange roughy, oreo, and cardinalfish trawl fisheries. No. obs, number of observed tows; % obs, percentage of tows observed; Rate, number of captures per 100 observed tows. Estimates are based on methods described by Abraham & Richard (2020) and are available online at <https://protectedspeciescaptures.nz/PSCv9/released/>.

Fishing year	Fishing effort			Observed captures		Estimated captures	
	Tows	Observed tows	% observed	Number	Rate	Mean	95% c.i.
2002–03	8 870	1 380	15.6	0	0.00	38	22–57
2003–04	8 008	1 262	15.8	3	0.24	37	22–54
2004–05	8 424	1 618	19.2	7	0.43	39	25–56
2005–06	8 291	1 357	16.4	8	0.59	40	26–56
2006–07	7 369	2 322	31.5	1	0.04	24	13–38
2007–08	6 730	2 811	41.8	7	0.25	28	17–42
2008–09	6 133	2 372	38.7	7	0.30	25	15–38
2009–10	6 013	2 136	35.5	19	0.89	37	27–51
2010–11	4 177	1 205	28.8	1	0.08	16	7–28
2011–12	3 655	922	25.2	2	0.22	17	8–29
2012–13	3 099	346	11.2	2	0.58	16	7–28
2013–14	3 606	434	12.0	2	0.46	20	10–34
2014–15	3 812	978	25.7	0	0.00	16	7–29
2015–16	4 083	1 421	34.8	4	0.28	17	9–29
2016–17	3 971	1 226	30.9	2	0.16	16	8–28
2017–18	3 752	903	24.1	4	0.44	18	9–29
2018–19	3 906	1 189	30.4	11	0.93	24	16–35
2019–20	3 944	1 171	29.7	5	0.43	18	10–28
2020–21	4 072	1 322	32.5	10	0.76	23	15–34
2021–22	3 527	1 273	36.1	13	1.02	23	17–33
2022–23	3 316	1 326	40.0	6	0.45	15	9–24

Salvin's albatross was the most frequently captured albatross (38% of observed albatross captures), but eight different albatross species have been observed captured since 2002–03. Cape petrels were the most frequently captured other taxon (29% of observed captures of taxa other than albatross, Table 5). Seabird captures in the orange roughy, oreo, and cardinalfish fisheries have been observed mostly around the Chatham Rise and off the east coast South Island. These numbers should be regarded as only a general guide on the distribution of captures because the observer coverage is not uniform across areas and may not be representative.

Table 5: Number of tows by fishing year and observed and estimated New Zealand seabird captures in orange roughy, oreo, and cardinalfish trawl fisheries. No. obs, number of observed tows; % obs, percentage of tows observed; Rate, number of captures per 100 observed tows. Estimates are based on methods described by Abraham & Richard (2020) and are available online at <https://protectedspeciescaptures.nz/PSCv9/released/>.

Species	Risk Category	Chatham Rise	East coast South Island	Fiordland	Sub-Antarctic	Stewart-Snares shelf	West coast South Island	West coast North Island	Total
Salvin's albatross	High	17	6	0	3	0	0	0	26
Southern Buller's albatross	Very high	3	0	2	0	0	0	0	5
Chatham Island albatross	Medium	11	0	0	1	0	0	0	12
New Zealand white-capped albatross	High	6	0	0	0	0	2	0	8
Gibson's albatross	Medium	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Antipodean albatross	Medium	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Northern royal albatross	Low	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Southern royal albatross	Low	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	3
Black-browed albatross	NA	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Albatrosses	NA	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Total albatrosses	NA	43	7	2	5	0	3	0	60
Northern giant petrel	Low	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	4
White-chinned petrel	Low	4	2	0	0	0	0	0	6
Grey petrel	Negligible	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	3
Sooty shearwater	Negligible	5	3	0	0	0	1	0	9
Common diving petrel	Negligible	3	0	6	0	0	0	0	9
White-faced storm petrels	Negligible	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
Cape petrel	NA	6	1	0	0	0	0	0	7
Petrels, prions, and shearwaters	NA	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Double-banded plover	NA	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
Fairy prion	Negligible	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Grey-backed storm petrel	NA	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Short-tailed shearwater	NA	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Snares Cape petrel	Low	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Southern giant petrel	NA	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Total other birds	NA	32	7	6	3	1	4	1	54

The deepwater trawl fisheries (including the orange roughy target fishery) contribute to the total risk posed by New Zealand commercial fishing to seabirds (see Table 6). The two species to which the

fishery poses the most risk are Chatham Island albatross and Southern royal albatross, with this suite of fisheries posing 0.09 and 0.01 of risk (Table 6). Chatham Island albatross is assessed as at medium risk and Southern royal albatross as at low risk (Edwards et al 2023).

Mitigation methods such as streamer (tori) lines, Brady bird bafflers, warp deflectors, and offal management are used in the orange roughy, oreo, and cardinalfish trawl fisheries. Warp mitigation was voluntarily introduced from about 2004 and made mandatory in April 2006 (Department of Internal Affairs 2006). The 2006 notice mandated that all trawlers over 28 m in length use a seabird scaring device while trawling (being “paired streamer lines”, “bird baffle”, or “warp deflector” as defined in the notice).

Table 6: Risk ratio of seabirds predicted by the SEFRA for the deepwater trawl fishery and all fisheries included in the SEFRA, 2006–07 to 2019–20, with a risk posed by the domestic tuna and swordfish SLL fishery. The risk ratio is an estimate of aggregate potential fatalities across trawl and longline fisheries relative to the Population Sustainability Threshold, PST (an analogue of the PBR approach) (Edwards et al 2023). The current version of the risk assessment does not include a recovery factor. The New Zealand threat classifications are shown (Robertson et al 2021).

Species name	Risk ratio			Risk category	NZ Threat Classification
	Deepwater trawl	Total risk from NZ commercial fishing	% of total risk from NZ commercial fishing		
Salvin's albatross	0.01	0.69	1.3	High	Threatened: Nationally Critical
Chatham Island albatross	0.09	0.27	34.0	Medium	At Risk: Naturally Uncommon
Northern Buller's albatross	<0.01	0.19	1.3	Medium	At Risk: Naturally Uncommon
Southern royal albatross	0.01	0.08	9.1	Low	Threatened: Nationally Vulnerable

3.3.3 Protected fish species captures

Deepwater trawling for orange roughy and oreo typically exceeds the depth at which protected fish species are usually found. Fisheries-reported records include the capture of a basking shark (*Cetorhinus maximus*) in 2019, a species classified as “Endangered” by IUCN in 2013 and as “Threatened – Nationally Vulnerable” in 2016, under the New Zealand Threat Classification System (Duffy et al 2018). Basking shark has been a protected species in New Zealand since 2010, under the Wildlife Act 1953, and is also listed in Appendix II of the CITES convention. However, basking sharks have been occasionally confused with bluntnose sixgill shark (*Hexanchus griseus*), a “Not Threatened” species according to the DOC latest assessment (Duffy et al 2018).

An observer-reported capture includes the smalltooth sandtiger shark (deepwater nurse shark) *Odontaspis ferox* in 2012, classified as “Critically Endangered” by the IUCN Red List and “At Risk-Naturally Uncommon” under the New Zealand Threat Classification System (Duffy et al 2018).

Protected coral species are reported caught in orange roughy fisheries (McGovern and Hewettson 2025). The main coral taxa reported are stony corals including *Goniocorella dumosa* (Anderson and Finnuci 2022) with 8831 kg observed caught between 2015 and 2022.

3.4 Benthic interactions

The spatial extent of seabed contact by trawl fishing gear in New Zealand’s EEZ and Territorial Sea has been estimated and mapped in numerous studies for trawl fisheries targeting deepwater species (Baird et al 2011, Black et al 2013, Black & Tilney 2015, Black & Tilney 2017, Baird & Wood 2018, and Baird & Mules 2019, 2021a, 2021b), species in waters shallower than 250 m (Baird et al 2015, Baird & Mules 2020a), and all trawl fisheries combined (Baird & Mules 2021a, 2021b, MacGibbon et al 2024). The most recent estimates of the deepwater trawl footprint was for the period 1989–90 to 2023–24 and was completed using a combination of fisher reported and Geospatial Position Reporting (GPR) data by MPI.

Orange roughy, oreo, and cardinalfish are taken using bottom trawls and accounted for about 18% of all tows reported that fished on or close to the bottom between 1989–90 and 2023–24. From 1989–90 to 2023–24, about 148 000 orange roughy bottom trawls were reported on TCEPRs and ERS: with between 5000 and at least 8000 tows reported most years up to 1999–2000; 3000–4500 annual tows between 2000–01 and 2009–10; and 1300–3100 tows a year during 2010–11 to 2023–24. The total

footprint generated from these tows was estimated at about 46 825 km². This footprint represented coverage of 1% of the seafloor of the combined EEZ and the Territorial Sea areas and 3% of the ‘fishable area’, that is, the seafloor area open to trawling, in depths of less than 1600 m. For the 2023-24 fishing year, 1351 orange roughy bottom tows had an estimated footprint of 2468 km² which represented coverage of < 0.1% of the EEZ and Territorial Sea and 0.2% of the fishable area.

The overall trawl footprint for orange roughy (1989–90 to 2020–21) covered 12% of the seafloor in 800–1000 m, 9% of 1000–1200 m seafloor, and 3% of the 1200–1600 m seafloor (MacGibbon & Mules 2023). In 2023–24, the orange roughy footprint contacted 0.9%, 0.6%, and < 0.1% of those depth ranges, respectively. Deepsea corals in the New Zealand region are diverse and, because of their fragility, are at risk from anthropogenic activities such as bottom trawling (Clark & O’Driscoll 2003, Clark & Rowden 2009, Williams et al 2010). All deepwater hard corals are protected under Schedule 7A of the Wildlife Act 1953. Baird et al (2013) mapped the likely coral distributions using predictive models and concluded that the fisheries that pose the most risk to protected corals are these deepwater trawl fisheries.

Trawling for orange roughy, like trawling for other species, is likely to have effects on benthic community structure and function (e.g., Rice 2006) and there may be consequences for benthic productivity (e.g., Jennings et al 2001, Hermesen et al 2003, Hiddink et al 2006, Reiss et al 2009). These consequences are not considered in detail here but are discussed in the Aquatic Environment and Biodiversity Annual Review 2021 (Fisheries New Zealand 2021).

The New Zealand EEZ contains Benthic Protection Areas (BPAs) and seamount closures that are closed to bottom trawl fishing for the protection of benthic biodiversity. These combined areas include 28% of underwater topographic features (including seamounts), 52% of all seamounts over 1000 m elevation, and 88% of identified hydrothermal vents. A significant proportion of BPAs is deeper than 1500m.

3.5 Other considerations

Fishing during spawning may disrupt spawning activity or success. There is no research on the disruption of spawning orange roughy by fishing in New Zealand.

Some orange roughy spawning aggregations were historically abundant but depleted by fishing, predominantly during the 1980s and 1990s, and no longer seem to occur. This includes the large aggregations on Strawberry Mountain in the Mid-East Coast stock, and on Central Flats in the Challenger stock. On Chatham Rise, the main spawning aggregation no longer occurs at the Old Spawning Plume but at Rekohu, and spawning aggregations occur on the Morgue Hill but no longer the Graveyard Hill. The relationship between different spawning aggregations within the same assumed stock, and the implications of the loss of spawning aggregations for orange roughy and the wider ecosystem, is unknown.

3.5.2 Genetic effects

Fishing, environmental changes, including those caused by climate change or pollution, could alter the genetic composition or diversity of a species. There are no known studies of the genetic diversity of orange roughy from New Zealand. Genetic studies for stock discrimination are reported under “stocks and areas”.

3.5.3 Habitat of particular significance to fisheries management

Fisheries New Zealand have developed guidelines on the identification of habitats of particular significance for fisheries management ([Habitats of particular significance for fisheries management | NZ Government](#)), and is in the process of reviewing available evidence for the development of an online register of habitats. Mace et al (1990) identified only one area of high abundance for juvenile orange roughy at 800–900 m depth about 150 km east of the main spawning ground on the north Chatham Rise. Orange roughy from 9 cm SL have also been located on the Challenger Plateau and O’Driscoll et al (2003) show other areas where immature fish are relatively common. Dunn et al (2009) showed that orange roughy juveniles are generally found close to the seabed, and in shallower water than the adults, starting off at depths of around 850–900 m and spreading deeper, and over a wider depth range, as they

grow. Dunn & Forman (2011) also suggested that juveniles start on flat grounds shallower than the adults, that they shift deeper as they grow, and that seamounts and other features tend to be dominated by the largest orange roughy. It is not known if there are any direct linkages between the congregation of orange roughy around features and the corals found on those features. Bottom trawling for orange roughy has the potential to affect features of the habitat that could qualify as habitat of particular significance to fisheries management.

4. RECENT STOCK ASSESSMENTS

In this section, methods and assumptions common to stock assessments since 2014 are described.

4.1 Data quality and model structure

A high-quality threshold imposed on data before they were used in an assessment resulted in the exclusion of biomass estimates that had previously been used. In particular, CPUE indices were not used in any of the assessments because, despite often pronounced trends, they were considered unlikely to be monitoring stock-wide abundance although they may provide information on local abundance trends. Estimates of biomass from egg surveys were not used as assumptions of the survey design were not met, and/or there were major difficulties in analysing the survey data. Acoustic-survey estimates of biomass were only used when mainly single-species aggregations were surveyed with suitable equipment. Estimates of spawning orange roughy biomass were accepted for plumes on the flat surveyed using hull-mounted transducers or towed systems. On underwater features, estimates were accepted when the shadow zone estimate was no more than about 10% of the total estimate. For hull-mounted transducers, this requires that the plumes are high in the water column or near the top of the feature (and not on the side of the feature where shadow zone corrections are often large).

Models either estimate maturity within the model from age frequencies of spawning fish, or assume a maturity ogive estimated from otolith transition zones. The ogive used to define Spawning Stock Biomass (*SSB*) is explicitly a *spawning* ogive, and the *SSB* is not necessarily the same as mature biomass (see Dunn et al 2008 for a review of the non-spawning proportion).

The recent assessment models now include more age data using a more reliable ageing methodology (Tracey et al 2007, Horn et al 2016).

4.2 Acoustic q priors

The major sources of recent abundance information in the models are from acoustic surveys of spawning biomass. For each survey, the spawning biomass estimate was included in the appropriate assessment as an estimate of *relative* spawning biomass rather than *absolute* spawning biomass. The reason that the estimates are not used as absolute estimates of biomass (i.e., $q = 1$) is because there are two major potential sources of bias: (i) the estimates may be biased low or high because the estimate of orange roughy target strength is incorrect, and (ii) the survey is unlikely to have covered all of the spawning stock biomass. The unknown proportionality constant, or q , for each survey was estimated in the model using an informed prior for each q . Each prior was constructed from two components: orange roughy target strength and availability to the survey.

The target strength (TS) prior was derived from the estimates of Macaulay et al (2013) and Kloser et al (2013) who both obtained TS estimates (at 38 kHz) from visually verified orange roughy as they were herded by a trawl net (the “AOS” was mounted on the head of the net and acoustic echoes and stereo photos were obtained simultaneously). Macaulay et al (2013) estimated a TS (for 33.9 cm fish) of -52.0 dB with a 95% CI of -53.3 to -50.9 dB; Kloser et al (2013) gave a point estimate of -51.1 dB and gave a range, that allowed for the artificial tilt angles of the herded fish, from -52.2 to -50.7 dB. The prior was taken to be normal with a mean of -52.0 dB with 99% of the distribution covered by ± 1.5 dB (which covers both ranges). This results in a tight distribution for informed acoustic q priors, reflecting a high confidence in the target strength estimates.

For surveys that covered ‘most’ of the spawning stock biomass (e.g., ESCR where in some years surveys

covered the Old plume², the Rekohu plume, and the “Crack”), availability was modelled with a Beta(8,2) distribution (this has a mean of 0.8 – i.e., it is assumed *a priori* that 80% of the spawning stock biomass is being indexed; this was based upon acoustic biomass estimates available from the northeast Chatham Rise in the early 2000s; see Table 15 in the East & South Chatham Rise assessment chapter, Ministry of Fisheries 2008). The acoustic q prior is the combination of the availability and TS priors (assuming they are independent), and was approximately normal with a mean of 0.8 and a CV of 19%.

5. FUTURE RESEARCH CONSIDERATIONS

The research considerations below are generic to all or most of the orange roughy assessments.

- Continue to improve methods to reduce contamination by swim-bladder species when using current AOS technology to estimate orange roughy acoustic biomass, and determine the potential magnitude of possible errors.
- Greater detail is needed on the performance of tows or transects from surveys, especially when there are issues with them. Such detail should be included in the comment field and will enable analysts to determine how or whether to include them in models.
- Provide a more detailed protocol for otolith collections in surveys to ensure sufficient otoliths are collected. For example, it may be useful to oversample in case insufficient samples are collected subsequently.
- Re-examine the $M=0.045$ and $h=0.75$ assumptions for each orange roughy assessment.
- Review the appropriateness of assuming a 5% catch overrun for current and recent years.
- Adequate age information is needed for all stocks from both surveys and from commercial fisheries. Review available data and explore the potential for improvement in sampling through both observer sampling and industry based sampling.
- Locate data on Enterprise Allocation (the system used to award quota for deepwater species in the 3 years prior to the full introduction of the QMS – a precursor to the QMS) catches and limits for 1983–86 and include these in Plenary catch tables and graphs, as well as in stock assessments.
- Review the Management Strategy Evaluation and the resulting Harvest Control Rule, along with their application, in a technical Working Group to ensure that the approach still represents best practice.
- Re-evaluate stock structure assumptions as new data become available, potentially making use of relevant novel techniques (genetics, tagging, otolith microchemistry).
- Further investigate the relationship between maturity and spawning, and the potential for age-dependent skipped spawning.
- Review the appropriateness of the allowance for spawning in other locations made in the interpretation of acoustic survey data (i.e., $q = 0.8$) for all stocks.
- Review available data to explore the disturbance effects on spawning plumes, and the impact this may have on acoustic surveys.

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²For clarity, what was previously described as the ‘Spawning plume’ located in the Spawning Box has been renamed the ‘Old-plume’ so as to differentiate it from the Rekohu plume, which is also a spawning plume in the Spawning Box.

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